

“विकासको लागि योजना”

# विकास

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अध्यक्ष  
पुरुषोत्तम घिमिरे

सदस्यहरू  
पुष्पलाल शाक्य  
गोपीनाथ मैनाली  
सागर आचार्य

सदस्य-सचिव  
नारायण तिमिल्सिना

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राष्ट्रिय योजना आयोगको  
सचिवालय  
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नेपालमा पूर्वाधार विकास : उपलब्धि, संभावना र चुनौती

गोपीनाथ मैनाली

औद्योगिक वातावरणको सिर्जनामा नयाँ औद्योगिक नीतिको भूमिका

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## सम्पादकीय

“विकास” योजना र विकास सम्बन्धी खोजमूलक र प्राज्ञिक सामग्रीहरूको आवधिक प्रकाशन हो । नेपालमा योजनावद्ध विकासको सन्दर्भमा देखिएका सैद्धान्तिक तथा व्यावहारिक सवाललाई सम्बोधन गर्ने र प्राज्ञिक खुराक पूरा गर्ने सन्दर्भमा विकासको आफ्नै महत्व र योगदान रही आएको छ ।

वेराजगारी, गरिवी तथा असमानता नेपालको विकास प्रयासमा प्रमुख समस्या छन् भने आवधिक योजनाले यी समस्यालाई संबोधन गर्ने रणनीति र प्राथमिकताहरू निर्धारण गर्दै आएको छ । दिगो विकास र आर्थिक संभावनाहरूको खोजीको लागि गैरसरकारी पात्रहरू संगको सहकार्य पनि त्यतिकै आवश्यक भएकोले विकास बहुपात्र प्रणालीको उपयोग, साभेदारी र सहकार्यको अवधारणा अवलम्बन गरिएको छ । तर पनि विकास प्रयासका उपलब्धीमा सन्तोष लिन सक्ने स्थिती देखिएको छैन । यसले सुधारको कार्यसूचीलाई निरन्तरता दिनुपर्ने तर्फ समेत गरिएको छ ।

विकासको प्रस्तुत अंकमा पनि योजना र विकासका सवालहरूको सम्बोधन गर्ने लेख रचनाहरूलाई स्थान दिएको छ । हाम्रो आग्रहलाई स्वीकार गरी आफ्ना अमूल्य लेख रचना मार्फत सहयोग पुऱ्याउनु हुने विद्वान लेखकहरू प्रति सम्पादन मण्डल हार्दिक कृतज्ञता दिन चाहन्छ । साथै अगामी दिनमा “विकास” लाई स्तरीय बनाउन यहाँको सुझाव तथा सहयोगको अपेक्षा गर्दछ ।

महान चाड विजयादशमी, २०६८ को हार्दिक शुभकामना छ ।

असोज, २०६८

सम्पादक मण्डल

## नेपालमा पूर्वाधार विकास : उपलब्धि, संभावना र चुनौती

गोपीनाथ मैनाली\*

### विषय प्रवेश

पूर्वाधार कुनै पनि सङ्गठन, प्रणाली वा मुलुक सञ्चालनका लागि आवश्यक हुने पूर्वशर्तहरू हुन् । समाज वा उद्यम सञ्चालनका लागि आवश्यक हुने भौतिक तथा साङ्गठनिक आधारशिला र संरचनाहरू नै पूर्वाधार हुन् । यसलाई अर्थतन्त्र क्रियाशील बनाउनका लागि आवश्यक हुने सेवा र सुविधा (Service & Facilities) का रूपमा पनि लिने गरिन्छ । सर्वसाधारणका बुझाइमा पूर्वाधार अन्तर्गत सडक, खानेपानी आपूर्ति, ढल निकास तथा सरसफाई सेवा, दूरसंचार, विद्युत लाइनलाई लिने गरिन्छ । प्राविधिक रूपमा पूर्वाधार सेवालाई विकास निर्माणका लागि आवश्यक हुने प्रारम्भिक संरचनाका रूपमा लिइन्छ, भने कार्यात्मक रूपमा यसअन्तर्गत सेवा तथा वस्तु उत्पादनमार्फत आर्थिक, सामाजिक गतिशीलता प्रवर्द्धनका लागि आवश्यक हुने संरचनागत आधार हुन् । पूर्वाधारका आधारबाट नै स्थानीय स्रोत तथा संभावनाको उपयोग, बाह्य संभावनाको दोहन र विकासलाई दिगो बनाउन सकिन्छ । कतिपयले पूर्वाधारलाई सार्वजनिक निर्माणको प्रणाली (System of public work) वा कार्य प्रारूपण (skeleton) पनि भन्ने गरेका छन् ।

नेपालमा वि.स. २०६३ भन्दा अघि पूर्वाधारका विषयमा आधिकारिक परिभाषा र व्याख्या भएको पाइदैन । सैद्धान्तिक आधारलाई पूर्वाधारका रूपमा व्यवहार गरिएको देखिन्छ । जनआन्दोलन भाग २ पछि पूर्वाधार संरचना विकासमा निजीक्षेत्रको संभावना उपयोगका लागि निजीक्षेत्र परिचालन गर्न पूर्वाधार संरचनाको निर्माण तथा सञ्चालनमा निजी लगानी सम्बन्धी ऐन, २०६३ तर्जुमा गरियो । यसले गरेको परिभाषा नै नेपालको आधिकारिक परिभाषा मान्नुपर्ने हुन्छ । यसले पूर्वाधार भन्नाले सडक, सुरुङमार्ग, पुल, अस्पताल, नहर, विद्युत उत्पादन गृह, विद्युत प्रसारण लाइन, केवलकार लाइन, रेल्वे लाइन, टूलीवस संरचना, ट्रामवे, सुख्खा बन्दरगाह, परिवहन विसौनी स्थल, विमानस्थल, प्रदर्शनी स्थल, पार्क, जलाशय, बाँध, ढल निकास, फोरमैला प्रशोधन तथा व्यवस्थापन प्लाण्ट, ऊर्जा उत्पादन तथा वितरण, रंगशाला, सार्वजनिक सभागृह, बहुआवाशीय भवन, गोदाम घर र यस्तै प्रकृतिका पूर्वाधार संरचना भनी विस्तृत परिभाषा गरेको छ ।

पूर्वाधारलाई सामान्यतः दुई भागमा वर्गीकरण गर्न सकिन्छ (१) भौतिक पूर्वाधार (Hard infrastructure) र (२) अभौतिक पूर्वाधार (Soft infrastructure) । पहिलो प्रकारमा यातायात, ऊर्जा, पानी तथा ढल व्यवस्था, फोहोरमैला व्यवस्थापन, भौगर्भिक अनुगमन (Earth monitoring & management network), भवन र सञ्चार प्रणाली पर्दछन् भने अभौतिक/नरम पूर्वाधार अन्तर्गत संस्थागत वा सामाजिक मनोरञ्जनात्मक पक्षहरू, शिक्षा-संस्कृति र नीति वातावरण पर्दछन् र तर सामान्य बुझाइमा भौतिक पूर्वाधारलाई नै पूर्वाधारका रूपमा लिइने भएकोले यस लेख भौतिक पूर्वाधारका विषयगत मात्र केन्द्रित छ । चाहे जेहोस भौतिक तथा सामाजिक पूर्वाधारले अत्यावश्यकैय नागरिक सेवा प्रवाह र आर्थिक सामाजिक गतिशीलता प्रवर्द्धन गर्न पूर्वसंरचनाका रूपमा कार्य गर्दछन् ।

सवैजसो विकसित मुलुकहरूले विकासको शुरूको चरणमा पूर्वाधारका विकासलाई पहिलो प्राथमिकता क्षेत्रका रूपमा प्रशस्त लगानी गरेकाले नै अहिलेको अवस्थामा पुगेका हुन् । रोष्टोको आर्थिक विकासको सैद्धान्तिक मोडेल अनुसार विकासको टेक अफ चरण (उठ्न सक्ने अवस्था) का लागि पूर्वाधारको विस्तार पहिलो शर्त हो । कोरियाको पार्क चुङ हि र सिङ्गापुरको ली क्वान यू को व्यावहारिक मोडेल किन नहोस, विकासको शैसवस्थालाई उठ्न सक्ने (टेकअफ) चरणमा पुऱ्याउने काम पूर्वाधार संरचना विस्तारमा

\* श्री मैनाली राष्ट्रिय योजना आयोगको सचिवालयमा सहसचिव हुनुहुन्छ ।

गरिएको लगानीले नै संभव तुल्याएको थियो । पूर्वाधार संरचना विस्तारविना व्यापक विकासको संभावना नै देखिदैन । बोल्सेभिक क्रान्तिपछिको सोभियत संघको योजनाहरू विकासको मोडेल अर्को अर्थमा पूर्वाधार संरचना विस्तारको मोडेल थियो । सत्तरीको दशकपछि देङको नेतृत्वमा चीनले अघि सारेको आर्थिक विकासको ढाँचामा पनि पूर्वाधार विस्तारलाई प्रमुख प्राथमिकता दिइएको पाइन्छ । त्यसो त यूरोपले औद्योगिक क्रान्ति पूर्व नै यातायात तथा आपूर्ति संरचनामा गरेको व्यापक लगानीले यूरोपलाई आजको स्थानमा पुऱ्याएको हो । विकसित मुलुकको विकासको रणनीति पूर्वाधारमा व्यापक लगानी गर्नेतर्फ केन्द्रित भएको पाइन्छ भने उदयमान अर्थतन्त्र भएका पूर्वी एशियाली मुलुकहरू पनि पूर्वाधार संरचनाको व्यवस्थापनमा रणनीतिक रूपमा लागि परेका छन् ।

पूर्वाधार संरचनामा विस्तार आफैमा विकास होइन, यसले विकासलाई आधार दिने, सहयोग र सहजीकरण गर्ने वातावरण मात्र बनाउँदछ । विकासले मानव आवश्यकता पूरा गर्न संभावना र स्रोतहरूको उपयोग गराउने काम गर्दछ, विकास भन्नु मानव चाहना र आवश्यकताको दिगो पूर्ति हो । पूर्वाधार संरचना मानव आवश्यकता पूरा गर्ने आधार वा सहजीकरणका माध्यम मात्र हुन । पूर्वाधार विकासको महत्वपूर्ण सूचक पनि हो । कुनैपनि मुलुकमा निर्मित पूर्वाधार संरचना र त्यसको गुणस्तरले विकासको स्तरको मापन र द्योतन गर्दछ । न्यूनस्तरको पूर्वाधारले जीवन प्रणालीको न्यूनगुणस्तर र बढी जोखिमको प्रतिनिधित्व गर्दछ । पूर्वाधारको अपेक्षित विकासले कुनैपनि समाजको आर्थिक-सामाजिक गतिशीलता, आवश्यक सेवा आपूर्ति मार्फत गरिबी न्यूनीकरण र समग्र मानव विकास संभव तुल्याउँछ । त्यसैले पनि विकासको प्रारम्भमा रहेका मुलुकहरू पूर्वाधार संरचनामा व्यापक लगानी गर्नुपर्ने माग र चुनौती खेपिरहेका छन् । तर लगानी मात्र पूर्वाधार संरचना विस्तारका पर्याप्त आधार होइन, शासकीय व्यवस्था पनि त्यतिकै आवश्यक देखिन्छ । त्यसका अलावा वातावरण संरक्षण, जग्गा प्राप्ति, पुनर्वास नीति एवं सार्वजनिक प्राप्ति प्रक्रिया जस्ता नीति एवं सुरक्षा प्रावधान (सेफगार्ड पोलिसी) पनि त्यतिकै महत्वपूर्ण छन् । प्रभावकारी सुशासन र सामाजिक सहयोग प्रणाली नभएमा पनि पूर्वाधार संरचना विस्तारका प्रयास औपचारिक मात्र बन्न सक्छ ।

### नेपालमा पूर्वाधार विकास

प्रजातन्त्र स्थापना अघि नेपालमा विकासका प्रयासहरू खासै नभएकाले २००७ भन्दा अघि पूर्वाधार क्षेत्रमा खासै प्रगति नहुन अस्वाभाविक होइन । राणा शासनकालमा राष्ट्रिय विकासका प्रयासहरू भएकै थिएनन् । प्रजातन्त्र स्थापना पश्चात जनताका माग र आवश्यकतालाई संबोधन गर्न बजेट तथा योजना प्रणालीका शुरूवात भयो । २०१३ सालमा नेपालले कोलम्बो योजनामा प्रस्तुत गर्नका लागि एउटा अवधारणा प्रस्ताव तयार पारेको थियो, जसले यातायात, विद्युत, सिंचाई र कृषिलाई प्रमुख प्राथमिकता दिने सोच राखेको थियो, पछि यस अवधारणालाई पहिलो आवधिक योजना (२०१३-२०१८) का रूपमा प्रस्तुत गरियो भने अवधारणाले औल्याएका चार प्राथमिकता (यातायात, कृषि, विद्युत र सिंचाई) लाई नै पहिलो योजनाको प्राथमिकताका रूपमा अवलम्बन गरियो । पहिलो आवधिक योजना पूर्व सबै प्रकारको गरी केवल ११७ कि.मी. सडक, ११०० किलोवाट विजुली, एउटा विमानस्थल, सीमित रूपमा परम्परागत टेलिफोन र सिंचाई, औलामा गन्न सकिने विद्यालय भवनहरू मात्र निर्मित थिए । विकसित मुलुकहरूले विकास अभियानका शुरूका दिनमा लिएको रणनीति अनुरूप नै नेपालले पनि योजनावद्ध विकासको शुरूका दिनमा पूर्वाधार संरचनामा पहिलो प्राथमिकता दिइएको थियो । त्यसपछिका योजनामा पूर्वाधारलाई प्राथमिकता दिने क्रमले निरन्तरता पाउँदै गयो । नेपालमा पूर्वाधार विकासको स्थितिलाई संक्षिप्त रूपमा यसप्रकार उल्लेख गरिन्छ :-

**क) सडक तथा यातायात :-** २०१३ सालमा सरकारले पहिलो पञ्चवर्षिय योजना घोषणा गर्दा सडक यातायातको अवस्था निकै दयनीय (केवल ११७ कि.मी.) थियो भने काठमाडौंमा एउटा विमानस्थल मात्र । सर्वसाधारणको बुझाइमा यातायात सञ्जालसंग आवद्ध हुनु कुनैपनि स्थानको विकासको पहिलो पहिचान हो । यातायात सञ्जालले नै आर्थिक गतिशीलता र सामाजिक एकीकरण संभव बनाउने गर्दछ । त्यसैले राज्यको प्राथमिकता सर्वसाधारणको माग यातायात पूर्वाधार संरचना विस्तारमा केन्द्रित हुँदै

आएको छ । आवधिक योजनाको शुरूदेखि ठूलठूला लोकमार्ग र आर्थिक केन्द्र जोड्ने सडकहरूको निर्माणमा बाध्य तथा आन्तरिक साधन प्रयोग गर्ने कार्यमा प्राथमिकता दिइयो । परिणामतः हालसम्म १९७४८ कि.मी. सडक (गत आषाढ मसान्त) बनेको छ, जसमध्ये ६०९४ कि.मी. (३१%) कालोपत्रे, ४७७२ कि.मी. (२४%) ग्राभेल र बाँकी (४५%) माटे सडक छ । यस बाहेक पनि स्थानीय स्तरबाट निर्मित सडक समेत हिसाब गर्दा कूल २९०५१ कि.मी. सडक निर्मित देखिन्छ, तर विभिन्न विकासका आँकडाबीच समानता भने देखिदैन । एक अनुमान अनुसार सरदर ८९० जनाले १ कि.मी. सडक उपयोग गर्दछन् भन्ने रहेको छ । हालसम्म ७१ जिल्लामा सडक सञ्जालसंग आवद्ध भैसकेको छ । सडक विभागको प्राथमिकता लगानी योजना (Priority Investment Plan) अनुसार पहाडमा ३९% सर्वसाधारणहरू चारघण्टा हिंडेर मात्र नजीकको सडक विन्दुमा पुग्छन् भने तराईमा १३% सर्वसाधारण २ घण्टामा सडकसम्म पुग्नसक्ने अवस्थामा छन् । स्थानीय पूर्वाधार एवं कृषि सडक विभागको अनुसार पहाडमा ४६% र तराईमा १०% सर्वसाधारण क्रमशः ४ घण्टा र २ घण्टा पहुँच अवधारणा अनुसार सडक पहुँचबाट बाहिर छन् । मुलुकमा १३१३ वटा पक्की र करिब ४५०० वटा भोलुडगो पुल निर्माण भैसकेको छन् भने विभिन्न स्तरका गरी ५३ हवाई मैदान निर्माण भै ३४ वटा सञ्चालनमा छन् । अन्य वैकल्पिक यातायात जस्तोक जल, रोपवे तथा रेल यातायातको विकास हालसम्म पनि भएको छैन भने यी यातायातका सन्दर्भमा व्यवस्थित अध्ययन पनि भएको छैन । गत आ.व.२०६६/६७ मा पूर्व-पश्चिम तथा काठमाडौँ-पोखरा विद्युतीय रेलमार्गको प्रारम्भिक सर्वेक्षण भएको छ । चालु आ.व.२०६७/६८ बाट रेल्वे विभाग गठन गरी नेपालमा ठूला यातायातको विकासका लागि छुट्टै संयन्त्र स्थापना गर्ने कार्य अधिबढेको छ । त्यस्तै जल लगायतका वैकल्पिकको संभावनालाई उपयोग गर्ने अवधारणा सहितको रणनीति चालु त्रिवर्षीय योजनाले लिएको छ । यातायात संरचना विस्तार, विकास र उपयोगको रणनीतिक योजना नभएकोले यातायात संरचनाबाट जीवन प्रणाली र अर्थतन्त्रमा अपेक्षित सकारात्मक प्रभाव पर्न सकेको छैन । यस क्षेत्रमा भूमिका निर्वाह गर्ने निकायबीच समन्वय र सहयोगको अवस्था पनि नाजुक देखिएको छ । यस कुरालाई मध्य नजरमा राखेर नै जिल्ला सडक योजना (DTMP) र राष्ट्रिय सडक योजना (NTMP) तर्जुमा गरी सडक सञ्जालको व्यवस्थित विकास गर्ने सोच चालु त्रिवर्षीय योजनाबाट राखिएको छ ।

**ख) विद्युत/ऊर्जा तथा सिंचाई विकास :** ऊर्जा उपयोग पनि विकासको महत्वपूर्ण सूचक हो । परम्परागत ऊर्जा उपयोग गरिरहेको छ वा आधुनिक र नवीकरणीय ऊर्जा उपयोग भएको छ भन्ने आधारमा कुनै पनि समाजको विकासको स्तर मापन गर्न सकिन्छ । ऊर्जा शक्तिको आधारमा नै दैनिक घरायसी आर्थिक क्रियाकलापदेखि औद्योगिक उत्पादन र विकसित प्रविधि प्रयोग गर्ने आधार बन्दछ । नेपालको भू-बनोट र जलाधार हेर्दा प्रचुर ऊर्जा संभावना भएको मुलुकमा देखिन्छ । ६००० भन्दा बढी नदीनाला, १९४४७१ वर्ग कि.मी. जलाधार, वार्षिक २२४.३ अर्ब घनमिटर पानीको बहावका कारण जलविद्युतबाट नेपाल लाभान्वित हुनसक्ने संभावना छ ।

नेपालमा जलविद्युत क्षेत्रको विकासको प्रयास भएको ठीक एक शताब्दी बितेको छ । वि.सं. १९६८ मा ५०० कि.वा. को फर्पिङ्ग जलविद्युत केन्द्रबाट शुरू भएको जलविद्युत विकासको यात्रा एक शताब्दी वितिसक्दा पनि मागको तहभन्दा निकै तल छ । फर्पिङ्गबाट शुरू गरिएको विद्युत विकासको यात्रा पहिलो पञ्चवर्षीय योजना अवधिसम्मको ५६ वर्षमा सुन्दरीजल (६०० कि.वा.) एक थप गरी केवल ११०० कि.वा. मा सीमित हुनपुग्यो । छैठौँ र नवौँ पञ्चवर्षीय योजना बाहेक सबै आवधिक योजनाले निकै निराशाजनक उपलब्धि मात्र हासिल गरे । परिणामतः नेपाल विश्वकै न्यून प्रतिव्यक्ति विद्युत खपत गर्ने ( प्रतिव्यक्ति ८० कि.वा.वार्षिक) मुलुकका रूपमा चिनिएको छ । केवल ५६ प्रतिशत जनता विद्युत पहुँचमा छन्, विद्युतको आपूर्ति नियमित, भरपर्दो र गुणस्तरीय छैन । गत वर्षसम्म केवल ६८७.७ मेगावाट ( तापीय ५२.४ मेगावाट, निजीक्षेत्रबाट १५६.३ र ने.वि.प्रा.बाट ४७६ मे.वा. समेत गरी) जडित क्षमता केन्द्रिय ग्रीड प्रणालीमा आवद्ध छ भने साना जलविद्युतबाट उत्पादित शक्ति (६.२ मे.वा.) समेत कूल जडित क्षमता केवल ६९१ मे.वा. जति पुग्छ । नेपालमा अहिले पनि करिब ८७% ऊर्जा परम्परागत

स्रोतबाट नै उपयोग गरिदै आएको छ जसका कारण वातावरण विनास र जीवन प्रणालीमा चुनौती देखिएको छ ।

समाज तथा अर्थतन्त्र क्रमशः ऊर्जासघन भएर गएको छ । प्रत्येक वर्ष विद्युत मागको आयतन बढ्दै छ, जसले विकास तर्फको चाहना र प्रवृत्तिको पनि संकेत गर्दछ । नेपालको विद्युत उत्पादनमा जलाशयुक्त भन्दा नदी प्रणाली (Run of River) मा केन्द्रित भएकाले सुख्खा याममा विद्युत माग पूरा गर्न सकिएको छैन । कूल जडित क्षमतामध्ये करिब ३०० मे.वा.मात्र उत्पादन हुने र माग भने ११०० मे.वा.जति हुने भएकाले करिब ८०० मे.वा. अपुग हुन गएको छ । हालसम्मका विद्युत सम्झौता अनुसार भारतबाट १०० मे.वा. विद्युत शक्ति आयात गर्न सकिन्छ । विद्युतको यो अभाव पूरा गर्नका लागि सरकारले हालै विद्युत सडककाल घोषणा गरेको छ । विद्युत क्षेत्रमा आक्रमक रूपमा काम नभएमा सन् २०१७ सम्म लोड सेडिङ कायम हुने देखिन्छ ।

नेपालमा विद्युत विकास प्रयासहरूले अपेक्षित गति पाउन नसक्नुमा स्पष्ट रणनीतिक योजना नहुनु, विद्युत उत्पादन तथा वितरणका मुद्दालाई अत्यधिक राजनीतिकरण गरिनु, नीति स्थिरताको वातावरण नहुनु र सुशासनको पक्ष कमजोर रहनु नै प्रमुख रूपमा जिम्मेवार देखिन्छन् । प्रायसः ठूला विद्युत आयोजनाहरूका सन्दर्भमा राष्ट्रिय हितभन्दा राजनैतिक दलहरूले दलगत स्वार्थ र सस्तो लोकप्रीयताका पछि लाग्ने गरेकाले नेपाल विद्युत संकटमा पर्दै आएको छ । दुईवटा विद्युत आयोजना संचालन पछि भुटानले गरेको आर्थिक प्रगतिबाट हामीले पनि सिक्नुपर्ने देखिन्छ । साभ्रा राष्ट्रिय सहमति पछि मात्र विद्युत विकासमा राष्ट्रिय स्वामित्व स्थापित गर्न सकिन्छ । साथै स-साना र छरिएका वस्तीहरूमा राष्ट्रिय प्रणालीमा नजोडिएको (ननग्रीड) ऊर्जा अवधारणा अवलम्बन गर्नु आवश्यक छ ।

नेपालका नदी तथा जालधार प्रणालीलाई उपयोग गरेर सिचाई प्रणाली विकास गर्न सकिन्छ । कूल कृषियोग्य जमिन २६ लखा ४१ हजार हेक्टरमध्ये सतह तथा भूमिगत माध्यमबाट केवल करिब १२ लाख २७ हजार हेक्टरमा सिचाई पूर्वाधार विस्तार गरिएको छ । सिचाई पूर्वाधार विकास भएका क्षेत्रमा पनि वाह्रै महिना पानी पठाउन सकिने अवस्था छैन । विद्युत तथा सिचाईलाई परिपूरकका बनाई बहुउद्देश्यीय योजनाका रूपमा सञ्चालन गर्न सकेमा कम लागतमा उर्जा आपूर्ति र खाद्यान्न उत्पादन गर्न सकिने संभावना देखिन्छ ।

**ग) खानेपानी तथा सरसफाई :** खानेपानी तथा सरसफाई आधारभूत मानवीय आवश्यकता र जीवनस्तरको महत्वपूर्ण सूचक हुन् । स्वच्छ खानेपानी, ढल व्यवस्थापन तथा शौचालय उपयोगका आधारमा नै मानव स्वास्थ्यको स्तर मापन गर्न सकिन्छ । नेपालमा सत्तरीको दशकसम्म स्तरीय खानेपानी सुविधा विस्तारका सन्दर्भमा संगठित प्रयास भएको पाइँदैन । सीमित रूपमा उपत्यका लगायत शहरी क्षेत्रमा खानेपानी वितरण गन्थियो । चौथो पञ्चवर्षीय योजनाका समयबाट खानेपानी तथा ढल निकास विभागको स्थापना पश्चात खानेपानी तथा ढल व्यवस्थापनलाई प्राथमिकतामा लिन थालिएता पनि पहाडी भू-भागहरूमा भने परम्परागत रूपमा खोला, कुवा, इनारबाट बिना प्रशोधन पानी उपयोग गरिन्थ्यो । जनसंख्या चाप न्यून रहेको र प्रशस्त जलाधार पनि भएकाले खानेपानीको समस्या खासै थिएन । तराईमा भूमिगत स्रोतको पर्याप्तता थियो । शहर-बजार बाहेक शौचालय प्रयोग गर्ने प्रवृत्ति नै थिएन । खुला क्षेत्रमा नै दिशा पिशाब गर्ने आमप्रचलन देखिन्थ्यो । सन् १९८० मा संयुक्त राष्ट्रसंघले खानेपानी तथा सरसफाई दशकको घोषणा गरेपछि विकास साभेदारहरूको प्राथमिकतामा यस क्षेत्र पर्न थाल्यो । तीसको दशकबाट थालनी गरिएको एकिकृत ग्रामीण विकास ढाँचाले स्थानीय तहमा सीमित रूपमा भएपनि खानेपानीतर्फ समुदायको ध्यान खिचन सफल भएको थियो । मेचीदेखि महाकालीसम्म सञ्चालित एकिकृत ग्रामीण विकास कार्यक्रममा विभिन्न दाताहरूले स्थानीय समुदाय र सरकारको सहकार्यको थालनी गरेपनि कार्यक्रम कार्यान्वयनको ढाँचामा समानता थिएन । साथै आयोजना ढाँचाबाट सञ्चालित यी आयोजनाहरूको दिगोपना पनि सुनिश्चित देखिएन । २०४३ सालबाट युनिसेफले यस क्षेत्रमा प्रारम्भिक तहको अध्ययन तथा सहयोग गर्न थाल्यो भने नवौं योजना अवधिमा विश्व बैंकको सहयोगमा जनताको खानेपानी र सरसफाई कार्यक्रम (जाकपास-१९९३/१९९६) मार्फत समुदाय साभेदारीमा खानेपानी तथा

सरसफाई कार्यक्रम सञ्चालन गर्ने कार्यलाई व्यापकता दिइयो । त्यसपछिका दिनमा सरकारी तथा गैरसरकारी क्षेत्रबाट खानेपानी र सरसफाईका कार्यक्रम संचालन भैरहेका छन् । यस क्षेत्रमा अन्तर्राष्ट्रिय संघ संस्था, स्थानीय निकाय र सरकारी क्षेत्रबाट कार्यक्रमहरू संचालन भैरहेका छन् । हाल कूल जनसंख्याको करिब ८०% मा खानेपानी र ४३% मा सरसफाई (शौचालय प्रयोग) सेवाको पहुँच पुगेको छ । खानेपानी सुविधा पहुँचमा पुगेका जनसंख्यामा पनि स्तरीय र पर्याप्तताको स्तर न्यून छ भने शौचालय उपयोग गर्नेहरूमध्ये केवल १९% ले मात्र शौचालय प्रयोगपछि साबुन/खरानीले हात धुने गरेका छन् । खानेपानी विभाग, खानेपानी तथा सरसफाई कोष तथा अन्तर्राष्ट्रिय निकायहरूको प्रयासमा खुला दिशा मुक्त क्षेत्र गराउन कार्यक्रम सञ्चालन गरी जनचेतना वृद्धि गर्ने कामहरू भैरहेको छ । चालु आवधिक योजनाले पनि निर्धारित समयमा सहस्राब्दी विकास लक्ष्य पूरा गर्नका लागि खानेपानी तथा सरसफाई क्षेत्रलाई उच्च प्राथमिकतामा राखेको छ । राष्ट्रसंघले सन् २०१० मा खानेपानी तथा सरसफाई सुविधालाई मानव अधिकारका रूपमा घोषणा गरेको छ ।

खानेपानी र सरसफाई क्षेत्रमा राज्यले प्राथमिकता दिएपनि सेवा वितरणको स्थिति प्रभावकारी देखिन सकेको छैन । शहरी क्षेत्रको तुलनामा ग्रामीण क्षेत्रमा पहुँचको स्थिति निकै कमजोर छ भने जातीगत रूपमा पनि दलित तथा सीमान्तीकृत समुदायमा सेवा पहुँच र उपयोगको स्थिति अरू कमजोर छ । यो स्थिति आउनुका पछि लगानी तथा लाभग्राहीको प्रवृत्ति दुवै पक्ष जिम्मेवार देखिएका छन् । साथै खानेपानी सेवा पुगेका स्थानमा पनि सरसफाईलाई कम महत्व दिने, यी दुई कार्यक्रमलाई भिन्ना भिन्नै रूपबाट हेर्ने, विभिन्न निकायहरूको क्रियाकलाप सञ्चालनबीच समन्वय नहुने, कार्यक्रमको दिगोपना नहुने, स्थानीय निकायबाट सञ्चालित कार्यक्रमहरूमा गुणस्तरीयता न्यून देखिने र व्यवस्थित तवरबाट खानेपानी र सरसफाईलाई एकीकृत रूपमा संचालन गर्ने प्रवृत्तिको अभाव देखिएको छ । यी कुराहरूलाई संवोधन गर्न राष्ट्रिय योजना आयोगको पहलमा विभिन्न सरोकारवाला निकायलाई संलग्न गराएर WASH Sector Review को काम भैरहेको छ भने सरसफाई क्षेत्रको दीर्घकालिन योजना (Sanitation & Hygiene Master Plan) पनि तयार गरिएको छ । यसले सन् २०१५ सम्म खानेपानी तथा सन् २०१७ सम्म सबैलाई सरसफाई सेवा पहुँचमा पुऱ्याउन रणनीतिक दृष्टिकोण राखेको छ ।

**घ) सूचना तथा सञ्चार :** सञ्चार माध्यमहरू सामाजिक सञ्जालीकरण, नागरिक सशक्तीकरण र राष्ट्रिय विकासका माध्यम हुन् । राष्ट्रिय भावनाको विकास र सामाजिक-आर्थिक अवसरको दोहन एवं उपयोगमा संचार माध्यमको योगदान अतुलनीय हुन्छ । सूचना तथा सञ्चारका माध्यम अन्तर्गत छापा माध्यम, हुलाक सेवा, श्रवदृष्य, दूर संचार लगायतका साधनहरू पर्दछन् ।

प्रजातन्त्र स्थापना पूर्वको समयमा सरकारी नियन्त्रणको गोरखापत्र बाहेक छापा लगायत अन्य कने सञ्चार साधनको विकास भएको देखिदैन । प्रजातन्त्रिक जागरणका साथ केही छापा माध्यम र रेडियो प्रयोग हुन थाल्यो । त्यसैले नेपालमा संचार क्षेत्रको प्रगति प्रजातन्त्रको विकास क्रमसंग जोडिएको स्पष्ट देखिन्छ । जनअन्दोलन भाग १ भन्दा अघि एकलाइन टेलिफोन लिनका लागि कम्तीमा ७-१० वर्ष सम्मको प्रतीक्षा सूचिमा ग्राहक बस्नुपर्ने वा तोक आदेशका लागि मन्त्रीकहाँ धाउनुपर्ने वाध्यता थियो । सीमित रूपमा छापा माध्यम विकसित थियो, विचार र अभिमत निर्माणमा स्वस्थ सूचना संप्रेष गर्न सेन्सरसीप लागेका छापा माध्यमबाट संभव थिएन । पाठकहरूमा पत्रिका किनेर पढ्ने आदत ( Readership) पनि विकास भैसकेको थिएन । तर जनअन्दोलन भाग-१ पछि सरकारले अवलम्बन गरेको उदारवादी नीति र विचार तथा अभिव्यक्ति स्वतन्त्रताका कारण सूचना संचार र प्रविधि क्षेत्र निकै विस्तारित भएको छ । गत आ.व. सम्मको आँकडा लिंदा सबै प्रकारका गरी करिब ९० हजार लाइन टेलिफोन वितरण भैसकेको छ । चालु वर्षको अनौपचारिक अनुमान अनुसार करिब १ करोड १५ लाख टेलिफोन वितरण भैसकेको छ । ६ वटा टेलिफोन सेवा प्रदायकले सबै गा.वि.स.मा सञ्चार सेवा पुऱ्याई सकेका छन् । सेवा केन्द्र स्तरसम्म समुदाय सञ्चार केन्द्र (community e-center) स्थापना गरी ग्रामीण तहमा सूचना र प्रविधिको पहुँच विस्तार गर्ने कार्यले प्राथमिकता पाइरहेको छ । केही दशक

अधिसम्म रेडियोको पर्यायका रूपमा रेडियो नेपाल रहेकोमा हाल मुलुकभरि ४०० एफ.एम प्रसारणको स्वीकृति दिइएको छ भने ३४ टेलिभिजन प्रसारणका लागि इजाजत दिइएको छ, ११ टेलिभिजन च्यानलले नियमित प्रसारण गरिरहेका छन् । केवल टेलिभिजन प्रसारणका लागि ६३४ कम्पनीले इजाजत पाएका छन् । दर्जनौ इन्टरनेट प्रदायकले नेपाली समाजलाई विश्वको अर्को कुनासम्म सहजै पुऱ्याएको छ । त्यस्तै ठूला पृष्ठका दर्जनजति र सैयौ साप्ताहिक पत्रिका छापामा माध्यमका रूपमा विकसित भएका छन् । चलचित्र विकासका क्षेत्रमा पनि निजीक्षेत्रको संलग्नतामा उल्लेख्य प्रगति हासिल भएको छ । यसरी सूचना सञ्जाल विस्तार गर्न निजीक्षेत्रको आक्रामक भूमिका र सरकारको नीति सहयोगलाई जस दिन सकिन्छ ।

सूचना-संचार तथा प्रविधिका आधारशिलाबाट शासकीय क्रियाकलापलाई व्यवस्थित गर्ने, राज्य प्रक्रियामा जनइच्छालाई समावेश गर्ने, सामाजिक पृष्ठपोषण राज्य व्यवस्थामा समावेश गर्ने, पारदर्शिता र जवाफदेहिता प्रवर्द्धन गर्न, सेवा प्रवाह छरितो बनाउन, सचेतना र शिक्षा विस्तार गर्न, अवसरको उपयोग गर्न र अन्तरक्रिया एवं सामाजिक सञ्जालीकरणका लागि मार्ग प्रशस्त भएको छ । विगत दुई दशकको प्रयासको लेखाजोखा गर्दा यस क्षेत्रले विस्तारको चरण पार गर्न लागेको महशुस हुन्छ । यसपछि गुणस्तरीयता प्रवर्द्धनतर्फ लाग्नुपर्ने चुनौती देखिएको छ । सूचना प्रविधिको महामार्गमा समेटिन नसक्नेहरूका लागि यो युगनै असहज देखिएको छ भने डिजिटल डिभाइडका कारण समाजको ठूलो हिस्सालाई सीमान्तीकरण गर्ने खतरा पनि बढेको छ । यी चुनौती सामना गर्नका लागि उत्प्रेरक तथा नियामक निकायहरूको सक्रियता जरूरी छ ।

उल्लेखित क्षेत्र बाहेक सामुदायिक भवन, पार्क तथा खुला क्षेत्र, मनोरन स्थल जस्ता सामूहिक उपयोगमा आउने भौतिक संरचना पनि पूर्वाधारका रूपमा लिइन्छ । तर नेपालमा यी संरचनाहरू तर्फ खासै ध्यान दिने गरेको देखिदैन । अपवादमा नाफजन्य क्षेत्रमा निजी स्तरबाट सीमित लगानी भने हुने गरेको छ ।

### पूर्वाधार क्षेत्रमा लगानी

अल्पविकसित मुलुकमा पूर्वाधार क्षेत्रमा लगानी भन्ने वित्तिकै सरकारको भूमिका स्वाभाविक रूपमा देखिने गर्दछ । सूचना तथा प्रविधिका क्षेत्रमा निजीक्षेत्रको लगानी उल्लेख्य देखिन्छ । तरपनि ठूला लोकमार्ग, विद्युत गृह, पुल, विमानस्थल र प्रसारण केन्द्रहरूमा सार्वजनिक क्षेत्रको लगानी उल्लेख्य देखिन्छ । विश्व बैंक र PPIAF अनुसार विकासशील देशहरूमा कुल गाहस्थ उत्पादनको ७-९% सम्म लगानी यस क्षेत्रमा हुने गरेको छ । नेपालमा पनि करिब ११ खर्ब कूल गाहस्थ उत्पादनमध्ये ६०-७० अर्ब प्रत्यक्ष रूपमा पूर्वाधार विकासमा वर्षेनी सरकारी क्षेत्रबाट लगानी भैरहेको छ । जुन कूल पूँजीगत खर्चको ६०% जति हुन आउछ । परम्परागत रूपमा पूर्वाधारका लगानी भन्ने वित्तिकै सरकारको एक्लो लगानी (करवैदेशिक सहायता मार्फत सरकारी बजेट विनियोजन) भन्ने मानिन्छ । तर नेपाल जस्तो अल्पविकसित मुलुकमा पूर्वाधारको माग यति बढी छ कि सार्वजनिक क्षेत्रको लगानीले मात्र त्यो माग पूरा गर्नसक्ने स्थिति नै देखिदैन । पहाडी भूधरातलका कारण सिंचाइ, पुल, वस्ती विकास जस्ता पूर्वाधार संरचनाको लागत संरचना पनि तुलनात्मक रूपमा अधिक देखिन्छ । यस्ता क्षेत्रमा रहने प्राविधिक जटीलता र लागत पूर्णको लामो पर्खाइमा रहनुपर्ने अवस्थाका कारण गैरसरकारी क्षेत्र तत्काल आकर्षित भैसकेको छैन । सरकारभन्दा बाहिरका क्षेत्र आकर्षित नभएको अवस्थामा प्रदर्शन प्रभाव पार्नका लागि पनि राज्यले निर्णयाक भूमिका खेल्नु जरूरी छ । पूर्वाधार क्षेत्रको लगानी उच्च सामाजिक प्रतिफल (high social rate of return) को क्षेत्र पनि भएकोले गरिवी र असमानता घटाउन, सर्वसाधारणको जीवनस्तर उठाउन र उत्पादकत्व बढाउन यसको योगदान महत्वपूर्ण रहन्छ । यसै कारण आन्तरिक स्रोत तथा बाह्य सहायताको ठूलो अंश यस क्षेत्रमा विनियोजन हुँदै आएको छ । साथै स-साना पूर्वाधारमा स्थानीय निकाय र लाभग्राही नागरिक समुदायको संलग्नता पनि परिपूरकका रूपमा रहदै आएको छ । तर यो निकै सानो स्तरमा छ भने दिगोपनाका दृष्टिकोणबाट कमजोर देखिएको छ ।

माथिका विश्लेषणबाट प्रष्ट भैसकेको छ कि ठूला पूर्वाधार संरचनामा लगानीको स्रोत भनेको सरकारी बजेट हो । अल्पविकसित देशमा विकास भन्नु नै पूर्वाधार संरचना विस्तार हो भन्ने निष्कर्ष निकाल्न सकिन्छ । यसर्थ सार्वजनिक नीतिको महत्वपूर्ण पक्ष नै यसतर्फ लक्षित हुँदै आएको छ । राजनैतिक क्षेत्रको

माग र प्राथमिकता पनि यसैतर्फ केन्द्रित हुँदै आएको छ । तर सार्वजनिक क्षेत्रबाट पूर्वाधार क्षेत्रमा भएको लगानीको गुणस्तर प्रवर्द्धन गर्न, दिगोपना बढाउन, सामाजिक सहयोग परिचालन गर्न र भ्रष्टाचार न्यूनीकरण गर्नका लागि नीति प्रभावकारीता बढाउनु आवश्यक देखिएको छ । ट्रान्सपरेन्सी इन्टरनेसनल जस्ता स्वतन्त्र संस्थाको पर्यवेक्षणबाट के देखिएको छ भने राजस्व आर्जन र राजस्व खर्च गर्ने निकायहरू सुशासन जोखिममा रहदै आएको छ । परिणामतः भ्रष्टाचार यही क्षेत्रमा बढी छ । गुणस्तर सुनिश्चित गर्न सकिएको छैन । साथै लामो समयसम्म सरकारी बजेटमार्फत पूर्वाधार क्षेत्रको विकास सुनिश्चित छैन । राज्य विकासको पूर्ण प्रवाहक (Sole development provider) पनि होइन, उसले त अल्पकालका लागि केवल प्रदर्शन प्रभाव र दीर्घकालीन रूपमा नीति-नियन्त्रण र उत्प्रेरण गर्ने कार्यमा मात्र रहनु पर्दछ । यसर्थ पछिल्ला समयमा विश्वव्यापी रूपमा यी प्रयास/प्रवृत्तिहरू देखिएका छन् ।

- पूर्वाधार सेवा प्रदायक सार्वजनिक निकायको व्यवसायीकरण/सहकारीकरण
- सरकारी निकाय र अन्य सेवा प्रदायक संरचनाबीच कार्यसम्पादन सम्झौता
- सेवा प्रदायक निकायलाई प्राविधिक स्वायत्तता र क्षमतावृद्धि
- पूर्वाधार सेवामा लागत पूरण सिद्धान्त अवलम्बन (Sustainability enhancement through cost recording principle)
- स-साना पूर्वाधार संरचना विकास र व्यवस्थापनको कार्य स्थानीय/उपक्षेत्रीय निकायमा निक्षेपण (तर पर्याप्त अनुभव र क्षमता बिनाको निक्षेपणले व्यवस्थापन जोखिम पनि देखियो) ।

#### निजी-सार्वजनिक साभेदारीको विकल्प

पूर्वाधार क्षेत्रमा देखिएको माग र आवश्यकतालाई संबोधन गर्न सरकारी बजेट मात्र अपर्याप्त छ भन्ने निष्कर्ष माथिको विश्लेषणबाट निकाल्न सकिन्छ । साथै उत्पादन उद्योग जस्तै पूर्वाधार क्षेत्रलाई पनि उद्योग व्यवसायको रूपमा संचालन गर्नु आवश्यक देखिएको छ । बढ्दो आवश्यकता र उच्च सामाजिक प्रतिफल रहने भएकोले यसलाई सरकारभन्दा बाहिरका पात्रहरूको संभावना, क्षमता र कार्यकुशलता उपयोगको क्षेत्र बनाउन सकिएमा यसबाट समाज, राष्ट्र र अर्थतन्त्रमा उल्लेख्य योगदान हुनसक्छ । तर पूर्णरूपमा निजी/गैर सरकारी क्षेत्र आकर्षित हुन नसक्ने अवस्थामा जोखिम साभेदारी गर्नुपर्ने अवस्था पनि रहन्छ । त्यसैले निजी सार्वजनिक साभेदारीलाई सार्वजनिक सेवा प्रवाहको नयाँ रणनीतिका रूपमा लिन थालिएको छ । यस रणनीतिले पहिला अपनाइ रहेको कार्यप्रक्रिया र प्रविधि माथि सुधारको माग गर्दछ । एउटा चिनिया उखान छ हामीले हाम्रो कार्यप्रक्रिया परिवर्तन गरेनौ र पुरानै बाटो हिड्यौ भने सामान्य उपलब्धीभन्दा माथि उठ्न सक्दैनौ । (If we don't change our direction we are lively to end up where we're headed).

निजी-सार्वजनिक साभेदारी धेरै आवश्यकता भएका क्षेत्रमा अतिरिक्त साधन परिचालन र व्यवस्थापन कुशलता बढाउन निजी र सार्वजनिक निकायबीच गरिने सहकार्य हो । यस्तो परम्परागत रूपमा पूर्वाधार संरचना विकासमा राज्यको माग संलग्नतालाई अपूर्ण संझन्छ र चुनौती दिन्छ । यो परम्परागत कार्यविधि र लगानी प्रक्रियामाथिको नविन अवधारणाको अवलम्बन हो । यस अवधारणामा सरकारको नीति सहयोग, निजीक्षेत्रको लगानी तथा उद्यमशीलता उद्योग र सामुदायिक क्षेत्रको समर्थन एकै स्थानमा रहने गर्दछ । लगानीमैत्री वातावरण र प्राविधिक अग्रसरता नभैकन साभेदारीको रणनीति कार्यान्वयन हुन सक्दैनन् । बुदागत रूपमा भन्दा निजी-सार्वजनिक साभेदारीका पूर्वर्तहरू यी हुन् :

- नीति तथा कानूनी वातावरण (Legal reform)
- जोखिम न्यूनीकरणका उपाय अवलम्बन (Innovative options to visit mitigation)

- सहज र सरल प्राप्त (Good practices of procurement process)
- पूँजी बजारको विकास (Capital market development)

निजी सार्वजनिक साभेदारी सेवा व्यवस्थापन र साधन परिचालनको वैकल्पिक रणनीति हो । त्यसैले यसको एउटै ढाँचा छैन । यो आफैमा राम्रण पनि होइन । सेवा प्रवाह/निर्माणको प्रकृति र स्वामित्व संरचनाका आधारमा यसलाई विभिन्न स्वरूपमा वर्गीकरण गर्न सकिन्छ । सैद्धान्तिक रूपमा यसका स्वरूपलाई (क) सञ्चालन तथा मर्मत साभेदारी, (ख) प्रारूपण तथा निर्माण, (ग) लागत उठ्ती साभेदारी, (घ) वहाल सम्भौता, (ङ) निर्माण सञ्चालन हस्तान्तरण, (च) निर्माण, स्वामित्व हस्तान्तरण, (छ) निर्माण, स्वामित्व र सञ्चालन, (ज) भाडा, विकास सञ्चालन, (झ) अस्थायी निजीकरण, (ञ) उपभोक्ता समिति र (ट) स्वयम्सेवी समूह परिचालन (मैनाली : २०६६) मा लिन सकिन्छ । त्यस्तै जेफ्री डेलमनले व्यवस्थापन तथा सञ्चालन करार (Contract or Franchising), Affermage, साभेदारी ( BOT, BOOO, BOOT, DBFO, DCM आदि), लिज सम्भौता, सहूलियत (Concession) र सेवा विक्री ( Divestiture) का आधारमा यसलाई वर्गीकरण गरेका छन् । यूरोपमा भने साभेदारीको अवधारणालाई तुलनात्मक रूपमा सरल रूपमा लिइएको पाइन्छ । X Cledan Mandr-Perrot ले निजी सार्वजनिक साभेदारीलाई (क) सेवा करार (Service Contract), (ख) व्यवस्थापन करार (Management Contract), (ग) लिज सम्भौता (Lease Contract), (घ) सहूलियत करार (Concession Contract), (ङ) वुट करार (Boot Contract) र (च) संयुक्त स्वामित्व सञ्चालन (Joint Ownership) र (छ) विक्री (Outright sale/Divestiture) का रूपमा लिन गरेको पाइन्छ । त्यस्तै राष्ट्रिय योजना आयोगद्वारा गठित PPP White Paper २०१० कार्यदलले भने यसलाई (१) राजस्व साभेदारी ( Revenue PPP) वा सरकारी निकायसंग सम्भौताका आधारमा आफैले राजस्व वा सेवा शुल्क उठाई सेवा प्रवाह गर्ने, (२) लागत साभेदारी (Availability PPP) वा सरकारी निकायबाट सञ्चालन लागतको आंशिक वा पूर्ण हिस्सा व्यहोरिने गरी सञ्चालन गर्ने वा (३) मिश्रित साभेदारी (Hybrid PPP) सरकारी भुक्तानी र सेवा शुल्कको उपयुक्त समिश्रणका आधारमा सेवा सञ्चालन गरिने गरी तीन प्रकारले वर्गीकरण गरेको छ । तर निजी सार्वजनिक साभेदारीको सन्दर्भमा व्याख्या गर्ने प्रमुख कानून पूर्वाधार संरचनाको निर्माण तथा सञ्चालनमा निजी लगानी सम्बन्धी ऐन, २०६३ ले भने साभेदारीका स्वरूपलाई यी आठ भागमा वर्गीकरण गरेको छ :

- निर्माण तथा हस्तान्तरण
- निर्माण, सञ्चालन तथा हस्तान्तरण
- निर्माण, स्वामित्वकरण तथा हस्तान्तरण
- निर्माण, हस्तान्तरण तथा सञ्चालन
- लिज, सञ्चालन तथा हस्तान्तरण
- लिज, निर्माण, सञ्चालन तथा हस्तान्तरण
- विकास, सञ्चालन तथा हस्तान्तरण
- अन्य यस्तै तरिका ।

वर्गीकरण जसरी गरेपनि यी स्वरूपहरूमा तात्विक भिन्नता देखिदैन । वर्गीकरणको आधार भनेको सेवा प्रवाहको व्यवस्थापन र सम्पत्ति माथिको नियन्त्रण हो । सैद्धान्तिक रूपमा गरिएको व्याख्या र प्रचलनलाई

नै प्रचलित नेपाल काननले अवलम्बन गर्न खोजेको छ तर यस्तै अन्य तरिका भनेर सरकारले व्याख्या गर्ने स्थान राखेको छ ।

निजी सार्वजनिक साभेदारीको औचित्यमा प्रवेश गर्नु अघि यूरोपीय यूनियनको प्रसंग कोटयाउनु उचित हुन्छ । बजार र सरकारको परिपूरकता भएको यूरोपेली मुलुकहरू संघमा प्रवेश गर्ने पूर्व शर्त (EU Accession Instrument) का रूपमा निजी सार्वजनिक साभेदारीलाई पनि लिने गर्दछन् । साथै संघको सदस्य भैसकेपछि पनि साभेदारीको स्तरको मूल्याङ्कन गरिन्छ । पूर्वी यूरोपका कतिपय मुलुकहरू जहा राज्यनिर्देशित अर्थतन्त्रको कारण आर्थिक विकास गर्न सकेनन्, ती मुलुकहरू नै निजी सार्वजनिक क्षेत्रको सहकार्यमा आर्थिक विकासको फड्को माउँदछन् । यूरोपको विकास भन्नु नै वास्तवमा सरकारको अभिभावकत्वमा निजीक्षेत्रको संभावनाको भरपूर उपयोगको नतिजा हो । साभेदारी किन आवश्यक वा यसको औचित्य कति भन्ने प्रश्न उठ्ने गरेको छ । पहिलो कुरा सार्वजनिक क्षेत्रबाट पूर्वाधार संरचनाको व्यवस्थापन लामो समयसम्म गर्न सकिन्छ कि सकिदैन भन्ने प्रश्न पनि अहम् देखिएको छ । दोस्रो, लगानीको स्रोत तथा व्यवस्थापनमा लागत पूरणको अतिरिक्त अतिरिक्त संभावना उपयोग गर्नु आवश्यक देखिएको छ भने परम्परागत कर्मचारीतन्त्रीय शैलीबाट ठूला संरचना र व्यवस्थापनमा नवीन अवधारणाको प्रयोग गर्न पनि साभेदारीलाई विकल्पका रूपमा लिन थालिएको छ । तेस्रो, राज्यको दर्शनमा आएको अवधारणागत परिवर्तनले पनि विकास निर्माणको जिम्मेवारी राज्यको मात्र होइन, राज्यले केवल आफू बाहिरका पात्रको क्षमता उपयोगका लागि वातावरण बनाउनु पर्दछ, भन्ने मान्यता पनि स्थापना भएको छ । चौथो, यी कारणले निजी सार्वजनिक साभेदारी कार्यकुशलता प्रवर्द्धन गर्न सक्षम देखिएको निष्कर्ष निकालिएको छ :

- लागत प्रभावकारिता बढाउदछ । लागतको विवेकशीलता बढाउदछ ।
- पूँजीको भारित औसत लागत घटाउदछ । Financial Engineering लाई सुधार गर्दछ ।
- समस्या समाधानमा व्यापारिक दृष्टिकोण राख्दछ ।
- अग्रसरता र नया प्रविधिलाई प्रोत्सहन दिन्छ ।
- सार्वजनिक निकाय र सेवा प्रदायकबीच असल सम्बन्ध कायम गराउदछ ।
- प्रतिस्पर्धा प्रवर्द्धन मार्फत मौद्रिक मूल्य सार्थकता (खः) सिद्ध गर्दछ ।
- चुहावट नियन्त्रण गर्दछ (जस्तो विद्युत, पानी, सरकारी साधन) ।
- लुकेको संभावना र अवसरलाई उपयोग गर्ने वातावरण बनाउदछ ।
- Claim culture घटाउदछ । जोखिम समाधान गर्दछ ।

राजनैतिक अस्थिरता भएका अल्पविकसित मुलुकहरूमा निजी सार्वजनिक साभेदारीको प्रक्रियामा धेरै जोखिम रहने गर्दछ । नेपाल त्यसबाट अपवाद छैन । वास्तवमा साभेदारी जोखिम विभाजनको औपचारिक प्रक्रिया हो जहा पक्षहरू विश्वासयुक्त वातावरण सिर्जना गरी आ आफ्नो संभावनाको उपयोग गर्दछन् । निजीक्षेत्रले पूर्वाधार क्षेत्रमा लगानी गर्नका लागि त्यो फाइदाजन्य, कार्यान्वयन गर्न सकिने र व्यापारिक रूपमा संभाव्य र जोखिमको विभाजन भएको हुनुपर्दछ । आयोजना लगानीमा सामान्यतः विकास चरणको जोखिम (Development Risk), सम्पन्न जोखिम (Completion Risk), लागत वृद्धिका जोखिम (Cost increase Risk), कार्यसम्पादन जोखिम (Performance Risk), कार्य सञ्चालन जोखिम (Operation Risk), बजारका जोखिम (Market Risk), राजनैतिक जोखिम (Political Risk), वातावरणीय जोखिम (Environmental Risk), सामाजिक जोखिम (Social Risk), कर्जा जोखिम (Credit Risk) जस्ता जोखिम रहने गर्दछन् (जेफ्री डेल्लमन : २००९) । Nepal PPP White Paper 2010 ले मूल्य जोखिम,

ट्राफिक जोखिम, ढिलो निर्माण, जग्गा प्राप्ती, बन्द हड्ताल, वित्त, अनुमान गर्न नसकिने जोखिम लगायतका जोखिमहरू व्यावहारिक रूपमा आउने कुरा उल्लेख गरेको छ ।

नेपालमा परम्परागत रूपमा सामाजिक साभेदारी तथा सहकारीको प्रचलन रहदै आएपनि पूर्वाधार संरचनामा साभेदारीको प्रक्रिया उत्साहप्रद देखिएको छैन । विकेन्द्रीकरणको अवधारणा अवलम्बन पछि तीसको दशकमा लाभग्राहीलाई आयोजना व्यवस्थापनमा उपभोक्ता समिति मार्फत संलग्न गराउने काम भएको पाइन्छ । तर उपभोक्ता समिति स्थानीय स्तरका साना आयोजनामा मात्र सीमित थियो । आठौं योजनादेखि मात्र विकासमा सरकारभन्दा बाहिरका पात्रको भूमिका परिचालन गर्ने नीति खाका तयार पारिएको हो भने कानूनी संरचना २०६३ मा मात्र निर्माण गरियो । निजी क्षेत्रलाई आश्वस्त पारी लगानी क्षमता तथा उद्यमशीलता उपयोग गर्न कानूनी प्रष्टता पहिलो शर्त हो । अहिले पनि निजी सार्वजनिक साभेदारीको परिभाषा प्रष्ट देखिएको छैन । क्षेत्रगत नीति, २०६३ को ऐन, स्थानीय स्वायत्त शासन ऐन तथा अन्य क्षेत्रगत कानून र अभ्यासले पनि साभेदारीको साभ्मा मान्यता स्थापना गरिसकेको छैन । नेपालको पूर्वाधार संरचनामा साभेदारी हेर्दा शहरी सेवा व्यवस्थापनमा केही उपलब्धि भएको देखिन्छ । सन १९९९/२००० बाट काठमाडौं महानगरपालिकाले केही पुल, बसपार्क तथा धरहरा सञ्चालनमा निजीक्षेत्रसंग साभेदारी गर्दै आएको छ । अघिल्लो दशकमा यूनिसेफको सहयोगमा सञ्चालित शहरी आधारभूत सेवा कार्यक्रममा पनि केही नगरपालिकाले यसलाई राम्ररी अपनाए पनि कार्यआयतन र लगानीका दृष्टिमा यी प्रयोगहरू साना थिए । सरकारले महत्वका साथ केही विमानस्थल, द्रुत मार्ग, रेल मार्गलाई BOOT Model बाट सञ्चालन गर्ने प्रस्ताव माग गरेको थियो, जुन प्रस्तावको चरणभन्दा माथि उठ्न सकेन । केवल कार जस्ता मनोरञ्जनात्मक क्षेत्रमा निजीक्षेत्रका केही प्रस्तावहरू आएपनि कानूनी अवरोध तथा जोखिमका कारण ती प्रस्तावहरूले पनि कार्यरूप पाउन सकेनन् । विद्युत उत्पादनका क्षेत्रमा खिम्ती, चिलिमे, इन्द्रावती, पिलुवाखोला आदि १७ आयोजना निजी स्तरबाट सम्पन्न भै १५६ मेगावाट जडित क्षमता विकास भएको छ । तर यी आयोजनाहरू विद्युत सम्बन्धी छुट्टै कानूनबाट निजीक्षेत्रको लगानीमा निर्मित भएकाले यसलाई साभेदारी भन्न मिल्ने वा नमिल्ने भन्ने विवाद बाँकी नै छ भने अर्कोतर्फ राजनैतिक तरलता र संक्रमणका कारण लगानी संभाव्य आयोजनाले थुप्रै कठिनाई भोगिरहेका छन् । नेपालमा हालसम्म एउटा पनि आयोजना Best Practice का रूपमा सञ्चालनमा देखिएको छैन । हालै काठमाडौंको फोहोरमैला व्यवस्थापनको एउटा सफल आयोजना बन्न सक्छ कि भन्ने देखिएको छ तर यो सञ्चालनको चरणमा पुगिसकेको भने छैन । सूचना प्रविधिको क्षेत्र अपवादका रूपमा तुलनात्मक रूपमा उत्साहपूर्ण सफलता देखिएको छ ।

निजी सार्वजनिक साभेदारीको रणनीति प्रभावकारी नहुनुमा राजनैतिक, आर्थिक, सामाजिक र संस्थागत सुशासन सम्बन्धी समस्याहरू देखिएका छन् । साभेदारी आफैमा लामो समय लाग्ने प्रक्रिया हो । शुरूका दिनमा सफलता पाउन कठिन परिश्रम र अनुशासनको आवश्यकता पर्दछ । केही सफलता हात लागेपनि मात्र यसको सिको (Replicate) अन्य क्षेत्रमा गर्न सकिन्छ । पूर्वाधार क्षेत्र सामाजिक लागत प्रभावकारिताको क्षेत्र भएपनि यसबाट प्रतिफल प्राप्त गर्न केही लामो Gestation Period पर्खनु पर्दछ । यो संयम लिनसक्ने साहस ठूला घरानामा देखिएका छैनन् । नेपालको पूजी बजार पनि सबल भैसकेको छैन । ठूला संरचनामा लगानीको सार्वभौम जमानीको सवाल पनि प्रमुख जोखिमका रूपमा देखिएको छ । स्पष्ट नीति वातावरण, लगानी प्रोत्साहन र सहजीकरणका लागि संस्थागत संरचना, राजनैतिक दर्शनको प्रष्टताको अभाव र सामाजिक अवरोधले पनि पूर्वाधार संरचना विकासमा निजीक्षेत्रको साभेदारीलाई अनुत्साही बनाएको देखिन्छ ।

#### **उपसंहार**

कुनैपनि मुलुक विकासको पहिलो आधार भनेकै पूर्वाधार विकास हो तर नेपालमा पूर्वाधार संरचना विकासको स्थिति निकै कमजोर छ । सडक यातायातको क्षेत्र आयतन, पहुँच र गुणस्तरका दृष्टिमा कमजोर छ । निर्मित सडक तथा पुलहरू सुरक्षित छैनन् । खानेपानी आपूर्ति विस्तारको चरणमा माथि पुगेपनि सेवा प्रवाहको स्थिति सन्तोषजनक छैन । सरसफाईको स्थिति अत्यन्त नाजुक छ । बाकी क्षेत्र

पनि आआफ्नै समस्याबाट ग्रसित छन् । विश्व प्रतिस्पर्धा प्रतिवेदन २००९/१० अनुसार विश्वमा नेपालको पूर्वाधार संरचनाको स्तर अन्तिमबाट तेस्रो (१३३ मा १३१ औं) मा पर्दथ्यो भने यस वर्ष (२०१०/११) मा सवैभन्दा तल (१३९ मा १३९ औं) पुगेको छ । विद्युत आपूर्तिमा विगतको वर्षदेखि नै नेपालको स्तर सवैभन्दा न्यून रहदै आएको छ । यी सूचकले निराशा र कहालीलाग्दो चित्र मात्र प्रस्तुत गर्दैन, आर्थिक सामाजिक गतिशीलता बढाउन र विकास स्तर उठाउनका लागि पूर्वाधार संरचना विस्तारमा आक्रामक रूपमा राज्य र गैरराज्यको भूमिका विस्तारको माग गर्दछ भन्ने देखाउदछ । परम्परागत रूपमा सरकारी बजेट विनियोजनबाट मात्र यो माग पूरा गर्न सक्ने देखिदैन । स्थानीय निकाय, केन्द्रीय सरकार र निजीक्षेत्रको इमान्दार प्रयासविना यो दायित्व पूरा हुने संभावना छैन । साथै विकासका मुद्दामा आम सहमतिको संस्कृति विकास पनि त्यत्तिकै जरूरी देखिन्छ ।

