

Political Representation of Gender in Nepal

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Abstract

This paper is based on qualitative methods and discusses women's struggle for equal political participation, currently successful in the political representation of gender in Nepal. The aim of this paper is to examine the establishing equal representation in all sectors of elected government and to find out the inclusive participation of male and female in Nepalese, politics and parliament in together. It is based on completely secondary sources of data through the published in different governmental (election commission, 2074) and non-governmental organization. Nepal has been undergoing tremendous socio-political transformations over the past three decades, unitary to federal and monarchical government to the current republican political system; Nepali women have established themselves as key actors of socio-political changes. Nepali women began their struggle during the Rana Regime and advanced since the 1950s, by engaging both in popular peaceful political movements to armed insurgency and parliamentary competition with their male political counterparts. As a result, latest constitution of Nepal ensured 33% of seats are guaranteed to the parliaments and all other government positions as well as provision of male-female alternates eat provisions. As a result, from the national and local elections of 2017-18, women have come to occupy 41.8 percent political positions across the country. One of the key factors to ensure higher and meaningful participation of women in politics was these favorable electoral provisions. Women have demonstrated success in achieving higher participation in political positions. However, what has been achieved so far is not enough and continued rigorous action among all actors is essential.

Keywords: Women in politics, gender representation, political processes, political participation and parliament

Introduction

Gender inclusion is defined that the “Gender representation and women empowerment as well as the active participation of women in political, economic, social and cultural life should be promoted. For women to be able to fully exercise their human rights, gender perspectives have to be mainstreamed in all inclusive urban policies UNESCO (2017). Social exclusion is defined by the Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the United Nations as the involuntary exclusion of individuals and groups from society’s political, economic and societal processes, which prevents their full participation in the society in which they live. Gender equality and social inclusion are seen as not only a fundamental aspect of human rights and social justice, but also a precondition to improve the development process by putting social concerns at the forefront of interventions. In Nepal, Local Government has long history. It was in existence in ancient time in different forms. The history of local government has evolved since Lichhavi Regime. In that era grass root units of the government were names Gram Panchyat, which was the upper level institution

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than 'gram' (Upadhyaya, 1995). *Panchali* can be considered as an ideal of self-governance. Pradhan was the head of Panchali which was highly respected in the society having close approach to king and performed development tasks along with maintaining rules and regulations in the village.

The Rana's period was a perfect model of absolute authority. The king was virtually caged in palace. The Ranas usurped power to amass wealth and consolidate their hold in all possible manners (Sharma, 1998). In Rana regime there was a system which they followed precious battlement as "Manayajan" Kachari. The jams court was a Panchayat section formed legally in 1983 B.S. in Dang and Deukhuri District. It was local courts first of its kind in the history of Nepal. General members of this court, who at first were elected by the public, would nominate Patwari, the head of the court (Paneru, 2002).

In 1949 two main acts were enforced by the Rana Prime Minister Mohan Shamsher. There were Gram Panchayat Justice Act and Panchayat Act, which delegated the Gram panchayat, the right to make certain extension within a ceiling and also provide some special authority in terms of giving justice and penalizing the criminal (Bista, 1999 & Paneru, 2002).

After Rana Regime, the historic democracy was established in 1950. Then Panchayat Act 1956 was enforced to ensure reforms and development in the Panchayat/village. In 1960, after the Collapsing the democracy, party less Panchayat system was established, the traditional connotation of Panchayat was the informal countries of elderly and respectable people at the local level settle social or property districts. The Panchayat system consisted of three times hierarchy with the village and Town Panchayat at the grass root level, the district Panchayat at the middle level and the national Panchayat at the central level. For all practice purpose the District Panchayat was considered the local level (Sharma, 1998). There was Zonal Panchayat at the beginning but it was removed with the first amendment to the constitution.

