Women’s Assets Ownership Against Intimate Partner Violence in Nepal

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여성의 경제적 주도권이 가족 내 폭력에 미치는 영향
-네팔을 중심으로-

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요 액
This paper examines the association between intimate partner violence and women asset ownership. The study analyzed 3891 married women from 2018 Nepal Demography and Health Survey (NHDS). The results revealed that women’ s ownership in assets have protective effect on risk of intimate partner violence, women with asset ownership were twenty-one percent less likely to be victim of intimate partner violence than to those women who doesn‘ t have own assets, and educated women were 54% percent, than those women with lower education level. This finding imply that women asset ownership could have substantial welfare benefits for women and social implication for the least developed countries.

1. Introduction
Violence against women is a deep-rooted problem in developing countries where the status of women is lowest rank (Gracia-Moreno et al. 2006). Women in developing countries are less empowered, and less likely to have decision-making autonomy, and they are less likely to have any ownership in any tangible assets such as land and/or house. Research around the world suggest that empowered women have land and/or house ownership and those women have higher level of quality of life (Agrawal, 1994; Kabeer, 1999; Anderson & Eswaran, 2009; Haddad, Hoddinott, &Alderman, 1997). Violence against women is a global public health as well as human rights problem that affect one third of the women globally from intimate partner violence (World Health Organization 2013; Garcia-Moreno et al. 2015). Evidences suggested that empowered women were less likely to be a victim of intimate partner violence (Ellsberg et al., 2015). Now we have survey of 85 countries of estimating the intimate partner violence in developing counties (world Health Organization, 2013). World Health Organization (WHO) study explored South Asia has the highest regional prevalence of domestic violence with a rate of 43 percent (WHO 2013). A multi-country study on examining prevalence of domestic violence found violence rate to be 71% in Ethiopia, 69% in Peru and 62% in Bangladesh (Gracia-Moreno et al. 2006). Numerical studies were conducted in the relation of women’s empowerment and domestic violence. Women empowerment refers to enhancing their position in
the power structure of the society (Bhuyan D., 2006). Kabeer’s (1999) definition of empowerment as ‘the process by which those who have been denied the ability to make strategic life choices acquire such ability’ (Kabeer 1999), suggest that the process of empowerment must improve women’s social, political, and economic choice. Women empowerment has become the button element of within defined one process development in the third world nations (Hossain, 2011). A research on domestic violence in developing countries has emphasized that women empowerment is one of the important intervention strategies against domestic violence (Ellsberg et al., 2015). Several studies have identified sociodemographic variables which indicates women empowerment such as women’s educational level, employment status, participation in social organization, participation in household decision making, age at marriage and asset ownership, in examining their effects on domestic violence alone or together. Studies reported that employment opportunities and women’s land rights strengthen economic competency and productivity, empower women, boost welfare and well-being (Agrawal, 1994). In the current study, the study attempts so examine whether women with asset ownership (land and house) protect from being victim of intimate partner violence in South Asian developing country, such as Nepal.

여기부터 내용을 작성한다.

2. Background
Property right has been recognized as the most fundamental essential for women empowerment. Women’s empowerment is the key for women’s wellbeing and only one way to reduce the domestic violence. The benchmarks of the empowerment are complex and multi-dimensional. According to Agrawal (1994), land rights can make a notable difference to women’s bargaining power within the home and community, enhance women’s confidence of dignity, enable them to negotiate better deals in the wage labor market, increase the respect they command in the community, promote their participation in social decision making bodies (Agrawal, 1994). Empirically, women’s property rights such as land rights is found a positive correlation to women empowerment and its reductive effect on intimate partner violence. A study conducted in India found evidence that women with ownership of house and land were significantly associated with lower ever domestic violence (Panda and Agarwal, 2005). Mason, (1998) found that women who owned land in India and Thailand had greater domestic economic power in a survey of five Asian countries. A recent study by Mishra and Sam shows that women with asset ownership increases women empowerment in Nepal (Mishra, & Sam, 2016). Nepal is the least development country of South Asia where big population were depending on agriculture. Women who live in the rural area are totally involve in agriculture but very few women work on their own land. A study about women empowerment in agricultural index shows that women who have own land and involve in agriculture were more empowered with significantly greater decision-making and autonomy regarding religious faith, greater decision-making regarding family planning, and higher autonomy in protection from violence (Alkire, et al, 2013). Another study from Cameroon, on examining the experiences of women in a micro-enterprise program explored positive relationship and three measures of women empowerment that participation in decision making, increased income and ability to negotiate change with in the household (Zhan and Shreeaden, 2003). Research also indicate that asset ownership has been positively associated with civic behavior. Women who own their house are more likely to be involved in neighborhood and community associations that empowered women and protect from being the victim of intimate partner violence (Rohe et al., 1994).
2.1 Nepali context

Nepal is a South Asian landlocked developing country. Nepal’s large economy depends on agriculture, especially for rural area land is the major source of the income, employment and wealth for major share of households. According to the Ministry of Agricultural Development of Nepal, 2014, about 66% of the total population is worked in agriculture sector, which contributes to 36 percent of Nepal’s GDP. It shows that land ownership is vital in Nepalese economy as it for the other development countries. In society where major income source is agriculture, land ownership determines social status and economic participation (Bhandari, 2004; Sharma, 1999). According to NDHS 2016, only 11 percent of women own land even though they are primarily involved in agriculture and they are responsible for most of the agricultural activities like fertilizing, transplanting and harvesting (Acharya and Bennet, 1983; Pun, 2000). The engagement of women in agriculture has been increasing over the time because more men are migrating in to non-agriculture sector to urban or abroad. The Ministry of Labor and Employment report shows about 14 percent of the current total population permits to work abroad (excluding India) during 2008 to 2015 where nearly 96 percent (95.7%) were men.