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# औद्योगिक वातावरणको सिर्जनामा नयाँ औद्योगिक नीतिको भूमिका

प्रेमप्रसाद पौडेल \*

## सारांश

हालसम्म जारी भएका औद्योगिक नीतिहरूमा वर्तमान औद्योगिक नीति, २०६७ उद्योग क्षेत्रका अधिकांश विषयवस्तु समेटेको तथा नेपालमा समग्र औद्योगिक वातावरण सिर्जना गर्न सक्ने गरी Comprehensive रूपमा जारी गरिएको छ। औद्योगिक नीति जति राम्रो जारी गरिए पनि त्यसको मर्म अनुरूप सही ढंगले कार्यान्वयन भएन भने त्यसको कुनै अर्थ रहदैन। नेपालमा नीति वाष्पीकरण (Policy Evaporation) हुने तीतो यथार्थतलाई मनन गर्दा यो नीति कार्यान्वयनमा बढी ध्यान दिनु जरूरी छ। नीति कार्यान्वयन आफै हुने होइन। नीति दस्तावेज जहिले पनि राज्यको त्यो क्षेत्रको मार्गदर्शन मात्र हो। नीतिका कुरा ऐनका समावेश गरेपछि मात्र कार्यान्वयनयोग्य हुन्छन्। त्यसैले नीतिका कुराहरूलाई यथोचित स्थान दिई औद्योगिक व्यवसाय ऐनमा संशोधन गर्नु अहिलको अपरिहार्य आवश्यकता हो। अन्तर निकायगत तथा अन्तर नीतिगत समन्वय पनि उद्योग क्षेत्रको विकासको लागि अपरिहार्य हुन आउँछ। उद्योग क्षेत्रको विकासमा अर्थ मन्त्रालय, उद्योग मन्त्रालय र वाणिज्य मन्त्रालयको एउटै स्वर हुन सक्नुपर्दछ। राजस्व संकलन गर्ने निकायले उद्योगलाई सकोस् नसकोस् गरेको जथाभावी भारी बोकाइदिने र त्यति गरेर राजस्व मनरये उठ्छ भन्ने भ्रम पनि पाल्नु हुदैन। उद्योग मन्त्रालयले आर्थिक उदारीकरणका मूलभूत मान्यतालाई आत्मसात गर्दै कर छुट दिनेवित्तिकै उद्योग क्षेत्रको विकास भैहाल्छ भन्ने मान्यता पाल्नु हुदैन। तर गैरव्यवसायिक जोखिमबाट उद्योग र उद्योगीको संरक्षण गर्नुपर्दछ। पूर्वाधार विकास, पछाडि परेका क्षेत्रको सन्तुलित विकासको लागि कर्णाली जाउ, सुविधा लेउ भन्ने नारा दिई त्यसको कार्यान्वयन गर्नुपर्दछ। औद्योगिक श्रम सम्बन्धको उपयुक्त वातावरण सिर्जना नभएसम्म उद्योग क्षेत्रको विकास हुन सक्दैन। अर्को महत्वपूर्ण कुरा के छ भने हामीले लघु, घरेलु तथा साना उद्योगको विकासमा जोड दिनुपर्दछ। हाम्रो उद्योग क्षेत्रको आधार यिनै लघु, घरेलु तथा साना उद्योग भएको कुरालाई हरपल मनन गर्न सके अर्थतन्त्रमा उद्योग क्षेत्रको योगदान बढाउँदै राज्यको समग्र विकास गर्न सम्भव हुने देखिन्छ।

## विषय प्रवेश

विश्वका देशहरूको उद्योग विकासको ऐतिहासिक कालखण्डको सिंहवालाकन गर्ने हो भने हिजोका कृषि प्रधान मुलुक नै वर्तमानमा औद्योगिक मुलुक बनेका छन्। आजका विकसित देशहरू पनि हिजो हामीजस्तै कृषिप्रधान मुलुक भएको र प्रथमतः कृषि क्रान्ति र तदपश्चात् औद्योगिक क्रान्तिबाट विकसित औद्योगिक देशको पगरी गुतेको पाइन्छ। यसरी हेर्दा औद्योगिक क्रान्ति आर्थिक क्रान्तिको लागि नभई हुदैन। कृषिक्षेत्रमा रहेको निष्क्रिय जनशक्तिलाई उद्योग क्षेत्रमा रूपान्तरित देशको पहिलो आवश्यकता हो। हामी एक्काइसौं शताब्दीको यात्रामा छौं। यो यात्रा ज्यादै चुनौती र अवसरले भरिएको छ। चुनौतीहरूलाई सामना गर्दै अवसरहरूलाई अतिकतम गरी राज्यको समग्र विकास गर्नु जरूरी छ। सहायता होइन, व्यापार (Trade not Aid) भन्ने विश्वव्यापी मान्यता विकास हुदै गएको विश्व परिदृश्य र देशहरू बीचको सम्बन्धमा व्यापारिक हितले बढी नै महत्व पाएको वर्तमान परिवेशमा आफू सवल भएका क्षेत्रहरूको विकासबाट विश्व प्रतिस्पर्धामा उत्रिन परिरहेको छ। यसको लागि राज्यको आपूर्ति सीमितता (Supply side Constraint) का समस्या हटाउनै पर्दछ। समग्र उद्योग क्षेत्रको प्रवर्द्धन र

\* श्री पौडेल उद्योग मन्त्रालयमा उपसचिव हुनुहुन्छ।

विकास गर्ने औद्योगिक नीतिले मात्र यस्ता समस्याको समाधान सम्भव छ । राज्यको वर्तमान आवश्यकतालाई मनन गर्दै सरकारले नयाँ औद्योगिक नीति, २०६७ जारी गरेको छ ।

#### **औद्योगिक नीति, २०६७ का मुख्य मुख्य विशेषताहरू**

विगतका औद्योगिक नीतिहरू भन्दा यो नीति व्यापक (Comprehensive) छ । यो नीतिका विशेषताहरूलाई तलका विभिन्न बूँदाहरूमा उल्लेख गरिएको छ :

- (१) यो नीतिमा सार्वजनिक, निजी र सहकारी क्षेत्रको प्रभावकारी, समन्वयात्मक र सामाज्यपूर्ण सहकार्यमा दीगो एवं बृहत् आधारसहितको औद्योगिक विकासको माध्यमबाट राष्ट्रिय अर्थतन्त्रमा उल्लेख्य योगदान पुर्याई गरिबी न्यूनीकरणमा सहयोग पुर्याउने दीर्घकालीन लक्ष्य तोकिएको छ । विगतको नीतिमा यस्तो दीर्घकालीन लक्ष्य तोकिएको थिएन ।
- (२) यो नीतिले गुणस्तरीय एवं प्रतिस्पर्धात्मक औद्योगिक उत्पादन बढाउने तथा उत्पादकत्व अभिवृद्धि गर्ने, स्थानीय श्रोत र कच्चा पदार्थको उपयोग गरी क्षेत्रीय सन्तुलनमा समेत ध्यान दिने, वातावरणमैत्री उद्योगको विकास गर्ने, नेपाललाई दक्षिण एशियाको आकर्षक लगानीस्थलको रूपमा स्थापित गर्ने तथा बौद्धिक सम्पत्तिको संरक्षण गर्ने उद्देश्य राखेको छ । बौद्धिक सम्पत्तिको संरक्षण गर्ने उद्देश्य विगतको नीतिमा राखिएको थिएन ।
- (३) विगतमा उद्योगहरूलाई भन्सार महसुलको माध्यमबाट संरक्षण प्रदान गर्ने नीति थियो तर हालको नीतिमा उद्योगको प्रतिस्पर्धात्मक क्षमतामा अभिवृद्धि, उत्पादकत्व अभिवृद्धि तथा गुणस्तर कायम गर्ने कुरामा जोड दिइएको छ ।
- (४) औद्योगिक वस्तुको निकासी बढाउने नीति लिइएको छ । यसले भुक्तान सन्तुलनमा सहयोग पुर्याउँछ ।
- (५) सुमधुर औद्योगिक सम्बन्धको लागि उत्पादकत्व अभिवृद्धि हुने गरी लचिलो श्रम नीतिमा जोड दिइएको छ । साथै काम नगर्दाको पारिश्रमिक दिनु नपर्ने (No Pay for No work principle) लाई अंगीकार गर्ने उल्लेख गरिएको छ । विगतको नीति श्रमका बारेमा मौन थियो ।
- (६) लगानी वातावरण अनुकूलताको लागि औद्योगिक सुरक्षा बल गठन गरिने कुरा नीतिमा प्रष्ट उल्लेख गरिएको छ ।
- (७) प्रत्यक्ष वैदेशिक लगानी (Foreign Direct Investment) लाई आकर्षित गर्ने, गैर आवासीय नेपालीलाई नेपालमा लगानी गर्न प्रोत्साहित गरिने तथा आर्थिक कूटनीतिक सफलतामा जोड दिइने कुरा नीतिमा प्रष्टसँग उल्लेख गरिएको छ ।
- (८) निजी तथा सहकारी क्षेत्रसमेतको सहभागितामा निम्न कोष स्थापना तथा सञ्चालन गरिने कुरा नीतिमा उल्लेख गरिएको छ :
  - (क) लगानी प्रवर्द्धन कोष :
  - (ख) प्रविधि विकास कोष
  - (ग) लघु, घरेलु तथा साना उद्योग विकास कोष
  - (घ) रूग्ण उद्योग पुनरूत्थान कोष
  - (ङ) औद्योगिक लगानी संरक्षण कोष (Industrial Investment Protection Board) : गैर व्यावसायिक र गैर व्यापारिक जोखिमको क्षतिपूर्ति दिने प्रयोजनका लागि यो कोष स्थापना गरिने कुरा उल्लेख गरिएको छ ।

- (च) महिला उद्यमशीलता विकास कोष
- (९) उद्योगलाई संरक्षण, सुविधा तथा सहूलियत उपलब्ध गराउन लगानी बोर्ड, एकल विन्दु सेवा केन्द्र, औद्योगिक प्रवर्द्धन बोर्ड, औद्योगिक क्षेत्र व्यवस्थापन प्राधिकरण, औद्योगिक जनशक्ति विकास प्रतिष्ठान, नेपाल व्यवसाय मञ्च जस्ता संस्थागत व्यवस्था गरिने कुरा नीतिमा प्रतिवद्धता व्यक्त गरिएको छ ।
- (१०) उत्पादन प्रक्रियामा अग्र एवम् पृष्ठ सम्बन्ध (Forward and Backward Linkages)बढाउन सहयोग पुग्ने गरी Contract Manufacturing, Outsourcing, Contracting out, Franchising, Ancillary र Buy Back जस्ता क्रियाकलापलाई प्रोत्साहित गरिनेछ ।
- (११) बौद्धिक सम्पत्ति अधिकारको संरक्षणको लागि अधिकार सम्पन्न निकाय स्थापना गरिने कुरा नीतिमा प्रतिवद्धता जनाइएको छ ।
- (१२) नीतिमा लघु, घरेलु तथा साना उद्योग सम्बन्धी विशेष नीतिगत व्यवस्था गरिएको छ । यस अघि घरेलु तथा साना उद्योगको बारेमा उल्लेख गरिएको भए तापनि लघु उद्यमको बारेमा कही कतै चर्चासम्म गरिएको थिएन ।
- (१३) नीतिमा पहिलो पल्ट महिला उद्यमीलाई विशेष सहूलियत प्रदान गर्ने भनिएको छ । उद्योग व्यवसाय सम्बन्धी नीति निर्माण गर्ने तहमा सम्बन्धित औद्योगिक व्यवसायमा संलग्न आदिवासी, जनजाति, दलित मधेशी, समान्तकृत महिलाहरूको प्रतिनिधित्व अनिवार्य गरिने भनिएको छ । घरेलु तथा साना स्तरका महिला उद्यमीहरूलाई सरल र सुलभ तरिकाबाट समूह ऋणको व्यवस्था गरिने, उद्योग स्थापना गर्दा दिइने Venture Capital मा महिलाहरूलाई प्राथमिकता दिइने, उद्योग दर्ता गर्दा लाग्ने दस्तुरमा ३५ प्रतिशत छुट दिइने, औद्योगिक क्षेत्रमा उद्योग राख्न चाहेको अवस्थामा महिला उद्यमीलाई पहिलो प्राथमिकता दिइने, ट्रेडमार्क दर्ता गर्दा लाग्ने दस्तुरमा महिला उद्यमीलाई २० प्रतिशत छुट दिइने, महिला उद्यमीको विकासको लागि उद्योग मन्त्रालयमा छुट्टै विषयगत इकाई खडा गरिने तथा उद्योग क्षेत्रका नीति तथा कार्यक्रमको कार्यान्वयनमा Gender Analysis and Assessment गरिने जस्ता कुराहरू उल्लेख गरिएको छ ।
- (१४) औद्योगिक व्यवसायलाई उत्पादन प्रकृति तथा सेवाको आधारमा ९ भागमा वर्गीकरण गरिएको छ :
- (क) कृषि तथा वन पैदावारमा आधारित उद्योग
- (ख) उत्पादनमूलक उद्योग
- (ग) निकासीमूलक उद्योग
- (घ) उर्जामूलक उद्योग
- (ङ) खानीजन्य उद्योग
- (च) पर्यटन उद्योग
- (छ) निर्माण उद्योग
- (ज) सूचना तथा सञ्चार प्रविधि उद्योग
- (झ) सेवा उद्योग

- (१५) लगानी र प्रकृतिको आधारमा उद्योगलाई ५ भागमा वर्गीकरण गरिएको छ :
- (क) लघु उद्यम (Micro Enterprises) : घरजग्गाबाहेक बढीमा दुई लाख रूपैयासम्म स्थिरपूँजी लगानी हुने, उद्यमी स्वयम् व्यवस्थापनमा संलग्न रहने, उद्यमी समेत बढीमा ९ जना कामदार रहेको र वार्षिक कारोबार बीस लाख रूपैयाभन्दा कम रहेको तथा इन्जिन उपकरण प्रयोग हुने भएको खण्डमा त्यस्तो इन्जिन वा मोटरको तेल इन्जिन शक्ति १० किलोवाट भन्दा कम भएको उद्यमलाई लघु उद्यम भनिन्छ । तर अनुमति लिनु पर्ने उद्योगहरू यस वर्गमा पर्दैनन् ।
- (ख) परम्परागत तथा अन्य घरेलु उद्योग : परम्परागत सीप तथा प्रविधि प्रयोग हुने, स्थानीय कच्चा पदार्थ एवम् प्रविधिमा आधारित औजार उपकरण उपयोग गर्ने, देशको कला र संस्कृतिसँग सम्बद्ध र १० किलोवाटसम्म विद्युत शक्ति प्रयोग गर्ने परम्परागत किसिमका अनुसूची ६ बमोजिमका उद्योगहरू यस वर्गमा पर्दछन् ।
- (ग) साना उद्योग : लघु उद्यम, परम्परागत तथा घरेलु उद्योगबाहेक पाँच करोड रूपैयासम्म स्थिरजंथा भएका उद्योग व्यवसायलाई साना उद्योग भनिन्छ ।
- (घ) मझौला उद्योग : पाँच करोड भन्दा बढी पन्ध्र करोड रूपैयासम्म स्थिर जंथा भएका औद्योगिक व्यवसायलाई मझौला उद्योग भनिन्छ ।
- (ङ) ठूला उद्योग : पन्ध्र करोडभन्दा बढी स्थिर जंथा भएका औद्योगिक व्यवसायलाई ठूला उद्योग भनिन्छ ।
- (१६) कृषि तथा वन पैदावारमा आधारित, निर्माण, जलविद्युत, पर्यटन, खानीजन्य, सार्वजनिक परिवहन तथा परम्परागत घरेलु जस्ता नीतिको अनुसूची ७ का उद्योगलाई प्राथमिकता प्राप्त उद्योगमा वर्गीकरण गरिएको छ । यो सूचीलाई प्रत्येक ५ वर्षमा पुनरावलोकन गरिने व्यवस्था छ ।
- (१७) सुरक्षा, जनस्वास्थ्य र वातावरणमा प्रतिकूल असर पार्ने अनुसूची ८ बमोजिमका उद्योगहरू स्थापना गर्न इजाजत लिनपर्ने व्यवस्था गरिएको छ ।
- (१८) लघु उद्यमको दर्ता तथा प्रशासन स्थानीय निकायले, घरेलु तथा साना उद्योगको प्रशासन घरेलु तथा साना उद्योग विकास समितिले गर्ने नीतिमा उल्लेख गरिएको छ ।
- (१९) सूति र मदिराजन्य उद्योग तथा कत्था उद्योगबाहेक अन्य उद्योगको आर्जित आयमा लाग्ने करको कर्पोरेट दरमा ५ प्रतिशत कम गरिने उल्लेख गरिएको छ । सूति र मदिराजन्य उद्योग तथा कत्था उद्योगबाहेक अतिअविकसित क्षेत्रमा स्थापना भएका उद्योगमा लाग्ने आयकरमा ९० प्रतिशत आयकर छुट हुने, अविकसित क्षेत्रमा स्थापना हुने उद्योगलाई ८० प्रतिशत आयकर छुट हुने, कम विकसित क्षेत्रमा स्थापना भएका उद्योगमा ७० प्रतिशत आयकर छुट हुने व्यवस्था गरिएको छ ।
- (२०) अनुसूची ९ मा उल्लेखित नेपालका विकट जिल्लामा स्थापित फलफूलमा आधारित १२ प्रतिशतसम्म अल्कोहल भएका साइडर, वाइन उत्पादन गर्ने उद्योगलाई स्थापना भएको दशवर्षसम्म ४० प्रतिशत आयकर छुट हुने व्यवस्था गरिएको छ ।

- (२१) जलविद्युत उत्पादन तथा वितरण, खनिज उत्खनन, सिमेन्ट तथा क्लिङ्गर उद्योग, पेट्रोलियम उद्योगलाई स्थापना भएको मितिले ७ वर्षसम्म आयकर ९० प्रतिशत छुट दिइने व्यवस्था छ ।
- (२२) सूचना पार्कमा स्थापना हुने सूचना प्रविधि उद्योगलाई लाग्ने आयकरमा पचास प्रतिशत छुट दिइएको छ ।
- (२३) रोजगार प्रदान गरेका आधारमा समेत आयकर छुट दिने व्यवस्था नीतिमा गरिएको छ । यसलाई नीतिको उल्लेख्य प्रावधानको रूपमा लिन सकिन्छ ।
- (२४) श्रमिक हितमा गरेको खर्च, उर्जा खपत घटाउन गरेको खर्च, उत्पादकत्व अभिवृद्धिको लागि गरेको खर्च, उद्योगको भौतिक सम्पत्तिको सुरक्षाको लागि गरेको खर्च आदि विभिन्न अवस्थाका खर्चमा समेत आयकरमा सहूलियत दिइने व्यवस्था नीतिमा गरिएको छ ।
- (२५) कुनै पनि उद्योगको उत्पादन निकासीमा अन्तःशुल्क र मूल्य अभिवृद्धि कर लाग्दैन ।
- (२६) परम्परागत तथा घरेलु उद्योगलाई लाग्ने आयकरमा पचास प्रतिशत छुट हुने व्यवस्था नीतिले गरेको छ ।
- (२७) कुनै उद्योगले आफ्नो उत्पादन कोसेली घर तथा निर्यात गृहमा विक्री गरेमा त्यस्तो वस्तु उत्पादन गर्न प्रयोग भएको कच्चा पदार्थमा लागेको मू.अ.कर तथा अन्तःशुल्क सम्बन्धित उद्योगलाई फिर्ता दिइने व्यवस्था गरिएको छ ।
- (२८) विशेष आर्थिक क्षेत्र स्थापना र सो क्षेत्रमा स्थापित उद्योगले पाउने छुट तथा सुविधाका बारेमा नीतिमा उल्लेख गरिएको छ ।
- (२९) लगानी बोर्ड, औद्योगिक पवर्द्धन बोर्ड, औद्योगिक जनशक्ति विकास प्रतिष्ठान, औद्योगिक क्षेत्र व्यवस्थापन प्राधिकरण, राष्ट्रिय उत्पादकत्व परिषद्, घरेलु तथा साना उद्योग विभाग र उद्योग विभाग एकीकृत गरी बनाइने उद्योग विभाग, एकल विन्दु सेवा केन्द्र, नेपाल गुणस्तर तथा नापतौल विभाग, बौद्धिक सम्पत्ति संरक्षण कार्यालय जस्ता निकायगत व्यवस्था यो नीतिमा गरिएको छ ।
- (३०) न्यायिक अधिकारसहितको आयोग गठन गरी रूग्ण उद्योगको समस्या समाधान गरिने कुरा नीतिमा उल्लेख गरिएको छ ।
- (३१) नीति कार्यान्वयनको मूल्यांकन गरिने कुरा पनि नीतिमा गरिएको छ । नीतिको यो महत्वपूर्ण प्रावधान हो ।

#### **नीतिका कमजोर पक्षहरू**

यो नीतिका कमजोर पक्षहरू देहायको बूँदाहरूमा उल्लेख गरिएको छ :

- (१) नीति अध्ययन गर्दा समग्रमा राम्रो भए पनि यो अत्यधिक महत्वाकांक्षी देखिन्छ ।
- (२) नयाँ औद्योगिक नीतिले पनि उद्योगलाई करका माध्यमबाट पर्याप्त मात्रामा संरक्षण गर्न सकेको देखिदैन । मूल ऐनले दिएका सुविधा पनि सालवसाली ऐनले काटीदिएर उद्योग क्षेत्र निरीह बनिरहेको अवस्था देखिन्छ ।
- (३) औद्योगिक नीतिले लगानीको संरक्षणको लागि उद्योगको राष्ट्रियकरण नगरिने बाहेक पर्याप्त कानूनी तथा संस्थागत व्यवस्था गर्न सकेको छैन ।
- (४) गैरऔद्योगिक, गैरव्यावसायिक र गैरव्यापारिक जोखिमका कारणले उद्योग क्षेत्र तवाह तवाह भएका छन् । यस्तै काबुबाहिरका जोखिम बढ्दै गएर औद्योगिक घाटा बढ्दै गै

उद्योग बन्द हुने अवस्था बढिरहेको देखिन्छ । यसको समाधानको लागि नीतिमा खासै ध्यान दिएको पाइदैन ।

- (५) नीतिले विकेन्द्रित भन्दा केन्द्रीकृत संरचना खडा गरेको छ । कम्पनी रजिष्ट्रारको कार्यालय काठमाण्डौमा मात्र छ ।
- (६) औद्योगिक प्रवर्द्धन बोर्डको स्थायी संरचना छैन । स्थायी संरचनाविनाको औद्योगिक प्रवर्द्धन बोर्डको प्रभावकारिता कम रहन्छ ।
- (७) अनुगमन तथा मूल्यांकनको कमजोर व्यवस्था छ ।
- (८) प्रविधि हस्तान्तरणको कुनै संस्थागत व्यवस्था छैन ।
- (९) नीतिमा विभिन्न कोषहरूको व्यवस्था समग्र औद्योगिक विकासको लागि श्रोतको जोहो गर्ने जमर्को गरिएको कुरा राम्रो छ । तर यसमा औद्योगिक पूर्वाधार विकास कोषको बारेमा उल्लेख गरिएको छैन । भ्रगप्लथ गलम को बारेमा पनि उल्लेख छैन । यो आवश्यक छ ।
- (१०) परम्परागत तथा घरेलु उद्योगलाई सामान्यतया कर नलगाइने अन्तर्राष्ट्रिय अभ्यास भएको, नेपालको आवश्यकता पनि यस्ता उद्योगको करको माध्यमबाट समेत संरक्षण गर्नुपर्ने आवश्यकता रहेको सन्दर्भमा नेपालमा पनि आयकर छुट हुनुपर्ने हो । तर नीतिले ५० प्रतिशत मात्र छुट दिई ५० प्रतिशत आयकर लगाउने व्यवस्था गरेको छ । यसलाई नीतिको कमजोर पक्षको रूपमा लिनुपर्दछ ।
- (११) मुलुकभित्र उत्पादित वस्तु विदेश निकासी गरेमा अन्तःशुल्क र मूल्य अभिवृद्धि कर नलाग्ने व्यवस्था नीतिले गरे पनि निकासीमा आयकरको कुनै सहूलियत सम्बन्धी प्रावधान राखेको देखिदैन ।
- (१२) लघु उद्यम, घरेलु तथा साना उद्योग प्रवर्द्धनको लागि छुट्टै बोर्डको गठन गरिने कुरा उल्लेख गरिएको छ । यसै बोर्डभित्र हालको घरेलु तथा साना उद्योग विकास समितिलाई समाहित गरिने कुरा उल्लेख गरिएको छ । घरेलु तथा साना उद्योगको प्रशासन घरेलु तथा साना उद्योग विभाग र समितिका कार्यालयहरूबाट गरिने द्विविधापूर्ण हालको समस्या भने यसले समाधान गर्दछ । तर हामीले चाहेको बोर्ड हिजोको जस्तो परम्परागत ढंगले काम गर्ने खालको होइन, आमूल परिवर्तन गर्न सक्ने खालको हो । हिजोको जस्तो कार्य अदक्षता देखाइरहेका साविकका संस्थाको जनशक्तिलाई जस्ताको त्यस्तै हालको बोर्डमा समाहित गर्ने हो भने नयाँ बोलमा पुरानो रक्सी मात्र हुनेछ । हामीले लघु, घरेलु तथा साना उद्योगमा व्यापक सुधार, प्रवर्द्धन र आमूल परिवर्तन सम्भव हुने छैन ।
- (१३) यो नीतिले महिलालाई उद्योग दर्ता शुल्क, ट्रेडमार्क दर्ताशुल्कमा छुट, औद्योगिक क्षेत्रमा उद्योग राख्न प्राथमिकता, नीति निर्माणमा सहभागिता जस्ता सुविधाको बारेमा उल्लेख गरिएको भएतापनि महिलाको स्वामित्व भएका उद्योगमा केही प्रतिशत भए पनि आयकर छुट दिनुपर्नेमा सो सहूलियत दिएको छैन ।
- (१४) उत्पादकत्व अभिवृद्धिको लागि धेरै वर्ष पहिलादेखि राष्ट्रिय उत्पादकत्व तथा आर्थिक विकास केन्द्र स्थापना भै सञ्चालनमा रहिरहेको छ । यसले के काम गर्दछ, सर्वसाधारण जनताले यसको बारेमा केही थाहा पाएका छैनन् न त आम उद्यमीलाई नै यसको बारेमा थाहा छ । नयाँ नीतिले यसलाई सुदृढीकरण गरी छुट्टै राष्ट्रिय उत्पादकत्व परिषद स्थापना गरिने भनिएको छ । परिषद् बन्ने विक्तीकै यसको प्रभावकारिता एकाएक बढ्ने कुरामा शंका छ ।

- (१५) औद्योगिक सम्बन्ध सुमधुर बनाई उत्पादकत्व अभिवृद्धि गर्न लचिलो श्रम नीति बनाउने कुरा नीतिमा उल्लेख भएको छ । तर श्रम नीति तथा कानून बनाउने श्रम तथा यातायात व्यवस्था मन्त्रालयले हो । यसमा उद्योग मन्त्रालयको न्यून भूमिका रहन्छ । त्यसैले उद्योग मन्त्रालयले चाहे जस्तो श्रम नीति कुरामा विश्वस्त भै हाल्ले अवस्था छैन । नीतिगत समन्वयविना लचिलो श्रम नीति व्यवहारमा उत्रिन सक्दैन । भन्नु वर्तमान तरल राजनीतिक अवस्था, प्रमुख राजनीतिक दलबीच राजनीतिक सहमतिको अभाव, मजदूरहरू विभिन्न राजनीतिक खेमामा विभाजन भैरहेको र राजनीतिक दलहरूले यस्ता युनियन राजनीतिक शक्तिका लागि अत्यावश्यक मानिरहेको अवस्था छ । यस्तो अवस्थामा औद्योगिक नीतिले चाहेजस्तो लचिलो श्रम नीति, No Work No Pay जस्ता नीतिका कुराहरू व्यवहारमा उतार्न सम्भव छैन ।
- (१६) नीतिको दफा १०.४० मा बौद्धिक सम्पत्ति अधिकारको सबै विधालाई एकीकृत गरी बौद्धिक सम्पत्ति संरक्षण, नियमन र व्यावस्थापनका लागि छुट्टै सक्षम प्राधिकरण स्थापना गरिने कुरा उल्लेख गरिएको छ, भने सोही नीतिको दफा २०.९ मा बौद्धिक सम्पत्तिको अधिकार सम्बन्धी समग्र कार्यक्षेत्र र जिम्मेवारीलाई समेटी बौद्धिक सम्पत्ति संरक्षण कार्यालयको स्थापना गरिनेछ । बौद्धिक सम्पत्ति अधिकारको प्रवर्द्धन र प्रभावकारी संरक्षणको काम यस कार्यालयले गर्नेछ, भनिएको छ । नीतिले बौद्धिक सम्पत्तिको संरक्षणका यावत् कार्यहरू छुट्टै स्वायत्त प्राधिकरण स्थापना गरी गर्न चाहेको हो कि उद्योग विभाग अन्तर्गत एउटा बौद्धिक सम्पत्ति संरक्षण कार्यालय खोली सो कार्य गर्न खोजेको हो अस्पष्ट छ ।
- (१७) नीतिमा लघु घरेलु तथा साना उद्योग स्थापना, क्षमता विकास तथा प्राविधिक रूपमा उन्नत बनाउन प्राविधिक सेवा दिने भनिएको छ, तर प्राविधि वैक स्थापना गरी भरपर्दो सेवा दिने सोच नीतिमा राखिएको देखिदैन । साथै व्यवसाय सम्बर्द्धन सेवा लाई व्यापक विस्तार गर्नुपर्ने अवस्थामा कृषि तथा गैरकाष्ठजन्य व्यवसायमा मात्र यस्तो सेवा दिने भनिएको छ । विश्वका अन्य देशहरूलाई हेर्दा Business Incubation Centre लाई ठूलो महत्व दिई सञ्चालन गरेको देखिन्छ ।

#### नीतिमा सुधारका पक्षहरू

औद्योगिक क्षेत्रको विकास समष्टीगत आर्थिक नीतिमा भर पर्दछ । यसले राजनीतिक उच्च प्रतिवद्धताको माग गर्दछ । उद्योग क्षेत्र खास गरी लघु, घरेलु तथा साना उद्योगको विकास र प्रवर्द्धनमा स्थानीय निकायको सहयोग, लगानी र प्रतिवद्धता पनि त्यत्तिकै महत्वको हुन्छ । नेपालको औद्योगिक नीतिमा मूलतः निम्न कुराहरूमा सुधार अपेक्षित छ :

- (क) नीति भनेको नीतिको रूपमा जारी भएको कोरा दस्तावेज मात्र होइन, यसको कानूनी आधार मुख्य पक्ष हो । नीतिका कुरालाई कानूनी आधार प्रदान गरिएन भने त्यो नीतिको कुनै औचित्य नहुने हुनाले नीतिको मर्म अनुरूप औद्योगिक कानूनमा संशोधन र समायोजन हुनु जरूरी देखिन्छ ।
- (ख) नेपालका उद्योगहरूलाई गैरव्यावसायिक जोखिम विरुद्ध संरक्षण नगर्ने हो भने नेपालमा औद्योगिक विकासको कल्पना नगरे हुन्छ । उद्योग गर्नु समाज सेवाको काम होइन । उद्यमीले पूँजी, प्राविधि, व्यवस्थापन, उद्यमशीलता तथा सिर्जनशीलताको माध्यमबाट नाफामा बढोत्तरी गर्न सदैव प्रयत्नशील रहन्छ । उ व्यावसायिक जोखिमको लागि सधैं तत्पर भए पनि गैरव्यावसायिक जोखिम सामु उ निरीह हुन्छ र यी कुरा उसको वशभिन्न हुँदैनन् । त्यसैले राज्यले जहिले पनि गैरव्यावसायिक

जोखिम विरूद्ध उद्योगीलाई संरक्षणको लागि कोष व्यवस्था गरी त्यसको प्रभावकारी कार्यान्वयन गर्नु जरूरी देखिन्छ ।

- (ग) लगानी वातावरणको सिर्जना नभई उद्योग क्षेत्रको कल्पना गर्न सकिदैन । स्वदेशी लगानीलाई उचित प्रोत्साहन दिदै विदेशी लगानी भित्र्याउने नीति राज्यले लिनु पर्दछ । यस सम्बन्धमा नीतिमा लगानी वातावरण सिर्जनाका लागि यो यो कार्यबाट र यो यो निकायको समन्वयबाट यस्तो वातावरण सिर्जना गर्ने भन्ने प्रष्ट उल्लेख गर्दै त्यसको कार्यान्वयन गरे मात्र लगानी वातावरण उपयुक्त हुन्छ । कोरा कुरा उल्लेख गर्दैमा लगानी वातावरण बन्ने होइन ।
- (घ) लघु, घरेलु तथा साना उद्योगको विकासमा राज्यको पर्याप्त ध्यान जानु जरूरी छ । नीतिमा यस बारेमा उल्लेख भए पनि यस क्षेत्रको विकासमा पर्याप्त लगानी बढाई उपयुक्त वातावरण सिर्जना गर्ने कुरामा नीतिमा प्रतिबद्धता र सो अनुरूपको कार्यान्वयन चाहिन्छ ।
- (ङ) देशमा दिगो औद्योगिक विकासको लागि स्थानीय कच्चा पदार्थ, सीप र प्रविधिमा आधारित उद्योगहरूको विकास हुनु जरूरी छ । यस्ता उद्योगको विकासका लागि पूर्वाधार विकास, सेवा सुविधाको बढोत्तरीमा राज्यको औद्योगिक नीतिको पर्याप्त ध्यान पुग्नु जरूरी छ ।
- (च) विशेष आर्थिक क्षेत्र, निर्यात प्रशोधन क्षेत्रका उद्योगको विकासको लागि छुट्टै कानूनी व्यवस्था गरी तिनलाई विशेष सहूलियत र संरक्षण गर्नु जरूरी छ ।
- (छ) निकासीमा केही प्रतिशत भए पनि महसुस हुने गरी कर छुटको प्रावधान राख्नु जरूरी छ ।
- (ज) औद्योगिक नीतिको अभिन्न अंगको रूपमा रहेको लगानी बोर्ड ऐन जारी गरी यस सम्बन्धी प्रावधानलाई क्रियाशील बनाइनु पर्दछ ।
- (झ) उद्योग नीति र वाणिज्य नीति एक आपसमा परिपूरक मानिन्छन् । नेपालमा यी नीति कार्यान्वयन गर्ने निकाय पनि अलग अलग छन् भने नीति पनि अलग अलग जारी भएको छ । तर उद्योग तथा वाणिज्य क्षेत्रको विकासको लागि यी दुवैको एकीकृत नीति जारी गर्नुपर्ने देखिन्छ । साथै संस्थागत व्यवस्था पनि एउटै बनाउन उपयुक्त हुन्छ ।
- (ञ) उर्जाको उपलब्धता, औद्योगिक श्रम सम्बन्ध जस्ता पक्षमा पनि औद्योगिक नीति तथा अन्य सम्बन्धित क्षेत्रगत नीतिले उपयुक्त सम्बोधन गर्नुपर्ने हुन्छ । कार्यान्वयन चरणमा समेत उपयुक्त समन्वय र सामाजस्यता स्थापित हुनु जरूरी छ ।
- (ट) Business Incubation Centre लाई व्यवस्थित ढंगले सञ्चालन गर्न यसको पूर्वाधार विकास लगायत लगानी बढाउन नीतिले पर्याप्त ध्यान दिनु जरूरी छ ।
- (ठ) औद्योगिक प्रवर्द्धन बोर्डको व्यवस्था हुनु जरूरी छ । तवमात्र यो बोर्डको प्रभावकारिता बढ्न जान्छ ।
- (ड) प्रविधि हस्तान्तरणको संस्थागत व्यवस्था गरिनु जरूरी देखिन्छ ।

### निष्कर्ष

राज्यको समग्र आर्थिक विकासको लागि औद्योगिक विकास अपरिहार्य आवश्यकता हो । संसारका समुन्नत देशहरू औद्योगीकरणबाटै त्यहाँ पुगेका हुन् । औद्योगिक विकासको नारा लगाउन जति सजिलो छ, औद्योगिक विकासको अनुकूल वातावरण तयार गरी लगानी आकर्षित गर्न त्यतिकै कठिन छ । एकपटक जारी गरेको औद्योगिक कानून वा नीतिले तीब्ररूपमा परिवर्तित विश्वसन्दर्भ र वातावरणलाई समेट्न

नसक्ने हुनाले आज उपयुक्त मानिएको कानून वा नीति भोलिको लागि अव्यवहारिक हुन सक्छ। त्यसैले औद्योगिक कानून र उद्योग सम्बन्धी नीतिको समयानुकूल संशोधन र परिमार्जन हुनु जरूरी ठानेर सरकारले नयाँ औद्योगिक नीति, २०६७ जारी गरेको हो। लामो प्रसववेदना खप्दै भरखरै जारी भएको नयाँ औद्योगिक नीति उद्योग क्षेत्रको एउटा कोशेढुंगा हो। केही कमी कमजोरी भए पनि नयाँ औद्योगिक नीति उद्योग क्षेत्रमा देखा परेका समग्र समस्याहरूलाई सम्बोधन गर्न सक्ने खालको छ। नयाँ औद्योगिक नीतिले उद्योग क्षेत्रका धेरै समस्या समाधान हुने उद्योगीहरूको विश्वास रहेको छ। यसलाई व्यवहारमा उतार्न नयाँ औद्योगिक कानून तत्काल जारी गर्नुपर्ने आवश्यकता देखिएको छ। आर्थिक मुद्दाभन्दा राजनीतिक मुद्दाले बढी महत्व पाइरहेको वर्तमान अवस्थामा नीतिका मर्म अनुरूपको औद्योगिक व्यवसाय ऐन तथा लगानी बोर्ड ऐन तत्कालै जारी हुने कुरामा अन्योल देखिएको छ। उद्योग तथा व्यापार क्षेत्र, नागरिक समाज, राजनीतिक दल तथा तिनका भातृ संगठन सबैले यसमा चासो देखाउनै पर्ने बेला आएको छ। सबै क्षेत्र, तह र तप्काबाट उचित दबाव दिन सके नयाँ उद्योग कानून बनी नयाँ औद्योगिक नीतिका प्रावधानले मूर्त रूप पाउने अपेक्षा गर्न सकिन्छ।

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# आर्थिक योजना - अतीतदेखि वर्तमानसम्म सतर्भावना र चुनौतीहरू

अच्युतप्रसाद पौडेल “चिन्तन” \*

## सार

हालै नेपालले अल्पविकसित राष्ट्रको अध्यक्षताको पदभार ग्रहण गरेको छ। विश्वमानचित्रमा विकासको दृष्टिमा हामी धेरै पछाडि रहेको कुरा यसले पनि थप पुष्टि गरेको छ। विकासका पूर्वाधारहरू तयार गर्दै अगाडि बढ्नेक्रममा हाम्रो मुलुकमा योजनावद्ध विकासको प्रयासले निरन्तरता पाएको आधाशताब्दी नाघेको छ। दशवटा आवधिक योजना सम्पन्न भइसकेका छन्। भौतिक संरचनाको विकासका साथै क्षेत्रीय विकास, न्यूनतम आवश्यकताको पूर्ति, गरीबी न्यूनीकरण गर्ने उत्कट चाहना हुँदाहुँदै पनि हाम्रा योजनाहरूले तय गरेका लक्ष्यहरू हातलाग्न नसकेको अनुभूति भएको छ। आर्थिक वृद्धिदरको हिसावमा पनि हाम्रो मुलुक अल्पविकसित मुलुक मध्ये पनि प्रगति पथमा पछाडि नै परेको छ। विगतमा अगाडिएको राजनैतिक पद्धतिलाई आम जनताले आत्मसात् गर्न नसकी मुलुकको दिगो र भरपर्दो विकास हुन नसकेको सन्दर्भलाई २०४६ को जन आन्दोलन र २०६२/६३ को युगान्तकारी जन आन्दोलन दुईले स्पष्ट पारेको छ। पुराना राजनैतिक संरचनाहरू पूर्णतः भत्किएको परिप्रेक्षमा समावेशी आवाज सहित जनस्तरबाटै नयाँ योजनाहरूको आरम्भ गर्नुपर्ने हालको परिस्थितिमा अतीतदेखि वर्तमानसम्मको सामान्य समीक्षाको साथै संघीय लोकतान्त्रिक गणराज्य नेपालको भावी योजनाका अवसर र चुनौतीका साथै विश्व आर्थिक मन्दीका कारण नेपाललाई परेको प्रभावको विवेचना गर्ने समेत यस लेखको मूल उद्देश्य रहेको छ।

## पृष्ठभूमि

समष्टि रूपमा हेर्दा विश्व आर्थिक मन्दीले विश्व अर्थतन्त्रलाई नै ठूलो चुनौती दिएको छ। दोस्रो विश्वयुद्धपछिको ठूलो विश्वआर्थिक मन्दीको कारण सवैजसो राष्ट्रहरू आक्रान्त बने। विश्व अर्थतन्त्र खुम्चिएको बेला रोजगारीका अवसरहरू घट्न गई अमेरिका, वेलायत जस्ता विकसित मुलुकहरूलाई पनि ठूलो समस्या सृजना भयो भने अधिकांश विकासोन्मुख मुलुकहरू यसका प्रभावबाट अलग रहन सकेनन्। वित्तीय संकटकै प्रभावस्वरूप सन् २००७ को तुलनामा सन् २००८ मा विश्वको आर्थिक वृद्धिदर २.० प्रतिशतले घटेको छ सन् २००९ मा यो ४.५ प्रतिशतले घट्न गई विश्वको आर्थिक वृद्धिदर १.३ प्रतिशतले ऋणात्मक हुने देखिएको छ। सन् २००७ मा ५.२ प्रतिशत कायम रहेको विश्वको आर्थिक वृद्धिदर सन् २००८ मा ३.२ प्रतिशत रही सन् २००९ मा १.३ प्रतिशतले ऋणात्मक स्थितिमा गुज्रने अवस्था छ। यो आर्थिक वृद्धिदरमा विकसित मुलुकहरूको ३.८ प्रतिशतले ऋणात्मक हुने देखिन्छ भने अन्य मुलुकहरूको वृद्धिदर १.६ प्रतिशतले बढ्ने देखिन्छ। एसियाली मुलुकको अर्थतन्त्र ५.६ प्रतिशतले उच्च ऋणात्मक हुने समेत प्रक्षेपण गरिएकोले नेपालजस्तो अल्प विकसित मुलुकलाई थप आर्थिक विकासको संकटबाट अलग राख्न सकिने स्थिति देखिदैन। छिमेकी मुलुकले गरेको तीव्र आर्थिक विकासका कारण सन् २००८ मा चीनले ९.० प्रतिशत र भारतले ७.३ प्रतिशतको दरमा आर्थिक वृद्धि गरेका थिए भने सन् २००९ मा यो प्रतिशत घटेर चीनले ६.५ प्रतिशत एवं भारतले केवल ४.५ प्रतिशत वृद्धिदरमा चित्त बुभाउनु पर्ने आंकलन गरिएको छ।

\* श्री पौडेल गोश्वरा हुलाक कार्यालयमा उपसचिव पदमा कार्यरत हुनुहुन्छ।

नेपालको गत आ.व.को आर्थिक वृद्धिदर न्यून हुने प्रमुख कारणमा भने कूल गार्हस्थ्य उत्पादन आ.व. ०६४।६५ मा ५.३ प्रतिशतले बढेकोमा गत आ.व. ०६५।६६ मा ४.७ प्रतिशतले मात्रै वृद्धि भएको र प्रतिकूल मौसम, कृषिक्षेत्रको उत्पादनको कमी, ऊर्जासंकट, विद्युतीय एवं पेट्रोलियम पदार्थ आपूर्ति स्थितिमा ठूलो समस्या, बन्द, हडतालका कारण औद्योगिक उत्पादन एवं उत्पादकत्वमा कमी छन् । अन्य विविध कारणहरूले गर्दा अर्थव्यवस्थालाई टेवा सेवा पु-याउने सबैक्षेत्रको उत्पादन दरमा ह्रास आउन पुग्यो । आ.व. ०६४।६५ मा सेवा क्षेत्रबाट ७.०० प्रतिशतले गरेको योगदान आ.व. ०६५।०६६ मा ५.९ प्रतिशतले मात्र गर्न पुगेको छ । गत वर्षको उच्च मुद्रास्फीतिदर र दुई अंकको उच्च मूल्य वृद्धिदरले जनताका आशाहरू निराशामा पुगिरहेको स्थिति, जनताको क्रयशक्ति, उनीहरूमा प्रतिकूल प्रभाव, शान्तिपूर्ण अवतरण भैसकेको मुलुकमा फेरि अशान्तिका बादलहरू मडारिरहेको अवस्था समेतलाई दृष्टिगत गर्दा व्यापक आर्थिक विकासबाट मुलुकलाई त्राण दिन भावी योजनाहरूले ठूलै चुनौती खेप्नुपर्ने देखिएको छ ।

#### अतीतलाई सम्झदा :

मुलुकमा हालसम्म १० वटा आवधिक योजनाहरू पूरा भैसकेका छन् । ती पूरा भएका १० वटा योजनाहरूका सार यस प्रकार छन् ।

#### क) प्रथम पञ्चवर्षीय योजना (वि.सं. २०१३- २०१८) :

प्रशासन सुधार सँग सँगै योजनावद्ध आर्थिक सुधार गर्ने क्रममा वि.सं.२०१३ सालमा मुलुकमा योजनावद्ध विकासको थालनी भएको हो । भरपर्दो आँकडाको अभाव, अनुभवको कमी र दक्ष प्राविधिकहरू स्वदेशमा उपलब्ध हुन नसकेका विविध कारणका बावजुद पनि सबै जिल्ला सदरमुकाममा आ.वा. सेटको स्थापना र काठमाडौँ- हेटौँडा रोपवे उपलब्धि हात लाग्न सकेको यस योजनामा जम्मा जम्मी खर्च रू. ३३ करोडको लागत भएको र यो योजनाको मुख्य प्राथमिकता भनेको यातायात र सञ्चार नै रहेको थियो ।

#### ख) दोस्रो त्रिवर्षीय योजना (वि.स. २०१९-२०२२)

पञ्चायती व्यवस्थाको सुरुवात सँग सँगै २०१९ साल देखि ३ वर्षको लागि आरम्भ गरिएको यस आवधिक योजनामा प्रथम पञ्चवर्षीय योजनामै परेको सञ्चार र यातायात नै प्राथमिकताको क्रममा परेको थियो भने क्षेत्रीय विकास नीतिलाई अघि सार्दै रू. ६० करोडको लागतमा यो योजना जन समक्ष प्रस्तुत भएको थियो ।

#### ग) तेस्रो पञ्चवर्षीय योजना (वि.सं. २०२२-२०२७):

विकासको पूर्वाधार यातायात र सञ्चारलाई नै पहिलो प्राथमिकता दिई दोस्रो प्राथमिकता कृषि क्षेत्रलाई दिई आरम्भ भएको दोस्रो पञ्चवर्षीय योजनामा रू. २५० करोडको व्ययभार थियो भने विद्युत विकास क्रमलाई पनि यसै अवधिमा अघि सारिएको थियो ।

#### घ) चौथो पञ्चवर्षीय योजना (वि.सं. २०२७-२०३२)

भण्डै तेस्रो आवधिक योजनाकै निरन्तरताको रूपमा देखा परेको चौथो पञ्चवर्षीय योजनामा पहिलो प्राथमिकता यातायातलाई नै तोकिएको थियो भने दोस्रो प्राथमिकतामा कृषि नै थियो । मुलुक विस्तारै अन्तर्राष्ट्रिय क्षेत्रमा आफ्नो पहुँच समेत वृद्धि गर्न अग्रसर हुँदा अन्तर्राष्ट्रिय व्यापार, स्वदेशी श्रमको अधीक उपयोग, आन्तरिक स्रोत साधनको प्रभावकारी उपयोग समेतलाई पछ्याउदै अगाडि बढेको यस योजनाको अन्त्यमा प्रशासन सुधारको तीव्रता पनि जोडिएको थियो ।

#### ङ) पाँचौँ पञ्चवर्षीय योजना (वि.सं. २०३२-२०३७)

मुलुक पाँचौँ पञ्चवर्षीय योजनाको संघारमा पुग्दा कृषि क्षेत्रलाई पहिलो प्राथमिकता राख्न वाध्य भयो किनकि कृषि प्रधान मुलुकको लागि दोस्रो विकल्प रहेन । क्षेत्रीय, प्रादेशिक सन्तुलनको अवधारणा, न्यूनतम र अधिकतम लक्ष्यको सीमांकन, विकास निर्माणको व्यापक अग्रसरता उत्तर दक्षिण एवं पूर्व

पश्चिम राजमार्गको अवधारणा र स्थानीय विकास मंत्रालयको छुट्टै संगठन संरचना यस योजनावधिका सारभूत विशेषता हुन् भने रू. १४०४ करोडको लगानी गर्दै यस योजनाले पनि बिदा लिएको देखिन्छ ।

**च) छैठौँ पञ्चवर्षीय योजना (वि.सं.२०३७- २०४२)**

मुलुकमा राजनैतिक असन्तोष, पञ्चायती व्यवस्थाको विकल्पको खोजी, जनमत संग्रह जस्ता युगीन घटनाहरू सँग जोडिएको छैठौँ पञ्चवर्षीय योजनाले जनताका आधारभूत आवश्यकता- गाँस, बास र कपडा एवं शिक्षा, स्वास्थ्य जस्ता क्षेत्रमा विशेष जोड दिँदै रू. २५७५ करोड खर्च गर्ने लक्ष्य लिएको थियो । अधिल्लो आवधिक योजनाकै निरन्तरता कृषि क्षेत्रलाई प्राथमिकता दिइएको थियो ।

**छ) सातौँ पञ्चवर्षीय योजना (वि.सं.२०४२-२०४७)**

वि.सं. २०४२ देखि आरम्भ गरिएको सातौँ पञ्च वर्षीय योजनामा आइपुग्दा मुलुकले स्थानीय राजनैतिक निकायहरूलाई सक्षम बनाउँदै, आर्थिक व्यवस्थापनमा विकेन्द्रीकरण गर्ने नीति लियो । गरीव मुलुकमा साभा सहकारी भावनाले वृहत्तर हित हुने सोच, जनताका न्यूनतम आधारभूत आवश्यकताको पूर्ति, क्षेत्रगत लक्ष्यहरूको किटान आदि मुख्य विषयहरू लिएको यस योजनाको पूर्व सन्ध्यामै शक्तिको केन्द्रस्थल सिंहदरवार र राजदरवार क्षेत्रमा बम विस्फोट भई जनताका असन्तोषका लहर थप हुँदै आए । अन्ततः योजना अवधिको अन्त्यतिर प्रतिवन्धित राजनैतिक दलका नेताहरूको आहवानमा छँडिएको जन आन्दोलनले युगान्तकारी राजनैतिक परिवर्तन ल्यायो । राजनैतिक दल र राजा बीच संझौता भई पञ्चायती व्यवस्थाको अन्त्य भयो र यस योजनाकै अन्त्य तिर उदार, खुल्ला र प्रतिस्पर्धी आर्थिक वातावरण सिर्जनाको साथ साथै बहुदलीय राजनैतिक व्यवस्थाको अवधारणा सहित नेपाल अधिराज्यको संविधान २०४७ जारी भै लागू भयो ।

**ज) आठौँ पञ्चवर्षीय योजना ( वि.सं. २०४९- २०५४)**

यस योजनाले सामाजिक क्षेत्रलाई विशेष प्राथमिकता दिएको देखिन्छ । शिक्षा, स्वास्थ्य, खानेपानीको क्षेत्रलाई जोड दिइएको यस योजनाको खर्च ६५ प्रतिशत विदेशी सहयोगमा निर्भर देखियो भने गरीबी उन्मूलनदेखि क्षेत्रीय असन्तुलन घटाउने कार्यहरूमा जोड दिइएको देखिन्छ । कृषिक्षेत्र दोश्रो प्राथमिकता र विद्युत तेस्रो प्राथमिकतामा परेको यो योजना भित्रै मर्स्याङ्दी र काली गण्डकी योजना कार्यान्वयनमा आएको देखिन्छ । यसैबीच वि.सं. २०५२ फागुन १ देखि नेकपा माओवादीले रोल्पाबाट जनयुद्धको आरम्भ गरेको र मुलुकमा गरीबी र विपन्न स्थितिको संकेत गर्ने भूमि रोल्पा, प्युठान आदि क्षेत्र यसबाट बढी प्रभावित भएको पाइयो ।

**झ) नवौँ पञ्चवर्षीय योजना ( वि.सं. २०५४- २०५९)**

गरीबीको रेखामुनि रहेका जनसंख्याको प्रतिशत ३२ मा झार्ने, गरीबी निवारणका अतिरिक्त कृषि, जलस्रोत, उद्योग, पर्यटनको विकासद्वारा समष्टिगत आर्थिक वृद्धि ६ प्रतिशतमा पुऱ्याउने मूल लक्ष्य सहित वि.सं. २०५४ मा आरम्भ भएको नवौँ पञ्चवर्षीय योजनामा जम्मा जम्मी ३४४.९ अर्व खर्च गर्ने लक्ष्य राखिएको थियो तर मुलुकमा सशस्त्र द्वन्दको अत्यधीक प्रभाव, राजदरवारको अकल्पनीय घटना र वाह्य प्रभावमा सन २००१ सेप्टेम्बर ११ को अमेरिकी टवीन टावरको हवाई आक्रमण समेतको कारणले नेपालको नवौँ योजनालाई नराम्रो प्रभाव पऱ्यो । फलतः आर्थिक वृद्धिदर जम्मा ३.६ प्रतिशतमा सीमित रही गरीबीको रेखामुनिको जनसंख्या ३८ प्रतिशतवाट तल झर्न सकेको देखिएन ।

**ञ) दसौँ पञ्चवर्षीय योजना ( वि.सं. २०५९-२०६४)**

८ देखि १० जिल्ला सदरमुकामहरूमा मोटरवाटो पुऱ्याउने, गरीबीको रेखामुनिको जनसंख्या ३० प्रतिशतमा झार्ने, सामान्य अवस्था रहिरहेमा मुलुकको आर्थिक वृद्धि दर ६.२ प्रतिशतमा पुऱ्याई गरीबी न्यूनीकरणलाई नै मूल प्राथमिकता दिई वि.सं. २०५९ सालदेखि आरम्भ भएको दशौँ पञ्चवर्षीय योजनाले वि.सं. २०६४ आषाढवाट विदा लिएको छ । यस योजनाकालमा मुलुकमा आमूल परिवर्तनको संकेतहरू देखिए । धनी र गरीवको बीचको खाडल डरलाग्दो रूपमा देखापऱ्यो । जन आन्दोलन दुईको नाममा

मुलुकका ठूला राजनैतिक दल एवं नेकपा माओवादी संयुक्त रूपमा सडकमा उत्रिए । १९ दिन सम्म भएको आन्दोलन संसदको पुनः स्थापनाको घोषणा पछि टुङ्गियो । संविधान सभाको चुनाव, अन्तरिम संविधान जस्ता विशेष राजनैतिक मुद्दाले नै वढी प्रश्रय पाएको यस योजना अवधिको प्रगति गरीवीको रेखामुनिका जनसंख्या ३१ प्रतिशतमा भरेको र ७ जिल्ला सदरमुकाममा मोटरबाटो पुगी आर्थिक वृद्धिदर भने केवल ३.४ प्रतिशतमा सीमित बन्न पुगेको देखियो ।

**(घ) वर्तमानका समस्याहरू:**

**अन्तरिम योजना (वि.सं.२०६४- २०६७)**

वि.सं. २०६४ सालदेखि मुलुकमा हाल तीन वर्षे अन्तरिम योजना सञ्चालनमा छ । यो विशेष परिस्थितिमा लागू भएको एउटा दस्तावेज हो । मुलुकमा आरम्भ भएको ११ वर्ष अघिको सशस्त्र द्वन्दले विश्राम पाएको र जन आन्दोलन दुईले अभुतपूर्व सफलता हासिल गरेको समय पछिको एक प्रतिवद्धता पनि हो यो । मुलुकमा आवधिक योजनाहरू १० वटा पूरा भैसक्दा पनि गरीवीको रेखा मुनिका जनसंख्या ३१ प्रतिशतमै रहेका, अधिराज्यका जिल्ला सदरमुकामहरूले १२ वटा जिल्ला सदरमुकामहरूमा मेटेरबाटो पुग्न नसकेको, अपेक्षाकृत आर्थिक वृद्धिदर हासिल हुन नसकेको, धनी र गरीव बीचको दूरी घट्न नसकेको पृष्ठभूमिमा आएको यस अन्तरिम योजनाले पुनः निर्माण, पुनर्स्थापना, पुनः एकीकरणको प्रयासलाई जोड दिँदै भौतिक पूर्वाधारमा बढी ध्यान दिने, बाराको निजगढमा थप अन्तर्राष्ट्रिय विमानस्थलको निर्माण गर्ने, पोखरा एवं लुम्बिनीमा दुई क्षेत्रीय विमानस्थल मैदान निर्माण गर्ने, जिल्ला सदरमुकाममा जोड्न बाँकी १२ वटा सदरमुकामहरूमा मोटर बाटो जोड्ने, रोजगारी वृद्धिदर ३.५ प्रतिशत पुऱ्याउने, समष्टिगत आर्थिक वृद्धिदर ५.५ प्रतिशत पुऱ्याई गरीवीको रेखामुनि रहेका जनसंख्याको प्रतिशत २४ मा झार्ने समेतको लक्ष्य लिएको छ ।

यसले पुनः निर्माण तथा पुनः स्थापनामा सामाजिक समावेशीकरणमा बढी जोड दिएको छ । कृषि तथा पर्यटन उद्योगमा जोड दिँदै तिनको पूर्वाधार विकासका लागि सडक, सिँचाइ, सञ्चारक्षेत्रमा जोड दिएको देखिन्छ । यस्ता पूर्वाधारमा लगानी वृद्धि गर्दै मानव संशाधनका लागि शिक्षा, स्वास्थ्य, खानेपानी र सरसफाइका क्षेत्रमा लगानी बढाउने विषय मुख्य प्राथमिकताका क्षेत्रहरू छन् । समग्रमा भन्नुपर्दा योजना सुरु हुँदा रहेको निरपेक्ष गरीवको संख्या ३१ प्रतिशतबाट २४ प्रतिशतमा झार्ने लक्ष्य सहित गरीव न्यूनीकरणका अभियान सञ्चालन गर्ने नीति यस योजनाको रहेको देखिन्छ ।

साविकका भन्दा सहभागितात्मक देखिएको यस योजनाले मुख्य निम्न रणनीति लिएको छ ।

- राहत, पुनर्निर्माण र पुनर्एकीकरणमा जोड
- रोजगारमूलक, गरीवोन्मुख र फराकिलो आर्थिक वृद्धि
- सुशासन तथा सेवाप्रवाहमा प्रभाकारिता
- भौतिक पूर्वाधार विकासमा लगानी वृद्धि
- समाजिक विकासमा जोड
- समावेशी विकास सहित लक्षित कार्यक्रम सञ्चालन ।

चालु त्रिवर्षीय यस योजनाले लिएको लक्ष्य ५.५ प्रतिशतको आर्थिक वृद्धिदर हो । यसै लक्ष्य पूर्ति हेतु गत आ.व. मा लिइएको ७.० प्रतिशत आर्थिक वृद्धिदर हासिल नभएकाले समष्टिमा यस त्रिवर्षीय योजनाले लिएको लक्ष्य पूर्ति नहुने आशंकाहरू देखिएका छन् । उत्पादन, रोजगारी जीवनयापनको सामान्य आधार र अर्थतन्त्रको प्रमुखक्षेत्र कृषिनै हो अनि कृषिको मूल आधार सिँचाइ नै हो । हामीले आधा शताब्दीदेखि कृषि, सिँचाइमा जोड दिँदै आए पनि यसमा सन्तोष लिने ठाउँ नहुनाले त्रिवर्षीय योजनाको मूल ध्येय हात नलाग्ने सकेतहरू देखिन थालेका हुन ।

योजनाको ध्येय प्राप्तमा गैह्र कृषिक्षेत्रले महत्वपूर्ण स्थान ओगट्नुपर्नेमा गैह्र कृषिक्षेत्र, औद्योगिक सम्बन्धको मूल आधार ऊर्जा नै भएको र मुलुकले १०० वर्ष अघिदेखि जलविद्युतका विषयमा गम्भीर सोच गर्दा पनि यस अवधिमा आइपुग्दा ऊर्जाको चरम संकट भोग्नुपरेकाले समेत त्रिवर्षीय योजनाको उद्देश्य हात नलाग्ने सङ्केत देखापरेको हो । नयाँ औद्योगिक लगायत श्रम नीतिहरू आउन नसक्नु र विधेयकहरू पास गर्ने विधायकहरूबीच मतैक्य नभई संसदका नियमित बैठक समेत चल्न नसकेको स्थितिले आम जनाहरू थप निराश हुनुको साथै विकासको पूर्वाधार तय हुन समेत विषम परिस्थिति पनि खडा भैरहेका छन् ।

हाम्रो मुलुकमा रोजगारीको अवसर कम हुँदै गए पछि विगत दशकदेखि वैदेशिक रोजगारीमा भएको लचिलो नीतिको कारण रहेका नेपालीहरूको श्रमबाट मुलुकको विप्रेषण रकम निरन्तर बढ्दै आएको हो । आ.व. ०६६६७ को सुरु ३ महिनामा यस्तो विप्रेषण रकम बढ्नेक्रम निकै तीव्र देखियो । सबैभन्दा उच्चदरमा यसपल्ट यो रकम वृद्धि भयो । हाल कुल गार्हस्थ्य उत्पादन भण्डै बीस प्रतिशत हिस्सा यस्तो विप्रेषणबाट धानिँदै आएको छ विप्रेषण रकमको धेरै हिस्सा भने आधारभूत उपभोग्य सामानको आयातमा बढी खर्च भएको छ । विप्रेषण वृद्धिबाट विदेशी मुद्रा सञ्चितीमा आशातीत सफलता देखिए पनि उपयोग्य सामानको आयातमा वृद्धि र हाम्रो मुलुकमा उत्पादनका सामग्रीहरू निर्यातको कमीले विप्रेषणको उत्साहलाई निराशामा परिणत गरिदिएको छ । अर्को तर्फ अनुत्पादकक्षेत्रमा लगानी वृद्धि भएको छ ।