There were different Acts which were acted to strength then and improve the situation of local bodies. These were amended along with time passes. The village, town and district Panchayat acts, 1961-62, Local Administration Plan 1974, integrated Panchayat Development Plan 1976, decentralization Act, 1982 were same acts and other major activities which has great significance in Panchayat period for local government. In 1989, Panchayat was dismissed and multi-party democratic parliamentary system was established, but the Panchayat framework for government was followed as it was with changing the name only village development committee, municipality and district development committee. Later than different provisions have been made to strengthen and promote the local governance system as local bodies ACT 1992, local self-governance bill 1996, ordinance and Amendment of certain laws regarding organization and election of local bodies, 1997 and local self-government bill, 1997. There are different rules and regulations which have been implemented for strengthening the local self-governance institutions. The history of decentralization and local self-governance in Nepal is not long and thus it is not very fascination. As we know, Nepal has had long history of highly centralized system of government and the principle of local government had never been seriously thought over

the past. Local bodies have been operating as agents or branches of the central government performing its duties and relying heavily on it for administrative, functional and financial support (Thapa, 1998). UNICEF (2011) Gender equality "means that women and men, and girls and boys, enjoy the same rights, resources, opportunities and protections. It does not require that girls and boys, or women and men, be the same, or that they be treated exactly alike." As defined by the United Nations (2013), gender equality refers to the equal rights, responsibilities and opportunities of women and men and girls and boys. Social exclusion is defined by the Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the United Nations as the involuntary exclusion of individuals and groups from society's political, economic and societal processes, which prevents their full participation in the society in which they live. Gender equality and social inclusion are seen as not only a fundamental aspect of human rights and social justice, but also a precondition to improve the development process by putting social concerns at the forefront of interventions. This article is based on establishing the gender representation in all sectors of elected government area and to find the inclusive participation of male and female in Nepalese politics.

Methodology

This paper developed process, the descriptive research design was used and based the literature review and, secondary sources of data. All available secondary data related with this paper and reports, Nepal Election commission reports (2074) and other journals, articles, constitutional books and books. This means secondary information was collected at multiple sources viz. libraries, Nepal Election Commission, governmental and non-governmental offices to ensure the reliability of this paper. Triangulation of data is a major concern and this research attempts to present qualitative gender des-aggregated data relating to the elected members in local government.

Results

Women candidates of Nepal

Table 1: Women participation on government in different periods

Period	Results for women candidates
Lichhavi Period (400 to 750 CE)	The government were names Gram Panchyat was the upper level institution than 'gram' (Upadhayaya, 1995). <i>Panchali</i> can be considered as an ideal of self-governance. Pradhan was the head of Panchali which was highly respected in the society having close approach to king
Malla period (1201-1779) 12th century to the 18th century (about 600 years)	This era in the valley is eminent for the various social and economic reforms such as the 'Sanskritization' of the valley people, new methods of land measurement and allocation, etc
Shah Dynesty (1768 to 28 May 2008)	Shahs of Gorkha or the Royal House of Gorkha , was the ruling Chaubise Thakuri dynasty from the India subcontinent and derived from the Gorkha Kingdom from 1559 to 1768 and later the nified Kingdom of Nepal from 1768 to 28 May 2008.

Rana Regmi (1830-2007 BS)	The Ranas usurped power to amass wealth and consolidate their hold in all possible manners (Sharma, 1998). In Rana regime there was a system which they followed precious battlement as "Manayajan" Kachari. General members of this court, who at first were elected by the public, would nominate Patwari, the head of the court (Paneru, 2002). In 1949 two main acts were enforced by the Rana Prime Minister Gram Panchyat Justice Act and Panchyat Act these acts delegated the Gram panchyat, the right to make certain extension with in a ceiling and also provide some special authority in terms of giving justice and penalizing the criminal (Bista, 1999, Paneru, 2002). Under the leadership of Yogmaya Neupane (1860-1941), Nepali women began their struggle during the Rana Regime and advanced since the 1950s, by engaging both in popular peaceful political movements to armed insurgency and parliamentary competition with their male political counterparts.
1959 Parliamentary Election	6 (Six) women contesting in election lost where total 109 men were elected (Suwal,2 013)
Rastriya panchayat 1986 (Legislative) election	Out of total 140 members, 3 women were elected (Mongbay 2013)
Parliamentary, 1991	205 legislative representatives only 7 (3.4%) women were elected (Yemi-2010)
Parliamentary and Local Bodies, 1999	12 (5.85) of 205 members of parliaments were women and 806 (19.4%) of total 4146 local elected representatives were women (UNESCO), (2001)
Constituent Assembly, 2008	30 out of 240 elected CA members were women of the total 601 CA members (Election commission, 2008)
Constituent Assembly, 2013	Out of 240 elected candidates total to (4.1%) candidates were women (Shahi, 2013).

