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Pertinent Education and Women Empowerment: A Study on Rajshahi Division in Bangladesh

Haque, Md. Rajwanul

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Pertinent Education and Women Empowerment: A Study on Rajshahi Division in Bangladesh



*A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of
Philosophy in Population Science and Human Resource Development
University of Rajshahi
Bangladesh*

Under the Supervision of

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March, 2011

Dedicated
To
My Divine
Father & Brother

University of Rajshahi

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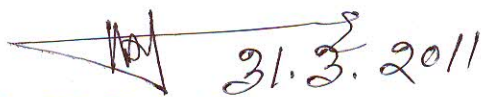
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Certificate

This is to certify that the thesis entitled “ Pertinent Education and Women Empowerment: A Study on Rajshahi Division in Bangladesh” is a record of original research work, for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Population Science and Human Resource Development done by Md. Rajwanul Haque, Department of Population Science and Human Resource Development at the University of Rajshahi, Bangladesh.

I further certify that the research work has not previously been submitted elsewhere for any degree or diploma.


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Certificate

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To be best of my knowledge, this work neither part nor in full has been submitted to any other university or institution for the award of any degree.

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Statement of Originality

I do hereby declare that the thesis entitled “Pertinent Education and Women Empowerment: A Study on Rajshahi Division in Bangladesh” submitted to the Department of Population Science and Human Resource Development, University, Bangladesh for the award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Population Science and Human Resource Development is a record of original and independent research work done by me under the supervision of **Dr. Md. Rafiqul Islam**, Professor, Department of Population Science and Human Resource Development, University of Rajshahi and **Dr. Md. Golam Mostofa**, Associate Professor, Department of Population Science and Human Resource Development, University of Rajshahi and it has not been submitted elsewhere for any other degree or diploma.


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Finally, I am alone responsible for the errors and shortcomings in this study if there be any, I am apologetic for that.

March 2011

The Author

Abstract

Women empowerment is one of the most important issues of modern era. After a major contribution in the development process, female population has low status as compared to men, specifically in the developing world. Gradually, it has become a major topic of socio-economic and demographic research. Considering its importance, an attempt has been made in this study to investigate the various issues of empowerment such as women's preference about rearing and education of male-female children, decision making activities on economic, household and freedom of physical movement. Along with these, information on five indicators like equal right in the society, right for education, wage, maternal health care and participation in politics are used to measure women's empowerment. Different organizational [Non-Government Organizations (NGOs) and/or Government Organizations (GOs)] contribution to develop women's leadership also presented. At the end women's tackling capability against husband's and familial tortures tried to explore in Rajshahi division of Bangladesh

There is not so difference in male-female educational enrollment in primary but a slight difference exists in secondary level. There is still a considerable difference exist in male-female enrollment in tertiary level for both rural and urban areas. The perception about the women's importance level concerning child rearing and child education increases with the increasing of their own educational level. Regarding the measurement of women empowerment, women are comparatively less empowered in economic purpose than that of other two dimensions like as freedom of physical movement and household decision making purpose. Women are more informed about maternal health care and female educational priority among the various indicators of women empowerment through different persons and/or organizations. Age of the women have an important impact on receiving information about different types of women empowerment indicators. Women's participation in different organizations is merely visible in rural areas and they are mainly engaged in NGOs and community based organizations. A larger part of the women who are illiterate and even up to secondary level of education perceived that the leaders of different organizations where they engaged have moderate type of capability for leadership. Maximum organizational leaders are selected within the members ignoring the work efficiency in the organization. Consequently, most of the women opined that they do not get any optimum and fruitful benefit from these organizations.

Women with bad or even very bad spousal relationship irrespective of all levels of education have better empowerment than those women who have good spousal relationship. Further those women who face torture by husband as well as family members irrespective of all levels of education, they occupied better empowerment than those who faced any torture. This contradictory result may become from the lack of self-sense about the indicators of women empowerment as well as the degree of relationship among the family members and husband. The younger women and those who have lower age at marriage face more torture by their husbands and family members than that of their counterparts. Moreover, the women who lived in female headed household face more torture than that of male headed household. It is evident that due to lack of pertinent education, women are not capable to tackle against any torture by husband and/or family members.

The outputs of the study demonstrate the policy implications that can improve the empowerment of reproductive aged women. Education and employment opportunities should be created for them to increase their self-esteem and also increase their status in society. Finally, it is suggested to provide effective policy to minimize the gap between men and women and to ensure their rights in every sphere of life.

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Chapter One

Perspective of the Study

Chapter One

Perspective of the Study

1.1 Introduction

Education is recognized as the cornerstone for sustainable development. It is a fulcrum around which the quick development of any kind resolves. Education directs women to fulfill their roles as full members of the society. Having recognized education as a par-excellence instrument for effective national development, it is also the basis for improvement of the status of women. From the study of Mason and Smith (2003) it is evident that education and greater employment opportunities for women help to increase community norms and values that influence women empowerment. If women are educated, they will be capable to educate their children, eventually, the nation will be developed. Besides, women's self-sense about child rearing as well as educate their children, specially enhancing education of female children is essential. Obviously education empowers women at the same time it is necessary to assess the amount for the shake of quantification. To evolve the magnitude of empowerment a measurement yardstick is needed. But measurement of empowerment is not based on single phenomenon. It is a multidimensional process. Mason (1997) suggested a process which comprises the entire complex of interactions, roles, rights and statuses that surround being male versus being female in a given society or culture.

Women empowerment is a dynamic process that cannot be measured in numeral quantity directly. Since there is a nexus of a few overlapping terms, that are most often included in defining empowerment such as options, choice, control and power. These are referring to women's ability to make decisions and affect outcomes of importance to themselves and their families. Control over one's own life and over resources is often stressed. These conceptual terms should be translated into operational definitions which should also be consistent with the spirit of national as well as international conventions. So it is multidimensional more than unidimensional. In this context a number of different indicators take into account on measuring empowerment issues in several dimensions.

The overall development of a country depends upon the maximum utilization of her people, both men and women. In Bangladesh women comprise nearly half of the total population. Women are identified with domestic life while politics is viewed as a male-dominated public activity that is typically masculine in nature. Women's equal participation in political life plays a pivotal role in the general process of the advancement of women. Without the active participation of women and the incorporation of women's perspective at all levels of decision-making, the goals of equality, development and peace cannot be achieved (Beijing, 1995). Systematic integration of women augments the democratic basis, the efficiency and the quality of the activities of different organizations. Accordingly a strategy of positive action should required for providing opportunity to bring women to develop new grass-roots level leadership and the ladder for women's participation in political decision-making as well.

Women enhance their position and come outside a little bit in the recent year, they are improving their socio-economic status, but yet violence against women has not reduced expectedly. To develop the social welfare state, it is necessary to take proper initiatives from grass root level and in future it must be effective for the development of a country. The violence against women starts from family sphere in legal, economical, traditional, political and educational sectors and then spread over the society as well as over the country. Consequently, it needs to work for bringing positive change of man in our patriarchal society and it will be possible to bring the normal position for disadvantaged women, positive mentality should grown up reducing violence.

1.2 Rationale of the Study

Women empowerment being the subject of the concern among the policy makers of developing countries, the integration of women into the development process and therefore their participation in economic activities along with men, have been gaining importance in many national development plans. Development planners initially assumed that overall economic development and the process of modernization would bring about an improvement in the status of women by benefiting both men and women equally (Lewina, 1999). During the second half of 20th century, a large number of commendable initiatives have been drawn national and international perspective to the study on women's empowerment. A considerable number of studies have also done on it and several steps have taken according to the recommendations of these studies. After

that, consensus about what actually comprises women empowerment, and how it is measured, is debated in the development literature.

Education is one of the dominant factors and the precondition for all types of development and subsequently women empowerment as well. It sustains women empowerment along with other development process. Lazo (1995) stated that women's powerlessness arises from their illiteracy, lack of awareness, poor knowledge and skills and also from their lack of self-esteem and confidence. Khuda et al. (2000) argued that through facilitating female education, female empowerment, female mobility and access to the media Bangladesh implemented a strong family planning program effort, which has brought about a significant fertility decline. Mason and Smith (2003) suggest that enhancing education and greater employment opportunities for women help to increase community norms and values which influence women empowerment. Parveen (2007) found that in Bangladesh the rural women's empowerment can be attained by fostering their educational gap to men. Now it is the time to evaluate the reflection of mother's education to child; the perception about the need of mother's education for child rearing, child education and male-female children education preference.

Women empowerment reach up to the mark through not only education but also it need the achievement of confidence level and absorption capacity of self sense. Information on the indicators of empowerment from different organizations enhances the confidence level and absorption capacity of a woman. A lot of activities for women empowerment are taken in hand in a piecemeal way by government as well as non-government level. But women still not so benefited from these piecemeal contribution because of unstructured and disintegrated way and also due to lack of reaching information on the indicators of empowerment. So an in-depth exploration would be needed to know about the magnitude of receiving information of women on different indicators for empowerment.

Receiving information on the indicators of empowerment, women grown up as a massive agent of development and the responsibilities of this agency enforce a course of action upon themselves. Taking into account women as active agents rather than passively recipients of development strategies women participation in leadership is considered as an essential part to achieve development target. Rahman and Ara (2006) stated that women participation in different types of activities leadership can be developed with the help of education. Government of Bangladesh continuously working to increase the

proportion of women leadership but yet can not reach to the goal. In this regards an attempt would be needed to explore the cause for non-fulfillment of the required proportion of women leadership.

It is recognized that violence against women is one of the obstacles in the way to develop leadership. The violence against women remains out of sight due to the lack of leadership development. Consequently the actual vulnerability of women's lives remains invisible to men as well as women and it persists from family surrounding to the national level. Violence against women is a common occurrence in most societies whether the violence commences from familial environment in terms of physical or mental in Bangladesh. It is necessary to explore the actual scenario of familial violence which prevents the progress of empowerment.

1.3 Review of Literature

An enormous number of research studies relating to women empowerment in the world have been emerged since 1980 after becoming popularity in the development field. Some studies have also been attempted to address the issue of women empowerment in Bangladesh. Of the total a few number of literatures which are relevant to the present studies are reviewed.

The notion of women's empowerment has long been legitimized by International development agencies (World Bank, 2001) but what actually comprises empowerment, and how it is measured, is debated in the development literature. Malhotra et al. (2003) provide considerable review of this debate. They explained many ways in which empowerment can be measured with six dimensions: economic, socio-cultural, familial-interpersonal, legal, political and psychological. A number of studies have shown that women may be empowered in one area of life while not in others (Malhotra et al., 2003; Kishore and Gupta, 2004; Hashemi et al. 1996), while Williamson (1983) and Jejeebhoy and Sathar (2001) have studied women empowerment in different countries with special emphasis on demographic determinants.

Stromquist (1995) argues that women's empowerment depends on a range of factors including psychological, cognitive, economic, social and political dimensions. Among other things, the cognitive component involves "acquiring new knowledge to create a different understanding of gender relations as well as destroying old beliefs that structure powerful gender ideologies". According to her the successful integration of the

competencies required in each of the five components results in an autonomous individual who can critically evaluate her situation and has the self-confidence and inner strength to make positive changes in her life. The United Nations' Population Information Network states five dimensions of women's empowerment, such as women's sense of self-worth, choices, access to opportunities and resources, power to control own lives and ability to influence the direction of social change (POPIN, 1995). Sen and Batliwala (2000) indicated that empowerment is understood not only as an extrinsic control over resources (human, financial, intellectual), but also as a growing intrinsic capability, seen through greater self-confidence and an inner transformation of women's consciousness that enables one to overcome external barriers to accessing resources or changing traditional ideology. Zuniga (1995) says empowerment for women involves reclaiming "the right to make decisions about their own lives and to influence social change through their ability to gain control over crucial natural and cultural resources". She contends that an empowered woman has increased her power in terms of her own self-esteem and internal force rather than in terms of domination over others. When an empowered woman exercises control, she should be able to grasp the broader cultural context within which this control is exercised. Moser (1992) stated that the empowerment approach incorporates an understanding of the concept of gender as a social issue. It acknowledges the systematic subordination of women in all social relations with men. Rowland (1998) extensively discusses empowerment within the wider conceptual context of power. Drawing from other scholars' definitions of power, she categorizes empowerment into four terms, "power over", "power to", "power with" and "power from within", each with its own meanings. She criticizes the "power over" view in that it regards power as something that can be given by one person to another. This suggests that power can be as easily withdrawn as it is granted, discounting any structural change in power relations. "Power to" suggests enabling power that creates new possibilities without control, whereas "power with" alludes to co-operation and working together. Finally, "power within" refers to a spiritual awareness at an individual level which means an individual power by believing in oneself and one's abilities by increasing one's self-esteem, awareness or consciousness raising and confidence building (Rowland, 1998). Anderson (1996) and Claridge (1996) have identified that the self-confidence and self esteem as essential 'first steps' to an individual's empowerment. This kind of power is termed by Rowland (1998) as the 'power within'. This inner power of a person is demonstrated in her/his self-confident behavior that often results from

successful action in the social or political domains (Friedmann, 1992). Lack of this power results in the feelings of worthlessness, which leads to oppression of women and hence, many interventions targeting to uplift women seek to bring about changes at the 'power within' level. Musokotwane and Siwale (2001) define gender awareness as the recognition of different needs, expectations and life experiences of women and men that often create inequality between them but these are subject to change. In this study, gender awareness refers to the ability of women to identify problems arising from gender inequality and discrimination, which affect their ability to have access to and control over resources. Longwe (2001) further describes that this is an essential step in women's empowerment, which involves awareness and understanding of the difference between sex roles and gender roles and that gender roles are socially created and therefore, can be changed to promote equality. Thus, awareness building about women's situation, discrimination, rights and opportunities is a step towards greater gender equality (Karl, 1995).

The empowerment concept has taken centre stage in the development discourse. It has been elaborated upon by numerous economists and development practitioners. Sen (1999) has built a concept on the empowerment through his human capabilities approach in development economics to underscore the conviction that "each person is an end and not a mere means of the ends of others". His approach focuses on what individuals are actually able to do and be, as opposed to how many resources they are able to command. As Baruah (2002) pointed out, this challenges the approach of many development agencies where gender is justified only if it helps to achieve other objectives such as controlling populations and sustainable development of poverty alleviation. This approach validates women's claim as political and economic subjects in their own rights. The promotion of women's empowerment not only facilitates social justice as an important aspect of human welfare, but also women's empowerment is a means to other goals. Sen's approach expands on the empowerment concept, identifying the importance of human "agency" and the freedom of individuals towards development goals. According to him, human functional capabilities comprise "life, bodily health and integrity, being able to imagine, think and reason, being able to emote and have attachments, practical reason, affiliation, recreation, and control over one's political and material environment". As this relates to gender equity, he believes that for positive change to happen, individual women must be able to exercise their "agency" through

their empowerment (human functional capabilities) and economic independence. Empowering women enables them to make the transition from the periphery to the centre of the situations and decisions that shape their lives (Yunus, 1996).

Hashemi and Schuler's (1993) work provides an important starting place for the development of a theoretical model of women's empowerment in rural Bangladesh. They identified six dimensions of empowerment based on activities women identified as important for their day-to-day functioning: (i) Sense of Self and Vision of the Future; (ii) Mobility and Visibility; (iii) Economic Security; (iv) Decision Making Power in the Household; (v) Participation in Non-Family Groups; (vi) Interact Effectively in the Public Sphere. They discuss that a change in one dimension would likely affect other dimensions because these dimensions are interrelated and dependent one to another.

Beijing Conference (1995) focuses on women issue as global issue that poverty, inequity, denial of human rights, lack of freedom and justice, and absence of peace and security are no longer acceptable to world community. A pre-requisite for an effective democracy is the equal participation of women and men in decision-making in all spheres: from personal to the most public. Starting within the family, socio-cultural norms, legal inequalities and an inequitable access to resources of all kinds deprives of women of decision making power. This inequality permeates all structures of social economic and political activity, seriously impeding women's ability to contribute as full citizens in shaping their society.

Amin et al. (1998) split the concept of women's empowerment into three components each measured separately: Inter-spouse consultation index, which seeks to represent the extent to which husbands consult their wives in household affairs; Individual autonomy indexes which represents women's self-reported autonomy of physical movement outside the house and in matters of spending money; and the Authority index, which reports on actual decision-making power (which is traditionally in the hands of the patriarch of the family). Comparable components of empowerment are included in the eight indicators by Hashemi et al. (1996) mobility, economic security, ability to make small purchases, ability to make larger purchases, involvement in major decisions, relative freedom from domination by the family, political and legal awareness, and involvement in political campaigning and protests.

In critically assessing various definitions of empowerment, Malhotra et al. (2002) suggest that empowerment contains two important elements that distinguish it from the general concept of “power,” the idea of process or change from a condition of disempowerment and the concept of human agency, which implies choices made from the vantage point of real alternatives without severe consequences. Women’s empowerment, then, is conceptualized as an increase in agency over time. However, they also concede that one of the main challenges created by this particular conceptualization of empowerment is measurement. Although demographers often measure processes or transitions (health transitions, fertility transitions, etc.), measuring a power transition is much more difficult. The second element of empowerment identified by Malhotra et al. (2002) agency, is seemingly less problematic to measure. However, the specific conception of agency in this conceptualization of empowerment is that women must be agents rather than only recipients of change.

Mason and Smith (2003) in a working paper studied the multiple measures of married women’s empowerment in the domestic sphere in five Asian countries (India, Pakistan, Malaysia, the Philippines, and Thailand). They suggest that gender relations as heavily influenced by community norms and values, community is a far stronger predictor of women’s empowerment than individual traits and recommended the primary policy implication of changing community norms and values about gender relations for empowering women. They show that empowerment is inherently a multi-dimensional phenomenon, with women relatively empowered in some spheres but not in others. They also suggest that raise of age at marriage, enhancing education, and greater employment opportunities help to empower women, at least in some respect.

According to the UNDP (HDR: 2003) frequent use of Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) is a composite measure of gender inequality in three key areas: Political participation and decision-making, economic participation and decision-making and power over economic resources. It is an aggregate index for a population and does not measure empowerment on an individual basis. It is made up of two dimensions: Economic participation and decision-making (measured by the percentage of female administrators and managers, and professional and technical employees), and political participation and decision-making (measured by the percentage of seats in parliament held by women). For our purposes GEM is limited and does not capture the multidimensional view of women’s empowerment. It cannot be assumed that if a

development intervention promotes women's empowerment along a particular dimension that empowerment in other areas will necessarily follow. A number of studies have shown that women may be empowered in one area of life while not in others (Malhotra and Mather 1997; Kishor 1995 and 2000; Hashemi et al. 1996; Beegle et al. 1998).

Parveen (2007) in a study on the empowerment of rural Bangladeshi women assumed that the rural women's empowerment can be attained by fostering their level of awareness of ten selected gender issues including under-valuation, educational gap, inheritance of property rights, timing of marriage, practice of dowry, divorce rights, sex bias, birth registration, political awareness and violence against women.

The indirect effect of gender system on fertility was showed by many studies. Balk (1994) was a pioneer at looking at attitudes that women hold as an indicator of women's status. She finds that attitudes do not significantly affect the total number of children ever born. Govindasamy and Malhotra (1996) examine the effects of attitudes about gender equality in financial matters and find a positive significant effect. However, once authority in reproductive decisions is added to the model, the variable attitude regarding financial matters is no longer significant. This suggests that attitudes may have an influence on contraception use; however other aspects of women's autonomy may be more important.

Balk (1994) found that decision-making authority does indeed have a negative relationship with the total number of children ever born, however she finds that the effects of decision-making are not as strong as other female autonomy variables such as mobility and leniency of a female's household. This suggests that authority in household decision-making may influence fertility outcomes; however other dimensions of female autonomy may play a more important role.

Kishor (1995) in a study of Egypt established that, for women, more authority in household decision-making is associated with contraception use. She found this relationship to be stronger than other measures of female autonomy such as opinions and mobility. Similarly, examining data from Tamil Nadu, India, Jejeebhoy (1991) found that contraceptive use is associated with females who have more power to make household decisions but there is no bivariate relationship between mobility and contraception use. Contrary to Jejeebhoy's findings, Kishor establishes a relationship between mobility and contraception use.

Morgan and Niraula (1995) in Nepal, found that women who experience more mobility are more likely to intend to have fewer children. Govindasamy and Malhotra (1996) provide more evidence that mobility is associated with fertility outcomes. Specifically, they find that the greater mobility a female has, the more likely she is to use contraception. They also find that female household decision-making power is associated with contraception use; however once they control for the power females have in reproductive decision-making, the effect of household decision-making is no longer significant. This suggests that perhaps input in reproductive decision-making is more important than having input in household decision-making.

Amin (1998) in a study of Bangladesh and Egypt on women's lives and fertility decline showed the continuity of gender inequality may not prevent the occurrence of demographic transition. The relationship between gender system and fertility is more effective on the cost of fertility regulation. In a study of fertility decline in Turkey, Angin and Shorter (1998) showed that the fertility decline in Turkey was due to changes in structural conditions, not the improvement of women's status. Use of contraceptives was not an indicator of men's or women's power. To use contraceptives, women relied on men and were very concerned about the side effects of the methods. Women preferred using male methods.

Hogan et al. (1999) in a study finds a clear and strong relationship between authority in household decision making and contraception use for Ethiopia. In their study they found the evidence that women who participate in household decision-making are more likely to use contraception.

Sathar et al. (2001) propose the argument that in South Asia, gender systems play a central role in conditioning the pace at which the fertility transition proceeds, and accounts thereby for the variation in the pace of demographic change across the region. They explore the extent to which the autonomy of women accounts for the different paces of fertility change and contraceptive practice in three cities in South Asia-Uttar Pradesh and Tamil Nadu in north and south India respectively, and Punjab in Pakistan. They express that South Asia is generally characterized by the subordinate role of its women and their limited ability to invest in their children's futures and make independent decision about childbearing.

In Nigeria, Kirtz and Adebuseye (2001) look at several different measures of women's authority in order to determine whether some dimensions have stronger and more robust relationships to fertility. In addition, they compare how authority indicators based on wives', husbands' and couples' perceptions differ from each other and look at whether women's authority when based on women's reports alone. Finally, they examine whether women's authority influences the contraceptive use of husbands and wives when they approve or disapprove family planning. To study these issues, they use survey data from five Nigerian ethnic groups that have different gender traditions.

Mason (2001) suggests that the higher degree of gender stratification within families or kinship systems is associated with a larger desired number of children. A higher degree of gender stratification can be seen in lineal and patriarchal families. The importance of labor, the distribution of the burden of caring for large numbers of descendants across the lineage, women's needs to their children's support, and sharing wealth within the lineage (rather than investing on their own children), could lead to such a demand. Mason (2001) noted, the effect of gender systems on proximate determinates of fertility is through three factors: the demand for children, the supply of children and the cost of fertility control. Women with a high level of education and job outside home normally have fewer children. When education provides women with opportunities for work, the relationship between education and fertility tends to be negative. The relationship between fertility and employment is only significant for jobs outside the home. Industrialization may decrease the age at marriage (because with an industrial employment, young people should not be waiting for inheritance since they can find appropriate jobs) and can lessen some practices for birth spacing (like postpartum abstinence). These could increase the level of fertility.

Mason (1997) in his study explored that education influences contraceptive behavior. It facilitates a shift towards a conjugally oriented relationship in which the husband and wife are more likely to take into account the interest of the other sex and of conjugal unit as a whole. He also suggested a process which comprises the entire complex of interactions, roles, rights and statuses that surround being male versus being female in a given society or culture.