सस्तै मूल्यमा भए पनि नेपाली श्रमिकहरू विदेशमा आपूर्ति भै रोजगारीलाई केही टेवा पुगको भए पनि हालैको विश्व आर्थिक मन्दी प्रभावित मुलुकबाट नेपाली श्रमिकहरूको कोटा कटौतीले विद्यमान चुनौतीलाई थप उजागर गरेको छ भने मुलुकभित्र नै रोजगारी सृजना गरी उत्पादनशील कार्यमा अभ्यस्त गराउन थप आर्थिक लगानीका ढोकाहरू खोल्न र वैदेशिक लगानी आकर्षण गर्नका लागि सबैभन्दा राजनैतिक स्थिरता हुनुपर्ने हुँदा राजनैतिक अस्थिर वातावरण पनि आर्थिक विकासको महत्वपूर्ण चुनौतीका पक्षलाई नकार्न सक्ने स्थिति छैन ।

अस्थिर राजनैतिक परिदृश्यले ल्याएको वातावरणीय समस्या,बन्द, हडताल, चक्काजामको स्थिति दिन परदिन डरलाग्दो देखिएको छ भने वर्षेनी १० लाख विदेशी पर्यटकहरू भित्र्याई आर्थिक विकास गर्ने लक्ष्यमा व्यवधानहरू देखिएका छन् । बाढी पहिरोको समस्याले विश्वकै तीसौँ स्थानमा पर्ने नेपालको पश्चिमक्षेत्रमा आएको यसवर्षको भीषण प्राकृतिक प्रकोपले अरवौँ सम्पत्तिको क्षति भएको छ । मानवीयक्षति त्यो भन्दा बढी डरलाग्दो देखियो । प्राकृतिक प्रकोप र भूकम्पीय जोखिम समेतले हेर्दा आन्तरिक पर्यटन र वाह्य पर्यटकीय दृष्टिले पनि मुलुक गम्भीर स्थितिमा रहेको छ भने सन् २०११ को पर्यटन वर्ष सफल पार्न पनि हाम्रा सामु प्राकृतिक प्रकोप एवं प्रदूषण जस्ता थुप्रै जटिलताहरू विद्यमान छन् । विगतका योजनाहरूबाट मुलुकले प्राप्त गरेको विकासका आधारशीलाहरू मुलुकको लामो द्वन्दकालमा भत्के बिग्रेका र यिनको पुनः निर्माणमा तीव्रता दिन नसकिएकाले र मानव संशाधनको दीर्घकालीन योजना तय भइ नसक्ता पनि हाम्रो आर्थिक विकासका आगामी दिनहरू कम चुनौतीपूर्ण देखिँदैनन् ।

मुलुकमा खाद्य संकट दिनानुदिन बढिरहेको छ । कृषिक्षेत्रको योगदान अपेक्षाकृत वृद्धि नभएकाले यसो हुन गएको हो । कुल जनसंख्याको ८० प्रतिशत हिस्सा कृषिक्षेत्र नै रहेको र यस्ता जनसंख्या प्राय ग्रामीण भेगमै रहेका र कुल गार्हस्थ्य उत्पादनमा एक तिहाई हिस्सा यसै क्षेत्रमा रहेको र ग्रामीण भूभागको जीवनस्तर नउठेसम्म आर्थिक विकासका संकेतहरू देखिँदैनन् । अर्कोतिर यसैक्षेत्रमा प्राकृतिक विपत्तिहरू बढी रहेका छन् । भूस्खलन, बाढी, पहिरो लगायत यसैवर्षको पश्चिमक्षेत्रमा देखापरेको फाडापखालाको महामारीदेखि बाढी पहिरोले पु-याएको ठूलो क्षतिका कारण सामान्य जीवन संचालन गर्न कठिन भइरहेको छ साथै आपद्दुद्धार हेतु राहतकालागि नै मुलुकको ठूलो धनराशी खर्च भैरहेको त्रासदीय वातावरणले पनि हामी र हाम्रो आर्थिक विकासमा ठूलो र गम्भीर चुनौती उब्जाएको छ ।

मुलुक संघीय लोकतान्त्रिक प्रणालीको मोडमा छ । यस अघि अपनाइएका राजनैतिक प्रणाली सबै जसो व्यवस्थाहरू मुलुकका लागि अफाप सिद्ध भए भने नयाँ नेपाल निर्माणको क्रममा, नयाँ परिवेशमा , नयाँ

संघीय राज्यको परिकल्पना गर्ने क्रममा विश्वकै सामु फरक ढंगको जातीय एवं भाषिक आधार देखापर्दैछन । भौगोलिक एवं प्राकृतिक स्रोत, साधनलाई आधार नमान्दा यसै विषयलाई लिएर विश्वका भण्डै २ दर्जन मुलुकहरू लडाइँ, युद्ध, भैभगडामा देखिएको पृष्ठभूमिलाई हामीले पनि मध्यनजर गर्दा प्राकृतिक स्रोत र क्षेत्र तथा साधनका आधारमा राज्यको पुनः संरचनाको वकालत पनि हाम्रा लागि चुनौतीपूर्ण नै देखिएको छ ।

सयुक्त राष्ट्रसंघको आह्वानमा यसैवर्ष अक्टोबर १ देखि १८ सम्म ३ दिन विशेष कार्यक्रम सहित अन्तर्राष्ट्रिय गरीबी उन्मूलन दिवस मनाउँदै गरेको पूर्व सन्ध्यामा अल्प विकसित मुलुकको अध्यक्षता गर्ने अवसर नेपाल नै पाएका वखत हाम्रा सामु खाद्य संकट, भोकमरी, आर्थिकमन्दी जलवायु परिवर्तन जस्ता नयाँ चुनौती थपिएका छन् । भोकमरी समस्याको समाधान गर्न सकेनौं भने र हामीले स्वीकार पनि गरि सकेका छौं ।

प्रजातन्त्र प्राप्तिको लगत्तै पछि नेपालमा वि.सं. २००८ देखि आय ब्यय विवरण वार्षिकवजेटको सुरुवात गरे पनि हालसम्मको हाम्रो विकासको अवरोध गरीबी, पर्याप्त पूँजीको अभाव, औद्योगिकीकरण, निर्यातमा कमी, असमान वितरण प्राकृतिक साधनको न्यून प्रयोग, वैदेशिक ऋण र सहयतामै अर्थतन्त्रको निर्भरताहुने परिस्थितिरहीरहेको र उत्पादन र उत्पादकत्वको कमी वृद्धि गरी राजनैतिक अस्थिरता जस्ता जटिलताहरूलाई हामीले घटाउन सकेका छैनौं ।

#### (ड) निर्यात आयातको संकेत

उद्योग व्यापारको क्षेत्रमा मुलुक अघि बढ्न मजदुर व्यवस्थापन सम्बन्धी कार्यलाई तीव्रता दिनुपर्ने हुन्छ । यसका लागि नयाँ श्रम नीतिको साथै विगत देखि थन्किए रहेको औद्योगिक विकासको लागि नयाँ औद्योगिक एवं लगानी नीति आवश्यक परिसकेको छ । वैदेशिक लगानीमा आएको शिथिलतालाई पनि नयाँ ऊर्जा दिन जरूरी छ । सरकार, व्यवसायी एवं श्रमिकका बीच समन्वय गराउने कार्यपनि हालको अवस्थामा एक चुनौती भन्नु पर्छ । आर्थिक विकासको मेरुदण्ड निर्यात जन्यवस्तुको वृद्धि नै हो यसका लागि विदेशी मुलुकहरूसँगको मैत्री बढाई उत्पादित वस्तुको मूल्य कम, गुणस्तरमा वृद्धि समेत गर्नुपर्ने हुन्छ । त्यसका लागि निरन्तर भैरहेको विद्युत आपूर्तिमा लोड सेडिङ्ग र इन्धनको मूल्यवृद्धिले नकारात्मक असर पारेको छ । दसौँ पञ्चवर्षीय योजना अवधिको प्रारम्भिक चरण सन् २००३ लाई मुलुकले “निर्यात वर्ष” को रूपमा घोषणा गरेको थियो । नेपालको निर्यात सामग्री मध्ये उच्च रूपमा रहेको तयारी पोशाक त्यस बेला अत्यधिक रूपमा अमेरिकामा निर्यातको तुलनामा हाल सन् २००८ अप्रील महिनाको प्रगति हेर्दा ८९ प्रतिशतले निर्यात घटेको देखिन्छ । अमेरिका निर्यात हुने निर्यात वस्तु परिमाण र मूल्य दुवै घट्ने क्रम जारी छ । सन् २००४ देखि अमेरिकाको कोटा प्रणालीमा खारेजी, अमेरिकी डलरको मूल्यमा देखिएको गिरावट, अमेरिकाका स्थानीय वासिन्दाको मागमा आएको शिथिलताले नेपाली निर्यात जन्य वस्तुको परिमाण घटेको हो । सन् २००४ मा ७० प्रतिशतले घटेको यो क्रम सन् २००५ मा ४१ प्रतिशतले, सन् २००६ मा ६ प्रतिशतले र सन् २००७ मा ४८ प्रतिशतले र सन् २००८ को अप्रील सम्ममा ४९ प्रतिशतले कमी आएको देखिन्छ । मूल्यमा भन्नु पर्दा सन् २००७ अप्रील मा २४ लाख ८१ हजार यु.एस.डलर बराबर निर्यात भएकोमा सन् २००८ अप्रीलमा १२ लाख ६६ हजार डलर बराबर मात्र निकासी भएको तथ्याङ्क छ ।

केहीसमय यता मुलुकमा खाद्यान्न तथा निर्माण सामग्रीको भाउ तीव्रतर वृद्धि भएको छ । निर्माण सामग्री अधिकांश भारतबाट आयात हुने र निर्माण सामग्री मध्ये फलामे छड । फलाम एवं स्टीलको कच्चा पदार्थमा भारतले १५ प्रतिशत निर्यात कर लगाउनाले पनि नेपालमा निर्माण सामग्रीको मूल्य चर्को भएको हो । खाद्यान्नदेखि अधिकांश दैनिक प्रयोगको वस्तुहरूको आयात गर्न विदेशी निर्भरता बढ्दै जानु हाम्रो लागि गम्भीर चुनौती बनेको छ । दिन पर दिन इन्धनको अन्तर्राष्ट्रिय मूल्य वृद्धि भैरहनु , मुलुकमा इन्धनको माग क्रमशः बढ्दै जानु, जलस्रोत पर्याप्त भए पनि विजुलीको उत्पादनमा शिथिलता देखिनु, सधैजसो विद्युतको लोड सेडिङ्ग हुनु हाम्रो लागि सकारात्मक लक्षण होइनन् ।

न्यूनतम आधारभूत वस्तुहरूमा विदेशी निर्भरता कायमै रहेको हाम्रो पृष्ठभूमिमा वैदेशिक घाटालाई न्यून गर्ने वातावरण तयार गर्न कठिन भएको छ । आर्थिक विकासमा अग्रणी स्थान ओगट्ने घरेलु गलैचा उद्योग, पस्मीना, मह जस्ता उद्योगहरूलाई फस्टाउन दिने वातावरण अझै तय भैसकेको छैन । वित्तीय संस्थाहरू वृद्धि भए पनि औद्योगिक क्षेत्रमा लगानी पर्याप्त भै नसकेको अवस्थामा एकातिर बैंक व्याजदर घट्दो छ भने अर्कोतिर पूँजी परिचालन राम्ररी हुन सकेको छैन ।

### (च) केही सुझावहरू

भावी योजनाहरू तय गर्दा विश्वले भोग्नु परेको खाद्य संकटलाई मध्यनजर गर्दै प्राण रक्षाको लागि नभई नहुने धान चामलको आपूर्ति गर्न महादसैंका वखत हेलिकप्टर बाटै खाद्यान्न खसाल्नुपर्ने स्थितिलाई विचार गर्दै कृषिक्षेत्रमा आत्मनिर्भर हुने वातावरण सुनिश्चित गर्न जरूरी छ । सिँचाईको पूर्ण प्रत्याभूति, अन्नभण्डारक्षेत्र तराईमा राम्रो उब्जनीको प्रवन्ध, मुलुकका सबै क्षेत्रमा उन्नत बीउ तथा किसानहरूको हक हित, संरक्षण, प्राङ्गारिकमल, बीऊको भण्डारण क्षमता वृद्धि, कृषि सडकको पूर्वाधार तयार, कृषि बजार सेवाको पर्याप्त व्यवस्था, फलफूल तथा हरिया साग सब्जी लगायत बेमौसमी तरकारीको भण्डार क्षमता वृद्धि, कृषिमा आधुनिकीकरण, कृषि ज्ञानको प्रचार प्रसार, प्रशिक्षण, प्रोत्साहन, प्राङ्गारिक मलको वृद्धि, रासायनिक मलको निर्वाध आपूर्ति र र कृषि उद्योगको उद्यमशीलताका विषयहरूमा राज्यले थप योजना आयोजनाहरू सञ्चालन गर्नुपर्ने देखिन्छ ।

सडक यातायात अवरोधको अन्त्य गरी निर्वाध एकठाउँबाट अर्को ठाउँमा आवत जावत सुविधा लगायत उब्जनीदेखि उत्पादनसम्मका सरसामग्रीहरूको ढुवानी व्यवस्था मजबुत गराई उपभोग्य सामानको निरन्तर आपूर्ति प्रणालीलाई सहज बनाउनु पर्ने हुन्छ । ढुवानी लागत सकेसम्म घटाई सामानहरू सस्तो र सर्वसुलभ आपूर्ति हुने वातावरण तयार गरिनुपर्छ । औद्योगिक, व्यापारिक क्षेत्रलाई टेवा पु-याई स्वदेशी उत्पादन र स्वदेशी सेवा प्रवाहलाई राष्ट्रिय प्रथमिकतामा राख्नुपर्ने हुन्छ । सामान लुकाउने, कालोबजार गर्ने र कृत्रिम अभाव देखाई मूल्य वृद्धि गर्ने व्यापारीहरूको निगरानी गर्दै स्थिर बजार संचालन गर्न राज्यले पहल गर्नुपर्दछ । स्थानीय श्रम, सीपको कच्चापदार्थ, पूँजी र प्रविधिको उचित कदर गर्दै आत्मनिर्भर गराउने तर्फ सहजकारी भूमिका खेल्नुपर्ने हुन्छ । घरेलु तथा साना उद्योग र उद्यमशीलताका समुचित कदर गर्दै मुलुकको आधार कृषिक्षेत्रलाई औद्योगिकीकरण गर्नुपर्दछ । रोजगारी वृद्धि र गरीब समुदायको पहुँच बढाउन लक्षित कार्यक्रमलाई निरन्तरता दिईनुपर्छ । वैदेशिक रोजगारीमा ठगी रोक्न राज्यका सयन्त्रहरूले बढी चासो राख्नुपर्छ ।

वर्षौं अधिदेखिको आन्तरिक द्वन्दका कारण थला परेको नेपाली भूमिले शान्तिको आभास गरिरहेको बेलामा पुराना राज्य संरचनाहरूमा आवश्यक परिवर्तन गरी अब मुलुक संघीय लोकतन्त्रात्मक गणतन्त्रको संरचनामा जान हामीले बिगत भन्दा थप कडा मेहनत गर्नु पर्ने हुन्छ ।

सिँचाईको पर्याप्त व्यवस्था हुन नसक्नु, नेपाली भूमिको उर्वरपना घट्दै जानु, खेती किसानमा संलग्न व्यक्तिहरू विदेश पलायन हुँदै जानु, अन्नको भण्डार भनिने तराई क्षेत्रमा अशान्ति बढ्नु, अन्न भण्डार र संचय गर्ने स्पष्ट नीतिको अभाव हुनु, शहरी क्षेत्रमा पिउने पानीको अपर्याप्त हुनु, फोहर प्रदूषणका कारण नेपालीहरूको स्वास्थ्य स्थिति सकारात्मक नहुनु, उचित ढलको प्रवन्धदेखि वातावरण/ पर्यावरणीय समस्यामा राज्यको उदासीनता कायमै रहन जानाले मुलुकले नाटकीय ढंगले पुराना चुनौतीहरूसँग लड्ने क्षमता राख्न कठिन देखिन्छ । सानो मुलुकमा संविधान सभा सदस्य संख्या ६०१ हुनु, सभासदहरूको भौतिक सुविधातर्फ पनि ध्यान दिनुपर्नाले बढी बोझिलो हुन सक्ने तर्क पनि उठेको छ । राजस्व चुहावटदेखि कर छल्ने प्रवृत्ति पनि हामी कहाँ छ । जसबाट पनि मुलुकको आर्थिक स्थिति मजबूत हुन सक्ने अवस्था छैन । राज्यका संगठन संरचनाहरू फेरबदल गर्नुपर्ने कारणले पनि केही समय प्रगति पथमा ढिलाई हुन सक्छ । यसका साथै मुलुकमा अन्य समस्याहरू पनि धेरै छन् ।

राज्यका सबै संरचना भत्काउनु भन्दा अत्यावश्यक देखिएका संरचनाहरू मात्र फेरबदल गरी द्वन्दकालमा भत्किएका भौतिक संरचनाहरूलाई पहिलो प्राथमिकता दिनु बेस हुन्छ । प्रशासन यन्त्रलाई राजनीतिबाट

तटस्थ राखी जनमुखी कार्य योजना सहित तत्कालीन राहतको कार्यक्रम अधि सारी प्रशासनयन्त्रलाई जन उत्तरदायी बनाउनु पर्छ । भ्रष्टाचारमुक्त प्रशासन संचालन गर्न नेतृत्व तह प्रतिवद्ध भई प्रशासनयन्त्रलाई पनि कटिबद्ध रहने वातावरण बनाउनु पर्छ । सधैंजसो भैरहने बन्द, हडताल, चक्का जामका कार्य पूर्ण रूपमा बन्द गरी, लगानी मैत्री वातावरणको सिर्जना गर्ने र निजी क्षेत्रको भूमिका स्पष्ट गर्नुपर्ने हुन्छ । विगतमा सुरू भएका राम्रा योजनाहरू पहिचान गरी तिनलाई निरन्तरता दिने । राष्ट्रिय आवश्यकताको पहिचान गरी नयाँ योजनाहरू शीघ्र लागू गर्ने र तिनको अनुगमनको संयन्त्र समेत तयार पार्ने र परिणाममुखी कार्य योजना तयार गरी लागू गर्नु पर्छ ।

जात, जाति, धर्म, भाषा आदिमा राज्य नरूमल्लिएर सबै नेपाली एक हौं भन्ने वातावरण सिर्जना गर्नुपर्छ । राष्ट्रिय एकता र अखण्डताका विषयमा कोही कसैसँग सम्झौता गर्नुहुन्न । आन्तरिक इश्या र द्वन्दलाई अन्त्य गरी सिंगो नेपालको आभाष हुने वातावरण शीघ्र तयार गर्नु बेस हुन्छ । दीर्घकालीन विकास लक्ष्यहरू किटान गरी क्षेत्रगत विकासको अवधारणालाई पर्याप्त ध्यान दिनु पर्छ ।

आधारभूत आवश्यकता संबन्धी कुरामा पहिलो प्राथमिकता दिई गरीवी न्यूनीकरण गर्ने सूचकांक समेत तयार गरी लागू गर्नु पर्छ ।

महत्वाकांक्षी ठूला योजनाहरूमा भन्दा साना र मुलुकले धान्न सक्ने, मुलुकको हित अनुकूलमा र छिट्टै परिणाम दिने खालका परियोजनाहरू छनोट गरी प्रत्येक जिल्ला, क्षेत्र, इकाइ भन्ने तल्लो ग्रामीण क्षेत्र सम्मको पहुँचमा सक्रिय रहनु श्रेयस्कर हुन्छ । आर्थिक वृद्धिदर एवं लगानी वाँडफाडका मुख्य आधारहरू तय गरिनु पर्छ । ग्रामीण रोजगारी नीति तय गरी लागू गर्नु पर्छ । शिक्षा, स्वास्थ्य, सुरक्षा, सडक, विद्युत खानेपानी जस्ता न्यूनतम पूर्वाधारहरू ग्रामीण क्षेत्रको पहुँच सम्म पुऱ्याउनु पर्छ । आय आर्जन हुनसक्ने सीप मूलक तालीमहरूलाई निरन्तरता दिने र स्वास्थ्य संस्थाहरूलाई जनहित र आम जनताले धान्न सक्ने गरी सञ्चालन गर्न दिने गर्नु पर्छ ।

निजी क्षेत्रका स्वास्थ्य एवं शैक्षिक संस्थाहरूमा जनताले धान्न सक्ने शुल्क निर्धारण गर्नुपर्छ ।

रोग प्रतिरोधात्मक क्षमताको विकास गर्न आम जनतालाई प्रोत्साहनमा समेत राज्यले विशेष चासो राखी आयुर्वेदिक, योग शिक्षा एवं जीवन शैलीमा परिवर्तन आउने खालको प्रवर्धनात्मक कार्यक्रम संचालन गर्नु पर्छ ।

## **र, अन्त्यमा**

आगामी दिनमा पनि चुनौतीहरू लगभग यिनै हुन् । भोलि पनि मुद्रास्फीतिको प्रभाव, राजस्व परिचालनमा चुनौती, आन्तरिक ऋणको व्यवधानहरू पनि रहने सम्भावना छ । वार्षिक बजेट र आवधिक योजनामा समन्वय हुन नसकेको, स्थानीय निकायमा राजनैतिक नेतृत्व नभएको, पारदर्शिता र उत्तरदायित्व बोध नभएको, पेशागत आन्दोलनका कारण कार्य सञ्चालन स्तरमा कठिनाई देखापरेका समस्याहरू पनि यथावत छन् हाम्रा सामु ।

आगामी दिनमा सुरक्षा खर्चमा पारदर्शिता ल्याउनु पर्ने हुन्छ, बढदो बेरुजुको नियन्त्रणदेखि आर्थिक सहायता एवं चन्दा पुरस्कारको रकममा कटौती गर्नुपर्ने देखिन्छ । गरीबी निवारणदेखि पर्यटकको विकाससम्म र मानव संशाधन विकासदेखि कृषि, सिँचाई, भूमिसुधार, खानेपानी, सूचना एवं संचार सम्मको उत्थानमा सरकारले विशेष ध्यान दिनुपर्ने देखिन्छ । युवापुस्तामा देखिएको नैराश्यताको लागि सरकारले सघन उपचार कार्यक्रम अपनाउनु पर्ने देखिन्छ । विगतको अनुभव वर्तमानको यथार्थ र भविष्यको आशामा नै व्यक्ति समूह र राष्ट्रको सपना साकार हुन्छ ।

### सन्दर्भ सामग्रीहरू

विभिन्न योजनाका दस्तावेजहरू- रा.यो आ.को सचिवालय ।

“विकास” पत्रिकाका विभिन्न अंकहरू -रा.यो आ.को सचिवालय ।

विजनेस न्यूज - एन.टि.भी./ कान्तिपुर टि.भी. ।

“नेपाल” - विभिन्न अंकहरू - सूचना विभाग ।

आर्थिक सर्भेक्षण/ बजेट वक्तव्यहरू- अर्थ मन्त्रालय ।

पौडेल अच्युत प्रसाद - विभिन्न आर्थिक लेखहरूको संगालो (सूचना विभाग, रा.यो.आ. तथा अन्य संस्थाहरूबाट प्रकाशित)

दैनिक गोर्खापत्रका विभिन्न अंकहरू ।

## मानव अधिकार: सुशासन, विकास र सामाजिक न्याय आधारशीलाको रूपमा

लक्ष्मी घिमिरे \*

कुनै पनि मानिसले मानव भएको नाताले बिना कुनै व्यवधान, अवरोध र अड्चन प्रयोग गर्न पाउने अधिकार मानव अधिकार हो । यो विश्वका प्रत्येक व्यक्तिको अधिकार हो जसलाई संसारको कुनैपनि व्यक्तिले कुनैपनि ठाउँमा अरुको अधिकारमा हस्तक्षेप नहुनेगरी निर्बाध प्रयोग गर्न पाउदछ । यसको प्रयोगमा न त राजनीतिक, भौगोलिक वा सामाजिक परिस्थितिले असर गर्दछ न त व्यक्ति विशेषको योग्यता, दक्षता, ज्ञान, सीप, अनुभव, उमेर, आर्थिक अवस्था वा कुनै अरु विशेषताले प्रभाव पार्दछ । तसर्थ मानव अधिकारलाई Rights without Government भनिन्छ । मानव अधिकार अन्तराष्ट्रिय कानून अन्तर्गत पर्ने अधिकार हो । यसको संरक्षण, प्रवर्द्धन, सम्बर्द्धन तथा सम्मान गर्नु सबैको परम कर्तव्य हो । त्यसैले विश्वका सबैजसो मुलुकमा मानव अधिकारको कुनै न कुनै रूपमा संरक्षण गर्ने निकायको व्यवस्था गरिएको हुन्छ । सो अनुसार नै नेपालमा पनि अन्य निकायहरूको अलवा संवैधानिक रूपमा स्थापना भएको राष्ट्रिय मानव अधिकार आयोग एक सशक्त निकाय हो जसको कार्यमा सबै नेपाली नागरिकहरूले सहयोग र समन्वय गर्नु महत्वपूर्ण हुन्छ ।

### १. पृष्ठभूमि:

मानव अधिकार मानिसको जन्मसिद्ध अधिकार हो । मानिस भएको नाताले नैसर्गिक रूपमा मानिसलाई प्राप्त हुने अधिकारलाई मानव अधिकार भनिन्छ । यो अधिकारले मानिसको जीवन स्वतन्त्रता, प्रतिष्ठा र मर्यादासँग सम्बन्ध राख्दछ । यसको प्रत्याभूति सामाजिक, आर्थिक र राजनैतिक कुनैपनि सर्त, बन्देज वा परिस्थितिबाट प्रभावित रहँदैन र रहनु हुँदैन । त्यसैकारण मानव अधिकारलाई Right without government पनि भनिन्छ ।

सिद्धान्ततः मानव अधिकार राज्य, कानुनी प्रणाली वा सामाजिक प्रणालीसँग निरपेक्ष छ । यो अन्तराष्ट्रिय कानून अन्तर्गत पर्ने अधिकार हो । यसले समान व्यवहारको अपेक्षा गर्दछ । मानव अधिकारको उल्लंघन गर्नेमाथि कानुनी, प्रशासनिक तथा राजनैतिक कुनैपनि संरक्षण हुनुहुँदैन । हरेक नागरिकले निर्भयसाथ बाचन पाउने अधिकार नै मानव अधिकार हो । मानव अधिकार कुनै राष्ट्र वा क्षेत्र विशेषको मात्र चासो र सरोकारको विषय नभई समग्र विश्वको चासोको विषय भएको र विश्वभर नै

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\* श्री घिमिरे प्रधानमन्त्री तथा मन्त्रिपरिषद्को कार्यालयमा शाखा अधिकृत पदमा कार्यरत हुनहुन्छ ।

यसको सम्मान र संरक्षण हुनुपर्ने मान्यता सबैले आत्मसात गरेका हुनाले अहिले यसलाई सबै मानिसहरूको साझा अभिव्यक्तिको रूपमा मानिएको छ । मानव अधिकार जीवनका सामाजिक आर्थिक, राजनैतिक, सांस्कृतिक र राष्ट्रिय सबै अधिकारहरूको समष्टीगत रूप हो । मानव अधिकार मानव विकासको साधन (Ends) हो भने मर्यादापूर्ण जीवनयापनको सुनिश्चतता नै साध्य (Means) हो । मानव अधिकारको आधारभूत नियम भनेको नै राज्य र व्यक्तिको सम्बन्धको नियम हो जसले व्यक्ति-व्यक्तिको सम्बन्धलाई समेत निर्देशित गरेको हुन्छ ।

नागरिक तथा राजनैतिक अधिकारको अन्तराष्ट्रिय अभिसन्धि (1966) अनुसार मानव अधिकारलाई निम्नानुसार परिभाषित गरिएको छ :

“The ideal of free human beings enjoying civil and political freedom and freedom from fear and want can only be achieved if conditions are created whereby everyone may enjoy his civil and political rights, as well as his social, economic and cultural rights.”

त्यसैगरी मानव अधिकारको विश्व सम्मेलन भियना घोषणा, १९९३ मा मानव अधिकारलाई केही व्यापक रूपबाट परिभाषित गरिएको छ जस्तो :

“All human rights are universal, indivisible and interdependent and related. The international community must treat human rights globally in a fair and equal manner, on the same footing, and with the same emphasis”.

मानव भएको नाताले प्रत्येक व्यक्तिका निश्चित अधिकार हुन्छन् । विगतमा यी अधिकार हरू व्यक्ति विशेषसँग मात्र सम्बन्धित छन् भन्ने धारणा थियो भने अहिले कतिपय अधिकारहरू समूह, विशेषतः अल्पसङ्ख्यकहरूसँग बढी सम्बन्धित रहेका पाइन्छन् । यी अधिकारहरू मानव अधिकारसम्बन्धी अन्तराष्ट्रिय घोषणापत्र र बाल अधिकार महासन्धि जस्ता अन्तराष्ट्रिय सन्धि र दस्तावेजहरूमा उल्लेख गरिएका छन् । राष्ट्रिय संविधानहरूमा पनि यी अधिकारहरूबारे उल्लेख गरिएको हुन्छ । संविधानमा उल्लेख गरिएको अवस्थामा यस्ता अधिकारले सरकार तथा अरुका क्रियाकलापमाथि नियन्त्रण कायम गर्दछन् र जनतालाई शोषणबाट बचाउन कानुनी रूपमा बाध्यकारी संरक्षणलाई प्रवर्द्धन गर्दछन् ।

मानव अधिकारलाई शान्ति र विकासको मूल आधारका रूपमा स्वीकार गर्दै संयुक्त राष्ट्रसंघको महासभाले १० डिसेम्बर १९४८ का दिन मानव अधिकारको विश्वव्यापी घोषणापत्र (Universal Declaration of Human Rights-UDHR) जारी गरेको थियो । यो घोषणापत्रलाई मानवको जन्मसिद्ध एवं नैसर्गिक अधिकारको परिभाषा गरिएको पहिलो दस्तावेजको रूपमा लिइन्छ । उक्त प्रस्तावनामा संयुक्त राष्ट्र संघका सदस्य राष्ट्रहरूका नागरिकहरूले मौलिक अधिकारहरू र मनुष्यको मान-सम्मान र कदर जस्ता अधिकारहरू प्रति पुनः विश्वासको पुष्ट्याउँ भन्ने उल्लेख भएबाट पनि यसको परिभाषामा थप ऊर्जा मिल्न जान्छ । उक्त घोषणापत्रमा राखिएका ३० वटै धाराहरू विश्वव्यापी रूपमै मान्यता

पाएका मानव अधिकारसंग सम्बन्धित धाराहरू हुन् जसलाई मृत्युदण्डलाई अवलम्बन गरिरहेका अमेरिका तथा चीन जस्ता आर्थिक विकासका क्षेत्रमा अगाडि रहेका देशहरूले पनि उल्लेखित धाराहरूको आधारमा मानव अधिकारको पक्षमा वकालत गरिरहेका हुन्छन् ।

यसैबीच, अष्ट्रियाको राजधानी भियनामा सन् १९९३ मा संयुक्त राष्ट्रसंघीय विश्व मानव अधिकार सम्मेलनले संयुक्त राष्ट्रसंघका सदस्य राष्ट्रहरूलाई विश्वमा मानव अधिकार संस्कृतिको विकास गर्न सहयोगका लागि आहवान गर्नुका साथै मानव अधिकारको संरक्षण र सम्बर्द्धनको लागि राष्ट्रिय कार्ययोजना तयार गरी प्रभावकारी रूपमा कार्यान्वयन गर्न पनि सदस्य राष्ट्रहरूलाई आहवान गरेको थियो । यसैअनुरूप हाल नेपालले पनि संयुक्त राष्ट्रसंघको सक्रिय सदस्य राष्ट्रको नाताले मानव अधिकारको सम्मान, सम्बर्द्धन, संरक्षण गर्न तथा आफ्नो प्रतिबद्धतालाई व्यवस्थित रूपमा पूरा गर्नको लागि राष्ट्रिय कार्ययोजना तयार गरी कार्यान्वयनमा ल्याएको छ ।

यो लेखमा मानव अधिकार भनेको के हो, मानव अधिकारको विकासक्रम कसरी भयो, मानव अधिकारको महत्व किन रहन्छ, मानव अधिकार र विकास, सुशासन तथा सामाजिक न्यायबीच कस्तो अन्तर-सम्बन्ध रहेको छ तथा मानव अधिकारको पालना, सम्बर्द्धन र प्रवर्द्धनमा सरोकारवालाहरूको के-कस्तो भूमिका रहेको छ भन्ने विषयमा उल्लेख गर्ने जमर्को गरिएको छ ।

## २. मानव अधिकारको विकासक्रम

मानव अधिकारको अवधारणा मानव सभ्यताको ईतिहाससँगै विकास भएको मानिन्छ । इ.पू.२००० को Babylonian Code, इ.पू.६००-५०० वर्ष पुरानो चिनीया दार्शनिक कन्फ्युसियसको दर्शन तथा प्राचिन ग्रीस र रोमन कानूनको विविध व्यवस्था तथा प्राचिन ग्रीसका दार्शनिकहरू सोक्रेटस, प्लेटो, अरस्तु र रोमन दार्शनिक सिसेरोको मानिसको सर्वाच्चता र श्रेष्ठता सम्बन्धी विषयवस्तुले पनि मानव अधिकारको अवधारणासँग सामिप्यता राखेको पाइन्छ । त्यसैगरी सन् १२१५ मा प्रतिपादन भएको बेलायतको Magna Carta ले पनि मानव अधिकारलाई राज्यले समेत अतिक्रमण गर्न नसक्ने अवधारणा आत्मसाथ गरेवाट कानूनको सर्वोच्चताको माध्यमद्वारा जनताको स्वतन्त्रताको संरक्षण गर्ने व्यवस्थाको शुरुवात गरेको अभिव्यक्त गर्दछ । बेलायतको सन् १६२८को Petition of Right, सन् १६४० को बन्दी प्रत्यक्षीकरण ऐन र १६८९ को नागरिक अधिकारको घोषणा जस्ता कानुनी व्यवस्थाहरूले पनि बेलायतलाई मानव अधिकारको संरक्षकको रूपमा विकसित गरेको पाइन्छ । यस्तै सन् १७७६ को अमेरिकी स्वतन्त्रताको घोषणाले जीवन स्वतन्त्रता र सुखको खोजी गर्न पाउने अधिकार एवं सन् १७८९ को मानिस तथा नागरिकका अधिकारहरूको फ्रान्सेली घोषणापत्रले उल्लेख गरेको सबै व्यक्ति जन्मजात स्वतन्त्र र समान छन् भन्ने घोषणा मानव अधिकारको विकासक्रममा कोसेढुंगा सावित भएको पाइन्छ ।

यी माथिका व्यवस्थाहरूको साथै मानव अधिकारको अवधारणा मूलतः दोस्रो विश्वयुद्धपछि विकास भएको मानिन्छ । UN Charter 1945 मा पहिलोपटक मानव अधिकार (Human Rights) भन्ने शब्दावलीको प्रयोग भएको हो । सो अगाडिसम्म मानव अधिकारलाई Rights of the Man को रूपमा व्याख्या गरिएको थियो । मूलतः मानव अधिकारको विश्वव्यापी घोषणापत्र सन् १९४८ले मानव

अधिकारको क्षेत्रमा अतुलनीय भूमिका खेलेको पाइन्छ । यो घोषणापत्र डिसेम्बर १० , १९४८ का दिन संयुक्त राष्ट्र संघको महासभाले पारित गरेको थियो जसलाई मानव अधिकारको इतिहासमा आधारभूत ब्यवस्था समेटेको पहिलो विश्वव्यापी घोषणापत्र मानिन्छ ।

मानव अधिकारको उल्लंघनमा उपचारको व्यवस्था गर्न आ-आफ्नो देशले विभिन्न किसिमका व्यवस्थाहरू अपनाएको पाइन्छ जस्तो नेपालमा मानव अधिकार आयोगको व्यवस्था संविधानमै गरिएको छ । यसैगरी अन्तराष्ट्रिय रूपमा अध्ययन गर्दा सन् २००७ सम्म Commission of Human Rights को व्यवस्था गरिएको थियो भने तत्पश्चात् सो आयोगलाई खारेज गरी Human Right Council को स्थापना गरियो । मानव अधिकार परिषद् सम्बन्धी प्रावधान संयुक्त राष्ट्रसंघका सवै १९२ सदस्य राष्ट्रहरूमा समान रूपमा क्षेत्राधिकार प्राप्त भएको संयन्त्र हो । जसअन्तर्गत विश्वका सवै मुलुकले प्रत्येक ४/४ वर्षमा आफ्नो देशले मानव अधिकारको सुनिश्चितताका लागि अवलम्बन गरेका उपायसहितको Universal Periodic Review परिषद्मा पठाउनु पर्दछ ।

त्यसैगरी मानव अधिकारको विश्वव्यापी घोषणापत्रलाई पछ्याउँदै विकास भएका मानव अधिकार सम्बन्धी महासन्धि, अनुबन्धहरू तथा घोषणापत्रहरूले पनि यसको क्षेत्र विस्तार गरेको पाइन्छ । हालको समयसम्म आइपुग्दा मानव अधिकारलाई आर्थिक, सामाजिक, सांस्कृतिक अधिकार र सामाजिक न्यायसंग जोडेर सर्वत्र हेर्ने गरेकोवाट पनि यसको स्थान व्यापक रहको कुरा झल्किन्छ । ऐतिहासिक रूपमा निम्न दस्तावेजहरूले मानव अधिकारलाई कुनै न कुनै रूपमा सम्बोधन गरेका छन् ।

- सन् १२१५ को बेलायतको Magna Carta
- सन् १६८८ को बेलायतको Bill of Rights
- सन् १७७६ को American Declaration of Independence
- सन् १७८९ को French Declaration of the Rights of man
- सन् १९२६ को Slavery Convention to Suppress the Slave Trade and Slavery
- सन् १९४८ को universal Declaration of Human Rights by United Nations General Assembly
- सन् १९४८ को Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of the Crime of Genocide
- सन् १९४९ को Convention for the Suppression of the Traffic in Persons and of the Exploitation of the others
- सन् १९५२ को Convention on the Political Rights of Women
- सन् १९५३ को Protocol Amending the Slavery Convention
- सन् १९५६ को Supplementary Convention on the Abolition of Slavery, the Slave Trade, and Institutions and Practices Similar to Slavery
- सन् १९६५ को International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination
- सन् १९६६ को International covenant on Civil and Political Rights

- सन् १९६६ को International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights
- सन् १९७३ को International Convention on the Suppression and Punishment of the Crime of Apartheid
- सन् १९७९ को UN Convention on the Elimination of All kinds of Discrimination Against Women
- सन् १९८४ को Convention Against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment
- सन् १९८५ को International Convention Against Apartheid in Sports
- सन् १९८६ को Declaration of Development Rights
- सन् १९८९ को UN Convention on Rights of Child
- सन् १९९३ को Vienna Declarations, World Conference on Human Rights
- सन् २००० को Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child on the Involvement of Children in Armed Conflict
- Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child on the Sale of Children, Child Prostitution and Child Pornography
- सन् २००८ को Convention on Disabled people

#### नेपालको सन्दर्भमा

नेपालमा प्राचिनकालदेखि नै मानव अधिकारको रूपमा आवाज उठाउने सूक्ष्म निकायहरू थिए तरपनि यसको कार्यान्वयनमा कुनै प्रभावकारिता थिएन । वि.स.२०४७ को नेपालको अधिराज्यको संविधानमा मौलिक अधिकारको रूपमा उल्लेख गरिएतापनि यसलाई छुट्टै वैधानिक निकायको रूपमा लिन नसकिएको हुनाले कार्यान्वयनमा प्रभावकारिता आउन सकेन जसले अझ बढी दण्डहीनतालाई प्रश्रय दिएको उदाहरणको रूपमा पूर्व मन्त्रीज्यूले पर्साका प्रमुख जिल्ला अधिकारीलाई गरेको दुर्व्यवहार ताजै छ । विशेषगरी राजनैतिक दलहरूले मानव अधिकारलाई आठबुँदे सम्झौता, युद्धविराम सम्झौता, वृहत शान्ति सम्झौता र अन्तरिम संविधान २०६३ मा उल्लेख गरेका छन् । संविधानको भाग ३ धारा १२देखि ३२ सम्म २१ वटा मौलिक हकहरूको व्यवस्था गर्नुका साथै राष्ट्रिय मानव अधिकार आयोगलाई पहिलोपटक संवैधानिक मान्यता प्रदान (भाग १५) गरिएको छ । भाग ४ मा राज्यको दायित्व निर्देशक सिद्धान्त र राज्यको नीतिहरूमा पनि मानव अधिकारका आधारभूत मान्यता अनुरूपका विषयहरू समाविष्ट छन् । त्रि-वर्षीय योजनामा पनि मानव अधिकारलाई सुशासनसँग जोडेर उच्च प्राथमिकताका साथ राखिएको छ । समावेशीकरणको नीतिलाई मजबुत बनाउने गरी राष्ट्रिय महिला आयोग, दलित आयोग, कमैया मुक्ति अभियान तथा जनजाति उत्थान कार्यक्रम जस्ता विभिन्न आयोगहरूको गठन गरिएको छ । संयुक्त राष्ट्रसंघीय मानव अधिकार उच्चआयुक्तको कार्यालयको रूपमा संयुक्त राष्ट्रसंघको वलियो उपस्थिति रहेको छ । वर्तमान अन्तरिम संविधान २०६३मा व्यवस्था गरिएको राष्ट्रिय मानव अधिकार आयोगको अध्यक्ष र सदस्यको नियुक्ति गर्दा महिला सहित विविधता कायम गर्नुपर्ने भनाले महिला समावेशीकरणको अधिकारमा प्राथमिकता दिएको देखिन्छ । संविधानको धारा १३२ मा राष्ट्रिय मानव अधिकार आयोगको काम, कर्तव्य र अधिकारको निम्नलिखित व्यवस्था गरिएको छ:

१.कर्तव्य:

मानव अधिकारको सम्मान, संरक्षण र सम्बर्द्धन तथा प्रभावकारी कार्यान्वयनलाई सुनिश्चित गर्ने ।

२.माथिको कर्तव्य पुरा गर्नको लागि आयोगले निम्नलिखित कार्यहरू गर्ने:

क. निवेदन तथा उजुरीउपर छानविन तथा अनुसन्धान गरी दोषीउपर कारवाही गर्न सिफारिस गर्ने ।

ख. जिम्मेवारी पुरागर्न तथा कर्तव्य पालना गर्न उदासिनता देखाउने पदाधिकारीउपर विभागीय कारवाही गर्न सम्बन्धित अधिकारीसमक्ष सिफारिस गर्ने ।

ग. अदालतमा मुद्दा दायर गर्नुपर्ने विषयमा सिफारिस गर्ने ।

घ. मानव अधिकारको बारेमा सचेतना अभिवृद्धि गर्न नागरिक समाजसँग समन्वय र सहकार्य गर्ने ।

ङ. मानव अधिकार उल्लंघन कर्तालाई विभागीय कारवाही तथा सजाय गर्न सिफारिस गर्ने ।

च. कानूनको पुनरावलोकन, सुधार तथा संशोधन गर्नुपर्ने विषयमा नेपाल सरकार समक्ष सिफारिस गर्ने ।

छ. अन्तराष्ट्रिय सन्धि वा सम्झौताको पक्ष वन्नुपर्ने भएमा वा पक्ष बनिस्केका सन्धि सम्झौताको कार्यान्वयन गर्नको लागि नेपाल सरकार समक्ष सिफारिस गर्ने ।

ज. मानव अधिकारको उल्लंघन गर्नेलाई उल्लंघन कर्ताको रूपमा अभिलेख गर्ने ।

३.अधिकार:

क. जानकारी वा बयान लिने वकपत्र गराउने, प्रमाण बुझ्ने सम्बन्धमा अदालतलाई भएसरहको अधिकार प्रयोग गर्ने ।

ख. सूचना आयोगले उपलब्ध गराएको जानकारी अनुसार गम्भीर रूपवाट मानव अधिकारको उल्लंघन भएको क्षेत्रमा विना सूचना प्रवेश गर्ने, खानतलसी लिने तथा लिखत प्रमाण वा सबुत कब्जामा लिने ।

ग. मानव अधिकारको उल्लंघन भई तत्काल कारवाही गर्नुपर्ने आवश्यक देखिएमा विना सूचना सरकारी कार्यालय वा अन्य ठाउँमा प्रवेश गर्ने र उद्धार गर्ने ।

घ. पीडित व्यक्तिलाई कानून बमोजिम क्षतिपूर्ति दिन आदेश दिने ।

४.आफ्नो कामको बार्षिक प्रतिवेदन राष्ट्रपतिसमक्ष पेश गर्ने जसमा निम्नलिखित विषयहरू समावेश गरिनेछ:

क. वर्षभरी परेको उजुरी

ख. उजुरीको छानविन र अनुसन्धानको विवरण

ग. नेपाल सरकारलाई विभिन्न विषयमा गरेको सिफारिस विवरण

घ. मुद्दाको विवरण संख्या

ङ. भविष्यमा गर्नुपर्ने सुधारको विवरण

त्रि-वर्षीय योजनाको आधारपत्र ( २०६७/६८- २०६९/७०) मा सुशासन र मानव अधिकार भनी एउटा छुट्टै विषयवस्तुको रूपमा राज्य व्यवस्थाको संचालन र विकास कार्यको व्यवस्थापनमा

पारदर्शिता, सहभागिता, जवाफदेहिता, पूर्वानुमानीयता र विधिसम्मतताको अभिवृद्धि गरी सार्वजनिक सेवा प्रवाहलाई प्रभावकारी बनाएर जनसाधारणलाई सुशासनको प्रत्याभूति दिन सकेमा मात्र मुलुकको बहुआयामिक विकासले गति लिन सक्ने कुरा राष्ट्रिय- अन्तराष्ट्रिय अनुभववाट सिद्ध भएको कुरा उल्लेख गरिएको छ । साथै राष्ट्रनिर्माण र दिगो विकासको प्रक्रियामा टेवा पुर्‍याउनका लागि प्रशासनयन्त्रलाई विश्वसनीय, परिणाममुखी, उत्तरदायी र सक्षम बनाउने दीर्घकालिन सौचको वारेमा प्रस्तुत योजनामा अभिव्यक्त गरिएको छ ।

नेपालले मानव अधिकारको सम्मान, संरक्षण र सम्बर्द्धनमा निरन्तर अन्तराष्ट्रिय प्रतिबद्धता जनाउँदै आएको सन्दर्भमा ६ मुख्य महासन्धिहरू लगायत २२ वटा मानव अधिकार सम्बन्धी दस्तावेजहरूको अनुमोदन एंव सम्मिलन गरी पक्ष राष्ट्र बनिसकेको र सो अनुरूप आफ्ना नागरिकलाई मानव अधिकार प्रदान गर्ने दायित्वप्रति नेपाल सधै प्रयत्नशील र सचेत रहदै आएको कुरा समावेश गरिएको छ । हाल मुलुक नै संक्रमणकालबाट गुज्रिएको वर्तमान अवस्थामा राजनीतिक, आर्थिक, सामाजिक लगायत राष्ट्रका सबै महत्वपूर्ण क्षेत्रमा नीतिगत स्थायित्व कायम हुन नसकेकोले मानव अधिकार उल्लंघनका घटनाहरूमा व्यापक वृद्धि भइरहेको, दण्डहीनताले झनै प्रश्रय पाइरहेको, मानव अधिकारको उच्च निकायहरूमा आशिन पदाधिकारीहरूमै मानव अधिकार संस्कृतिको विकास हुन नसकेको र समग्रमा राज्यव्यवस्थामा शान्ति सुरक्षा, सामाजिक न्याय, राहत र पुनःस्थापनको प्रभावकारी कार्यान्वयन हुन नसक्नुले मानव अधिकारको लक्ष्य प्राप्तमा अवरोध सुजना भएको कुरा उल्लेख गर्दै समानता र न्यायमा आधारित समाज स्थापनार्थ त्रि-वर्षीय योजना केन्द्रित रहेको कुरा व्यक्त गरिएको छ ।

नेपाल एक बहुभाषिक, बहुसांस्कृतिक र बहुजातीय राष्ट्र भएको हुनाले मानव अधिकारसँग सम्बन्धित विभिन्न समस्याहरू उत्पन्न भएको पाइन्छ । त्यसैले सामाजिक न्याय र सुशासनको माध्यमवाट मानव अधिकारको संरक्षण गर्ने अभिप्रायले राष्ट्रिय तथा अन्तराष्ट्रिय रूपवाट विभिन्न निकायहरू संलग्न रहेको पाइन्छ । विशेषगरी मानव अधिकार प्रवर्द्धनका निमित्त निम्नलिखित बुँदाहरूमा विभिन्न संघसंस्थाहरू क्रियाशील रहँदै आएका छन् ।

१. दण्डहीनता
२. मानव अधिकारको संरक्षकको रूपमा नागरिक अधिकारको भूमिका
३. राष्ट्रिय मानव अधिकार आयोगको सुदृढीकरण
४. अन्तराष्ट्रिय संयन्त्र
५. पहिचानको स्थिति-मधेशी
६. जातीय भेदभाव र गरिबी-दलित
७. सामाजिक अन्याय र वहिष्करण-महिला, बधुवा, मजदूर र मूसलमान
८. वेपत्ता, हत्या, जबरजस्ती करणी, छुवाछुत
९. आत्मनिर्णयको अधिकार
१०. अल्पसंख्यकहरूको संरक्षण
११. भाषिक विविधता जस्तो ९२ भाषाहरू

संयुक्त राष्ट्रसंघ र अन्तराष्ट्रिय समुदायको एक जिम्मेवारी सदस्यको रूपमा नेपाल सहस्राब्दी विकास लक्ष्य, अन्तराष्ट्रिय श्रम संगठन र सार्क क्षेत्रका अभिसन्धिहरू लगायत नेपालले हालसम्म मानव अधिकारसँग सम्बन्धित अन्तराष्ट्रिय दस्तावेजहरूको हस्ताक्षर गरी पक्ष राष्ट्र बन्नका साथै राष्ट्रिय कानून तथा नीतिहरू मार्फत तिनलाई कार्यान्वयन गर्न प्रयत्नशील रहेको छ। जसमध्ये महत्वपूर्ण विषयहरू निम्नलिखित रहेका छन्:

१. मानव अधिकारको विश्वव्यापी घोषणापत्र, १९४८
२. सबै किसिमका जातीय भेदभाव उन्मूलन गर्ने सम्बन्धी महासन्धि, १९६५
३. नागरिक तथा राजनैतिक अधिकार सम्बन्धी अन्तराष्ट्रिय प्रतिज्ञापत्र, १९६६
४. आर्थिक, सामाजिक तथा सांस्कृतिक अधिकार सम्बन्धी अन्तराष्ट्रिय प्रतिज्ञापत्र, १९६६
५. महिला विरुद्ध हुने सबै प्रकारका भेदभाव उन्मूलन गर्ने महासन्धि, १९७९
६. बाल अधिकार सम्बन्धी महासन्धि, १९८९
७. आदिवासी जनजाति सम्बन्धी अन्तराष्ट्रिय महासन्धि, १९९९
८. अपाङ्गता भएका व्यक्तिहरूको अधिकार सम्बन्धी महासन्धि, २००८

#### मानव अधिकारका आधारभूत सिद्धान्तहरू:

मानव अधिकार सबै मानवको जन्मसिद्ध र विश्वव्यापी अधिकार हो। त्यसैले सार्वभौमिकता, अविभाज्यता र अन्तरनिर्भरता मानव अधिकारका प्रमुख सिद्धान्तहरू हुन्। यी बाहेक मानव अधिकारका निम्नलिखित सिद्धान्तहरू पनि रहेका छन्।

- सार्वभौमिकताको सिद्धान्त
- अविभाज्यको सिद्धान्त (आर्थिक, सामाजिक र सांस्कृतिक आयामबाट)
- सांस्कृतिक सापेक्षतावादको सिद्धान्त
- अन्तरनिर्भर र अन्तरसम्बन्धित सिद्धान्त
- अहस्तान्तरणीय सिद्धान्त
- न्यायोचित वितरणको सिद्धान्त
- समानता र अविभेदको सिद्धान्त
- सहभागिता र समावेशीकरणको सिद्धान्त
- उत्तरदायित्व र कानूनको सिद्धान्त

मानव अधिकारको संरक्षणसंग जतिपनि विषयवस्तुहरू जोडिएर आउँछन् ती सबैलाई यसका सिद्धान्तको रूपमा लिने गरेको पाइएतापनि सामाजिक न्याय र न्यायोचित वितरण यसको अकाट्य सिद्धान्तको रूपमा लिनुपर्दछ किनकि जहाँ सामाजिक न्याय कायम भएको र न्यायपूर्ण वितरणको अनुसरण गरिएको हुन्छ त्यहाँका सबै नागरिकहरूले आफूलाई राज्यबाट विभेद भएको महशुस गर्न पाउँदैनन्।

### मानव अधिकारको वर्गीकरण:

सन् १९९३ को मानव अधिकार सम्बन्धी भियना सम्मेलनले मानव अधिकारलाई सार्वभौम , अविभाज्य र अन्तरसम्बन्धित उद्घोष गरेको हुनाले पनि मानव अधिकारलाई निरपेक्ष रूपमा वर्गीकरण गर्न असम्भव छ तापनि मानव अधिकारलाई निम्न बमोजिमबाट वर्गीकरण गरेको पाइन्छ:

- परम्परागत आधारमा
  - क. नागरिक तथा राजनैतिक अधिकार
  - ख. आर्थिक, सामाजिक तथा सांस्कृतिक अधिकार
- राज्यको दायित्वको आधारमा
  - क. सकारात्मक अधिकार-राज्यले पूर्ण वातावरण तयार गर्ने
  - ख. नकारात्मक अधिकार-राज्यले काम गर्ने निकायहरूको हस्तक्षेप नगर्ने
- पुस्ता(Generation) को आधारमा
  - क. पहिलो पुस्ताको अधिकार-स्वतन्त्रतासँग सम्बन्धित नागरिक र राजनैतिक अधिकारहरू
  - ख. दोस्रो पुस्ताको अधिकार —आर्थिक, सामाजिक र सांस्कृतिक अधिकारहरू
  - ग. तेस्रो पुस्ताको अधिकार-समूहगत अधिकारहरू जस्तो शान्ति , स्वच्छ वातावरण र विकासको अधिकार
  - घ. चौथो पुस्ताको अधिकार: सामाजिक सहिष्णुताको अधिकार

### ३. मानव अधिकारको महत्व:

मानव अधिकार सामाजिक न्याय , मानवीय सुरक्षा र स्वतन्त्रताको आधारस्तम्भ हो । मानव अधिकारको विश्वव्यापीरूपमै चर्चा, परिचर्चा र सार्वजनिक बहस हुने गरेको तथ्यवाटै उजगार हुन्छ कि यसको महत्व अपिरहार्थ छ भनेर तरपनि केहि बुँदाहरूमा उल्लेख गर्दा यसको महत्व निम्नलिखित रहेको पाइन्छ ।

१. यसले विश्व शान्ति र सुरक्षा कायम गर्दछ ।
२. मानव सभ्यताको विकास र प्रवृद्धन गर्दछ ।
३. मानव विकासमा आवश्यक परिवर्तन गर्दै जीवनस्तरमा सुधार गर्दछ ।
४. मानव मर्यादा र प्रतिष्ठा कायम गराउन सघाउँछ ।
५. अन्याय, भेदभाव, अत्यचार र असमानताको अन्त्य गर्दै सामाजिक न्याय र समानता कायम गर्न सघाउ पुर्‍याउँछ ।
६. दीर्घकालिन र स्थायी रूपमा द्वन्द्वको निरूपण गर्नमा योगदान पुर्‍याउँछ ।
७. राष्ट्रिय तथा अन्तराष्ट्रिय सम्बन्धलाई मजबुत बनाउन सघाउँछ ।
८. समाजमा पिछडिएको वर्ग, समुदाय र जातिलाई सशक्तीकरण, मूलप्रवाहीकरण तथा समावेशीकरण गर्न सहयोग गर्दछ ।
९. मानिसलाई स्वतन्त्र र आत्मनिर्भर हुन सहयोग गर्दछ ।

१०. समग्रमा राज्य , सरकार र यस अन्तर्गत काम गर्ने निकायहरूलाई जनमूखी , उत्तरदायी र प्रतिबद्ध बनाउन सहयोग गर्दछ ।

#### ४.मानव अधिकार र विकास,सुशासन तथा सामाजिक न्यायबीचको अन्तरसम्बन्ध

मानव अधिकार र विकास एकअर्काका परिपुरक विषयवस्तुहरू हुन । जहाँ मानव अधिकारको उचित सम्मान गरिएको हुन्छ त्यहाँ मानिसको सर्वपक्षीय विकासले सार्थकता प्राप्त गरेको हुन्छ । त्यसैले भन्ने गरिन्छ जहाँ मानव अधिकारको प्रत्याभूति हुन्छ त्यहाँ सुशासनको अनुभूति हुन्छ । कुनैपनि देशको विकासले त्यस देशका नागरिकको सर्वपक्षीय विकासलाई इंगित गर्दछ , जुन मानिसका आधारभूत र नसर्गिक अधिकारको अनुपस्थितिमा हासिल गर्न सकिदैन । अविकसित र कमजोर राष्ट्रमा मानवअधिकारको अवस्था समग्र रूपमा कमजोर पाइएको छ । त्यस्तै कतिपय पिछडिएका राष्ट्रहरूले अन्तराष्ट्रिय मानव अधिकार अभिसन्धि तथा महासन्धि अनुमोदन गरेपनि त्यस्तो प्रावधानलाई राष्ट्रिय कानूनको व्यवहारिक रूपमा प्रयोग गर्ने कार्यान्वयनको अवस्था अत्यन्तै कमजोर रहेको छ भने विकसित राष्ट्रहरूले मानव अधिकारलाई नागरिक अधिकारको रूपमा स्पष्ट कानुनी तथा व्यवहारिक रूपमा प्रयोग गरेका छन । त्यसैले मानव अधिकारको व्यवहारिक प्रयोग र कार्यान्वयनको लागि विकासलाई अन्तरसम्बन्धित विषयवस्तुका रूपमा लिन सकिन्छ ।

विकासको प्रमुख उद्देश्य समग्र मानवमा सकारात्मक परिवर्तन ल्याउनु हो । यो वस्तुवाट शुरु नभई जनता, उनीहरूको शिक्षा , संगठन र अनुशासनबाट प्रारम्भ हुन्छ । मानव अधिकारबाट वन्चित जनताको समग्र अवस्थामा सकारात्मक परिवर्तन सम्भव छैन । त्यसैले मानव अधिकार र विकासको बीचमा अन्तरसम्बन्ध र कतिपय अवस्थामा अन्तरनिर्भता भएको पुष्टि हुन्छ । मानव अधिकार र विकासको सम्बन्ध साधन र साध्यको तथा परिपोषक र परिपुरकको रूपमा रहेको छ । एकको अभावमा अर्काको उपलब्धता अधुरो हुन्छ ।

विकासको प्रमुख कार्यसूची सुशासन हो । सुशासन भनेको असल शासनको अवधारणा हो । संयुक्त राष्ट्रसंघको प्रतिवेदनमा सन २००२ देखिनै सुशासनलाई पारदर्शिता , जवाफदेहिता , उत्तरदायित्व , स्वामित्व , दक्षता , समता , प्रभावकारिता र पुर्वानुमान्यता जस्ता विशेषताहरूबाट चिनाइएको छ भने हालको परिवेशमा विश्वका धेरैजसो मुलुकहरूले यिनै विशेषताहरूलाई आधार मान्दै विधिको शासन , समावेशी शासन प्रणाली , समानता , सहमतीय प्रणाली लगायत भ्रष्टाचार र दण्डहीनतको अन्त्य जस्ता विषयवस्तुहरूलाई समेत प्राथमिकता दिइएको पाइन्छ । अतः उल्लिखित तत्वहरूको पूर्णरूपमा परिपालना गर्दा नै सुशासन सहितको विकासको माध्यमबाट मानव अधिकारको प्रवर्द्धन हुने कुरामा कसैको दुइमत रहन सक्दैन । यसै अवधारणा अनुरूप नै सुशासनलाई सर्वप्रथम विश्व वैकले दक्षिण अफ्रिकाको विकास आयोजनहरूमा लगानी गर्ने क्रममा अवलम्बन गरेको अवधारणा हो । यसले असल राज्यको परिकल्पनाबाट मानव अधिकारको संरक्षण हुने कुरामा विश्वास गर्दछ ।

मानव अधिकार र सामाजिक न्यायको घनिष्ठ सम्बन्ध रहेको हुन्छ । सामाजिक न्याय मानव अधिकारको अभिन्न अंग हो । मानव अधिकारलाई सबै जनताको सामाजिक न्यायलाई पूर्ति गर्ने माध्यम बनाउनु आजको आवश्यकता हो । सामाजिक न्याय भन्नाले राष्ट्रिय श्रोतलाई न्यायपूर्ण ढंगबाट वितरण गर्ने भन्ने बुझिन्छ अर्थात राजनैतिक दृष्टिकोणबाट हेर्दा आर्थिक र सामाजिक रूपमा हुने समावेशितालाई

वुझाउँछ । यसले समाजभित्र शोषित समूह तथा व्यक्तिका अन्यायहरूको पहिचान गर्दै असमानता र अन्यायको निवारण गर्दछ । यसले न्यायपूर्ण समाजको स्थापना , सार्वजनिक कल्याणको अभिवृद्धि , अवसर र लाभको निष्पक्ष वितरण , समाजमा रहेका कमजोर र विपन्न समुदायको उत्थान , राष्ट्रिय लाभमा सबैको पहुँच , समतामा आधारित कार्यक्रम , सशक्तीकरण र विकास गर्दै मानव अधिकारको पर्वद्वन गर्ने कार्यमा उन्मुख गर्न सघाउँछ । सामाजिक न्यायका सामान्यतया तीनवटा प्रमुख पक्षहरू रहेका छन्:

१.समानता तथा अविभेद

२.समता तथा सकरात्मक विभेद

३.श्रोत र साधन तथा उपलब्धिको न्यायोचित वितरण

राज्यले सामाजिक न्याय कायम गर्नको लागि सबै नागरिकहरूलाई समान व्यवहार गर्नुपर्दछ , राज्यको साधन, श्रोत र उपलब्धीलाई न्यायपूर्ण तरिकाले वितरण गर्नुपर्दछ तथा पिछडिएको समुदायहरूको लागि सकरात्मक विभेद जस्ता कार्यक्रमहरूबाट विशेष संरक्षण पनि गर्नुपर्दछ ।

सामाजिक न्याय विकासको विभिन्न आयामहरूमध्ये महत्वपूर्ण आयाम हो। विकासलाई मूर्तता दिन र वैधता प्रदान गर्न सामाजिक न्यायको जरुरत पर्दछ । यथार्थमा विकास भनेको सामाजिक न्याय कायम हुनु हो । यसैअनुरूप नै नेपालको अन्तरिम संविधानको धारा २१ मा सामाजिक न्यायलाई एक मौलिक अधिकारको रूपमा राखी आर्थिक, सामाजिक वा शैक्षिक दृष्टिले पछि परेका महिला, दलित, आदिवासी जनजाति, मधेसी समुदाय, उत्पीडित वर्ग, गरीब किसान र मजदूरलाई समानुपातिक समावेशी सिद्धान्तको आधारमा राज्यको संरचनामा समावेशी हुने हक हुनेछ भन्ने विषय उल्लेख गरिएकोवाट पनि सामाजिक न्याय र मानव अधिकारको गहिरो सम्बन्ध रहेको स्पष्ट हुन्छ ।

सामाजिक न्याय, विकास र सुशासन मानव अधिकारका अन्तरसम्बन्धित प्रतिविम्ब तथा आधारशीला हुन । सामाजिक न्यायले न्यायपूर्ण समाजको स्थापना, जन कल्याणको अभिवृद्धि, अवसर र लाभको निष्पक्ष वितरण, समाजमा रहेका कमजोर र विपन्न समुदायको उत्थान, सशक्तीकरण र विकास गर्दै मानव अधिकारको पर्वद्वन गर्ने कार्यमा उन्मुख गर्न सघाउँछ भने सुशासनले सम्पूर्ण जनतालाई पुर्याउँनुपर्ने सेवाप्रवाहमा हुने पारदर्शिता, जवाफदेहिता तथा विधिको शासनको प्रत्याभूत गर्दै कुशल, गुणस्तरीय, मितव्ययी र चुस्त सेवाप्रवाहको परिकल्पना गर्दछ । जहाँ सुशासन र सामाजिक न्यायको पूर्ण पालना भएको हुन्छ त्यहाँ स्वभाविक रूपमा विकासका सूचकहरू पाइन्छन् तथा मानव अधिकारको संरक्षण भएको हुन्छ । त्यसैले भन्न सकिन्छ कि मानव अधिकार, विकास, सुशासन र सामाजिक न्यायबीच अन्योन्याश्रित सम्बन्ध रहेको छ ।

#### **५. मानव अधिकारको पालना, सम्बर्द्धन र प्रवर्द्धनमा सरोकारवालाहरूको भूमिका:**

मानव अधिकार आफैमा एक बहुपक्षीय विषय भएको हुनाले यसको पालना, सम्बर्द्धन र प्रवर्द्धनमा विभिन्न संघसंस्थाहरूको भूमिका रहेको हुन्छ । विशेषगरी मानव अधिकारको क्षेत्रमा सक्रिय रूपमा काम गर्ने निम्नलिखित निकायहरू रहेका छन् ।

**राज्य:** राज्य मानव अधिकारको पालना, सम्बर्द्धन र प्रवर्द्धन गर्ने सबैभन्दा महत्वपूर्ण निकाय हो । मानव अधिकारको रक्षाको लागि राज्यका व्यवस्थापिका, कार्यपालिका तथा न्यायपालिका तीनै निकायहरूले आ-आफ्नो सक्रिय तथा निष्पक्ष भूमिका निर्वाह गर्नुपर्दछ । यसको लागि कुनैपनि राज्यशे कानून बनाउने, कानूनको कार्यान्वयन गर्ने/गराउने, विधिको शासन लागुगर्ने/गराउने, दण्ड-सजायको उपयुक्त व्यवस्था मिलाउने तथा आवश्यक निकायहरूको स्थापना गर्ने काम गर्नुपर्दछ । नेपालको सन्दर्भमा राज्यले राष्ट्रिय मानव अधिकार आयोग, अख्तियार दुरुपयोग अनुसन्धान आयोग, राष्ट्रिय सर्तकता केन्द्र जस्ता विभिन्न वैधानिकता प्राप्त निकायहरूको स्थापना गरेर मानव अधिकारको क्षेत्रमा अध्ययन अनुसन्धान गर्ने, सचेतना जगाउने, कारवाही गर्न सिफारिस गर्ने तथा आवश्यक क्षेत्रमा आदेश दिने कार्यमा संलग्न गराइएको पाइन्छ । नेपालमा मानव अधिकारको क्षेत्रमा संरक्षण गर्ने बलियो संयन्त्रको अभाव छ । त्यसैले नै हामीले विवेक लुइटेलालाई आफ्नै छिमेकीले र ख्याती श्रेष्ठलाई आफ्नै शिक्षकले गरेको हत्या जस्ता घटनामा भविष्यका ऊर्जा शक्तिलाई सजिलै गुमाउँदा पनि मौन रहेका छौं ।

**गैर सरकारी संस्था:** हालको परिस्थितिमा मानव अधिकारको पालना, सम्बर्द्धन र प्रवर्द्धन गर्ने विषयमा गैरसरकारी संस्थाले मानव अधिकारवाट बन्चित नागरिकहरूलाई सचेतना अभिवृद्धि गर्ने तथा सशक्तीकरणका कार्यक्रममा सहभागीता बढाउने काम गर्नुपर्दछ । भनिन्छ सरकारको आँखा सबै क्षेत्रमा समान रूपमा पुगनुपर्दछ तर यो सम्भव भैरहेको पाइदैन । त्यसैले अहिले विश्वभर समुदायदेखि सरकारसम्म मानव अधिकारको क्षेत्रमा गैर सरकारी संस्थाको भूमिका अतुलनीय र व्यापक रहेको पाइन्छ ।

**अन्तराष्ट्रिय साझेदारी/सहयोग:** कुनैपनि राष्ट्र आफैमा निपूर्ण हुन सक्दैन । अहिलेको युग भनेको एकातिर विश्वव्यापीकरणको संजाल हो भने अर्कोतिर सूचना प्रविधिको विकास हो । यस्तो परिवेशमा मानव अपराध, बाल अपहरण तथा महिला बेचबिखन तथा ओसारपसार जस्ता घटनाहरूले भयानक परिस्थिति निम्त्याएको सबैको सामू छर्लङ्ग छ । त्यसैले मानव अधिकारको सम्बर्द्धन तथा प्रवर्द्धनमा अन्तराष्ट्रिय रूपमा समन्वय, आर्थिक-सामाजिक सहयोग तथा एकता र साझेदारीको महत्वपूर्ण भूमिका रहेको हुन्छ ।

**नागरिक:** नागरिकले मानव अधिकारको पालना, सम्बर्द्धन र प्रवर्द्धन गर्ने विषयमा सबैभन्दा जिम्मेवार समाज/निकायको रूपमा भूमिका निर्वाह गर्नुपर्दछ । नागरिकले आफ्नो अधिकारको खोजी गर्ने राज्यलाई नागरिक दबाव दिने र उपयुक्त कानूनको पालना गर्न/गराउने कार्यमा संयुक्त रूपमा जुट्नुपर्दछ । विश्वकै परिवेशमा संचार माध्यमले महत्वपूर्ण भूमिका निभाएको पाइन्छ भने हाल आएर विभिन्न व्यावसायिक समूहहरू जस्तो प्राध्यापक संघ, चिकित्सक संघ, उद्योग वाणिज्य संघ लगायत नागरिक समूहका अगुवाहरूले आ-आफ्नो पक्षबाट भूमिका खेलेको पाइन्छ ।

### **उपसंहारः**

मानव अधिकार मानवलाई प्राप्त हुनुपर्ने त्यस्तो आधारभूत र नैसर्गिक अधिकार हो जुन कुनैपनि मूल्यमा मानवलाई उपलब्ध हुनैपर्दछ । अन्तराष्ट्रिय रूपमा परिभाषित आधारभूत अधिकारहरू मानव अधिकार हुन भने राष्ट्रिय सीमाभित्र लागुहुनेगरी राष्ट्रिय कानूनहरू विशेषगरी संविधानले प्रत्याभूत गरेपछि तीनै अधिकारहरू मौलिक अधिकारको रूपमा लिईन्छ । वस्तुतः मौलिक अधिकारहरू पनि मानव अधिकारकै भाग हुन, राष्ट्रिय संस्करण हुन । सुशासन र समाजिक न्यायमा आधारित क्रियाकलापहरू मानव अधिकारका आधारशीला हुन । त्यसैले सुशासन, समाजिक न्याय र मानव अधिकारको त्रिकोणात्मक सम्बन्ध त एक विशेषता नै हो त्यो वाहेक वृहत र सूक्ष्म तथा समन्यात्मक क्रियाकलापको रूपमा पनि रहेका पाइन्छन् ।

### **सन्दर्भ सामाग्रीहरू**

नेपालको अन्तरिम संविधान, २०६३

त्रि-वर्षीय योजनाको आधारपत्र (२०६७/६८-२०६९/७०)

महेश शर्मा पौडेल (२०६७) विकास पत्रिका, राष्ट्रिय योजना आयोगको सचिवालय

नहकुल सुवेदी (२०६४) मानव अधिकार : अवधाराणात्मक समिक्षा पराग, नेपाल राष्ट्रिय कर्मचारी संगठन,

निजामती विभागीय समिति, अर्थ मन्त्रालय

संयुक्त राष्ट्र संघीय विकास कार्यक्रम (२०६५) मानव अधिकार र समाजिक न्यायको बहस

संयुक्त राष्ट्र संघीय विकास कार्यक्रम (२०६४) मानव अधिकार, विविधता र सामाजिक न्याय

कानून, न्याय तथा संसदीय व्यवस्था मन्त्रालय (२०६४) मानव अधिकार सम्बन्धी अन्तराष्ट्रिय महासन्धिहरूको संगालो मानव अधिकार राष्ट्रिय कार्ययोजना ( प्रधानमन्त्री तथा मन्त्रिपरिषद्को कार्यालय), २०६४

सन्दर्भ सामाग्री, नेपाल प्रशासनिक प्रशिक्षण प्रतिष्ठान, (पूर्व सचिव-उमेश मैनाली)

सन्दर्भ सामाग्री, एपेक्स कलेज, लोक सेवा आयोगको तयारी कक्षा संचालन कार्यक्रम (सह-सचिव-चुरामणी शर्मा)

# Shaping tomorrow's Economy Challenges and Choices for Nepal

Dev Raj Dahal<sup>★</sup>

## Introduction

The goal of an economy is to increase the standards of living of people by sustainable use of resources and transformation of society toward a more humane order. The tomorrow's economy deems humans as "species-beings," to use the concept of Ludwig Feuerbach, considering that their collective emancipation rests on common life of all species rather than exclusive human welfare. Economy is not an autonomous closed system completely separated from the rest of the sub-systems of society, the environment, technology, politics and morality; morality because it has to ensure the well-being of future generation also. Development is vitally linked to the resilience of the ecology, economy, polity and civil society, all functioning in a spirit of harmony to promote shared objectives (Nyerere et al. 1992:274). The productivity system of feudalism, capitalism, and imperialism based on vertical division of labor and specialization, however, does not offer any rational option for the solution of systemic problems. This system has created wretched working conditions for the masses and privileges for a few elites. It survived at the expense of democratic rights of people for self-governance as its superiority was based on taking from the poor, and using public resources to build up private fortune, not enlarging apparatuses for the production of basic public goods, and democratic equity for the poor.

The revolution in global communication heightened awareness about its negative consequences as it did not bear the costs of increased poverty, inequality, illiteracy, ill-health, erosion of public security, and ecocide as well as fulfill demand for a rapid reconstruction, reconciliation, and development of post-conflict societies. The positive economic outcome (positive externality) presumes an expansion of opportunities for poor peoples' wealth, incomes, and living standards, and adaptation to climate change by restoring earth's soils, forests, biodiversity, and eco-systems. Now, *ego-centric economy*, based on individual impulse over shared benefits, capital accumulation, economic growth, and depletion of non-renewable resources and nature, has been contested by attentive public as it has neither improved the quality of life nor valued women and nature's service not even offered win-win solution of economic problems. As the tabulation of life-cycle by economic calculus has failed to account ecological, social, gender, and inter-generational costs, new indicators of progress have been

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identified beyond the classical GNP-measured economic growth. It entailed the vision of transformation of institutions, forms of knowledge, rationalization, and technological mutations of the above systems. This transformation, however, does not come from within their leadership which had fostered unequal social, economic, and political relations in society. Transformation comes from those leaders who continuously learn to manage problems collectively with citizens, and use democratic principles to evaluate, and reform the existing rules, institutions, and conditions of people. Arising from genuine grassroots movements from outside the establishment, the transformative leadership challenges the *homocentric economy*, an economy that serves the same class of privileged elites at the exclusion of ecological and people's needs, to create an alternative sustainable vision, and institutions that mobilizes the commitment of people for ecological, gender and social justice.

With the gradual removal of knowledge and technological gaps and privileged status of elites by democratic impulse, the tomorrow's economy will combine both anthropocentric and ecological concerns by changes the rules of the game from vertical command and control system of a few to participatory decision-making, economic growth to equity, free market to coordination of market for the allocation of social surplus in meeting basic needs, minimal role of the state to increased public role of state in security, collective goods, and upliftment of marginalized, and centralization of profits to redistribution and expansion of public goods and services through polycentric institutions. It is also simplifying the relationship of economic actors with the people at the flat level to build proper economic security (adequate food, cloth, housing, health care, income and pensions).<sup>1</sup> The tomorrow's economy moves beyond boss-employee practices to self-employed entrepreneur, and embraces partnership culture, co-production, and joint stake-holding in the mode of operation so that each partner has an incentive to monitor the conduct of others. "Collaborative relationships between top management and workforce are more productive and profitable"(Grieder, 2009:14). It allows the stakeholders of economy to participate in a regular dialogue, communication, and contextual learning distilled by the culture of community. It is the culture that "provides the key to *path dependence*—a term used to describe the powerful influence of the past on the present and future" (North, 1996: 349).

This path dependence helps to evolve a systemic thinking—"thinking in terms of relationship, context, patterns and processes," for the economy of tomorrow marks a "transition from an economy of goods to an economy of service and flow" in which "matter cycles continuously, so that the net consumption of raw materials is drastically

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<sup>1</sup> This economic security involves "universal access to good quality education, health care, and adequate and secure retirement income— while encouraging private innovation and job creation; to regulate the financial markets with the aim of channeling financial institutions to do what they are designed to do in capitalism: allocate resources efficiently by providing credit for production, innovation and long-term growth; and to redesign the architecture for management of international finance so it promotes economic growth and political stability" (Milberg, 2009:46).

reduced” (Capra, 2004:231). As the waste is recycled into an economy it opens up a new possibility to control emission, regenerate the atmosphere and balance core-periphery relationships within the state. The need for ecological sustainability has brought a reflective transformation in development thinking and values “from linear system of resource extraction and accumulation of products and waste to cyclical flows of matter and energy; from the focus on objects and natural resources to a focus on service and human resources; from seeking happiness in material possessions to finding it in nurturing relationships” (Capra, 2004:232). Accordingly, green growth would be built on energy saving and efficiency, dematerialization of production, and substitution, for example, of fossil fuels by renewable energies and non-renewable raw materials (FES, 2010:22). Technological progress offers new possibilities for reversing the current vicious cycle of environmental deterioration, poverty, and conflict into virtuous cycle of eco-balance, well-being and peace.

Developed countries have higher capabilities than developing countries in manufacturing compared to agricultural and service sectors.<sup>2</sup> Now, many multinationals, the emissaries of the industrialized countries with their manufacturing powers, like previous empires, are less inclined to take the burden of public welfare and environmental protection and more inclined to seek the freedom of capital above the interest of society. Their companies are moving in those low-productivity countries where they can easily outsource the jobs to exploit workers with low wages, labor market flexibility, and hire and fire, weakening of social protection, and use of scarce arable land for commercial farming for export thereby creating food crisis for natives, and contaminating the environment. Divided trade unions and weak states make it difficult to tax, enforce laws, and regulate against rights abuser who easily hide behind the borders, and evade corporate social responsibilities. This means the political economy of labor movement will continue around a bargaining for the implementation of framework agreements in transnational spaces, decent wages based on global labor and employment standards, better working conditions, dignity of work, social security, less pollution, and life-choices. In other words, the alignment of labor movement with global social interest will bring the importance of *eco-centric economy* in focus with labor, gender and nature-sensitive technologies.

Power and poverty at international and domestic levels are linked to entrenched economic interests and concentration of economic power is a threat to social values and healthy competition. Faced with the threatening accretion of global problems that defy national solution, the state left to its own means is ineffective to exercise its sovereignty. Geo-economic regions are emerging as viable units of political action in the global context. Multinationals, created by powerful states, have formed horizontal alliances across countries with native business classes and authoritarian states for

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<sup>2</sup> Alexander Hamilton asserted its importance this long ago, “If the United States wanted to be a country of consequence it would have to spend public funds to encourage the emergence of manufacturing and to protect nascent domestic industries from foreign competition” (2005:85).

production, distribution, financing, and profit, consequently, weakening the accountability mechanism of the state-created vertical structures of power, hierarchy, and discipline, and the collective identity of labor to bargain. As most of workers are employed on a part time, contractual or daily wage basis their ability for free collective bargaining for fair share of wealth they themselves created is limited. Without a global, regional, and national social contract the demands of developed countries for cheap goods at whatever cost to human life, dignity and ecology offer no escape from their economic backwardness. In a situation of unstoppable decline in agriculture, and industrial production, the struggle of the poor for human rights and livelihoods will continue in the future. The great challenge of tomorrow's economy is to change the fundamental value pattern of today's economy solely based on profit maximization of business elites to make it compatible with the enlightened public demands for human rights, democracy, social justice, ecological sustainability, and peace.

In Nepal, democratic transformation and constitutional moment have generated legitimate hope of people for improved standards of living. But the basic conditions of life for the majority of people remain the same despite the declaration of Nepal a secular, federal democratic republic. Each political change distributed power and resources only at the super-structural level and leaders sought to substitute the impersonal state with their personalized parties, clients, and networks. Owing to difficulty in democratizing elections and other sources of legitimacy, national political competition has become a game of unequal players. Intractable internal contradictions within political parties have blocked the democratic transformation, and failed to inspire people to engage in open-source problem solving. As a result, development has been weakened by corruption shielded by politics. This amoral trend will eventually minimize the resources for productive investment and intensify hunger, famines, and resource conflicts. Weak economic performance of leadership continues to diminish the possibility to stabilize democracy, sustainable economic development, and positive peace. Four factors are responsible for this: cohabitation of new elites with the old for the sharing of spoils has closed the possibility to revitalize the national economy; insufficient bottom-up pressure for democratic control of elites undermined leaders' interest to navigate to higher democratic order for social capacity, constitutional stability, and positive change; weak base of the resources of modernity to sustain the political system produced protracted instability; and easy international legitimacy to elite rule due to their converging economic and strategic interests, and support for single identity oriented clientalistic politics undercut leaders' will to foster good governance.

These factors have marred the possibility to diversify Nepalese economy offered by its topographical landscape, resource endowment, and comparative and competitive

advantages<sup>3</sup> to overcome the problem of underdevelopment of labor surplus economy, and optimally utilize full value of the nation's resources.

Nepalese are suffering from the continuation of a syndicated regime in economic and political spheres whether the emphasis is laid on the market or the "socialism-oriented economy" by political ideologues. The structurally coupled political economy provides less freedom for labor market integration, dynamism of a single national economy, competition, entry of genuine actors, service efficiency, and class-bridging strategy. Privatization of education, health, and other public goods amounts to deficits in their overall quality as it marked a revolt of elites against the egalitarian effects of democracy. The decision-makers' over emphasis on foreign aid, foreign direct investment, remittance, and tourism reflect their bunker mentality, no reading of the world markets' proneness to crisis afflicting these areas. The continued political and institutional failure, personalized regimes, assertion of subsidiary identities, anarchy of armed groups, and weak civil society have decreased the state's capacity to create enabling environment for business and investment, and ratcheted up the decomposition of polity. The parliament, universities, and the public sphere do not encourage informed debates about competing ideas. The ability of civil society to raise public demands is much higher than the capacity of state to fulfill thus rendering the government face credibility gap. Nepalese planners and leadership emerged from the habitual rote learning of ideas, and bloated promises lack both social reflection, and an analytical capacity to problem-solving adapted to the country's post-conflict challenges, and exercise a new vision that helps the Nepalese to deal with bitter reality of today. Heightening of security concerns of both neighbors, India and China, which are in many ways entrepreneurial and forward-looking, casts doubt whether Nepali state and leadership will be capable to pursue effective economic diplomacy or suffer the wash back of both neighbors. In either case, it needs their cooperation to confront the looming ecological, economic, and geopolitical crises.

### **Is Economic Vision becoming System-Sensitive?**

*Homo economicus*, home of economy, is concerned with the fulfillment of basic needs by restructuring the nature of work. Economic stability at global, regional, national, and local level rests on incentives of sharing the gains at each level. Each civilization has fostered its own conception of economic virtues. Hinduism fosters family and community values, pooling of resources, and functional specialization for the

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<sup>3</sup> The Himalayan region offers scope for eco-tourism, herbal plantation, animal husbandry, production of fruit juice, mountaineering, etc; the hills and the mountains offer prospect for agricultural and service sector development, management of forestry, industrial development in big valleys, solar, wind and hydro-power development; and the Tarai offers scope for agricultural, industrial, commercial, and educational development, etc. Utilization of hydropower development for internal development and export, and investment of money earned through remittance in alternative energy, infrastructure development, communication, and transportation grid, and supply chains are essential strategies. In the absence of infrastructure one region cannot be linked to other regions.

accomplishment of *artha*, economy. Protestant ethics of hard work and frugality lays stress on capitalism as a vehicle of economic progress; Confucian economy emphasizes the essential traits of economic dynamism, honesty, hard work, social discipline and harmonious society, and Buddhism on the golden mean between the satisfaction of human needs and nature's capacity for resilience and sustainability. In extreme form economy "reflects a vision of our species as one that relies on self-interest to obtain the maximum personal good at the lowest possible cost" (Christakis and Fowler, 2011: 220).

Adam Smith and J. S. Mill, the proponents of *methodological individualism*, fostered the notion of market as merely a sum of individuals' motivation to supply or demand a good influenced by needs, expectation, and values of the object. They advocated that minimal government intervention ensures economic efficiency. This expression underlines "aristocratic view of society manifested in the class-centered orientation" (Heilbroner and Milberg, 1997:118) as market is not politically neutral; it imposes ecological, economic, social, and political costs on particular groups and societies, so that in relative terms, some benefits more than others (Gilpin, 2005: 21). Stiglitz argues: "Adam Smith's invisible hand is invisible, it does not exist" (2006:4). Their opponent *methodological holism* articulated by Karl Marx postulated the theory of class consciousness in action considering that class cannot be reduced to individuals' choice by disassembling them into fragments. His political economy emphasizes the collective over the individual and de-commoditizes the functions of land, labor, and capital for the emancipation of people from the tragic consequences of alienation, necessity, violence, and social conflict. Marx treated human beings both as a part of and separate from the natural world. His proletariat is, however, fragmented now into white, blue and green collar workers, dispossessed, professionals, and self-employed with incompatible interest constellation owing to new social stratification induced by technology and modernity. John M. Keynes' macro-theory opposed both discourses and laid the foundation for a third way, *government* as a motor of economic development to counter market failure without eliminating the benefits of decentralized incentive-based processes. He developed an 'efficiency' reason to care about income distribution, equality, and investment in public goods (Gourevitch, 2009:6).

Keynes having relatively broader worldview was engaged in a dialogue with statesmen to transform the dysfunctional system created by industrial civilization which had "class-blind democratic political values" (Heilbroner and Milberg, 1997: 118). He believed that economic stability requires public sector intervention to liberate the people and countries from the financial crisis. In no way he represents methodological consensus among the economists. Still, Smith defined the duties of government to serve public goods, David Ricardo argued for the abolition of protective tariffs, Marx sought freedom of workers from alienation, Keynes advocated to reduce unemployment, and Alfred Marshall tried to forestall the expansion of communism due to its urge for the abolition of private property. John Locke and G. W. F. Hegel believed that private property is essential for incentives, freedom, and dignity of human beings.

Friedrich List, however, laid stress on the role of nation-state in the formation of national economy.<sup>4</sup> Political economists also discovered macro-micro economic linkages affirming that each national economy's primary duty is to enhance the capacities of native people for full and productive lives. "Both mercantilism and economic nationalism reject the economic liberal's assertion that the market can maximize the welfare of collective" (Levi-Faur, 1997: 370). The collapse of Soviet system, however, removed the rival of capitalism and marked the primacy of market over the state and social projects. Free Market economists like Milton Friedman, Richard Robbins and others argue that social responsibility of businessmen is to use their resources and engage in profit making activities within the rules of the game. They believed that free markets would allow socially optimal allocation of resources and contribute to human progress.

The world system, defined by five monopolies on technology, financial control of markets, access to the planets' resources, media, and weapons of mass destruction are based on pure economic rationality (Amin, 1997:5) which failed to solve the multi-faceted systemic problems. The realities of jobless economic growth, depletion of natural resources, biodiversity losses, climate change, etc required a new economic analysis as the above approaches pushed the world's development to unsustainable destination. Joseph Stiglitz argues that a single minded fixation on growth marked the warning signs of the global financial crisis. Temporary profits in financial industry, increasing debt loans, and the real estate bubble all contributed to a false rise in our economic measurements (Faris, 2009:52). As a result, two decades of neo-liberalism hastened the "creative destruction" of monopoly capitalism, to use Joseph Schumpeter's famous phrase, for a lack of its adaptive capacity. It treated basic needs as commodities, and separated the production of goods and services from the use value by vicious exchange intervention. There is a positive side of it also. "Globalization has succeeded in unifying people from around the world—against globalization" (Stiglitz, 2006:7).

The economy of tomorrow, therefore, offers an alternative to these approaches for mutual accommodation of countries, and peoples and investment in ecology, education, health, and equity that markets consistently ignored and international development institutions applied one-size-fits- all strategy. A decade of Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP) too registered their limits because they primarily opted for economic growth to combat income poverty while ignoring environment, distribution of wealth and income, human rights, democracy, and good governance (Martens, 2010:2). Even free trade regime defined by the WTO has led to increased gaps between rich and poor, between countries, and also within countries, thus working in favor of powerful interest groups.

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<sup>4</sup> "As the individual chiefly obtains by means of the nation and in the nation mental culture, power of production, security, and prosperity, so is the civilization of the human race only conceivable and possible by means of the civilization and development of the individual nations" (List, 1885:88).

Similarly, no significant breakthrough has been achieved in Cancun Summit of December 2010 to substantially reduce greenhouse gas emissions under the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC). Sustainable development requires planetary awareness that human beings are part of the nature and, therefore, its protection needs a policy of eco-labeling — espousing ecologically sensitive products and practices at multi-level governance and burden sharing by developed and developing countries on the use of alternative energy sources. This means countries like Nepal need to bolster its policy structures to effectively engage in multilateral diplomacy. “Politics significantly shape economic performance because they define and enforce the economic rules” (North, 1996:353).

The scientists today are going beyond the mechanistic and disciplinary worldviews explained above. They are trying to put the parts back together in a larger system as economic activities are increasingly becoming interdependent, interconnected, and globalized (Christakis and Fowler, 2011: 302-4). In this context, the economic choice of national development is to be seen in its embeddedness in the system’s sustainability through bridging inequality, robust oversight of risks and opportunities unfolded by regional and international economy, and policy coordination. Social scientists, leaders and planners have, therefore, to think beyond their disciplines, and professions to balance the unfolding spirit of the age, needs of diverse people of various hierarchies, and nature’s resilience. The process of globalization and proliferation of secular social movements are now reconstructing the social power of people, and opening the disciplinary minds of social scientists from the closure of their knowledge spaces to the planetary system as a whole. Obviously, the solution of global ecological, food, energy, and economic crisis requires international cooperation at various levels and overcome the constraints of progress imposed by “bounded rationality,” to use the concept of Herbert Simon.

It is crucial to make economic policies context-sensitive, and deconstruct professional planners’ role as the habitual rationalizer of governments’ policies worldwide—right or wrong, by sensitizing them to become responsive to ecology, society, and people’s needs. The political role of economists has a very bad effect on macroeconomics (Hailbronner and Milberg, 1997:55) as many of their prescriptions based on the virtue of greed as propeller of economic development had heart-wrenching consequences for the poor. David Korten espouses “an economic system of locally rooted, self-reliant economics that honor true market principles, operate by clear rules maintained, and enforced by truly democratic governments, and mimic the structure and dynamics of Earth’s biosphere (2011: 1). Elinor Ostrom’s study of California, Switzerland, India and Nepal confirmed that “self-organized communities are perfectly able to manage their lands, forests, fishing resources or irrigation systems (Heine, 2009:12), govern the property in common, and evolve norms of ethical behavior. The economists have to accept the current scientific consensus which presumes that the whole is greater than sum of its parts. It reads:

“Effective commons governance is easier to achieve when 1) the resources and the use of resources by humans can be monitored, and the information can be verified and understood at relatively low cost (e.g., trees are easier to monitor than fish, and lakes are easier to monitor than rivers); 2) rates of change in resources, resource-user populations, technology, and economic and social conditions are moderate; 3) communities maintain frequent face-to-face communication and dense social networks—sometimes called social capital—that increase the potential for trust, allow people to express and see emotional reactions to distrust, and lower the cost of monitoring behavior and inducing rule-compliance; 4) outsiders can be excluded at relatively low cost from using the resources (new entrants add to the harvesting pressure and typically lack understanding of the rules); and 5) users support effective monitoring and rule enforcement (Dietz, Ostrom and Stern, 2003:1908).

The economy of tomorrow thus encompasses all three dimensions of human life—biological, social, and cosmological. It instilled an important realization that managing the economy of tomorrow requires “finding the *optimal values* for the system’s variables. If one tries to maximize any single variable instead of optimizing it, this will invariably lead to the destruction of the system as a whole” (Capra, 1996:294). Hannah Arendt defines these with three domains: labor, work, and action (1998:7)<sup>5</sup> and clarifies the essence of the evolutionary spirit of human beings to use economy as a means to a good life. The economics of peace can be attained only in an open society where informed citizens can provide checks to the abuse of state and corporate power, special interests, and internalize the liberalizing influence of democratic order, social justice, and civility as these values transcend the traditional dominance of profit over the imperatives of social solidarity, ecological ethics, and equitable relations between people and communities. A society whose economic activity is governed by a vision of national self-awareness and uses proper means for the end of sustainable development can incorporate public policy into the agenda of a self-determined choice, and constantly reform the economic process through social learning and feedback through a reciprocal interaction of policy makers’ cognition, attitudes, and changing environment.

### **How to Mitigate the Systemic Risks on Nepalese Economy?**

Regardless of circumstances Nepalese planners and decision-makers have blindly followed global patterns of economic thinking rather than evolving contextual policy suitable to its reality, basic values, and people’s needs. Annual per capita income of \$487 puts landlocked Nepal in the bracket of least developed country. Squeezed

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<sup>5</sup> Labor corresponds to the biological process of the human body-- spontaneous growth, metabolism, and eventual decay. Work corresponds to the artificial world of objects that human beings create on the earth; and action, corresponds to plural human existence as distinct individuals. While all human conditions are related to politics, plurality is the fundamental essence of politics. “The mortality of men lies in the fact that individual life, with a recognizable life-story from birth to death, rises out of biological life (Arendt, 1998: 19).

between India and China, its largely impoverished population of 30 million lives predominantly in subsistence agriculture and informal economy where the concept of modern social security rarely exists. The top five percent of households own 37 percent of agricultural land while the bottom 47 percent occupy only 15 percent of it. About 29 percent of households are *sukumbasis*, landless. It reveals the structures of power relations that are at work in the marginalization of women, poor, and Dalits from the nation's economic order. Neo-liberal policy of the removal of subsidies on fertilizer, improved seeds, irrigation, and credit reduced agricultural productivity, increased rural poverty, and food scarcity. Over 30 percent of economically active population is totally unemployed.

The organized sector is only 10 percent where workers' minimum rights are guaranteed. The average monthly minimum wage for workers (\$87.32: \$50 basic salary and \$37.32 dearness allowance) is barely enough to feed even a nuclear family given average annual inflation rate of over 10 percent. Daily wage for industrial worker is \$3.25 while for agricultural worker it is yet to be decided (previous one is \$1.08). Among the total employed, 46 percent of them get monthly salary, the rest are employed on contractual, weekly pay and daily wage basis. Some 78 percent of population lives on less than \$2 a day. This monetary estimation of income is inadequate to fathom poverty which arises from a lack of opportunity for livelihoods, education, health care, safe water, sanitation, and social protection. Maternal mortality stands at 281, fertility rate 3.1, and infant mortality rate is 48. Life expectancy at birth is 68.81 years. Adult literacy rate is 53.74 %. Females' educational level must be scaled up as it helps to stabilize population, eradicate poverty, and entitle every adult to get life's possibilities. The contribution of tax to GDP is only 12 percent which is insufficient to subsidize welfare, and create accountable and responsible governance. In such a context, the government has "little incentive to build political and organizational capacity to negotiate and collect revenue and spend effectively" (Moore and Unsworth, 2007:1).

The commodity economy, increasing investment in urban banks, real estates, private schools, colleges, hospitals, and accumulation of gold, technological backwardness of society and domination of decision-making by powerful political and economic interests continue to pose structural obstacles for social transformation, and mitigate the food crisis constantly faced by about 4 million people. The two decades of neo-liberalism carried by successive Nepalese governments of all political hues not only broke the welfare state's labor-capital coordination but also trampled the constitutional vision of social justice. It brought structural shift of the economy from agriculture and industry to financial capitalism. Still, only about 26 percent of Nepalese have access over banking services due to their concentration in only urban nodes. Worse still, unproductive sector lending, concentration of loan to few powerful persons, inability of the government to expand capital base, capital flight and problem of institutional governance do not promise financial stability in the short-run and productive economic growth. Financial capitalism has made corporate and comprador classes vibrant, redistributed income and assets from the real to symbolic economy, labor to capital,

the bottom to the top classes of society, and centralized population, capital and production in urban areas. It has also caused fatal social, economic, and environmental consequences for the poor. De-industrialization of real economy, deregulation of state control, slash of agricultural subsidy, and job layoffs, forced the globalization of the Nepalese workers in more than 100 countries of the world in the hope of smooth remittance flow. Now agriculture growth remains only 1.1 percent but contributes 33 percent to GDP (over \$422.54m), manufacturing sector growth is 2.7 percent while service sector contributes 52 percent to GDP. Service provision, especially in education and health, is improving as community is increasingly involved in taking decisions. But the establishment of private schools and hospitals on “economic model” producing two kinds of services and two kinds of citizens in the country with the risk of producing social and political polarization in the future.

The rent-seeking nature of privatization and lack of self-determination of public policy have undermined the egalitarian virtues of democracy. The rapid growth of labor force (400,000 per year), its demand for productive jobs, and basic goods cannot be met without revitalizing the real economy of countryside, and productive use of the remittance brought by over 3 million workers abroad which contributes 23.4 percent to the nation’s GDP. The social and economic costs of Nepalese migrant workers, and their suffering and sacrifice have not been properly estimated nor did the utilization of their skills and funds (both wage capital and investment capital) in productive sectors of the economy. Likewise, the migration of highly productive youth has caused the decline of agriculture, increased the cost of production, and turned the food surplus nation into deficit one. This is making Nepal a consumption-oriented economy, which needs to be changed (Khanal, 2011:1). The contribution of foreign aid to GDP is only 4.7 percent. To annual government budget it accounts to 30 percent and about half of government’s capital expenditure. Foreign debt burden hovers around \$3565.14m and each year debt burden is increasing beyond its ability to pay. Conversion of debt into equity is a major policy challenge. The average domestic savings rate in Nepal as a percentage of the total Gross Domestic Product (GDP) stands at 10 percent.

The acutely poor Nepal, sitting in one of the largest hydropower potential (83,000 MW) of the world, has so far produced only 697 MW of electricity (out of which leakage is 186 MW) which fails to meet even the current domestic demand of 900 MW. The country is facing acute energy crunch, 14 hour power cut every day thus hobbling the possibility for industrial development. Political strikes and increasing production costs add other woes. To boost faltering economy, and strengthen its fast losing international competitiveness, expansion of hydropower, and alternative source of energy is essential. Decline of manufacturing in Nepal squeezed employment for workers and the country’s export competitiveness. The contribution of manufacturing sector to GDP is only 6 percent. The return of populism, security vacuum, and weak property rights scare both national and foreign direct investment in manufacturing sectors necessary for economic growth, technological progress, and social justice. In this context, the solidarity of sub-national units to strengthen local self-governance with the capacity and autonomy to define local social, economic, and cultural development is essential.

State-building from below requires surplus region to help the deficit ones in the framework of national development.

Stabilizing climate requires schemes for converting wind, solar, hydro-power, bio-fuel, and geo-thermal power into cheap energy. This also requires reordering fiscal priorities in response to the new threats to human security (Brown, 2006: 250). Nepal's annual economic growth of 3.2 percent barely balances population growth of 2.2 percent, reduces the level of poverty of around 65 percent and ensures social peace and stability. Inequality and stifled opportunity have caused violence—individual and collective (Tilly, 2006:159) and massive shift of population from rural to urban areas which is already marred by congestion, shortage of water, poor sanitation and dirty air. Nepal's location between huge landmass of Asia-China and India, its entry into SAFTA, BIMST-EC, and WTO and stable relationship with EU have opened the prospect for increased market access of Nepalese products. But, there are many non-tariff barriers, such as environment, labor and quality standards (Khanal, 2011: 1). The increased market integration at the higher level would not be sustainable if it is not accompanied by societal goods, reduction of capital cost in production, social support of peasants and workers in environmental protection, and removal of internal barriers to national market integration. Exploration of alternative energy can enhance Nepal's security by reducing dependence on vulnerable oil supplies. Nepal would also gain political clout by boosting regional cooperation, pooling of regional resources to address post-state challenges, and fulfilling transformation.

“Markets have a strong tendency to reinforce the status quo. This means that poor countries are supposed to continue with their current engagement in low-productivity activities. But their engagement in these activities is exactly what makes them poor. If they want to leave poverty behind, they have to defy the market and do the more difficult things that bring them higher incomes—there are no two ways about it” (Chang, 2008:210). Its real problems are: inadequate infrastructures, lack of internal market integration, weak production, incapacity to supply, and poor standards of goods. As a result, import is six times higher (\$3.6billion) than exports causing annual trade deficit of \$633.80m. External aid has become essential to cover the balance of payment deficits, remove the gap in governance between security and development, and drum up support for peace building. This means post-conflict Nepal needs leaders who have the vision and character to utilize external resources such as foreign aid, debt relief, and direct foreign investment for self-sustained development. Weak politics has created dependency culture, and caused leadership failure in constructing rules, legal premises, and supportive policy for work and wages while alarming surge of strikes rendered the authority of government ineffective. Nepalese state, therefore, needs to restore political authority through the intermediation of state institutions, solve problems of broad-based inclusive economic growth, bring opposing interest groups, and best talents to endorse the framework of social justice, and support economic actors' competitive strength in market efficiency. These are the necessary steps to heal the post-conflict society. If Nepalese government is able to stabilize its economy, it will regain freedom of policy. Future institutions require those leaders who provide

“combinations of spiritual, emotional, and material rewards meeting the needs of people who are already seeking to participate in simplifying and purifying the world” (Tilly, 2006: 169). But it remains unclear where the new leadership will come from when the society is now being re-tribalized, and politics is used to extract economic rents. Strengthening national economy is essential to strengthen the state’s capacity to deliver.

### **Leadership Roles in Structural Shifts**

Nepal’s participation in the global modernization has led to a wider opening of plural interest groups within the country, new choices, and thereby ever-increasing competition and conflicts for resources. Democratic rules of the game require non-violent resolution of differences. The main challenge for leadership is to restructure the national economy so that resources are diverted to meet the problem of basic needs through a shift from revenue-based to production-oriented economic system.

The first task of the leadership is to expedite the production of contextual public policies to increase minimum income to all than personal preference of powerful elites to import the luxury consumption of goods for the perpetuation of social distinction, class privileges, and fulfillment of external geopolitical and geo-economic imperatives. Second, promote import-substituting and export-promoting agro-based, decentralized industries so that backward linkages of industry with agriculture can be modernized. This helps national industries to support agriculture’s ability to address food crisis, more employment, and urban-rural linkages. They can also consolidate the forward linkages with trade competitiveness. Establishment of import-substituting industries based on national resources holds competitive potential than those established in industrial corridors of southern Nepal which rely on the import of Indian raw materials, processes through Indian migrant workers, export to Indian markets, and facilitate capital flight. They survive on the marginal profit of custom differences, and contribute less to national economy (Sharma, 2011:5). Replacement of Nepalese workers with foreign workers and native businessmen with foreign ones does not promise for sustainable development. So long as the nation’s survival rests on exporting labor and raw materials and the state cannot control price of internal production it cannot develop competitive spirit (Panday, 1987: 99). Third, disperse public goods from the capital city, Kathmandu, to ailing periphery in small towns, rural and remote areas through the state, private sector, and community organizations with competitive price mechanism by abolishing the prevailing syndicate system which has increased the costs of supply (Dahal, 2010:143-45). Fourth, maintain regional balance in taxation, equity, and redistribution of development through decentralization measures based on the principles of subsidiarity. Fifth, promote a judicious balance of the rights of majority and minority groups of society in a model of communitarian action. And finally, optimize the interest of subsidiary identity oriented forces who are demanding multi-nature of resource claims—self-determination, prior use rights on land, river, and forest and ethnic, geographical, linguistic and cultural determinism of politics.

Political parties of Nepal have not developed a habit to become system-sensitive, and provide civic education to citizens for democratic participation in wealth-creation, institutionalization of policy dialogues between government and society, and rebuilding participatory institutions for self-governance. Rather they in a competition with rival parties over issues, interests, identities, and values continue to instrumentalize class, caste, ethnicity, region, religion, and territoriality for the expansion of electoral constituencies, caused enlightenment deficit, and fuelled the sources of multi-structural conflicts. Obviously, these traits mark the coming crisis of Nepalese citizenship and the erosion of national identity. Pluralistic society often requires dialogue, interest reconciliation, and consensus on national initiatives.

### **Change Agents for Social Justice**

The Nepali state's fundamental economic objective is to "transform national economy into an independent, self-reliant, and progressive economy through equitable distribution of economic gains based on social justice and elimination of economic inequalities." Political parties in the CA have agreed to set up an economy governed by "independent development of public, cooperative and private sector and their contribution to national development." Nepal's political system developed through the interplay between negation of rival, and segmented incorporation of dynamic sectors of society such as Dalits, women, Maoists, Madhesis and Janajatis has replaced the old patron-Pancha relationship by new patron-client ties. A property right is an incentive for economic performance. But, due to weak state and competing armed groups law enforcement on property rights has become difficult in Nepal. As the marketization process introduced the differentiation of social classes and interests, newly constituted institutions and federations of women, *Janajatis*, indigenous *Tharu* people, Dalits, youths, etc openly contest the legitimacy of the new order created by the Interim Constitution which, by definition, could not satisfy the legitimate aspirations of many without structural reforms. The social contract, a workable Nepalese constitution of future, to become legitimate in people's eyes requires democratic accountability of leadership, and social equity for the poor. What all Nepalese political parties have in common is the goal of social justice, a justice which is also the lynchpin of social democracy. Similarly, the transnational penetration of policy reform options, and the global development consensus for shared growth hold the potential to standardize social welfare state. The economy of tomorrow, therefore, should focus on: welfare state, social market economy, funding of social security system, green growth, good governance, rule of law and human rights, and upliftment of marginalized.

### *Welfare State*

Unified "legitimate monopoly" on the power of state requires demilitarization, democratization and integration of armed groups into civilian life so that it can prevent the ecological, economic, and demographic sources of conflict. The articulation of the role of state in national security, rule-enforcement, and political stabilization for the improvement of personal security in every aspect of Nepalese lives is necessary for the creation of business-friendly environment, and peace building. Nepal spends only about

3 percent of its GDP in social security including health. The crucial challenge is: How to make the poor stakeholder of the state? The welfare state is a social investment state that provides the needy with new opportunities to help themselves (job training, new qualifications, and support for self-help) (Meyer, 2000: 52). The Scandinavian states provide active labor market policy, extensive redistribution through robust public budget management, comprehensive protection against social risks, and life-long learning (Jochem, 2011:1). Welfare state is based on a compromise between internal welfare needs of people and the imperative of liberal international economic order. It also acts as a buffer against the negative effects of globalization. "As political survival and internal peace are more defined in economic terms, states have become responsible for economic transformation" (Evans, 2005:122) particularly their roles in social equity, and environment.

Nepal's Interim Constitution has expanded more social rights to the people, such as right to work, health, food sovereignty, residence, clean environment, etc aiming to create a class-neutral, socially and ecologically embedded state, institutionalization of tri-partite dialogue, expansion of workers' rights, welfare measures, social inclusion, and sustainability. These measures can be achieved only if there is a robust, inclusive economic growth to finance substantial social development, and social security. The reorganization of peasants and workers into cooperatives, saving and credit institutions, consumers group, Youth and Mothers' Groups for small-scale enterprises, learning centers, etc and some form of autonomy can liberate them from hierarchical control, hopeless alienation, gender inequality, and poverty and change the rural power structure. Retraining and education opportunities upscale the Nepalese workers' ability to compete in new job markets created by technological innovation, trade, and finance, and enable them to organize collective action at various levels.

#### *Social Market Economy*

Nepal is undergoing a fundamental transformation in its socio-economic structures and in its links to the international system. The political discourse framed by the CA indicates a version of the social market economy, a third way, between Anglo-Saxon oriented Washington Consensus-based development strategy which Nepal has practiced so far, and the Chinese model built on state control. The formal model has "paid too little attention to issues of equity, employment, and competition, to pacing and sequencing of reforms or how privatizations were conducted" (Stiglitz, 2006:17). In contrast, the dramatic poverty reduction of China is mainly attributed to investment in agriculture sector, education, health, rural electrification, equitable distribution of land rights, regional economic decentralization, and high female participation in the labor force (Bardhan, 2010:7) than its integration in global economy. But, the Nepalese elites are less attracted with the Chinese model of political economy.

The third way social market economy is the most appropriate choice for Nepal because it can provide a common political ground between left-right divide, a mechanism of resolving contradictions within capitalist democracy and better minimum wage to support lifetime capability enhancement and welfare (Mishra, 2010:8) of Nepalese

people. It does not subordinate politics and government to the dynamic properties of market or class imperatives. Instead, it allows politics to: coordinate market for common good, maintain a balance between productivity and social aims, support the welfare state, and provide people all five sets of human rights— civil, political, social, economic and cultural, inclusive political process and agreement on social justice (Sperling, 2005:22) as they are embedded in Nepal’s constitution, plan documents and international obligations. Defense of civic freedom, together with public ownership of the means of production in vital areas, can temperate the class, gender, regional and digital divides, and captures the synergy of development (Acharya, 2011:14).

The politics of social market economy in Nepal has to enable financing these rights and “reclaim the state for society as an instrument to regulate and contain disembodied capital” (Levitt, 1995:14) which has only boosted the returns of financial capital, and knowledge capital. The ability of peasants and workers to move to co-determination of public policy based on new social contract in Nepal requires linking constitutional law to public policy, and the operationalization of the *right to development* from bottom up by engaging people in planning, administration, budgeting, and monitoring of development. In this sense, the new economic policy aims to rectify “class, caste, ethnic, gender and regional disparity” articulated in the Interim Constitution of 2007 by reversing rising economic insecurity, and income inequality, and curbing the rewards for unprofitable, and unethical corporate behavior, decentralization of decision making power to encourage the participation from the grassroots in the entire project cycle, and implementation of “a common development concept” articulated in the peace accord. This concept presumes the conservation of biodiversity, and ecosystem, policy coordination among various actors, and financing distributional aspects of governance. A unified labor power based on the social solidarity of public interests can help maintain democratic control over economy, peaceful accommodation between capital and labor, and prevent workers’ race to the bottom.

Peace-creating and welfare-enhancing system cannot be created by just a growth in per capita income, helping favorite oligarchs, bank defaulters, tax-evaders, illegal privatizers of profit-making public industries, consultants, and clients who do not have any accountability for the results of mal-development. A UNDP report entitled “*Illicit Financial Flows from the Least Developed Countries: 1990-2008*” revealed that \$9.1 billion in capital was siphoned out of the country during this period from Nepal. On an average \$480.4 million went out of the country annually earning 6<sup>th</sup> position among the Least Developed Countries. Post-conflict economics of peace requires improving human development indicators, ensuring that climate adaptation funds reach poor people especially in the areas of their vulnerability to climate variability, disaster risk reduction, and build synergies with groups working on gender, indigenous people, Dalits, workers, food security, climate change, fragility of mountains, and disaster preparedness. The heating of global temperature is viciously melting Himalayan glaciers, looming glacial lake bursts. Nepal is also facing deforestation, erosion of fertile soil, decreased productivity, loss of biodiversity etc. It is threatening the livelihoods of people in various ecological zones, and creating social fractures between classes, and

generations. A poverty eradication effort that is not accompanied by an earth restoration effort is doomed to fail (Brown, 2006: 256). The solution of these problems requires alternative economic measures that supports programs and projects for environment-sensitive social enterprises “which are holistic and enhance the value of reciprocity, equity, solidarity, and interconnections” (Corpuz, 2008). Nepal has already submitted its National Adaptation Program of Action to UN Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) whose execution requires at least \$350million.

#### *Funding of Social Security System*

The welfare objectives such as economic growth, full-employment, and social development have become the responsibility of the elected government though it can engage the private sectors, civil society, and international community in achieving them. For the dignified work, social security scheme has been defined by the International Labor Organization (ILO) Convention 102 as a rights of workers and they are entitled to get unemployment benefit, health care, sickness, old age, accident benefits, care of family and children, maternity protection, disability, dependency support, etc.<sup>6</sup> In Nepal, for social security permanent worker invests 10 percent in provident fund and one percent in a separate social security. The employer adds overall 25.38 percent (10 percent to provident fund, 8.33 percent for gratuity, 2.05 percent for medical treatment, and 5 percent for maternity expense, and other contingencies). The state’s share in it becomes 25.38 percent. If the proposed social security scheme is based on ILO Convention 102 it has to adopt four basic schemes—medicine, accident coverage, maternity protection and unemployment insurance (Rimal, 2011).

On social security, Nepal has adopted allowance for senior citizen above 70 years, single woman, widow above 60 years and the disabled; financial grant for the poor children of Karnali and Dalits; Education-For-All scholarship for children of Dalits, disabled, marginalized, conflict-affected, and children of Karnali; maternity protection facility in hospitals; Karnali Employment Scheme for unemployed; modest financial support for the 10 disappearing tribal groups; and health facility twice for senior citizens above 60 years (Rimal, 2011). These schemes are necessary to complement the household income for the fulfillment of basic needs and keep the life going but not sufficient to lead a life of dignity, not even sustainable for the long-run given the

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<sup>6</sup> Nepal has not yet settled the discourse about social security. Among the three social dialogue partners only the trade unions are pro-actively engaged in defining the social security and have proposed to cut one percent of their salary for social security fund which can benefit 2 million workers. But the tripartite arrangement should bring all 10.7 million Nepalese workers under this scheme. For the democratization of labor market relations a tripartite body of the government, employers and trade unions have drafted separate laws and working to integrate all of them with revision. They are: Labor Act 2048 BS for the creation of flexible employment environment; New Social Security Law and Unemployed Concession Act to protect workers from unnecessary hire and fire; Revision of Trade Union Act 1949 to institutionalize social dialogue; and National Labor Commission Act for easy and speedy adjudication of justice (Rimal, 2011:10).

continuation of stagnant economy, and inability to break the traditional mode of production, appropriation, domination and control. The plight of domestic workers is wretched as ILO 2010 report “Decent Work for Domestic Workers,” considers them as “overworked, underpaid and unprotected.” Without social security, their lot cannot be improved. The main question is: how can the state and trade unions maintain social solidarity between the informal and informal sectors and compete with their new rivals NGOs, civil society, and identity-based various groupings? How can trade unions and Employers’ Council transcend their class interest to work together for the common interests of all Nepali citizens for sustainable development?

### **Green Growth as Sustainable Destination**

The post-global economic crisis agenda of an economy of tomorrow is legislative action in the area of environmental sustainability, control climate change and use alternative energy sources to break the vicious heating of atmosphere by about 1 degree Fahrenheit in the last century. It is scorching fields, reducing water level, and acceleration of the fast melting of Himalayan glaciers, risks of lake burst and the rise of sea level. Solution to these requires taking into consideration efficiency of resources, low carbon emission, sustainable energy sources and production system. It articulates the restoration of the economy’s natural support system, stabilization of population growth, wage-led economy and eradication of poverty. The nature’s ecosystems are cyclical. The waste of one become foodstuff and fodder for the other. In contrast, industrial system is linear (Capra, 2004:204) as the release of its wastes unleashes chain reactions which are too much for the planet to absorb.

Economy is also discriminatory causing over accumulation, exploitation of people, breakdown of local communities and ecosystem, and feral conflicts for resources unless it is properly regulated by the state. In this context, mitigation of climate change requires capacity building, transfer of technology and resources for adaptation of new green technologies and reforestation. Nepalese planners have to rebuild its faltering economy and manage hydropower, forestry, biodiversity, and engage in disaster preparedness. Shifting the tax burden away from ecological products and subsidy to alternative energy resource can alter consumer behavior as well as contribute to mitigation and adaptation measures. Market gains from trade and investment can be “achieved through increased integration between macroeconomic policies and labor market and social policies, for example, by making employment creation a targeted macroeconomic objective alongside low inflation and sustainable public budgets” (Somavia, 2011:9).

### **Good Governance, Rule of Law and Human Rights**

Strengthening of democratic processes and institutions, rule of law and government’s accountability in effective service delivery can improve the conditions of human rights. The democratic framework for people’s participation can make the governance accountable and transparent, broaden partnership, and exchange experiences and ideas. Nepal has adopted three measures so far: stakeholders’ participation in development policy making, public engagement, and participation in constitutional

dialogue, and inclusion of the right to information in the constitution. Citizens' right to information is instrumental for controlling corruption and transparency of decision making. The six pillars of second Three-Year Interim Plan of National Planning Commission are:

- Achieve pro-poor and employment-generating, sustainable, and broad-based economic growth with the concerted effort of all sectors-the state, private sectors and civil society;
- Infrastructural development with due consideration to federal structure of the country, and provincial economic growth;
- Social inclusion, and social justice-oriented development for sustainable peace;
- Socio-economic transformation of the country by strengthening financial and social services;
- Result oriented development works to support good governance and effective service delivery; and
- Strengthen economic growth and its sustainability by streamlining development of private and civil society sectors, industrialization, business, and other service areas in the national development.

#### **Ensuring the Rights of Marginalized Population Working in Informal Sector**

Support to agriculture beefs up the informal sector, small enterprises, and artisans. The poor in informal sector needs access to land, water, credit, seeds, education, and technology. These are also the basic necessary condition for better exchange relations between urban and rural areas, and formal and informal ones for social transformation. A basic reform in public revenue by progressive taxation with regard to the integration of informal sector workers in social security and access to education, health, and income of marginalized groups are essential preconditions to dynamize the informal sectors as they equally contribute to national economy like organized sectors, and mediate between the citizen and the state. Grassroots civil society, NGOs, community organizations, and local federations express various needs of people, conscientize them about their rights and duties in a broader national and global framework of social justice, and provide alternative services from the state agencies and social cooperatives, the latter has the potential to augment collective form of capital ownership. The increased rights of women and their representation along gender equality will erode traditional institutions' gender and caste biases, weaken the elite capture of resources, and make local economy competitive in the future. Budgetary allocation to agriculture, coordination on agricultural trade, investment, and financial markets and increase in the productivity of farmers can lower consumer prices, and increase the income of rural population.

## Conclusion

The economy of tomorrow will have to be compatible with nature, culture, society, and life-world and also inspire social solidarity of international community. In other words, only a system-sensitive economic policy can construct effective response, and scratch out a better future based on a balance of *eco-centric economy* with the satisfaction of human needs. Crisis occurs at a time of big technological change as majority of citizens cannot exploit its benefits due to its selective application by *ego-centric* capitalistic elites, reduces the wages of unskilled workers, and even limits politics to clientalist network. In this context, social learning is essential to respond creatively to organizational change, and social transformation. Nepal is craving for a national leader who could stand above partisan instinct, set standard for others to strive for, exalt historical achievement of statehood, and muster legitimacy for the implementation of vital national tasks: a new constitution, structural reforms, and durable peace based on the democratic aspirations of citizens. Constitution limits the oppression of opposition, and minorities, and total seizure of private property through high stake redistributive struggles through the optimization of interests of various stakeholders in the ecological, economic, and political system.

Change in the nature of politics from divide and rule, command, and control of downtrodden to participation, communication, and coordination has marked a shift of economy from hierarchal operation to partnership. It has unfolded new opportunities for workers to be adaptable to change in technology, communication, industry, and society. Sustainable development requires bold policy innovation in developing renewable energies, not just adoption of external policy prescriptions regardless of contextual relevance, as current opening has provided unusual freedom to push bold development policy measures and hold the governance accountable for securing rights of people in consonance with sustainable production process. While the private sectors can be the locomotives of innovation, investment, and economic growth, the public sector as strategic area should seek inclusive social transformation based on interest reconciliation. High level investment in localized production, employment opportunities, social protection, and safety nets can enable Nepalese people to take risks and make prudent choice beyond *homocentric economy* that serves the same class of elites and fosters a culture of collective survival of all living species. The priorities of post-conflict Nepal are still connectivity of the recovery and reinvestment, sustainable livelihoods, education, adaptation to climate change, infrastructural development, alternative energy, communication, decentralized production, and distribution measures to satisfy *survival, well-being, and spiritual needs*<sup>7</sup> (Galtung, 1996:129) of people. The resolution of ecological crisis of today requires an economy that moves

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<sup>7</sup> Galtung argues that we can summarize these needs under the “headings of *identity*, something with which to identify in nature, personal, social, world, time and cultural spaces, giving meaning to life; and *freedom*, defined partly as mobility in world space, social space and inner, personal space; with the possibility of making *choices*” (1996:129).

beyond ego-centric, homocentric, anthropocentric calculation, cares the nature, poor, and future generation and system-integrative in nature.

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# Knowledge Management in Government

## Some Perspectives

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### 1. Introduction

The capacity and performance of government agencies and the quality of the services they provide substantially influence the law and order situation and socio-economic well being of citizen which eventually contribute in building trust in government. Organizations either public or private should promote a culture of knowledge sharing and learning to build capacity and also to secure benefits from the knowledge possessed by its members. Efficient and effective management of knowledge resources<sup>⊕</sup> and intellectual assets developed and secured over a period of time is critical to enhance the capacity of public officials and government agencies to improve performance and to stay relevant.

This article aims to discuss the concept of knowledge, its management, potential issues and prospects.

### 2. Concepts of knowledge and knowledge management

One of the basic features of human or organizational life is the creation, analysis, processing and dissemination of knowledge to make a sense of things. Knowledge is the sum total of awareness, information, skill, consciousness or familiarity gained through experience, education, self-study, training, observation and comprehension of processes and events, application of technical skills, work and focused dialogue/interaction with colleagues and clients. Knowledge is “intrinsicly a human characteristic manifested in the thinking, learning, artistic, behavioral, and problem solving capabilities of human beings acting in a social context”.<sup>8</sup> Knowledge is applied to plan, to solve problems, to form judgments and opinions, make decisions, to formulate programs, projects, to improve performance, to secure benefits from innovations and good practices and to identify best options to achieve results.

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<sup>⊕</sup> In this article, writer widely uses the term knowledge resources. It encompasses data, information and knowledge. Data is a set of discrete and objective fact about an event. Information is a message contained in a document or in an audible and visible communication tools. Knowledge is intangible as well as intellectual capital that combines ideas, understanding, lessons and know-how built through work experience, use of skills, interactions and accessing resources that adds value and supports building capacity of an individual and the organization he/she is engaged.

<sup>8</sup> Sami AlBanna – Knowledge Management and Strategies for Development in a Rapidly Changing Global Environment, 2000, p. 12

Knowledge needs to be constantly reviewed, assessed and updated to make it relevant. It is very important for career advancement and personality development. Knowledge is:

The core of human competencies and encompasses information and skill that have practical value in making decisions, performing tasks and evaluating results;

Synthesis of information or what an individual knows, the state of knowing which has a purpose that tells about the context and the consequence of events; and

Built and enhanced through education, self-study, training, work experience, focused dialogue and participation in social and professional interactions.

The processes of managing institutional and personal knowledge are different. "Institutional knowledge is the collective knowledge of all members of an institution."<sup>9</sup> It is the combination of ideas, understanding and lessons learned over a period of time and accessible to the future members of the institution. Organizing, linking and sharing institutional knowledge helps employees do their jobs better by making relevant information available as needed. A learning organization fosters critical thinking that anticipates and adopts change rapidly, thereby, produces innovative solutions. An individual uses his/her knowledge for personal advancement. But at the same time that knowledge can be used for improving performance of organization he/she is associated with. Knowledge can be categorized as follows:

- *General knowledge* – It is gained through socialization, education, self-study and observation. It helps widening the vision of the individual which can ultimately be reflected through his/her performance including the quality of communications.
- *Specific knowledge* – It is created and advanced through study, training and working in a particular institution, work environment and contributes to build expertise in certain field or discipline.
- *Explicit knowledge* – It is captured, documented and maintained in the forms of records, databases, publications and transferred with reasonable accuracy.
- *Tacit knowledge* – It is hidden (invisible), highly personal and hard to formalize and gained through a process of interaction, debate, trial and error method, socialization, observation, on-the-job training, mentoring, joint activities i.e., meetings and teaming up for a specific project and interaction with stakeholders. Its transfer can be facilitated by personal contacts, experience sharing and telling of stories.
- *Factual knowledge* – It is in-depth understanding of specific event or case, context, procedures to be complied with to ensure rule of law, legitimacy of

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<sup>9</sup> Nuclear Knowledge Management, Glossary of Terms, International Atomic Energy Agency, 2005, p. 11

the works accomplished, the results achieved and lessons learnt. Person involved in the development, approval, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of a specific policy, program or project possesses such knowledge.