Source: Literature Review, 2020.

Armed conflict, the peace agreement, and women's engagement

Developing countries are of ten prone to civil unrest in comparison to developed countries, because of high poverty rates and inequality, pervasive gender-based discrimination, high unemployment, poor governance, and frequent changes in government (Upreti, 2009; Sharma, 2006). On these grounds, the Communist Party of Nepal (Maoist) [CPN (Maoist)] at the time initiated an armed insurrection in February, 1996 (Yami, 2007). The insurgency created huge destruction: according to the Ministry of Peace and Reconstruction, 17886 people were killed, 1530 were disappeared, 79571 persons were displaced, 3142 persons were abducted, 8935 persons were disabled, 9000 women became widows, 620 children became orphans, and the property of 17484 people was damaged, causing the country multi-billion in economic losses" (Upreti et al. 2018: P78). With pressure on all areas of life for the Nepali people, the government and the CPN (Maoist) came to sign a Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) on 21 November 2006 (Upreti, 2009). Consequently, with the promulgation of the new Constitution in September of 2015, the country entered into a Federal Democratic Republic with 7 Provinces and 753 local governments, in which 41% were women elected at all levels of the new governments.

Women in the 2006 reinstated parliament

The 19 days of *Jan Andolan II* forced King Gyanendra to handover state power to political parties and reinstate the dissolved House of Representatives as per the demand of the agitating political parties. During this time, the rebelling political parties asked the Speaker to organize a parliamentary street meeting, but he favored the King and refused to call a street meeting of Parliament. However, the woman Deputy Speaker ChitraLekha Yadav called the parliament meeting in the street and chaired it. She played a crucial role in reinstating the dissolved parliament (House of Representatives). She has also since played a pivotal role in raising women's issues which added a new dimension to the Nepali women's movement (IDEA,2011).

Women in the 2007 Interim-Constitution

The interim constitution of Nepal 2063 (2007) under clause (3) of sub-clause (b) includes that political parties shall ensure proportional representation of women, *dalit* (so-called “untouchables” outside the caste system), oppressed communities/indigenous peoples, “backward regions”, Madhesis¹⁰ and other classes. In addition, it mentions that at least one-third of the total number of candidates nominated shall be women (GoN, 2007). The reinstated legislature Parliament of 2007 saw participation of approximately 17.3% women from the major political parties demonstrating that women were outnumbered by men, with only 57 women participating out of 330 candidates belonging to the major political parties even after 83 members were added from the CPN, of which 31 were women 37.4%.

Table 2: Women's Participation in the reinstated Legislature Parliament in 2007

Party	Total	Participation by Women	
		Number	Per cent
Nepali Congress	133	10	7.5
CPN (UML)	83	12	14.5
CPN (Maoist)	83	31	37.4
Others	31	4	12.9
Total	330	57	17.3

Source: Election Commission of Nepal, 2074)

Women's participation after 1990

The new Ordinance Act of 1997 made another provision to increase the participation of women at a local level. This act states that one seat must be served for women in each ward of the Village Development Committee. Due to this compulsory provision about 40,000 female candidates were elected in the local level election of 1997. This provision really forced all parties to support a female candidate and encouraged women to become involved. Women's political participation at a grass roots level has clearly increased but it is too early to say whether any positive change in the lives of women will come about or whether female politicians will be able to raise women's issues strongly (Ghimire D. 2001).