Kishor and Gupta (2004) revealed that average women in India were disempowered absolutely relative to men, and there had been little change in her empowerment over time. The authors viewed that there were several cogent and pressing reasons for

evaluating, promoting and monitoring the level of women's empowerment in India, not the least of which was that household health and nutrition was generally in the hands of women and their empowerment was necessary for ensuring not just their own welfare, but the wellbeing of households. They also asserted that empowerment was critical for the very development of India, as it enhanced the quality and quantity of human resources available for development.

Lewina (1999) explored that overall economic development and the process of modernization in the Third World would bring about an improvement in the status of women by benefiting both men and women equally. Later it has been argued that the structural adjustment programs of the World Bank and the IMF are creating problems for women by imposing greater burdens on them through the abolition of price controls and food subsidies, public service cutbacks and increased male unemployment. As a result the "feminization of poverty" has become prominent in recent years.

In a study, Parveen and Leonhauser (2004) found that education, training and exposure to information media have the potential to increase women's empowerment. They also found effective initiatives undertaken by the concerned agencies in improving women's education, skill acquisition training and access to information could enhance women's empowerment in order to achieve gender equality and development at all levels in the rural society of Bangladesh. In their study it was suggested that as different donors constitute a vital contributing factor in upgrading women's status in Bangladesh by eliminating discrimination against girls and women by funding different projects relating to education, agricultural production, health, human rights etc. through GOs and NGOs, they should conduct regular proper monitoring and evaluation specifically to minimize the gender gap as well as to fulfill the Millennium Development Goals.

Allahdadi (2011) in her study explored that the empowerment of women for the elimination of gender discrimination and the creation of a balance of power between men and women, will not only be beneficial to women, but society as a whole shall benefit politically, economically and culturally. In her study she suggested a range of strategies that could enhance rural women's empowerment, including the use of agricultural cooperatives in this process.

Lazo (1995) stated that women's state of powerlessness is borne by a combination and interaction of environmental and personal factors and these powerlessness arises from

their illiteracy, lack of awareness, lack of information and knowledge about markets and lack of skills, their overall lack of self-esteem and self-confidence, their lack of money, their lack of job opportunities, lack of connections to those who can provide jobs and lend them money to start their own small enterprise. Later it has been explored that after a certain period women remain in a state of blissful ignorance and most survive in the belief that they cannot change their poor situation. As a result of this long-standing poverty and powerlessness the women lose their sense of control over their environment. Khuda et al. (2000) in their study indicated that six factors such as inter-spousal communication on family planning, desire for children, women's education, women's employment status, access to mass media and program efforts largely account for the reproductive change in Bangladesh. In their study, it was suggested family planning program efforts as part of the broader reproductive health package, the government should also attach greater priority to development in the social sector, including enhancement of women's status, especially through increased female educational and employment opportunities, and improved access to the media.

Rahman and Ara (2006) in their study stated that women have acquired a legitimate space in rural political institutions that can raise their marginalized position, though they are still a minority. In their study it was clearly noticed that without women's needs and interests being taken into account, without opportunity for them to participate in and influence decision-making, effective development and sustainable outputs will not come. By involving with this leadership positions at least they have the opportunity to attend the meetings, interact with officials and take part in important discussions which ensures their mobility across the social hierarchy. They also explored that empowerment is a useful concept because it emphasizes the idea of women as active agents in, rather than passively recipients of development strategies and accordingly, participation is considered as an essentially first step in order to empower women as well as created a new avenue to enhance decision-making capacity in the democratic institution at the grass-roots level.

Lopez-Claros and Zahidi (2005) in their study attempt to assess the current size of the gender gap by measuring the extent to which women have achieved equality with men in five critical areas such as economic participation, economic opportunity, political empowerment, educational attainment, and health and well-being. They also finds

Information on different issues through information technologies have become a potent driving force of the development process, represent so far another dimension in which a knowledge gap has emerged between women and men.

Alsop and Heinsohn (2005) in their working paper introduced about some indicators namely, right to engage in politics and / or public life and their participation in women's groups, right to get education preference, extent of awareness about reproductive health issues especially on maternal health care and human rights like, equal rights in the society, equal right for income and/or wage in working place, that can be used to measure and track empowerment. They also distinguished between different degrees of empowerment is important for two reasons. One, it helps to identify indicators that adequately reflect an empowerment outcome. Two, the distinction between different degrees of empowerment makes it possible to capture gradual advancements in the empowerment status of women. He suggested in his study, before a woman can take effective action against an abusive husband, she first needs to be aware of her rights then she must make use of her right.

A study by the USAID (2001) has found that countless women in the developing world are further removed from the information age because of their lower levels of education and deeply ingrained negative attitudes towards other forms of achievement. Without access to information technology, an understanding of its significance and the ability to use it for social and economic gain, women in the developing world will be further marginalized from the mainstream of their communities, their countries and the world.

Chandrasekaran et al. (2007) found that domestic violence levels comparable to other studies from around the world. They recommended highlighting the need for additional training among health care providers in voluntary HIV counseling and testing (VCT) centers in screening for domestic violence, detection of signs of physical abuse and provisions and referrals for women suffering from domestic partner violence.

In another study of married women in rural Maharashtra, Jain et al. found that almost half of the respondents said they had been slapped, hit, kicked or beaten by their husbands at some time 24% reported being kicked, 44% during pregnancy; 12% were specifically threatened by their husbands with having kerosene oil poured on them to set them on fire; and 30% of assaults required medical care. (Jain D et al, 2004)

Jain et al. (2004) in a study found that having low income was highly correlated with domestic violence. This finding is consistent with a large body of research suggesting that the stressors of poverty may put a significant burden on families and these tensions can erupt into violence. (Koenig et al., 2006).

In another study Jain et al. (2003) a related finding, however, a woman's employment, contribution to household budget and access to savings were not found to be protective against domestic violence. Being employed actually increased the likelihood that a woman would have experienced domestic violence. This is consistent with findings from another study in Bangladesh, which found that in culturally conservative areas, higher status of women vis-à-vis that of their husband predisposed women to domestic violence.

Burazeri et al. (2005) in a study identified that an inverse relationship between a woman's educational attainment and domestic violence. They also found that the risk of spousal violence is high, and more empowered women are at greater risk.

In a study Hashemi et al. (1996) found that women's empowerment can only be achieved by increasing women's consciousness about gender and class relations, and organizing them to engage in grassroots struggles for women's rights. They also suggested that involvement in credit programs does empower women. Participants in Grameen Bank and BRAC increases women's mobility, their ability to make purchases and major household decisions, their ownership of productive assets, their legal and political awareness and participation in public campaigns and protests.

Malhotra and Mather (1997) identified that a women's role in household decision-making is mainly control over money matters and other important household matter is a function of the family structure but whether a woman lives in a joint family (which includes the mother in law), or where she is a mother in law, or if she lives in nuclear family structure will impact her autonomy. We expect that in a joint family she will have less autonomy than in a nuclear family structure. They also found that education is one of the indicators of empowerment which may control over decision making.

Mahanta (2008) in her paper found that in Assam, a constituent State of India, women are in a disadvantageous position both in absolute sense and relative to men in the area of access to education, employment and exposure to media, most of them do not have final say about the use of their own earnings and they do not have household decision making

power, particularly in large household purchases. She also found traditional gender norms particularly those concerning wife beating are still prevailing in the society.

Ojobo (2008) in his study stated that education is an instrument per-excellence for effective national development as well as a dynamic instrument of change.” it is also the basis for the full promotion and improvement of the status of women. Education empowers women by improving their living standard. It is the starting point for women’s advancement in different fields of human endeavor. He finally, found educational empowerment of women is the spring board to every other form of empowerment (political, social, economic etc).

Khan et al. (2010) in their study explored that education provides awareness, confidence and knowledge to the women that help them to decide about their lives and the lives of their intimates. They also found women do not play significant role in politics due to patriarchal culture and restricted mobility of women. In their study it was suggested that The Government should allocate top priority to the education of females for improving their status in society and there is dire need to encourage women's participation in politics at state level.

Sambangi (2011) in a study in Tamil Nadu, India found that still female literacy rate is wadding behind male literacy rate and rate of school drop outs is also found to be comparatively higher in case of women. This higher rate of illiteracy of women is undoubtedly attributing for women dependence on men and to play a subordinate role. Lack of education is the root cause for women’s exploitation and negligence. He also explored that only literacy can help women to understand the Indian’s constitutional and legislative provisions that are made to strengthen them and thus promoting education among women is of great important in empowering them to accomplish their goals in par with men in different spheres of life. In that study he suggested that since the prevailing situation of poor or less enrolment of girls in schools closes the doors for development and prosperity of future generation of women, concerted efforts must be initiated jointly by the government, parents and civil society to achieve universal enrolment for girls without any compromise. The enrolment can be made even mandatory for every girl by the government in the realm of compulsory education. He also recommended that every family irrespective its socio-cultural and economic background can take it a challenge to bring up their girl children as dignified human being with empowerment in physical, mental, economic and social dimensions of life.

Malik and Courtney (2011) in their research article explored to what extent participation in higher education offers empowerment to women in Pakistan. They found women in their study highlighted economic independence and an increased standing within family and society as the main benefits of higher education participation. A major finding of this study is that participation in higher education enables women to impact on a number of discriminatory practices simultaneously and thereby effect change for the better. It was recommended in their study that future educational strategies are needed to be developed with the aim of further promoting gender equality in all areas of education, but particularly with the aim of increasing female students' participation in higher education.

From the above literature it is suggested that no doubt education is a ladder of women empowerment. Through education women can achieve psychological, cognitive, economic and socio-political understanding of gender relation. It also grows up self-confidence and self-esteem of women in particular. Awareness and understanding of the difference between sex roles and gender roles are the outcomes of women empowerment. So quantifying women empowerment is theoretical as well as empirical task. Many scholars suggest various dimensional measurement of women empowerment. In this study an attempt has been made to summaries those dimensions concerning contemporary socio-economic situation of women, a three dimensional approach of the measurement of women empowerment is developed. The three dimensions would be empirically computed considering the corresponding indicators: (1) Economic decision making dimension which includes the indicators (i) who decides how to spend money, (ii) decision of purchasing large household goods, and (iii) decision about household purchases for daily needs; (2) Household decision making dimension which includes the indicators (i) decision on own health care, (ii) decision on child health care, (iii) decision on family member health care, and (iv) final say on food to be cooked every day; and (3) Freedom of physical movement dimension which includes the indicators (i) final say on visits to outer family member or relatives, (ii) goes outside the village/town/city alone, and (iii) goes to shopping or cultural program or any ceremony. Five indicators that can help the women to be empowered in the society such indicators are male-female equal right in the society, male-female equal right for education, male-female equal right for wage, female participation in politics and; the right for maternal health care is ultimately needed to gather sound health of mother and child. Women would explore them by

participating in different NGOs and / or GOs at grass-root level may be one of the major strategies of women empowerment and this participation measure stimulates the women to go forward one step for leadership development. To prevent different types of violence against women it needs to take proper initiatives from the domestic environment which would help to examine the present situation of domestic violence originated from husband to other family members and this violence against women would be reduced without human intervention if the spousal relationship is become strongest.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

With a clear understanding of the research focus the research will be conducted with the following specific objectives:

1. To study the relationship of education and women empowerment
2. To identify the measurement and determinants of women empowerment
3. To identify how information about the indicators of women empowerment reached to women
4. To identify the way of leadership development
5. To identify violence status and its adaptive capacity in familial environment.

1.5 Limitations of the Study

As it is an exploratory type of work very few studies have concentrated in this area of research. So, there is hardly any scope of advancing this study towards sophistication. Again the co-operation of familial guardians was not encouraging to contribute more time to provide proper information. This study based totally on the information of the respondents. If we could incorporate the information from the respective guardian of each respondent with the present data; this study could be improved to a remarkable standard. Again data which used in this study suffer from the problems of proper method of sampling due to lack of sufficient time and interviewers. Despite these limitations an attempt has been made to fulfill the objectives of the study. The results and policy implication will be valid up to the data limitation.

1.6 Outline of the Study

The present study is divided into eight chapters. The first chapter is mainly the perspective of the study which provides an overall idea about the study including various objectives set and methodology followed in the work. A review of literature is also done

briefly in the same chapter. In the second chapter the data, its evaluation & method of analysis have been placed. In the third chapter the role of children enrollment and women's education to develop has been explained. In the fourth chapter determinants of women empowerment have been explicated. In the fifth chapter contribution of information on various indicators to empower women has been discussed. In the sixth chapter the contribution of different organizations to develop women's leadership has been presented. The seventh chapter both familial and husband's tortures prohibit the women empowerment have been discussed. The eighth chapter is the concluding chapter which contains the summary and discussion and the major findings with some policy implications to bridge the gender gap.

Chapter Two

Data and Methodology

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2.1 Introduction

Research methodology is the philosophy of research to systematically solve the problem. In this methodology, we study the various steps that are generally adopted by a researcher in studying his research problem along with the logic behind them. It is necessary for the researcher to understand not only the research methodology but also consider the logic behind the methods which is used in the context of the research study and explain the research is conducted. The present chapter is confined to indicate a brief description of data (i.e. sample design, collection of data, development of questionnaire, fieldwork, constraint of conducting field work and data processing), analytical methodology and some other issues relevant to the study.

2.2 Sampling Design for the Survey

The sampling frame of this study is designed with the help of Community Series, Population Census 2001 for 16 districts of Rajshahi division. There are a total of 16 districts in Rajshahi division and the Community Series provided the required list of districts, upazilas, municipalities and villages with location and address, total number of women etc. which are required and relevant to this study. For the financial and time constraint, the recognized sample size for the women could not be met properly. The study was planned to cover 16 villages for rural areas and 16 mohollas for municipalities' areas (16+16=32) from 16 districts of Rajshahi division.

Table 2.2.1: Number of sample units by cluster

S.N.	Districts	Upazilas	Union/Municipality	Villages/Mohollas	Sample size
1	Dinajpur	Fulbari	Eluary	Ganipur	50
			Fulbari	Sujapur	50
2	Thakurgaon	Ranisonkail	Nuluar	Balidara	50
			Ranisonkoil	Vandara	50
3	Panchagarh	Panchagarh	Dhakkamara	Dhakkamara	50
			Panchagarh	Dokorpara	50
4	Kurigram	Chilmari	Ramna	Ramna	50
			Chilmari	Sobujpara	50
5	Lalmonirhat	Lalmonirhat	Barabari	ChhotaBasuria	50
			Lalmonirhat	BDR Hatpara	50
6	Nilphamari	Nilphamari	Dakkhin Chawra	Dakkhin Chawra	50
			Palashbari	Taranibari	50
7	Rangpur	Badarganj	Kutubpur	Khiarpara	50
			Badarganj	Stationpara	50
8	Gaibandha	Gobindaganj	Kamardaha	Kamardaha	50
			Gobindaganj	Buzruk	50
9	Joypurhat	Joypurhat	Puranapail	GadanSahar	50
			Joypurhat	CO Coloni	50
10	Bogra	AdamDighi	AdamDighi	Shialson	50
			Santahar	Santahar	50
11	Naogaon	Badalgachhi	Adaipur	Deulia	50
			Badalgachhi	Collegepara	50
12	Natore	Lalpur	Chanangadupuil	Gosainpur	50
			Lalpur	Uttarlalpur	50
13	Rajshahi	Godagari	Basudebpur	Paharpur	50
			Godagari	Gangobari	50
14	Chapai Nawabganj	Chapai Nawabganj	Islampur	Chataidubi	50
			Chapai Nawabganj	Balubagan	50
15	Sirajgoanj	Kazipur	Gandail	Dublai	50
			Kazipur	Alampur	50
16	Pabna	Atgharia	Ekdanta	Shibpur	50
			Atghoria	Debottar	50

Since there are several types of villages in rural areas and mohollas in municipalities in respect of the number of households, the villages and mohollas were selected using cluster sampling with 50 households in each village and 50 households in each moholla. So each of the clusters consists of 50 households for both rural areas and municipalities and ultimately the sample size is $50 \times 32 = 1600$. Following table shows the total number of districts, and the chosen upazilas, villages and mohollas with Union and Municipality of corresponding districts, and sample sizes for different clusters.

2.3 Data Collection

A structured questionnaire was adopted for household-level survey. The reproductive aged (15-49 years) woman who is the prime decision maker of the family was interviewed. The questionnaire comprised the questions regarding general profile of the respondents, maternal health care, perception about formal and non-formal education and educational facilities, decision for different sphere of family life, contribution of the respondents to the family in firm and non-firm activities, representation in socio-political activities, right and opportunity to pertain her own assets, receiving any information about some indicators of women empowerment, perception about the leadership of organizational activities, and physical and/or mental torture from husband and/or other family members.

2.4 Data Processing and Analysis

The easiest procedure of analyzing the data is to use computer program. At present no body thinks to analyze the data without a suitable computer program. No other alternative is available to analyze the data quickly, easily and correctly. So I have selected a suitable computer program for data entry and analysis. For the data processing and analysis following stages are followed:

Editing:

The data are edited rigorously to make collection of any existing inconsistencies in data and to minimize non-sampling error of the study. After editing the questionnaires have been ready for coding.

Coding:

After editing the questionnaire, the data were coded according to code plan. After the completion of coding, the data are ready for processing in the computer.

Computerization:

Edited and coded data are next processed in the computer. Entire computerization of data has performed by a computer package named SPSS for windows version 15.0, the most convenient program for data analysis for social sciences, was used. Microsoft Excel and Microsoft Word are also used for completing the research. To analyze the data all the qualitative variables were coded.

2.5 Fieldwork

The fieldwork was conducted from February 2009 to April 2009. The questionnaires were rechecking on May 2009. So, the fieldwork was continued from February 2009 to May 2009.

2.6 Constraint on Conducting Field Work

Several constraints in doing the field work were faced which are summarized in three categories – (i) problems related to finalizing the clusters of analysis (ii) availability of the respondents of the households and (iii) limited cooperation from the respondents due to time constraints.

(i) Problems related to finalizing the clusters of analysis:

At first, the sample frame was made by taking the cluster with the help of Community Series, Population Census, 2001 for Rajshahi division. On going for field work, it was found that there were some villages for rural areas and/or mohollas for municipalities whose names and number of household were given in the report of Community Series, Population Census, 2001 for Rajshahi division but there was no proper existence of these clusters in fact. So the non-existent clusters were duly replaced by similar existent cluster for finalizing the clusters of analysis.

(ii) Complexity in the availability of the respondents of the households:

The respondents of the study were the prime policy maker and reproductive aged (15-49 years) women of the households. Unfortunately, it was difficult to ensure their availability. Though the field investigators went to them frequently, after making pre-appointment, they were not available in time. So, field investigators had to go to them several times to reach them. That was really time consuming, expensive and embarrassing as well.

(iii) Limited cooperation from the respondents due to time constraints:

The questionnaire comprised a wide range of questions and there were some sensitive question in the questionnaire; the interviews were time consuming and sensitive with respect to personality of the respondents. Though the field investigators humbly appealed, the respondents did/could not cooperate properly due to time constraints and personal sensitiveness. Even in some cases they opined that none did give any benefit regarding any kind of survey in the past. So, in most cases their interviews were conducted twice or thrice in different days. These types of problem of limited cooperation of the respondents were faced in the survey.

2.7 Description of the Variables

In this study, it has considered reproductive aged (15-49 years) women only. To investigate various aspects of the women in 16 districts of Rajshahi division in Bangladesh, it deals with large number of variables. For the suitability of this study some variables are recoded and at the same time some new variables are created by combining information of some other variables instead of the variables with the original codes. The selected socio-economic and demographic variables used in this study.

The demographic characteristics included in this study are respondent's age, marital status, respondent's age at marriage, etc. This study also includes socio-economic characteristics which are place of residence, respondent's education, respondent's occupation, religion, involvement with different organizations, torture by both husband and family members, tackling capability, etc.

Table 2.7.1: List of variables with their categories and codes

Variables	Categories with codes
Age of respondent (years)	1 = <20 2 = 20 to 29 3 = 30 to 39 4 = 40+
Age at marriage of respondent (years)	1 = <15 2 = 15-19 3 = 20-24 4 = 25+
Marital status	1 = Married 2 = Unmarried 3 = Widow 3 = Divorced 4 = Separated
Place of residence	1 = Rural 2 = Urban
Respondent's educational level	0 = Illiterate 1 = Primary 2 = Secondary 3 = Higher secondary 3 = Tertiary
Respondent's religion	1 = Muslim 2 = Non-Muslim
Household head	1 = Male 2 = Female
Respondent's occupation	1 = Housewife 2 = Service 3 = Business 4 = Students 5 = Labor 6 = Tailoring

Housing condition	1 = Pacca 2 = Semi pacca 3 = Kancha 4 = Tin 5 = Straw
Respondent's earning status	1 = Earner 2 = Non-earner
Household per-capita monthly income (Tk.)	1 = 1-5000 2 = 5001-10000
Household monthly expenditure (Tk.)	3 = >10000 1 = 1-5000 2 = 5001-10000 3 = >10000
Information on different indicators	1 = Male-female equal right for education 2 = Female participation in politics 3 = Right for maternal health care 4 = Male-female equal right for wage 5 = Male-female equal right in the society
Respondent's involving organization	1 = NGO 2 = Community based organization 3 = Business association 4 = Socio-cultural association 5 = Religious association 6 = Political association
Priority level of organization	1 = First priority 2 = Second priority 3 = Third priority
Effectiveness of leader's leadership	1 = High effective 2 = Medium effective 3 = Less effective 4 = Not effective

Leader selection process of the organization	<p>1 = Outside person by desire</p> <p>2 = Inter members based on success</p> <p>3 = Inter-member ignoring success</p> <p>4 = Election</p> <p>5 = Doesn't know</p>
Satisfaction about leader selection process	<p>1 = Highly satisfied</p> <p>2 = Medium satisfied</p> <p>3 = Little satisfied</p> <p>4 = Not satisfied</p>
Benefit receives from the organization	<p>1 = Highly benefited</p> <p>2 = Medium benefited</p> <p>3 = Little benefited</p> <p>4 = Not benefited at all</p>
Spousal relationship	<p>1 = Very good</p> <p>2 = Good</p> <p>3 = Bad</p> <p>4 = Very bad</p> <p>5 = Normal</p> <p>6 = No husband (separated, divorced and widowed)</p>
Husband's torture	<p>1 = Always torture</p> <p>2 = Not at all</p> <p>3 = Previously tortured but not presently</p> <p>4 = Occasionally</p>
Familial torture	<p>1 = Don't face torture</p> <p>2 = Face torture</p>
Tackling capability against torture	<p>1 = Always tackle against torture</p> <p>2 = Never tackle against torture</p> <p>3 = Previously tackled but not presently</p> <p>4 = No positive consequence</p> <p>5 = Tolerate by anyhow</p>

2.8 Development of Questionnaire

According to the goal of this research problem, a questionnaire was made. Data has been collected through individual questionnaire. The questionnaire was designed considering the following characteristics:

- (i) Number of questions in the questionnaire should be limited;
- (ii) A respondent should adequately be assumed that his identity will not be against her interest;
- (iii) Avoid long and confusing questions and formulate simple and short questions;
- (iv) Start with easy questions then slowly put the difficult ones. But maintain ones of its sequences are essential in the questionnaire for the research work.

To avoid unnecessary trouble and hazardous situation, pre-testing of the schedule were done and modification of the contents of the schedule were made in the light of pre-testing. A draft questionnaire was first prepared and pre-testing of the same was completed. It was then finalized for field survey by eliminating the anomalies and inconsistencies present in the draft questionnaire. Questions are arranged in logical sequence and all questions relating to one aspect are grouped under one sub-head.

Most of the questions are closed ended and the answers chosen by the respondents were indicated by the tick mark. Some open-ended questions are included to find out the opinions of the respondents with having space provided for writing in answers. Considering the difficulties of analysis of open-ended questions, we kept the number of open-ended questions to minimum. While designing the questionnaire, attention was given to the wording of the questions so that the respondents found it simple and understand it easily. In certain situation local dialect of some terminology are used.