- *Social knowledge* – It is the understanding of social issues by building networks, managing interactions and concluding negotiations among competing forces.

An organization should adopt strategies to promote, retain and share considering specific nature of knowledge resources created within organization and/or received from external sources. However, all of them should be structured, referenced and maintained in a systematic manner to facilitate transfer and retrieval.

Knowledge management (KM) is a systematic and integrated process of creating, capturing, analyzing, preserving and disseminating knowledge resources. It is about the application of systematic approach of organizing such resources, ensuring their flow to the right people and at the right time. “KM is a wide concept involving the processes of identifying and collecting relevant information and knowledge currently available, its classification and storage, timely dissemination and updating”.<sup>10</sup> It boosts the efficiency and effectiveness of organization by creating, obtaining (receiving), analyzing, verifying, preserving, retrieving and disseminating knowledge resources and also enables to create new knowledge to achieve objectives. “KM is a set of processes, practices, and management philosophies that exist to collect, process, store, and make available the organizational knowledge that enables government agencies to be more proficient and competitive in the delivery of public service”.<sup>11</sup> KM is both art and science of building a learning organization that is committed to continuous improvement and optimizing the knowledge, skills and abilities of the members of organization. Its main features are as follows:

Efficient management of knowledge resources depends on the competencies of people, their intuition, ideas, behavior, learning culture and attitude, motivation to acquire, preserve and utilize knowledge. Mutual trust must be built to acquire knowledge resources and to encourage sharing and transferring.

KM provides reliable and relevant knowledge resources at the time of need to achieve organization’s strategic objectives and preserves those resources in a systematic manner.

KM is an on-going process. As change is inevitable, knowledge identified as critical at a certain point of time may not remain equally relevant in the future for a number of reasons. Therefore KM should encompass the system of

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<sup>10</sup> Knowledge management in the United Nations System – Report of the Joint Inspection Unit (JIU/REP/2007/6), 2007, page 3

<sup>11</sup> David E. McNabb – Knowledge Management in the Public Sector, Prentice-Hall of India Pvt. Ltd., 2007, p. 22

reviewing, testing and updating knowledge resources. However, knowledge that was relevant in the past should not be fully discarded.

KM plays complimentary role in enhancing an organization's effectiveness by preserving knowledge resources developed over the years making them available to users at the time of need.

There is a general perception that KM is about the use of information and communication technology (ICT). It is one of the critical elements of KM, but is not limited to it. An efficient KM system requires good understanding of organization culture and mindset. A favorable policy environment and integrated management of people, process and technology are fundamentals to enhance the effectiveness of KM in an organization.

### **3. Importance of knowledge management**

All organizations manage knowledge resources every day. Those who succeed in managing these resources efficiently can secure optimum benefit, stay relevant and move forward with confidence. An efficient KM system saves time and resources. Achieving national prosperity does not only depend on the quantity of resources owned but also on the support and dedication of people and their knowledge and the capacity to use it efficiently. The evolution of human society shows that knowing is winning and knowledge makes people and organization powerful. "Knowledge and innovation have played an important role in the development of society throughout history. The key to economic success is always linked to the advances in knowledge creation and innovation and the ability to translate that knowledge into products and services."<sup>12</sup> People and organization that manage knowledge resources (review, update and use) efficiently contribute substantially in raising the standards of living. "Understanding how people and societies acquire and use knowledge – and why they sometimes fail to do so – is essential to improving people's lives – especially the lives of the poorest."<sup>13</sup> Analysis of the reasons of the economic success reveals that the advances in knowledge creation, innovation and the ability to translate that knowledge into specific products and services always played a lead role in achieving success. The good reasons to pay greater attention in strengthening KM systems and practices are as follows:

The skill to identify critical knowledge resources and use them in an objective manner enhances competence, develops confidence and leads to effectiveness. A well structured KM system helps to achieve efficiency, to acquire, store and utilize knowledge resources efficiently, to gain insight and understanding from own experience, to ensure that decision maker has been supported by reliable and relevant best information to make informed decision, to empower people, to stay

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<sup>12</sup> Suliman Al-Hawamdeh – Knowledge Management: Cultivating Knowledge Professionals, Chandos Publishing, 2003, p. 1

<sup>13</sup> About the Report – Knowledge for Development, World Development Report 1998, [www.worldbank.org](http://www.worldbank.org)

ahead of competition, to maximize organization's capacity to manage intellectual capital and to protect it from decaying.

The world is becoming a global village. Liberalization, globalization and the adoption of open market policies have promoted competition. Economists, development workers and business managers are seeing the birth of a new global economy, where knowledge is outstripping material resources and capital as a source of wealth. "Knowledge is one of the main bases of competitiveness. The traditional factors of production (capital, markets and raw materials) remain important but increasingly secondary to knowledge in establishing competitiveness in the new global market place."<sup>14</sup> Promoting measures that support in making organizations competitive is crucial for survival. Knowledge or intellectual capital is the lead factor that enhances competitive capacity and higher.

Efficient management of knowledge resources helps utilizing other resources properly, enhancing the return on capital, incorporating knowledge into the development strategy, creating capabilities to absorb and adapt new tools, disseminating knowledge and investing wisely in technology.

Every member of an organization makes some decisions. Historical information or contextual knowledge plays significant role in making right decisions. A well functioning KM system can provide useful information to make informed decision.

Substantial resources are used in developing policies, plans and strategies and may be implemented in collaboration by multiple agencies or independently. Credible contextual knowledge may be required to address critical issues that emerge in course of their implementation.

Organizations have to continue their operations even people with critical knowledge change or leave. An efficient KM system can improve performance, ensure continuity and consistency in the ways of doing things, save resources in making decisions by retaining critical information and bridge the information gap between the departing and incoming employees. Systematic process of managing and transferring knowledge helps new staffs to learn about the work procedures, resources. Contextual knowledge is very useful to evaluate the results achieved.

#### **4. KM in Government: Strategy and Implementation**

As mentioned earlier, knowledge is crucial to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of organizations. Managing knowledge resources is a regular feature of government organization. However KM gained prominence in recent years mainly because it has been well recognized that having stock of knowledge resources alone is not sufficient if those resources are not well organized (properly indexed, linked, reviewed, updated and preserved) to facilitate easy retrieval and access in the future. Development requires closing gap not only in human and physical resources, but also in

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<sup>14</sup> Sami Albanna – op. cit., p. 2

knowledge. Organizations must seriously consider the ways of managing intellectual capital and knowledge resources to address the challenges emerging from the rapid changes in internal and external environment.

Business and multilateral organizations are developing KM processes, tools and techniques to save resources, to enhance competitive capacity by improving performance, to enhance efficiency in service delivery and to ensure optimum benefits from innovations. Governments are moving ahead to manage knowledge resources as one of the means to develop public administration and to improve governance. It was born out of the need to achieve better productivity and effectiveness from the intangible assets or intellectual capital. The main purpose of strengthening KM in government is to bring strategically important knowledge resources into effective use.

One of the conclusions of the survey carried out by the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) on the KM practices of ministries, departments and agencies of central government in member countries (2002) was that “KM ranks high on the management agenda of a good majority of central government organizations across OECD Member Countries.”<sup>15</sup> In those countries KM is referred to “a broad collection of organizational practices related to generating, capturing, disseminating know-how and promoting knowledge sharing within an organization and outside world, including:

- a) Organizational arrangements (decentralization of authority, opening up bureaucratic divisions, use of information and communication technologies etc.).
- b) Personnel development (mentoring and training practices, mobility etc) and management of skills.
- c) Transfer of competencies (database of staff competencies, outline of good work practices etc.).
- d) Managerial changes and incentives for staff to share knowledge (staff performance, assessment and promotion linked to knowledge sharing, evolution of the role of managers, etc).<sup>16</sup>

The survey highlighted that KM is important mainly because knowledge has become a critical determinant of competitiveness for the public sector, aging civil servants and faster staff turnover that are creating new challenges for the preservation of institutional memory and the training of new staff. Knowledgeable citizens expect that government be capable to efficiently manage newly created knowledge by wide variety of actors inside and outside government. As public policy goals have become more ambitious and complex than before, government can achieve those goals by building an efficient system of capturing and preserving knowledge resources and using

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<sup>15</sup> The Learning Government, GOV/PUMA(2003)1, OECD, p. 5

<sup>16</sup> Conclusion from the Results of the Survey of Knowledge Management Practices for Ministries, Departments and Agencies of Central Government in OECD Member Countries, op. cit., p. 4

them in right time and in right place. A balanced mix of the following approaches can make KM system effective.

- *Mechanistic approach* - focuses on the development of suitable software and customization of commercial software for use of electronic media or ICT to manage knowledge resources.
- *Cultural/behavioral approach* - focuses on building work culture and organizational behavior that encourage people to share, transfer and preserve knowledge resources and making every member of organization responsible to play respective role in KM processes.
- *Systematic approach* - focuses on on-going process built in organizations to refine and update knowledge resources and analyze problems and identify measures to resolve them.
- Efficient and effective KM system requires combined and balanced attention on the policy, process, people and information technology.

**(a) Policy** – The first step in strengthening KM system is to create a supportive environment by establishing KM policy. The objectives and focus of policy should be:

- to communicate that government attaches great importance to KM and committed to manage knowledge resources in an efficient and effective manner;
- to instill the sense of belongingness in employees in KM and highlight their active role in building the future of organizations by promoting the culture of knowledge sharing and learning;
- to consolidate knowledge base to support organizational change;
- to create opportunities to adopt changed situation.

It is important to determine and assess the degree of awareness on how well knowledge resources are managed although all government agencies make decision taking into consideration employee's knowledge and experience. "Knowledge management programs are typically tied to organizational objectives and are intended to achieve specific outcomes, such as shared intelligence, improved performance, competitive advantage, or higher levels of innovation."<sup>17</sup> The KM strategy should highlight various tools and techniques that can be used to manage knowledge resources and role of different agencies, the need to categorize knowledge resources to facilitate smooth operation and provide an outline for preserving and maintaining knowledge resources and establish coordination between people, process and technology. KM Policy and strategy should give thrust to how protect old knowledge resources and capture knowledge created everyday. The common tools and techniques of KM can be as follows:

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<sup>17</sup> Knowledge Management – Wikipedia – the free encyclopedia, [www.wikipedia.org](http://www.wikipedia.org)

- *Post review of actions* – This help to learn lessons for the future and improve current practice.
- *Community of practice* – Staffs performing similar jobs sit together periodically and review how well they are doing, what are the opportunities for improvement and how knowledge they gained can be preserved and made accessible for potential users in the future. On the basis of experience gained and results achieved, best practices guide can be developed to
- *Conducting knowledge audit* – It is about systematically identifying knowledge needs of organization, sources of knowledge, their flow and measures that can help improve the flow of resources and make knowledge accessible.
- *Exit briefing* – This means outgoing staff providing briefing to his/her successor. In case successor is not available, supervisor may designate other appropriate staff to be briefed and pass on the information to the new staff upon joining the organization.
- *Story telling* – It is a traditional and widely used tool of sharing knowledge. Its effectiveness normally depends on the capacity of story teller’s capacity to make story interesting to listeners. This is about telling what were critical issues, how they were addressed to achieve success. This helps sharing tacit knowledge.
- *Knowledge harvesting* – This is about building knowledge base by listening from top performer or expert about the major steps taken upon completion of a specific task or project. “The ultimate goal of knowledge harvesting is to capture an expert’s decision making processes with enough clarity that someone else could repeat the same processes and get the same results”.<sup>18</sup> This also helps to transferring tacit knowledge to explicit knowledge.
- *Social networking* – This is about identifying people with specific expertise and building their network to encourage sharing of knowledge and experience. People in different organizations may also form such network so that they can benefit mutually.

(b) **Process** – A systematic process is crucial for the efficient management of manage knowledge resources. Such process should be developed taking into consideration the nature of operations, geographical dispersion, stakeholders, types and interrelation between the elements of knowledge resources. It should facilitate free flow of information, sharing of knowledge and encourage innovation in products and services, informed decision making and sound relationships with stakeholders. In establishing a KM process, one should focus mainly on the processes related to the following:

- *Creation, capture, verification, analysis and classification* – Knowledge resources are created within an organization and received from external

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<sup>18</sup> ABC of Knowledge Management – NHS National Library for Health, p. 36

sources. A government agency may work in partnership with other government agencies and many other external agencies. Vertical horizontal flow of information is a common practice. Knowledge created through innovation, application of skill (work), study, focused dialogue and interaction should be verified, analyzed and classified before preserving. Explicit knowledge can be captured and maintained in the form of records, documents and in electronic format including microfilm at various stage of its development. Accuracy, authenticity, relative significance or reference value of knowledge resources should be assessed and determined taking into consideration administrative and legal requirements before preserving them. Prevention of the preservation of unnecessary data and information either in hard copy or in electronic format is crucial to ensure efficiency. Therefore, establishing a practice of verifying documents and records management retention period are critical to make knowledge resources useful and pragmatic. "Organizations should define and document a policy for records management. The objective of the policy should be the creation and management of authentic, reliable and usable records, capable of supporting business functions and activities for as long as they are required. Organization should ensure that the policy is communicated and implemented at all levels in the organization."<sup>19</sup> Every employee must carefully analyze what will be implication and future value of the knowledge resources he/she create or receive from external sources, as applicable, before taking action of getting rid of them or preserving correctly.

- *Management of knowledge repository* – Knowledge resources should also be given due care of preservation as intellectual asset as organizations take care of physical assets. Deterioration in the quality of preserved knowledge resources could create negative consequences. Physical security is critical to properly preserve knowledge resources and maintain their integrity. Electronic media is widely used in modern days for preserving knowledge resources. However, hard copy is required for administrative and legal reasons. Proper indexing and referencing of documents is necessary for efficient retrieval in the future. The value of knowledge resources may become minimal if they cannot be retrieved in the time of need and disseminated to potential users. Special preservation measures should be taken if knowledge resources are to be maintained for indefinite period. Microfilm can be an efficient tool to save documents.
- *Handover* – Employees are transferred to different jobs and locations. They may also leave job for various reasons. Knowledge resources may get lost in there is no proper system of handover. Generally, it is considered that an

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<sup>19</sup> Information and documentation – Records management, International Standards Organization (ISO), 15489-1:2001(E), 1001-09-15, p. 5

individual staff may leave or get transferred but records remain from which new staff may start his/her task. But knowledge and experience gained by working in a specific position can be very important for the new comer. People do generally ignore the responsibility of sharing knowledge which could have very significant contextual information. A system of exit briefing before the departure of an employee must be established so that the chances of loss of knowledge can be prevented to a great extent. Similarly, a proper format and system of handover is crucial to ensure that knowledge is transferred to the extent possible.

(c) **People (human resource)** – People play central role in achieving overall objective of KM in enhancing productivity and effectiveness of organization. Other elements become ineffective if there is absence of willingness to share, learn and use available tools and comply with the basic procedures established. “The human factor in knowledge sharing focuses on the drivers that trigger people to do what they do, on the possible levels of a person, and on the roles an individual play in an organization.”<sup>20</sup> Education is vital to create new knowledge, to adopt the fast changing working environment, new socio-political structures and to deal with the increasing amount of information created every day. Transfer of tacit knowledge is closely linked with people’s willingness. It “is the knowledge people carry in their heads. It is much less concrete than explicit knowledge. It is more of an “unspoken understanding” about something, knowledge that is more difficult to write down in a document or a database”.<sup>21</sup> Such knowledge is crucial because it provides contextual information which can be very much useful to decision making. Tacit knowledge can be effectively transferred and captured by encouraging people to share and learn and providing opportunities for dialogue and interaction.

Knowledge sharing and transfer stimulates exchange of experience and viewpoint (thoughts) which eventually refines and enriches knowledge. Transfer of knowledge involves: transmission (sending or presenting knowledge to a potential recipient) and absorption (understanding of transmitted knowledge). Knowledge not absorbed by recipient is not transferred in real sense because it cannot help enhancing performance. Approaches such as socialization, externalization, combination and internalization help in sharing and transferring explicit and tacit knowledge.

- *Socialization* refers to logical application of social tools to motivate people for knowledge sharing which includes formation of formal and informal groups. These groups can support sharing of tacit knowledge between one-to-one and from one to many.
- *Internalization* is the process of understanding and analyzing knowledge and then internalize it build up knowledge resources.

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<sup>20</sup> Paul van den Brink – Measurement of Conditions for Knowledge Sharing, p. 1, [www.onthebrink.nl](http://www.onthebrink.nl)

<sup>21</sup> ABC of Knowledge Management – NHS National Library for Health, 2005, p. 6

- *Externalization* implies articulating tacit knowledge to gradually convert it into explicit knowledge. People with specialized knowledge and experience should be encouraged to express themselves so that their unique experience can be documented.
- *Combination* refers to the process of sharing and transferring explicit knowledge and contextualizing such knowledge to enhance practical value and to support improving current state and art of management.

Senior managers should constantly assess how well knowledge sharing is taking place in and how tools such as training, succession planning, mentoring, job rotation and cross training are applied to facilitate KM. Tacit knowledge cannot be transferred without encouraging people to interact and share their experience, understanding and skill. As knowledge is power, making knowledge widely available through sharing might be seen as threat to career progression, hoarding knowledge becomes a natural phenomenon. The system of reward and recognition can be introduced to encourage knowledge sharing and reuse. A group of knowledge professionals can be set up in an organization to support KM. Informal networks and community of practice can also make positive contributions. Succession planning is critical to protect from the loss of critical skills. Job rotation helps in bridging knowledge gap so that people can adopt work environment efficiently. KM can be made more effective by making knowledge sharing a formal part of job description and incorporating it into performance appraisal process. Behavior and culture are two important dimensions of KM. Therefore, organizations should build a culture of knowledge sharing and encourage individuals to incorporate KM activities into their daily routines.

**(d) Technology** – Information technology (IT) and electronic media has been widely used in recent decades for a number of management functions including KM. As physical storage is becoming expensive and less attractive for people, the demand for a systematic electronic archiving system has been increasing. IT plays an important role in organizing knowledge resources, facilitating dissemination of those resources, connecting people who are working on the same project and achieve common objective and providing easy access. IT is widely used to generate data and information and to preserve them although it captures only explicit knowledge. “Collaborative applications such as e-mail, calendaring, scheduling, shared folders/databases, and threaded discussions promote knowledge sharing and transfer.”<sup>22</sup> Internet is well recognized as the platform for communication and collaboration between people around the world and biggest repository of knowledge resources. Technology adds value in KM when it reduces cost, makes retrieval process less cumbersome and facilitates knowledge sharing. Therefore, IT system should be developed considering the business of the organization to make it useful.

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<sup>22</sup> Suliman Al-Hawamdeh – Knowledge Management: Cultivating Knowledge Professionals, op.cit., p. 61

## Issues and prospects

Government needs to objectively analyze the issues that are impairing an efficient and effective management of knowledge resources. The main issues on KM are as follows:

- *Awareness and organizational culture* – Every member of an organization must be aware of the need of an efficient KM system and the role he/she can play in making it effective. However, this matter has not been taken seriously. A collaborative organization culture is crucial to promote KM. Every member of organization should be aware of the fact that he/she has a responsibility in KM. Everyone possess unique knowledge on his/her area of responsibility although some may have specialized knowledge. People should be prepared to share knowledge taking into consideration to the sensitivity of information and requirement to keep certain information within a specific group of people because of confidentiality. It is always important to ensure that a gap is not felt in the absence of an individual. Due attention has not been given to build collaborative organization culture and the management of knowledge is mostly dependent on an individual's preference.
- *Handover and briefing* – A system of formal handover and oral briefing must be established to make knowledge transfer effective. Regulation requires a system of handover for transferred staff member and provide certain days for its preparation. However, in practice handover sheet is prepared rarely and the system of briefing by outgoing to incoming staff is almost non-existent. As a result knowledge resources are lost and tacit knowledge remains without proper transfer. This situation leads most staff members to state that I am not informed what happened before and cannot answer. Service recipients are widely suffering from the trend of irresponsibility.
- *Lack of strategy* – Government lacks a KM strategy and systematic approach which resulted inconsistency and non-responsiveness. There is no clear vision to establish a close relation between KM and the efficient and effective delivery of public services. Strategy should clearly outline tools that can be and should be used for KM and clear delineation of responsibilities in managing those tools and monitoring the processes in place.

It would be worth quoting the finding of the UN office of Internal Oversight Services in relation to prominent topic of Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) in which UN agencies have to play a lead role. The UN OIOS report states "knowledge sharing in support of the MDG's is not sufficiently strategic, focused or well integrated with organizational objectives. Different departments take different approaches to internal knowledge sharing, which are mostly not systematic. The most common knowledge-sharing tools, such as e-mail, meetings and websites, while useful, do not work best in connecting staff seeking each other's insights, experiences and ideas. Information and knowledge sharing is not consistently integrated with daily work. Mechanisms and processes capturing and transferring good practices, lessons learned

and knowledge from departing staff are generally inadequate. Technology and knowledge sharing is generally available but not always used.”<sup>23</sup> As MDG is also an important topic for Nepal and we may also review the status of knowledge sharing in the Government of Nepal.

Potential factors that prevent effective transfer of knowledge and possible solutions are as follows:<sup>24</sup>

<b>Inhibiting Factors (Friction)</b>	<b>Possible Solutions</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lack of trust</li> </ul>	Build relationship and trust through face-to-face meetings.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Different culture, vocabularies and frames of references.</li> </ul>	Create common ground through education, discussion, publication, teaming, and job rotation.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lack of time and meeting places; narrow idea of productive work.</li> </ul>	Establish time and place for knowledge transfers: fair, talk rooms, conference reports.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Status and rewards go to knowledge owners.</li> </ul>	Evaluate performance and provide incentives based on sharing.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lack of absorptive capacity in recipients.</li> </ul>	Educate employees for flexibility; provide time for learning; hire for openness to ideas.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Belief that knowledge is prerogative of particular groups, not-invented-here syndrome.</li> </ul>	Encourage non hierarchical approach to knowledge; quality of ideas more important than status of source.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Intolerance for mistakes or need for help.</li> </ul>	Accept and reward creative errors and collaboration; no loss of status from not knowing everything.

Educating people at all levels about what, why and how of KM and their respective roles and responsibilities can contribute consolidating its systems and processes.

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<sup>23</sup> Report of the Office of Internal Oversight Services, op. cit., p. 2

<sup>24</sup> Davenport, T. and Prusak L. – Working Knowledge: How Organizations Manage What They Know, Harvard University Press, 1998, p. 97

## Ways forward

KM is a collective responsibility. Every member of organization should be encouraged to make the best possible use of the knowledge resources created within and received from external sources. The success of a KM system depends to a large extent on how well members of an organization are enabled to deal with current situation, envision and to create their future. The measures that need to be taken to improve and strengthen KM are as follows:

- *Decentralization and delegation of authority* – Knowledge possessed and developed may be operational (technical or non-technical), tactical and strategic. Right mix and use of all these knowledge is crucial to enhance an organization's capacity to respond changing needs and emerging challenges. Offices located at field, regional and central level should be encouraged to manage their knowledge resources considering their objectives, policies, plans and strategies. Senior managers should recognize that knowledge resources at local levels are equally important as central level. Delegation of authority emphasize that people at various levels have the authority to adopt flexible approach to manage knowledge resources considering organization's objective and strategy.
- *Managerial capacity to facilitate knowledge sharing* – As KM is emerging as a new discipline, managerial capacity should be enhanced to enable managers to facilitate and monitor the process of knowledge sharing both horizontally and vertically. Knowledge resources of an organization is the sum total of collective knowledge of people at various levels. Similarly, every staff should be enables to use available KM tools and technology.
- An incentive to share knowledge and information – Knowledge is a power. People are reluctant to share and transfer knowledge and normally question why they should spend time in sharing knowledge which could reduce their importance and even challenge career opportunity. Certain incentive is required to encourage people to share tacit knowledge so that members of organization feel that they have required knowledge to manage operations.
  - Investment and improvement in IT – Organizations are becoming increasingly dependent on IT. It is critical to constantly review and update their IT capacity. Investment to ensure sustainable delivery of IT services is essential to improve KM infrastructure. In addition, the physical quality of storage should be well maintained to ensure that knowledge resources are well secured and can be retrieved efficiently.
  - Assessment of KM system - KM is a social science. It needs periodic review and updating system supports an organization identifying knowledge needed to achieve its goals and to support individual and group performance; assesses the value of the knowledge created to improve organizational performance and ensures that available knowledge resources are managed properly by supplying relevant data and information to meet organization's specific needs.

In addition, it also contributes to: identify intellectual assets and create their register systematically, ways to bridge knowledge gaps, untapped knowledge resources and measures to bring them into light, to ensure efficient flow of knowledge and to develop appropriate knowledge sharing and social networking tools. The main factors to be considered in assessing the KM system and its adequacy are as follows:

- a) What are an organization's knowledge needs? Is current system is adequately designed to meet those needs and working efficiently?
- b) What tacit and explicit knowledge assets does it have and where are they?
- c) How does knowledge flow within the organization, formally and informally, and to and from clients and relevant organizations?
- d) How is that knowledge identified, created, stored, shared, and used?
- e) What obstacles are there to knowledge flows, e.g., to what extent its people, business processes, and technology currently supporting or hampering the effective movement of knowledge?
- f) What gaps and duplications exist in the organization's knowledge?

The writer wishes to propose that a survey of current status of KM be carried out in the National Planning Commission (NPC). As it is responsible to provide a leadership role in the formulation of policy and planning and evaluating their results, it is obviously tasked to manage vast amount of knowledge resources. An efficient KM system is crucial to lead development and provide an objective evaluation. But it is very important to know what strategy the NPC has adopted to manage the knowledge resources its currently possess, are available tools and techniques adequate and applied efficiently, how it manages knowledge created and received in day to day operation? Developing appropriate tools to share and disseminate tacit knowledge and transferring it to explicit knowledge is critical because a large number and wide variety of cases of success and failure may have been heard and analyzed. An objective evaluation of current practice will help to build a sound KM system which can also be a learning tool to other organization.

#### **Concluding remarks**

KM deals with the basic asset of an organization, systematic development, preservation and use of the asset. Societies, organizations and individuals can gain strength and enhance effectiveness and enrich potentials by utilizing knowledge resources developed and obtained over a period of time. Encouraging knowledge sharing and transfer is indispensable for the continued improvement in performance, sustainable management of resources, to ensure continuity and to enhance effectiveness. Integrated management of people, technology and process supported by favorable policy environment will make the KM effective.

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# Saving and Economic Growth in South Asia: Evidence from Time Series Analysis

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## Abstract

This paper makes an attempt to assess causal relationship between GDP and saving in five South Asian countries viz. Bhutan, India, Pakistan, Nepal and Sri Lanka for the period 1981-2008, using unit root test, Co-integration, Granger Causality, and Vector Error Correction Models. It is found that saving has significantly contributed to economic growth in Nepal and India. In the case of Bhutan and Sri Lanka, economic growth has significantly contributed to saving. And, no causal relationship was found between these variables in Pakistan.

## Introduction

Various empirical studies have shown that there is a causal relationship between savings and growth. First, savings can stimulate economic growth. Capital accumulation or physical investment is the most important source of economic growth. Increasing savings would accelerate growth. To facilitate the process of structural transformation, the saving rate should be raised from 4-5 percent of the national income to 12-15 percent of national income (Lewis, 1955) but We now know from the East Asian and the Chinese experience that the right ratio is 30 to 35 percent of GDP (Naqvi, 1999). The relationship between saving and growth plays a vital role in the neoclassical growth models of Solow (1956) and Cass (1965), Koopmans (1965). It also features prominently in the AK models starting with Harrod (1939) and Domar (1946), and then more recently by Romer (1986). Bacha (1990), Jappelli and Pagano (1994), Alguacil, Cuadros and Orts, (2004) and Singh (2009) empirically support this hypothesis. All these growth models emphasize that higher saving rates should foster growth because higher savings imply higher capital investment. Agrawal (2001) has shown that there is a relationship between saving rates and growth. During 1984-94, 31 countries had average annual per capita GDP growth rates of 2.5 percent or higher where the median saving rate was more than 24 percent, but the median saving rate stood at 16% in the 59 countries in which per capita income grew at less than 1 percent a year.

Second, many recent studies have concluded that economic growth affects its saving rate (Sinha and Sinha, 1998; Salz, 1999; Agrawal, 2001; Anoruo and Ahmad, 2001; Narayan and Narayan, 2006. There is growing evidence that causation may run from

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growth to saving. Edwards (1995) found that per capita growth is one of the most important determinants of both private and public savings. Carroll, Overland, and Weil (2000) demonstrated that if utility depends partly on how consumption compares to a habit stock determined by past consumption, an otherwise-standard growth model can imply that increases in growth can cause increased saving. Studies by Sinha and Sanha (1998), Saltz (1999), and Agrawal (2001) revealed that economic growth rates pave the way for savings growth rates. The lifecycle theory of saving and consumption foretells that changes in an economy's rate of economic growth will affect its aggregate saving rate.

### **Review of Literature**

Several empirical studies have been conducted on the relationship between savings and economic growth. Bacha (1990), and Jappelli and Pagano (1994) conducted Ordinary Least Squares regression on cross-section data and concluded that a higher savings rate led to higher economic growth.

Carroll and Weil (1994) used five year averages of the economic growth rate and savings for OECD countries and found that economic growth Granger caused savings. However, the reverse was obtained when dummies were included in their estimation.

Sinha and Sinha (1996) presented evidence that economic growth Granger causes growth rate of savings in Pakistan. Further, Sinha and Sinha (1998) found that causality was from the economic growth rate to growth rate of savings in Mexico. Sinha and Sinha (1999) examined the relationship between the growth rate of savings and economic growth in Sri Lanka. Sinha and Sinha (2000) did similar studies in the Philippines and found causality from economic growth rate to growth rate of domestic savings.

Saltz (1999) in a study of 17 third world countries, using the Vector Error Correction (VEC) model for eight countries and Vector Auto Regressive (VAR) model for the other nine countries found that for nine countries the causality was from the economic growth rate to growth rate of savings. For only two countries was the direction of causality reversed. There were four countries where no causality was identified, and for the other two countries bidirectional causality was detected. The author concluded that higher growth rates of real GDP contribute to a higher growth of savings.

Anoruo and Ahmad (2001) investigated the causality of savings and economic growth in seven African countries using VEC. The authors found that in four out of seven countries, economic growth Granger causes the growth rate of domestic savings. However, they obtained a bi-directional causality in two countries. Only in one country, the growth rate of domestic savings Granger caused economic growth.

Mavrotas and Kelly (2001) tested Granger causality among gross domestic product, gross domestic savings, and private savings, using data from India and Sri Lanka, and found no causality between GDP growth and private savings in India. However, bi-directional causality was found in Sri Lanka.

Kriekhaus (2002) in a study of 32 countries finds that a higher level of national savings led to higher investment and consequently caused higher economic growth.

Baharumshah et al. (2003) investigated growth rate of savings behavior in five Asian countries: Singapore, South Korea, Malaysia, Thailand, and the Philippines for 1960-1997, using VEC. It was found that growth rate of savings does not Granger cause economic growth rate in the countries except for Singapore.

Alguacil, Caudros and Orts (2004) found evidence in favor of Solow's model prediction that higher savings leads to higher economic growth for Mexico.

Mohan (2006) concluded using cross section data from 1960 to 2001 and Granger causality methodology, that economic growth rate Granger caused savings growth rate in eight high income countries except in one county, 3 lower-middle income countries except two countries, 2 low income countries except one country. There was bi-directional causation in all upper-middle income countries except one country.

### **Data and Methodology**

This study uses annual data on gross domestic saving and Gross Domestic Product for five South Asian countries viz. Bhutan, India, Pakistan, Nepal and Sri Lanka, covering the period 1981 through 2008 for all countries except Bhutan for which 1981 to 2006 has been taken as a study period. All the data are collected from the Key Indicators for Asian and Pacific countries published by Asian Development Bank. The data are expressed in real terms, deflated by the GDP deflator (1995=100).

### **Unit Root Test**

Up to the present days, regression analysis based on time series data assumes that most macroeconomic time series are stationary. But it is now a well-known fact that most macroeconomic time series are non-stationary (Dickey-Fuller, 1979; Gujarati, 1995:729). In such a case, applying standard regression models to non-stationary data is inappropriate because of the possibility of obtaining spurious relationship, which makes hypothetical test results unreliable. Hence, to avoid a spurious relationship, detecting the stationary or non-stationary of time series is crucial. For this purpose, Phillips-Perron unit root test has been conducted on each variable. The Phillips-Perron test (Phillips and Perron, 1988) gives robust estimates in comparison with the ADF test. Hence, Phillips-Perron test has also been used in addition to the conventional ADF test. The test detects the presence of a unit root in a series, say  $Y_t$ , by estimating,

$$\Delta Y_t = \alpha + \rho * Y_{t-1} + e_t \quad \dots (2)$$

The PP test is the t-value associated with the estimated coefficient of  $\rho^*$ . The series is stationary if  $\rho^*$  is negative and significant.

### **Johansen Co-integration Test**

After confirming the non-stationary of time series in their levels, the next step is the investigation of presence of cointegration between GDP and Saving. It is used to

ascertain the long run relationship between GDP and Saving. For this purpose, Johansen cointegration procedure has been utilized (Johansen, 1988; Johansen and Juselius, 1990). Cointegration and Error Correction techniques are suitable for investigating the statistical relationship among non-stationary data and help exploring the dynamics of short run changes and the long run equilibrium relationship of time series variables (Ahmed et al, 1993).

Then, hypothesis of existence of zero cointegration vector ( $r=0$ ) and more than respectively tested with the likelihood ratio test statistics ( $\lambda_{trace}$ ) and maximal eigenvalue test ( $\lambda_{max}$ ). The likelihood ratio test statistic (trace test) is computed as:

$$\lambda_{trace} = -n \sum_{i=r+1}^k \ln(1 - \lambda_i)$$

In this case the null hypothesis that there are  $r$  cointegrating vectors against the alternative of more than  $r$  cointegrating vectors is tested and when accepted which trace statistic is lower than critical value suggested with Johanson and Juselius. Other test is maximal eigenvalue test which us following:

$$\lambda_{max} = -n \ln(1 + \lambda_{r+1}) \quad r = 0, 1, \dots, k - 1$$

This statistic tested for all the null hypothesis of  $r$  cointegrating vectors against the alternative of  $r+1$  cointegrating vectors. When existence of  $r$  cointegrating vector is accepted that maximal eigenvalue statistic is lower than critical value. Then it has been suggested that the likelihood ratio test statistics and maximal eigenvalue test deterministic presence or absence the long run relationship between variables in model.

### Granger Causality Test

In this analysis, test for Granger test of causality has been used to study the causal relationship between Economic Growth (Y) and Saving (S) in south Asian countries. The Granger test of causality will be used here because it is a very simple test, which has been widely accepted as a reliable test for causality between two variables. It states that a variable Y Granger-cause S if the prediction of S is improved solely by the past values of Y and not by other series included in the analysis. Vice versa is true for S Granger-causing Y. If Economic Growth can be better explained on the basis of past growth and past saving than on the basis of past growth alone, a causal relationship exists from saving to growth according to Granger (1969). Three other possible results are the cases of unilateral causality from growth to saving, bi-directional causality (or feedback), and independence. The procedure here is used to detect the causality between economic growth and saving in the context of the bivariate model, which is defined as follows:

$$Y_t = a_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i S_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i Y_{t-j} + \varepsilon_1$$

$$S_t = a_1 + \sum_{i=1}^n \delta_i Y_{t-j} + \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i S_{t-i} + \varepsilon_2$$

Where Y is Gross domestic product, S is gross domestic saving and  $\varepsilon_1$  and  $\varepsilon_2$  are white-noise residuals. The null hypothesis to be tested here would be that S does not granger cause Y. The corresponding null hypothesis will be that Y does not granger cause S. If both the hypotheses are subject to rejection, then we can conclude the presence of feedback effect between S and Y. And, if only one of the hypotheses is subject to rejection, we can construe the unidirectional causality from that variable to the independent variable of the equation. An unidirectional causality from TR to GE will

be found if  $\sum \alpha_i \neq 0$  and  $\sum \delta_i = 0$ , that is, the set of estimated coefficients of lagged TR are significantly different from zero in S equation and cluster of estimated coefficients of lagged GE are not significantly different from zero in Y equation.

Conversely, an unidirectional causality from S to Y will be found if  $\sum \delta_i \neq 0$  and  $\sum \alpha_i = 0$ , that is, the set of estimated coefficients of lagged S are significantly different from zero in Y equation and cluster of estimated coefficients of lagged Y are not significantly different from zero in S equation. There will be bi-directional causality or

feedback between Y and S if both the conditions  $\sum \delta_i \neq 0$  and  $\sum \alpha_i \neq 0$  simultaneously hold, that is the set of estimated coefficients of lagged Y and lagged S are significantly different from zero in both S and Y equation. Y and S will be

determined independently if  $\sum \delta_i = 0$  and  $\sum \alpha_i = 0$ , that is there is no causal link between these two variables.

The Granger Causality test is very sensitive to the selection of appropriate lags. The arbitrary choice of the appropriate lags cannot be justified a priori and generate biased results and lead to a potential model misspecification. The distribution of a test statistic is sensitive to the order of lags used. If the lag order used is less than the true lag, the regression estimates will be biased and the residuals will be serially correlated. If the order of lags used exceeds the true order, the power of the test is likely to be reduced. Therefore, the Akaike Information Criterion (1969) and Schwarz Criterion (1978) are adopted to determine the appropriate lag lengths for Saving and GDP. Both these tests suggest that a model with the least value of AIC and/or SC should be chosen. To overcome this problem, this paper adopts the Akaike Information Criterion and Schwarz Criterion.

The Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) is computed as:

$$AIC = -2l/T + 2k/T$$

Likewise, the Schwarz Criterion (SC) is computed as:

$$SC = -2(l/T) + (k \log T)/T$$

Where  $l$  is the value of the log of the likelihood function with the  $k$  parameters estimated using  $T$  observations. The various information criteria are all based on  $-2$  times the average log likelihood function, adjusted by a penalty function. The optimal lag length corresponds to the lowest value of the AIC and SC.

### Vector Error Correction Model

The next stage is determinant of short run and long run causality. If the variables are co-integrated or if the null hypothesis of no co-integration is rejected, the residuals from the equilibrium regression can be used to estimate the error correction term. If there is one or there are more than one cointegrating vectors between variables, one can use error correction model for testing Granger causality. Simple contemporaneous correlation based tests assume that the causation is unidirectional—from Saving to GDP. This is, as a matter of fact, unrealistic since the causation may even be bi-directional—from GDP to saving and saving to GDP—given the level and degree of economic structure. A necessary precondition to causality testing is to check the cointegrating properties of the variables under consideration, since standard tests for causality are not valid if there exists cointegration (Granger, 1988; Bahmani-Oskooee and Alse, 1993). Standard tests for causality (i.e. Granger/Sims tests) are only valid if the original time series, from which growth rates are obtained, are not cointegrated (Ghatak et al, 1997). So, the relevant error correction term is included in the standard causality tests, if the variables are found to be cointegrated. The error correction model for these variables can be written as:

$$\Delta Y_t = \alpha_1 + \rho_1 z_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^p \beta_i \Delta Y_{t-i} + \sum_{j=1}^q \delta_j \Delta S_{t-j} \dots (5)$$

$$\Delta S_t = \alpha_2 + \rho_2 z_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^p \beta_i \Delta Y_{t-i} + \sum_{j=1}^q \delta_j \Delta S_{t-j} \dots (6)$$

Where,  $z_{t-1}$  is an error correction term, representing the long run relationship. If both coefficients ( $\rho_1$  and  $\rho_2$ ) are significant, this will suggest the bi-directional causality. But, if only  $\rho_1$  is significant, this will suggest a unidirectional causality from S to GDP, implying that gross domestic saving drives economic growth toward long run equilibrium. If only  $\rho_2$  is significant, this will suggest a unidirectional causality from GDP to S, implying that economic growth drives gross domestic saving toward long run equilibrium. The ECM allows for the finding that gross domestic saving cause economic growth as long as the error correction term  $\rho_1$  carries a significant coefficient with a negative sign.

## Results and Discussion

At the outset, Phillips-Perron (PP) unit root test is used to test the null hypothesis of unit root. The results of the PP Unit Root statistic for Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and gross domestic saving (S) of south Asian countries are presented in Table 1.

**Table 1: Phillips-Perron Unit Root Test**

Countries	Form	Phillips-Perron Unit Root Test	
		GDP	Saving
Bhutan	Level	-1.770947	-1.387063
	First Difference	-7.656811*	-6.602527*
India	Level	1.552218	1.809330
	First Difference	-4.987914*	-4.963852*
Nepal	Level	-2.637917	-1.028307
	First Difference	-4.841054*	-5.511256*
Pakistan	Level	-1.232442	-1.859898
	First Difference	-3.362285**	-5.222600*
Sri Lanka	Level	1.280548	-0.036012
	First Difference	-5.218343*	-6.617769*

Source: Author's Calculation based on Data from the Key Indicators for Asian and Pacific Countries (Various issues), Asian Development Bank.

Since the computed PP test statistics of Y and S are higher than any of these MacKinnon Critical values at level forms, the null hypothesis that these variables exhibit a unit root cannot be rejected. Phillips-Perron test does not reject the null hypothesis of unit root for Y and S in the level form and rejects the null hypothesis in the first difference form of the series. Because of the presence of unit root in the variables, they are non-stationary implying no statistically meaningful relationship between them. However, after first differencing, the null hypothesis of unit root is rejected in all of the cases since the PP test statistic is smaller than MacKinnon critical values. That is, the first differenced Y and S do not exhibit a unit root, meaning that these variables are stationary. The results show that one could not reject the null hypothesis of unit root (non-stationarity) for both variables in level forms. The first differences of Y and S are stationary indicating that these variables are integrated of the first order I (1). Hence, PP test have shows that all the variables have unit root in level forms and no unit root in the first difference.

Having determined the non-stationary of time series in their levels, and they are also of the same order of integration I (1), Johansen procedure has been applied to ascertain whether S and GDP are cointegrated or not, assuming no deterministic trend in data. Because in the case of nonstationarity in the time series data, the most appropriate procedures are cointegration and error-correction models. The results of the Johansen cointegration tests are presented in Table 2:

**Table 2: Johansen Cointegration Test**

Eigen Value	Trace Value	Ho	H1	Max-Eigen Statistic	Ho	H1
Sri Lanka						
0.274	8.658 (15.41)	$r = 0$	$r \geq 1$	8.320 (14.07)	$r = 0$	$r = 1$
013	0.338 (3.76)	$r \leq 1$	$r \geq 2$	0.338 (3.76)	$r \leq 1$	$r = 2$
India						
0.593	32.298* (30.45)	$r = 0$	$r \geq 1$	25.50* (23.65)	$r = 0$	$r = 1$
0.324	9.798 (16.26)	$r \leq 1$	$r \geq 2$	9.798 (16.26)	$r \leq 1$	$r = 2$
Bhutan						
0.226	6.784 (15.41)	$r = 0$	$r \geq 1$	5.906 (14.07)	$r = 0$	$r = 1$
0.037	0.879 (3.76)	$r \leq 1$	$r \geq 2$	0.879 (3.76)	$r \leq 1$	$r = 2$
Nepal						
0.601	24.458** (19.96)	$r = 0$	$r \geq 1$	19.312** (15.65)	$r = 0$	$r = 1$
0.217	5.145 (9.24)	$r \leq 1$	$r \geq 2$	5.145 (9.24)	$r \leq 1$	$r = 2$
Pakistan						
0.232	6.894 (15.41)	$r = 0$	$r \geq 1$	6.893 (14.07)	$r = 0$	$r = 1$
0.0000 2	0.0005 (3.76)	$r \leq 1$	$r \geq 2$	0.0005 (3.76)	$r \leq 1$	$r = 2$

Note: \* indicates significance at 1 percent level and \*\* indicate significance at 5 percent level. Figures in parenthesis indicate Critical Value at 5% level for Sri Lanka, Bhutan, Nepal and Pakistan and at 1% level for India.

Source: Author's Calculation based on Data from the Key Indicators for Asian and Pacific Countries (Various issues), Asian Development Bank.

The null hypothesis of no cointegration between GDP and S is rejected in the case of India and Nepal, since both Trace and Max-Eigen statistics are larger than the critical values at 1 percent significance level in the case of India and at 5 percent significance level in the case of Nepal. In other words, for cointegrating regression  $GDP = f(S)$ , one can reject the null hypothesis  $r = 0$  against the alternative hypothesis  $r = 1$  since both Trace and Max-Eigen statistics are larger than the critical values at 1 percent significance level but cannot reject the null  $r \leq 1$  against the alternative  $r = 2$  since both Trace and Max-Eigen statistics are less than the critical values even at 5 percent level. The fact that the presence of cointegration between S and GDP suggest (i) that there is a long run equilibrium relationship between the two time series and (ii) the existence of causality in at least one direction. All this indicates that GDP and S is cointegrated, which is sufficed to indicate that saving bears a long run equilibrium relationship with GDP in these two South Asian countries. However, the null hypothesis of no cointegration between GDP and S cannot be rejected in the case of Pakistan, Bhutan and Sri Lanka, since both Trace and Max-Eigen statistics are smaller than the critical values at 1 percent significance level.

There are some difficulties regarding the selection of appropriate lags. First, although Granger causality test seems to have a greater appeal than most other alternative techniques, the issue concerning the optimal lag length still remains elusive. The distribution of a test statistic is sensitive to the order of lags used. If the lag order used is less than the true lag, the regression estimates will be biased and the residuals will be serially correlated. If the order of lags used exceeds the true order, the power of the test is likely to be reduced. To overcome this problem, this paper adopts the minimum final prediction error criterion based on Akaike Info criterion (AIC) and Schwartz criterion (SC). The optimal lag length corresponds to the minimum AIC and SC. The outcomes of the procedure for the selection of optimal lag have been presented through the following table.

**Table 3: Selection of Optimal Lag Length**

Country	Dependant Variable	Lag of GDP	Lag of Sav	AIC	SC
Bhutan	GDP	1	-	-2.998553	-2.901043
		2	-	-2.519013	-2.420842
		3	-	-2.245749	-2.147010
		4	-	-2.046835	-1.947650
	Sav	-	1	0.401209	0.498719
		-	2	0.663047	0.761218
		-	3	1.022364	1.121549
		-	4	1.062816	1.162002

Pakistan	GDP	1	-	-5.035855	-4.939078
		2	-	-4.036535	-3.939025
		3	-	-3.528505	-3.430334
		4	-	-3.228585	-3.129846
	Sav	-	1	-0.685458	-0.588682
		-	2	-0.201296	-0.104519
		-	3	-0.124843	-0.027333
		-	4	-0.168371	-0.070199
Sri Lanka	GDP	1	-	-4.962620	-4.866632
		2	-	-4309375	-4.212598
		3	-	-3.885617	-3.788177
		4	-	-3.714522	-3.616350
	Sav	-	1	-0.857849	-0.761861
		-	2	-0.473873	-0.377097
		-	3	-0.609451	-0.511941
		-	4	-0.359073	-0.260902

Source: Author's Calculation based on Data from the Key Indicators for Asian and Pacific Countries (Various issues), Asian Development Bank.

This paper applies the technique of bi-variate Granger Causality estimated in the previous section to examine the causal relationship between GDP and saving, using annual data over the period 1981-2008. The results appeared in Table 4 were obtained using first lag as optimum lag length for each variable.

**Table 4: Granger Causality**

Country	Null Hypothesis	Obs	Lag	F-Statistic	Conclusion
Bhutan	Saving does not Granger Cause GDP	25	1	0.60849 (0.44367)	Accept
	GDP does not Granger Cause Saving			4.17502 (0.05318)	Reject
Pakistan	Saving does not Granger Cause GDP	27	1	0.17765 (0.67715)	Accept
	GDP does not Granger Cause Saving			1.56397 (0.22314)	Accept
Sri Lanka	Saving does not Granger Cause GDP	27	1	0.16736 (0.6861)	Accept
	GDP does not Granger Cause Saving			10.0786 (0.00408)	Reject

Note: Figures in parenthesis indicate probability values.

Source: Author's Calculation based on Data from the Key Indicators for Asian and Pacific Countries (Various issues), Asian Development Bank.

The results of Bhutan show that the null hypothesis of saving does not Granger Cause GDP cannot be rejected because F statistic is statistically insignificant. However, the null hypothesis that GDP does not Granger Cause Saving is rejected since the F statistic is statistically significant at the 10 percent level. From the results, it can be inferred that there is unidirectional causality from GDP to Saving.

Similarly, the results of Sri Lanka show that the null hypothesis of saving does not Granger Cause GDP cannot be rejected because F statistic is statistically insignificant. However, the null hypothesis that GDP does not Granger Cause Saving is rejected since the F statistic is statistically significant at the 1 percent level. From the results, it can be inferred that there is unidirectional causality from GDP to Saving.

However, so far as the result of Pakistan is concerned, it is quite different. The results of Pakistan show that the null hypothesis of saving does not Granger Cause GDP cannot be rejected because F statistic is statistically insignificant. Likewise, the null hypothesis that saving does not Granger Cause GDP cannot be rejected because F statistic is statistically insignificant. From the results, it can be inferred that there is no causal relationship between GDP and Saving.

After confirming that saving and GDP are cointegrated in the case of Nepal and India, it is appropriate to find out the direction of causality between them through estimating the Vector Error Correction Model. The results of the Vector Error Correction Estimates are presented in Table 5.

**Table 5: Vector Error Correction Estimates**

GDP Equation ( GDP)			Saving Equation (S)		
Zt-1	$\Delta S(-1)$	$\Delta S(-2)$	Zt-1	$\Delta GDP(-1)$	$\Delta GDP(-2)$
India					
-0.243*** (-1.874)	0.078 (0.769)	0.097 (1.254)	-0.445 (-0.858)	-1.448 (-1.582)	-1.383 (-1.438)
Nepal					
-0.012* (-2.850)	0.039 (1.466)	0.005 (0.172)	-0.038 (-0.995)	1.701 (0.804)	-3.406 (-1.690)

Source: Author's Calculation based on Data from the Key Indicators for Asian and Pacific Countries (Various issues), Asian Development Bank.

The significance of the error correction coefficient (Zt-1), which is determined by the t-ratio given below the coefficient, with a negative sign indicates Granger causality in at least one direction. The results show that the error correction term in the GDP equation is statistically significant with a correct negative sign in India and Nepal, indicating that Saving has significantly contributed to economic growth in these countries. While that the error correction in the saving equation is not significant and a wrong positive sign, which indicates that economic growth has not significantly contributed to saving in

these countries. The error correction term of GDP equation is significant and of saving equation is not significant, which indicates the absence of bi-directional causality in both these countries. Thus, it can be inferred that saving has promoted economic growth in India and Nepal.

### **Concluding Remarks**

This study makes an attempt to assess causal relationship between GDP and saving, using the Phillips-Perron unit root test, Cointegration, Granger Causality, and Vector Error Correction models. Since the GDP and saving are not cointegrated in Bhutan, Sri Lanka and Pakistan, Granger causality test is conducted. The analysis discovers a firm unidirectional causality running from GDP to Saving in Bhutan and Sri Lanka and no causal relationship between these variables in Pakistan. Since Saving and GDP are cointegrated in the case of Nepal and India, the result is estimated through the Vector Error Correction model. It indicates that saving has significantly contributed to economic growth in India and Nepal.

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# TVET and Secondary School Education in Nepal: A case study of Hetauda, Makwanpur

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## Abstract

This article is based on the outcome of an empirical research conducted over the issue of skill development and vocational training in Nepal. This study is rather unique since it gathered primary data through questionnaire survey and group interviews from students, teachers and parents. The study was conducted in two secondary schools of Churiyama VDC and two technical schools, one of Hetauda and one of Hatiya VDC. Other stakeholders from government offices, NGOs, political leaders, and social workers were consulted for their viewpoints. The key findings include that technical education is viable for Nepal. However, poor and other deprived people need to have access to it. Information dissemination about technical schools is vital for this, and especial subsidies as well as scholarship programme need to be provided to them. VDC, CBOs and NGOs can work together for promoting technical and vocational education among the youth. Besides, monitoring for upgrading quality aspects of technical and vocational education is essential that can assure the markets for the produced youth with technical and vocational skills. Most importantly, technical and vocational skills related subjects need to be included in the general education curriculum.

**Key words:** Skills development, TEVT, general education, Employment opportunity.

## I. Introduction

Conflict, regardless it is internal or external, does affect adversely people's livelihood in any society in the world. Nepal is no exception with the decade long internal insurgency. However, in November 2006, a historic comprehensive peace accord was made between the Government of Nepal and the Communist party of Nepal-Maoists (CPN-M), which have provided Nepalese an opportunity to build peaceful and prosperous society. In 2008, the new alliance government was formed and the new

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government has been trying hard to make post-conflict Nepal as a successful development case.

One of the major challenges for the new government to tackle with is to vitalize local economy and sustain Nepalese livelihood. To improve people's livelihood require many efforts from at least three key human development areas: decent economic base, knowledge and skill development, and high quality in health. As Human Development Index (HDI) has shown that Nepal is one of the poorest performer in human development in South Asia, which suggests that improvement of people's well-being never be an easy task. To ease people's anxiety over their livelihood, sustainable economic development is needed and, for that stable economic growth, local-level skill developments should receive a high priority of the government.

In order for Nepalese to secure long-lasting social and economic well-being, pro-poor economic growth policy is helpful (Griffin 2003). Pro-poor economic growth policies include human resource development in the key economic sector of the country. The needs of human resource are constrained by the type of the economic sector and its state of development. Based on the initial assessment over human resource base of the people, a careful design of skill development policy could be made. A post-conflict country such as Nepal needs to develop viable private sector along with the reconstruction of the political stability through the set up of the new government structure. In particular, the informal economy – the dominant economic activities in Nepal – should be given a higher priority for the growth (Kusago 2005). In the case of Nepal, key questions are followings: How does the government design a policy to enhance people's productive work and income prospect? How does the Nepalese government challenge educational development to grow its society and economy which makes people's livelihood better in the long run?

This paper is based on an empirical research project on Nepalese education and skill development, looks at the Nepalese education and skill development sector by paying closer attention to its policy changes and prospect. Also, we attempt to assess effectiveness of the technical and vocational education and training (TVET) in Nepal through a case study for further policy dialogue over sound employment generation in Nepal.

## **II. Education in Nepal**

### **II-1. Recent progress in educational development in Nepal**

It is useful to review the progress of educational development in Nepal before we examine the policy changes in education and skill development. Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) identify education as one of the key development goals. According to the Needs Assessment Nepal report, Nepal has made progress on net enrolment rate in primary education, proportion of pupils starting grade 1 who reach grade 5, and literacy rate of 15-24 year olds. However, the adult literacy is listed as the least progressed by the report (see Table 1).

**Table 1: Literacy and enrolment ratio in South Asia**

HDI Rank		Adult Literacy rate (5 ages and older)		Youth literacy rate (% ages 15-24)		Net primary enrolment ratio (%)		Net secondary enrolment ratio (%)		Children reaching grade 5 (% of grade 1 students)	
		1990	2004	1990	2004	1991	2004	1991	2004	1991	2003
93	Sri Lanka	88.7	90.7	95.1	95.6	..	97	..	..	92	..
96	Iran, Islamic	63.2	77	86.3	..	92	89	..	78	90	88
98	Maldives	94.8	96.3	98.1	98.2	..	90	..	51	..	..
126	India	49.3	61	64.3	76.4	..	90	..	..	..	79
134	Pakistan	35.4	49.9	47.4	65.5	33	66	..	..	..	70
135	Bhutan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	91
137	Bangladesh	34.2	..	42	..	..	94	..	48	..	65
138	Nepal	30.4	48.6	46.6	70.1	..	78	..	..	51	67

Source: "Human Development Report 2006, Beyond scarcity: Power, poverty and the global water crisis," United Nations Development Programme, available:<http://hdr.undp.org/hdr2006/statistics/> downloaded 3 September 2007.

Table 2 shows that Nepal's progress on educational development in the MDG context, and Nepal has been assessed as on-track for primary school education and literacy among the youth. However, the Nepal MDGs Progress Report (2005) reveals that progress of female education is lagging behind to the male progress. In particular, the gaps are clear in rural areas in the Far West and the South regions. Regional gaps are still serious and even are aggravating.

It is no doubt that primary level education is essential for everyone in any society to formulate the knowledge base. However, if Nepal aims at economic development and growth meeting people's needs in economic well-being, improvement in productivity in major economic sector and products is a must. From this economic point of view, one should be cautioned over the following issue: the selection of the data on education from the broader development perspective than MDGs which skew toward primary education and "access" to schooling rather than quality or content of schooling. Thus, it is important to check the performance data on secondary and tertiary education.

**Table2: Progress in attaining the MDG on primary education**

					Target		Situation in 2015 at the present rate of progress	Remarks
				Indicators	Status	MDG 2015		
Net enrolment in primary education (%)	64	69	81		1990	1995	2000	On-track on the basis of DoE data
			(2001)	(2003)				
	NA	57	66	72	90	100	94	Slightly off-track on the basis of survey figures
				(2003)				
Proportion of pupils starting grade 1 who reach grade 5	38	40	63	76	75	100	89	More or less on-track
	(1994)			(2004)				
Literacy rate of 15-24 year olds	50	56	70.1	73.0	79	100	100	On-track
	(1991)							
Adult Literacy	33	40f	48	48	63	75	63	Very much off-track
	(1991)		(2001)	(2003)				

Source: "Millennium Development Goals: Needs Assessment For Nepal", Government of Nepal, National Planning Commission and United Nations Development Programme, 2006

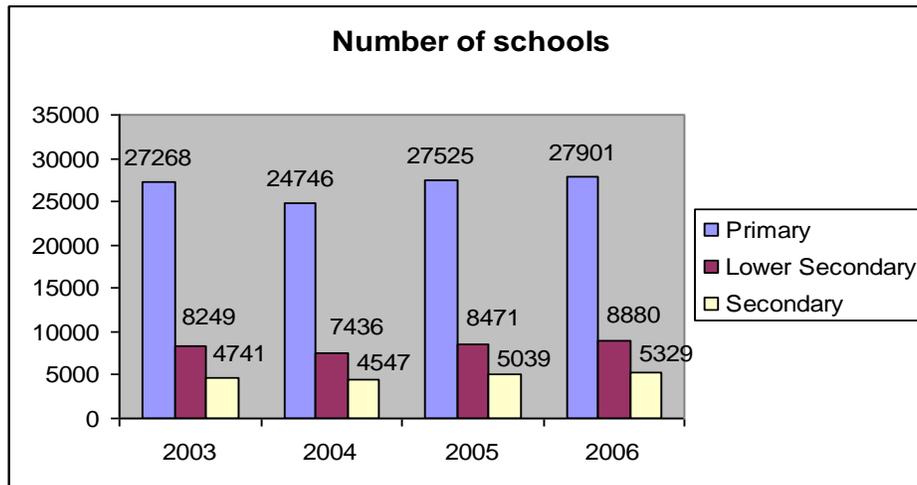
## II-1. Educational System in Nepal

### (a) Types and Numbers of schools

Both quantity and quality in school education has improved in Nepal. In 1951, Nepal had the literacy rate of only 2%; 321 primary schools and 11 high schools constituted the whole of its public educational establishment. By 2002, the literacy rate had

mounted to 54%, the number of primary schools to 25,927, lower secondary schools to 4,350 (NHDR 2004, p.32).

Figure1 shows the trends of increment of schools' number. However, the number of schools declined in 2004 mainly due to the internal political insurgency.



Source: Nepal in Education Figure 2005 and Flash I Report 2006

**Figure1: Number of schools by levels in Nepal**

The government has categorised schools into two types of schools: community<sup>25</sup> (public) and institutional (private) school. Institutional school is approved under the company act and operates with profit motives.

Out of total 36,729 schools in Nepal, 16.1% are the private ones. Likewise, 28.3% and 23.8% of the secondary and lower secondary schools were private in the country as shown in Table 3.

<sup>25</sup>Community schools can be divided into three: community schools, community managed schools and unaided community schools. Community schools receive regular government grants in the form of teachers' salary for approved positions, as well as earmarked and block grants. The government has a policy of transferring the management of government-aided schools to the local community through the school management committee (SMC) and VDC or municipality. These schools are managed by the community who receive teachers' salary for approved positions, as well as earmarked block and incentive grants. The unaided community schools do not receive regular government grants but they receive fixed basic salary grants equivalent to two teachers' positions in primary education along with earmarked and block grants for both primary and secondary schools.

**Table 3: Number of schools: community and institutional (in 2004)**

Schools	Total	Community (%)	Institutional (%)
Early Childhood/Pre primary	4,032	1,692 (42.0)	2,340 (58.0)
Primary	24,746	21,888 (88.5)	2,858 (11.5)
Lower secondary	7,436	5,664 (76.2)	1,772 (23.8)
Secondary	4,547	3,258 (71.7)	1,289 (28.3)

Source: Nepal in Figure 2005

As shown in Table 4, the number of teachers in community school was bigger than that in institutional schools. Out of total 141,605 teachers in Nepal, 29.11% were engaged in institutional schools.