The Local Self-Governance Act of 1999 was by far the most progressive Act in terms of devolving authority from central to the local governing bodies. Local governing institutions have some taxation authority at the local level as well as limited judicial authority to tackle local level disputes. However, female representation in local governing institutions has been very limited in Nepal. There was less than 10 percent of women in the District Development Committees (DDC) and Village Development Committees (VDC) combined. Not a single woman is the chair person of a DDC or mayor of any municipality. Out of 3,913 VDCs, there were only 13 chairpersons who were women. On the positive side, one of every five seats in each ward of a VDC and municipality that was reserved for women candidates that has ensured the participation of an additional 36,023 women at the ward-level governance of VDCs and municipalities.

Table 3: Number of Male and Female Candidates Who Contested and were Elected in the Election of 1991

Sex	National	Percent	District	Percent	VDC	%
Male	1264	93.4	2112	99.7	101546	99.1
Female	81	6.6	7	0.3	956	0.9
Total	1345	100	2119	100	102502	100
Male	197	96.1	1067	99.4	44321	99.5
Female	8	3.9	7	0.6	241	0.5
Total	205	100	1074	100	44562	100

Source: Gender and Democracy in Nepal, Central Department of Home Science Women's Studies Program TU, 2001.

Nepal local government is also an integral part of the Nepalese governance system. Since adopting a policy of decentralization, local governing bodies have over the years acquired increasingly greater authority in Nepal.

Table 4: Constitution Assembly Members Election 2070, Direct Elected Members

S. No	Name of Parties	CA Election 2013			CA Election 2008		
		Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1	CPL UML Amale	42	42	84	70	38	108
2	CPL Maoist	26	27	53	152	77	229
3	Raprana Nepal	13	11	24	2	2	4
4	Nepali Congress	46	45	91	76	49	115
5	CPL UML Marx Bad Lenin Bad	3	3	6	-	-	-
6	Tarai Madhes Loktantrik	4	3	7	15	6	21
7	Satbhawan Party	3	2	5	7	2	9
8	Rastriya Prajatantra Party	5	5	10	4	4	8
9	Madhesi Janaadhikar Forum loktantric	5	5	10			
10	Rastriya loktantric rastriya Manch Tharuhat	1	0	1			

11	Nepal Pariwar dal	1	1	2	1	-	1
12	Rastriya Janamukti party	1	1	2	1	1	2
13	Samajbadi Janata party	1	0	1	1	-	1
14	Madhesi Janaadhikar Forum Nepal	4	4	8			
15	Rastriya Janamorcha	1	2	3	3	1	4
16	Nepal Comunist Party (Sayunkta)	1	2	3	3	2	5
17	Nepal Janata Dal	1	0	1	1	1	2
18	Nepal MajdurKisan Party	2	1	3	4	1	5
19	Madhesi Janaadhikar Forum...	0	1	1	41	13	54
20	Tarai madhessadbhawana party Nepal	1	1	2			
21	Dalit Janajati Party	1	1	2	1	-	1
22	Nepal Rastriya Party	1	0	1	1	-	
23	Sanghiya samajbadi Party	1	0	1			
24	Rastriya Madhesh Samajbadi Party	2	1	3			
25	Khumbuwan Rastriya Morcha Nepal	1	0	1			
26	Akhanda Nepal Party	1	0	1			
27	Tharuhat Tarai Party Nepal	1	1	2			
28	Communist Party of Nepal (Marxist Leninist) (CPN-ML)				5	4	9
29	Communist Party of Nepal (United)				3	2	5
30	Janamorcha Nepal				6	2	8
31	Nepal Sadbhawana Party (Anandidevi) (NSP-A)				2	1	3
32	Sanghiya Loktantrik Rastriya Manch				1	1	2
33	Nepal Loktantrik Samajbadi Dal				1	0	1
34	Chure Bhawar Rastriya Ekta Party Nepal				1	0	1
35	Independent				2	0	2
Total		169	159	328	404	197	601

Source: Nepal Election Commission 2070.