The questionnaire was used to collect information from reproductive aged (15-49 years) women. The women were asked questions on the following topics:

- Some common personal characteristics of the respondents such as age, sex, education, religion etc;
- Knowledge and use of family planning methods;

- Child rearing and male-female children education preference;
- Opinion about gender equality;
- Involvement with different organizations;
- Husband's and familial torture and tackling capability

2.9 Analytical Tools and Techniques

The study used several statistical tools and techniques including frequency distribution, contingency table development and analysis, multiple linear regression analysis and logistic regression analysis. Since logistic regression analysis is a highly complex tool we describe below the technique.

Logistic Regression Analysis

Logistic regression analysis is a multivariate statistical technique that addresses the relationship between one qualitative dependent variable and a set of independent variables. That is, when the dependent variable is dichotomous or polychotomous one and one or more explanatory variables are qualitative or quantitative, the conventional general linear regression analysis can not be used and in this situation logistic regression analysis is used. Since the normality assumption is violated that is needed to infer about the estimator, to overcome this problem, a very interesting and appropriate technique is the linear logistic regression method. Cox is the pioneer of logistic regression model. Subsequently this model was illustrated by Walker and Duncun (1967) and Cox himself (Cox, 1970). More recently Lee (1980) and Fox (1984) have further illustrated the Cox's model. The logistic regression method does not require any distributional assumption. This regression is useful when the dependent variable is dichotomous. Since it does not require any distributional assumptions, unlike many other multivariate techniques (i.e. the variables are normally distributed with equal variances), it can appropriately handle situations in which the independent variables are qualitative or measured in nominal and ordinal scale. The logistic regression model can be used not only to identify risk factors but also to predict the probability of success. This model expresses a qualitative dependent variable as a function of several independent variables, both qualitative and quantitative (Fox, 1984).

Let Y_i denote the dichotomous dependent variable for the i th observation and $Y_i = y_i = 1$, if the i th individual is a success and $Y_i = y_i = 0$, if the i th individual is a failure.

So that, $p_i = E\{y_i = 1 \mid X_i\} = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i)}}$, where X_i is explanatory variable and

$$\begin{aligned} 1 - p_i &= E\{y_i = 0 \mid X_i\} = 1 - \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i)}} \\ &= \frac{e^{-(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i)}}{1 + e^{-(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i)}} \\ &= \frac{1}{1 + e^{(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i)}} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, we can write

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{p_i}{1 - p_i} &= \frac{1 + e^{(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i)}}{1 + e^{-(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i)}} \\ &= e^{(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X)} \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

Now if we take natural log of the equation (1) we obtain

$$L_i = \log_e \left(\frac{p_i}{1 - p_i} \right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i \quad (2)$$

Here, $p_i/(1-p_i)$ given in (1) is simply the odds ratio and L_i given in (2) is known as log-odds. Instead of single explanatory variable, we can count two or more explanatory variables. Let $X_{i1}, X_{i2}, \dots, X_{ik}$ be the vector of k independent explanatory variables for the i th response. The logarithm of the ratio p_i and $(1-p_i)$ gives the linear function of X_{ij} and the model (2) becomes,

$$L_i = \log_e \left(\frac{p_i}{1 - p_i} \right) = \sum_{j=0}^k \beta_j X_{ij} \quad (3)$$

Where we consider $X_{i0} = 1$ and β_j is the parameter relating to X_{ij} .

The function (3) is a linear function of both the variables X and the parameter β . L is called the logit and hence the model (3) is called logistic regression model.

Interpretation of the parameters

Interpretation of the parameters in logistic model is not so straight forward as in linear regression model. So it is relevant to present a little discussion about it. Since the logit transformation $L_i = \log_e\left(\frac{P_i}{1-p_i}\right)$ is linear in parameters, we can interpret the parameters using arguments of linear regression. Thus the interpretation may be described as follows,

We have, $P_i = \frac{e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \dots + \beta_k X_k}}{1 + e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \dots + \beta_k X_k}}$ is a linear in parameter.

$$\text{i.e. } L_i = \log_e\left(\frac{P_i}{1-p_i}\right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \dots + \beta_k X_k$$

So, arguing analogously as in the case of linear model we can say that β_j ($j=1,2,\dots,k$) represent the rate of change in $\log_e\left(\frac{P_i}{1-p_i}\right)$ for one unit change in X_j (other variables remaining constant).

The interpretation of the parameters in logistic regression has another interesting aspect. In fact, this is the proper interpretation for the parameters of qualitative variable coefficient. To describe this, we first consider that the independent variable (X_j) is dichotomous. This case is not only simplest but also it gives the conceptual foundation for all other situations. The description is given below.

We have $\text{Log}_e \frac{P_i}{1-p_i} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \dots + \beta_j X_j + \dots + \beta_k X_k$

Now if X_j is a dichotomous variable taking values 0 and 1, then the odds ratio 'O' (say) for $X_j = 1$ against $X_j = 0$ is (keeping all other X's fixed).

$$O = \frac{p_i(Y_i = 1 | X, X_j = 1) / \{1 - p_i(Y_i = 1 | X, X_j = 1)\}}{p_i(Y_i = 1 | X, X_j = 0) / \{1 - p_i(Y_i = 1 | X, X_j = 0)\}}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
& \frac{e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \dots + \beta_j + \dots + \beta_k X_k}}{e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \dots + 0 \cdot \beta_j + \dots + \beta_k X_k}} \\
& = e^{\beta_j}
\end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Log}_e O = \beta_j$$

So, we can directly estimate the coefficients of a logistic regression model as $\log_e \hat{O}$ and hence can interpret. If a qualitative independent variable has m categories, we introduce only $(m-1)$ dummy variables and the remaining one is taken as reference category.

Estimation of the parameters

In order to estimate the unknown parameters we cannot use the standard OLS method. Because in that case we must face some special problem as non-normality of the disturbance terms, heteroscedastic variance of the disturbance terms, non-fulfillment of the axiom i.e. $0 \leq p_i = E(Y_i | X) \leq 1$ and questionable value of R^2 as a measure of goodness of fit.

To eliminate the above problem, Cox suggested the maximum likelihood estimation method in place of standard OLS method and proposed the following function:

$$\begin{aligned}
L(\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_k) &= \frac{\prod_{i=1}^n \exp(Y_i \sum_{j=0}^k \beta_j X_{ij})}{\prod_{i=1}^n \{1 + \exp(Y_i \sum_{j=0}^k \beta_j X_{ij})\}} \\
&= \frac{\exp\{\sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i \sum_{j=0}^k \beta_j X_{ij})\}}{\prod_{i=1}^n \{1 + \exp(Y_i \sum_{j=0}^k \beta_j X_{ij})\}} \\
&= \frac{\exp\{\sum_{j=0}^k \beta_j \sum_{i=1}^n X_{ij} Y_i\}}{\prod_{i=1}^n \{1 + \exp(Y_i \sum_{j=0}^k \beta_j X_{ij})\}}
\end{aligned}$$

$$= \frac{\exp\{\sum_{i=1}^n \beta_j t_j\}}{\prod_{i=1}^n \{1 + \exp(Y_i \sum_{j=0}^k \beta_j X_{ij})\}},$$

$$\text{where } t_j = \sum_{i=1}^n X_{ij} Y_i, j = 0, 1, \dots, k$$

The log-likelihood function is given by

$$\text{Log}_e L(\beta_0, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_k) = \sum_{j=0}^k \beta_j t_j - \sum_{i=1}^n \log_e \{1 + \exp(Y_i \sum_{j=0}^k \beta_j X_{ij})\}$$

In order to estimate the parameters of this function, the logit regression procedure of the statistical package SPSS for windows base 15.0 version may be used.

Chapter Three

Education and Women Empowerment

Chapter Three

Education and Women Empowerment

3.1 Introduction

Education is the catalyst on the way of most development process. Everything becomes easier with the help of proper education. Education, either formal or non-formal, is one of the dominant factors and the precondition for all types of development. Education makes human being as a resourceful person and human resource development is fruitful with training, skill and experience. Thus human resource development is a continuous process of such procedures where education reinforces the better training and experience.

In accordance with this stage it can be agreed that women education is more powerful tool of development. Along with this its can be said that women are half of the population; development goal can not be reached at a sustainable position without women's education. It is obvious that women look after their children very often so the perception of women about education reflects over their children. With respect to this, a male-female differential of educational enrollment shows the reflection of women's as well as men's education. Consequently, the perception of women about child education is required to give importance of child rearing and male-female education preference.

Concerning these issues both men and women should participate equally in education to reach better stages of life. Educational sustainability contributes women empowerment. Lazo (1995) stated that women's powerlessness arises from their illiteracy, lack of awareness, poor knowledge and skills and also from their lack of self-esteem and confidence. Khuda et al. (2000) argued that through facilitating female education, female empowerment, female mobility and access to the media Bangladesh implemented a strong family planning program effort, which has brought about a significant fertility decline.

Mason and Smith (2003) suggested that enhancing education and greater employment opportunities for women help to increase community norms and values which influence women empowerment. Parveen (2007) found that in Bangladesh the rural women's empowerment can be attained by fostering their educational gap to men.

ICPD (1994) Program of Action recommended that the change required about the policy and program of actions that will improve women's access to secure livelihoods and economic resources, alleviate their extreme responsibilities with regard to housework, remove legal impediments to their participation in public life, and raise social awareness through effective programs of education and mass communication.

The UN Millennium Project Taskforce on Gender Equality (2004) adopted an operational framework that assesses gender equality and women's empowerment, along with human capabilities as measured through education which is one of the three dimensions women empowerment. This project identified a strategic priority of strengthening the opportunities for post-primary education for girls while meeting commitments to universal primary education that must be acted upon in order to achieve gender equality and empower women and fulfill the MDG by 2015.

There is no denying that education substantially contributes to women empowerment. In this regard, Ojobo (2008) in his study stated that education is an instrument par-excellence for effective national development as well as a dynamic instrument of change which it is also the basis for the full promotion and improvement of the status of women. He also clarified that through education women can empower themselves by improving their living standard.

So for unveiling the actual picture of educational enrollment, educational progresses and perception about female education, the existing enrollment for different age and level in rural and urban areas of the male and female have to be taken into consideration. With this end in view, the perception about female education was tapped by asking the sampled respondents.

3.2 Educational Enrollment

In this stage, an attempt has been taken to study the differentials between male and female enrollment according to present educational structure of Bangladesh (BANBEIS, 2006)

which is shown in Table 3.2.1 that includes crude enrollment rate (CER), general enrollment rate (GER), age-specific enrollment rate (ASER) and level-specific enrollment rate (LSER) for the measurement of educational enrollment. It is to be mentioned that literacy rate (LR) is considered as a measurement of educational progress, that is, the output of education. From this table it is to be noted that there is no remarkable differentials in CERs of male-female within rural and urban. Further female are laggard than male in GERs within and between rural and urban respondents. Female are advanced in enrollment for the age group 6-10 years and for primary level in both rural and urban areas, whereas male are advanced in age groups 11-15 years, 16-17 years and 18 years & over in both rural and urban areas. Female are fallen behind in both higher secondary and tertiary education than male in both rural and urban areas, whereas female are more advanced in primary and secondary education than male in both rural and urban areas. From these data we can say that we have made sound advancement in educational enrollment up to secondary level of education but it is negative in both higher secondary and higher level of education. It is to be noted that due to late enrollment or some one's retardation the enrollment rates in primary level have exceeded 100.

Table 3.2.1: Rural-urban and male-female differential in crude, general, age and level specific enrollment rate

Indicators	Rural			Urban			Both		
	Male	Female	All	Male	Female	All	Male	Female	All
CER	25.70	27.84	26.73	28.33	31.21	29.72	26.98	29.52	28.20
GER	68.65	61.67	65.16	74.88	71.16	72.95	71.70	66.34	68.98
ASER									
6-10 years	86.43	89.11	87.75	82.30	91.16	86.46	84.43	90.06	87.14
11-15 years	78.77	75.46	77.57	90.38	84.02	87.12	84.52	79.77	82.34
16-17 years	56.00	42.22	48.48	60.29	55.81	57.79	58.04	48.86	52.98
18 years & over	23.44	12.65	17.41	42.86	38.42	40.26	33.07	25.95	29.03
LSER									
Primary	103.10	105.65	104.35	96.71	103.26	99.78	100.00	104.54	102.18
Secondary	63.21	72.69	67.99	67.79	79.45	73.77	65.48	76.09	70.88
Higher Secondary	46.67	27.78	36.36	88.24	73.26	79.87	66.43	50.00	57.37
Tertiary	21.09	11.45	15.70	51.59	37.85	43.56	36.22	25.07	29.87
LR	48.98	43.78	46.38	56.67	48.92	52.80	52.825	46.35	49.59

Note: CER: Crude Enrollment Rate; GER: General Enrollment Rate; ASER: Age Specific Enrollment Rate; LSER: Level Specific Enrollment Rate and LR: Literacy Rate.

3.3 Self-Sense about the Essence of Mother's Education for Child Rearing

A person becomes well enabling with the help of education. Accordingly women as a part of a society, they have to be well-educated which leads them as effective member of that society. So women's self-sense would need about their own education as well as their child education. Obviously children build their basic foundation accompanying with their mother for most of the time. There is no doubt that a woman who has self-sense about the essence of mother's education for child rearing will perform creditably well her God-given responsibility to the home and society at large. An educated woman who has such self-sense will be able to help her children with their school assignments, enlighten them in their school work, and inquire about the academic performances of her children. This will ensure blissful homes, well-educated and well-behaved children and contented husbands and an endowed nation. In this regard, an attempt has been made to explore the situations of self-sense about the essence of mother's education for child rearing. Table 3.3.1 shows the perception level of the respondents about the essence of mother's education for child rearing. It is revealed that about 60 percent rural respondents perceived that mother's education would be highly needed to rear child and about 69 percent for urban respondents. There is a slight differentials between rural and urban respondents about the perception for highly needed comment is gone in favor of urban area but for the comment from no needed to fairly needed is gone of rural area.

Table 3.3.1: Percentage distribution of the respondent's self-sense level about the essence of mother's education for child rearing

Perception level	Percentage		
	Rural	Urban	Both
No need at all	1.88	0.88	1.38
A little bit needed	5.88	3.25	4.56
Fairly needed	32.38	27.38	29.88
Highly needed	59.88	68.50	64.19
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00

A woman can beware of child rearing if she is educated, since most enlightenment campaigns in favor of child rearing are transmitted through the radio, television, newspapers, posters, pamphlets or magazines etc. Accordingly there need to assess the association between women's education and the perception level of self-sense about the essence of mother's education for child rearing which is represented in Table 3.3.2. From

this table it is observed that educational status of women are significantly (level of significance = 0.00) and positively associated with the perception level. The result is pertinent to mention here that the higher the level of education, the greater the likelihood that a women will efficiently rear their children.

Table 3.3.2: Contingency table of respondents' educational level and their perception level about the essence of mothers' education for child rearing

Perception level	Educational level of the respondent				
	Illiterate	Primary	Secondary	Higher secondary	Tertiary
No need at all	14	7	1	0	0
A little bit needed	32	22	18	1	0
Fairly needed	115	161	173	21	8
Highly needed	166	277	386	118	80
Chi-Square value = 119.72 and significance level = 0.00					

In this section an attempt has been taken to show a scenario of school enrollment of the children in relation to women's self-sense level about the essence of mother's education for child rearing. Table 3.3.3 presents that crude and general enrollment rate increases with increasing self-sense level about the essence of mother's education for child rearing. It is revealed that age specific enrollment rates for all age groups increase with increasing of self-sense level about the essence of mother's education for child rearing except male child for 6-10 years, where little bit needed category shows the higher enrollment rate than that of fairly needed category. It is also elucidated that level specific enrollment rates for all levels increase with increasing self-sense level about the essence of mother's education for child rearing except female child level specific enrollment rate for secondary education where fairly needed level shows smaller enrollment rate than that of a little bit needed level. The literacy rate also shows the progression of education to improve the perception level about the essence of mother's education for child rearing. Apparently as the education level of the children goes higher the self-sense level about the essence of mother's education for child rearing also becomes higher. It indicates that the women become enlightened with the education of their children.

Table 3.3.3: School enrollment of children by perception level of the respondent about the essence of mother's education for child rearing

Perception level	Crude enrollment rate (CER)			General enrollment rate (GER)								
	Male child	Female child	Total	Male child	Female child	Total						
No need at all	16.31	22.91	19.61	40.91	46.67	43.79						
A little bit needed	17.03	24.64	20.84	50.34	53.13	51.74						
Fairly needed	27.45	28.02	27.74	72.44	61.94	67.19						
Highly needed	27.80	30.52	29.16	73.79	69.67	71.73						
Age specific enrollment rate (ASER)												
Perception level	6-10 years			11-15 years			16-17 years			18 years & over		
	Male child	Female child	Total	Male child	Female child	Total	Male child	Female child	Total	Male child	Female child	Total
No need at all	71.33	80.12	75.73	69.17	70.67	69.92	16.67	0.00	8.34	0.00	0.00	0.00
A little bit needed	76.32	88.24	82.28	71.43	72.71	72.07	50.00	30.01	40.00	8.70	8.33	8.57
Fairly needed	87.99	83.06	85.53	79.29	73.17	76.23	60.98	43.12	52.04	36.11	13.27	22.94
Highly needed	89.54	89.93	89.74	87.79	83.87	85.83	61.23	55.24	58.24	36.84	32.89	34.56
Level specific enrollment rate (LSER)												
Perception level	Primary			Secondary			Higher secondary			Tertiary		
	Male child	Female child	Total	Male child	Female child	Total	Male child	Female child	Total	Male child	Female child	Total
No need at all	65.67	89.45	77.56	25.00	18.75	20.00	16.67	8.17	12.42	0.00	0.00	0.00
A little bit needed	78.32	94.68	86.50	50.00	64.71	58.06	25.65	12.56	19.11	15.70	18.00	16.85
Fairly needed	99.36	106.25	102.81	68.57	62.60	65.78	56.13	34.48	45.31	35.67	20.29	27.98
Highly needed	99.69	107.25	103.47	69.27	82.02	75.97	79.55	64.76	72.16	39.47	30.26	34.87
Literacy rate (LR)												
Perception level	Male			Female			Total					
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
No need at all	43.81	43.11	43.46	41.54	43.11	42.33	41.54	43.11	42.33	42.68	43.11	42.89
A little bit needed	47.72	48.66	48.19	48.66	49.24	48.95	48.66	49.24	48.95	51.39	51.39	51.39
Fairly needed	54.12	55.51	54.81	54.12	55.51	54.81	54.12	55.51	54.81	52.38	52.38	52.38
Highly needed	55.51	52.38	53.94	55.51	52.38	53.94	55.51	52.38	53.94	52.38	52.38	52.38

3.4 Importance of Women's Opinion for Providing Children with Education

The subordinate position of women in our society, even though this position is somewhat attenuated in higher social classes, is well-known. Limited representation in almost all situations, exclusive responsibility for child education, the more subtle signs of narrow career aspirations and low self-esteem about education create dependence and interdependence. A full definition of empowerment must include women's understanding of participation in the decision making ability to child education as a cognitive component. It makes understanding the self and the need to make choices about education. The participation in giving the opinion to child education is one of the explicit components of empowerment. In this view point an attempt has been made to explore the importance level of women's opinion for providing children with education which is represented in Table 3.4.1. From this table it can be said that about 50 and 33 percent women expressed that they have strong and medium importance of their opinion for providing children with education respectively. Whereas only 1.5 to 2.13 percent women in urban and rural areas respectively expressed that they have no ability to give the opinion for child education.

Table 3.4.1: Percentage distribution of importance level of women's opinion for providing children with education

Importance level	Percentage		
	Rural	Urban	Both
Has no importance	2.13	1.50	1.81
Has little importance	12.38	6.75	9.56
Has medium importance	36.38	28.88	32.63
Has a strong importance	43.38	57.38	50.38
No children	5.75	5.50	5.63
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00

Women's education can help to attain the educational development of her children which ensure their potentialities and maximum activation when necessary, Women's better education can also play role to aggregate of all the processes by which their children develop physical, mental and emotional capabilities, attitudes and other forms of behavior which turn into the positive outcome in their family in which they live. In this regard it is necessary to assess the association between women's education and their importance level of opinion for providing children with education which is clearly mentioned in Table 3.4.2. From this table it is obvious that educational status of women are significantly (level of significance = 0.00)

and positively associated with the importance level. The result is relevant to state here that the higher the level of education, the greater the chances that a women will proficiently educate their children.

3.4.2: Contingency table of respondents' educational level and their importance level of opinion for providing children with education

Importance level	Educational level of the respondent				
	Illiterate	Primary	Secondary	Higher secondary	Tertiary
Has no importance	12	8	8	1	0
Has little importance	51	63	35	2	2
Has medium importance	104	163	210	23	22
Has a strong importance	136	209	299	102	60
No children	24	24	26	12	4
Chi-Square value = 100.71 and significance level = 0.00					

In this section an attempt has been taken to show a picture of school enrollment of the children in relation to the importance level of women's opinion for providing children with education. Table 3.4.3 elucidates that crude and general enrollment rates increase with increasing importance level of women's opinion for providing children with education. It is found that age specific enrollment rates for all age groups increase with increasing importance level of women's opinion for providing children with education. The study also elucidate that level specific enrollment rate for all levels increase with increasing importance level of women's opinion for providing children with education except male level specific enrollment rate for tertiary level of education where medium importance level shows the higher enrollment rate than that of strong importance level. The literacy rate also shows the progression of education to improve the importance level about the importance level of women's opinion for providing children with education. Obviously as the education level of the children goes higher the self-sense level about the importance level of women's opinion for providing children with education also becomes higher. It indicates that the women become enlightened with the education of their children.