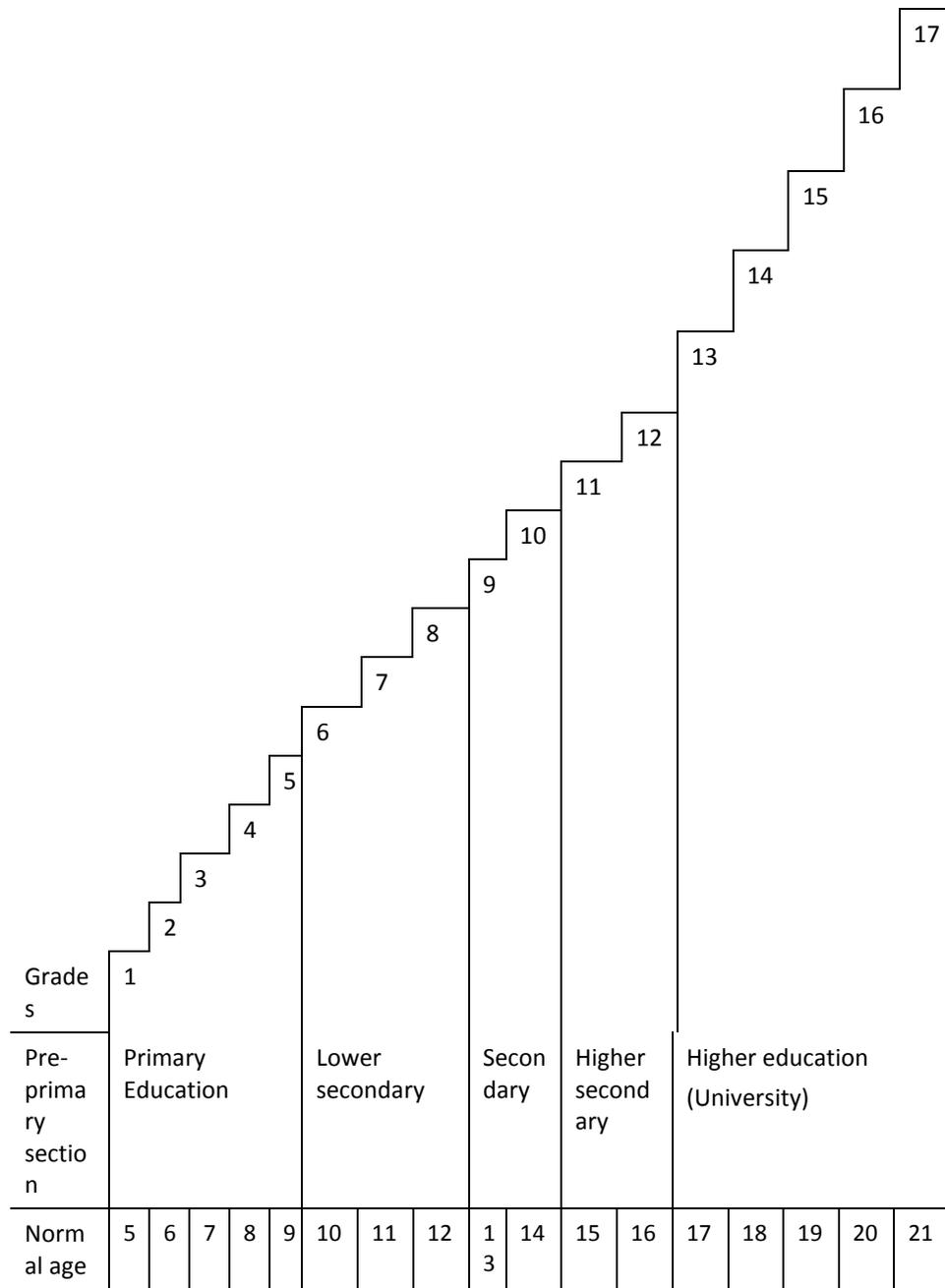
**Table 4: Total number of teachers**

School type	Female teachers	Male teachers	Total teachers (%)
Institutional schools	18,295	22,929	41,224 (29.11%)
Community schools	25,251	75,130	100,381 (69.89%)
Total	43,546	98,059	141,605 (100%)

Source: Education Flash I report 2006

**(b) School System**

Basically, schools in Nepal are organised into two broad levels: primary and secondary. Primary schools include early childhood development of one to three year duration. It is known as "*Shishu Kachha*" (pre-primary class) in Nepali and quite popular mostly in the cities. Primary school provides five years of universal education consist of five separate grades from 1 to 5. Secondary education includes lower secondary, secondary and higher secondary levels. Lower secondary level is for three years consisting grade 6 to 8. Likewise, secondary level includes grade 9 and 10 and higher secondary 11 and 12. The students are expected to complete higher secondary by the age of 16 and enter the University for obtaining bachelors degree. Bachelor's degree consists of three years and Masters Degree for two years. However, some technical subjects, for example engineering, need five years to complete Bachelors' level. Figure 2 shows the education structure in Nepal.



Source: Nepal in Education Figure 2005, Ministry of Education and Sports

**Figure2: School System in Nepal**

### **(c) Number of students, schools and teachers by primary and secondary schools**

According to Education Flash Report 2006, gross enrolment rate (GER) at lower secondary level in 2006-07 has been 71.5 percent with 65.4 percent for girls and 77.9 percent for boys. Likewise, the overall GER of the country at the secondary level is 56.7 percent with 53.1 percent for girls and 60.2 percent for boys. Net enrolment rate (NER) has been improved by 5%, as compared to the last school year 2005-06, of lower secondary level. But, GER of lower secondary level has decreased by 4 percent (Education Flash I Report 2006). Girl's enrolment rate, both GER and NER as well as in both lower secondary and secondary level, is relatively lower than those of boys.

The trend of the number of students increased at the primary level since 2003. However, it decreased at the lower secondary and secondary levels in 2005. This trend has created some pressure in the classroom at the primary level. The trend of the number of teachers in schools decreased at all level.

Out of the total school teachers, the number of trained teachers is very limited. Only 1.3 teachers per school are trained at the primary level. At the lower secondary level, this is only 0.9 teachers per school.

The number of students has gradually increased over the three years from 2003 to 2005. Teacher-student ratio seems to be appropriate both at the primary and secondary levels, but the size of the students are bigger in lower secondary level. One teacher has to handle 54 students in one class, comparing 40.8 for the primary level<sup>26</sup>.

### **II-2. Educational policies in Nepal**

The genesis of planned development started in Nepal in 1956. Since then, the government has completed ten periodic plans so far. An interim plan has been formulated in order to continue development efforts during this interim period started in 2007. Periodic development plans have been to make efforts for the systematic development of the country. In this section, we summarise educational policy changes through reviewing the recent national plans, Ninth, Tenth and the Interim Plans.

#### **(a) The Ninth Plan (1997-2002)**

##### ***Objectives***

Education has a crucial role to develop disciplined and productive population in the country. Multi dimensional development and progress of the nation depends on its educational policy and programmes. Considering national situation and interest, the ninth plan has set various objectives in order to obtain national interest through skill formation in Nepal.

Key objectives of educational development in the Ninth Plan (NPC 1998: p. 571) include:

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<sup>26</sup>Various data shows number of students varied from one school to another. Likewise, it varies from region to region. In Mahottari district, the data shows that, there is only 0.67 school per thousands population. Similarly, Manag district has 6.58 students per thousands students (Nepal Census Indicators 2001, p.152).

1. Create necessary human resource for nation's development and enable education system for poverty eradication.
2. Create citizens who are aware and committed to democracy, able, productive and disciplined, devote to human rights and faithful to nationality.
3. Make basic education gradually free, accessible and compulsory to all.
4. Develop the quality of secondary and higher education that can contribute to national development.
5. Develop skill, knowledge and information oriented literacy and run it nation-wide.
6. Create basic and mid-level skilled manpower generating technical and vocational education opportunities in the local (district and village) level.
7. Expand higher level technical education to develop and supply higher level skilled manpower.
8. Expand educational opportunities to women for gender equity in education.
9. Mainstreaming marginalised groups (disabled, backward ethnic groups, poor and people living in remote area) in development by providing educational opportunities.

Broadly, the Ninth Plan aim to create necessary human resources who can contribute for poverty alleviation of the country. Therefore, education sector has planned to generate quality human resource. Likewise, higher level technical education has been planned to develop high-skilled manpower and supply in the market. Considering rural context of the country, the Ninth Plan set its objectives to make basic education gradually free. Dalit, women, and backward ethnic groups have been relatively excluded from having access to mainstreaming development for a long time. Taking such reality into consideration, the Ninth Plan has planned to mainstream these marginalised groups into development processes by providing educational opportunities. To achieve the objectives of education development in such condition is a hard task. The Ninth Plan, therefore, formulated various policies in order to achieve the objectives efficiently.

***Policies***

Key educational policies in the Ninth Plan (NPC 1998: p.573) include:

1. Employment oriented education system will be developed for technical, vocational and skill development. Such education opportunities will be provided in secondary and higher secondary level. Polytechnic schools will be run to develop basic and mid-level skilled manpower. Appropriate educational curriculum will be developed for this.
2. Agriculture, forestry and other technical universities will be established to generate and supply high-level skilled manpower for the national development.
3. Research on technical and vocational education will be conducted. Necessary mechanism will be developed to implement the research outcomes for technical and vocational educational development.
4. Necessary education policies and curriculum will be developed for effective

implementation of formal and informal education programmes.

It was planned to develop “employment-oriented education system” which target to secondary level students. Institutes that provide education on agriculture, fisheries, forestry, and mechanical engineering and so on were to be established. Such skills are in high demand in rural areas and the supply is not adequate as 76% of the total population (CBS 2001) in the country live in rural areas. The Ninth Plan was committed to develop appropriate curriculum for establishing relevant to local market which have high demands of technical human resources.

### **Programmes**

Major programmes in the Ninth Plan (NPC 1998: pp. 577-579) include:

1. Provide training to school teachers for the quality development of education in lower secondary and secondary level.
2. About 15,000 teachers will be trained on English, science, maths and 25 science units will be established in various districts for upgrading the quality in 'science teaching'.
3. Adequate supervision and follow up programmes will be planned and also a strong evaluation system will be developed to support the trained teachers.
4. A new curriculum will be developed for lower secondary and secondary level. Likewise, 'teaching manuals' will be developed.
5. An evaluation improvement programme will be developed in order to make students evaluation process effective.
6. Establish training centres at the grassroots level to produce technical manpower. A need assessment survey will be conducted for understanding the needs.
7. Initiate effective coordination with private training centres for skilled manpower development.
8. Develop at least 5,000 skilled manpower from technical schools. And, training on various technical subjects will be provided to 20,000 persons.
9. Various short-term training will be provided in coordination with various NGOs.
10. Necessary supports, both technical and moral, will be provided to private sector training centres for human resource development.
11. Community development and vocational training centres will be expanded throughout the country.
12. Technical and vocational training council's policy will be updated for effective implementation of these activities.

Strong emphasis was made on rapport building between school and local community as well as community and parents of the students. A programme was planned to develop strengthen such relationship which would contribute for the educational development. The Ninth Plan assured a list of special programmes to upgrade vocational education, preferably in the rural and semi-urban communities. It was decided to establish training centres to provide training and various vocational subjects based on a need assessment survey.

It was targeted to develop 25,000 skilled manpower from different technical schools. Likewise, it was programmed to organise short-term training having coordination with various NGOs. The Ninth Plan also committed to establish polytechnic schools to generate mid-level human resource to fulfil the demands of the local market. Special educational programme was incorporated in the Ninth Plan. Primarily, disable population were targeted to include in special education programme. It was also planned to integrate 'special education programme' with Education for All (EFA) movement. Before the Ninth Plan started, less than one percent disable people had access to scholarship facility. The Ninth Plan committed to provide scholarship at least five percent of all of disabled people.

#### ***Performances/Review of Results***

The Ninth Plan was severely disturbed by deteriorating law and order situation, which not only hindered the implementation of development programmes but also forced the government to divert development fund into security sectors (NPC 2003, p.6).

The Ninth Plan had targeted literacy rate(above 15 years) of the nation reach to 70%, however it could reach only up to 49.2%. Likewise, the net enrolment rate at the primary level could reach only up to 80.4% against the target of 90%. The GERs at the lower secondary and secondary levels reached near the targets. Also, the numbers of the people trained in long and short-term technical education and vocational training appear to approach the targets(NPC 2003, p.452).

#### **(b) The Tenth Plan (2002-2006)**

##### ***Objectives***

The Tenth Plan has accepted education as the primary means of overall development of the nation. Able, productive, disciplined and socially responsible citizens are to be developed for the nation. For this, it is important to create a workforce capable enough to face the challenges of the 21st century by improving quality education accessible to all (NPC 2003, p.451).

Nepal has local and international commitment 'Education for All (EFA)'. In order to render education that is productive, employment oriented and provides practical skills, it is imperative that the country stresses balanced development of the schools, technical colleges and universities for higher education (NPC 2003, p.452).

The Tenth Plan has set a new objective of decentralising authority to the institutions of all levels of education to take leadership for assuring quality education. Thus, local educational authorities can generate the supervision system and have own monitoring and evaluation approach which suit the local context.

Key objectives of educational development in the Tenth Plan (NPC 2003: p.454) include:

1. Help raise the living standards, especially of the backward communities and women by carrying out programmes of literacy, post literacy, income generating and valuable non-formal education.
2. Develop and expand quality education according to the need of the country's development and make quality primary education easily accessible.
3. Supply basic and mid-level skilled, technical human resources required by the

- country.
4. Utilize education as an effective means of economic and social development to eradicate poverty by way of developing human resources that can compete at the international level for all-round development of the country and support the national economy.
  5. Give responsibilities to the institutions of all levels of education by way of making them capable to take leadership on the basis of the definitions and norms of quality education developed and refined, and for this, strengthen the systems of supervision, monitoring and evaluation as well as develop infrastructure in order to make the teaching license compulsory to all levels and specify intermediate level as the minimum qualification plus training for the primary school teachers.
  6. In the context of the principle of 'Education for All', make special provisions to increase the access of women and people with disability to the opportunities of education.
  7. Mobilize the youth and develop sports to prepare able, strong and disciplined human resource required in the country.

### ***Policies***

The Tenth Plan has set its policies which focus on developing vocational education. To meet the demands of local private sector, “annex programmes” would be expanded mobilising the local government, VDC (Village Development Committee). It has also planned to give higher priorities for the quality education in the secondary level by providing various training to the students. The major policies set by the Tenth Plan have been shown below.

Key educational policies in the tenth plan (NPC 2003: p.457):

- a) ***Development of technical and vocational education:***
  - Expand Annex Programmes to increase the opportunities of technical education and vocational training by mobilizing the participation of local elected bodies and private sector.
- b) ***Development of secondary education:***
  - By accepting higher education level as the last phase of school education, make institutional arrangements and improve the structure of school education accordingly.
  - By phasing out the intermediate (certificate) level gradually from the Tribhuvan University, make appropriate arrangements to incorporate it into the higher secondary level.
- c) ***Development of the quality of education:***
  - Enforce compulsory training and teaching licence system to maintain quality in education; and utilize distant as well in all training programmes of education and involve all training institutes to increase access to training.
  - Make the systems of examination, monitoring and supervision effective based on indicators representing the objective standards by defining the quality of

education at all levels.

- Assist in expanding education suitable to the modern world by utilising computer literacy at all levels of education; and teach the subjects related to information and communication technology in the schools according to the national policy of science and technology.
- Along with encouraging the private sector, develop an effective accreditation system by bringing all levels of education within the regulatory framework in order to enhance competition in education.

***Vocational education: a key policy in educational and skill development in Nepal***

The Tenth Plan emphasizes technical education and vocational training as one of the main strategies for human resource development, poverty alleviation as well as the meeting of skills education needs of youths and adults. The following are some of the important points mentioned in the Tenth Plan addressing the skills development needs of the poor and disadvantaged. (1) Increasing employment opportunities; (2) Promoting access of the poor and disadvantaged to employment; (3) Ensuring the rights of laborers; and, (4) Raising quality and productivity. The Tenth Plan has committed to 'impart regular (full time) training to 7,100 persons and short-term training to 23,555 persons by establishing two additional technical institutions and two poly-technical colleges; and on the basis of feasibility studies, conduct Annex Programmes with additional classes to provide secondary level skill-oriented education in 75 community schools, one in each district (NPC 2003, p. 455). On the whole, the Tenth Plan has made its commitment to make its efforts for upgrading quality education and increase marginalised people's access to education services. Moreover, it has emphasised to give responsibilities to local educational authorities for educational development. It has also tried to develop vocational education through schools by conducting annex programmes.

***Performances/Review of Results***

Review of the results of the Tenth Plan shows that literacy outcomes were not able to reach as expected during the Tenth Plan preparation. It was 71.5%, which surpassed the target such as 65%. The situation of the gross enrolment in the secondary level was also very satisfactory (see Table 5).

The Tenth Plan aimed to provide regular training to 7,100 populations. However, finally, 20,345 received regular training, thus, the result is far better than expectations. But, the target of the short-term training did not reach to the target.

**Table 5: Review of the Tenth Plan outcomes**

<b>Indicators</b>	<b>Situation before TP initiated</b>	<b>Expected goal</b>	<b>Measured change by the end of the TP</b>	<b>Present growth result</b>
Literacy				
a. Literacy(6+ age)	55.5%	70%	68%	

b.Literacy(15+age)	49.2%	63%	61%	
Lower secondary				
a.Gross enrolment	58%	65%	64%	71.5%
b. Girls	42%	45%	44%	46.6%
Secondary level				
a. Gross enrolment	37%	45%	44%	56.7%
b. Girls	41%	45%	43%	46.6%
Technical and vocational training				
a. Regular training	-	7,100		20,345
b.Short-term training	-	23,555		15,800
c.Annex programme	15	75		15
d. Skill testing		4,000		3,471

Source: NPC 2006, p.4<sup>27</sup>

While the progress was made, some challenges and problems were also identified. The Tenth Plan did not meet the quality of education as per set in the plan. Likewise, infrastructure has not been developed for providing quality education services. Rural schools are still facing the lack of teachers. Teacher-student ratio could not be met as per plan. The Tenth Plan had expected to increase access of marginalized people (Dalit, ethnic and tribal groups, women, Madhesi, disabled and the poor) to education services. However, it was not satisfactory as per expectations (NPC 2006, p.5).

### **(c) Interim Plan**

#### **Objectives**

Based on the mandate given by 'People's movement-2'<sup>28</sup> this Interim Plan has been developed. EFA, achieving MDGs, establishment of people's democracy, and formation of federal government are the major mandates of the people's movement. The Interim

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<sup>27</sup>Many educationists working with the local people do not agree with the data provided by the authority. Conflict was in the height during the Tenth Plan implementation period. Consequently, many more displaced from their villages. More than million people went to India. Many schools in the rural area remained closed for months. In such situation, growth of enrolment can be questionable.

<sup>28</sup>There was a big political movement, called people's movement-2, in April 2006 against the King who had grasped all the power two years ago.

Plan target has formulated three-year education development plans which support to meet those mandates (NPC 2006, p.3).

Social transformation is determined by the quality of education. Society creates aware, able and productive citizens who are committed to social change through education. Modern society has recognized and accepted education for social and economic development, preserving natural resources and cultures, and for development of citizens who love their nations and commit for the overall development of the society. Access to education is the fundamental right of every citizen. It is government's responsibility to secure educational right of women, *Dalit*, disable, poor, backward class, ethnic groups, Madhesi and others. However, problems and challenges are to be faced in every step of development process (NPC 2006, p.4).

This Interim Plan has envisioned of producing human resources by providing quality education as well as vocational and technical learning opportunities. The vision set for the interim period has been more or less similar to the visions set by the Tenth Plan. However, considering the mandates given by People's Movement-2, it has focussed on paying attention to support establishing modern, democratic, inclusive and equitable society through providing quality education.

Key visions for education development in the Interim Plan (NPC 2006, p.6) include:

1. Create aware, able and productive citizens securing their access to education opportunities.
2. Provide vocational education to youth and marginalised community and make them active in economic development, then reduce poverty and social injustice.
3. Develop higher education system to make it international standard.
4. Through such quality education system Nepal aims to establish modern, democratic, inclusive and equitable society.

The Interim Plan has set some important strategies to achieve the objectives effectively. The overall strategies are decentralization, social inclusion; integrated programme implementation, capacity development, use of information and technology, grants to schools, effective curriculum implementation system development, students' evaluation and testing system and so on. Especially, the Interim Plan has focussed conflict victims and conflict-displaced people to provide them special education programme.

Following points show the major strategies developed for achieving educational development of Nepal during the interim period.

Key strategies for educational development in the Interim Plan (NPC 2006: pp.9-10) include:

1. According to decentralization concept, being based on local governance act, the responsibility of education plan preparation and management will be given school management committee. Active participation of civil society will be ensured for reestablishment of the schools.
2. New schooling structure will be designed: class 1-8 will be known as basic

education and class 9-12 will be regarded as high school education (general education and vocational education).

3. A new system will be developed through which students can shift from non-formal, technical and vocational to formal education. Likewise, students can also shift from formal education to non-formal, technical and vocational education system. Moreover, non-formal education system will be linked with life skills and income generation programmes.
4. Alternative education, non-formal education, open education and distance learning system will be developed in order to increase citizens' access to education opportunities.
5. Higher education will be strengthened and modernised in order to generate experts and highly academic manpower that can compete in international market.
6. Efforts will be made for physical, mental and emotional capability development of the youths. Likewise, youth will be mobilised for social inclusion and reconstruction of the nation.
7. A special programme will be carried out in order to increase the access to education of women, Dalit, disable, backward class and ethnic groups, Madhesi, conflict victims and conflict-displaced people.

### **Programmes**

Various programmes have been formulated to materialise the visions set by the Interim Plan. It has separated programmes by different education levels: pre-primary, primary, lower secondary, secondary and others.

#### **Secondary education:**

Free education will be provided to the poor, Dalit, backward caste group, ethnic groups, martyr's children, conflict victims, women and persons with disabilities for increasing their access to secondary school education. School library support programme will be continued. Scholarship programme will be expanded to increase the enrolment of girls to higher education.

Some special programmes have also been developed. The government has planned to reform the high school education structure. High school will comprise grade 9 to 12 according to new reform plan. Thus, the concept of higher secondary education will be abolished. A new education system: general education and technical/vocational education system will be introduced in the secondary level. Once this system will be initiated, students can shift from general to vocational and vocational to general education easily.

Major programmes for educational development in the Interim Plan (NPC 2006: p.14):

1. A structure will be developed to establish high school education, grade 9 to 12.
2. General education and technical - vocation education system will be developed at the high school level.
3. Vocational education will be taken to target groups (at the grassroots) in coordination with local government and private sectors.

4. A system will be developed so that students can shift from general to vocational education and vocational to general education easily.
5. A package programme will be introduced in order to encourage women, Dalit, disable, Madhesi, conflict victims and poor to participate in higher education programme.
6. An intensive income generation oriented vocational training programme will be developed and implemented targeting backward caste/ethnic groups, Madheshi, Dalit and poor.
7. Special training packages will be developed targeting the youth who work in Nepal and also go abroad for work. This will be done in partnership with the private sector.
8. Various vocational training schemes will be developed based on the demands made by private sectors.
9. Vocational education will be incorporated in to higher education level as well.
10. Skill testing programme will be implemented to promote indigenous skills.

### **III. Vocational and technical education in Nepal**

#### **III-1 Historical aspect**

An Aurvedic school was established to train Aurvedic physicians in 1929 which can be accepted as one of the pioneer formal attempts to produce technical human resource in Nepal (CTEVT profile 1994, p.2). Since then, various attempts have been made in order to develop technically capable human resources in Nepal. Different institutions have been established and technical knowledge and skills have been transferred, however, no systematic approach was introduced.

Government made its efforts to attach vocation education to general education from grade 6 to 10 in the 1960s. The main purpose of this attempt was to impart vocational knowledge and transfer technical skills to the students of grade 6 to 10.

The New Education System Plan (NESP) was introduced in 1971 that attempted to establish vocational education in every secondary school throughout the country.

Agronomy, poultry, animal husbandry, accounting, secretarial science, home economic and so on were the subjects taught in secondary schools. In general schools, 20 percent of the credit was allotted to a vocational subject and in vocational schools, about 40 percent of the time was allotted to vocational subjects (CTEVT 1994, p.2).

The government continued NESP in secondary schools until 1979. However, the graduate students from secondary schools could not compete with the students who graduated from vocational schools. Then, the government realized that more intensive skills should be given to the students for getting jobs in the market. One hour vocational teaching in school is not adequate to obtain intensive skills.

Thus, the idea of establishing formal technical schools for providing intensive skills and more focused knowledge on vocational subject emerged. Karnali Technical School in Jumla, established in 1980, has been the first technical school in Nepal. The concept of NESP was withdrawn in 1981. And, a Technical and Vocational Education Committee was formed in 1982 for the management of technical schools. This idea was followed by the establishment of the Directorate of Technical and Vocational Education (DTVE)

under the Ministry of Education and Culture. DTVE coordinated the training activities of technical schools, designed curriculum, conducted examinations and certified successful candidates. As progress, eight technical schools were established by 1994<sup>29</sup>. Out of seven technical schools, Kumbheswor and Sanothimi technical schools were established with private funding, however, recognised by the DTVE. Hence, ultimately, various efforts made by the government for producing basic and mid-level skilled human resources supported to form the Council for Technical Education and Vocational Training.

### **III-2 Council for Technical Education and Vocational Training (CTEVT)**

The Council for Technical Education and Vocational Training (CTEVT) was established in 1989. It is the policy formulation and coordinating body for technical education and vocational training throughout the country. It also coordinates programs, develops and expands technical education and vocational training (TEVT) and ensures quality of TVET. It was initially established under the Act, 1989 and amended in 1993. It has an assembly composed of 24 members and a governing board of nine members. It is chaired by the Minister of Education. Currently, CTEVT has nine divisions: vocational training and community development division, curriculum development division, skill testing division, research and information division, examination division, planning and policy formulation division, polytechnic division, accreditation division, technical division and administrative division.

CTEVT has set its vision as: No Nepali should be unemployed due to lack of access to TVET programme. CTEVT says that "At CTEVT, skilled workforce preparation is our key responsibility (CTEVT 2005)." CTEVT aims at producing capable technical human resources in the country. Other goal is to coordinate TEVT stakeholders for enhancing efficiency, effectiveness and responsiveness. Quality maintenance and self-reliance are also its other major concerns.

Under the CTEVT system, there are eleven zonal level technical schools scattered around the country, three polytechnic schools, two village level Vocational Training and Community Development (VTCD) centers and the Training Institute for Technical Instruction (TITI).

In addition, the CTEVT has granted affiliation and recognition over 110 private training institutions offering 175 technical SLC level programs (TSLC). The CTEVT affiliated technical institutes have been offering courses in community medical assistance (CMA), junior technical assistance (JTA), junior technicians (JT), auxiliary nurse midwife (ANM); Electrical, Mechanical, Civil, Naturopathy, Therapy in Acupressure, Ayurvedic, dental and laboratory technicians; land surveyor (AMIN), Carpet Weaving, Wood Works, Carpentry, Welding, General Mechanics, Auto Mechanics and Food Technical Assistant. Youths with school leaving certificate (SLC) are admitted in diploma programs, which

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<sup>29</sup>Karnali Technical School (Jumla district), Lahan Technical School (Siraha), Uttarpani Technical School (Dhankuta), Lalitpur Technical School (Lalitpur), Kumbheswor Technical School (Lalitpur), Jiri Technical School (Dolakha) and Sanothimi Technical School (Bhaktapur district).

require three years to complete. There are 57 such programs operating in the private institutions affiliated with CTEVT. Students in Technical School Leaving Certificate (TSLC) level should pass the centrally administered entrance examination to get admission in these programs. At the end of the program a final examination is administered and the successful students receive nationally recognized certificate from CTEVT.

**Skill testing system**

CTEVT has skill testing division which has the responsibility of certifying the skill level of individuals to know whether they have been trained appropriately or not. They do testing of all basic, mid and higher level manpower. The division conducts national skill competitions in various occupational areas. Skill standards in different occupation and levels are developed. They also provide skill tests to those who have acquired skills informally. The division develops the dictionary of occupational classification suitable to Nepalese context. Moreover, they do provide opportunity for enhancing career of the industry workers and individuals (CTEVT 1994, p.14).

Table 6-1 and Table 6-2 give recent statistics over TVET programmes and students enrolled in the programmes.

- Public TSLC programmes are found in engineering, health and agriculture in balance. However, private programmes are skewed toward health sector.
- Office management and food technology have very few training programmes.
- The number of students received short-term training programmes is just over 10,000, which is far below to the market needs

**Table 6-1: The number of TVET programs in Nepal**

Program Areas	Public (CTEVT)						Private				Total
	TSLC		Diploma		Short Term training		TSLC		Diploma		
	Number of programs	%	Number of programs	%	Number of programs	%	Number of programs	%	Number of programs	%	
Engineering	10	47.6	4	50.0	1,079	45.9	33	18.9	28	53.8	1,154
Health	5	23.8	2	25.0	440	18.7	126	72.0	20	38.5	593
Agriculture	5	23.8	2	25.0	480	20.4	10	5.7	3	5.8	500
Office management	1	4.8	0	0	0	0	3	1.7	0	0	4
Food technology	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.6	1	1.9	2
Tourism	0	0	0	0	352	15.0	0	0	0	0	352
Community development	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1.1	0	0	2
Others	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	21	100	8	100	2,351	100	175	100	52	100	2,607

**Table 6-2: The number of students of TVET programs in Nepal**

Program Areas	Public (CTEVT)				Private				Total
	TSLC		Diploma		TSLC		Diploma		
	Number of students	%	Number of students						
Engineering	463	51.3	168	49.1	1,480	20.6	1,420	61.1	3,531
Health	236	26.1	120	35.1	5,080	70.6	745	32.0	6,181
Agriculture	174	19.3	54	15.8	400	5.6	120	5.2	748
Office management	30	3.3	0	0	120	1.7	0	0	150
Food technology	0	0	0	0	40	0.6	40	1.7	80
Tourism	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Community development	0	0	0	0	80	1.1	0	0.0	80
Others	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	903	100	342	100	7,200	100	2,325	100	10,770

Source: TVET Policy Platform, 2005.

**Annex programme**

CTEVT started the Annex Program in 2002 in collaboration with Department of Education. This is a technical education program offered to general secondary schools, which is cost effective as it has full ownership and support from the local community. It has been implemented in 15 such schools, three in each development region on experiment basis. This programme has provided courses in auto-mechanics, mechanical and electrical fields, veterinary science, general agriculture, electrical and information technology (CTEVT 2005).

**IV. Key issues in School and Technical Education in Nepal**

**IV-1. Key issues related to lower secondary and secondary education**

**(1) Access to school facilities**

Approximately 19% of primary school-age children are still out of schools. Of the total primary level enrolment, approximately 35% of students leave school without reaching grade 5. Those who enrol in and complete the lower secondary and secondary levels are much smaller in number. A cohort analysis has indicated that out of 11 students enrolled in grade 1, only one student will pass the School Leaving Examination (Bajracharya and Sharma 2004: p.12).

Ethnic groups and Dalit's situation is relatively vulnerable in terms of having access to education. Many marginalised children are out of school, they leave school without completing primary education. Many children of those marginalised groups cannot join

secondary education for lack of resources as well as the need to work for a day-to-day living.

Geographical condition has been another hindrance which has contributed for 'no access to education' problem. Two hours commuting for school (secondary school) is a common case for hilly remote people in Nepal. Many children cannot go to school during the rainy season as the water level of the river comes up. Number of school is also lower in compare to the number of school going children. On average 1.66 schools are available for every thousand persons in the country (Nepal Census Indicators, 2003). On the other hand, there is no special programme planned for those who are dropped out of the school.

**(2) Lack of quality education**

Quality education has always been a major question in education system in Nepal. Mainly among government schools, lack of adequate number of teachers, lack of trained teachers, and lack of education materials have been the major problems. Only 1.3% primary, 0.9% lower secondary and 1.9%secondary teachers are trained in Nepal. Trained teachers hardly go to schools in rural area. It has created a big gap between private and public schools. It also has created two classes in the society. Such situation always makes effects during the SLC performance. More students from the private school successfully complete the SLC exam; on the contrary, many fail from the public school. Table 7 reveals that grade 10completion ratiois very unsatisfactory. Only 45.1 percent of those who appear in the exam could pass the exam in 2005.

**Table7: Passing rate at grade 5, 8 and 10 in the final exam (2005-06)**

Students	Grade 5 (%)			Grade 8 (%)			Grade 10(%)		
	Total	Dalit	Janajati	Total	Dalit	Janajati	Total	Dalit	Janajati
Girls	86.4	82.4	80.6	83.5	79.2	77.8	43.4	41.5	45.7
Boys	86.9	84.9	86.2	84.2	83.8	81.4	46.4	43.6	50.5
Total	86.7	83.8	83.6	83.9	81.9	79.7	45.1	42.7	48.3

Source: Education Flash I Report 2006

Looking at the census data 2001, one can deduce the fact that among approximately 900,000 children born in Nepal in 1985, only 43,000 have passed SLC. Only 6 percent of the enrolled in grade one can pass the SLC exam. Many rural people sell their assets or land to provide education to their children taking loans. On the contrary, many more youth are hanging around with any work even after completing SLC. Such situation has created negative feelings among the parents towards the importance of education.

Number of students passed out SLC (CBS 2001):

1. 81% of children enrol in grade one.
2. 66% of enrolled in grade one pass grade five.
3. 15% of enrolled in grade one complete grade ten.
4. And, only 6% of enrolled in grade one pass SLC.

### **(3) Lack of community participation in decision making**

Many schools in the community have 'school management committee' (SMC) which mainly look after the over all management of the school. Social workers, leading farmers, intellectuals take positions in this committee. Participation of normal farmers, women, Dalit and poor in the committee is very low. Marginalised people's voices are hardly heard. Moreover, this committee has no rights to make decisions about curriculum made by the government in the centre.

Nepal has diversities in many ways. More than 60 ethnic groups are living in the country and more than 60 languages are spoken. In many areas, ethnic groups, mainly children, cannot speak Nepali language. Under such a situation, teachers from outside and from other ethnic group cannot be effective in teaching when they cannot speak local language. The rights have not been given to the local people to choose and decide about the teachers. Similarly, in such diversified context, a single curriculum cannot be effective. Local people have no rights to make decision about the curriculum as well.

### **(4) Lack of efficient implementation**

All the five-year plans have mentioned various programmes for the inclusion of all caste and ethnic groups. All the plans also have focussed on creating skilled human resource; however, implementation part has been ineffective and insufficient.

The District education deploys teachers to many rural schools. However, those teachers do not arrive in the respective schools. No disciplinary actions are taken against such teachers. Likewise, the process is very long to make decision when schools in rural are to make some demands to the district education office.

## **V. A case study in Makwanpur district**

### **V-1. Purpose**

The purpose of this case study is to have users' voices over secondary and technical school education in skill development formulation in Nepal. Specific questions include:

1. Has (technical) education been satisfactory/useful?
2. What are people's needs/expectations over skill subjects at school?
3. What are people's perceptions over skill and technical education in Nepal?

With these inquiries in mind, this study will make us to think of the strength and weakness of school education in technical and vocational skill development in Nepal.

### **V-2. Research methodology**

The research method used for this case study is as follows. This study has adopted "a micro-case study" in one district in Nepal, which cannot be generalized but suggest something for us to review the school education in Nepal.

It is important to examine the real value of school education and TVET programs from the beneficiaries' view points. Especially, the following linkage needs to be closely examined:

Satisfaction of schooling/Technical education; School education and Jobs, and Needs for education and TVET. This survey was conducted from December 2007 to March 2008.

The field of this case study is the Hetauda area in Makwanpur district in Nepal and the case study was carried out with the following survey instruments and targeted groups.

1. Survey over school satisfaction, needs, understanding over technical and vocational education.
2. Questionnaires-based survey (quantitative) and Focus group discussions (qualitative)
3. Targets: Students (recent graduates), Parents and Teachers<sup>30</sup>

Table 8 has shown the number of respondents by category of the schools.

**Table8: Schools in the case study and the number of respondents**

	<b>Respondents</b>	<b>%</b>
A secondary school	36	19.1
B secondary school	35	18.6
C secondary school	36	19.1
D Technical school	22	11.7
E Public CTEVT	11	5.9
F Private CTEVT	28	14.9
Former migrants	20	10.6
All total	188	100.0

**Table9: Ratio of the secondary school respondents by the level of grade**

	<b>Secondary School</b>	<b>Total</b>		
	<b>Grade 8</b>	<b>Grade 10</b>	<b>Grade 11</b>	
A secondary school	16	15	5	36
	44.4%	41.7%	13.9%	100.0%
B secondary school	18	10	7	35
	51.4%	28.6%	20.0%	100.0%
C secondary school	17	11	8	36
	47.2%	30.6%	22.2%	100.0%
<b>Total</b>	<b>51</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>107</b>
	47.7%	33.6%	18.7%	100.0%

<sup>30</sup>The schools in this case study are detailed in the annex 1 of this report.

### V-3. Major Findings

#### (1) Quantitative analysis

##### Secondary school education

##### (A) School Satisfaction

Table 10 has shown school satisfaction of students and parents. This is shown as the ratio of the responses to the four level of satisfaction: “satisfied” “somewhat satisfied” “somewhat unsatisfied” and “unsatisfied.”As shown, more than 90% of the respondents feel satisfied or somewhat satisfied toward overall for the secondary school. The same tendency is seen for teachers, school building, and distance to school. However, satisfaction levels of students and parents are lower for school fees and school management committee. One note is that there are around 15% of students do not feel satisfied or somewhat satisfied with the school teaching subjects.

**Table 10: Satisfaction for secondary school (Students and Parents)**

	<b>Students (Total: Satisfied+Somewhat satisfied)</b>	<b>Parents (Total: Satisfied+Somewhat satisfied)</b>
OVERALL	93.5 (40.2 + 53.3)	95.4 (46.2 + 49.2)
Teachers	92.5 (51.4 + 41.1 )	93.8 (63.1 + 30.8)
School fees	50.5 (15.0 + 35.5)	67.7 (33.8 + 33.8)
Teaching subjects	85.0 (52.3 + 32.7 )	29.2 (9.2 + 20.0) * Don't know (67.7%)
Textbooks	86.0 (44.9 + 41.1)	29.2 (9.2 + 20.0) * Don't know (67.7%)
Distance to school	86.8 (71.7 + 15.1)	93.8 (76.9 + 16.9)
School Management Committee	64.5 (29.0 + 64.5)	61.5 (29.2 + 61.5)
School building	92.5 (56.6 + 35.8)	100.0 (98.5 + 1.5)

Table 11 has shown the needs of students, parents and teachers for teaching subjects at school. Needs of students include study primary health care, agricultural technology, sports and art, music. Similarly, needs of parents include primary health care and agricultural technology. In addition, they include agricultural technology and vocational training. Needs of teachers include vocational training, agricultural technology and primary health care. The three groups show that primary health care and agricultural technology are important subjects for school education. Speaking of vocational subjects, both parents and teachers place a high priority but students do not think this is important for school education.

**Table 11: Needs for school subjects by students, parents and teachers (%)**

	Students	Parents	Teachers
Ethnic language	47.7%	70.8%	55.6%
Agricultural Technology	82.2%	95.4%	83.3%
Industrial Technology	75.7%	92.3%	61.1%
Management	74.8%	64.6%	77.8%
Sports	82.2%	80.0%	55.6%
Art, Music	81.3%	84.6%	44.4%
Vocational Training (wiring, plumbing, etc.)	57.9%	95.4%	88.9%
Primary health care	95.3%	95.4%	83.3%

**(B) Usefulness of school subjects for work**

Table 12 has shown that usefulness of school subjects for work. This question was asked both to students and parents. Thus, there are some gaps between students and teachers in their view toward school subjects if they are useful for work in future, say, practicality of school learning. Students think English, Computer skills, Sciences and Mathematics important. On the other hand, teachers also think English and Computer skills important. In addition, they think that Nepali language and environment and population studies are useful for work.

**Table12: Usefulness of school subjects for work by students &teachers (those who think it useful in %)**

	Students	Teachers
Language (Nepali)	27.1	50.0
English	82.2	66.7
Mathematics	58.9	38.9
Social Studies	15.9	22.2
Sciences	67.3	44.4
Moral education	20.6	33.3
Computer education	76.6	61.1
Optional mathematics	29.9	22.2

Economics	18.7	22.2
Accounting	35.5	22.2
Environment and population studies	21.5	55.6

(C) Satisfaction toward school subjects

Table 13 shows the satisfaction toward school subjects by students and teachers. It is interesting to find that, on the contrary to the result over usefulness of school subjects as shown above, students feel satisfied with Nepali language and social studies. Teachers feel satisfied with social studies and accounting. For the subjects viewed as useful and key for work by students and teachers receive low in satisfaction.

**Table 13: Satisfaction toward school subjects by students and teachers**

	Students	Teachers
Language (Nepali)	57.9	27.8
English	40.2	22.2
Mathematics	45.8	11.1
Social Studies	49.5	66.7
Sciences	37.4	11.1
Moral education	18.7	16.7
Computer education	21.5	11.1
Optional mathematics	21.5	11.1
Economics	21.5	5.6
Accounting	23.4	50.0
Environment and population studies	40.2	33.3

(D) Supports for schooling

We have asked if parents received any financial, material and/or moral supports for children's schooling. Less than one-third of respondents received a type of financial supports. Otherwise, there is no support for schooling.

(E) Difficulties of the secondary school

We have asked both students and parents if there are difficulties for the secondary school. As shown in Table 14, both students and parents pointed out that financial problems. Parents also pointed out that little family support, drop-out as problems with the secondary school education.

**Table 14: Difficulties with the secondary school by students and parents**

	Students	Parents
Financial problems	48.6%	72.2%
Academic performance	26.2%	38.9%
Little support from family	9.3%	55.6%
Problems with teachers	12.1%	27.8%
School bullies	10.3%	11.1%
Drop-out	14.0%	33.3%
Others	23.4%	16.7%

(F) Effectiveness of general education for job market

We have asked both students and teachers if general education is effective to find jobs in the labour market. Teachers perceives general education is effective for job market, while only less than one-fourth of students perceive the general education as positive for finding jobs.

#### **Technical and Vocational Education and Training**

(G) Recognition of TVET program

We first have asked if people recognize the TVET programs such as TSCL program and short-term training programs. As shown in Table 15, among parents, less than one-third recognized the TSLC program. Even among students, just over half of them recognized the program. Close to 80% of teachers recognized it. As for short-term training programs, more people are aware of them. Especially, this number went up for parents. Yet, the student group have lower awareness of the skill development programs in Nepal.

**Table 15: Recognition of TVET programs by students, parents and teachers**

	Students	Parents	Teachers
Recognize TSLC	52.9%	29.2%	77.8%
How did you know the program	Teachers, Radio	Radio, Family	VDC, Teacher
Recognize short-term training program	69.7%	80.0%	88.9%

(H) Interest of TSLC Students in TVET programs

Current students of the technical secondary school have higher interest in technical education. We have included the following question: do you have an interest in technical education? Both strong interest and somewhat interest combined surpassed more than 85%.

We have asked how you select the technical education program and job prospects (72.9%), course contents (64.9%) and financial issues such as school fees (56.7%) are pointed as important aspects for the selection of the appropriate technical program.

(I) Satisfaction of the technical school by current students

The level of satisfaction toward the technical school program by the current students is high. Overall satisfaction is 86.9% by combining satisfied (44.3%) and somewhat satisfied (42.6%). For teachers, this number went up very high more than 90%. However, school fees, textbooks and school management committee received less by the students in their satisfaction.

(J) Difficulties with the technical school by students

We have asked the current students if there are any difficulties with the school they go to. As shown in Table 16, financial difficulty is found as a problem and academic performance and teachers' treatment have some difficulty.

**Table 16: Difficulty with the technical school by students**

	Students
Financial problems	54.1%
Academic performance	24.6%
Little support from family	13.1%
Problems with teachers	23.0%
School bullies	6.6%
Drop-out	0.0%
Others	16.4%

(K) Recognition of the National Skill Test

We have also asked if they knew about the National Skill Test by the government. More than 80% did not hear about the National Skill Test. It is important to note that many are interested in the test among those who never heard of it.

(L) Preference over general school or technical school by parents

We have asked parents over their preferences over general school education or technical school education. Less than 10% of the respondents preferred general school education. On the other hand, more than 80% preferred schooling with technical components – general school with technical subjects and technical school education.

(M) Parents' interest toward short-term training programs

We have asked parents if they have interest in short-term training programs. More than two-third of the respondents have interests in the short-term programs.

(N) Perception over general education vs. technical education by students and parents  
 We have included a question regarding the usefulness of general and technical education in Nepal for overseas work. Tables 17 show the results. It is interesting to notice that both parents and students consider technical school education useful for jobs overseas. Counting on their limited knowledge over technical education in Nepal, this result shows their high level of expectation toward the school education.

**Table 17: View : Is general education useful for overseas work?**

	Students		Parents	
	Respondents	%	Respondents	%
Very useful	14	7.5	2	3.1
Somewhat useful	107	57.2	11	16.9
Not useful	31	16.6	41	63.1
Not useful at all	22	11.8	1	1.5
Do not know	13	7.0	10	15.4
Total	187	100.0	65	100.0

**Table 18: Students' and parents' views : Is technical education useful for overseas work?**

	Students' views		Parents' views	
	Respondents	%	Respondents	%
Very useful	29	35.8	40	61.5
Somewhat useful	37	45.7	13	20.0
Not useful	3	3.7	0	0
Do not know	12	14.8	12	18.5
Total	81	100.0	65	100.0

### **Jobs overseas and Jobs in Nepal**

(o) Students' Interests in jobs overseas

We have asked students if they plan to go overseas for work. More than two-third of students have planned to find jobs overseas. Destinations in which they are interested include USA(18.1%), Japan (Korea, 9.6%), Middle East and Malaysia 8%).

Furthermore, we have asked how soon they would like to go abroad for jobs. As Table 40 shows, less than 10% plan to migrate for work within 1 year and almost the same ratio for within 1-3 years. The majority have no specific time to migrate.

**Table 19: Specific time frame for migrant work**

	Respondents	%
Within 1 year	15	8.2
Within 1-3 years	16	8.6
Like to go but no specific time	92	50.0
No plan	61	33.2
Total	184	100

**(P) Students' view of job prospects in and out of Nepal**

Given the number of jobs in Nepal is limited and jobs available overseas, we have asked students if they would like to stay in Nepal or not if jobs are available. As Table 41 shows, students prefer to stay in own local areas if jobs are available. If jobs are available in Nepal, they like to grab jobs in the country. This does confirm the importance of job creation in Nepal to meet people's needs for livelihoods.

**Table 20: Preferences for working places by students**

	Respondents	%
If jobs are available in local areas, I will stay in Nepal	101	53.7
If jobs are available in anywhere in Nepal, I will stay in Nepal	78	41.5
Anyway, I will go to foreign countries for work	5	2.7
I am not sure. I do not know.	4	2.1
Total	188	100.0

**(1) Qualitative analysis: Focus Group Discussion (FGD)**

In this section, the findings of the FGD are presented. Tables 43 have shown the results of the FGD with students, teachers, parents and VDC representatives.

**Table 21: FGD Outcomes****Table 21-1: FGD Question 1: What is your view over students' need for education?**

Students	Teachers	Parents	VDC Representatives
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Necessary to find good jobs with good income; enough to live.</li> <li>They want to</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>All the children must be educated.</li> <li>Country's development is impossible without educated people.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Uneducated person is not counted in the society.</li> <li>Only the educated ones will</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Education is of course very necessary. But, Nepal's education system is not practical, only general subjects</li> </ul>

<p>become high professionals or teachers in college.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Some want to go abroad for work and earn a lot, come back to Nepal and start business having good education.</li> <li>• All youth have a dream of becoming educated, get job, earn a lot and have happy life.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Education is the basic rights of the children.</li> <li>• Vocational and technical education need to be included from the grade of six or eight.</li> </ul>	<p>get good jobs (enough to live) in the future. 'A child can be a good citizen if s/he gets education'.</p>	<p>taught in school. Neither can it teach life skills to the students.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Only general education does not help students to make their future bright.</li> <li>• Technical education should be provided from the grade 8.</li> <li>• In technical education, agriculture, engineering, computer skills, carpentry subjects should be included.</li> </ul>
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**Table 21-2: Question: Are you satisfied with the school education given at present?**

<b>Students</b>	<b>Teachers</b>	<b>Parents</b>	<b>VDC Representatives</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Some are happy with the education they have because they can learn various things. Many said they are not fully happy because there is no guarantee that only general education can be helpful to find good jobs.</li> <li>• All said about the importance of technical and vocational</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Not fully happy.</li> <li>• We can be happy when our students become educated, get jobs and live happy life.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Some are somehow satisfied. Many said only having general education cannot be helpful to find jobs.</li> <li>• All want to have vocation and technical education in school.</li> <li>• Seven members said technical education should be incorporated with high school education from</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• It's okay but it cannot secure the student's future in terms of having job opportunity.</li> <li>• The goal of present education system is not clear. What we really want to produce is not very clear. Many more parents are not serious to send their children in school, mainly because of this reason.</li> </ul>

education for the students.		grade eight. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>All the schools should have technical courses and they should teach it practically.</li> </ul>	
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**Table 21-3: Question: What is your view over technical and vocational education in Nepal?**

**How much do you know TEVT?**

Students	Teachers	Parents	VDC Representatives
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>No students know about TSLC.</li> <li>They have heard about technical training like, plumbing, sewing, carpentry and wiring, which is provided by NGOs.</li> <li>Some have heard about short-term training. Few students' parents have received short-term training on dairy product, plumbing, veterinary.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Nepal, which does not have enough places to provide jobs, needs technical and vocational education.</li> <li>Those who are less educated (general education) but have technical skills can earn more than an educated person.</li> <li>Hetauda is regarded as industrial (small scale) zone, technical skills, therefore, is very important for the people in this area.</li> <li>Some know about TEVT. They know plumbing, carpentry, veterinary, JTA training provided.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>No participants know about TSLC.</li> <li>Some have heard that different organisations provide short-term training on cooperative management, sewing-knitting, etc.</li> <li>Only few have heard about Hetauda Poly-technical school that provides training on plumbing and house-wiring.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Vocation education is very important for Nepal which is mainly based on agriculture for living.</li> <li>Some know about TEVT. But, many even have not heard the name.</li> <li>Some are aware about Makawanpur technical school which provides courses on health related subjects.</li> <li>Technical schools' cost is very high.</li> <li>They suggest providing heavy subsidy or scholarship for the poor students. Otherwise, the poor students always get marginalised from the benefit.</li> </ul>

**Tale 21-4: Question: What needs to be done to improve skill among the youth in Nepal?**

Students	Teachers	Parents	VDC Representatives
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Technical and vocational education should be provided in every school; in high school level.</li> <li>• Short-term training should be provided in school. They also said NGOs should work together with schools for this.</li> <li>• Government should have special policy to train youth on various technical subjects.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• School should start technical education having clear policy from the government.</li> <li>• School should conduct short term training on different subjects massively.</li> <li>• Coordination among the training institutes, I/NGOs, Government and private sectors should be strengthened for this programme.</li> <li>• First, a survey should be done to find out the number of unemployed youth in the district.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Skill improvement among the youth the most important thing in Nepal.</li> <li>• Skills like, plumbing, driving, workshop/automobile, and wiring.</li> <li>• At least one training institute should be established in each VDC.</li> <li>• VDC office should work together with various I/NGOs in the district for doing training programme.</li> <li>• Government should think which training will be better for the youth which can contribute for getting jobs in the future.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Vocational subjects should be taught.</li> <li>• Education board should generate policies which is very much conducive to create skilled human resource from the school.</li> <li>• Government should reduce the fee for such education programme to include the students from marginalised groups.</li> <li>• VDC's own programme should be towards developing technical human resources in the VDC.</li> <li>• VDC should coordinate with all education related institutions for better education in the village.</li> </ul>

### ***Importance of education***

Almost all the participants of each group revealed their opinion as 'education is most important thing for their lives'. However, the students focussed more on the importance of education as a means of getting good jobs to secure a handsome salary for having 'better' life in the future. Teachers emphasised the significance of education for the contribution to the society to make it better as a responsible citizen. Teacher also focussed education as the right of every citizen. Parents' group members seemed to be have their children recognised as 'education people' as well as secure future with good income.

Almost every group members emphasised on the importance of vocation and technical education. Students showed their concern, in regard to have vocation education, more for linking it with 'good income'. Likewise, parents showed their major concern on having their children get job in the future. They seemed to be worried with their children's future living. VDC representatives said that the general education taught in most schools at present cannot help the students to learn the 'life skills' neither it can secure the job in the future.

### ***Satisfaction about the general education***

This issue was mainly raised during the discussion with the parents' group members. Some members revealed that they are 'somehow satisfied'. Yet, almost all did not reveal their full satisfaction about the general education given now. Their main concern was about the 'job security' even after being 'educated'. All the participants highlighted the need of technical and vocational education for the high school students. They even said that technical and vocation education should be included from the grade eight.

Some students said they are very happy for having general education as they can learn many things from their school. But, many said there is a lot to be improved in general education, mainly by including practical education, to link it with their future - getting jobs. Teachers are also not fully happy with the present education though are teaching it. Their main concern was that they want their students will gain better future economically as well. VDC members were not sure to find out the main goal of the present education system. 'What we really want to have by providing this education' - many raised this question.

Another question discussed with all the groups was about the importance of technical and vocational education. All the participants of all groups had high concentration during the discussion on this issue. Though the students showed their high concern about technical education, they have heard about various training and course. But, nobody has heard about TSLC. Some participants involved in short-term technical training. They also have not heard about the technical schools which provide technical and vocational education in Makawanpur.

Teachers said, since all the youth cannot have adequate jobs in Nepal alone, they need to go abroad for the search of jobs, for this technical and vocation education is very essential mainly for the youth. One more thing added by the teacher group was 'the reality is that those who have technical and vocation skills have higher opportunities to have jobs than those who are educated but do not have technical and vocational

education'. Parents also had high concern about the important role of technical and vocational education for their children. However, most of them have not heard about TSCL. Few have heard about technical schools which provide technical and vocation skills. They said skills like plumbing, tailoring, wiring can be helpful to secure jobs in the future.

Comparatively, VDC representatives were found to be more aware about the institutes which provide technical and vocational education. They said it used to be one of the main issues to be discussed during VDC planning meeting. VDC had also sent, by providing scholarship, one local youth to study in technical school. They said that focus on agro-based technical education should be provided, which is more appropriate in Nepal's rural context.

#### ***Efforts to be made for improving the skills of youth in Nepal***

To improve the skills among the youth in Nepal, in students' opinion, vocational and education should be provided from the high school level. Moreover, short term trainings should be provided on various subjects in school. Since many NGOs are putting efforts on this, school should in collaboration with those NGOs to develop skills among the students. They also suggested the government to come up with clear policy; their main concern was in that it should be made compulsory in school. Teachers' ideas to improve skills among the youth were more or less similar to the students. They also focussed on the importance of working together with various NGOs and International NGOs for the effectiveness of these courses as those organisations have long experiences in providing such training. One more point raised by the teachers was that a survey is necessary in order to find out the number of unemployed youth and also understanding their ideas about 'improving skills among the youth'.

Parents' concern with regards to improving skills among the youth was similar to the teachers and students. One new idea raised by the parents' group is to establish at least one training institute in each VDC. They also suggested VDC to work together with non-governmental organisations for establishing such training institute in VDC. Likewise, the government should also support for this efforts by making a clear policy.

VDC representatives seemed to be self critical over this question. They said VDC should allocate adequate budget to spend on human resources development in the grassroots level. Likewise, VDC should coordinate with various non-governmental organisations for this. They also said that it should be provided in each school. But, they showed their concern about the expensive tuition fees to be paid to obtain for technical education in Makawanpur. They, therefore, advocated for the provision of heavy subsidy especially for the poor and other deprived population. Moreover, they also stressed more on the importance of making appropriate policies for establishing technical and vocational education at the school level.

#### ***Students' ideas about the subject matters and necessary changes in it***

Some other questions had been raised during the discussion with the students' group members. One issue was about their opinion about the subjects to be taught in school. Almost all the participants expressed the importance of English language. School should pay attention more on teaching it. Besides, technical subjects should be included from

the grade eight. They think that computer, electronics, agriculture, veterinary and automobiles can be other subjects to be included in the course. Any other important subjects (they do not know - but important for them) should be included in the course. Students said district education office can/should support for including new subjects in the school.

## **VI. Conclusion**

This study has paid attention to the needs of skill development and effectiveness of school education to formulate solid base for the skill development through literature review and a micro case study with qualitative and quantitative analysis. In this last section, let us highlight key findings for further discussions over this topic.

### ***Key issues related to skill development and employment***

#### **A. Lack of employment opportunity in Nepal: skill testing scheme for migrants**

Employment opportunities are limited in compare to the number of people looking for jobs in Nepal. Conflict occurred in last ten years hindered tourism and other small industries which increased the number of unemployed youth. Many youth and adults involved in agricultural work in rural villages could not live in their village due to the conflict and migrated to urban areas for seeking jobs.

A study, done in 1997, reveals that there were 250,000 Nepalese employed in the Indian army, police and government jobs and another 750,000 working in the private sector (Helvetas 2006).

It is estimated that more than a million Nepali youth are working abroad: mainly in Malaysia, India and gulf countries. However, those who go abroad cannot get good jobs due to the lack of language, knowledge and higher skills.

Some youths who migrate to abroad for work have skills like carpentry, cooking, plumbing, electrification and so on. However, due to insufficient skill-testing scheme, those youths who migrated to other countries cannot have found jobs appropriate for skills they possess. Unless certified are their skills, these migrants cannot find jobs based on their skills. Most of the Nepalese migrants, therefore, involved in unskilled labour work: most of them are working as guards, restaurant workers, house servants, agriculture labours, porters, and other similar physical works.

Recently, some private organisations who manage their jobs abroad have been raising this issue. CTEVT has started skill testing division which conducts *skill testing programme*. This section, however, should upgrade its qualities that will meet the requirement for working outside the country.

#### **B. Lack of affordable vocational education**

A big problem with the technical and vocational training provision in Nepal remains in the limited population of the successful cohort through the general education, passing the SLC or equivalent. Thus, if we examine the TVET policy and its performances in Nepal, one should start with reform of the general education framework as well.

Number of technical schools in Nepal is very few run by the government. The five big technical schools are in five development regions. But, this cannot cover many students. The private sector has also started technical schools. The tuition fees in these

schools are very high. For example, one student who wants to study CMA (community medical assistance) has to pay at least Rs. 2000 per month. One poor family in a rural area can live for a month with this amount. Besides, many people are not aware of these technical schools.

A serious problem is related to the small number of trainee by TVET in Nepal. Only 50,000 persons a year have access to skill training including a week-long training to three year training program (CTEVET 2005). Youths from disadvantaged communities are deprived from TVET due to restricted entry criteria, passing SLC or equivalent. One fundamental problem in the TVET provision in Nepal is the complete lack of formal TVET programs targeted to serve primary and lower secondary school leavers with various reasons.

In fact, according to the 1998 data, out of total working age population of 11 million people, only 403,000 people indicated receiving some form of education and training. Less than 4 % of the working population with training!

Job prospects for the students graduated from the technical schools are higher than for those who graduate from general school. Makawanpur Technical School is running its programmes at Hetauda a small town situated in the south of Kathmandu. Their experience reveals that more than 90% of the graduate students from the school are involved in jobs. It provides clear evidence in that technical education is viable for Nepal.

The case story in this report shows how a girl of a village completed her study. She was an example in the area to do hard work and complete school with better result. But, after completing it, she got no jobs. It discouraged her, her parents and her neighbours in a significant manner.

### **C. Irrelevancy and quality issue**

Technical and Vocational training in Nepal has another problem in quality assurance through trained teachers. Many TEVT institutions, especially private ones, have instructors who have possessed little over the instructional techniques. Skill development needs to be combined with proper learning environment with appropriate physical facilities, training materials and hands-on learning opportunities, which are mostly found very weak in Nepal.

In addition, post-training support is another problem in TVET in Nepal. TEVT service providers have focussed solely on training and do care little over the outcome of the training given. Given the majority of the Nepalese workforce found in the self-employed sector, a set of basic business skill development such as marketing and accounting could be helpful.

### ***Keys for secondary school and skill development in Nepal***

- Vocational and technical education should be developed as one of the first priority for the new government to secure Nepalese livelihoods. In this regard, our analysis come up with the following points:
  - The government should prepare a clear policy on vocational and technical education. Such policy should be more conducive for the poor and other

- deprived people to have access to vocational and technical education. (STRATEGIC TVET PLAN)
- Vocational and technical education is the most important to be taught in school from the high school level, if possible from the grade eight. (SCHOOL SYSTEM REFORM RIGHT TRUCK!)
  - Vocational and technical education can support the youth more (than general education) to get jobs in the future. (CTEVT and SUCCESSFUL PROGRAMS IN UPGRADE, F-Skills and SEP)
  - Though almost all the participants advocated the importance of vocational and technical education, many of them are not aware of technical schools which are providing technical education. So, disseminating the information about technical institute in Makawanpur (and also outside the district), which are providing technical education. (ACTIVE INFORMATION DISSEMINATION)
- Need to reform the general education in Nepal by careful selection of teaching subjects at school and installing support for families to continue children's schooling. In this regard, our analysis come up with the following points:
- The local people; students, parents, teachers and others do not seem to be fully satisfied with the general education provided, at present, to the school students. (SCHOOL REFORM)
  - General education is necessary but many new subjects should be included in the curriculum.(RELEVANT SUBJECTS SELECTION)
  - Subjects like (in terms of vocational and technical education) agriculture, veterinary, automobiles, etc. should be included in the course. (TVET SUBJECTS)
- Need to have stable and strong support from VDC for schooling and skill upgrading of the Nepalese youth. In this regard, our analysis come up with the following points:
- VDC, a local government body, should work together with other institutions, like NGOs and INGOs, for promoting vocational and technical skills among the youth in the village.(LOCAL INITIATIVE TO DEVELOP EDUCATION AND TVET)
  - VDC should also allocate its budget for the human resource development in the village itself. (LOCAL COMMITMENT FOR SKILL DEVELOPMENT)
- Meeting labour market needs outside Nepal to broaden chance for finding jobs for Nepali. In this regard, our analysis come up with the following point:
- The large number of the Nepali youth going abroad in search of jobshas risen year by year. Vocation and technical education, therefore, can be helpful to find 'skilled jobs' in abroad. Skill Testing is needed to ensure the level of skills by the Nepali when they go abroad. (TVET for OVERSEAS JOBS)

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## Annex 1: Schools surveyed in this case study

### 1. Number of students

School's name	Primary level			Lower secondary level			Secondary level			Total		
	Girls	Boys	Total	Girls	Boys	Total	Girls	Boys	Total	Girls	Boys	Total
A Secondary School	160	140	300	150	130	280	50	21	71	360	291	<b>651</b>
B Secondary School	220	180	400	80	70	150	80	60	140	380	310	<b>690</b>
C Secondary School	171	200	371	238	194	432	147	135	282	556	529	<b>1085</b>

### 2. Number of teachers at present

School's name	Primary level			Lower secondary level			Secondary level			Total		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
A Secondary School	3	5	8	3	0	3	3	0	3	9	5	<b>14</b>
B Secondary School	7	6	13	3	0	3	3	0	3	13	6	<b>18</b>
C Secondary School	9	6	15	7	2	9	8	3	11	24	11	<b>35</b>

# Weaknesses and Improvement in Public Service Delivery in Nepal

Dr. Badri Pokhrel\*

## Abstract

In one hand, government always tries to extend the public services and its quality like, education, health, sanitary, drinking water, human rights and so on. On the other hand people seek those services in a better condition. Both, the supply as well as demand side is monitored and judged by the civil society and independent groups.