Table 5: Women Representation in Parliament under the Four Parliamentary Elections, Nepal

Year	Total number of seats	No of Women Representation	Percent
1959	205	6	2.9
1991	205	6	2.9
1994	205	7	3.4
1999	205	12	5.8
2008	601	197	32.7
2013	557	159	28.5
2017 HOR			

Source: Nepal Election Commission, 2070.

In the first Parliamentary election of 1959, the entire 6 women candidate lost the election. As a result of the compulsory provision of the 1990 Constitution that requires at least five percent women's candidature in the election for House of Representative the numbers of women candidates in the last three parliamentary elections held in 1991, 1994 and 1999 were gradually increased. Out of the total 205 seats only 6 (2.9%), 7 (3.4 %) and 12 (5.8 %) women were elected (Election Commission, 2074). Nepali women's representation in the legislative body (Legislature Parliament), however, was dramatically increased to 32.8 percent through the constituent Assembly (CA) held in 2008. In the election, 191 women leaders (33.2%) were elected out of 575 seats, and cabinet nominated 6 women out of 26 seats, resulting to 179 women members (32.8%) in the legislative parliament. As a result, Nepal stands on the 14th position globally to send the women leaders in the legislature parliament. The reason behind the drastic change in the women's representation is due to the reservation of seats provided through the interim Constitution of Nepal 2007 (Election Commission of Nepal, 2074).

Table 6: Women Representation in Local Level, 2054

Local level	No of Local level	No of ward	Total representative	No of Reservation women representative	No of women elected from election	Total No. of Women	% of Women
VDC	3913	35217	207389	39130	President -17, Vice president- 17, Ward president 216, Ward member -1415	40795	19.10
Municipalities	58	806	4668	1177	Mayor - 0, Vice Mayor- 0, Members -4	1181	0.5
DDC	75	927 (Ilaka)	1527	75	Chairman – 0, Vice chairman- 1 and Members - 9	85	0.03
Total			213584		1679	42061	19.67

Source: Mirest Nepal (Mahim Limu), Nepalko Sthaniya Sashan Ain, 2070, p- 92.

Kathmandu, Nepal.

Women representation in local level, 2054, in VDC level, out of total 40795, total 39130 women reservation representation, Numbers of women elected from election 17 president, 17 vice president, 216 ward president and 1415 ward members. Similarly, in Municipality level, out of total 1181 only 4 members are elected. In District Development Committee, out of 85 elected women, only one vice chairman and 9 members are elected.

Table 7: Gender Inclusion in Local Government in Nepal (elected Mayor and Deputy Mayor in Metropolitan and sub metropolitan cities, 2074)

Elected Post	Male	Female	Total
Mayor	15	2	17
Deputy Mayor	0	17	17
Total	15	19	34

Source: Election Commission of Nepal, 2074.

Gender inclusion in local government in Nepal (elected Mayor and Deputy Mayor in Metropolitan and sub metropolitan cities, 2074). In total 17 Mayors, nearly almost (15) are males Mayors and only 2 re female Mayors. Similarly, all 17 are Deputy Mayors. In total 34, males are 15 and females are 2 are participating in local government body.

Women in the 2008 Constituent Assembly

As a result of the strong provisions in the Interim Constitution 2007 that favored more participation of women in politics, the Constituent Assembly election of 2008 became historic as approximately 53 percent of voters were estimated to be women out numbering men voters (Kanel, 2014). The Constitution made a significant contribution in terms of gender equality as a 33% quota had been allocated for women representatives ranking Nepal 16th out of 140 countries in terms of the percentage of women in national parliament (UNDP, 2010).