3.4.3: School enrollment of the children by the importance level of respondent's opinion for providing children with education

Importance level	Crude enrollment rate (CER)			General enrollment rate (GER)		
	Male child	Female child	Total child	Male child	Female child	Total child
Has no importance	21.63	26.17	23.90	52.50	53.59	53.05
Has little importance	22.25	27.67	24.96	58.27	57.52	57.90
Has medium importance	27.66	28.59	28.13	61.70	73.11	67.41
Has a strong importance	28.73	31.04	29.89	71.94	74.30	73.12

Importance level	Age specific enrollment rate (ASER)											
	6-10 years			11-15 years			16-17 years			18 years & over		
	Male child	Female child	Total child	Male child	Female child	Total child	Male child	Female child	Total child	Male child	Female child	Total child
Has no importance	80.12	81.45	80.73	64.62	63.64	64.13	32.33	33.33	32.83	0.00	10.00	07.77
Has little importance	83.71	84.59	84.15	66.67	74.51	70.59	33.33	40.34	36.84	22.58	13.33	18.03
Has medium importance	84.66	89.58	87.12	85.82	74.64	80.23	65.38	50.88	58.13	35.23	22.14	27.52
Has a strong importance	86.13	90.12	88.13	87.53	85.22	86.38	66.92	57.32	62.12	37.19	31.48	33.92

Importance level	Level specific enrollment rate (LSER)											
	Primary			Secondary			Higher secondary			Tertiary		
	Male child	Female child	Total child	Male child	Female child	Total child	Male child	Female child	Total child	Male child	Female child	Total child
Has no importance	88.35	100.36	94.36	46.15	27.27	37.50	25.00	0.00	13.33	0.00	05.00	03.77
Has little importance	92.59	107.93	100.26	66.67	64.71	65.66	27.78	40.00	34.21	16.13	6.67	11.48
Has medium importance	103.47	109.27	106.37	67.91	67.39	67.65	63.46	43.86	53.21	44.32	23.66	32.11
Has a strong importance	107.51	110.27	108.89	68.29	82.09	75.33	84.62	67.07	74.83	38.84	29.63	33.57

Importance level	Literacy Rate (LR)		
	Male	Female	Total
Has no importance	45.91	39.54	42.73
Has little importance	47.72	41.11	44.42
Has medium importance	54.12	46.12	50.12
Has a strong importance	52.51	45.84	49.18

3.5 Women's Self-assessment of Male-Female Children Education Preference

No doubt education is one of the most important phenomena of women empowerment. Education preference for female children as well as male children should be strengthened for the continuous process of women empowerment. In Bangladesh, male children are relatively advanced in education and like other sectors' work to female education. To uplift women in all aspects of daily life at most up to their counterpart i.e. men is now an essential object of the society. Consequently, women become dignified members of the society as assets, more specifically treated as human resource. When male-female educational differentiation is going on an equivalent of all aspects reached at a reasonable velocity. Education can resolve the problem at the initial stage. But the challenge remains how to encourage women to define their goals and incite them to prove their potential and make disillusion of society's assumptions of their potential. Through sheer force of habit, mothers pass traditions to their daughters. For poor rural families, the opportunity cost of sending their daughters to school is considered too high. The immediate, everyday need for girls to help with housework and on the farm to sustain the family takes priority, as the financial benefits of education become apparent only in the long run, if at all. This, coupled with poor hygiene, security conditions and classes that ignore cultural norms, results in girls being kept away from school. In cultures where dowries exist, girls are considered a burden on the family. In this way, the poverty cycle continues at the family level, which has disastrous repercussions on development at the national level. Rural families need to become aware that educating their girl child can drastically improve her future. Thus, she can become an asset rather than a burden to the family, the community and to the country as a whole. In this regard an attempt has been made to investigate the scenario of women's self-assessment of male-female children education preference. Table 3.5.1 shows the percentage distribution of the respondents' self-assessment of male-female children education preference. It is examined that about 77 percent rural respondents discerned that both male and female should get equal preference for education and 83 percent for urban respondents. The study also reveals that male preference is higher than the female preference regarding education. There is a minor differential between rural and urban respondents for all preferences level of male-female children education are gone in favor of urban area. So it may be come to a decision that rural

women have to upgrade their perception about the necessity of male-female children education preference.

Table 3.5.1: Percentage distribution of the respondent's self-assessment of male-female children education preference

Preference level	Percentage		
	Rural	Urban	Both
Male-Female equal preference	76.75	83.00	79.88
Male preference	12.25	8.75	10.50
Female preference	3.00	3.13	3.06
Doesn't think at all	8.00	5.13	6.56
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00

Gender inequality yet still characterized in the educational sector in many societies. Specially, in higher education male-female inequality subsists as more males are ahead than their counterpart. Consequently, the perception of women with respect to female education preference becomes lower than the expectation level. Table 3.5.2 gives the reflection of this scenario. Obviously a larger proportion of respondents irrespective of their educational level expressed that they have equal male-female children education preference. Comparison between male children education preference and female children education preference shows that the larger proportion of respondents argued in favor of male children education preference. A remarkable notice is seen that yet some women do not think at all about the male-female children education preference which is the reflection of ignorance of self consciousness.

Table 3.5.2: Percentage distribution of self-assessment about male-female children education preference according to respondents' educational level

Preference level	Educational Level of the Respondent				
	Illiterate	Primary	Secondary	Higher secondary	Tertiary
Male-Female equal preference	73.70	73.88	84.26	90.71	88.64
Male preference	13.76	14.13	7.61	4.29	7.95
Female preference	3.67	2.36	3.63	2.86	1.14
Doesn't think at all	8.87	9.64	4.50	2.14	2.27
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

In this segment an attempt has been taken to show the picture of school enrollment of the children in relation to women's self-assessment about male-female children education preference. Table 3.5.3 reveals that female children crude enrolment rate and general enrolment rate are higher among the male-female children education preference level for those respondents who argued in favor of female children education preference. It is also evident from this table that age specific and level specific female children enrolment rate are higher among the male-female children education preference level for those respondents who argued in favor of female children education preference except for 6-10 years age specific and primary level specific rate. In spite of the lower perception of the respondents for female children education preference, enrolment rates of female children are comparatively high than that of other perception levels. It may be suggested that if the perception level in favor of female children education preference is lift up female children enrolment rate can be reached at an optimum level.

Table 3.5.3: School enrollment of children by respondent's self-assessment of male-female children education preference

Preference level	Crude enrollment rate (CER)			General enrollment rate (GER)								
	Male child	Female child	Total	Male child	Female child	Total						
Male-female equal preference	27.55	29.83	28.59	73.26	67.92	70.48						
Male preference	25.80	24.64	25.26	67.74	53.75	60.63						
Female preference	19.77	40.00	32.23	58.62	81.97	75.56						
Doesn't think at all	25.00	28.14	27.03	60.75	64.37	63.40						
Age specific enrollment rate (ASER)												
Preference level	6-10 years			11-15 years			16-17 years			18 years & over		
	Male child	Female child	Total	Male child	Female child	Total	Male child	Female child	Total	Male child	Female child	Total
Male-female equal preference	84.44	90.33	87.27	86.65	81.88	84.37	63.21	53.57	57.72	36.79	30.32	33.20
Male preference	83.87	90.70	86.67	80.00	68.33	73.33	52.17	26.32	40.48	20.00	2.63	11.52
Female preference	76.47	78.95	77.78	50.00	96.55	86.49	100.00	83.33	85.71	37.00	35.57	36.00
Doesn't think at all	90.00	92.31	91.30	76.67	67.57	74.63	38.46	20.00	30.43	7.14	9.52	8.57
Level specific enrollment rate (LSER)												
Preference level	Primary			Secondary			Higher secondary			Tertiary		
	Male child	Female child	Total	Male child	Female child	Total	Male child	Female child	Total	Male child	Female child	Total
Male-female equal preference	99.74	106.08	102.79	64.99	84.47	74.30	75.47	55.00	64.23	39.62	28.52	33.40
Male preference	106.45	95.35	101.90	82.22	48.33	62.86	34.78	31.58	33.33	20.00	2.63	9.52
Female preference	76.47	89.47	83.33	75.00	86.21	83.78	100.00	83.33	85.71	33.33	57.14	50.00
Doesn't think at all	103.33	107.69	105.80	43.33	44.14	43.68	39.85	23.25	31.43	14.29	9.52	11.43
Literacy rate (LR)												
Preference level	Male			Female			Total					
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Male-female equal preference	53.91	39.54	46.73	39.54	46.73	43.14	46.73	46.73	46.73	46.73	46.73	46.73
Male preference	49.56	41.11	45.34	41.11	45.34	43.14	45.34	45.34	45.34	45.34	45.34	45.34
Female preference	51.12	42.12	46.62	42.12	46.62	44.37	46.62	46.62	46.62	46.62	46.62	46.62
Doesn't think at all	52.51	43.75	48.13	43.75	48.13	45.93	48.13	48.13	48.13	48.13	48.13	48.13

Chapter Four

Determinants of Women Empowerment

Chapter Four

Determinants of Women Empowerment

4.1 Introduction

Empowerment may be defined as the process of removing the factors which cause the powerlessness. Kabeer (2001) defines empowerment as “the expansion of people’s ability to make strategic life choices in a context where this ability was previously denied to them”. Empowerment has been used to represent a wide range of concepts and to describe a proliferation of outcomes. The term has been used more often to advocate for certain types of policies and intervention strategies than to analyze them. Mason and Smith (2003) in a working paper studied the multiple measures of married women’s empowerment in the domestic sphere in five Asian countries (India, Pakistan, Malaysia, Philippines, and Thailand). They suggested that gender relations are heavily influenced by community norms and values, is a far stronger predictor of women’s empowerment than individual traits and recommended the primary policy implication of changing community norms and values about gender relations for empowering women. They showed that empowerment is inherently a multi-dimensional phenomenon, with women relatively empowered in some spheres but not in others. They also suggest that raise of age at marriage, enhancing education and greater employment opportunities help to empower women, at least in some respect. According to the UNDP (HDR: 2003) frequent use of Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) is a composite measure of gender inequality in three key areas: Political participation and decision-making, economic participation and decision-making and power over economic resources.

4.2 Construction of Index

Women empowerment is a multidimensional process and it is very difficult to measure it in a quantitative scale. It comprises the entire complex of interactions, roles, rights and statuses that surround being male versus being female in a given society or culture (Karen Mason,

1997). However, in our study we have tried to measure women empowerment in a measurement scale by constructing women empowerment index as a quantitative manner using different dimensions in accordance with Mason and Smith (2003). The different indicators of women empowerment are summarized in three major dimensions of women empowerment and are given as follows:

1. Women's economic decision making
2. Their household decision making and
3. Their freedom of physical movement.

The detailed description of these three dimensions with their relevant indicators is given in Table 4.2.1. It was ascertained through a four-point scale having 10 statements which were positively stated. The women's responses were expressed by 'respondent alone', 'respondent and husband together', 'husband alone' and 'with other family member'. A score of 4, 3, 2 and 1 was assigned respectively to each positive statement. The first dimension comprises three indicators and so the minimum score this dimension is 3 and the maximum scores of this dimension is 12. The second dimension comprises four indicators and so the minimum score this dimension is 4 and the maximum scores of this dimension is 16. The last dimension comprises three indicators and so the minimum score this dimension is 3 and the maximum scores of this dimension is 12. Then an index of each dimension is constructed as follows:

$$\text{Dimension Index} = \frac{\text{Actual value} - \text{Minimum value}}{\text{Maximum value} - \text{Minimum value}}$$

So the performance in each dimension is expressed as the minimum and maximum value between 0 and 1 in accordance with the construction of the Human Development Index (HDI) developed by the United Nations Development Program (UNDP, 2005). These indices provide a measurement of the achievement of empowerment or autonomy of a woman and the achievement is the amount of the proportion of unity.

Table 4.2.1: Description of the indicators of three dimensions for constructing women empowerment indices

NO.	Dimension	Description of indicator	Response & Coding
1.	Economic decision making	Who decides how to spend money	4=Respondent alone 3=Respondent and husband 2=Husband alone 1=Other family member
		Decision of purchasing large household goods	4=Respondent alone 3=Respondent and husband 2=Husband alone 1=Other family member
		Decision about household purchases for daily needs	4=Respondent alone 3=Respondent and husband 2=Husband alone 1=Other family member
2.	Household decision making	Decision on own health care	4=Respondent alone 3=Respondent and husband 2=Husband alone 1=Other family member
		Decision on child health care	4=Respondent alone 3=Respondent and husband 2=Husband alone 1=Other family member
		Decision on family member health care	4=Respondent alone 3=Respondent and husband 2=Husband alone 1=Other family member
		Final say on food to be cooked every day	4=Respondent alone 3=Respondent and husband 2=Husband alone 1=Other family member
3.	Freedom of physical movement	Final say on visits to family or relatives	4=Respondent alone 3=Respondent and husband 2=Husband alone 1=Other family member
		Goes outside the village/town/city alone	4=Respondent alone 3=Respondent and husband 2=Husband alone 1=Other family member
		Goes to shopping or cultural program or any ceremony	4=Respondent alone 3=Respondent and husband 2=Husband alone 1=Other family member

4.3 Pattern of Women Empowerment

The empowerment of women is an essential element in the world especially for developing countries where women rights are neglected in providing the development of human life. The interest in women's empowerment among researcher has grown over the definition and measurement regarding multidimensional purpose. Several different efforts have been made in recent years to develop comprehensive frameworks delineating the various dimensions along which women can be empowered. Although women empowerment is multidimensional, however, in this study, considering the social structure and the reality we have considered three most important dimensions of women empowerment to measure the empowerment of women. The dimensions we consider are economic decision making, household decision making and freedom of physical movement. Women empowerment is usually described as a process and multifaceted concept, collecting knowledge from different studies and considering the reality, in this section an attempt has been made to see the pattern of women's empowerment by some socio-economic and demographic settings with the help of the mean value of the indices of three specific dimensions namely economic decision making, household decision making and freedom of movement. In this regard it would be observed that how women are empowered in different dimensions of decision making for the characteristics such as respondent's age, respondent's educational level, marital status, respondent's age at marriage, respondent's occupation, household size, household head, religion of the respondent, respondent's earning status, housing condition, household per capita monthly income and household monthly expenditure.

4.3.1 Empowerment in Economic Decision Making

Women empowerment in economic decision making refers to the women's ability to share or to control the decision processes regarding domestic financial matters with husband or other family members. It would uplift the status, control over resources, meeting the basic needs and altogether improving self-reliance, thereby reducing women's economic subordination. Indeed, the measurement of empowerment in economic decision making is calculated by three components such as participation in spending money about all purpose of the family's requirement, in purchasing a large amount of household goods and in

purchasing a tiny amount of daily needs. This index is indicated as economic decision making index (EDMI). The process of calculating this index is described earlier.

Table 4.3.1.1 presents the mean values of women's economic decision making index (EDMI) for some selected socio-economic and demographic settings of women. It is revealed that how women are empowered in economic decision making for some variables like respondent's age, respondent's age at marriage, respondent's educational level, respondent's occupation, household size, marital status, household head, housing condition, religion, respondent's earning status, household per-capita monthly income and household monthly expenditure. The overall mean values of EDMI are 0.488, 0.502 and 0.495 for rural, urban and combined group respectively. It is observed that lowest age group has lowest mean values of EDMI for rural, urban and combined groups. It elucidates higher educational categories have the highest mean value except higher education category for rural areas. Women those who involve with tailoring, day labor and service for rural, urban and combined groups have more decision making power in comparison with other professional. The mean EDMI is highest when the household size is lowest though in urban areas it depicts different result. Mean EDMI is higher for non-Muslim respondents, respondents who possess earning status and of respondents whose family heads are females. No specific pattern was observed for marital status, housing condition and age at marriage. The mean values of EDMI shows increasing pattern with the increasing per capita monthly household income for rural, urban and combined groups and this pattern is same for household monthly expenditure.

So, we can infer that urban women have more economic decision power in comparisons to the rural women. Moreover, young women have less power in taking economic decision in comparison to aged ones. On the other hand women of the small size families are more independent in taking the economic decisions. Further it is revealed that most of the educated women have more power in taking economic decision. Again earning women, non-Muslim women and women whose family heads are females have more economic decision making power. Women those who involve with tailoring, day labor and service for rural, urban and combined groups have more decision making power in comparison with other professional. Widowed, separated and divorced have more economic decision making power in comparison to married ones.

Table 4.3.1.1: Mean values of economic decision making index (EDMI) by some demographic and socio-economic variables

Variables	Rural	Urban	Both
Total	0.488	0.502	0.495
Respondent's age (years)			
<20	0.428	0.457	0.437
20-29	0.503	0.484	0.494
30-39	0.505	0.530	0.518
40+	0.458	0.492	0.476
Respondent's age at marriage (years)			
<15	0.482	0.502	0.495
15-19	0.494	0.498	0.496
20-24	0.503	0.504	0.504
25+	0.334	0.568	0.505
Respondent's educational level			
Illiterate	0.484	0.442	0.471
Primary	0.482	0.487	0.484
Secondary	0.490	0.508	0.500
Higher secondary	0.568	0.532	0.539
Tertiary	0.445	0.552	0.535
Respondent's occupation			
Housewife	0.491	0.491	0.491
Service	0.536	0.559	0.555
Business	0.395	0.668	0.476
Students	0.255	0.500	0.325
Day labor	0.670	0.627	0.631
Tailoring	0.690	0.690	0.690
Household size (no.)			
1-4	0.496	0.507	0.502
5-6	0.485	0.488	0.486
7+	0.417	0.517	0.455
Marital status			
Married	0.491	0.501	0.496
Unmarried	0.037	0.670	0.127
Widow	0.402	0.492	0.455
Divorced	0.630	0.000	0.540
Separated	0.817	0.762	0.780
Household head			
Male	0.487	0.497	0.492
Female	0.518	0.598	0.566
Housing condition			
Pacca	0.500	0.512	0.510
Semi pacca	0.508	0.507	0.508
Kancha	0.501	0.523	0.507
Tin	0.451	0.468	0.458
Straw	0.467	0.476	0.470

Religion			
Muslim	0.486	0.504	0.495
Non-Muslim	0.512	0.492	0.498
Respondent's earning status			
Not earner	0.485	0.487	0.486
Earner	0.519	0.578	0.559
Household per-capita monthly income Tk.)			
1-5000	0.485	0.477	0.482
5001-10000	0.490	0.509	0.499
>10000	0.491	0.517	0.509
Household monthly expenditure (Tk.)			
1-5000	0.488	0.493	0.490
5001-10000	0.483	0.508	0.498
>10000	0.520	0.512	0.514

But for unmarried ones, those of rural areas are powerless whereas those of urban areas have reasonable power in taking economic decisions. Moreover for rural women age at marriage is negatively associated with economic decision power where for urban women it is positively associated. May be females who are married at the age 25 or above are more affected psychologically and don't want to be more independent in taking economic decision.

Factors Affecting Women Empowerment

Multiple linear regression analyses are used to see the cause and effect of several phenomena on the empowerment of economic decision making dimensional index. Here, the dependent variable is the value of economic decision making index of the corresponding dimension. The quantitative independent variables used in this section respondent's age, respondent's education (year of schooling), household size, household per capita monthly income and household monthly expenditure and the qualitative independent variables are respondent's occupation, marital status, religion, household head, earning status of the respondent and housing condition. Regression results summarize in Table 4.3.1.2.

Table 4.3.1.2: Multiple linear regression of economic decision making index by some selected variables

Variables	Coefficients	t-value	Significance
(Constant)	0.424	9.374	0.000
Respondent's age	0.001	0.912	0.362
Respondent's education (year of schooling)	0.004	2.878	0.004
Household size	-0.008	-2.236	0.025
Respondent's occupation			
Non-housewife®			
Housewife	0.060	2.304	0.021
Marital status			
Unmarried®			
Married	0.113	4.278	0.000
Religion			
Non-Muslim ®			
Muslim	-0.002	-0.127	0.899
Household head			
Female®			
Male	-0.112	-4.291	0.000
Respondent's earning status			
Non Earner ®			
Earner	0.102	4.248	0.000
Housing condition			
Non-Pacca ®			
Pacca	0.001	0.069	0.945
Household per-capita monthly income (Tk.)	-0.00000002	-0.022	0.982
Household monthly expenditure (Tk)	0.00000002	0.114	0.909

Note: R = Reference category

Table 4.3.1.2 shows that the quantitative variables like respondent's age, respondent's education and household monthly expenditure have positive effect, whereas household per capita monthly income and household size have negative effect on respondent's economic decision making power. Here respondent's education, household size, respondent's occupation, marital status, household head and respondent's earning status have significant effect on respondent's economic decision making power. The result expresses that if respondent's age, respondent's education and household monthly expenditure increase one unit then economic decision making power of respondent increases by 0.001, 0.004 and 0.00000002 times respectively. On the other hand, if one unit increases in household size and household per capita monthly income, respondent's economic decision making power decrease by 0.008 and 0.00000002 times. On the basis of respondent's occupation,

housewife is 0.060 times more empowered than that of their non-housewife counterpart on economic decision making. According to marital status, married respondents are 0.113 times more empowered than that of their counter part unmarried women on economic decision making. Comparing religion, Muslim women are 0.002 times less empowered than that of their counter part non-Muslim respondent on economic decision making power. Respondents with male headed household are 0.112 times less empowered in economic decision making than that of their female headed households. According to earning status of the respondents, earning respondent are 0.102 times more empowered than that of their non earning women on economic decision making power. Respondents with pacca housing are 0.001 times less empowered in economic decision making than that of their part non-Pacca structured housing.

4.3.2 Empowerment in Household Decision Making

Empowerment of women regarding household decision-making refers to the extent of women's ability to participate in formulating and executing decisions on domestic affairs such as child-welfare, own and family health care in coordination with other family members. The increased role in household decision-making would enable women to improve their self-determination, control over resources, self-esteem, autonomy and status and power relations within households. That means the increased role of women in household decision-making will lead to their well-being. Measurement of empowerment of women in household decision making is calculated on the basis of four indicators such as women's control over decision on their own health care, child health care, health care of family members and food to be cooked every day. The detail description of the construction process of this index is given earlier in the present chapter.

Table 4.3.2.1 presents the mean values of women's household decision making index (HDMI) for some selected socio-economic and demographic settings of women. It is described that how women are empowered in household decision making for the characteristics such as respondent's age, respondent's age at marriage, respondent's educational level, respondent's occupation, household size, marital status, household head, housing condition, religion, respondent's earning status, household per-capita monthly income and household monthly expenditure.. The overall mean values of HDMI are 0.636,

0.655 and 0.645 for rural, urban and combined group respectively. It is observed that lowest age group have lower mean value of HDMI for rural, urban and combine group.

Table: 4.3.2.1: Mean values of household decision making index (HDMI) by some demographic and socio-economic variables

Variables	Rural	Urban	Both
Total	0.636	0.655	0.645
Respondent's age (years)			
<20	0.578	0.609	0.589
20-29	0.652	0.627	0.640
30-39	0.649	0.677	0.663
40+	0.610	0.661	0.637
Respondent's age at marriage (years)			
<15	0.627	0.664	0.643
15-19	0.642	0.651	0.646
20-24	0.673	0.651	0.660
25+	0.447	0.658	0.602
Respondent's educational level			
Illiterate	0.629	0.622	0.627
Primary	0.627	0.667	0.644
Secondary	0.645	0.654	0.650
Higher Secondary	0.694	0.645	0.656
Tertiary	0.631	0.681	0.673
Respondent's occupation			
Housewife	0.637	0.647	0.642
Service	0.716	0.683	0.689
Business	0.556	0.834	0.639
Students	0.451	0.730	0.531
Day Labor	0.780	0.711	0.717
Tailoring	0.766	0.866	0.816
Household size (no.)			
1-4	0.653	0.669	0.661
5-6	0.606	0.628	0.616
7+	0.616	0.593	0.607
Marital status			
Married	0.636	0.647	0.642
Unmarried	0.167	0.670	0.239
Widow	0.715	0.772	0.749
Divorced	0.667	0.890	0.699
Separated	0.870	0.958	0.929
Household head			
Male	0.630	0.645	0.638
Female	0.777	0.824	0.805
Housing condition			
Pacca	0.629	0.650	0.647
Semi pacca	0.668	0.669	0.669

Kancha	0.620	0.646	0.627
Tin	0.634	0.647	0.640
Straw	0.615	0.637	0.622
Religion			
Muslim	0.633	0.651	0.642
Non-Muslims	0.685	0.678	0.680
Respondent's earning status			
Not earner	0.631	0.642	0.636
Earners	0.691	0.720	0.711
Household per-capita monthly income (Tk.)			
1-5000	0.627	0.638	0.631
5001-10000	0.632	0.650	0.640
>10000	0.670	0.673	0.672
Household monthly expenditure (Tk.)			
1-5000	0.625	0.637	0.630
5001-10000	0.663	0.656	0.659
>10000	0.618	0.711	0.689

Note: R = Reference category

Middle age group (20-29 and 30-39 years) have larger mean value of HDMI for all the residential categories. Small household sizes have larger mean value of HDMI except rural household. Education has increasing pattern with increasing level of education for all the residential status. Widowed, separated, divorced and married women have more economic decision making power in comparison to unmarried ones. The mean value of HDMI for all the residential categories increases with the increasing age at marriage except 25+ categories and for rural residential <15 categories. Women those who involve with tailoring and day labour for both rural and urban groups have more household decision making power in comparison with other professional. Female headed and earner women have greater mean value of HDMI. Non-Muslim women have greater mean value of HDMI than that of their counterpart Muslims. Women those who lives in pacca and semi-pacca structured houses for both rural and urban groups have more household decision making power in comparison with other material's structured houses. Per capita monthly household income has an increasing pattern of mean value of HDMI for rural, urban and combined groups. Household monthly expenditure has an increasing pattern of mean value of HDMI for rural, urban and combined groups though >1000 category of rural household shows some inconsistency picture.