Generally, the public services are for all people. However, especially these public services are for the poor and economically and socially handicapped families. Therefore, the monetary value of public services is countless. However, present nature of global government is catalyst, facilitator and promoter. Government just enacts and amends Rules and Acts and brings into action without any partiality. Although the attention and focus must be drawn towards people who are socially backward, economically poor politically backed from the mainstream.

Effective service delivery always is in debate irrespective to develop or developing countries. The government wants to take the opportunity of receiving public praise where the general people always complain against public service delivery. The Policy, the Regulatory bodies, the Service organizations and the Clients are the stake holders of service delivery. They must have good understanding. But the concept of 'Government is bad and but business is good' always hinders the theoretical value of effective service delivery and make questions on the service delivery process and result of the government.

Due to the lack of effective access in public services the popularity of the government is in descending order. On the contrary, the citizens' movement with departmentalization, privatization is climbing up. The advocacy is spread against the large size and executive government everywhere.

Service delivery concept is deviated with the existing bureaucratic efficiency. Hence, bureaucracy is tradition based in red tap whereas the stand and slogan of the citizen (people) is being gradually strong. This reality seeks to find out the lack of bureaucracy in one way and the networking and controlling mechanism to the general people who always damp care the capacity of the government and resources available in the other.

However, service delivery process is to be strengthened and given high priority to facilitate the global understanding of 'god people'. The role of the bureaucracy is to be

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reviewed consultation with the stakeholders, measurement of the service standard, information flow, choice and alternatives, value of money, grievance handling, transparency and other similar many more way outs who could be the real supportive for effective and need base service delivery. This article raises some issues which really is in debate in the whole globe.

## **1. Introduction**

There is always a debate about the functions and boundary of the government work. Mostly, the people are not satisfied with the services rendered by the government. Therefore, it has been a topic of mass discussion in various gatherings that the functions run by the government offices are less efficient, poor and non responsible. Most of the services provided by them are poor in quality, irregular and not responsive to people's needs. On the one side the size of the government is widening day by day, on the other side, the private sector however, has been promoting and widening. Since, peoples' needs are unlimitedly growing. In such reality government's role is difficult to fix. Different sectors of the profession, business and working hierarchy deserve different skill, grade and level of achievement. Availability of resources, physical (monetary and / or mechanical) or human is uneven and uncertain. In this scenario, it is really difficult to fix and marginalize the functions of government. Every new problem seeks help from the government policy umbrella. Some of the areas handled by the private sector are praiseworthy, so follow able. Some of the development activities are rapidly growing through the support of the exogenous involvement. Extensive network of the functions of the government bureaucracy, on this line, is to be seen. The tasks of the government employees are diversified. Area of the work has been broadened. New problems and challenges are frequently seen, though the government has not been able to activate it's employees to fully cope the challenges. Consequently, the services rendered by them are poor, irregular, not responsive and insufficient.

In the light of good governance, a government's tenure is based in its service delivery mechanism and quality. The services provided by the government if are according to the public need the government is called good and vice versa. Process mechanism and legal bases are the indicators as such. Transparency is another ingredient. However, government is in the centre or focus. Government makes policy, produces the services and delivers. All the government decisions influence the private and public entities directly or indirectly. Hence, only the government produces services but the organizations beyond the government also work in service production. They, in one way, produce services and in the other way as a watch dog of the government. If the government, for example, hikes the price of the services by any cause they also hike. But they prove that price hiking has been possible not by their causes but by the cause of the government. Therefore, government is just the cog or note rather than the numerical role bearer in service delivery everywhere.

Sometime it is said that Government is an abstract organization. It is neither good nor bad in its shape, frame and image. The service provided by the government is being delivered through the bureaucracy who is working in the field of public services.

Therefore, it is a common saying that the government can not be better than its bureaucracy. For a general citizen, government is a person who comes in his contact. If the person who comes in contact and delivers services promptly, timely and in disciplined way the image of the government goes up. But the personnel, the representatives of the government are the one who draw and through real message to make popular or to blame. They also are called public servants. They are merely servants not masters who work on the basis of remote controlled by another power. By and large, the image of the bureaucracy is always negative and dissatisfactory. Such a negative attitude towards the bureaucracy is seen not only in Nepal but also in the rest of the world irrespective to develop or developing countries. Therefore, a hue and cry always makes aware the top level bureaucracy by a slogan "Government is bad business is good".

## **2. Public Commitment**

Public commitments are seen in the government programs frequently. National Planning Commission and Ministry of Finance, in their publications have outlined some drawbacks of the government side and recommended some correction measures. There are few steps highlighted and talked into active consideration in the directives red book. To provide the state services promptly, efficiently and impartially stress is given to reform programs relating to motivate administrative mechanism to be people oriented, transparent and accountable. In the direction of making civil service productive, efficient and effective, the bureaucracy and the government institutions are supposed to be trimmed in right size. According to the necessity, administrative reform measures could be launched including the closer or merger. It is committed that unproductive employee- positions will be curtailed and new positions will not be created except in extremely essential tasks. The budget speech further announces that all the vacant positions of the ministries and offices there under and of the government owned corporations would be freeze through restructuring. As a result of such freeze action, the excess or short fall to positions in the concerned Ministries, Offices or Corporations will be filled by internal adjustment on the basis of assessment and work performance. But, the commitments are seen poorly translated into action.

## **3. Bureaucratic Status**

Bureaucratic status can be seen and measured on the basis of its efficacy. It is a high priority task of the government to provide security and justice to the general public. Similarly, Abuse of authority and expansion of exploitation also are to be controlled. An administrative system to insure transparency and accountability will be put by reducing the discretionary authority of the responsible officer. Government commitments emphasize that necessary actions will be taken to modify and improve the existing laws relating to corruption control and employees' moral upliftment. Similarly the laws for the mandatory property declaration in all professions have been enacted. Evaluation and follow-up system of the Act is underway. However, the forward and backward linkage of the action is missing. For instance, no property declaration is evaluated except in some cases.

Some of the Government services are polluted not only by the lack of necessary Acts and Laws but also by low pay scale, poor vigilances and lack of fringe benefits. Therefore, new and substantially increased pay scale was fixed in 2057 BS. Such up scaling of salary was expected to enhance the moral capability and performance of the civil servants. Further, this increment although was thought, create a basis for quality performance of the public servants with efficacy and efficiency but the upscaling of the salary did not give positive signals. By these actions, it is proved that government has been worrying about poverty trodden situation of the bureaucrats, side by side of all professionals.

It is a common saying in financial philosophy that "A poor is always poor because he is poor". The cause of becoming poor is poorness. If somebody is not poor, generally, he should not be suffered as poor. The employees of the government as other general public are facing a serious problem of minimum livelihood. Likewise, Nepalese bureaucracy is colored by inefficiency, monolithic and centrally controlled management structure, operating on the principle of command and control. Such a widely blamed bureaucratic strength can hardly be more service oriented. Government is trying to provide the kind of services that it considers good for the people. Little attempts have been made to find out what people want and how they want it, with the result, that the services provided do not match their needs. Also, very little has been done to find out 'what is happening to the people being served by public services.'

It is universally accepted that bureaucracy can be effective only when it accomplishes the tasks properly assigned to it. Nepal Government is depicting a large number of civil servants in delivering services. Regarding this service delivery concept a system should be developed and machinery must be strengthened. Since the bureaucracy might feel more responsive to the needs and wishes of the people and the public welfare policy of the democratic government can be succeeded. In this regard, a new set of model in service delivery is to be searched, implemented and followed.

One can evaluate and monitor the activities of different personnel unions. They are seen as the activists of different political parties instead of professional organization. Such politicization in beauracracy is degrading service delivery as well.

#### **4. Efforts to make bureaucracy prompt**

From government side several efforts are made to make bureaucracy strong, prompt and swift. To make it well equipped the salary scale is increased time to time. A thought to increase the bureaucratic capability was energized. By reducing the regular public expenditure, an effort was thought to encourage the bureaucracy. Public Expenditure Review Commission (PERC) was constituted to explore the field where the public expenditure could be curtailed. The Ninth plan document focused in gradual implementation of the recommendations of the Administrative Reform Commission, 2048 by adopting the policy of making administration capable and strengthened in compliance with the principle of democratic governance. In association with the recommendation, new Civil Service Act and Rules were enacted. Under the Act and Rule job description, position classification, duties and rights of the employees were

specified. Whole career development opportunities were formulated. Different groups and sub groups within the technical and non-technical including administrative services were formed. On top of that, efforts were made to tie up public administration with the pace of rapid development replacing the traditional administration by new public management (NPM, an outcome of the top western professionals..

Delegation of fiscal and other authorities were made and fixed. Monitoring and evaluation system with institutional set up is institutionalized. In every Ministries the evaluation wing is separately established. Provision of management audit is incorporated. Right and duties of employees are clearly disclosed in the new Civil Service Act.

The Tenth Plan further reiterated the systems, policies and programs that were introduced in the previous plan documents. Service delivery component of the bureaucracy is strengthened and highly prioritized. In order to make direct involvement of the common people at each stage of decision-making, structure of decentralization is reshaped and further strengthened. Local Self Governance Act has come into action. A clear structure of coordination, accountability and cooperation has determined. Devolution of authority and budget it made. A plan to cope with the challenges of 21st century through human resource development and enhancing technical capabilities is formulated. By improving the bureaucracy as a whole, a mirror of imagination of new Nepal is architect. In order to drive in this line NPC has established a new Human Resource Division to upgrade the quality of all human resources and to project the demand supply includes reducing mismatch.

## **5. Changing Government**

It is been an urgent need to change the attitude of the bureaucracy. There are several studies that emphasize to change through working culture. The services are born by the public revenue. But some of the services are not compared in monetary value. If somebody is not complying tax, the government must provide citizen security. In this time tax default cannot be compared with state security.

Consumer's movement of various countries aware the government machinery. Success and failure of the government depends upon the consumer's evaluation. Various theories have been developed in service delivery field. David Osborne and Ted Gaebler have shown ten models in service delivery, They are the followings:

- Competition between service providers.
- Empowering citizens
- Focus on outcomes.
- Being driven by mission.
- Having the clients as customers
- Preventing problems.
- Earning money

- Decentralizing authority
- Utilizing marketing mechanism
- Catalysing all sectors into actions.

In addition to this, there are other theories shown in public service delivery front. Five Principles of Charter concept used in England also are famous in this regard. They are:

- Customers choice
- Service quality standards
- Independent Evaluation
- Continued improvement
- Charter mark

Anyway, there are some publicly accepted principles of the quality of public service delivery that is highly being accepted by majority of the countries. They could be:

- Belongingness of information
- Public hearing
- Courtesy
- Openness
- Transparency
- Grievance handling
- Reward/ Punishment
- Consultation
- Choice and Alternatives.

However, all aforesaid principles are principally accepted. In all countries either socialist or capitalist praise the principles. But in practice their compliance differ. Therefore, pre requisites of good governance or effective service delivery could be the following:

- Political commitment
- Network of effective information technology
- No cumbersome rules and acts.
- Decentralization
- Networking between service delivery agents
- Public awareness
- Adequate budget
- Effective bureaucracy
- Institutionalization
- Reward / Punishment

- Effective monitoring & Evaluation

## **6. Bureaucracy: the service delivery agent**

Main thrust of the people and the government is, however to make effective service delivery mechanism. Government also looks the ways to mitigate the causes, which is leading the poor performance of the existing bureaucracy. From government side a reform in government machinery either in decreasing size or in increasing skill or in both is to be aimed. Since last few years in Nepal government is gradually making responsive them. Where the involvement of the government is still necessary a system in service delivery is to be established and promoted. This makes the general people more assured and loyal to the government. If a clear system is not set permanently, belief over the government functions will hardly be sustained and implemented.

Now the concept of service contract- out has been common. In contracting out the services to be delivered, the capability, accessibility as well as the public acceptance also must be articulated. If public sector is not fully capable to deal with the service delivery, the public not only will loose the service facility but also create pessimistic feelings over the government. Therefore 'contracting-out' model should be planned and studied thoroughly and practiced. If government feels to undertake service delivery works through bureaucratic channel, reform measures must be undertaken in the management overall. Both in vertical and horizontal integration, private sector is seen encouraging in various fronts, though they have very little experience in service delivery issues. In order to make private sector strong and challenge bearing, government is carrying out the privatization process effectively to reduce the pressure on public expenditure and to direct the resources to the needy areas. Hence, the government involvement in commercial activities should be eliminated gradually. The government policy openly disclosed that the investment, productivity and economic growth of the country be insured by giving top priority to the overall, and sectoral improvement that are necessary for the development of the private sector. Since, the government wants the private sectors' involvement especially to enhance infrastructure development and commercial activities, the continuity however, will be given to adoptions of build, operate and transfer (BOT) system in the development of the physical infrastructure. Such initiation, if is truly and honestly acted, the objective of privatization also would go in positive direction and thinking.

## **7. Causes of the poor public service delivery**

Public service delivery is a vague work. Government, the service provider itself, in various steps is unable to distinguish the quality, target group, cost and client of the services. The service delivery agent, the bureaucracy is stagnant and rude. Its characteristics of public services and public servants could be cited in the following bullets points:

- Government services do not show the nature of real service.
- Personnel's feeling over them is master instead of servant.
- Service delivery is process oriented.

- Government organization is dumb and having unnecessary hierarchy.
- Responsibility is related with rules rather than outcomes.
- There is no clear cut demarcation between service recipient and provider.
- Innovation and change is not encouraged.
- Information is poor.
- People are not well conscious.
- Administration is still administration, not management
- Poverty bears the developing culture
- No responsibility bearing and accountability assigning is in practice.

### **8. Bureaucracy: Agent of bridging gap**

Good and proper service delivery is the prime objective of the welfare government. Without delivering goods and services to the people, existence of the government can not be sustained. Democracy, Human Rights and Individual freedom always make aware the government to take decisions to the peoples' side. If, one looks at the history and practice of the globe, he/she can see heavy peoples' participation in the decision making policy, process and plans. In Nepal in 1990, when the democratic government was formed, new constitution was enacted, independent judiciary was set, fundamental rights of the people was recognized, the task of the bureaucracy is widened and multiplied. The peoples' expectations also have enlarged. 2007 AD onward when peoples second movement was happened, several weakness both in people and government side emerged. It was thought that political leadership will find the solution. But, the internal disputes in and among the political parties could not lead the people and country. Now, everything is unsettled. Huge body of constitution building has been the portrait of criticism. Future of federalism is gloomy. The top political leaders' consensus is possible only in "gathering nest time". Such a mal behave of the parties and a party leader is aggravating even the thin prestige of the bureaucracy. However, a meeting point is to be explored. In such a situation also the bureaucracy is supposed to be able to bridge the gap.

### **9. Conclusion**

To conclude, the service delivery is seen a prioritized and sensitive area of the government. Decentralization policy, enactment of local self government act, privatization schemes and the changing role of the government are making aware to the government and people in rendering and receiving the public services easily and in low cost. Whatever government is providing public services, the need, use and active participation of the bureaucracy is highly desired. Therefore, the government must be aware to make bureaucracy more prompt, disciplined and transparent in order to long lasting and to gain public sympathy, popularity as well as to be a sincere service delivery agent in grass root level. All our efforts either from private or from public sector are to be directed towards this direction. However, the political leaders must be

improved and clear demarcation between political and bureaucracy must be determined. Beyond their mental and clear road map service delivery becomes just a meaningless effort.

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# Poverty Trap and Aspiration Failure: An Analysis in Nepalese Context.

Ram Prasad Mainali★

## Abstract

This paper Synopsizes poverty reduction endeavours in Nepal and sheds light on likelihood of poor people being in a state of aspiration failure that persistence poverty induces in the society. In particular, this article attempts to envisage how far Nepalese poor are away from developing this psychological outcome (aspiration failure) due to chronic poverty they are facing. In my personal opinion, this is a new dimension of poverty analysis, at least in Nepalese context, which produces the worst social outcome but has not yet given much attention by policy makers. I emphasize that conventional analysis of poverty as head count ratio, relative and absolute poverty might not suffice to understand the social cost of poverty in a broader context. Hence, I introduce a new agenda for policy debate in Nepal as poverty (partly) being a function of internal constraints which necessitates a different strategy to tackle with. Furthermore, this paper suggests five different thematic areas of poverty to be analyzed empirically in order to understand poverty in a broader context and to formulate effective pro-poor policies in general and particularly in Nepal.

Key words: Persistent Poverty, Aspiration Failure, Public Intervention, Chronic poverty, Intergenerational Poverty Path.

## Dimension of Poverty: At a Glance:

Poverty has been viewed differently by various scholars. Some consider merely the household income while others suggest incorporating even the incidence of climate change along with other multiple social indicators in analyzing poverty. A study carried out by scholars from university of Oxford recommends Multi-dimensional Poverty Indicators (MPI) that includes educational and health indicators while estimating poverty. They further intend to extend poverty measurement criteria by including other social dimensions such as work environment, safety and empowerment but exclude those, on this particular work, due to the data constraints. MPI is not yet commonly applied by most of the countries facing poverty. However, it is believed to complement income measurement of poverty by offering analytical tools that identify most vulnerable people directly and guide policy makers to allocate resources in an effective manner.

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A more important dimension of poverty is the intergenerational transmission of wealth and deprivation. Poor parents neither can offer a good educational background, nor can feed nutritious food, nor can afford required health service to their offspring and ultimately end up with more vulnerability in their upcoming generation. A study carried out in rural Bangladesh found that poor family are more exposed of and damaged by random shocks that society encounters such as floods, illness, crops damage and these lasting effect often carried out to the next generation. This study also provides evidence in favour of positive correlation between household's tangible assets and the capacity of seizing opportunity available in the society. It implies that poor endowments of those assets and thus inability of benefiting from opportunity set tend to be transmitted to the next generation leading poor household into intergenerational poverty path.

Yet, other scholars are now concerned about impact of climate change on poverty. As poor people tend to have less coping capacity they are more vulnerable of climate change. Davis et. al. [2008] concluded that it is very unlikely to reduce poverty if short-run as well as long-run shocks and stresses associated with climate change are not incorporated in development approaches. Alternatively, they developed the concept of "adaptive social protection" to overcome this problem thereby to achieve the goal of sustainable poverty reduction.

Despite a wide and ever growing exploration of poverty dimension; alike other developing countries Nepal is struggling to combat with income poverty. There is huge gap between other poverty and income poverty measurement. For instance MPI indicates more than 65 percent Nepalese are likely to be under the poverty whereas income based poverty measurement shows only a 25 percent. However, there are enough reasons to doubt on later poverty estimate. A straight forward and easily understandable argument is the amount that households spend on treatment of chronic illness. Despite the fact that such expenses do not contribute positively on individual's wellbeing rather deteriorates; it can be included to calculate as wellbeing under the consumption-based poverty measurement (a commonly used method to calculate income poverty). Similarly, data errors can also lead this estimate towards bias. Nonetheless, I restrain myself in this article, in analyzing income poverty in light with the state of aspiration failure deferring the debate on estimation issue as well as newer versions of poverty measurement for the future work.

#### **State's Response on Poverty:**

Poverty in developing countries, and indeed in Nepal, is realized as crucial challenge of the development for decades. As a result, most of the periodic development plans intended to attempt poverty in one or another way. However, an explicit attention was given from the 7th periodic development plan prioritizing it as a separate development goal in the plan document. Poverty-concern further augmented in later periods. As a result poverty reduction became a sole development objective of the 9th plan. In fact all developing countries around the globe in recent year have replicated poverty Reduction Strategy Plan [PRSP] into their periodic development plan as their sole

development strategy. Nevertheless, it has been criticized as "one size fits all" strategy for poverty reduction prescribed by the World Bank which might not work symmetrically across the world.

Nepal has put her all means and efforts in combating income poverty. A combination of state as well as community based approach is in place to achieve this single policy agenda of the country. Agricultural Support Program (ASP), Poverty Alleviation Fund (PAF), Bisheshore Poverty Alleviation Program (BPAP) and Integrated Rural Development Program (IRDP) are some key programs through which government attempts to reduce the poverty. In addition to this all line ministries are said to be implementing their sectoral programs and projects keeping poverty reduction as central point.

#### **Poverty-situation in Nepal at present:**

Almost one third of the populations are still believed to be under the poverty-line which has been defined in a monetary terms equivalent to fulfil the basic need. The World Bank has estimated it as individual daily income equivalent to one dollar or less (recently increased to 1.25 dollar/day). Table-1 depicts the trend of poverty (income poverty) reduction in Nepal. It shows that poverty is considerably decreasing since 1995/1996. Additionally compared to 1996 poverty gap and poverty gap square have been decreased by larger percentage than the headcount ratio. It indicates that anti-poverty program have reached to the target groups and severely poor people seems to be identified correctly.

But a sluggish economic growth, rampant corruption, political instability as well as growing income inequality among households in Nepal puts doubt on this figure and thus seeks robustness check of the estimate. As I indicated earlier, catastrophic payment generated from health shock might have positively correlated with this index which in fact needs not to be. A seriously ill person faces welfare-loss rather than welfare gain. But a consumption based analysis generally does not take this into account which leads the estimation upward bias. There might be other several issues to be considered to obtain a precise estimation of poverty level.

Main concern of this article is twofold. Firstly, to draw attention of policy makers to find out in what extent the reduction of poverty can be attributed to the government policy intervention or to their own action. It is necessary to assess which program is the best program to serve as an anti-poverty policy tool and what others are worse. It can be assessed by estimating counter-factual poverty situation in absence of particular government program. There is not such empirical study, at least in my knowledge, in Nepal to justify causality between policy variable and the policy outcome rather entire reduction in poverty is considered as the outcome of government policies and thus her achievements. Therefore, it is not yet precisely known the contribution of government plan and program on poverty reduction at present.

Secondly, a sustainable poverty reduction strategy should be focused on those who are severely and constantly poor rather than lifting up those who are in the periphery of

poverty line for a short period of time. It is very important to find out who are under persistent poverty because that induces state of hopelessness in poor people. Some might be from generation while others might have just entered into the poverty or being in only since couple of years. Policy makers should target these two distinct groups differently. Because longer they stay in poverty the lesser they will have attitude to comply with pro-poor public policy intervention. This is what the notion of aspiration failure is and thus I wanted to explore in this article.

### **Understanding a state of Aspiration Failure:**

Many literatures believe that poverty exists and persists due to the external constraints. Such external factors widely pronounced by economists are credit or insurance market imperfection (Loury, 1993; Galor and Zaira, 1993; Banarjee and Newman, 1991, 1993 and Torvik, 1993), coordination problem (Da Rin and Hellman, 2002; Kremer, 1993), institutional or governmental failures (Berdhan, 1997), malnutrition (Desgupta and Ray, 1986), neighbourhood effect (Durlauf, 2003) and so on. None of the literature described about internal constraints could also contribute to poor to keep them further in poverty and in tumbling their aspiration until P.S. Dalton, et al. (2010) developed a theory of "Poverty and Aspiration Failure" as a new multi-dimensional approach to analyze poverty trap.

This approach argues that state of being in persistent poverty itself creates constraints internal to the individual which affects their decisions and thereby perpetuates poverty. This study defines persistence poverty as incapability to fulfil basic needs during periods greater than five years. The notion of internal constraint seems more based on psychological issue rather than the economic one. However, there are two ways that offer economic reasoning that poverty reduces people's aspiration particularly through (a) opportunity channel and (b) informational disadvantage. First channel states that poor people have a relatively small objective opportunity set. For instance; it is very unlikely for a poor young man (from a poor family) to think about becoming a judge or high level bureaucrat in future. It is beyond of his objective horizon. Secondly, poor witness too few success story in their social milieu (Dalton, Ghosal and Mani 2010). Since poor people get nobody enjoying social opportunity within their surroundings (linkage) they are likely to face severe informational constraints.

Now, question arises on direction of causality or which constraints, internal or external, generate the others. Empirical studies have shown strong evidence in favour of economic factors (external constraints) to cause the internal one. Therefore economic policy of the state has an important role to minimize internal constraints to be developed among poor people. It is more important to understand that in a context of extreme poverty and very fatalistic belief anti-poverty policies become less effective. Public intervention to the external factors may not be enough to break the poverty trap (Dalton, Ghosal and Mani 2010). Meaning that economic policy instruments such as financial aid, institutional strengthening, extension of property right and changing neighbourhood will not have significant impact to break the poverty trap. Economic

agent (individual with aspiration failure in this case) simply doesn't comply with the supplied economic policies due to the lack of self confidence or being in a state of aspiration failure caused by the persistent poverty.

### **Poverty in Nepal and Aspiration Failure:**

This article envisages the linkage of poverty situation of Nepal with the theoretical framework of aspiration failure. Possibility of poor being in a stage of aspiration failures can be predicted by evaluating government approaches to deal with different type of poverty. Particularly it is necessary to see whether government is able to deal different types of poverty issues differently. For instance, depth, persistence and the ratio as a whole must be responded in a different way to minimize the risk of poor people getting into the stage of hopelessness. Sadly, issue of persistence poverty has been overlooked while designing anti-poverty policy in Nepal which indicates that state of aspiration failure to exist in the society. However, it is difficult to affirm the exact percentage of poor people to remain in this stage in absence of empirical evidence. Thus there is an immediate need to estimate the magnitude of those people who are constantly under poverty and to respond them appropriately through government policy intervention.

Despite the fact that poverty alleviation is regarded as sole objective of development plans; policies are not explicitly designed to lessen the magnitude of persistent poverty. All efforts put forward so far attempts to reduce poverty as headcount ratio and to some extent its depth. As stated on preceding paragraph, persistence issue is missing in anti-poverty government policy. This will not only lead to an ineffectiveness of government intervention in future in lifting poor people out of poverty trap but also fuels on social hostility. Elevating those poor who are just around the poverty line and ignoring those who are constantly in severe poverty will only give a good picture in a short run but it does not lessen the social cost of poverty that state need to be more concerned with. It is not going to be sustainable either. Thus poverty reduction strategy at present in Nepal seems in a state of clear destination but with a confused route.

The role of National Planning Commission (NPC) is pivotal in implementing an effective anti poverty policies in Nepal since it works as a central agency for evaluating and monitoring of development plans programs and policies. Therefore it requires experts in different fields to engage in research on various aspects of development needs. A continuous research which empirically establishes causality between policy variables and social outcome is crucial in formulating (or continuing previous one) effective development plans and utilizing scarce resources. That is what NPC seems to be lacking from the beginning. Furthermore, attention has not given yet in research and development which constrains planners to get feedback from freelance researcher in a situation they do not have enough research activities within the organization. As a result we have been failing to realize the consequence of persistence poverty in designing our development plans.

Policy makers should learn lesson from the past. They should give much attention on those who are constantly in poverty trap. And most importantly research culture

should be established within and outside the organization to conduct empirical study in different policy agenda. The strategy adopted in absence of in-depth study of different dimension of poverty will certainly be unable to contribute on poverty alleviation (reduction) objective in a sustainable manner. In my personal opinion, scientific researchers must be carried out on following thematic areas and findings need to be incorporated in planning process not only to achieve sustainable poverty reduction in Nepal but also to minimize the risk of developing aspiration failure in poor population.

**Deterministic issue:** Who are poor and what are the determinants of poverty in Nepal?

**Issue of sustainability:** Who crossed the poverty line has fallen back to the poverty again? And what is its magnitude?

**Persistence issue:** How long have they been under the poverty line? Are there any particular community or ethnic groups that inherit poverty?

**Policy evaluation issue:** What causes the poverty to reduce?

**Issue of poverty trap and aspiration failure:** Likelihood of poor people to stay further in the persistent poverty.

Study has found that probability of remaining on persistent poverty is about 50 percent in Vietnam, 40 percent in Ethiopia and Philippines and 35 percent in India and Bangladesh. Similarly, 40 percent of poverty in Sub-Saharan Africa and 35 percent in South Asia are persistent in a regional basis (Chronic poverty report 2004-2005). There is no study particularly focused in Nepal. However, there are two particular reasons to conclude that Nepal has developed a society of poor people with aspiration failure. Firstly, there is not any convincing logic to be considered that Nepal's anti-poverty efforts are better than the others. Therefore Nepal could have at least in a range of South Asian average of persistent poverty. It might exceed the regional average if we consider country-specific context such as political instability, weak institution and lack of sense of accountability and so on. Secondly, we have not yet addressed the persistence issue of poverty explicitly in our policy as others did. This also indicates that Nepal might have even larger ratio of poor people with aspiration failure relative to other countries.

### **Conclusion:**

In this paper I attempt to analyze difference types of poverty and its linkage with newly pronounced dimension of poverty. Depending on the analysis of anti-poverty policy undertaken by Nepal and also from the evidence from empirical study carried out in similar countries it can be predicted that Nepal includes almost half of the poor in being in persistent poverty and thereby likely to have society of people with aspiration failure. As thousands of people sacrificed their life in Maoist movement and there are still many others joining hand with other political activist which ultimately endanger their life. And the majority of those who sacrificed their life in Maoist movement were from the area of higher poverty incidence. This provides further evidence in favour of society with aspiration failure. In such a situation, politicians can use poor people's

state of hopelessness caused by the persistent poverty to fulfil their political interest. There is convincing indication of the society to be formed with further increased segment of people with aspiration failure in years to come. Considering this fact it is a great challenge for Nepalese development planners and policy makers to rescue those with aspiration failure as well as to prevent others from falling into poverty trap. Otherwise, Nepal seems likely to be converted into failed state bearing a large segment of people with lack of confidence and fatalistic belief developed due to the poverty entrapment.

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**Table-1: Trend and Poverty in Nepal**

<b>Year</b>	<b>Head Count Ratio</b>	<b>Poverty Gap</b>	<b>Square Poverty Gap</b>
1976/1977	-	33	-
1995/1996	4.67	41.76	11.75
2003/2004	2.7	30.85	7.55
Change	-42	-26	-36
2010/2011	-	25.4	-

Source: Central Bureau of Statistics, Nepal.

# Potentiality of Public Private Partnership in Urban Service Delivery In Nepal: An Overview

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## Abstract

“With the increasing urbanization, the municipalities of Nepal are facing capacity and resource constraints to meet the increasing service demand of the urban residents. To overcome this problem, mobilization of the private sector resources in the form of partnership could be an alternative service delivery model. But, conceptual clarity along with the effective community participation and broader stake holder’s engagement in the partnership building process is the prerequisite for successful PPP projects. Committed political leadership and political stability, recognition of the role of private sector, long term policy on service delivery, Support of central government and donor agencies, Effective and Efficient municipal management structure, transparency and accountability of whole process; are the basic requirements that create the enabling environment for the successful PPP projects”

## 1. PPP as an Emerging Means of Alternative Urban Service Delivery: An Overview

With the increasing realization of public systems failures on delivering of goods and services to the people in an effective and efficient manner, the other modes of service delivery came into existence. Among many political changes that have occurred over the past thirty years, it is the growth of non profit sector and the increasing partnership between government, private entities and other non governmental organizations including civic society that has strengthened the conditions of local democracy. Under the rhetoric of neo-liberalism, the local governments are faced with enormous opportunities for autonomy and more responsibilities to meet the need of its populace. Many local governments around the world have successfully outsourced these opportunities either to private sector or to non profit sectors such as NGO/CBO/ user groups and so on. Thus, the concept of Public Private Partnership (PPP) has received increasing importance among the local governments these days (Gldbrandsen, 2001, p 1).

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With the increasing urbanization, the municipalities of underdeveloped countries are facing challenges to meet the growing demand of increasing urban population and to ensure qualitative urban services. In the context of Nepal, though it is one of the least developed countries of the world, its urban population is increasing by 6.4% annually<sup>31</sup> and as per the last census of 2001, about 14% of the total population live in the urban area . Although the rate of urbanization is one of the lowest in the world and in South Asia, the present state of urbanization and urban development also manifests distinctive characteristics and problems that demand urgent attentions.

In the context of decentralization and devolutions of responsibility to local government after the enactment of Local Self Governance Act (LSGA) 1999 in Nepal, municipalities have also realized that they have neither the human nor the financial resources to meet the extent of their obligations. So the national and local policies, which are also strongly backed by many donor agencies, are recognizing the potential contribution by private sector. With this recognition, the concept of Public Private Partnership (PPP) has received increasing importance within the local government in Nepal these days.

### **1.1PPP : Towards Conceptual Clarity**

Public Private Partnership (PPP) has been developed in many countries around the world in the context of radical programmes of New Public Management (NPM) reform (OECD, 1990, quoted in Drewry, 2000, p 57). Though the concept of PPP is very much common in local and national context; its practice varies a lot from developed to developing countries. In the developed countries the practice has already gained its maturity, unlike in the developing countries where it is still in its early stages. Despite the universalism inherent in PPP methodologies, its modules, and types are context specific and it needs in-depth analysis according to context they are applied in. As MC Quaid (2000, p 10) mentions “the term ‘partnership’ covers greatly differing concepts and practices and used to describe a wide variety of types of relationship in a myriad of circumstances and locations. Indeed, it has been suggested that there is an infinite range of partnership activities as the ‘methods for carrying out such partnership are limited only by the imaginations and economic development offices are becoming increasingly innovative in their use of concept.”

In its broader sense, PPP can be defined as any agreement or understanding between the public sector and private sector to undertake any specified objectives. “As Public–Private Partnerships (PPPs) can be defined as the transfer and control of a good or a service currently provided by the public sector, either in whole or in part, to the private sector. It involves a wide range of private sector participation in public services and serves as a potential strategic management tool” (Hutchinson 1996, Donaldson and Wagle 1995, US EPA 1999, quoted in Massaud and El-fadel, 2002 p 621 ).

So, Public-Private Partnerships (PPPs) can be considered as an alternative way of financing initiatives, which would otherwise not be realized. Sometimes the term PPP is

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<sup>31</sup> ADB:2006 p 104

also used for a large range of initiatives to involve the private sector, including financing through the private sector or by using money from private individuals too.

“Public Private Partnership is a means of collaboration between public and private sectors for coordinating and pooling organizational, technical, and financial resources to achieve compatible objectives. Dwindling public resources and increasing needs of the citizens with regard to service delivery is the reason for emergence of this concept because PPPs enable public sector to generate private funds while maintaining ownership of assets and services” (Panta, 2003, pp 7-10). This definition differentiates PPP from other private sector involvements or privatizations of service delivery.

The 1990s’ has been seen the establishment of Public Private Partnership as a key tool of public policy across the world. Not only they become seen as a cost efficient and effective mechanism for the implementation of public policy across a range of policy agendas, they have also been articulated as bringing significant benefits in their own rights – particularly in terms of developing socially inclusive communities”. Indeed PPPs do offer exciting opportunities to achieve number of public policy outcomes including: As Osborne (2000, p 1) explains:

- A means by which to combat social exclusion by integrating the public and private components of local communities – including local government, local politicians , local community and voluntary groups and the local community itself
- The chance to reform the local public services , making them more accessible to the local community and more responsive to their needs
- The opportunity to develop cost efficient ways of providing local services to meet which are able to utilize resources from both the public and private spheres and to build upon local networks for their implementation.
- More responsive and flexible public policy making by utilizing the community and business links offered by PPPs in order to improve the quality of the policy making process and
- A route both to the reform of the political basis of the government and to the creation and sustenance of the civil society- whatever this contested term may mean

To sum up, the above literatures review can be concluded in a way that by its very nature PPP involves the partnership between public sector, private sector and the community i.e in another word, community is an integral part of public private partnership.

In the context of the developing countries, the PPP is generally a policy prescription of the central government backed by international donor agencies. As MirafTAB (2004, p 90) states “To enable markets through privatization, deregulation, decentralization and economic adjustment is now common priority among national governments. The rapid rise of this trend among governments of the third world is not due to overwhelming evidence for the social and political benefits of enabled markets since plenty of

documents proves otherwise. Rather the new liberal economic policies often are due to the lack of a perceived alternative, the interests of the ruling elite and or the powerful pressure on governments by international lending agencies". This has been proved also in the case of Nepal as we can find PPP in the top priority of donor agencies like the World Bank, Asian Development Bank and UNDP. In some projects like, Melamchi Water Project & Urban Environment Improvement Project of ADB, PPP is an integral part of the project while UNDP has been supporting Public Private Partnership Programme for Urban Environment in some municipalities since couple of years, with the objective of creating enabling environment for PPP type projects.

Furthermore in conceptual clarity, Mc Quaid (2000, p 11) identifies the number of assumptions underlying in the definitions of partnership. "First, the potential synergy of some form, 'so the sum is greater than the parts'. Second, the partnership involves both development and delivery of a strategy or a set of projects or operations, although each actor may not be equally involved in all stages. Third, in public private partnership, the public sector is not pursuing purely commercial goals. So a criterion of partnership is the presence of social partnership (excluding purely commercial transactions)." He further discusses the five main dimensions of public private partnership. They are:

1. What the partnership is seeking to do? i.e its purpose and whether it is strategic or project driven?
2. Who is involved? i.e. the key actors and the structure of their relationship
3. When? Timing or stage of development of partnership process and changing relationship and activities over time
4. Where? i.e. spatial dimension
5. How the activities are carried out? i.e. the implementation mechanism

It has been said since long that through PPP, the advantages of private sector i.e the innovation, access to finance, knowledge of technologies, managerial efficiencies and entrepreneurial spirit can be combined with social responsibility, environmental awareness and the knowledge of the public sector in an effort to solve urban problems. The potential benefit of the partnership can also be measured within three parameters viz. Resources, Effectiveness and Efficiency and Legitimacy. In the context of service delivery, there are some explicit benefits that would arise from the partnership between the public sector, private sector and civic society. From municipal perspective, the benefits can be identified as: (Synthesized from Plummer: 2002, pp 23-27)

- Reducing the burden of lack of financial resources
- Utilizing the efficiency of private sector (management, skills and technologies)
- Reduction in public expenditures in basic services
- Private sector investments stimulates in urban economic growth
- Assurance of qualitative services
- Public auditing of the services

There are also potential benefits from PPP to private sector and also to civic society. From private sector perspective, it can access to public sector resources and it can guarantee its return on investment. It can earn the trust of civic society involving in such partnership. Civic society can be benefited from initiating the projects of civic interest by understanding the consumer needs and also it can contribute to ensure qualitative, economy and accessible services which are also affordable to community by involving itself in various stages of project cycle.

In the context of municipal service delivery in third world countries, the direct benefits of PPP includes enhancement of revenues, cost savings in implementation, risk sharing and economic development. Considering the municipal financial and human constraints to deliver services, the potential benefits also can be mentioned as: (Panta, 2003, p 44)

- Better Value for Money
- Better Quality Service
- Faster Project Delivery
- More Project Delivery
- Greater Certainty
- Better Asset Utilization
- Better Regulation
- Enhanced Competitiveness
- Service Clustering and Single Window Service Delivery

## **2. PPP: Panacea or just an Alternative Service Delivery Mechanism?**

Literatures on PPP often concentrate only on the positive aspects of its outcome ignoring the negative externalities. Miraftab (2004, p 89) states "A literature on PPP has not examined the power relations and the influence of the environments within which partnership are implemented. The mechanistic approach of this literature is largely confined to examining the logistics and typology of PPPs, notably ignoring broader issues such as partnership's distributive implications." There is always an inherent conflict between the profit driven interests of the private sector and the welfare driven interests of the communities. "A series of studies reveal serious discrepancies between the theory propounding partnership as a third world panacea and their consequences in actuality (ibid p 89). Thus the partnership should also be analyzed in broader terms of power sharing and equity distribution aspects rather than defining in narrow economic terms.

In the case of third world countries like Nepal, where there are many structural constraints among the three actors of the PPP, the situation is completely different from than those of developed economies. Miraftab (2004,p 89) further argues, "In the context of third world's socio economic gaps and decentralizing states where central governments often have neither the will nor the ability to intervene effectively, PPPs are free to operate as Trojan horse of development. Private Sector firms approach local

governments and their impoverished communities with the message of power sharing, but once the process is in the motion, the interests of the community are often overwhelmed by those of most powerful member of the partnership – the private sector firms”. There are also views that blame PPP as a result of neo liberal thought in interest of ruling elite of underdeveloped countries and the powerful pressure on government by international lending agencies” ( Bond, 2000 and George, 1997, quoted in Miraftab,2004, p 90). “While these (mostly) donor led initiatives may have reached national level policy makers, and may have started to influence contract formulation, it is questionable whether municipal government and implementing agencies at the local level have had access to or benefited from these revised approaches. It is also unlikely that municipal officials are any clearer on whether or how private sector participation can effectively address the needs of the poor” (Plummer, 2002, p 1)

In the context of service delivery, Panta (2003, p 45) have mentioned the following risks involved in PPP mentioning that poor stakeholders engagement during the partnership building process or too much of financial risk allocated to the private sector may increase the risks undermining the effectiveness and efficiency of partnerships for service delivery.

- Loss of control by local government
- Increased cost of service
- Political risk
- Unacceptable levels of accountability
- Unreliable service
- Inability to benefit from competition
- Reduced quality or efficient of service
- Bias in the selection process

MC Quaid (2000, pp 22-25) has synthesized the potential disadvantages of PPPs in i) lack of clear goals ii) resource costs iii) unequal power and iv) cliques usurping power, v) impacts on other services vi) organizational difficulties and vii) differences in philosophy among partners.

### **3. Urbanization and Urban Service Delivery in Nepal: Critical Overview**

Urbanization refers to the process of growth in the proportion of growth of population living in urban areas. In other words urbanization is a territorial response to the structural changes in the economy. The distinction between town and country is not merely a distinction based on the nature of settlements, it is a distinction rooted in the economic structure and social relations of production and reproduction, and in the processes of social and political consciousness and its articulation. Therefore, urbanization is often taken as a proxy for the level of development in general (Sharma, 2003, p 375).

The problems of definition in the study of Nepal's urbanization are considerable because the area designated urban have been defined and refined over the years and there is evident lack of consistency in the definition. The density, contiguity and occupational structure of the population, which are generally acceptable criteria for defining urban areas – have never been considered in designating municipalities in Nepal (ADB, 2006, 103-4). It was since 1962 that the urban areas have been interpreted in Nepal not as a settlement per unit per se but as a unit of self government. The Municipality Act 1992 and the Local Self Governance Act (LSGA) 1999 redefine and classify municipal areas, for the first time, classified into categories in Nepal. But the universally accepted criteria of population size, density, contiguity and occupational structure of population are given scant attention and political ad hocism in the designation of municipal areas is quite evident (Sharma, 2003, p 376). Thus, some areas have been classified, de-classified, and re-classified as municipalities over the past 50 years, and the territorial boundaries of many settlements have been re-drawn to include surrounding rural areas to meet the population size criteria (ADB, 2006, p 104).

Urbanization is growing rapidly in Nepal at an annual rate of 6.4%. But unofficial studies have concluded, especially during conflict and post conflict period, with more than 8% of urban population growth in major municipalities of Nepal. Currently there are 14% of the total populations living in designated urban areas. There are also many small market towns with populations under 10,000. There is no adequate information available on their population and growth rates but it is clear that these are growing quite fast. They now contain significant populations and appear more urban than the outskirts of many designated municipalities. These small market towns are not yet classified as urban areas. Growing urban populations in the core areas create significant pressure in existing urban infrastructure and resources while it creates a demand for improved service delivery (UNDP, 2001, pp 37-49).

Thus the urbanization in Nepal is growing rapidly. But the service delivery to urban populace is not coincided with this urbanization. Lack of resources, lack of capacity and restricted and limited exercise of power by municipalities as provisioned in LSGA 1999 has resulted into weak service delivery. The available data explains 23% of urban population is below poverty line, 45% of the urban population is out of the pure drinking water, 20% of the urban population has no sanitation facilities and 15% of the urban population has no electricity (Sharma, 2003, p 409). Quality of supplied water is quite often a concern; arsenic content has become an alarming issue in many rural water supply schemes in the Terai, whereas biological contamination is generally the main concern in hill where surface water is used. These are only the few indicators. There are no adequate data on slum dwellers in Nepal nor is there a definition of "slums". However, the number of slums and squatter settlements in major urban areas has been increasing in the last few years; it is most conspicuous in Kathmandu Valley. All the squatter localities and some of the core areas of Kathmandu are said to be slums due to lack of basic sanitation and utility facilities. The emergence and expansion of the squatter settlements has been encroaching upon riverbanks, public lands, lands

belonging to temples or other religious/cultural sites, agricultural land, and forest areas. The recent many urban studies have shown that gradually, slums and squatter settlements are emerging as the major challenges in most of the municipalities even outside the Kathmandu Valley.

The provision of sanitation infrastructure is generally very poor: 21% of the urban HHs do not have toilets as per the census 2001. In smaller towns, households are either without sanitation facilities or served by septic tanks or pits, or illegally use storm water drains as sanitary sewers. (ADB, 2006, p 107)

Furthermore, with the increasing urbanization, critical urban services like solid waste management is also becoming major problem as haphazard disposal of solid waste in densely populated areas, environmentally sensitive areas and river banks has made adverse impacts on the environment and deteriorating the living standards and quality life of the people. More than half of the municipalities have not even identified or proposed sites for land-filling their wastes. In general, waste is collected, transported, and disposed of by municipalities. Lack of resources; including human resources, infrastructure, and equipment; is a common problem faced by municipalities in attempting to manage solid waste. Siting and operation of landfills is highly sensitive and controversial. Many municipalities have worked in partnership with the private sector, non government organizations (NGOs), and community groups in managing the solid waste. Kathmandu, the only one metropolitan of the country does not have the landfill site yet.

The number of motor vehicles in the larger urban centers has been increasing rapidly in recent years. This has not been matched by provision of roads and infrastructure, leading to persistent traffic congestion, particularly in Kathmandu Valley towns. Urban development is taking place without adequate planning or provision of transport infrastructure, and with inadequate consideration of the nature and composition of the traffic. Urban roads are commonly narrow and crooked, and the road network function is poor. The availability of parking space is almost none or insufficient. The mixture of vehicle types, poor driving, bad parking, and roadside trading add to traffic congestion. The consequences are prominent; longer travel times, greater levels of air and noise pollution with less efficient fuel consumption. More critical is the path for pedestrians. Pedestrians face many difficulties esp. while walking along with the road and crossing the road as roads are not designed and constructed in pedestrian friendly way.

#### **4. Issues in Urban Service Delivery in Nepal:**

In Nepal, Government has adopted the four broad forms of service delivery. They are: i) Direct delivery of services ii) privatization of services iii) alternative service delivery models and iv) decentralization of services to local bodies. Government of Nepal has put the PPP under the category of alternatives service delivery models (MLD/GoN, 2004 c, p 19). The previous 10th national plan has identified “effective delivery of basic social services and economic infrastructure” as one of the four key pillars of the plan. The present Interim Plan (2007/8-2009/10) has recognized the private sector and civil

society (including NGOs and CBOs) as the partners of development to promote good governance and effective service delivery.<sup>32</sup>

As per the Local Self Governance Act (LSGA), municipalities are primarily responsible to provide the basic services to its urban residents. Section 96 of the act describes the functions, duties and power of the municipality. This includes the municipality's responsibility to physical development of the city; management of water resources, environment and sanitation; education and sports development, cultural development, works and transport, health service, social welfare, relating to industry and tourism, etc. So, in relation to urban development, municipality has the sole responsibility to provide basic services to its dwellers.<sup>33</sup>

#### **4.1 Resource and Capacity Constraints in the Part of the Municipality**

UNDP ( 2001, p 47) mentions "Ineffective delivery and access to public services keep the quality of life of an average Nepali very low. Nepal ranks low even the countries of South Asia, where the quality of life is lowest in the world. Within the country itself, certain regions- particularly mid western hills and mountains and disadvantaged castes and ethnic groups benefits much less from public services than the more advantaged groups and communities. Low investment, combined with ineffective governance drastically undermines public services. The exclusion of citizens especially women and disadvantaged groups, from governance at the community level further compromises the basic services."

The situations in municipalities are also not very much different than that of national status. One can easily observe the underdeveloped and mismanaged infrastructures like road, bridge, sewerage and drainage when passing through any of municipalities in Nepal. Traffic systems are very weak, pollution is everywhere, increasing slums and squatter's area, severe urban poverty are the increasing challenges that the urban managers are facing these days.

No demand of people can be met without resource mobilization by the public sector. The municipalities of Nepal are severely resource constraints in terms of both human and non human resources. In one hand, with the devolutions of the authority to the local bodies after the enactment of Local Self Governance Act 1999, more responsibility lies on the part of municipality to fulfill the demand of urban residents. But on the other hand, with the increasing urbanization rate, aspirations of people are rising and the resource constraints are very much severe, there is highly unbalance between the demand and supply of basic services to the urban dwellers.

After the enactment of LSGA 1999, municipalities are also required to adopt participatory bottom up periodic planning. Also resource mapping made compulsory for local government. Similarly provisional grant viz. Local development fee from the central government to municipality made compulsory and revenue sharing between

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<sup>32</sup> Three year interim plan (2007/8-2009/10), NPC/GoN: 2007

<sup>33</sup> Another responsible body for urban development Town Development Committees are not considered within the scope of this study

local government and central government provided for in specific areas. Moreover, local government authority over taxation and service fee collection expanded, and some local government rights over natural resources recognized.<sup>34</sup> But the existing under capacity in the part of the municipalities are almost failed to mobilize the internal resources properly. Similarly, as per the financial regulations for the local bodies<sup>35</sup> the administrative cost of municipality should be in between 25-40% of their total expenditure but only 22 municipalities out of 58 have succeeded to maintain within this limit (MLD/GON, 2000, pp 54-56). In 2005/6 the percentage of current expenditure to total expenditure is 34.97 (i.e within the limit) but variance is large as some of the smaller and newly declared municipalities have consumed more than 100% of their own source revenue. (Amargadhi 120.50%; Dip-Silgadhi 116.11%; Jaleswor 108.85%; Khadbari 103.80%; Malangawa 106.39%; Narayan 132.74%; Prithivinarayan 112.88%; Rajbiraj 108.27% and Tulsipur 114.24%). In fact, these municipalities have to use their development grants even to meet their day-to-day regular expenditure. (UDLE, 2008 p x)

In most of the municipalities, revenue is very limited as they aren't succeeded in mobilization of local resources effectively for the revenue generation and administrative costs are very high especially because of over staffing. On the one hand, development budget of the municipality is itself very low (65% of total expenditure which includes Ordinary capital public expenditure and social program) only 12.72% of the total expenditure has been spent on social programmes like health, education and environment (UDLE, 2008, p All-2). Administrative system and efficiency are also very weak due to lack of data management and the existing capacity of the staffs because most of the municipal staff are the non technical and mainly of lower grade level.

The provision of local development fee (From the central government) to the municipality from central government is for the time being only and ultimately municipality has to develop the self sustaining mechanisms by mobilizing the internal resources to meet the ultimate demand (GoN/MLD, 2000, p 54). But reality is that in absence of LDF, municipalities as a whole even cannot implement any big urban infrastructure projects. Excluding of LDF from municipal revenue structure, it is simply enough to cover their day to day administrative/current expenditure (Rs. 843.458 million) from their own source of revenue that is nearly Rs. 880.807 million in FY 2005/06. (UDLE, 2008, P xi).

By law, municipalities can practice land and house property tax, integrated property tax and other service fees for sewage, drinking water, electricity and other forms of tax like business tax for revenue generation but practices are very limited in almost all the municipality. In most of the municipality these taxes are either not implemented or partially implemented. So still the major sources of income to the municipalities are the central government's grant which is collected in the name of "Local development fee"

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<sup>34</sup> Synthesized from Local Self Governance Act 1999, Chapter 8

<sup>35</sup> Local Self Governance Financial Regulations, 1999

by the central government. Municipal own source of revenue consisted only 65.38% of the total revenue and 34% of total revenue comes from Local Development Fee and contributions from other potential direct taxes are still negligible (GON/UDLE, 2008, p x). Capacity is seriously bottlenecked that many of the municipalities is receiving external donor support (both in terms of technical and financial) even to mobilize the internal resources like integrated property tax. In one hand, internal resources are not mobilized to the full extent due to the inability of the municipality; on the other hand lack of capacity and willingness to pay for the services on the part of general public is also seriously hampered the internal revenue generation of the municipality.

So in present context, municipality's resource constraints are overwhelming, population is increasing rapidly, existing infrastructure and services are inadequate and deteriorating, and technical, managerial and financial resources and capacities are lacking. These constraints have resulted in collision of stakeholders and in conspicuous dichotomy of extended municipal responsibility with diminished municipal resources. To link with Plummer "This dichotomy seriously affects the large number of people, especially poor inhabitants of the cities and has led to the needs of change in the relationship between civil society and government" (Plummer 2002, p 11).

Growing urban populations place significant pressure on the existing infrastructure in core areas and create a demand for improved service delivery in under serviced marginal and peri urban areas. Though there is lack of official data in the municipalities of Nepal on what percentages of demand of services of urban residents have been fulfilled, many of them have not fulfilled more than 20-30% demand of the.<sup>36</sup> This scenario of poor resource mobilization and inefficiency on the part of municipality clearly justify the mobilization of resources from additional alternative sources.

##### **5. Legislative Provision for Private Sector Participation in Local Service Delivery In Nepal**

The legal and regulatory environment in Nepal for municipal service delivery is tolerant of private sector participation although to date no steps have been taken to promulgate specific acts or amendments that would create an enabling environment for such an initiative. Neither the present interim constitution<sup>37</sup> nor the present interim plan<sup>38</sup> contain impediments to private sector participation in basic services; legislation providing for decentralization provides for local authorities with power and authority to act and the provisions of other legislation do not specially constrain private sector involvement in the function prescribed to local government (Plummer and Slater, 2001, p 7).

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<sup>36</sup> This is based on the quick survey of the author, when serving four municipalities as an Municipal Development Advisor during the period 1999-2006, the observation is based only on the data of the demand received during the annual planning process of these four municipalities, viz. Bharatpur, Diapayal Silgadhi, Amargadhi and Nepalgunj.

<sup>37</sup> Interim constitution of Nepal 2063

<sup>38</sup> Three years Interim Plan of Nepal, 2007/8-2009/10, NPC/GON

The Local Self Governance Act (1999) (accompanied by the Local Self Governance Rules and Regulations 2004 and Local Government Financial Rules 2004) is the primary act of relevance to private sector participation in delivering municipal services. The act is intended to develop municipalities as self governing autonomous urban local bodies enabling them to play an effective role in the context of overall urban development and the improvement of the environmental condition for the urban dwellers. While there remain regulatory gap to be filled in order to fully implement the intent, it provides a statutory framework on local governance and decentralization with considerable scope to improve its effectiveness. Under the LSGA, the development of effective local governance system is provided through the devolution of responsibilities, authorities and resources required for effective local governance; the installation of institutional mechanisms and working procedures; the devolution of authority for resource mobilization; and the encouragement of civil society to participate in the activities of providing basic services (ADB, 2000, pp 25- 26).

Not only has the act specified that municipality must ensure the delivery of urban services. It has clearly set out the importance of “encouraging the private sector to participate in local self governance in the task of providing basic services for sustainable development” as one of the six basic principles and policies of local self governance. Similarly section 96 of part 3,<sup>39</sup> of the act provides for local government “ to encourage or caused to be encouraged to carry out cooperative, industrial and commercial activities generating income to the municipality with the investment of private sector as well”, Section 96<sup>40</sup> highlights the role of consumer (user groups) groups as “ Consumer groups and other non governmental organizations shall have to be encouraged for the development and construction works to be done in municipality area and such works shall have to be done through such groups or organization as far as possible.” Furthermore section 121 says “the municipality shall have to encourage the non government organization (the definition of which also includes the private sector) for the acts of identification, formulation, operation, evaluation, repair and maintenance of the town developments programmes within the area of each municipality.”

The more significant change is the provision made in the last amendment of the local self governance regulations in 2004. The amendment came up with the provision of “Public Private Partnership Promotion Committee” in each local government including municipality<sup>41</sup>. Under the municipal board, the committee is under the mayor of the municipality and includes the chairperson of local chamber of commerce and industry or his/her representatives as a permanent member. The committee also includes the local expert of PPP to be nominated by the municipality. Moreover, a member will also be nominated by municipality as a representation of the civic society. This change

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<sup>39</sup> Part 3, Chapter 4, Section 96, subsection 1 Clause J, sub clause 24 of LSGA

<sup>40</sup> Part 3, Chapter 4 , Section 96, sub section 3

<sup>41</sup> LSGA regulations (latest amended in 2004) 273 A

clearly demonstrates the fact that authority has recognized the need of mobilization of private sector and the civic society for the local level service delivery.

In complement with the LSGA 1999, the government has come up with the “PPP Policies and Directives for the Local Bodies” (MLD/GoN, 2004a and 2004b) as a guideline to adopt PPP modalities in providing local services. This policy initiative can be considered as a concrete step to show the commitments of government on PPP. One of the objectives of the proposed PPP is to promote the partnership among public sector, private sector and the community for the effective service delivery. But this policy is itself ambiguous in many aspects. The definition of the “Private Sector” as mentioned in the directives is so broad that it includes all the sectors excluding the central and local government. This definition is bit contradictory with the established presumption as private sector has a profit motive and civic society (community organizations) has a non profit motive, in principal (Plummer, 2002, pp 73-88 and Mirafatab, 2004, p 90). Furthermore, the policy and directives don’t tell about the role of civic society in different phases of the PPP project cycle. “Civic Society” is the term often used to describe the community participation; but it is itself so broad that it includes various types of community based organizations (CBOs), Non Governments Organizations (NGOs), Trade Unions, Pressure Groups, Professional Organizations and even the individual Households and Consumers. In the context of PPP the role of various actors will be very much different from one another in PPP project cycle (Plummer, 2002, pp 89-106). On one hand, different actor has different roles and responsibility, within the same actors there are divergent ideologies, project objectives, methods and work practices. So process of the working of the community with the public and private sectors is neither straightforward nor the natural. It is very much complex process indeed. Without realizing this dynamics no policy can function properly.

There are other acts and regulations applicable to private sector mobilizations for the development but most of them are not necessarily suitable and relevant for providing the basic services of local governments. Some of them are BOT Act (2006) , Foreign Investment and Technology act 1992, Industrial Enterprises Act of 1992, Labor Act of 1991, Trade Unions Act of 1992, Contract Act of 1999, Privatization Act of 1994, Environmental Conservation Act of 1999.

## **6. Conclusion: Need of Effective PPP Process**

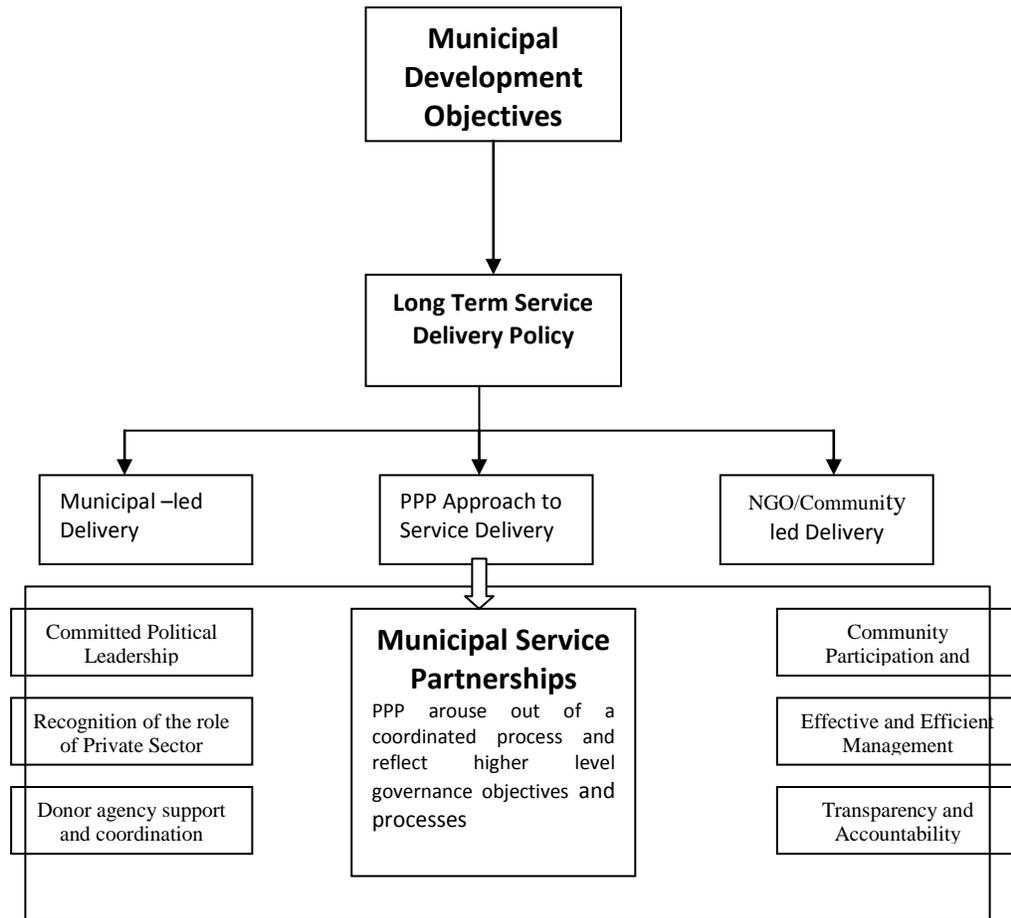
Public Private Partnership, thus, is the alternatives means to combat the problems faced by Nepalese municipalities primarily in the part of resource and capacity. Of course this mode of service delivery is considered as superior than the simple private sector participation or state owned mechanism but at the same time the implementation and outcome shows many problems and challenges if it is not implemented properly.

The research done by author (Regmi, 2008, P 124), based in Butwal Municipality, shows that primarily this concept is donor driven without much realization of the need of the broader socio economic contexts of the local economy. So in one sense “Ownership” of

the local stakeholders; particularly of municipality is almost none. These donor led initiatives have to some extent, started to influence local politicians and policy makers but real effectiveness and the benefits at the local implementation level from this revised approach are far below than it is generally argued. Furthermore the same research also concludes that it is very unlikely that municipal officials are any clearer on whether or how private sector participation in the form of PPP can effectively address the needs of the municipality to combat the urban challenges. Lack of conceptual clarity on PPP and lack of effective community participation was also the other issue identified as a constraint of effective PPP during the research.

Nevertheless, with the increasing urbanization, due to the serious bottlenecks on the part of the Nepalese Municipalities, there is no alternative to mobilize the private sector resources to fulfill the resource gap they are facing to meet the demand of services. By adopting the PPP approach, in one hand municipality can earn the revenue from investment oriented PPPs while it can save considerable amount from operation oriented PPPs. Moreover, skill, management and technological efficiency of the private sector can be utilized. The resource then be cross subsidized to other social sector spending to combat the issues like urban poverty. Involvement of the private sector in the delivery of urban services can reduce costs and improve the efficiency and scope of urban services. So private sector resources are always one of the viable options in Nepalese urban context but it shouldn't be considered as a panacea. Conceptual clarity along with the effective community participation and broader stakeholder's engagement in the partnership building process is the prerequisite for successful PPP projects. Committed political leadership and political stability, recognition of the role of private sector, long term policy on service delivery ( by revising the existing one), Support of central government and donor agencies, Effective and Efficient municipal management structure, transparency and accountability of whole process; are the basic requirements that create the enabling environment for the successful PPP projects.