Table 8: Women's Participation in Various Committees of the first Constituent Assembly (2065 B.S.-2070 B.S.)		
Different Committees of the first Constituent Assembly (CA)	Number of Women in the committee	Women chairing the committee
Constitutional Committee	16	
Fundamental Rights and Directive Principles	15	Binda Pandey
Minority and Marginalized Community Rights	17	
State Restructuring and State Power Sharing	12	
Committees for determining the pattern of Administrative Organs	11	
Committee for Determination of State Government	12	
Jurisdiction	16	
Committee for Structure of Constitutional Body	15	
Natural Resources, Financial Rights and Revenue Sharing	7	Amrita Thapa Magar

Committee for determining the basis of cultural and social solidarity	19	Nabodita Chaudhary
National Interest Conservation	9	
Civil Relations	15	Meena Pandey
Civil Concept Compilation and Coordination	14	
Capacity Building and Source Management	18	
Total 14	196	4

Sources: Election Commission of Nepal, 2074

Women in the 2013 Constituent Assembly

In 2013 a new election was held, under the chairpersonship of the Supreme Court Judge Mr. Khil Raj Regmi, following the 2012 dissolution of the Constituent Assembly. Compared to the 2008 election, fewer women were elected in the 2013 CA election. The major political parties saw losses in the number of women candidates from 96 in 2008, to 77 in the 2013 CA election. However, the percentage of women in the CA remained 30 per cent out of 601 members (Dhungana, 2014) mainly because of the constitutional provisions of proportional representation in the electoral system.

Table 9: Table showing the elected women representatives in local elections in different province

Provinces	Political parties	Male	Female
Province 1	Nepali Congress (NC)	1204	794
	Unified Marxist Leninist (UML)	1849	1370
	Maoist Centre (MC)	317	189
	Sanghiya Samajwadi (SS)	79	61
	Others	111	68
Province 2	Nepali Congress (NC)	1042	689
	Unified Marxist Leninist (UML)	711	538
	Maoist Centre (MC)	665	463
	SanghiyaSamajwad (SS)	610	445

	Others	857	585
Province 3	Nepali Congress (NC)	1093	673
	Unified Marxist Leninist (UML)	1749	1278
	Maoist Centre (MC)	522	349
	Sanghiya Samajwadi (SS)	104	58
	Others	0	0
Province 4	Nepali Congress (NC)	1053	711
	Unified Marxist Leninist (UML)	950	702
	Maoist Centre (MC)	208	143

	Sanghiya Samajwad (SS)	0	0
	Others	104	61
Province 5	Nepali Congress (NC)	948	659
	Unified Marxist Leninist (UML)	1133	810
	Maoist Centre (MC)	868	367
	Sanghiya Samajwad (SS)	139	105
	Others	257	170
Province 6	Nepali Congress (NC)	643	401
	Unified Marxist Leninist (UML)	862	554
	Maoist Centre (MC)	669	469
	Sanghiya Samajwad (SS)	0	0
	Others	76	44
Province 7	Nepali Congress (NC)	943	624
	Unified Marxist Leninist (UML)	943	692
	Maoist Centre (MC)	313	221
	Sanghiya Samajwad (SS)	0	0
	Others	64	41

Source: Election Commission of Nepal, 2074

Though a woman representative has been able to retain the position of President (1), difference of 98.16%: 8.13% (See table 5). This shows that power structures and hierar chystill 17 in the House of Representatives, 6 in the Provincial Assembly and 21 in National Assembly, the ratioof male and female elected representatives still shows a huge percentage gap prevail in Nepali politics.

Table 10: Elected Candidates in House of Representatives (Pratinidhi Sabha) and Provincial Assembly (Pradesh Sabha) of 2017 based on the gender

Gender	House of Representative	Provincial Assembly	National Assembly	President	Vice-President	Total	Percent
Male	313	159	35		1	508	91.86
Female	17	6	21	1		45	8.13
Grand Total	330	165	56	1	1	553	100

Source: Election Commission of Nepal, 2074

Conclusion

From Rana rule through the Panchayat era to the Maoist insurgency and the Federal Democratic Republic, Nepal has undergone lengthy and massive socio-political uncertainties and changes. However, Nepali women have constantly challenged the patriarchy in all its dimensions. They initiated a movement for their rights—one that has been largely ignored in the literature—more than 100 years ago under the leadership of

Yogmaya Neupane, a movement that continues today. Even though the road for women towards political participation has not been easy, they have been quite successful over the last decade in securing their rights. Achieving the 33 percent quota in the parliament and other political and bureaucratic structures is an example of such success.