Factors Affecting Women Empowerment

Multiple linear regression analyses are used to see the cause and effect of several phenomena on the empowerment of household decision making index. Here, the dependent variable is the value of household decision making index of the corresponding dimension. The quantitative independent variables used in this section respondent's age, respondent's education (year of schooling), household size, household per capita monthly income and household monthly expenditure and the qualitative independent variables are respondent's occupation, marital status, religion, household head, earning status of the respondents and housing condition. Regression results summarize in Table 4.3.2.2.

Table 4.3.2.2: Multiple linear regression of household decision making index by some selected variables

Variables	Coefficients	t-value	Significance
Constant	0.761	17.984	0.000
Respondent's age	-0.0003	-0.469	0.639
Respondent's education (year of schooling)	-0.0004	-0.367	0.713
Household size	-0.023	-6.432	0.000
Respondent's occupation			
Non-housewife®			
Housewife	0.092	3.829	0.000
Marital status			
Unmarried®			
Married	0.043	1.758	0.079
Religion			
Non-Muslim ®			
Muslim	-0.034	-2.344	0.019
Household head			
Female®			
Male	-0.174	-7.156	0.000
Respondent's earning status			
Non-Earner ®			
Earner	0.110	4.889	0.000
Housing condition			
Non-Pacca ®			
Pacca	-0.028	-2.268	0.023
Household per-capita monthly income (Tk.)	0.000001	1.306	0.192
Household monthly expenditure (Tk.)	0.000007	4.409	0.000

Note: R = Reference category

Table 4.3.2.2 it is observed that the quantitative variables household per capita monthly income and household monthly expenditure have positive effect whereas respondent's age, respondent's education and household size have negative effect on household decision making. Here household size, respondent's occupation, marital status, religion, household head, respondent's earning status, housing condition and household monthly expenditure have significant effect on household decision making. The result expresses that if household per capita monthly income and household monthly expenditure increase one unit then household decision making power of women increases by 0.000001 and 0.000007 times respectively. On the other hand, if one unit increases in respondent's age, respondent's education and household size women's household decision making power decrease by 0.0003, 0.0004 and 0.023 times. On the basis of respondent's occupation, housewives are 0.092 times more empowered than that of their counter part non-housewife women on household decision making. According to marital status, married women are 0.043 times more empowered than that of their counter part unmarried women on household decision making. Comparing religion, Muslim women are 0.034 times less empowered than that of their counter part non-Muslim women on household decision making. Women with male headed household are 0.174 times less empowered in household decision making than that of their counter part female headed households. According to earning status of the respondents, earning women are 0.110 times more empowered than that of their counter part non-earning women on household decision making. This table also indicates that women with Pacca housing are 0.028 times less empowered in household decision making than that of their counter part non-Pacca structured housing.

4.3.3 Empowerment in Freedom of Physical Movement Decision Making

Empowerment in freedom of physical movement decision making refers to the freedom of women to move wherever they like without being escorted for their own needs and decent livelihood. Physical freedom of movement is another important factor in women's socio-political and economic empowerment. Several studies have revealed that promotion of women's freedom of physical movement is necessary to make them capable of making their own choices, to change their attitudes, to improve their social networks and to reduce their level of poverty. A mobility map analysis conducted by Shahanaj Parveen (2004) in Mymensingh, Bangladesh shows that rural wives generally visit their natal houses to meet

their old or sick parents, to get financial or any other kind of support during crisis periods. They go to the local town to buy clothes especially for their children. They visit the health centre mainly for the treatment of their sick children or for their own reproductive health care. We measure women's physical freedom of movement by making an index on the basis of questions about whether they can go outside the village/town/city or hospital alone, participate in cultural programs and whether they can visit their relative's house alone or with some one else. The detail of the construction process of the index is given in earlier of this chapter.

Table 4.3.3.1 presents the mean values of respondent's freedom of physical movement index (FPMI) in relation to some selected socio-economic and demographic settings of respondents. From this it can be indicated that how respondents are empowered in freedom of physical movement in relation to the characteristics such as respondent's age, respondent's age at marriage, respondent's educational level, respondent's occupation, household size, marital status, household head, housing condition, religion, respondent's earning status, household per-capita monthly income and household monthly expenditure. The overall mean values of FPMI are 0.503, 0.524 and 0.514 for rural, urban and combine group respectively. It is observed that the mean values of FPMI show higher than other categories. Education shows increasing trend with increasing level of education for all the residential status except the secondary and tertiary educational level for all residential respondents. Day labor and tailoring oriented respondents have greater mean value than that of other professional respondents. Household size increases with decreasing mean value of FPMI for all residential categories of women. Respondents from female headed families and earning respondents have greater mean value of FPMI. Higher mean values of FPMI observed those women are separated than other categories. Greater mean of FPMI is seen those respondents live in straw structured houses. Muslim and earning respondents have greater mean value of FPMI than that of their respective counterparts in both rural and urban areas.

Higher expenditure oriented urban respondents show the greater mean values of freedom of physical movement than that of rural counterparts. The age at marriage and household per-capita monthly income are shown any consistent sequence for the mean value of FPMI.

Table: 4.3.3.1: Mean values of freedom of physical movement index (FPMI) by some demographic and socio-economic variables

Variables	Rural	Urban	Both
Total	0.503	0.524	0.514
Respondent's age (years)			
<20	0.427	0.492	0.449
20-29	0.616	0.502	0.561
30-39	0.455	0.545	0.501
40+	0.438	0.526	0.485
Respondent's age at marriage (years)			
<15	0.557	0.506	0.536
15-19	0.472	0.524	0.499
20-24	0.467	0.571	0.526
25+	0.373	0.549	0.501
Respondent's educational level			
Illiterate	0.471	0.452	0.465
Primary	0.590	0.493	0.549
Secondary	0.436	0.513	0.479
Higher Secondary	0.567	0.624	0.612
Tertiary	0.454	0.606	0.582
Respondent's occupation			
Housewife	0.505	0.506	0.505
Service	0.449	0.613	0.584
Business	0.501	0.806	0.591
Students	0.435	0.780	0.534
Day Labor	1.000	0.657	0.686
Tailoring	0.512	0.710	0.611
Household size (no.)			
1-4	0.538	0.531	0.534
5-6	0.454	0.513	0.482
7+	0.400	0.487	0.432
Marital status			
Married	0.502	0.520	0.511
Unmarried	0.407	0.670	0.444
Widow	0.471	0.552	0.519
Divorced	0.667	0.000	0.571
Separated	0.927	1.000	0.976
Household head			
Male	0.499	0.516	0.508
Female	0.601	0.669	0.642
Housing condition			
Pacca	0.476	0.548	0.537
Semi pacca	0.449	0.549	0.506
Kancha	0.416	0.497	0.438
Tin	0.479	0.474	0.477
Straw	1.095	0.479	0.896

Religion			
Muslim	0.505	0.531	0.517
Non-Muslim	0.476	0.478	0.478
Respondent's earning status			
Not earner	0.500	0.501	0.500
Earner	0.546	0.644	0.612
Household per-capita monthly income (Tk.)			
1-5000	0.557	0.480	0.526
5001-10000	0.452	0.545	0.495
>10000	0.471	0.544	0.521
Household monthly expenditure (Tk.)			
1-5000	0.525	0.508	0.518
5001-10000	0.461	0.536	0.506
>10000	0.440	0.543	0.519

It is clearly revealed that urban women enjoy more freedom of physical movement than rural women. Among the rural respondents the freedom of physical movement is most enjoyed by separated, divorced and married than unmarried and widowed ones. But in urban areas both separated and unmarried women enjoy more freedom of physical movement than that of other ones. Generally women with higher education enjoy higher freedom of physical movement but with highest level of educated women become more conscious about the movement and try to restrict this.

Factors Affecting Women Empowerment

Multiple linear regression analyses are used to see the cause and effect of several phenomena on the empowerment of freedom of physical movement dimensional index. Here, the dependent variable is the value of freedom of physical movement index of the corresponding dimension. The quantitative independent variables used in this section respondent's age, respondent's education (year of schooling), household size, household per capita monthly income and household monthly expenditure and the qualitative independent variables are respondent's occupation, marital status, religion, household head, earning status of the respondents and housing condition. Regression results are summarized in the table 4.3.3.2.

Table 4.3.3.2: Multiple linear regression of freedom of physical movement index by some selected variables

Variables	Coefficients	t-value	Significance
Constant	0.470	8.789	0.000
Respondent's age	0.001	1.874	0.061
Respondent's education (year of schooling)	0.007	4.850	0.000
Household size	-0.006	-1.421	0.156
Respondent's occupation			
Non-housewife®			
Housewife	0.052	1.708	0.088
Marital status			
Unmarried®			
Married	0.020	0.625	0.532
Religion			
Non-Muslim ®			
Muslim	0.004	0.232	0.817
Household head			
Female®			
Male	-0.137	-4.426	0.000
Respondent's earning status			
Non Earner ®			
Earner	0.132	4.681	0.000
Housing condition			
Non-Pacca ®			
Pacca	0.034	2.227	0.026
Household per-capita monthly income (Tk.)	-0.0000001	-0.044	0.965
Household monthly expenditure (Tk.)	-0.000001	-0.261	0.794

Table 4.3.3.2 shows that the quantitative variables respondent's age and respondent's education (year of schooling) have positive effect whereas household size, household per-capita monthly income and household monthly expenditure have negative effect on women's freedom of physical movement. Here respondents' age, respondent's education (year of schooling), respondent's occupation, household head, respondent's earning status and housing condition have significant effect on respondent's empowerment regarding freedom of physical movement. The result expresses that if respondent's age and respondent's education (year of schooling) increase one unit then freedom of physical movement power of respondents will be increased by 0.001 and 0.007 times respectively. On the other hand, if one unit increases in household size, household per-capita monthly income and household monthly expenditure respondent's freedom of physical movement power will be decreased by 0.006, 0.0000001 and 0.000001 times. From the result it is

explained that respondent's occupation, housewife are 0.052 times more empowered than that of their counter part non-housewife women on freedom of physical movement. According to marital status, married women are 0.020 times more empowered than that of their counter part unmarried women on household decision making. Comparing religion, Muslim women are 0.004 times more empowered than that of their counterpart non-Muslim women on freedom of physical movement. Respondents with male headed household are 0.137 times less empowered in freedom of physical movement than that of their counterpart female headed households. According to earning status of the respondents, earning women are 0.132 times more empowered than that of their counterpart non-earning respondents on freedom of physical movement. This table also indicates that respondents with Pacca housing are 0.034 times more empowered in freedom of physical movement than that of their counterpart non-Pacca structured housing.

Chapter Five

Information on Various Indicators as a Way to Empowerment

Chapter Five

Information on Various Indicators as a Way to Empowerment

5.1 Introduction

Women empowerment is a gradual process of gathering sense of self and absorption realizing capacity about self. Women would be empowered moment after moment by adopting knowledge and receiving sense on equal right for various part of life. So they can be identified as a part and parcel of society and by this way they treated as empowered with increasing sense and sensitivity of some important phenomena in every day life. Any person or any institution can help the women be empowered by this process to the way of reaching information to them about some important indicators of women empowerment. Accordingly, Lopez-Claros and Zahidi (2005) stated information on different issues through information technologies have become a potent driving force of the development process, represent so far another dimension in which a knowledge gap has emerged between women and men. In another study (USAID, 2001), it also found that countless women in the developing world are further removed from the information era because of their lower levels of education and deeply inbuilt negative attitudes towards other forms of achievement. Thus we can say any single person or the society as a whole is the responsible factor regarding this. Women can be sought for receiving information about some indicators that can help them to be empowered in the society. Alsop and Heinsohn (2005) introduced some women empowerment indicators namely, right to increase in politics and/or public life and their participation in women's groups, right to get education preference, extent of awareness about reproductive health issues especially on maternal health care and human rights like equal right for income and/or wage in working place that can be used to measure and track empowerment. In this regard, an attempt has taken to measure the empowerment through such indicators, these are male-female equal right in the society, male-female equal right for education, male-female equal right for wage, female participation in politics and; the right for maternal health care is ultimately needed to gather sound health of mother and child.

5.2 Achievement of Self-sense

In theoretical or apparently it is assumed that women are concerned about their own self-sense in a natural way. But it is sought for the record of evidence about the resolution of the society or even a personal ground. In this regard, an attempt has been done to survey an empirical view. Percentage of respondents of receiving information from any person and/or organization about some individual indicators of women empowerment can be treated as the achievement of self-sense generation and the frequency of the number of indicators of women empowerment can be measured as the magnitude of self-sense. The gap of receiving information about the indicators of women empowerment can also be identified as a lack of knowledge of the sphere of self-sense. Table 5.2.1 shows the percentage of respondents of receiving information from any person and/or organization about some individual indicators of women empowerment. It is observed from Table 4.1 that 16.25 percent, 25.88 percent and 21.06 percent of the respondents from rural, urban and both areas respectively receive information about male-female equal right in the society; 11.88 percent, 16.00 percent and 13.94 percent of the respondents from rural, urban and both areas respectively receive information about male-female equal right for wage receiving from labor market; 29.25 percent, 45.88 percent and 37.56 percent of the respondents from rural, urban and both areas respectively receive information about male-female equal right for education; 11.63 percent, 16.88 percent and 14.25 percent of the respondents from rural, urban and both areas respectively receive information about female participation in politics; and finally 56.75 percent, 65.13 percent and 60.94 percent of the respondents from rural, urban and both areas respectively receive information about right of receiving maternal health care.

Table 5.2.1: Percentage of the respondent's receiving information from any person/organization about some indicators of women empowerment

Indicators	Rural	Urban	Both
Male-female equal right for education	29.25	45.88	37.56
Female participation in politics	11.63	16.88	14.25
Right for maternal health care	56.75	65.13	60.94
Male-female equal right for wage	11.88	16.00	13.94
Male-female equal right in the society	16.25	25.88	21.06

Table 5.2.2 represents the mean values of the index of women empowerment for economic decision making (EDMI) according to five different indicators enhancing women empowerment such as male-female equal right in the society, for education and for wage, female participation in politics and; the right for maternal health care those enhance women empowerment. This table also represents the differentials between the respondents who received any information compared to those who did not receive information about the aforementioned matters. The mean values of the index describe the proportional increment of women's empowerment compared with their lowest counterpart.

Table 5.2.2: Mean value of economic decision making index (EDMI) according to different indicators enhancing women empowerment by rural-urban differentials

Residential Status	Information received from any person/organization										Total
	Male-female equal right for education		Female participation in politics		Right for maternal health care		Male-female equal right for wage		Male-female equal right in the society		
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	
Rural	0.47	0.49	0.45	0.49	0.49	0.49	0.49	0.49	0.50	0.49	0.49
Urban	0.52	0.48	0.54	0.49	0.52	0.48	0.54	0.49	0.53	0.49	0.50
Both	0.50	0.49	0.50	0.49	0.50	0.48	0.52	0.49	0.52	0.49	0.49

Note: 'Yes' means received information and 'No' means not received information from any person/organization.

It is evident from this table that in the rural area the mean values of the index are lower regarding the indicators like male-female equal right for education and female participation in politics who received information from any person/organization compare to those who did not receive information. It may be due to the rural women are not getting message and/or they are not able to implement these messages properly. Moreover, in the rural area the mean values of the indices are equal regarding right for maternal health care and male-female equal right for wage and the mean values of the index is higher about male-female equal right in the society for those who received information from any person/organization compare to those who did not receive, whereas in the urban area the respondents who received information from any person/organization possess higher mean values of the indices than those who did not receive.

Table 5.2.3 represents the mean values of the index of women empowerment for household decision making index (HDMI) according to five different factors enhancing women

empowerment such as female education, female participation in politics, maternal health care, male-female equal wage and male-female equal right those enhance women empowerment. This table also represents the differentials between the respondents who received any information compared to those who did not receive information about the aforementioned matters. The mean values of the indices describe the proportional increment of women’s empowerment compared with their lowest counterpart.

Table 5.2.3: Mean value of household decision making index (HDMI) according to different factors enhancing women empowerment by rural-urban differentials

Residential Status	Information received from any person/organization										Total
	Male-female equal right for education		Female participation in politics		Right for maternal health care		Male-female equal right for wage		Male-female equal right in the society		
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	
Rural	0.61	0.64	0.59	0.64	0.63	0.65	0.60	0.64	0.59	0.64	0.64
Urban	0.66	0.65	0.65	0.66	0.66	0.65	0.65	0.66	0.65	0.66	0.65
Both	0.64	0.65	0.62	0.65	0.65	0.65	0.63	0.65	0.63	0.65	0.65

Note: ‘Yes’ means received information and ‘No’ means not received information from any person/organization.

It is evident from this table that in the rural area the mean values of the indices are lower regarding all the indicators like male-female equal right in the society, for education and for wage, female participation in politics and; the right for maternal health care those who received information from any person/organization compare to those who did not receive information. It may be due to the rural women are not getting message and/or they are not able to implement these messages properly. Whereas, in the urban area the respondents who received information form any person/organization elucidates higher mean values of the index regarding the factors like female education and maternal health than those who did not receive.

Table 5.2.4 represents the mean values of the index of women empowerment for freedom of physical movement index (FPMI) according to five different factors enhancing women empowerment such as male-female equal right in the society, for education and for wage, female participation in politics and; the right for maternal health care those enhance women empowerment. It also represents the differentials between the respondents who received any information compared to those who did not receive information about the aforementioned matters.

Table 5.2.4: Mean value of freedom of physical movement index (FPMI) according to different factors enhancing women empowerment by rural-urban differentials

Residential status	Information received from any person/organization										Total
	Male-female equal right for education		Female participation in politics		Right for maternal health care		Male-female equal right for wage		Male-female equal right in the society		
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	
Rural	0.46	0.44	0.45	0.45	0.43	0.48	0.42	0.45	0.46	0.45	0.45
Urban	0.56	0.50	0.57	0.52	0.52	0.53	0.58	0.51	0.57	0.51	0.52
Both	0.52	0.47	0.52	0.48	0.48	0.50	0.51	0.48	0.53	0.48	0.49

Note: 'Yes' means received information and 'No' means not received information.

It is apparent from this table that in the rural area the mean values of the index are lower regarding the factors like maternal health care and male-female equal wage those who received information from any person/organization compare to those who did not receive information. It may be due to the rural women are not getting message and/or they are not able to implement these messages properly, whereas, in the urban area the respondents who received information from any person/organization reveals higher mean values of the index regarding the factors like female education, female participation in politics, male-female equal wage and male-female equal right than those who did not receive.

5.3 Magnitude of Self-sense

The magnitude of receiving information is translated into the frequent number of indicators that are received to respondents. Table 5.3.1 shows the percentage of the respondents who receive the frequent number of indicators that can be measured as the magnitude of receiving information from different indicators of women empowerment. It is observed that 37.38 percent, 26.50 percent and 31.94 percent of the respondents from rural, urban and both areas respectively can not receive any information from any person and/or organization about the indicators of women empowerment; 30.13 percent, 27.00 percent and 28.56 percent of the respondents from rural, urban and both areas respectively receive any information from any person and/or organization about only one of the indicators of women empowerment; 13.63 percent, 17.00 percent and 15.31 percent of the respondents from rural, urban and both areas respectively receive any information from any person and/or organization about two of the indicators of women empowerment; 10.75 percent, 15.38 percent and 13.06 percent of the respondents from rural, urban and both areas respectively

receive any information from any person and/or organization about three of the indicators of women empowerment; 4.50 percent, 8.00 percent and 6.25 percent of the respondents from rural, urban and both areas respectively receive any information from any person and/or organization about four of the indicators of women empowerment; and 3.63 percent, 6.13 percent and 4.88 percent of the respondents from rural, urban and both areas respectively receive any information from any person and/or organization about all the five indicators of women empowerment.

Table 5.3.1: Percentage of the respondent’s receiving information of the frequent number of indicators of women empowerment from any person/organization

Number of indicators	Rural	Urban	Both
0	37.38	26.50	31.94
1	30.13	27.00	28.56
2	13.63	17.00	15.31
3	10.75	15.38	13.06
4	4.50	8.00	6.25
5	3.63	6.13	4.88

Table 5.3.2 shows the relationship between mean values of economic decision making status and magnitude level of different factors enhancing women empowerment. It is obvious that the more sources of information received by the respondents the higher mean values of indices will be found. In the rural area, there is a haphazard trend of index’s mean values according to magnitude level of different factors is found, whereas, in the urban area, almost an upward trend is found.

Table 5.3.2: Mean value of economic decision making index (EDMI) according to magnitude level of different factors enhancing women empowerment by rural-urban differentials

	Magnitude level					
	0	1	2	3	4	5
Rural	0.49	0.49	0.48	0.50	0.48	0.44
Urban	0.47	0.49	0.54	0.51	0.54	0.54
Both	0.48	0.49	0.51	0.51	0.52	0.50

Table 5.3.3 shows the relationship between mean values of household decision making status and magnitude level of different factors enhancing women empowerment. It is obvious that the more sources of information received by the respondents the higher mean values of index will be found. In the rural area, there is a haphazard trend of index's mean values according to magnitude level of different factors is found, whereas in the urban area, almost an upward trend is found.

Table 5.3.3: Mean value of household decision making index (HDMI) according to magnitude level of different factors enhancing women empowerment by rural-urban differentials

	Magnitude level					
	0	1	2	3	4	5
Rural	0.65	0.64	0.62	0.65	0.58	0.54
Urban	0.65	0.66	0.67	0.66	0.64	0.64
Both	0.65	0.65	0.65	0.66	0.62	0.60

Table 5.3.4 shows the relationship between mean values of freedom of physical movement status and magnitude level of different factors enhancing women empowerment. It is noticeable that the more sources of information received by the respondents the higher mean values of indices will be found. In the rural area, there is a haphazard trend of index's mean values according to magnitude level of different factors is found, whereas, in the urban area, almost an upward trend is found.

Table 5.3.4: Mean value of freedom of physical movement index (FPMI) according to magnitude level of different factors enhancing women empowerment by rural-urban differentials

	Magnitude level					
	0	1	2	3	4	5
Rural	0.47	0.41	0.44	0.50	0.41	0.40
Urban	0.51	0.48	0.56	0.54	0.57	0.59
Both	0.49	0.45	0.51	0.53	0.51	0.52

5.4 Determinants of Receiving Information

Binary logistic regression analyses are used to see effect of some socio-economic and demographic variables on receiving information from any organization/person about the indicators of women empowerment. Here, the dependent variables are qualitative and it

takes the value 'one' if she receives information from any organization/person and 'zero' if she doesn't receive. The qualitative independent variables used in this analysis respondent's educational level, earning status, respondent's occupation, household head, religion of the respondent and household head and the quantitative independent variables are respondent's age at marriage, respondent's age and household average year of schooling.

Receiving Information about Male-Female Equal Right for Education

Table 5.4.1 indicates that the quantitative variables are respondent's age at marriage, respondent's age and household average year of schooling have positive and significant effect on receiving information from any organization/person about male-female equal right for education. This result also reveals that if one unit increases in respondent's age at marriage, respondent's age and household average year of schooling 1.028, 1.029 and 1.084 times more likely to have received information from any organization/person about male-female equal right for education. Significant effect is shown in household head, religion, respondent's educational level, respondent's occupation and the respondent's marital status. Respondent's educational level has positive significant effect and it also reveals that primary education is $(1-0.868) = 0.132$ times less and secondary, higher secondary and tertiary education are 0.261, 1.043 and 0.381 times respectively more likely to have received information about the male-female equal right for education. It elucidates that the respondents with female headed household is 3.676 times more likely to have received information than that of male headed household; non-Muslim respondents are 3.088 times more likely to have received information than that of Muslim counterparts, earning respondents are 0.851 times more likely to receive information than that of non-earning respondents; respondent's occupation have positive significant effect and it is observed that service, business, day labor and tailoring 1.595, 2.830, 2.143 and 0.866 times respectively more and students $(1-0.912) = 0.088$ times less likely to have received information than that of housewife and marital status have negative significant effect and the result also elucidates that unmarried and widowed and separated respondents are $(1-0.562) = 0.438$, $(1-0.333) = 0.667$ and $(1-0.209) = 0.791$ times respectively less and divorced respondents are 1.161

times more likely to have received information than that of married women from any organization/person about male-female equal right for education.