Nepal’s society is patriarchal society where most of the property like house or land title hold the men. The main way of gaining property (land or house) in Nepal is through inheritance which is patrilineal (Mishra, K. & Sam, A. G., 2016). Other way for women to gain property (land and House) is family relationship and marital relationship to men. Nepalese property law has its roots in Manusmriti, an ancient Hindu scripture, highly influenced by this book. The law of Manu describes the rules of life and status of the women in the society that women should not have independence. The law of Manu also describes that: ‘In childhood a woman should be under her father’s control, in youth under her husband’s and when husband is dead, under her sons’ (translated by Doniger, W., &smith, B. K., 1991). In 1853, Nepal’s first legislation, the National Code (Muliki Ain) was introduced but it addressed limited women’s property rights. This legislation was clearly influenced by religious tradition and norms of the law of the Manu (Pandey, 2010). This legislation remains unchanged for the next one hundred years. At that time, if the father, mother, brothers, brother’s son, or other male relatives on the father’s side were alive, a daughter could not obtain the paternal property and divorced women did not have any property rights. The Sixth Amendment (1977) of the New National Code of 1963 brought some changes to women property ownership rights. An unmarried daughter of 35 years or older was equally entitled to parental property as brothers but she had to return if she gets married. A woman who is 35 years old and she had been married for 15 years was entitled to a portion of husband property. Nepali women only enjoyed absolute legal rights to property such as gifts, bequests, will and personal earnings (Malla & Shrestha, 2000).

3. Method

The study used the sample of fifth NDHS conducted in 2016, with the financial support of the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) and in collaboration with government bodies of Nepal and with technical assistance of ICF. The NDHS is a nationally representative cross-sectional household survey, and its main object is to provide reliable estimates for population characteristics such as fertility levels and preferences, marriage, sexual activity, family planning methods, breastfeeding practices, nutrition, anemia, childhood and maternal mortality, maternal and child health, HIV/AIDS and other sexually transmitted infections (STIs), women’s empowerment, domestic violence and hypertensions that can be useful for the program managers and policymakers to evaluate and improve the existing programs. The 2016 NDHS
surveyed 12,862 women of age 15–49 and 4,063 men of age 15–49 from total of 11,040 households with a response rate of 98% of women and 96% of the men (Ministry of Health, Nepal: New ERA; and ICF. 2017). Appropriately, a total of 4,444 women were selected for the module and only three women could not be successfully interviewed because of privacy issues or other reasons. We analyzed a total of 3,691 married women who were currently residing with their husband. Binary logistic regression was conducted in order to solve the problems of the research presented in this study. SPSS22.0 was used to analyze the data. First, the demographic characteristics of the subjects analyzed using descriptive statistics. Second, T-test analysis was conducted to analyze the effects of socio-demographic and asset ownership effect on intimate partner violence against women. Third, logistic regression was tested to verify the effectiveness women asset ownership on intimate partner violence against women. The third step verifies whether independent variables have a significant effect on dependent variables.

4. Result

The association between women’s status related factors and sociodemographic factors such as age at marriage, husband education, palace of residence, respondent’s educational attainment, family economic status, women’s employment status, and women’s assets ownership and experience of violence was analyzed using logistic models for experience of intimate violence in the past 12 months. There was no statistically significant difference between the women who live in urban and who live in rural area. The women who married after age of twenty years old were 31 percent less likely to experience the IPV than were women who married before twenty years old. Women with higher levels of educational attainment were less likely to experience IPV. Women with higher levels of education were 54% less likely to experience IPV than uneducated women. Husbands education attainment also found statistically significant to women experience of intimate partner violence. Women whose husband had higher level of education were 64% less likely to experience IPV than women whose husband was not educated. Model 2 presents the full model the association between women’s assets ownership is added. Women with assets ownership (house & land) were 21 percent less likely to experience the intimate partner violence than women without assets ownership.

5. Conclusion and Implication

In spite of rare women asset owners study found the positive effect on experience of intimate partner violence. The finding of this study assume that promoting women’s property rights is a key element of promoting gender equality and promoting the status of women in Nepal. Property rights such as land rights of women can play vital role for enhance and empowerment of those women who lives in rural area and agriculture is the main economic source. The finding of this study also recommended stopping child marriage and promoting women education as a key point of stopping violence against women.

참고문헌