## A Proposed Municipal Service Delivery Framework



Source: Author (2008)

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# Micro Credit: Meeting the Challenges of Feminizing Poverty

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## Abstract

Feminization of poverty has been a major socio-economic issue of global level throughout the modern history. In developed countries, it was especially prevalent until early twentieth century when women were unfairly alienated from the workforce. Since then women in developed countries have experienced greater levels of economic freedom allowing them, for the most part, to be financially competent. However, in developing countries like Nepal the situation of women is still rather grim. Financially, the condition of women has, at best, not ameliorated with time in these countries. Women tend to be poor in developing countries owing to the facts like lack of resources, opportunities and a social bias against them. Nonetheless, there is hope for poor women in developing countries as various organizations have been regularly applying the micro credit as a poverty reduction strategy to help these women gain financial upliftment and reduce feminization of poverty. One such effort carried out through collaboration of Government of Nepal and various donor agencies established micro credit program especially to empower women in small survival businesses and thus rescue them from abject poverty. The program has garnered significant success in helping women to establish small-scale business and thus to run their household. Women involved in these programs have been able to afford better health care, better food and better education for their children in comparison to women with similar circumstances who have not been able to join such programs.

## Poverty

Poverty is defined as lack of income and assets to attain basic necessities including food, shelter, clothing and acceptable level of health and education including a sense of powerlessness in the institutions of state and society (Medeiros & costa;2007). Poverty has many dimensions and is difficult to measure. Calculated in monetary value, it is inadequacy of income where as measured in terms of the human condition, it is

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inadequacy of health and nutrition, education and other components of well-being including leisure time (Buvinić;1997). In practice, poverty is usually measured using household per capita income, that is, under the assumption that the income in the household is equally distributed (Medeiros & Costa;2007).However, ``Poverty is not randomly distributed; race, gender, family structure, and parental education all have a significant effect on the likelihood to experience poverty`` (Seccombe :1990.1095).

Economic crisis and structural adjustment policies introduced in the third world have a disproportionate impact on the urban poor due to factors like rising food prices, declining real wages, redundancy in the formal labor market and reduced public expenditure on basic services and infrastructure (Wratten ;1995). The source book of poverty reduction strategies identifies four dimension of poverty namely lack of opportunities, low capabilities, low level of securities and empowerment. Poverty incorporates factors like vulnerability of an individual and social exclusion of a group. Vulnerability is an important concept in understanding poverty that relates to risk (Conning & Kevane;2002) and is also a constant companion of material and human deprivation, given the circumstance of the poor and near-poor (Medeiros & costa;2007).

Approaching poverty from the perspective of 'social exclusion' is useful for many reasons to understand the feminization of poverty. First, the concept of exclusion makes a serious contribution to the understanding of poverty since it provides an 'integrated and dynamic analytical perspective. Second, it allows the broadening of the notion of deprivation while redirecting attention to poverty as a phenomenon with multiple root causes and manifestations. Third, the concept of social exclusion enables a better understanding of poverty as a process that involves multiple agents as well as institutions (Skalli; 2001). Particularly in a third world country like Nepal, due to high social exclusion and gender discrimination poverty crisis is huge. Even now estimated poverty headcount is 31 percent in Nepal (GoN; 2006).

Subsequently, national poverty hits those the most who are in the fringes of social structure. In developing countries, and perhaps throughout the world in some proportions, the hardest hit victims of general poverty thus tend to be women who are always at the sidelines of the social center stage.

### **Feminization of Poverty**

Feminization of poverty should be understood as a relative concept based on a women–men comparison. That is if poverty in a society is sharply reduced among men and is only slightly reduced among women, there would be a feminization of poverty. The two concepts for the feminization of poverty are “an increase of women among the poor” and “an increase of female headed households among the poor households,” the latter becoming the core definition (Medeiros & Costa; 2007).Women face discrimination, and are increasingly excluded from socio economic as well as political sector. Mostly, in the urban center, “women are more likely to lose their job than men” (Skalli; 2001:79). Thus, prolonged unemployment often results in women’s

acceptance of low-paid job and greater insertion in the informal sector with the variety of small scale home base activities (Buvinid; 1997).

Particularly, in Nepal, women in general and especially women from lower cast tend to suffer from abject poverty due to discrimination reasons.<sup>42</sup> Thus issues like gender discrimination and social exclusions, among others, have pushed many women in countries like Nepal to the level of abject poverty. The number of women living in poverty is increasing disproportionately to the number of men. Unable to cope with too much work, they hand over child-care responsibilities to older daughters, who then must drop out of school. Thus, deprivation carries from one generation of women to the next, leading to the feminization of poverty (Buvinid; 1997).

Such deteriorated financial state of women has led to a revolutionizing effort by various INGOs and NGOs to promote their socio-economic status. Various efforts by these organizations have motivated the governments of many countries to actively collaborate in launching various financial programs especially designed to ease the condition of households run by women. One of the more successful programs in alleviating grass root level poverty in many developing countries is the pro-poor Micro credit program which helps women to establish survival level businesses.

### **Micro Credit**

Over the past two decades, micro credit program appears as one of the principal strategies in the overall movement to reduce poverty. The economist professor Mohammad Yunus from Bangladesh introduced the concept of micro credit as a process to “extend small loans to poor people for self-employment projects that generate income, allowing them to care for themselves and their families” (Microcredit Summit; 1997). A key assumption is poor people faced high interest rates because of the monopolistic practices of 'money-lenders' and that their very small-sized businesses required cheap credit. Rates were set below the prevailing national money-market rates, and far below the rates charged in local informal credit markets (Rogaly; 1996). Hence, micro credit refer to the provision of financial service including saving, credit and insurance to the poor, those who have not access to formal financial institution. Microcredit helps the poor to achieve household priorities, reduce vulnerability and increase income (Microcredit Summit; 1997) and also helps to “support the poor in reaching self-sufficient and sustainable livelihoods” (Premchander; 2003:365). The supporters of micro credit argue that “key anti-poverty strategy retain the assumptions of the subsidized development finance model” (Rogaly; 1996:102) and also that Micro credit is a “powerful tool in the struggle to end poverty and economic dependence” (Rogaly; 1996:100).

Moreover, micro credit is an important synergy between improving the economic well-being of poor people and fostering institutions that give them a greater opportunity to participate in their society (Micro credit Summit;1997).The credit function of informal

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<sup>42</sup> cast system in Nepal, though abolished by law, is still largely prevalent in society.

finance has received the most widespread attention, particularly as a source of initial working capital for micro enterprises. Intermittent and sometimes reciprocal lending for businesses also takes place between households and can help smooth out short-term cash flow problems and ease longer-term credit constraints (Matin, Hulme & Rutherford; 2002). Thus, Micro credit provides opportunities for poor women to alleviate their financial status through coordinated effort.

Regarding micro credit and its relation with poverty, there is no doubt that micro credit is a poverty reduction strategy with aim to reduce household level poverty. The importance and strength of micro credit can be assessed on the basis of economic, social, political and gender perceptive to address the issue of feminization of poverty. From economic perspective, investment of micro credit in productive sectors helps to increase employment generation, increase production, utilize local resources and promote markets which facilitate to cross the income poverty line and improve the economic status of poor. The availability of reliable and regular micro credit enables the stabilization of income to the poor which helps to smoothing consumption expenditure. The increased incomes and income security can lead to improvement of livelihood.

From social perspective, micro credit always focus on the solidarity group under the basic assumption of building social coherence, developing mechanism for recovery, adjusting collateral problem and encouraging cooperation between member of group. It basically focuses on the poor women which “encourages collective action, helps women to break out of gender and economic barriers, and expand their horizons for their own development as individuals and members of a family, group and community” (Premchander; 2003:367). Thus, the micro credit program makes significant contribution toward building civil society institutions like community based organizations, saving and credit groups and woman groups.

Similarly, political perspective of micro credit for women includes the issue of redistribution of wealth. Hulme & Mosley argue micro credit as being redistributive and direct approach to alleviate poverty to the left, and to the right as facilitating the emergence of an independent, self sustaining livelihood (Mosley & Hulme: 1998). Finally, from gender perspective, targeting women for micro credit has been justified as a means for empowering them. Investing the income generating activity as working capital may be used in purchasing a productive asset. Women have been found to be a better credit risk than men. Their repayment rate always tends to be better than that of men. Benefits are more likely to the whole household.

Among the four important perspectives of micro credit for poor women, I strongly support the gender perspective of micro credit program with regards to empowerment and inclusion paradigms. Due to the inequality and triple role, women are not able to convert their labour to income, income to choice and choice to well being. Focusing of micro credit in women groups help to create decision making opportunities over the resources and enhance the economic role that effect on household welfare. Micro credit facilitates the utilization of women’s idle time by channeling it to income generating activities. Moreover, targeting women for micro credit has been justified as

a means for increasing self sufficiency which make women able to control over the income as well as enhancing knowledge and skill that create further opportunities to poor women. Beside this social, economic and political perspective of micro credit are also equally important for achieving the goal of women headed household poverty reduction.

However, it is hard to determine whether micro credit is always effective in helping those who need it the most. On the one hand, micro credit is a loan and not a subsidy which must be paid back in a certain period of time. On the other hand, poor women need more money for the fulfillment of their basic needs like paying for their children's general needs, transportation fees and housing rent. Hence, those who get credit from the program are at times compelled to spend the money as consumption proposes to fulfill basic family needs rather than invest in survival business or income generating activities. This leaves them unable to repay the loan and interest to the program in time which creates doubt to the sustainability of the individual and the program. Not only this but also group mechanism of credit program is barrier for very poor women member who have no collateral and no alternative way of repayment. Due to the compulsion of repayment and lack of trust among the group member, the targeted poor women have faced the trouble of credit. Another bitter reality is that women in many third world countries like Nepal do not have privilege of making economic decisions. These are generally limited to men and they do not have control over the use of money but are still burdened with responsibility.

Besides, the donor agencies that run the program may shut it down once their agenda is fulfilled. This makes the future of the program and members uncertain. These are the issues that affect the sustainability of the entire program. Rogaly refers that micro credit risks a return to a 'blueprint' approach (the promotion of a uniform model) to anti-poverty action (Rogaly; 1996) which is also known as donor agenda. It does not encourage the participatory approach because the organizational interest can conflict with the goal of the program. Meanwhile, micro credit cannot be assumed to reduce poverty just because it achieves high levels of outreach or almost perfect repayment rates (Rogaly; 1996). Thus, it is not so flexible in terms of poverty reduction and does not address the real problem of poor women because of interest rate, payback period and various other conditions that are determined by donor agencies who always look for a way of repayment. It also has to deal with high transaction and administrative cost which creates extra burden for the poor.

### **Micro Credit for Women**

Since the mid-1980s, micro credit for women has been a popular poverty-alleviation strategy among development agencies. Micro credit is considered as an effective vehicle for women's empowerment and support, and consists most typically of the provision of small loans either to individuals or groups (Leach & Sitaram;2002). However, the access to micro credit is still highly unequal between men and women (Mayoux; 2000). In general, micro-credit for women, routed through self-help groups (SHGs) of women, came to be recognized as a viable strategy; not only for promotion of

women's enterprises, but as a strategy for poverty reduction and women's empowerment (Premchander;2003). Micro credit programs are thus huge boosters in preventing feminization of poverty.

Owing to the importance of micro credit on poor women, serious studies have been done over the years regarding the relationship between these two. These studies have introduced three major paradigms on micro credit and gender; Financial self-sustainability paradigm: Gender lobbies have been able to argue for targeting women on the grounds of high female repayment rates and contribution of women's economic activity to economic growth. In this paradigm, it is assumed that increasing women's access to micro-finance services will in itself lead to individual economic empowerment, well-being and social and political empowerment. Poverty alleviation paradigm: Gender lobbies in this context have argued for targeting women, because of higher levels of female poverty and because of women's responsibility for household well-being. Poverty alleviation and women's empowerment are seen as two sides of the same coin. The assumption is that increasing women's access to micro-finance (together with other interventions to improve household well-being) will in itself increase household income which will then translate into improved well-being for women and enable women to bring about wider changes in gender inequality. Feminist empowerment paradigm: Micro-finance is promoted as an entry point in the context of a wider strategy for women's economic and socio-political empowerment. The focus here is on gender awareness and feminist organization. Some programmes have developed very effective means for integrating gender awareness into programmes and for organizing women and men to challenge and change gender discrimination. Some also have legal rights support for women and engage in gender advocacy (Mayoux; 2000).

Regarding the three aspects of micro credit and gender relationship, poverty alleviation paradigm and feminist empowerment paradigm are the most important paradigms on addressing the feminization of poverty which are quite different from other paradigm but strongly linkage each other. Financial and poverty alleviation paradigm generally focus on income generating activities without considering the sustainability, targeting and inclusiveness. However, feminist empowerment paradigm always refers to actively involvement of target poor women and internalization of program in the community as sustainable point of view.

Women can obtain credit and deposit savings through micro credit programs which gives them a greater economic role in decision-making process. Leach & Sitaram argue that, the rationale for providing women with loans has been that women are disproportionately represented among the poorest in society and need more help than men in securing sustainable livelihoods where women-headed households are usually more vulnerable in times of crisis, as they have fewer resources to draw upon at times of need. (Leach & Sitaram; 2002). When women control decisions regarding credit and savings, they will optimize their own and the household's welfare. The investment in women's economic activities will improve employment opportunities for women and

thus have a 'trickle down and out' effect. Thus women empowerment and poverty alleviation paradigms come hand in hand enabling to reduce feminization of poverty.

Thus, realizing the importance of feminist empowerment and poverty alleviation paradigm of micro credit in alleviating the poverty of women (and the poor in general), many governments in third world countries have collaborated with NGOs and INGOs in developing such programs. One example of such collaboration is found in Nepal, where the government partnered with United National Development Program (UNDP), World Bank and Asian Development Bank (ADB) to form Rural-Urban partnership program (RUPP), Decentralized local governance support program (DLGSP), Poverty alleviation program in order to tackle grass root level poverty that was prevalent in the country. Such programs help to financial empowerment of poor people by targeting the survival enterprise which leads to reduce the feminization of poverty. Micro credit not only provides money but also enhances skill, create social network, reduce exclusion and create space in community for those who have no alternative for live. Empower women only able to proper use of resources in enterprise in spite of consumption and generate income for family welfare which helps to improvement livelihood of whole family. Feminist empowerment paradigm of micro credit is very important for addressing the issue of sustainability of microcredit and exclusion of real targeted marginal people. Looking as gender perspective in micro credit, support to addressing the issue of triple role of women including production, reproduction and community management are the one of the important tools of minimize the women head household poverty.

### **Conclusion**

In most of the developing countries like Nepal, the majority of micro credit scheme is directed at poor women. The aim is to enable these women to realize and empower their fundamental needs and enjoy basic public services provided by the state. Many development agencies have been applying the micro credit as a poverty reduction strategy designed mainly to tackle chronic poverty on urban households run by women. Micro credit programs are vital tools in providing socio-economic stability to poor women, and are therefore important catalysts in uplifting living standards of poor household led by women. These programs not only help in alleviation of feminization of poverty but also act as only lifeline for many underprivileged women. Such programs provide micro credit to empower the poor women where various issues of socio-cultural, economic, political and developmental importance are still unresolved. To a fair extent these programs have been successful and sustainable. However, this success has been somewhat marred by various problems that the micro credit programs face. Extreme poverty, improper use of the credit, issue of repayment and lack of trust among people has considerably affected the success of micro credit programs to address the issue of feminization of poverty. Problems related social exclusion of the poorest and gender biases against the women hamper the functionality of micro credit. These problems pose a big question mark on the long term sustainability of such an important poverty eradication tool like micro credit program.

Finally, micro credit program is an effective tool to counter feminization of poverty which has its own share of problems, but with effective implementation it provides opportunity for women, especially in third world countries, to empower themselves and be financially self-sustainable and thus alleviate grass-root level poverty.

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# **Export Trade Scenario (Specially from 1970-1992) of Nepal Towards India and Some Lessons Learned**

**Dr. Suman Kumar Regmi\***

Export performance of a country is measured in the share of export in GDP/GNP. This ratio differs from country to country depending upon their resource endowments, size, level of development, openness of the economy and the trade policy. The Export-GDP ratios indicate the situation of the economy in relation to the trade indicator and reflect the nature of export trade sector existing in the country. The ratio could be viewed to know the ability of the economy in the context of exports and export production in terms of GDP.

For the past few decades the level of our exports has not been keeping pace with that of the level of the national income or GDP. The share of agricultural products has dominated in the country's GDP. The share of industrial sector is nominal. In Nepal, the change in the agricultural production affects the Export-GDP ratios.

Despite some industrialization and avowed policy favoring export of manufactured products, the export of non-agricultural products could not increase significantly. Domestic consumption resulting in population growth, particularly urban population, has shared a large part of the non-agricultural output.

Nepal's low export-GDP ratio is partly an indicator of its level of development and structure of production but it also reflects its inward-looking trade restricting orientation. Export-GDP ratio suggests that Nepal has very few non-agricultural export items such as carpets, leather, jute goods, ready-made garments, hides and skins and handicrafts. Looking at the experience of individual least developed countries with adjustment, Nepal's export base is small consisting mainly of agricultural and semi-processed products with merchandise-exports. Countries emphasizing the export sector have higher rate of export growth than the overall economic growth.

Nepal's export trade transaction in world export trade is negligible. Thus, increment in export production has no effect on world export trade demand both in quantity and price. Fluctuation in global level demand will have negligible or no impact on Nepal's export due to her negligible amount of participation in world export trade. The share of primary

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exports in Nepal's total exports has lowered in later decades. Nepal's export volume is more or less independent of world trade environment. The only related external trade variable is the export price that is obtainable by the Nepali exporters in the overseas export market. In Nepalese context, the availability of exportable products has led to export expansion. It has been concluded that export value fluctuating trend results either due to changes in export quantity or export price.

Thus, manufacturing sector has become the export earner of the country and acquired a role in export and also contributed to a great extent in meeting the growing domestic demand from local production. It seems that the very rapid growth of non-traditional manufactured goods after the 1980's led to foreign exchange earnings exceeding that of traditional exports of earlier decades. A significant amount of export diversification has occurred since 1985 till 2001 as the share of manufactured goods has increased to 76 percent of total exports. Nepal has also registered recent gains in manufactured exports. One of the major reasons for Nepal's stagnant export level during the past decades was decreasing supply of primary products, mostly food and crude material. And in recent decades, the export of garments, carpets and Pashmina and others.

Nepal's export policy initiated countrywise diversification of exports. Export measures and incentives diverted the country's exports to overseas from India till 2000 and thereafter to India.

The export structure of Nepal shows scattered destinations for the Nepal's exports. Nepal's export destination number more than one hundred and fifty and are found scattered over the six continents. Export still remains concentrated on 8 countries which have covered more than 90 percent of Nepal's export in most of the years.

In south Asia region, a heavy concentration of exports on India is observed. Exports to Bangladesh and Srilanka are found irregular and insignificant. In south-east Asia region, export is found mainly concentrated with Singapore. Though Nepal exports to countries belonging to OECD group, the country's export is mainly centered to nine countries of the group namely, USA, UK, France, Germany, Belgium, Japan, Switzerland, Italy and Netherlands. Amongst the centrally planned economy countries, export is mainly to Russian Federation, Czech, Slovak and China.

Nepal supplies more than 100 commodities to India and overseas. However, more than 25 commodities which seems regular in Nepal's export covers major portion.. The 25 major commodities include raw jute, jute goods, jute cuttings, oilseeds, medicinal herbs, dry ginger, hides and skins, pulses, large cardamom, ready-made garments, handicrafts, maize, ghee, lynden nuts, carpet, Pashmina and woolen goods, zinc oxide, vegetable ghee, acrylic yarn, copper wire, and catechu.

The raw jute export declined due to a major decline in world demand. The raw jute export from Nepal is highly sensitive to international demand conditions primarily because the share of internal consumption in the total production was less.

Out of the total export of medicinal herbs, major portion has been exported to India.

India is the most important market for Nepalese dry ginger.

Till 1979, exports consist mainly of wet blue and vegetable crust lining leathers. The importance of the hides and skins has further been realized seriously due to the dominant role played by the semi-processed hides and skins in the country export trade. Nepalese exports of goat-skins and related products are concentrated to some Asian and West European countries.

Carpet industry in Nepal still suffers from regular supply of raw materials. Irregular supply of quality wool, dyes and cotton yarn and washing machine restricts the growth of carpet export of Nepal. The export carpets from has also declined after 2000.

India is the traditional export market of Nepalese pulse Bangladesh is another market for pulses.

Nepalese handicrafts have special peculiarities for their demand in overseas markets. The export of Nepalese handicrafts product is not yet subject to quantitative restrictions. Mainly, the handicrafts produced in the Kathmandu Valley are exported to overseas.

The share of lynden nuts in the total export has been less than 0.5 percent. Lynden nuts are one of the regular items of export to overseas countries.

Though the export potential of catechu and Kutch appears bright in the short run, in the long run the afforestation of khair trees should be done on a massive scale on a managed way.

Trade transactions without any formal agreement were conducted between Nepal and India before 1923. The relations between Nepal and India have been strengthened during years to years through exchange of a member of high level visits. The trade treaty (1991) containing several new facilities and concessions for promoting Nepal's exports to India is in operation.

Till 1973, 100 percent Nepalese goods had unrestricted entry to India. Nepal's transit trade has been governed by a series of treaties with India. The latest one of 2009 is in operation. The first treaty of trade was with British India in 1923 which was used till 1950. Thereafter, treaties of 1950, 1960, 1971, 1978, and 1991 were applied one after another.

The 1950 treaty of trade and commerce was signed when the Indian Rupee was in circulation in Tarai along with the Nepalese economy. The 1960 treaty of trade and transit had made arrangement for the establishment of a common market between the two countries. Because of the restrictive measures as mentioned in 1971 treaty including preferential treatment, Nepalese products failed to find their way into the Indian market. The industrial products containing not less than 80 percent of Nepalese materials or Nepalese and Indian materials were eligible for tariff concessions in India under this.

As per the treaty of trade (1978), the list of manufactured products allowed for the preferential treatment revealed that most of products mentioned had severe supply constraints and therefore were not feasible for export from the country during the operation period.

On the termination of 1978 treaty in March 1989, the two governments later agreed to carry on trade and transit as per the provisions made in the memorandum of understanding till 1991 after which treaty could be signed after some months of non-

treaty provision. The tussle with India from time to time indicates that Nepal may switch over gradually towards multilateral approach in her foreign trade regime. As a result, Nepal has become WTO member. WTO is based on multilateral trading system. There is numerous reasons to try for better export performance to countries of the region including India where multiple scope exists for Nepalese products.

After the expiry of the 1978 treaty in March 1989, Nepal and India conducted trade on non-treaty provision. After long discussion lasting 15 months, an agreement was signed between Nepal and India those have signed two treaties (trade and transit) separately on Dec. 6, 1991. This was operated with amendments till Oct. 2009 .Now Nepal-India trade is conducted as mentioned in the Nepal-India Trade Treaty of Oct. 2009.

In the context of 15 months' trade impasse with India after March 1989 and before signing this treaty of Dec. 1991, Nepal wished to resolve the current impasse with India expeditiously to their mutual advantage and had made every effort to hold talks on matters of interest for two countries including trade and transit.

Nepal's trade diversion from India to overseas had been reflected on India's share in country's trade between 1970 and 2000. In 1991/92, 12.1 percent of Nepal's total exports went to India, while the country fulfilled 37.1 percent of her total import needs from India. From India's viewpoint, trade with Nepal is a very small part of her total trade. In 1990/91, Nepal's share in India's exports was 0.75 percent while Nepal's share in India's imports was 0.18 percent .Nepal's share in India's exports and imports was 1.50 percent and 0.58 percent respectively in 1970/71 and 1.10 percent and 0.56 percent in 1981/82 respectively. But Nepal's 70 percent share of overseas countries in export trade had shifted to India after 2000. Some determinants of Nepal-India relationship were geographical factors, open border, intertwining of policies and economies and the treaty of trade regime and timely reaction.

Nepal's trade dependence on India has been gradually decreasing till 2000 but increasing after 2000. The country's imports from India which stood at 91.0 percent of her total imports in 1971/72 decreased over the years to reach to 32.1 percent in 1990/91. In 1991/92, the share slightly raised to reach to 37.1 percent. The decline in imports from India was remarkable, particularly from 1980/81 onwards. But Nepal's export and import with India had increased after 2000. It is because of declining of export of garments, carpets and Pashmina to overseas countries after 2000.Under the trade diversification ideology, Nepal imports numerous consumers and luxury products from overseas and India. However, imports of food from the adjoining part of India are cheaper than obtaining from inside the country.

On the face of rapid increase of international prices for most of the Indian products, India demanded the convertible currency for Indian goods imported into Nepal. Such situation will lead to import Indian like products from overseas. As a result, India is still imposing quantitative restrictions on exports of four products to Nepal which are felt shortages in India and still providing import quotas on products indirectly.

On the export side, the declining dependence on India is remarkable since 1985/86 after which the share of India in Nepal's export is less than 50 percent in every year till 1991/92.

But export to India started to increase after 2000 as between 1970 and 2000. Export to India which stood at 65.2 percent in 1971/72 declined over the years to reach to 24.7 percent in 1988/89. The diversification policy neither meaningfully reduced Nepal's dependence on India nor promoted Nepal's exports to third countries on an enduring basis.

Nepal's export diversification cum diversion drive seen through schemes like EEES, SERS, and cash subsidy system, DERS, basket exchange rate system and others led to the change in direction of exports between 1971/72 to 2000. With the incentives measures, the overseas exports for some products like carpets, ready-made garments, hides and skins, handicrafts, lynden nuts etc. have become more profitable. The withdrawal of one and implementation of another export incentive scheme implemented from time to time contributed directly to change in export to India. Trade relations between 1970's and 2000's with other South Asian countries and with European countries started expanding.

In absence of direct cash incentive, export to overseas consist of primary food products became less profitable. As a result, these products were exported to India in smaller quantity due to internal demand for the increased production of the country. Despite these changes in direction of Nepal's trade, trade with India in terms of value, fluctuated over the decades.

Imports from India grew from Rs. 803.7 million in 1971/72 to Rs. 8666.1 million in 1991/92. The average annual growth during the period was 13.9 percent. Exports to India grew from Rs. 338.8 million in 1971/72 to Rs. 1197.6 million in 1991/92. The average annual growth in exports during the period was 14.3 percent.

#### **Terms of Trade**

Due to variation in export quantity data taken from different sources in Nepal for the same year and non-availability of export data for some years, in terms of trade (with India) calculation has become complicated for arriving at true result. But terms of trade with overseas could be completed because of easily availability of export data from one source. But it is assumed that terms of trade with overseas without presenting terms of trade with India has been regarded incomplete considering the total export trade of Nepal. The argument of publishing foreign trade statistics since 1991/92 on an integrated coordinated way among foreign trade publishing bodies has not been implemented.

#### **Composition and Diversification of Nepal's Exports to India**

The composition and commodity concentration of exports to India has been shown more Nepal's composition and concentration of exports to India from 1974/75 to 1990/91. The figures indicated higher weight- age of primary products (SITC 0, 1, 2 and 4) in the country's export composition to India in comparison to export of manufactures (SITC 5,6,7 and 8). In 1974/75, the share of primary exports stood at 92.5 percent till 1990\91. In 1976/77, the share grew to 96.8 percent. Between 1977/78 and 1980/81, a changed tendency (around 95 percent plus/minus 2 %) in the share of primary exports could be observed. However, from 1981/82, the share continued to decline.

The share of manufactures ranged between 2.5 and 24.4 percent during 1974/75 and 1988/89. Consequently, export share of manufactures increased from 9.1 percent in 1974/75 to 21.3 percent in 1988/89. This shift in export composition was mainly due to the increase in export of manufactures. Export of new products has been added to Nepal's export basket to India after 1996 and especially after 2003.

Food export (SITC) shared the most important position in Nepal's exports to India. Food exports, though fluctuating over the period, was found to be less than 50 percent after 1977/78 except in the years 1981/82, 1984/85 and 1989/90. The export of rice which was accounting more than 75 percent of total exports to India till 1975/76, underwent extinction, crude materials, though stood second in position, stuck to the level of 25 percent shares throughout the period. Food export's declining trend was felt due to decline in export of food crops, particularly rice, pulse, maize etc.

The export diversification policy of Nepal had neglected the commodity diversification but has been successful to some extent in marketwise diversification. Since, India was absorbing lesser share in Nepal's export till 1991/92, any diversification plan in future could take into account for the export to India. In view of the import facilitation provision with India on Dec. 6, 1991 trade treaty, it had become more important to enter new products particularly manufactures, in Nepal's export basket to India. The inclusion of 91 products in the list of Nepalese industrial products which had been allowed preferential entry into India in Nepal-India trade treaty (Dec. 1991) had enriched the Nepal-India trade treaty. Only seven items had been kept in renewed 1991 trade treaty and present 2009 Nepal- India Trade Treaty as negative items.

#### **Export items in Nepal's export to India**

Keeping in view the regular export trend between the period 1974/75 to 1991/92, amongst the current export items to India, only eight products (rice, maize, herbs, dried ginger, oilseeds, raw jute, jute goods and ghee) had been seen.

Rice accounted for a large share in Nepal's export to India from 1974/75 to 1984/85 in terms of export volume. Rice export in 1974/75 amounted to Rs. 116.7 million while it increased to Rs. 495.4 million (the highest attainment till the year 1991/92) in 1975/76. In 1984/85, rice export again attained to Rs. 250 million. From 1984/85 onwards, rice export to India declined to reach to Rs. 11 million in 1988/89. This decline was partly due to decline in rice production in the country and partly due to supply of rice to new areas of the country for domestic consumption.

Maize export to India fluctuated ranging between Rs. 0.1 million and Rs. 35.7 million. Between the period 1974/75 and 1990/91, Rs. 0.1 million in 1989/90 was the lowest amount and Rs. 35.7 million in 1985/86 was the highest. The export was more than Rs. 20 million in the years 1980/81, 81/82 and 1985/86. The export was less than Rs. one million in the years 1982/83, 83/84 and 1989/90.

Export of herbs was found to be not so much fluctuated between 1974/75 and 1991/92 except in the years 1979/80, 1980/81, 1984/85, 1985/86, 1987/88, 1988/89 and 1990/91. Though annual export quantity was found to be highly fluctuating between the period

1974/75 to 1982/83, value of exports was found to be less than Rs. 16.5 million. It seems that price attainment from herbs export to India showed gradual deterioration in price of Nepalese in the Indian market. It could be concluded that by far the largest market was India. But exports to India had been constantly decreasing because of the high import tariff levied on Nepalese products in India.

Export of dry ginger increased from Rs. 15 million in 1975/76 to 27.3 million in 1976/77. Between 1976/77 and 1979/80, a decreasing trend was observed in the trend of export. Between 1979/80 and 1981/82, the export quantity of dried ginger stagnated about 1.1 thousand Metric Ton, while the export value increased from Rs. 8.6 million in 1979/80 to Rs. 38.7 million in 1984/85. In 1985/86, the export of dried ginger reached to Rs. 30.3million. Again it increased for two subsequent years. But it decreased to Rs. 9.9 million in 1989/90. The export quantity of dried ginger remained between 3.9 and 10.6 thousand Metric Ton between the period 1983/84 and 1989/90. The export quantity was the highest (10.6 thousand Metric Ton) in 1987/88 between 1983/84 and 1989/90. India was the most important market for Nepalese dry ginger.

Oilseeds export showed the most irregular high fluctuation in the export to India. Oilseeds export in 1974/75 remained at Rs. 29.4 million. In 1975/76, the exports increased to Rs. 40.3 million. From 1976/77 onwards, oilseeds export declined to reach to Rs. 4.5 million in 1977/78. In 1978/79 and 1979/80, no oilseeds export had been recorded though there was rise in production of oilseeds. In 1980/81, 81/82 and 1983/84, oilseeds export amounted to Rs. 18 million, Rs 20 million and 75.5 million respectively. In 1982/83, oilseed had not been exported. Such trend in oilseeds export could indicate the rise in domestic demand for the product. On account of the EEE scheme, raw jute export to India ranged between Rs. 12.9 and Rs. 46.4 million Between 1975/76 and 1977/78. Raw jute export to India remained in 1978/79 with the export of 0.6 thousand Metric Ton of raw jute worth Rs. 2.1 million exporting in the year. Since 1978/79 onwards, a rapid increase in raw jute export was felt except in the years 1985/86, 1990/91 and 1991/92. The export quantity of raw jute was the lowest (0.07 thousand Metric Ton) in 1985/86 and was the highest (11.0 thousand Metric Ton) in the year 1987/88 between the period 1983/84 and 1989/90.

Jute goods were also increased in 1978/79 after jute export to India in lesser value of export between 1975/76 and 1977/78, jute goods export which remained at Rs. 8.2 million in 1978/79 grew to reach to Rs. 260 million in 1984/85 However, from 1985/86 onwards, its export increased more or less amount except in the year 1989/90 in which it remained only Rs. 4.5 million. The export quantity of jute goods ranged between 0.4 thousand Metric Ton and 12.9 thousand Metric Ton between 1983/84 and 1989/90. But the export quantity remained 0.7 thousand Metric Ton in 1979/80 and 22.7 thousand Metric Ton in 1982/83.

Ghee export to India was found to be fluctuating between 1974/75 and 1991/92. The ghee export ranged between Rs. 7.8 million in 1989/90 and Rs. 60.6 million in 1975/76. The ghee export was in increasing trend in the years 1975/76, 1978/79, 1980/81, 1982/83, 1983/84, 1985/86 and 1988/89. Besides these years, the export of ghee was declining. The export quantity of ghee was not more than 2.42 thousand Metric Ton between the period

1974/75 and 1982/83. Besides these eight products, Nepal's export data to India showed occasional export of other products like pulses, rice bran oil, jute cuttings, large cardamom, oilcake, brans, potato, rosin, timber, hides and skins, salseed oil, stones and sand, catechu, kutch, wheat flour, biscuits, oilseeds oil, wooden parquet and others. Nepal exported just 60 items to India till 1992. However, 20 major commodities to India formed 19.2 Percent of the total export and 80.5 percent of the export to India.

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# International Legal Framework for Food Security and Intellectual Property Rights

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## Abstract

This article deals with one of the most pressing problems faced by the modern world, namely the increasing crisis of food security and the sustainable approaches to ensuring its viability in the years to come. This topic is closely linked with the eradication of extreme poverty and hunger, the role of knowledge and technology and the implementation of the respective intellectual property rights.

It is noted that the subsidised agricultural production in developed countries slows down world prices which is not beneficial to agricultural progress in the developing countries.

Special emphasis is put on the development of agricultural biodiversity and its role in ensuring food security. It is underlined that implementing intellectual property rights leads to monopolisation of seeds breeding which turns into market control by a few commercial varieties owned by several powerful companies. This trend creates increasing challenges to food security since dependence just on a few varieties is followed by a considerable decrease of crop productivity.

## Introduction

The question of food security could be analysed from various standpoints– at the level of a separate household, at a country or regional basis, or as a global subject-matter.

A number of international legal instruments have included a reference to food as a basic legally binding right. In accordance with the Universal Declaration of Human Rights everyone has a right to a standard of living adequate for the health and well-being of himself and his family, including food. The right to food was recognised by the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights in 1967.

It was underlined at the World Food Summit held in 1996 that food should not be used as an instrument for political and economic pressure and it was reaffirmed the necessity of refraining from taking measures which are not in accordance with international law and that endanger food security. In 2004, member States of the Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO) adopted a set of 'Voluntary Guidelines' to support the progressive realization of the right to adequate food in the context of national food security.

There is a view that a broader concept of food sovereignty should be adopted which is based on the human right to food, to self-determination, on indigenous rights to

territory, and on the rights of rural peoples to produce food for local markets. At the Forum for Food Sovereignty held in 2007, the participants identified several pillars of food sovereignty, namely, focus on food for people; appreciates food providers; localizes food systems; puts control locally; builds local knowledge and skills; and works closely with nature.

With reference to the FAO State of Food and Agriculture Report issued in 2005, “food security exists when all people, at all times, have physical, social and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food to meet their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life”. Food is a basic condition for life and different types of food play various roles for human beings. Food is used not for sustenance only, but for social, cultural and religious purposes as well.

Under FAO, in 2010 16% of the populations in developing countries were undernourished, down from 18% in 2009, but still well above the target set by the Millennium Development Goal 1C to half to 10% the proportion of undernourished between 1990 and 2015.<sup>43</sup>

The food price crisis and continuing economic crises in general, reduced the purchasing power of a large part of the people in developing countries and hence severely damaged their food security. Food crises could be influenced by a great variety of factors of natural origin and human being-induced such as social and economic circumstances, or provoked by military conflicts and wars.

Food exports from nearly all regions fell or stagnated in 2009 during the economic crisis. It is interesting to note that from 2000 to 2008 Eastern Europe saw cumulative export growth of around 350%. Latin American and the Caribbean region has traditionally been an important supplier of food to global markets. It is calculated that export volumes from North America grew by 24 % but the growth has been dampened by the increasing use of domestic grains for biofuel production. Food imports have been rising more rapidly in Asia than in any other region in the world, increasing by almost 75 % from the year 2000 to 2010.

FAO’s Intergovernmental Groups on Grain and Rice revealed that unexpected price rises and volatility are amongst the major threats to food security. These groups referred to a number of issues to be addressed as follows: the lack of reliable and up-to-date information on crop supply; insufficient market transparency at all levels, including emerging markets; growing linkages with outside markets; unexpected changes triggered by national food security situations.

It was noted in its Report on the right to food issued by the Commission on Human Rights, that despite advocating the benefits of free trade in agriculture, the EU member states, the USA, Japan and other developing countries still heavily protect their

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<sup>43</sup> The various trends in food security referred to in this subtitle is based on the document prepared by the FAO titled “The State of Food and Agriculture 2010-2011”, Rome 2011.

agriculture in order to ensure the production of basic foods.<sup>44</sup> Domestic subsidies encourage national production, which increases supplies on world markets and slows down world prices. Hence, the producers in developing countries are in enormous difficulties competing in their home markets which in turn are detrimental to the agricultural development and food security in these countries.

### **International legal framework for food security**

The international legal framework dealing with food security could be grouped into the following areas: a) human rights treaties; b) international treaties linked with the environment; c) agriculture-related framework; d) legal instruments focused on intellectual property rights and trade.<sup>45</sup> The present analysis is based on the link between the intellectual property rights and various international legal instruments.

#### **Human Rights Related Treaties**

The International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights provides the legal basis for the right to adequate food and the right to be free from hunger. The right to food is realised when all human beings have economic access to food or means for its procurement. Taking into account the problems of both food-importing and food-exporting countries, States Parties have an obligation to ensure an equitable distribution of world food supplies in relation to need. Promoting sharing of knowledge is ensured by the right to “benefit from the protection of the moral and material interests resulting from any scientific, literary or artistic production of which he is the author”.<sup>46</sup>

Human rights treaty bodies recommend that governments, international organisations and private actors consider the human rights norm when negotiating intellectual property rights in order to promote the effective realization of the right to food.

#### **International Treaties Linked with the Environment**

The *Convention on Biological Diversity (Biodiversity Convention)*<sup>47</sup> contains several important contributions related to food security and intellectual property rights. The establishment of a special programme on agro-biodiversity in 1996, which aims at promoting the conservation and sustainable use of genetic resources for food and agriculture, deserves special mention. In accordance with Art. 16 of the Biodiversity Convention, the intellectual property rights should not undermine the Convention. It is

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<sup>44</sup> Commission on Human Rights. The right to food. Report submitted by the Special Rapporteur on the right to food Jean Ziegler, in accordance with Commission on Human Rights resolution 2003/25, E/CN.4/2004/10, 9 February 2004, para. 31.

<sup>45</sup> CULLET Philippe. Food security and intellectual property rights in developing countries. Graduate Institute of Development Studies. Geneva, March 2004, p. 17.

<sup>46</sup> Art. 15 (c), International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, available at <http://www2.ohchr.org/english/law/cescr.htm>

<sup>47</sup> The Biodiversity Convention is available at <http://www.cbd.int/doc/legal/cbd-en.pdf>

recognised that the patents and other intellectual rights may have an influence on its implementation and hence, the contracting parties should cooperate in this regard, subject to international law and national legislation in order to ensure that such rights are supportive of and do not run counter to the Convention's objective.

The Biodiversity Convention provides a framework for protection of the sovereign rights of states over their natural resources, while facilitating access by users on mutually agreed terms. The member states have an obligation to respect, preserve and maintain knowledge, innovations and practices of indigenous and local communities pertaining to the management of biological resources, promote their wider application with prior informed consent and encourage the equitable sharing of the benefits arising from such utilisation.

While the Biodiversity Convention has addressed the role of traditional lifestyles and knowledge for the conservation and sustainable use of biological diversity, it has not dealt with the question of ownership of the biodiversity-related traditional knowledge which is one of the open issues of the current international law.

**The Cartagena Protocol on Biosafety** is a subsidiary legal instrument of the Biodiversity Convention with important impact on food security and intellectual property rights. Biosafety is a term described by the Biodiversity Convention as the efforts to reduce and eliminate the potential risks of living modified organisms resulting from biotechnology and its products. The link between intellectual property rights and biosafety relates to the fact that these rights over the genes provide the proprietor firms relevant control on the environments where the genes have been released. After several years of negotiations, Parties to the Biosafety Protocol finalised in October 2010 a new treaty known as the **Nagoya-Kuala Lumpur Supplementary Protocol on Liability and Redress to the Cartagena Protocol on Biosafety**. The Supplementary Protocol established international rules and procedures for liability and redress in case of damage to biological diversity resulting from living modified organisms. This instrument is considered as playing a role in preventing damage on the one hand and as a confidence-building measure, on the other, in the development and application of modern biotechnology.

The **Nagoya Protocol on access to genetic resources and the fair and equitable sharing of benefits arising from their utilization to the Convention on biological diversity**<sup>48</sup> is an important legal instrument of direct relevance to food security. Although the Biodiversity Convention had already established the fair and equitable sharing of benefits as one of its key objectives, it has remained unimplemented mainly because of the lack of a respective normative framework. The role of indigenous and local communities in the utilization of genetic resources has been indirectly mentioned in relation to traditional knowledge. The Nagoya Protocol points out however that the use

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<sup>48</sup> Nagoya Protocol on access to genetic resources and the fair and equitable sharing of benefits arising from their utilization is available at <http://www.cbd.int/abs/doc/protocol/nagoya-protocol-en.pdf>

of genetic resources should take place with the prior informed consent of indigenous and local communities, in cases where they have the right to grant access to such resources. In addition, benefits resulting from the use of genetic resources should be shared with those communities. Such practices have already been required by some standards such as that of the Union of Ethical BioTrade.

The Nagoya Protocol does not contain an explicit reference to patents or other intellectual property rights. Nevertheless, the contribution by the World Intellectual Property Organization (WIPO) on traditional knowledge, for instance, should be considered in the light of the Nagoya Protocol, provided that it is supportive of and does not run counter to the objectives of the Protocol. This legal instrument does not include either a list of mandatory checkpoints among which to include patent offices, as had been proposed by many biodiversity-rich developing countries. It is assumed however that the modern patent practices will take into account access and benefit-sharing requirements.

The **United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification**<sup>49</sup> is of particular importance to some aspects of food security. The Convention recognises the interrelationship between desertification and socio-economic problems such as food security. The Parties facilitate access, in particular by affected developing country Parties, on favourable terms, taking into account the need to protect intellectual property rights, to technologies which are most suitable to practical application for specific needs of local populations.

#### **Agriculture-related framework**

FAO has logically been a key player in elaborating the food security related international normative framework. There are two basic instruments sponsored by FAO, namely the 1983 **International Undertaking for Plant Genetic Resources** (International Undertaking)<sup>50</sup> and the 2001 **International Treaty on Plant Genetic Resources for Food and Agriculture** (PGRFA Treaty)<sup>51</sup>.

Traditionally plant genetic resources for food were freely exchanged since they had been considered as a common heritage of mankind. This idea was embodied in the 1983 International Undertaking under which plant genetic resources should be made available to anyone without restriction. The International Undertaking was adopted as a non-legally binding conference resolution. The concept of free availability of such resources was not acceptable however for those developed states interested in genetic engineering. The United Nations Conference on Environment and Development called

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<sup>49</sup> The United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification is available at <http://www.unccd.int/convention/text/convention.php>

<sup>50</sup> International Undertaking for Plant Genetic Resource, Res. 8/83, *Report of the Conference of FAO, 22<sup>nd</sup> Session, Rome, 5-23 November 1983.*

<sup>51</sup> The International Treaty for Plant Genetic Resources for Food and Agriculture is available at <ftp://ftp.fao.org/docrep/fao/011/i0510e/i0510e.pdf>

for the strengthening of the FAO Global System on Plant Genetic Resources,<sup>52</sup> and for updating it in accordance with results of the negotiations on the Biodiversity Convention. The PGRFA Treaty was agreed upon as a legally binding instrument, focusing on the conservation of plant genetic resources, their sustainable use and benefit-sharing. One of the main features of this treaty is its focus on the interrelationship between plant genetic conservation, intellectual property rights, sustainable agriculture and food security. In addition, farmers' rights have been addressed for the first time, although the farmers' contribution to plant genetic resource conservation does not explicitly include property rights. The respective recognised rights in accordance with Art. 9 (3) of the PGRFA Treaty are the residual rights to save, use, exchange and sell farm-saved seeds. Under the treaty access to plant genetic resources for food and agriculture protected by intellectual and other property rights should be consistent with relevant international agreements, and with relevant national laws.

An important role in alleviating poverty and ensuring food security has been played by the Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research (CGIAR). The group performed its mandate mainly through the development of freely accessible *ex situ* collections and the production of freely available improved varieties. The Consortium of International Agricultural Research Centers was established in April 2010, as part of a major reform of the CGIAR. The Consortium was formed to ensure closer alignment with the needs of partners and beneficiaries, and to lead, coordinate, and support the 15 member Centers that make up the Consortium, some of which have been carrying out agricultural research with resource-poor farmers, and their communities, for over 50 years. The Centres do not normally provide international property protection for their designated germplasm and require recipients to observe the same policy.

#### **Legal instruments focused on intellectual property rights and trade**

##### ***The International Convention for the Protection of New Varieties of Plants (UPOV Convention)***

The UPOV Convention was adopted in Paris in 1961 and entered into force in 1968. It was revised in 1972 and more substantially in 1978 and 1991. In parallel with the process of elaborating the UPOV, the Council of Europe has finalised the 1963 Convention on the Unification of Certain Points of Substantive Law on Patents for Invention.

The UPOV's provisions<sup>53</sup> deal with the plant varieties covered the protection requirements, scope and length of protection, breeders' exemption and farmers' privilege. To join the International Union for the protection of new varieties of plants,

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<sup>52</sup> FAO has been developing a Global System for the Conservation and Utilization of Plant Genetic Resources for food and agriculture since 1983.

<sup>53</sup> The text of the International Convention for the Protection of the New Varieties of Plants is available at <http://www.upov.int/en/publications/conventions/1991/act1991.htm>

states are required to set up plant variety protection (PVP) regimes which are in compliance with the UPOV Convention's provisions.

The breeder's rights are granted when the variety is new, distinct, uniform and stable. To be new, the variety needs, at the date of filing of the application for a breeder's right, not to have been offered for sale or marketed with the agreement of the breeder or his successor in title. The variety is considered to be distinct if it is clearly distinguishable from any other variety whose existence is a matter of common knowledge anywhere in the world. The variety is deemed to be stable if its relevant characteristics remain unchanged after repeated propagation or, in the case of a particular cycle of propagation, at the end of each such cycle. A variety is uniform if, subject to the variation that may be expected from the particular features of its propagation, it is sufficiently uniform in its relevant characteristics.

A breeder is not simply the introducer of a discovered plant variety since the introduced material would not be distinguished from already known varieties. A Breeder should not be an improver either as improvement is not a requirement for protection.<sup>54</sup>

Unlike patents regime, there is no disclosure requirement and applicants are required to submit evidence to the competent government authority of the respective contracting party for testing to ensure that the eligibility requirements referred to above have been met.

The UPOV 1991 increases the activities for which prior authorization of the breeder is necessary, namely, production or reproduction, conditioning for the purpose of propagation, offering for sale, selling or other marketing, exporting, importing and stocking for any of the above purposes. The scope was extended and by including harvested material obtained through an illegitimate use of propagating material and so-called essentially derived varieties. Unlike the original UPOV Convention, which had envisaged a concurrent protection by patent and by breeders' rights for a given genus or species, the UPOV 1991 apply to all plant varieties and allows the concurrent protection by both breeders' rights and by a patent.

***Agreement on Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS Agreement)***

An important move in the regime of the intellectual property rights took place by the inclusion of intellectual property into the international legal regime. This stage has ensured the intellectual property protection of new sectors and activities, in particular agriculture. TRIPS Agreement<sup>55</sup> has been in force since 1995 and is to date the most comprehensive multilateral agreement on intellectual property. It introduced global standards for protecting and enforcing nearly all forms of intellectual property rights,

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<sup>54</sup> LIGHTBOURNE Muriel. Food Security, Biological Diversity and Intellectual Property Rights. UK, 2009, p. 43.

<sup>55</sup> TRIPS Agreement is available at [http://www.wto.org/english/tratop\\_e/trips\\_e/t\\_agm0\\_e.htm](http://www.wto.org/english/tratop_e/trips_e/t_agm0_e.htm)

including those for patents. The main characteristics of the TRIPS Agreement are the following:

- Its wide-ranging scope covering the major intellectual property disciplines by introducing minimum standards in each of them;
- The inclusion of the enforcement of intellectual property rights, which have been guaranteed by respective administrative, civil and criminal procedures, including border measures;
- The incorporation of the main components of the international trading system and in particular the national treatment and most favoured nation (MFN) treatment into the intellectual property rights. Another effect for merging the intellectual property and the trading system is the use of WTO principles for effective procedures for the multilateral prevention and settlement of disputes between governments.

TRIPS Agreement covers various types of intellectual property rights, such as copyright, trademarks, industrial designs, geographical indications, patents, protection of layout designs and protection of undisclosed information. The protection and enforcement of the intellectual property rights should contribute both to the promotion of technological innovation and to the transfer and dissemination of technology in a manner conducive to social and economic welfare.

Art. 27 (1) of TRIPS Agreement provides that patents should be available for any inventions, whether products or processes, in all fields of technology, provided that they are new, involve an inventive step and are capable of industrial application. Patentability might be excluded where it is necessary to protect *ordre public* or morality, including to protect human, animal or plant life or health or to avoid serious prejudice to the environment.

One of the most contentious provisions discussed during the TRIPS Agreement negotiations was the text incorporated in Art. 27.3 (b). It describes inventions that members *may* exclude from patentability, namely plants and animals other than microorganisms and that members shall provide for the protection of plant varieties by patents or by an effective *sui generis* system. This legal instrument did not refer to a specific mechanism for protection, as it would have been, for instance the breeders' rights regime established in the UPOV Convention. In the bilateral free trade agreements concluded between on one side the EU, EFTA and USA and on the other a number of developing countries, the UPOV Convention has been explicitly referred to as one of the intellectual protection treaties that the parties should subscribe to. Over the last several years, a new trend has been under way in which bilateral trade agreements mandate moves to the domestic intellectual property laws, resulting in

laws that exceed the standards agreed to at the WTO, so these agreements are known as “TRIPS-plus”<sup>56</sup>.

A number of developing countries have expressed their concerns on various occasions in regard to the possibility for patenting of life forms. Given the fact that the TRIPS Agreement does not offer a definition of a micro-organism, therefore it provides some room for flexibility. Of particular importance is the concern about the introduction of protection of plant varieties – an area in which most developing countries had none before the entry into force of the TRIPS Agreement.

The relationship between the Biodiversity Convention and the TRIPS Agreement has provoked various views on their compatibility or inconsistency. The Biodiversity Convention provides access to genetic material subject to prior informed consent of and fair and equitable sharing of benefits with the contracting party providing the respective genetic resources. The issues of possible misappropriation of genetic resources by developed country patent applicants have repeatedly been raised by a number of developing countries. Developed countries have taken the view that an eventual inclusion of this issue in WIPO Patent Law Treaty would add a new basic requirement for patentability, in addition to novelty, inventive step and industrial application.

***The Agreement on Sanitary and Phytosanitary Measures*** as well as the ***Technical Barriers to Trade Agreement*** take an important place in the legal framework of the right to food. These legal instruments identify rules for setting national standards and regulations relating to sanitary and phytosanitary measures as well as technical requirements for food safety and quality with a view not to unduly restrict trade.

### **Role of intellectual property rights in ensuring food security and some unresolved issues**

Intellectual property could be defined as creations of the mind in relation to which the state confers a statutory monopoly for a prescribed term to prevent their unauthorized exploitation in order to encourage invention and innovation, technology transfer and investment.<sup>57</sup>

The Convention establishing the WIPO concluded in Stockholm on 14 July 1967, defines intellectual property as rights relating to the following: literary, artistic and scientific works; performances of performing artists, phonograms and broadcasts; inventions in all fields of human endeavour; scientific discoveries; industrial designs; trademarks, service marks and commercial names and designations; protection against unfair competition. Since the date of the Stockholm Convention, intellectual property rights have been considered to connect to plant varieties, trade secrets and confidential information, and expressions of folklore. The main categories of intellectual property

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<sup>56</sup> LINDSTROM Beatrice. Scaling back TRIPS-plus: An analysis of intellectual property provisions in trade agreements and implications for Asia and the Pacific. *Journal of International Law and Politics*. Vol. 42, 2010.

<sup>57</sup> BLAKENEY Michael. Intellectual Property Rights and Food Security. 2009, p. 22.

relevant to food security are: plant varieties rights, patents, industrial designs, trademarks, geographical indications, confidential information, copyright and database rights.

The need to enhance the food security in developing countries necessitates adequate policies for supply, distribution and consumption elements of the food chain. The FAO has noted that the availability of policy options to poor countries have been hampered by several factors including:

- Limited resources for public spending programmes;
- The dilemma between remunerative prices for local producers and prices that a large number of poor households can afford, thus making border protection less attractive, despite high bound tariffs;
- Major constraints on foreign exchange availability leading to pressure to boost production of export crops.<sup>58</sup>

An important question is whether the implementation of the intellectual property rights and patents in particular, always serve as an incentive for food security. Certainly, along with their indispensable role in promoting the state-of-the-art science and technology, there are occasions which demonstrate that it is not the case. A failure to meet the validity standards for instance, may be the result of known use of a substance or an obvious starting step in a process. This course of action would result in significant social costs when the IPRs are improperly awarded.<sup>59</sup>

Certainly, there might be cases in which permitted strong intellectual property claims over genetic material may produce negative effects on research and innovation at the expense of wider policy objectives such as conservation and sustainable use of biodiversity, agriculture, human rights and trade. This conclusion is based on the report submitted by the European Community to the third meeting of the Ad-Hoc Open-Ended Working Group on Access and Benefit-Sharing of the Biodiversity Convention.<sup>60</sup>

An emerging issue relates to the harmonisation of the existing international legal framework that should follow the same standards of protection. Having said that each individual country should have the opportunity to set up systems for intellectual property protection taking into account its specific economic conditions and achieving broader development objectives. A certain degree of freedom was provided by the TRIPS Agreement and ensured by the respective *sui generis* clause for governments to tailor such systems to address various aspects of food security. Hence, certain countries

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<sup>58</sup> FAO. Incorporating Food Security Concerns in a Revised Agreement on Agriculture. FAO Round Table on Food Security in the Context of the WTO Negotiations on Agriculture. Discussion paper, 20 July 2001.

<sup>59</sup> MERGES Robert. Intellectual Property Rights, Input Markets and the Value of Intangible Assets. Available at <http://www.law.berkeley.edu/files/iprights.pdf>

<sup>60</sup> OLDHAM, Paul. *Global Status and Trends in Intellectual Property Claims: Genomics, Proteomics and Biotechnology*. Available in document UNEP/CBD/WG-ABS/3/INF/4, Bangkok, 11 January 2005.

are states parties to the UPOV convention, whereas some others could use other alternatives. For instance, as much importance is attached to the interests of farmers as of those of breeders in the African Model Legislation for the Protection of the Rights of Local Communities, Farmers and Breeders, and for the Regulation of Access to Biological Resources. This model law developed in the year 2000 by the African Union (formerly the Organisation the Organization for African Union) is available for consideration by the member governments. A system for the protection of plant variety rights has been established by the European Union legislation and has been operating since 27 April 1995. The system allows intellectual property rights, valid throughout the EU, to be granted for plant varieties.

The exercise of the intellectual property rights objectively leads to monopolization of seeds breeding which further turns into market domination by a few commercial varieties. This phenomenon creates increasing risks to food security since dependence on just a few varieties is followed by a considerable drop of crop productivity, especially in distorted weather conditions.

The Biodiversity Convention underlined the inapplicability of the 'common heritage' concept for plant genetic resources, pointing out the 'state sovereignty' over natural resources. In accordance with Art. 15 of this legal instrument, national governments have the authority to determine the access to genetic resources which is subject to prior informed consent of the provider country and the fair and equitable share of benefits. It is assumed that the exercise of such authority will provide an opportunity to benefit from industrial use of their biogenetic resources which in turn would ensure food security. However, there are a number of reasons to question the bargaining position of individual developing countries as follows:

- Countries lack the scientific and technological capacity to capture the benefits from agro-biodiversity themselves.
- Apportioning the benefits in a fair manner maybe unfeasible, since new plant varieties are often the product of generations of breeding and cross-breeding by farmers throughout the world.
- Countries are increasingly interdependent and not even biodiversity-rich developing countries are self-sufficient. Practically, every country is dependent upon non-indigenous genetic resources essential for food and agriculture.
- The concentration of the world's biodiversity richness in the tropical zone many not necessarily correspond with the geography of agro richness, especially of the major food crops.<sup>61</sup>

Certain aspects of food security relate to the development dimension of the intellectual property rights and especially the protection and promotion of the traditional

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<sup>61</sup>TANSEY Geoff, RAJOTTE Tasmin. The Future Control of Food. A Guide to International Negotiations and Rules on Intellectual Property, Biodiversity and Food Security. 2008, p. 158-159.

knowledge and genetic resources and promoting organic agriculture as an opportunity for sustainable development. The UN Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) is the main international player in examining the trade and intellectual property rights issues from a development perspective. UNCTAD aims at elaborating and offering policy options that respect the rights of traditional knowledge holders, as well as identifying certain practical measures to ensure the legal recognition of the customary practices and knowledge ownership of local communities.

UNCTAD is working closely with the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) to develop initiatives for organic agriculture in East Africa. UNCTAD is also cooperating with the FAO and the International Federation of Organic Agriculture Movements (IFOAM) for harmonizing the standards and regulations faced by organic exporters. IFOAM is the worldwide umbrella organization for the organic movement, uniting more than 750 member organizations in 116 countries. IFOAM provides a market guarantee for integrity of organic claims. The Organic Guarantee System represents a common system of standards, verification and market identity.

UNCTAD works actively as well as with the International Centre for Trade and Sustainable Development (ICTSD) on the capacity building, especially for the least developed countries. In addition, the UNCTAD BioTrade Initiative promotes trade and investment in biological resources in accordance with the objectives of the Biodiversity Convention. BioTrade refers to those activities of collection, production, transformation, and commercialization of goods and services derived from native biodiversity from the perspective of environmental, social and economic sustainability. Since 2003 the BioTrade Initiative has hosted the BioTrade Facilitation Programme which focuses on enhancing sustainable bio-resources management, product development, value adding processing and marketing.

The role of IPRs is stimulating the agricultural knowledge, science and technology and on that basis ensuring the food security, is indispensable. There are however some areas of concern<sup>62</sup>, which could be summarised as follows:

First, there are certain difficulties in using IPRs as an efficient tool for resolving the problems of food security, based on the costs and formal requirements which are often hard to be met by experts from developing countries. Patents and other IPR instruments hinder access to and exchange of research materials necessary for independent analysis and long-term experimentation on impacts.

Second, the IPRs enhance the dependency of small farmers and breeders on a small number of powerful multinational companies holding patents on their seed or other inputs. Under the IPR arrangements, the scientific knowledge is a private item and this assumption changes fundamentally the relationships within the scientific community and between that community and other partners.

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<sup>62</sup> See more details in: Agriculture at a crossroads: food for survival. Greenpeace International. The Netherlands. October 2009, p. 49-51.

Third, IPR systems in agricultural areas profile the interactions and investments in a way that places the economic incentives above long-term sustainability and public interest. The obligation to secure possible patent claims in advance of sharing new findings does not stimulate the freedom and speed of scientific exchange. IPRs on research tools, products and processes potentially leads to underutilisation of technologies.

A special emphasis should be put on the unresolved subject-matter in traditional and indigenous systems. These systems quite often do not respond to western standards of publication and disclosure, nor do local farmer communities have clear views of private ownership of knowledge on plant genetic resources.

Alternatives for resolving at least part of these concerns include strengthening the capacity of those countries and local farmers who do not benefit from IPRs in order to defend their interests at the WTO, bilateral trade and institutional cooperation agreements.

### **Conclusion**

Various aspects of the relationship between intellectual property and food security could be considered from a different perspective. Above all, policy capacity building requires a multi-disciplinary approach, so in addition to law and regulations, food security and intellectual property should take into consideration economics and finance, science and technology, ethics, medicine, agriculture and culture in general.

The rights of the source countries where intellectual property rights are obtained over biological resources should be recognised. In practical terms, it is often difficult to distinguish the source of plant derivatives where genetic material may contain elements from several sources which have not been properly documented.

A number of provisions laid down in the TRIPS Agreement and the Biodiversity Convention require promotion of international technical and scientific cooperation in the field of sustainable use of biological diversity. There is no convincing evidence that these provisions have been implemented for various reasons. The technology transfer for traditional food crops could be determined upon the food security requirements of developing countries. In addition, the right of farmers to save and exchange seed should be supported, as well as the implementation of the exception from liability of research utilizing protected varieties.

Finally, it should be pointed out that the intellectual property rights protection for biotechnology innovation is only part of the policy options for improvement of food security for developing countries. The food security challenges could be successfully resolved in combination with other measures, including reforming trade policies and enhancing the role of science and technology, in particular the genomics and synthetic biology.

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