Table 5.4.1: Logistic regression of receiving information about the male-female equal right for education from any organization/person

Variables	Coefficients	Significance	Odds Ratio
Constant	-2.779	0.000	0.062
Respondent's age at marriage	0.027	0.087	1.028
Respondent's age	0.029	0.000	1.029
Household average year of schooling	0.081	0.001	1.084
Household head			
Male®			
Female	1.302	0.000	3.676
Religion			
Muslim®			
Non-Muslim	1.128	0.000	3.088
Respondent education level			
Illiterate ®			
Primary	-0.141	0.427	0.868
Secondary	0.232	0.272	1.261
Higher Secondary	0.715	0.016	2.043
Tertiary	0.323	0.392	1.381
Respondent's earning status			
Non Earner®			
Earner	-0.161	0.628	0.851
Respondent occupation			
Housewife ®			
Service	0.953	0.018	2.595
Business	1.343	0.011	3.830
Students	-0.092	0.898	0.912
Day Labor	1.145	0.093	3.143
Tailoring	0.624	0.412	1.866
Marital Status			
Married®			
Unmarried	-0.575	0.687	0.562
Widowed	-1.099	0.011	0.333
Divorced	0.770	0.352	2.161
Separated	-1.563	0.075	0.209

Note: R = Reference category

Receiving Information about Female Participation in Politics

Table 5.4.2 shows that the quantitative variables such as respondent's age at marriage has significant effect and $(1-0.950) = 0.050$ times less likely to have received information about female participation in politics and both respondent's age and household average year of schooling have positive significant effect and 0.049 and 0.060 times respectively more likely to have received information about female participation in politics. Significant effect is shown in religion; respondent's earning status and respondent's occupation. This result elucidates that the respondents with female headed households are 0.141 times more likely to have received information than that of male headed households; non-Muslim respondents are $(1-0.417) = 0.581$ times less likely to have received information about female participation in politics than that of Muslim respondents. Respondent's educational level reveals that primary education is $(1-0.845) = 0.155$ times less and secondary, higher secondary and higher education are 0.501, 0.451 and 0.299 times respectively more likely to have received information from any organization/person about female participation in the politics. It elucidates that earning respondents are $(1-0.231) = 0.769$ times less likely to have received information than that of non-earning counterparts; respondent's occupation have positive significant effect and it also presents that service, business, students, day labor and tailoring professional respondents are 13.812, 0.249, 1.571, 5.074 and 3.350 times respectively more likely to receive information than that of housewife from any organization/person on female participation in the politics and marital status of the respondents shows that unmarried, widowed and separated respondents are 3.120, 0.136 and 0.225 times respectively more and $(1-0.00000001) = 0.999$ times less likely to have received information from any organization/person on female participation in the politic than that of married respondents.

Table 5.4.2: Logistic regression of receiving information about female participation in politics from any organization/person

Variables	Coefficients	Significance	Odds Ratio
Constant	-3.215	0.000	0.040
Respondent's age at marriage	-0.051	0.046	0.950
Respondent's age	0.048	0.000	1.049
Household average year of schooling	0.058	0.065	1.060
Household head			
Male®			
Female	0.132	0.785	1.141
Religion			
Muslim®			
Non-Muslim	-0.875	0.011	0.417
Respondent's educational level			
Illiterate ®			
Primary	-0.169	0.503	0.845
Secondary	0.406	0.161	1.501
Higher Secondary	0.372	0.353	1.451
Tertiary	0.261	0.612	1.299
Respondent's earning status			
Not Earner®			
Earner	-1.465	0.050	0.231
Respondent's occupation			
Housewife ®			
Service	2.695	0.001	14.812
Business	0.223	0.862	1.249
Students	0.944	0.288	2.571
Day Labor	1.804	0.094	6.074
Tailoring	1.493	0.254	4.450
Marital status			
Married®			
Unmarried	1.416	0.386	4.120
Widow	0.127	0.798	1.136
Divorced	-18.879	0.999	0.00000001
Separated	0.203	0.873	1.225

Note: R = Reference category

Receiving Information about the Right for Maternal Health Care

Table 5.4.3 shows the results of the determinants of receiving information about right for maternal health care from any organization/person for the respondents of the study areas. The result shows that the quantitative variables respondent's age at marriage $(1-0.984) = 0.016$ times less likely to have received information about right for maternal health care from any organization/person, respondent's age is 0.007 times more likely to have received information about the right for maternal health care and household average year of schooling have positive significant effect and 0.049 times more likely to have received information about right for maternal health care. Significant effect has shown in respondent's educational level and respondent's occupation. This result elucidates that the respondents with female headed household are 0.026 times more likely to have received information than that of male headed household, whereas non-Muslim respondents are 0.179 times more likely to have received information about right for maternal health care than that of Muslim counterparts. It may be the cause that the respondents with better household education seek the health care facilities for the mother. The result also elucidates that earning respondents are 0.070 times more likely to have received information about right for maternal health care than that of non-earning counterparts. Respondent's occupation have positive significant effect and it presents that service, business, and tailoring professional respondents are 0.889, 0.031 and 0.299 times respectively more and students & day labor $(1-0.211) = 0.789$ & $(1-0.857) = 0.143$ times respectively less likely to have received information than that of housewife counterparts from any organization/person on the right for maternal health care. Marital status of the respondents shows that unmarried and divorced respondents are 0.549 and 0.090 times more and widowed and separated are $(1-0.579) = 0.421$ & $(1-0.791) = 0.209$ times less likely to receive information about right for maternal health care than that of married respondents.

Table 5.4.3: Logistic regression of receiving information about right for maternal health care from any organization/person

Variables	Coefficients	Significance	Odds Ratio
Constant	0.013	0.972	1.013
Respondent's age at marriage	-0.017	0.284	0.984
Respondent's age	0.007	0.305	1.007
Household average year of schooling	0.048	0.035	1.049
Household head			
Male®			
Female	0.026	0.935	1.026
Religion			
Muslim®			
Non-Muslim	0.164	0.379	1.179
Respondent's educational level			
Illiterate ®			
Primary	0.002	0.988	1.002
Secondary	0.241	0.222	1.272
Higher Secondary	0.150	0.604	1.162
Tertiary	0.814	0.044	2.258
Respondent's earning status			
Not Earner®			
Earner	0.067	0.836	1.070
Respondent's occupation			
Housewife ®			
Service	0.636	0.130	1.889
Business	0.030	0.952	1.031
Students	-1.554	0.030	0.211
Day Labor	-0.154	0.817	0.857
Tailoring	0.262	0.720	1.299
Marital status			
Married®			
Unmarried	0.438	0.744	1.549
Widow	-0.546	0.126	0.579
Divorced	0.086	0.914	1.090
Separated	-0.234	0.755	0.791

Note: R = Reference category

Receiving Information about Male-Female Equal Right for Wage

Table 5.4.4 shows the result of the determinants of receiving information about male-female equal right for wage from any organization/person for the respondents of the study areas. It is envisaged that the quantitative variables respondent's age at marriage 0.020 times more likely to have received information about male-female equal right for wage from any organization/person for the respondents of the study areas. Respondent's age has positive significant effect and 0.042 times more likely to have received information about male-female equal right for wage from any organization/person for the respondents of the study areas and household average year of schooling is 0.032 times more likely to receive information about male-female equal right for wage. Significant effect is shown in religion and respondent's occupation. This result indicates that the respondents with female headed households are 0.494 times more likely to receive information than that of male headed households about male-female equal right for wage. It also shows that non-Muslims have positive significant effect and 2.025 times more likely to have received information about male-female equal right for wage. It reveals that any organization/person can reach $(1-0.721)=0.279$, $(1-0.722)=0.278$ and $(1-0.875)=0.125$ times less have to inform about male-female equal right for wage to the respondent with primary, secondary and higher level of education respectively than that of illiterate respondents and 0.701 times more have to inform about male-female equal right for wage to the respondent with higher secondary level of education than that of illiterate. The result elucidates that earning respondents are $(1-0.603)=0.397$ times less likely to have received information about male-female equal right for wage from any organization/person for the respondents of the study areas than that of non-earning counterparts. Respondent's occupation have positive significant effect and it observes that service, students, day labor and tailoring professional respondents are 5.719, 2.855, 0.073 and 3.097 times respectively more likely to have received information about male-female equal right for wage from any organization/person and business are $(1-0.806)=0.194$ times less likely to have received information than that of housewife. Marital status of the respondents shows that unmarried and widowed respondents are $(1-0.726)=0.274$ and $(1-0.769)=$ times more and divorced and separated respondents are 0.092 and 1.372 times more likely to have received information about male-female equal right for wage from any organization/person than that of married respondents.

Table 5.4.4: Logistic regression of receiving information about male-female equal right for wage from any organization/person

Variables	Coefficients	Significance	Odds Ratio
Constant	-4.103	0.000	0.017
Respondent's age at marriage	0.020	0.269	1.020
Respondent's age	0.041	0.000	1.042
Household average year of schooling	0.032	0.330	1.032
Household head			
Male®			
Female	0.402	0.354	1.494
Religion			
Muslim®			
Non-Muslim	1.107	0.000	3.025
Respondent's educational level			
Illiterate ®			
Primary	-0.327	0.177	0.721
Secondary	-0.326	0.270	0.722
Higher Secondary	0.531	0.159	1.701
Tertiary	-0.134	0.782	0.875
Respondent's earning status			
Non Earner®			
Earner	-0.505	0.330	0.603
Respondent's occupation			
Housewife ®			
Service	1.905	0.001	6.719
Business	-0.215	0.814	0.806
Students	1.349	0.095	3.855
Day Labor	0.070	0.952	1.073
Tailoring	1.410	0.143	4.097
Marital status			
Married®			
Unmarried	-0.321	0.839	0.726
Widowed	-0.263	0.614	0.769
Divorced	0.088	0.939	1.092
Separated	0.864	0.379	2.372

Note: R = Reference category

Receiving Information about Male-Female Equal Right in the Society

Table 5.4.5 shows the results of the determinants of receiving information about male-female equal right in the society from any organization/person for the respondents of the study areas. It reveals that the quantitative variable such as respondent's age at marriage has 0.001 times more likely to have received information about male-female equal right in the society from any organization/person.. Both respondent's age and household average year of schooling have positive significant effect and 0.026 and 0.056 times respectively more likely to have received information about male-female equal right in the society. Significant effect has shown in religion, respondent's educational level and respondent's occupation. This result indicates that the respondents with female headed households are 0.582 times more likely to have received information than that of male headed household about male-female equal right in the society. It shows that religion has positive significant effect and non-Muslims are 1.118 times more likely to have received information about male-female equal right in the society. It reveals that any organization/person can reach $(1-0.610)= 0.390$, $(1-0.940)= 0.060$ and $(1-0.936)= 0.064$ times less have to inform about male-female equal right in the society to the respondent with primary, secondary and higher level of education respectively than that of illiterate respondents and higher secondary level of education is 0.497 times more likely to have received information about male-female equal right in the society than that of illiterate respondents. It may due to the cause that yet the formal education curriculum does not involve male-female equal right in the society. Table elucidates that earning women are 0.175 times more likely to inform about male-female equal right in the society of the respondent than that of not-earning counterparts. Respondent's occupation have positive significant effect and it reveals that service, students, day labor and tailoring have 2.513, 0.670, 3.539 and 0.504 times respectively more likely to inform about male-female equal right in the society of the respondent and business are $(1-0.570) = 0.430$ times less likely to have received information about male-female equal right in the society than that of housewife. Marital status of the respondents shows that unmarried, widowed, divorced and separated respondents are $(1-0.601) = 0.399$ and $(1-0.937) = 0.063$, $(1-0.000000003) = 0.999999997$ and $(1-0.681) = 0.319$ times respectively less likely to have received information about male-female equal right in the society from any organization/person than that of married counterparts

Table 5.4.5: Logistic regression of receiving information about male-female equal right in the society from any organization/person

Variables	Coefficients	Significance	Odds Ratio
Constant	-2.686	0.000	0.068
Respondent's age at marriage	0.001	0.954	1.001
Respondent's age	0.025	0.003	1.026
Household average year of schooling	0.055	0.047	1.056
Household head			
Male®			
Female	0.459	0.217	1.582
Religion			
Muslim®			
Non-Muslim	0.750	0.000	2.118
Respondent's educational level			
Illiterate ®			
Primary	-0.494	0.020	0.610
Secondary	-0.062	0.800	0.940
Higher Secondary	0.403	0.222	1.497
Tertiary	-0.066	0.877	0.936
Respondent's earning status			
Not Earner®			
Earner	0.161	0.664	1.175
Respondent's occupation			
Housewife ®			
Service	1.256	0.003	3.513
Business	-0.562	0.440	0.570
Students	0.513	0.533	1.670
Day Labor	1.513	0.030	4.539
Tailoring	0.408	0.650	1.504
Marital status			
Married®			
Unmarried	-0.509	0.757	0.601
Widowed	-0.066	0.879	0.937
Divorced	-19.788	0.999	0.000000003
Separated	-0.384	0.682	0.681

Note: R = Reference category

Chapter Six

**Involvement in Different Organizations to
Develop Women's Leadership**

Chapter Six

Involvement in Different Organizations to Develop Women's Leadership

6.1 Introduction

A country's overall development depends upon the maximum utilization of the people. The more the development of a country the more utilization of manpower should be pursued. Participation of every men and women in public sectors as well as private sectors can evolve a nation's development. It is acknowledged that with the advancement of time, the fact has now been recognized that without empowering women the national development cannot be achieved because it emphasizes the idea of women as active agents in, rather than passively recipients of development strategies. Accordingly women participation in leadership is considered as an essentially first step in order to achieve development target. From the long run there is an emphasis on women participation in politics as one of the way to women empowerment. Report of the Beijing (1995) indicated that equal participation in politics plays a pivotal role in the general process of the advancement of women. It is not only a demand for simple justice or democracy but can also be seen as a necessary condition for women's interests to increase their empowerment. To enhance women's leadership active participation and incorporation at all levels is essential and eventually women's equality, development and peace can be achieved.

In a study, Rahman and Ara (2006) observed that the status of women is much lower than that of men in every sphere of life. They identified that Bangladeshi politics are male-dominated whereas women are engaged in domestic life. They stated that education can change women's fortune to empower them through participating different types of leadership activities. They also found that due to lack of literacy and prevalence of social norms women become handicapped that severely impede their freedom of physical movement in the public place and finally, they cannot play any salient role in local government activities.

The main barrier for women to the way of leadership development still now exist both in the domestic and social levels which resist convenient environment for executing effective steps to create leadership. An effective initiative of Government Organizations (GOs) and/or Non-Government Organizations (NGOs) through the help of civil society can dissolve the barrier at all. Women's political empowerment is not a complete solution in itself but it is instrumental in stimulating the society for political and social empowerment which would further stimulate the overall development and refinement in the society. The presence and participation of women in decision making process would enable them to empower themselves. Besides this, still discrimination in law making and policy making is continued and consequently, women are far behind from getting their actual right due to lack of leadership as well as favorable surroundings.

6.2 Involvement Status to Different Organizations

A woman explores herself by the participation in different organization at grass-root level may be one of the strategies of women empowerment. This measure stimulates the women to go ahead one step for the participation in politics. In this regard an attempt has been made to explore the participation status of women in different organizations (GOs and/or NGOs). Table 6.2.1 reveals that the percentage of respondents is larger who were not participated in any organization than those who were participated but the rural-urban differential shows that participation status of rural respondents is higher than urban counterparts though participation status with different organizations could be larger for urban residential as they could avail better facilities as well as freedom comparing rural counterparts.

Table 6.2.1: Percentage of respondents participate in different organizations by rural-urban differentials

Participation status		Rural (%)	Urban (%)	Both (%)
No participation		47.25	56.13	51.69
Having participation	No. of participated organizations	52.75	43.88	48.31
	up to 1	37.63	36.13	36.88
	up to 2	11.50	6.25	8.88
	up to 3	3.63	1.50	2.56

In this study it is seen that rural respondent's participation in different organizations is better than that of urban counterparts. It is not obvious duly traditional rural-urban differentiation.

Now it has to be observed what kind of organization they were participated. Table 6.2.2 presents the percentage distribution of women's participation in different types of organizations. It reveals that respondents are participated in NGO sectors from the lower level of education even at illiterate position very clearly noticeable. Respondents involved in socio-cultural organization are shown at higher level of education in urban area only. At a glance, there is no remarkable pattern or trend of involvement are observed in different organization of the respondents. It may due to the cause that the respondents are not so interested in the involvement of different organization at all.

Table 6.2.2: Percentage distribution of respondent's participation in different organizations according to educational level by rural-urban differentials

Type of organization	Residence	Education level of respondent					Total
		Illiterate	Primary	Secondary	Higher secondary	Tertiary	
NGO	Rural	101 (31.96)	122 (38.61)	82 (25.95)	10 (3.16)	1 (0.32)	316 (100.00)
	Urban	41 (15.47)	89 (33.58)	106 (40.00)	22 (8.30)	7 (2.64)	265 (100.00)
Community based organization	Rural	39 (22.41)	68 (39.08)	62 (35.63)	4 (2.30)	1 (0.57)	174 (100.00)
	Urban	10 (13.33)	7 (9.33)	43 (57.33)	10 (13.33)	5 (6.67)	75 (100.00)
Business association	Rural	2 (20.00)	4 (40.00)	4 (40.00)	-	-	10 (100.00)
	Urban	4 (12.90)	6 (19.35)	11 (35.48)	8 (25.81)	2 (6.45)	31 (100.00)
Socio-cultural association	Rural	2 (40.00)	1 (20.00)	1 (20.00)	-	1 (20.00)	5 (100.00)
	Urban	-	1 (7.14)	5 (35.71)	3 (21.43)	5 (35.71)	14 (100.00)
Religious association	Rural	4 (40.00)	4 (40.00)	2 (20.00)	-	-	10 (100.00)
	Urban	-	2 (66.67)	-	1 (33.33)	-	3 (100.00)
Political association	Rural	1 (33.33)	2 (66.67)	-	-	-	3 (100.00)
	Urban	1 (20.00)	1 (20.00)	1 (20.00)	1 (20.00)	1 (20.00)	5 (100.00)

Note: The values indicated in parenthesis are percentage as row wise and (-) indicated that the cell frequency is empty.

6.3 Priority Basis Involvement

In this section an attempt has been taken to explore the respondent's importance level on the basis of priority on different types of organizations according to their educational level. Table 6.3.1 shows the distribution of the respondents according to the priority level on

different types of organizations by their educational level. The result clearly indicates that among the different types of organizations NGO and community based are their both first and second prioritized organizations and they are mostly from illiterate to secondary level education. It is noticeable that only illiterate respondents are engaged with three organizations and their involvement mostly in NGO based organizations.

Table 6.3.1: Percentage of respondent's most prioritized organizations according to their educational level

Type of organization		Education level of respondent					Total	Priority basis total
		Illiterate	Primary	Secondary	Higher Secondary	Tertiary		
1 st prioritized organization	NGO	115 (24.16)	174 (36.55)	156 (32.77)	25 (5.25)	6 (1.26)	476 (100.00)	773
	Community based organizations	47 (19.83)	69 (29.11)	102 (43.04)	14 (5.91)	5 (2.11)	237 (100.00)	
	Business association	5 (16.13)	8 (25.81)	12 (38.71)	4 (12.90)	2 (6.45)	31 (100.00)	
	Socio-cultural association	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	5 (35.71)	3 (21.43)	6 (42.86)	14 (100.00)	
	Religious association	1 (12.50)	4 (50.00)	2 (25.00)	1 (12.50)	0 (0.00)	8 (100.00)	
	Political association	1 (14.29)	3 (42.86)	1 (14.29)	1 (14.29)	1 (14.29)	7 (100.00)	
2 nd prioritized organization	NGO	25 (24.27)	37 (35.92)	32 (31.07)	7 (6.80)	2 (1.94)	103 (100.00)	132
	Community based organizations	2 (15.38)	6 (46.15)	5 (38.46)	-	-	13 (100.00)	
	Business association	-	2 (25.00)	2 (25.00)	4 (50.00)	-	8 (100.00)	
	Socio-cultural association	1 (25.00)	2 (50.00)	1 (25.00)	-	-	4 (100.00)	
	Religious association	2 (50.00)	2 (50.00)	-	-	-	4 (100.00)	
	Political association	-	-	-	-	-	-	
3 rd prioritized organization	NGO	3 (100.00)	-	-	-	-	3 (100.00)	6
	Community based organizations	-	-	-	-	-	-	
	Business association	1 (100.00)	-	-	-	-	1 (100.00)	
	Socio-cultural association	1 (100.00)	-	-	-	-	1 (100.00)	
	Religious association	-	-	-	-	-	-	
	Political association	1 (100.00)	-	-	-	-	1 (100.00)	

Note: The values indicated in parenthesis are percentage as row wise and (-) indicated that the cell frequency is empty.

6.4 Perception about Leadership Capability

In this component an attempt has been taken to see the sights of respondent's perception about the effectiveness of leader's leadership of different organization according to their education level. Table 6.4.1 represents perception of the respondents about effectiveness of leadership of selected leader for first, second and third prioritized organizations according to respondent's educational level. It is noted that the leadership capabilities are segmented as high, medium, less and not effective on the basis of the respondent's perception. It indicates that in both first and second prioritized organizations, larger number of respondents opined that the leadership capability of their organization's leaders are medium effective then followed by high effective to operate the organizations. The result also reveals that the percentage of respondents who opined that the not effectiveness of leader's leadership is very low and for the third prioritized organization explained that the category of not effective is empty, i.e. most of the respondents realize that leader's leadership is effective to operate any organization.

Table 6.4.1: Percentage of respondent's perception about effectiveness of leaders' leadership power of organizations to their education levels

Type of effectiveness of the leader's leadership		Education level of respondent					Total	Priority basis total
		Illiterate	Primary	Secondary	Higher secondary	Tertiary		
1st prioritized organization	High effective	54 (27.69)	51 (26.15)	75 (38.46)	14 (7.18)	1 (0.51)	195 (100.00)	773
	Medium effective	105 (21.34)	162 (32.93)	180 (36.59)	28 (5.69)	17 (3.46)	492 (100.00)	
	Less effective	9 (11.84)	40 (52.63)	21 (27.63)	4 (5.26)	2 (2.63)	76 (100.00)	
	Not effective	1 (10.00)	5 (50.00)	2 (20.00)	2 (20.00)	-	10 (100.00)	
2nd prioritized organization	High effective	14 (48.28)	7 (24.14)	7 (24.14)	1 (3.45)	-	29 (100.00)	132
	Medium effective	12 (15.19)	29 (36.71)	28 (35.44)	8 (10.13)	2 (2.53)	79 (100.00)	
	Less effective	4 (19.05)	10 (47.62)	5 (23.81)	2 (9.52)	-	21 (100.00)	
	Not effective	-	3 100.00	-	-	-	3 100.00	
3 rd prioritized organization	High effective	2 (100.00)	-	-	-	-	2 (100.00)	6
	Medium effective	1 (100.00)	-	-	-	-	1 (100.00)	
	Less effective	3 (100.00)	-	-	-	-	3 (100.00)	
	Not effective	-	-	-	-	-	-	

Note: The values indicated in parenthesis are percentage as row wise and (-) indicated that the cell frequency is empty.