Though the Constitution of 1990 brought much hope for the country's political transformation and guaranteed considerable political rights, civil liberties, and individual freedom, it was only able to introduce a few changes regarding gender-discriminatory laws. After the signing of the CPA and the promulgation of the Interim Constitution, the one-third representation in government structures for women was secured. Consequently, the motivation for women to engage in the election process also increased. The Constituent Assembly election of 2008 became historic as women's participation outnumbered men—an example of such motivation.

The Constitution of 2015 promised at least 33% of women's participation in all the State operations. At the local level, 41 percent of newly elected officials were women along with 34 per cent of Provincial assembly seats reserved for women. However, despite the promise of including women's representation in the state restructuring, women have been denied political power at the local level. Women candidates have been elected in the Parliament simply to fulfill the quota of including women representatives. As noted above, many operational problems in the daily execution of Parliamentary duties persist due to entrenched discrimination.

The women of Nepal are still not freed from the burden of living in a patriarchal society. Too often their capacity to participate in Parliament at quota levels has been questioned, rather than holding up for scrutiny the forms of discrimination and lack of opportunities that have underprepared women for equal participation. The influence of women in decision-making and constitution-building process remains limited. They initiated a movement for their rights—one that has been largely ignored in the literature. Though the Constitution of 1990 brought much hope for the country's political transformation and guaranteed considerable political rights, civil liberties and individual freedom, it was only able to introduce a few changes regarding gender-discriminatory laws. After the signing of the CPA and the promulgation of the Interim Constitution, the one-third representation in government structures for women was secured. Consequently, the motivation for women to engage in the election process also increased. The Constituent Assembly election of 2008 became historic as women's participation outnumbered men—an example of such motivation. The Constitution of 2015 promised at least 33% of women's participation in all the

State operations. At the local level, 41 percent of newly elected officials were women along with 34 percent of Provincial assembly seats reserved for women. However, despite the promise of including women's representation in the State restructuring, women have been denied political power at the local level. Women candidates have been elected in the Parliament simply to fulfill the quota of including women representatives. As noted above, many operational problems in the daily execution of Parliamentary duties persist due to entrenched discrimination. The women of Nepal are still not freed from the burden of living in a patriarchal society. Too often their capacity to participate in Parliament at quota levels has been questioned, rather than holding up for scrutiny the forms of discrimination and lack of opportunities that have underprepared women for equal participation. The influence of women in decision-making and constitution-building process remains limited. Though women have become successful in acquiring higher positions (e.g., President of Nepal, earlier Chief Justice of Supreme Court and Speaker of the Parliament), achievements not even possible to imagine two decades ago, the achievements attained thus far are not enough. Continued, concerted action among all actors is essential.

Almost 90 percent respondents of study areas of both districts are affiliated to political parties before they were elected in local government. Almost 50 percent people of both Jhapa and Lalitpur district have knowledge of gender inclusion. The mass media is most effective source to dissemination of the information to the general public but it has still lacking to bring the more effective awareness program activities. However, majority of the people of both districts have knowledge of different laws, acts, and policy programs related to gender inclusion in local government. But minority caste/ethnic groups have excessive low knowledge comparing to other caste/ethnic groups. There is no difference between rural municipality and municipality and metropolitan city to obtain the knowledge. The people with Secondary level education have more knowledge on the issue comparing to people with primary level education and it is the usual and natural phenomenon. As sex ratio 145 female in 100 middle-aged group below 39 years are affiliated in political before they elected in local government but females are more affiliated than male. In the case of districts and sex, there is no association to affiliation in political and district location and sex

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