6.5 Observation about Leader Selection

In this part an effort has been taken to explore the respondent's observation about the process of leader selection according to respondent's educational level. Table 6.5.1 represents the respondent's observation about the leader selection process of different organizations. Here the process of leader selection are categorized as outside person by desire, inter members based on success, inter member ignoring success, election and doesn't know (don't have any idea about leader selection process). It elucidates that the larger proportion of the respondents explained that the leaders are selected within the organizational members without considering success in work place followed by the category that are selected on the basis of success.

Table 6.5.1: Percentage of respondent's observation about the process of leader selection of the organizations according to their educational level

Type of leader selection process		Education level of respondent					Total	Priority basis total
		Illiterate	Primary	Secondary	Higher secondary	Tertiary		
1st prioritized organization	Outside person by desire	4 (15.38)	7 (26.92)	9 (34.62)	3 (11.54)	3 (11.54)	26 (100.00)	773
	Inter members based on success	19 (23.46)	26 (32.10)	28 (34.57)	5 (6.17)	3 (3.70)	81 (100.00)	
	Inter-member ignoring success	66 (23.24)	91 (32.04)	101 (35.56)	20 (7.04)	6 (2.11)	284 (100.00)	
	Election	7 (26.92)	11 (42.31)	5 (19.23)	2 (7.69)	1 (3.85)	26 (100.00)	
	Doesn't know	73 (20.51)	123 (34.55)	135 (37.92)	18 (5.06)	7 (1.97)	356 (100.00)	
2nd prioritized organization	Outside person by desire	2 (33.33)	-	3 (50.00)	1 (16.67)	-	6 (100.00)	132
	Inter members based on success	-	3 (75.00)	1 (25.00)	-	-	4 (100.00)	
	Inter-member ignoring success	17 (32.69)	18 (34.62)	12 (23.08)	4 (7.69)	1 (1.92)	52 (100.00)	
	Election	4 (30.77)	5 (38.46)	2 (15.38)	2 (15.38)	-	13 (100.00)	
	Doesn't know	7 (12.28)	23 (40.35)	22 (38.60)	4 (7.02)	1 (1.75)	57 (100.00)	
3 rd prioritized organization	Outside person by desire	-	-	-	-	-	-	6
	Inter members based on success	-	-	-	-	-	-	
	Inter-member ignoring success	2 (100.00)	-	-	-	-	2 (100.00)	
	Election	1 (100.00)	-	-	-	-	1 (100.00)	
	Doesn't know	3 (100.00)	-	-	-	-	3 (100.00)	

Note: The values indicated in parenthesis are percentage as row wise and (-) indicated that the cell frequency is empty.

6.6 Satisfaction Level of Leader Selection

In this section an attempt has been made to explore the respondent's opinion on satisfaction level about the leader selection process according to respondent's educational level. Table 6.6.1 presents the respondent's opinion on satisfaction level about the process of leader selection. The satisfaction level of the respondents are categorized as highly, medium, little and not satisfied. It elucidates a bigger proportion of the respondents opined that they are medium satisfied regarding leader selection process of the organization followed by the category who are highly satisfied within the first prioritized organizations but in both second and third prioritized organizations, the larger proportion of the respondents expressed that they are highly satisfied about the leader selection.

Table-6.6.1: Percentage of respondent's opinion on satisfaction level about the process of leader selection of different organizations according to their educational level

Type of satisfaction		Education level of respondent					Total	Priority basis total
		Illiterate	Primary	Secondary	Higher secondary	Tertiary		
1st prioritized organization	Highly satisfied	40 (28.37)	38 (26.95)	50 (35.46)	11 (7.80)	2 (1.42)	141 (100.00)	417
	Medium satisfied	48 (21.72)	77 (34.84)	74 (33.48)	14 (6.33)	8 (3.62)	221 (100.00)	
	Little satisfied	6 (18.75)	9 (28.13)	13 (40.63)	1 (3.13)	3 (9.38)	32 (100.00)	
	Not satisfied	2 (8.70)	11 (47.83)	6 (26.09)	4 (17.39)	-	23 (100.00)	
2nd prioritized organization	Highly satisfied	13 (43.33)	8 (26.67)	8 (26.67)	1 (3.33)	-	30 (100.00)	75
	Medium satisfied	6 (20.69)	11 (37.93)	7 (24.14)	4 (13.79)	1 (3.45)	29 (100.00)	
	Little satisfied	3 (25.00)	6 (50.00)	1 (8.33)	2 (16.67)	-	12 (100.00)	
	Not satisfied	1 (25.00)	1 (25.00)	2 (50.00)	-	-	4 (100.00)	
3 rd prioritized organization	Highly satisfied	2 (100.00)	-	-	-	-	2 (100.00)	3
	Medium satisfied	-	-	-	-	-	-	
	Little satisfied	1 (100.00)	-	-	-	-	1 (100.00)	
	Not satisfied	-	-	-	-	-	-	

Note: The values indicated in parenthesis are percentage as row wise and (-) indicated that the cell frequency is empty.

6.7 Benefit Receive from Organization

In this part an attempt has been made to find out the level of benefit receive the respondents being a member of the organizations individually according to respondent's education level. Table 6.7.1 reveals that the percentages of respondent's benefit receiving status from the organizations according to their educational level. Here the benefit level of the respondents are categorized as highly, medium, little and not benefited at al. It reveals that a larger proportion of the respondents expressed that they receive medium type of benefit through involvement within both first and second prioritized organizations followed by the category who are highly benefited, whereas within the third prioritized organizations it is visible that the respondents are equally highly, medium and little benefited being a member of the organizations.

Table 6.7.1: Percentage of respondent's level of benefit receives being a member of the organization individually according to their educational level

Type of benefit level		Education level of respondent					Total	Priority basis total
		Illiterate	Primary	Secondary	Higher secondary	Tertiary		
1st prioritized organization	Highly benefited	45 (25.71)	48 (27.43)	65 (37.14)	13 (7.43)	4 (2.29)	175 (100.00)	773
	Medium benefited	95 (21.64)	148 (33.71)	155 (35.31)	28 (6.38)	13 (2.96)	439 (100.00)	
	Little benefited	27 (22.50)	43 (35.83)	43 (35.83)	4 (3.33)	3 (2.50)	120 (100.00)	
	Not benefited at all	2 (5.13)	19 (48.72)	15 (38.46)	3 (7.69)	-	39 (100.00)	
2nd prioritized organization	Highly benefited	10 (38.46)	11 (42.31)	4 (15.38)	1 (3.85)	-	26 (100.00)	132
	Medium benefited	19 (24.05)	28 (35.44)	26 (32.91)	4 (5.06)	2 (2.53)	79 (100.00)	
	Little benefited	1 (4.55)	8 (36.36)	7 (31.82)	6 (27.27)	-	22 (100.00)	
	Not benefited at all	-	2 (40.00)	3 (60.00)	-	-	5 (100.00)	
3 rd prioritized organization	Highly benefited	2 (100.00)	-	-	-	-	2 (100.00)	6
	Medium benefited	2 (100.00)	-	-	-	-	2 (100.00)	
	Little benefited	2 (100.00)	-	-	-	-	2 (100.00)	
	Not benefited at all	2 (100.00)	-	-	-	-	2 (100.00)	

Note: The values indicated in parenthesis are percentage as row wise and (-) indicated that the cell frequency is empty.

Chapter Seven

**Violence against Women Prohibit the
Empowerment**

Chapter Seven

Violence against Women Prohibit the Empowerment

7.1 Introduction

The actual vulnerability of women's lives remains invisible to men as well as women and it persists from family surrounding to the national level. Although physically a man and a woman shares the same space but their living standard is different from one to another. In other words merely the fact is that though men and women hold up equally the space of the universe but women do not appear to give them a position of dignity and equality. It is true that over the years women have made great stride in many areas with notable progress in reducing some gender gaps. Yet, the afflicted world in which we live is characterized by deeply unequal sharing of the burden of adversities between women and men.

To minimize gender gaps in a tolerance level violence against women should be kept in a reasonable position. But violence against women is a common occurrence in most societies whether the violence is physical or mental in Bangladesh. It is a daily and often deadly fact of life for millions of women and girls. Women and girls are generally looked down upon, trapped within cultural framework, molded by rigid perceptions of patriarchy. As a result, violence against women is viewed as a normal phenomenon even from the women's perspective. Women are suffering from multiple forms of violence including domestic violence, rape, dowry deaths, sexual harassment, suicide, forced marriage, trafficking and other psychological and financial oppression. It needs to take proper initiatives to prevent these types of drastic violence from the familial environment. These preventing initiatives will have to start from domestic level. In this regard, an attempt has been taken to examine the present situation of domestic violence originated from husband to other family members.

Violence against women will be reduced automatically if the spousal relationship is strongest. In this context, here an initiative has been taken to explore the spousal relationship according to respondent's educational level as well as their empowerment

level. Empowerment level is measured with respect to the mean value of women empowerment indices.

7.2 Spousal Relationship

Spousal relationship is the one-step advancement on the way to share of different types of decision making. Thus it is necessary to explore the relationship level between husband and wife. Accordingly, in this section an attempt is made to explore the spousal relationship on the basis of respondent's opinion. Here spousal relationship is categorized in five alternatives such as very good, good, normal, bad and very bad based on respondent's opinion. Table 7.2.1 represents the percentage distribution of the respondent's spousal relationship. Among the 1600 respondents 278 were reported that they have very good relationship with their husband, 962 have good relationship with their husband, 28 have bad relationship with their husband, 10 have very bad relationship with their husband and the remaining 74 respondents have no husband (separated, divorced and widowed).

Table 7.2.1: Percentage distribution of respondent's spousal relationship

Type of Spousal Relationship	Number	Percentage	Percentage within current spouse
Very good	278	17.38	18.22
Good	962	60.13	63.04
Bad	28	1.75	1.83
Very bad	10	0.63	0.66
Normal	248	15.50	16.25
Total (within current spouse)	1526	95.38	100.00
No husband (separated, divorced and widowed)	74	4.63	-
GrandTotal	1600	100.00	-

To see the respondent's spousal relationship according to their educational levels here an attempt is taken. Table 7.2.2 presents the percentage distribution of the respondents by spousal relationship for different educational levels. More than sixty percent of the respondents expressed their opinion about spousal relationship is good from illiterate to secondary level of education whereas more than fifty percent respondents opined good for higher secondary and tertiary level of education. On the contrary, less than five percent respondents expressed their opinion about spousal relationship is bad or even very bad. This result apparently shows a good scenario of the development of spousal

relationship. Beside this picture women empowerment level may also be compare with the perception level of spousal relationship of the respondents. For three dimensions of empowerment indices, Table 7.2.2 (see page 95) also represents that most of the respondents are leading their good spousal relationship but their empowerment level is not superior in comparison with bad and/or very bad spousal relationship level in all educational level of the respondents. This shows that there is somewhat better empowerment of the respondents who have bad or even very bad spousal relationship than that of the respondent who have good spousal relationship at all levels of educational status of the respondents. This finding is inconsistent with the previous one because of the respondents only express their opinion about spousal relationship from insight their adoptive attitude to their husband rather than the reality of women empowerment insight which is the reflection of Table 7.2.3. In this circumstance it may be realized that the educational curriculum is pertinent to the empowerment of the women.

Table 7.2.3: Distribution of respondent's spousal relationship by their husband's torture

Spousal Relationship	Husband's Torture Status				Total
	Always torture	Not at all	Previously tortured but not presently	Occasionally	
Very good	6	259	7	6	278
Good	30	739	68	125	962
Bad	22	3	0	3	28
Very bad	4	2	1	3	10
Normal	43	90	23	92	248
Total	105	1093	99	229	1526

7.3 Husband's Torture

Women in Bangladesh generally conceal the bad incidence of conjugal life for the shake of spousal good and stable relationship. In this circumstance only a few persons concede their ill spousal relation if any exists. So an in-depth observation is needed about husband's torture status along with the spousal relationship. To see the husband's torture status, the respondents are categorized in four different levels such as always torture, not at all, previously tortured but not presently and occasionally.

In this part, an initiative is taken to discover the respondent's torture facing status by their husband based on their opinion. Table 7.3.1 represents that out of 1526 respondents 433 were reported to the interviewer as they were victimized with husband torture and the remaining 1093 respondents reported that they did not victimized with husband's

torture. Of the torture victimized respondents 105 claimed that they were always faced husband torture, 99 respondents faced husband's torture previously but not at the time of interview and 229 respondents face husband's torture now and then.

Table 7.3.1: Percentage of respondent's torture facing status by their husband

Type of husband's torture	Number	Percentage
Always torture	105	6.88
Not at all	1093	71.63
Previously tortured but not presently	99	6.49
Occasionally	229	15.01
Total	1526	100.00

Now in this section, an attempt is made to show the percentage distribution of the respondent's torture facing status by their husband according to respondent's educational levels. Table 7.3.2 (see page 95) shows that only illiterate women of about three-fourth of the total express their opinion about not at all i.e. ever faced any torture by their husband and this category is increased with the increasing of their educational level up to tertiary level of education. On the contrary, less than one-fourth of the respondents express their opinion about torture receiving levels by their husband and it also reveals torture receiving status is about decreases with increasing level of education in all categories. This result apparently shows a good scenario of leading a well conjugal life. Along with this picture women empowerment level may also be evaluate with the perception level of torture status by their husband. For three dimensions of empowerment indices it is obvious that most of the respondents are leading their good spousal relationship as most of the women don't face any torture during their conjugal life but their empowerment level is not better-quality in comparison with different categories of torture levels in all educational levels of the respondents. This shows that there is rather better empowerment of the respondents who have faced torture in their conjugal life than that of the respondent who have never faced any torture at all educational levels of the respondents. This finding is incompatible with the preceding one because being holding a less empowerment level they never faced any torture by their husband which is the reflection of Table 7.2.3. In this circumstance it may be realized that pertinent education as well as motivation is required to the empowerment level of the women to understand their real situation.

7.4 Familial Torture

In Bangladesh, people live in a single family level as well as joint family. Besides spousal relation, it is also necessary to maintain familial relation with other family members. Consequently, occasionally or frequently women are tortured by other family members other than husband also. In this part an initiative has been taken to visualize respondent's familial torture status. In this study, the respondents reported that they faced familial torture too. Table 7.4.1 reveals that among the total respondents, 111 said that they were victimized with familial torture and the remaining never faces any familial torture members

Table 7.4.1: Percentage of the respondent's torture facing scenario by their family members

Familial torture	Number	Percentage
Don't face torture	1489	93.06
Face torture	111	6.94
Total	1600	100.00

In this section, an attempt is taken to visualize the torture status by their family members on the basis of respondent's educational level. Here familial torture is categorized in two alternatives such as yes and no. Table 7.4.2 (see page 95) presents the percentage distribution of the respondent's torture facing status by their family members according to respondent's educational levels. About one-tenth portion of the respondents among the illiterate group confront by familial torture in their household life and in the higher secondary level of education this percentage is too lower than others. On the contrary, the familial torture decreases with the increasing of their educational levels except higher secondary of level. These representations undoubtedly depict a very well familial relationship among the family members. But beside this picture women empowerment level may also be measured with the perception level about familial torture of the respondents. For three dimensions of empowerment indices it is noticeable that most of the respondents are leading their good familial relationship with their family members but their empowerment level is not up to the mark in comparison with familial torture status in all educational level.

This shows that there is somewhat better empowerment of the respondents who have had bad never faced familial torture at all levels of education of the respondents. This finding is incoherent with the previous one because being occupying a less empowerment level they don't face any familial torture. In this circumstance, it may be comprehended that the pertinent education is necessary to the empowerment levels of the women.

Table 7.2.2: Percentage distribution of the respondent by spousal relationship according to the educational level of the respondent

Spousal relationship	Educational level of the respondent																			
	Illiterate			Primary			Secondary			Higher secondary			Tertiary							
	%	Mean value		%	Mean value		%	Mean value		%	Mean value		%	Mean value						
		EDMI	HDMI		FPMI	EDMI		HDMI	FPMI		EDMI	HDMI		FPMI	EDMI	HDMI	FPMI			
Very good	8.50	0.487	0.696	0.462	12.93	0.469	0.706	0.499	19.82	0.525	0.686	0.503	37.41	0.530	0.676	0.617	38.82	0.557	0.672	0.598
Good	65.69	0.478	0.618	0.441	62.36	0.486	0.622	0.446	65.77	0.492	0.634	0.455	53.96	0.540	0.642	0.600	54.12	0.552	0.689	0.578
Normal	20.26	0.463	0.592	0.473	21.77	0.500	0.625	0.449	13.15	0.472	0.648	0.509	8.63	0.566	0.646	0.658	5.88	0.554	0.734	0.648
Bad	4.58	0.459	0.651	0.515	1.81	0.429	0.665	0.471	1.08	0.443	0.638	0.388	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Very bad	0.98	0.517	0.917	0.553	1.13	0.600	0.716	0.598	0.18	0.440	0.670	0.670	-	-	-	-	1.18	0.560	1.000	1.000

Note: EDMI: Economic Decision Making Index, HDMI: Household Decision Making Index and FPMI: Freedom of Physical Movement Index

Table 7.3.2: Percentage distribution of the respondent's torture facing status by their husband according to the educational level of the respondent

Torture facing status	Educational level of the respondent																			
	Illiterate			Primary			Secondary			Higher secondary			Tertiary							
	%	Mean value		%	Mean value		%	Mean value		%	Mean value		%	Mean value						
		EDMI	HDMI		FPMI	EDMI		HDMI	FPMI		EDMI	HDMI		FPMI	EDMI	HDMI	FPMI			
Always	10.78	0.487	0.620	0.470	8.84	0.513	0.696	0.443	4.32	0.453	0.678	0.377	2.88	0.668	0.813	0.805	5.88	0.532	0.734	0.512
Not at all	57.84	0.468	0.638	0.431	64.85	0.488	0.658	0.455	78.74	0.502	0.658	0.474	84.89	0.543	0.654	0.604	88.24	0.558	0.681	0.595
Previously but not present	9.80	0.451	0.553	0.432	6.80	0.493	0.567	0.432	4.86	0.447	0.580	0.514	7.19	0.478	0.683	0.589	2.35	0.445	0.875	0.835
Occasionally	21.57	0.498	0.621	0.517	19.50	0.469	0.555	0.471	12.07	0.485	0.586	0.474	5.04	0.476	0.549	0.654	3.53	0.557	0.667	0.557

Note: EDMI: Economic Decision Making Index, HDMI: Household Decision Making Index and FPMI: Freedom of Physical Movement Index

Table 7.4.2: Percentage distribution of the respondent's torture facing status by their family members according to the educational level of the respondent

Torture facing status	Educational level of the respondent																			
	Illiterate			Primary			Secondary			Higher secondary			Tertiary							
	%	Mean value		%	Mean value		%	Mean value		%	Mean value		%	Mean value						
		EDMI	HDMI		FPMI	EDMI		HDMI	FPMI		EDMI	HDMI		FPMI	EDMI	HDMI	FPMI			
Face torture	10.40	0.499	0.621	0.433	7.71	0.529	0.673	0.455	5.88	0.520	0.629	0.446	2.86	0.558	0.645	0.640	3.41	0.403	0.697	0.557
Don't face torture	89.60	0.468	0.628	0.469	92.29	0.481	0.641	0.455	94.12	0.499	0.651	0.481	97.14	0.539	0.656	0.611	96.59	0.540	0.672	0.583

Note: EDMI: Economic Decision Making Index, HDMI: Household Decision Making Index and FPMI: Freedom of Physical Movement Index

7.5 Tackling Capability

In Bangladesh generally women who faced with husband for familial torture take it easy or habituated as an unproblematic event. But this situation is growing up to a notable stage. Considering this crucial scenario, it is trying to find out the tackling capacity of a woman when she victimized with husband and/or familial torture. The tackling capability is categorized with five alternatives such as always tackle against torture, never tackle against torture, previously tackled but not presently, no positive consequence and tolerate by anyhow. Table 7.5.1 represents that among the torture victimized respondents 87 respondents always tackle against torture, 39 respondents never try to tackle against torture, 35 respondents previously tackled but not at present, 94 respondents opined that no positive consequence by tackling and remaining 214 respondents reported that they tolerate torture by anyhow.

Table 7.5.1: Frequency distribution of women's tackling capability against torture

Tackling capability to against torture	Frequency	Percent
Always tackle against torture	87	18.55
Never tackle against torture	39	8.32
Previously tackled but not presently	35	7.46
No positive consequence	94	20.04
Tolerate by anyhow	214	45.63
Total	469	100.00

The tackling capacity is dependent on educational status and some other phenomena as well. But education can reduce all types of problem very easily as the development of education as well as perception. On the basis of educational status of the respondents, Table 7.5.2 shows that the three categories of women's tackling status such as always previously but not present, no positive consequence and even the category tolerate by anyhow decreases with the increasing of educational qualification except illiterate group of respondents. But the respondents who never try to tackle against any torture are also decreases with increasing of educational status except primary level of education. It is also reveals that the percentage is too higher than other categories for illiterate respondents who never tackle against any torture. Here it is notable that the percentage of higher secondary and tertiary level of educational respondents is too higher than other categories who never tackle against any torture. Consequently, it can be concluded that due to lack of pertinent education, respondents are not capable to tackle against any torture by husband and/or family members.

Table 7.5.2: Percentage distribution of respondent's tackling capability against torture according to their educational level

Tackling capability against torture	Educational level of the respondent				
	Illiterate	Primary	Secondary	Higher secondary	Tertiary
Always	24.14	33.33	31.03	8.05	3.45
Never	38.46	17.95	23.08	10.26	10.26
Previously but not present	31.43	40.00	25.71	2.86	-
No positive consequence	28.72	34.04	32.98	3.19	1.06
Tolerate by anyhow	29.44	40.65	26.17	2.80	0.93

Note: The values indicated in parenthesis are percentage as row wise and (-) indicated that the cell frequency is empty.

7.6 Determinants of Husband's Torture

Binary logistic regression analyses are used to see effect of some socio-economic and demographic variables on husband's torture. Here, the dependent variables are qualitative and it takes the value 'one' if she faces torture by her husband and 'zero' if she doesn't face. The qualitative independent variables used in this analysis age at marriage, respondent's age, household head, religion of the respondent, respondent's educational level and respondent's earning status about husband's torture.

Table 7.6.1 shows that the qualitative variables like respondent's age at marriage, respondent's age, respondent's educational level and respondent's earning status have significant effect on husband's torture. This result also reveals that respondent's age at marriage of 15-19 years is 0.179 times more and 20-24 years and 25+ years are $(1-0.620) = 0.32$ and $(1-0.526) = 0.526$ times respectively less likely to have faced husband's torture in their conjugal life than that of <15 years of age at marriage. Respondent's age reveals the negative significant effect for all age groups. It also shows that the age group of 20-29 years, 30-39 years and 40+ years are $(1-0.563) = 0.437$, $(1-0.542) = 0.458$ and $(1-0.461) = 0.539$ times less likely to have faced husband's torture than that of <20 years of age. The household head elucidates that the respondents with male headed households are $(1-0.672) = 0.328$ times less likely to have faced torture by their husbands in conjugal life than that of female headed households, whereas the religion status shows that Muslim respondents are 0.217 times more likely to have faced husband's torture than the non-Muslim counterpart. The educational level of the respondents shows the negative significant effect for all educational levels. The educational levels also reveals that primary, secondary, higher secondary and tertiary levels are $(1-0.682) = 0.318$, $(1-0.323)$

= 0.677, $(1-0.206) = 0.794$ and $(1-0.179) = 0.179$ times respectively less likely to have faced torture by their husband than that of illiterate counterparts. The earning status of the respondents shows the positive significant effect on husband's torture and it also depicts that earner women have 0.809 times more likely to have faced husband torture than the not earning respondents.

Table 7.6.1: Logistic regression of husband's torture by some selected variables

Variables	Coefficients	Significance	Odds Ratio
Constant	0.483	0.360	1.622
Respondent's age at marriage (years)			
<15®			
15-19	0.165	0.209	1.179
20-24	-0.478	0.099	0.620
25+	-0.642	0.284	0.526
Respondent's age (years)			
<20			
20-29	-0.574	0.038	0.563
30-39	-0.613	0.027	0.542
40+	-0.773	0.007	0.461
Household head			
Female®			
Male	-0.398	0.330	0.672
Religion			
Non-Muslim®			
Muslim	0.197	0.354	1.217
Respondent's education level			
Illiterate ®			
Primary	-0.383	0.014	0.682
Secondary	-1.131	0.000	0.323
Higher Secondary	-1.582	0.000	0.206
Tertiary	-1.722	0.000	0.179
Respondent's earning status			
Non Earner®			
Earner	0.593	0.006	1.809

Note: R = Reference category

7.7 Determinants of Familial Torture

Table 7.7.1 represents that the qualitative variables respondent's religion status and respondent's educational level have significant effect on familial torture. This result also revealed that respondent's age at marriage of 15-19 years and 20-24 years are $(1-0.775) = 0.225$ and $(1-0.727) = 0.273$ times respectively less and 25+ years is 0.114 times more likely to have faced familial torture to carry on household life. Respondent's age reveals that the age group of 20-29 years have 0.401 times more and 30-39 years and 40+ years are $(1-0.883) = 0.117$ and $(1-0.824) = 0.176$ times less likely to have faced familial torture. In another study (Chandrasekaran et al., 2007) it is found that older age are independently associated with domestic violence. The household head elucidates that the respondents with male headed households are $(1-0.622) = 0.378$ times less likely to have faced torture by their family members. The religion status shows that Muslim respondents are 5.096 times more likely to have faced familial torture than the non-Muslim counterpart. The educational level of the respondents shows the negative significant effect for secondary and higher secondary level of education. The educational levels also shows that primary, secondary, higher secondary and tertiary levels are $(1-0.714) = 0.286$, $(1-0.499) = 0.501$, $(1-0.276) = 0.724$ and $(1-0.368) = 0.632$ times respectively less likely to have faced familial torture during leading their household like with the family members. The earning status of the respondents shows that the earning respondents have 0.381 times more likely to have faced familial torture than the non-earning counterparts.

Table 7.7.1: Logistic regression of familial torture by some selected variables

Variables	Coefficients	Significance	Odds Ratio
Constant	-3.218	0.001	0.040
Respondent's age at marriage (years)			
<15®			
15-19	-0.255	0.237	0.775
20-24	-0.319	0.500	0.727
25+	0.108	0.894	1.114
Respondent's age (years)			
<20			
20-29	0.337	0.499	1.401
30-39	-0.125	0.806	0.883
40+	-0.194	0.708	0.824
Household head			
Female®			
Male	-0.475	0.314	0.622
Religion			
Non-Muslim®			
Muslim	1.808	0.012	6.096
Respondent's education level			
Illiterate ®			
Primary	-0.337	0.187	0.714
Secondary	-0.695	0.011	0.499
Higher Secondary	-1.287	0.022	0.276
Tertiary	-0.999	0.143	0.368
Respondent's earning status			
Not Earner®			
Earner	0.690	0.116	1.381

Note: R = Reference category

Chapter Eight

Summary and Conclusion

Chapter Eight

Summary and Conclusion

8.1 Introduction

This piece of work has been done to study the empowerment of women in Rajshahi division of Bangladesh. In this study an attempt has been made to see how far the women are still behind to become empower. The data for this study were come conducting field level survey in 16 districts of Rajshahi division in Bangladesh. A number of questions were used to collect information on some socio-economic, demographic, leadership, violence and empowerment related variables and some basic characteristics of the respondents. The sample size of this study is 1600. All the respondents were reproductive aged women between 15-49 years. Percentage distribution, bivariate analysis, linear regression and logistic regression analysis have been applied in this study to identity the factors related to women's empowerment. The following section provided a brief discussion of the results with conclusions followed by few relevant implications.

8.2 Summary and Discussion

In this study, the results in chapter three revealed that educational enrolment for male-female children shows somewhat different in both rural and urban area. Crude enrollment rate for female children is little bit better than that of male children, whereas general enrollment rate for male children is better than that of female children. In level specific enrollment rates of female children are better in primary and secondary levels but they are lack behind than male children in higher secondary and above level of educational enrollment. Whereas in the age specific enrollment rate of female children is better in the age group 6-10 years only but they lack behind in the age group more than 10 years.

Obviously mother's education is essential for child rearing. Accordingly in this study investigated the perception level of the respondents about the essence of mother's education for child rearing. Three-fifth rural women expressed their perception in favor

of the category of mother's education would be highly needed for rearing children and in urban area it is about seventy percent. Comparatively more rural women viewed their perception that mother's education is not so needed or even no need at all for child rearing. Further an attempt has taken to explore the perception level according to their educational level. It is observed that respondent's educational level and their perception about the essence of mother's education for child rearing is significantly and positively associated. In other words the result is pertinent to mention here that the higher the level of education, the greater the likelihood that a women will efficiently rear their children.

To explore the scenario of school enrollment of the children in relation to women's self-sense level about the essence of mother's education for child rearing explain that crude and general enrollment rate increases with increasing self-sense level about the essence of mother's education for child rearing. The age specific enrollment rates for all age groups increase with increasing self-sense level about the essence of mother's education for child rearing except male child for 6-10 years, whereas the level specific enrollment rates for all levels increase with increasing self-sense level about the essence of mother's education for child rearing except female child level specific enrollment rate for secondary education. From the study it is concluded that the education level of the children goes higher the self-sense level about the essence of mother's education for child rearing also becomes higher.

It is apparent that mother's education is essential for providing children with education. Consequently in this study it is investigated that the perception level of respondents about the essence of mother's education for providing children with education. More than half of the women expressed their perception in favor of the category of mother's education would have strong importance for providing children with education, whereas the proportion of urban women is more than that of rural women. Comparatively more rural women viewed their perception that mother's education has medium importance or even little and no importance for providing children with education. Further an attempt has taken to explore the perception level according to their educational level. It is observed that respondent's educational level and their perception about the importance of women's opinion for providing children with education is significantly and positively associated. In other words the result is pertinent to mention here that the higher the level of education, the greater the possibility that a women will efficiently educate their children.

To explore the picture of school enrollment of the children in relation to the importance level of women's opinion for providing children with education shows that crude and general enrollment rates increase with increasing importance level of women's opinion for providing children with education. It is found that age specific enrollment rates for all age groups increase with increasing importance level of women's opinion for providing children with education, whereas the level specific enrollment rates increases with increasing importance level of women's opinion for providing children with education except male level specific enrollment rate for tertiary level of education. In this study it is obvious that the education level of the children goes higher the self-sense level about the importance level of women's opinion for providing children with education also becomes higher. It indicates that the women become enlightened with the education of their children.

Apparently male and female should get equal preference for education. In this regard, in this study an attempt has been made to investigate the scenario of women's self-assessment of male-female children education preference. More than four-fifth women expressed that both male and female should get equal preference for education, whereas the proportion is more for urban women than that of rural counterparts. The study also reveals that male preference is higher than the female preference regarding education. There is a minor differential between rural and urban respondents for all preferences level of male-female children education are gone in favor of urban area. So it may be come to a decision that rural women have to upgrade their perception about the necessity of male-female children education preference. Further an attempt has taken to explore the perception level according to their educational level. It is observed that a larger proportion of women irrespective of their educational level expressed about equal male-female children education preference. In addition comparison between male children education preference and female children education preference shows that the larger proportion of women argued in favor of male children education preference.

To visualize the picture of school enrollment of the children in relation to women's self-assessment about male-female children education preference shows that female children crude enrolment rate and general enrolment rate are higher among the male-female children education preference level for those women who argued in favor of female children education preference. It is also evident from this study that age specific and level specific female children enrolment rate are higher among the male-female children

education preference level for those respondents who argued in favor of female children education preference except for 6-10 years age specific and primary level specific rate. In spite of the lower perception of the women for female children education preference, enrolment rates of female children are comparatively high than that of other perception levels. It may be suggested that if the perception level in favor of female children education preference is lift up female children enrolment rate can be reached at an optimum level.

For the quantification of women empowerment, in chapter four it is measured in three dimensions and the measurements are taking in a index form such as economic decision making index (EDMI), household decision making index (HDMI) and freedom of physical movement index (FPMI). The mean value of HDMI is larger than that of FPMI following by EDM. So it may conclude that women are less empowered in economic decision making purpose. It is further noticeable that rural women are comparatively less empowered than that of their counterpart for all three dimensions. According to current age, teen aged and forty and above aged rural women are relatively less empowered than middle aged (20-39 years) women but in urban area only teen aged women are less empowered than others.

To see the factors affecting women empowerment multiple linear regression analysis is used for different dimensions. Considering economic decision making dimension, the continuous variables respondent's education (year of schooling) and household size and; the discrete variables respondent's occupation, marital status of respondent, type of household head and respondent's earning status have significant effect on the value of economic decision making index. From the results it is concluded that respondent's education has positive significant effect on the value of women's economic decision making index whereas household size has negative and significant effect on the value of women's economic decision making index. Further the results also show that the women's economic decision making power is more for the housewife, married and earning women than that of non-housewives, unmarried and non-earning women respectively but the economic decision making power is less for the Muslim and the women with male headed household than that of non-Muslim and the women with female headed household respectively.

In case of household decision making dimension, the continuous variables household size and household monthly expenditure and; the discrete variables respondent's occupation, marital status of respondent, religion of the respondent, type of household head, respondent's earning status and housing condition of the respondent have significant effect on the value of household decision making index. From the outcomes it is concluded that household monthly expenditure has positive significant effect on the value of household decision making index whereas household size has negative and significant effect. In addition the results also elucidate that the women's household decision making power is more for the housewife, married and earning women than that of non-housewives, unmarried and non-earning women respectively but the household decision making power is less for the Muslim, the women with male headed household and the women with Pacca housing condition than that of non-Muslim, women with female headed household and women with non-Pacca housing condition respectively.

In view of freedom of physical movement dimension, the continuous variables respondent's age and respondent's education (year of schooling) and; the discrete variables respondent's occupation, type of household head, respondent's earning status and respondent's housing condition have significant effect on the value of freedom of physical movement index. From the results it is concluded that respondent's age and respondent's education have positive significant effect on the value of women's freedom of physical movement decision making index. Further the results also show that the women's freedom of physical movement power is more for the housewife, earning women and women with Pacca housing condition than that of non-housewife, non-earning women and women with non-Pacca housing condition respectively but the freedom of physical movement power is less for the women with male headed household than that of the women with female headed household.

The achievement and magnitude pattern of receiving information from any person and/or organization about some individual indicators of women empowerment is considered as a way to empowerment. These indicators are male-female equal right in the society, for education and for wage, female participation in politics and; the right for maternal health care. The results in chapter five shows that relatively the larger proportion of women received information from any person and/or organization about the right for maternal health care following by equal right for education. A minimum of the women received

information from any person and/or organization regarding the equal right for wage even less than the indicator of female participation in politics. Concerning rural-urban differentiation, urban women are more informed about the indicators from any person and/or organization than the rural counterparts.

To observe the empowerment level of three dimensions according to the aforementioned indicators are shown in chapter five. It is observed that the women who received information about the indicators of male-female equal right in the society and male-female equal right for wage are relatively more economically empowered than those women who received information about others indicators. Further it is explained that the women who received information about the indicator of maternal health care is relatively more empowered for household affairs than those women who received information about others indicators. In this study it is also elucidated that the women who received information about the indicator of male-female equal right in the society is relatively more empowered for freedom of physical movement than those women who received information about others indicators.

Considering the magnitude pattern of receiving information from any person and/or organization about the indicators shown that about one-third of the total women did not received any information, about 29 percent women are informed only one indicator of women empowerment and only 5 percent women are informed about the indicators. The results elucidated that women who received information from relatively more in number of indicators of women empowerment their empowerment levels also gradually increases up to four indicators but women who have informed about almost five indicators of women empowerment it is lower than that of who informed about two indicators in economic decision making dimension. Further women empowerment levels are shown gradually higher up to three indicators but it is decrease for the women who informed from more than three indicators of women empowerment in household decision making dimension.

To examine the effect of different socio-economic and demographic variables on receiving information from any organization/person about the indicators of women empowerment multivariate logistic regression is employed. In this regard the results indicated that respondent's age at marriage, respondent's age and household average year of schooling have positive significant effect on receiving information about male-female

equal right for education. Women with female headed household and non-Muslim women are 3.676 and 3.088 times more likely to have information than that of women with male headed household and Muslim women respectively. Considering occupational status, women who engaged in service, business and laborious work are more likely to have information than that of housewife. The results shown that respondent's age and household average year of schooling have positive significant effect on receiving information about female participation in politics, whereas respondent's age at marriage indicated that the negative significant effect. Non-Muslim and earning women are 0.581 and 0.769 times less likely to have informed than that of Muslim and not earning women respectively. Regarding occupational status, women who engaged in service are more likely to have informed than that of housewife. The results shown that household average year of schooling have positive significant effect on receiving information about the right for maternal health care. In this study, respondent's educational status indicated that women who have completed tertiary level of education are more likely to have informed about the right for maternal health care than that of illiterate women whereas women's occupational status shown women who are still student are less likely to have informed about the right for maternal health care than that of illiterate. In this study it is revealed that respondent's age have highly positive significant effect on receiving information about male-female equal right for wage. Non-Muslim women are 2.025 times more likely to have informed about male-female equal right for wage than that of Muslim women whereas in case of occupational status, women who engaged in service are more likely to have informed than that of housewife. Further the study also shown that respondent's age and household average year of schooling have positive significant effect on receiving information about male-female equal right in the society. Non-Muslim women are 1.118 times more likely to have informed about male-female equal right in the society than that of Muslim women. Regarding occupational status, women who engaged in service and laborious work are more likely to have informed about male-female equal right in the society than that of housewife.

Women participation in different organizations at grass-root level leads them to participate in politics in future and strategically women may be empowered. From the results revealed in chapter six that the percentage of women is larger who are not participated in any organization than those who are participated. Since the organizations

are mainly NGO basis the participation status is somewhat different and the rural women's participation is proportionally larger than urban women.

An attempt is taken to see the participation pattern of women in different types of organization according to their educational levels. Here it is seen that illiterate or even comparatively lower educated rural women are mainly engaged in NGO and religion based organizations. On the other hand, higher educated and urban women are largely engaged in socio-cultural, business association and political organizations.

On the basis of importance given by the women it is elucidated that among the different types of organizations NGO and community based organizations are more popular within the women and they are mostly from illiterate to secondary level educated. A tinny proportion of illiterate women engaged with up to three organizations; their involvement mostly in NGO level.

Women's perception about the leadership capability of the leader to operate the organizational activities shows that a larger number of organizations are functioning by the leaders who have medium types of leadership and even their importance level to operate the organizations is also medium for the organizations of both first and second prioritized. A larger number of women expressed that the leaders of different organizations are selected within the organizational members without considering the success or inefficiency of the leaders. Only a few women said that leader selection procedure follow the efficiency of doing organizational different activities.

Since women's leadership capability grown up through the philosophy of satisfaction within themselves and this satisfaction level invent the capacity to be a leader. This results shows a major part of the women opined that the present conventional procedure of leader selection is moderately satisfied them. Comparatively a small part of the women opined that this type of leader selection is highly satisfactory. It is an important part that how much a woman benefited from their adjunct organization being a member. It is elucidated from the results that a substantial proportion of women have benefited from these organizations as so good or not so bad.

Violence as physical or mental torture against women is a common phenomenon in rural and urban as well in Bangladesh but this scenario still is obscured. This obscurant may be arises due to the lack of leading representation in the family as well as in the society

and subsequently they are trapped within their surroundings. In this regard some preliminary initiatives are explored in chapter seven to see the violence situation in the familial environment. As a part of this stage firstly spousal relationship is considered. Because after having marriage a good spousal relationship, the basis for reducing familial violence. The results explore that more than four-fifth of the total women reported that spousal relationship is good and / or very good in their conjugal life whereas only about two and half percent of the women said that about their spousal relationship is bad and / or very bad. These women who have bad and / or very bad spousal relationship are mainly illiterate and also some are educated from primary to secondary level. Though a markedly good scenario exist among the women regarding their spousal relationship, their empowerment level is not so satisfactory. Because, being holding a good spousal relationship of these women their mean values of different dimensional empowerment indices are relatively lower than those who have bad or even very bad relationship.

Generally Bangladeshi women comply with the familial and even husband's torture for the shake of conjugal life with a sound spousal relationship. As a result the torture scenario is still unexplored. In this regard an initiative is taken to explore the women's torture facing status by their husband. It is shown that out of 1526 women 433 were reported as they were victimized with husband torture. Among the victimized women 6.88 percent claimed that they were always faced husband torture, 6.49 percent women faced husband's torture previously but not at present and 15.01 percent women face husband's torture now and then. According to the educational level of women, the more the educate women the less torture level. As similar to the above paragraph though women who did not faced any type of torture but their different dimensional empowerment indices values are relatively lower than those who have faced with torture. In addition to this scenario, familial tortures have shown the same picture. This is an ambiguous result and it may be caused by the hidden information about the real scenario of tortures.

It is true that substantial proportion of women face torture by husband and family members, some of them can tackle and some can not. It is found that among the torture victimized women about 19 percent always can tackle against torture, 8 percent never try to tackle against torture, 7 percent previously tackled but not at present, 20 percent opined about no positive consequence by tackling and remaining 46 percent women

tolerate torture by anyhow. It is evident that the proportion of higher secondary and tertiary level of educated women who have to face torture by their husband and/or family members without tackling is too higher than those women who tackled against any torture.

To examine the effect of different socio-economic and demographic variables on women's torture by their husband multivariate logistic regression is employed. The results elucidated that respondent's age and educational level have negative significant effect on facing women's torture by their husband whereas, the women's earning status has positive significant effect on facing husband's torture. The results also revealed that lower aged women face more husbands' torture than that of their higher aged counterparts. The educational level of the respondents expressed that illiterate women face more husband's torture than that of their educated counterparts. The earning status of the respondents elucidates that earning women face more torture than the not earning women.

The effect of different socio-economic and demographic variables on familial torture explained that respondent's religion have positive significant effect on facing torture by their family members whereas, educational level of the respondent shown have negative significant effect on facing torture by their family members. The results also revealed that Muslim women are 5.096 times more likely to have faced familial torture than that of their non-Muslim counterparts. The educational level of the respondents expressed that primary, secondary, higher secondary and tertiary educational levels of women are 0.286, 0.501, 0.724 and 0.632 times respectively less likely to have faced familial torture than that of illiterate women.

8.3 Major Findings of the Study

This study has identified some socio-economic, demographic, leadership and violence related factors which effect on women empowerment. The major findings of this study are as follows:

There is not so difference in male-female educational enrollment in primary and a ignorable difference exist in secondary level. But there is still a considerable difference exist in male-female enrollment in tertiary level for both rural and urban areas. The

literacy rate is reached in a considerable position, but it is not the end. Because our goal is every man and woman have to be literate. A noticeable result is that female is less literate than their counterpart male in both rural and urban areas, which is one of the obstacles on the way to women empowerment. The perception of women about their importance level concerning child rearing and child education increases with the increasing of their own education. Beside this, the preference level due to male-female education has yet seen in the women who are less educated but somewhat equal in the women who have higher education. Since in our educational curriculum in the lower level are not so pertinent to gender gap concerning leading to women empowerment, perhaps it may be the main cause behind the above mentioned differentiation. So our educational curriculum should be updated in all level of education concerning pertinent education to women empowerment.

Among the three dimension of empowerment, women are comparatively in least position for economic purpose than other two dimensions like as freedom of physical movement and household purpose. It is noted that they are mere ahead in household decision making purpose. It may be due to the cause that our women mostly housewife. Obviously urban women are relatively more empowered than that of rural women. In all through the three dimensions the women who are engaged in earning activities are more empowered. So the women should be participated in income generating activities even those who are merely engaged as housewife should be considered as earning person in the family. And that is the way to make them empowered properly.

Women are more informed as well as conscious about maternal health and female education through the assistance of different persons and organizations. Women empowerment is enhanced regarding economic and freedom of physical movement decision making aspects through getting proper information on five indicators such as female education, female participation in politics, maternal health care, male-female equal wage and male-female equal right. Women's age significantly impacts on receiving information on five effective indicators of women empowerment. To empower the women it needs to take proper initiatives to provide information through NGOs and GOs.

Women's participation in different organizations is more visible in rural areas and women are mainly engaged in non-government organizations (NGOs) and community

based organizations. Most of the women up to secondary level of education perceived that the leaders of different organizations where they engaged have moderate type of leadership capability. Maximum number of organizational leaders is selected within the members ignoring the work efficiency concerning their own organization. Moreover, a substantial number of women are totally unaware about the selection procedure of their leaders. After this, maximum number of women said that they can not get an optimum and fruitful benefit from those organizations. It may be concluded that if women can select or elect properly, they will obtain optimum benefit from those leaders and consequently women would be more empowered and their development enhanced through leadership development.

The result shows that the empowerment level is in better position of some women but their spousal relationship is bad or even very bad in some cases irrespective of all levels of education than those women who have good spousal relationship. Further those women who face torture by both husband as well as family members irrespective of all levels of education, they occupied better empowerment than those who faced any torture. Here an ambiguous result is shown. Because, women do not yet understand about their rights and even those who understand the rights, they hide the torture for the shake of endurable spousal bond. The younger women and those who have lower age at marriage are likelihood to have faced more tortured by their husbands and family members. Moreover, the women who lived in female headed household are more likely to face with torture than that of male headed household. It can be concluded that violence against women interrupt empowerment and this is started from the family level and then spread out in the community.

8.4 Policy Implications

Policy reactions to the author's finding will depend as the degree to which reducing gender inequality is identified as an objective in its own right. Women's empowerment policy could be made on women's mobility; a limited role in household as well as society based decision-making, a limited control over all knowledge about their rights and responsibilities. Considering these points, the study findings lead to the following policy implication, which optimistically can be proved valuable to the policy makers:

- Since our educational curriculum in the lower level are not so pertinent to minimize gender gap concerning leading to women empowerment, perhaps it

may be the main cause behind the male-female differentiation. So our educational curriculum should be updated in all level of education concerning pertinent education to women empowerment.

- In this study the women who are engaged in earning activities are more empowered. So it needs to take proper initiatives so that every woman should be participated in income generating activities even those who are merely engaged as housewife should be considered as earning person in the family and then they will be approached into the way to make them empowered properly.
- In the name of women empowerment NGOs are providing different types of information as service like health, education, politics, rights, etc to the women but this information is not providing properly so that women can understand and implement in their familial life. So it is suggested to provide information as well as different interventions through NGOs and GOs properly so that it can develop the women's consciousness regarding women empowerment.
- Maximum number of women in this study expressed that they do not get an optimum and fruitful benefit from those organizations where they engaged. And they even stay behind the major policy and strategy making meetings and accordingly they do not acquire any ownership of that organization where they engaged. So every organization should engage the women by providing ownership and eventually develop leadership so that they can play role to empower women.
- Women do not yet understand about their rights and even those who understand the rights; they hide the torture for the shake of endurable spousal bond. Violence against women does not explore and finally this violence interrupts empowerment which is started from the family level and then spread out in the community. So it is suggested to provide effective policy to minimize the gap between men and women and to ensure their rights in every sphere of life.

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