**Women’s Participations in Economic and NGO Activities in Bangladesh:**

*An Empirical Study on the Bangladesh Demography and Health Survey (BDHS)*

**Abstract**

This study examines key factors affecting the economic involvement of women in Bangladesh and women’s involvement with Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) operating in that country. Quantitative analysis was utilised to explore data contained in the Bangladesh Demographic and Health Surveys 2007 and 2011. The findings indicate that age, marital status, number of children living in the household, place of residence, geographical location, education, partner’s education and the wealth index are important factors in enabling women’s involvement in economic activities. In other words, the key findings emerged from the study are firstly, the low level of women’s economic activities in Bangladesh with a majority involved in farming, agriculture and poultry; secondly, those women involved in the labour market generally tended to come from poor backgrounds, have very little education, live in the Northwest geographical region and have a large family living in the same house; and finally, age, currently married, having a higher number of children, living in rural areas, from the Northwest region with almost no education and belonging to the poor wealth index quintile are found to be associated more with NGO activities in Bangladesh. The findings indicate there are potential barriers that are preventing Bangladeshi women from engaging in the labour market that could reinforce the case for reshaping the Government’s labour policies. The study reveals that the recent economic crisis has no significant impact on the women labour force participation as well their involvement in NGO activities in Bangladesh. It is generally understood that enhancing women’s economic participation and NGO activities has a positive impact at family, community and country levels. The study concludes that investing in women, particularly in creating employment opportunities including NGO sectors can help the country as a safeguard even during the economic crisis. It is anticipated that the findings will help policy-makers in enhancing female labour-force participation as well as encouraging them to engage in NGO activities in Bangladesh.

**Key words**: Female labour force participation, NGOs, BDHS, logistic regression, poverty, economic activity, microcredit, Bangladesh.

**Introduction**

The economic contribution of women and their involvement with the third sector are subjects of interest in contemporary literature particularly in the social sciences (see for example, Amin et al., 1998; Kabeer, 2005; Pitt et al., 2006; Rahman and Khan, 2013; Bradshaw et al., 2013; Verick, 2014). Bangladesh is a developing country with a majority Muslim population and women’s participation in labour force activities has not been an easy one particularly due to socio-cultural reasons. It is often in discussion as to how Bangladesh has been so successful in utilizing its female population in economic activities where Islam as a religion is still play vital role in shaping people’s life. On the other hand, Bangladesh is also well known as a country with huge success in the growth and development of NGO sectors and a vast majority of workforce are females. Women are generally targeted to give jobs in garments and NGO sectors and loans are being granted for small business purposes. Over the last two decades, micro-credit programmes have proved very popular in Bangladesh and have provided a focal point for discussions about the reduction of poverty. Government alongside with NGOs have come forward to involve women in labour force activities through micro-credit programme. However, little is known on the dynamics of women’s participation in labour market and NGO sectors. Moreover, it is worthwhile to study the degree to which economic crisis has impacted on the labour market in Bangladesh. Considering all these points, the study aims to identify key determinants of the women’s participation and NGO activities in Bangladesh.

According to the 2012 Micro-Credit Summit1 almost 205.30 million poor people around the world are involved in micro-credit activities; of these, 137.55 million first-time borrowers are the poorest2 and over 82 per cent of them are women. It is also reported that women who are involved in micro-credit programmes become more confident and are able to lead a decent life along with their family members (see for example, Kabeer, 2005; Osmani, 2007; Kato and Kratzer, 2013; Rahman and Khan, 2013). Micro-credit enables poor families to tackle various shocks affecting their lives, including environmental problems such as flooding, because their family income has increased. Women’s involvement in social networks provided by NGOs can also offer support so enabling women to successfully get through such difficulties. A micro-credit programme therefore can help provoke a great transformation in a developing country, particularly for poor women living in rural areas.

In 2008, nearly 1.29 billion people across the world were living on less than $1.25 a day (World Bank, 2012). The poverty rate in Bangladesh reduced from 40 per cent in 2005 to 31.5 per cent in 2010 (BBS, 2011). NGOs and Micro Finance Institutions (MFIs) in Bangladesh are mainly targeting women in order to bring them into the micro-credit programmes and they provide various services such as education, maternal health and family planning, and training in income generating activities. According to the NGO Affairs Bureau Bangladesh (2011) there are over two thousand MFIs in the country all working with poor women to pull them out of poverty. According to BRAC (2011), about 2.32 million women in Bangladesh have received various types of services including asset, soft loan and financial support. BRAC Bangladesh has provided training in income generating activities (IGAs) to 1.33 million women, provided maternal services to poor women living in rural areas and also provided maternal, neo-natal and antenatal services to 5.7 million women living in urban areas in Bangladesh. The Grameen Bank (2011) claimed 8.35 million micro-credit borrowers in Bangladesh of which, 96 per cent were women and another large NGO, ASA Bangladesh (2011) claimed more than 5.01 million borrowers in Bangladesh of which 79 per cent were women.

As indicated, the vast majority of the beneficiaries of micro-credit loans are women for which there are several reasons. Epstein and Kim (2007) explained that foreign policy makers have increasingly focused on micro-credit programmes for women because they have recognised that not only is it a form of gender discrimination to leave women aside from such facilities but it is also an obstacle to economic and social development. Micro-credit programmes have brought women into the cash economy and are encouraging them to be trained in entrepreneurial skills that then help to stimulate economic growth. Some studies suggested that MFIs tend to lend money to women because they are more likely to repay the loans than are men and they are also more likely to spend their incomes on the welfare of their families. Women are playing substantial roles in sustaining micro-credit programmes because of their low drop-out and high recovery rates that are further encouraging the trend of targeting women (Khandker et al*.*, 1995).

Although microcredit has been considered as an effective method for empowering women and more specifically as an economic means of lifting people out of poverty, however, in recent years critics have brought to light some of the problems associated with micro-credit particularly the way it operates lending, programmes as such that targets women group as a whole (Levin, 2012). Micro-credits sometimes do more harm than good to the poorest (Tripathi, 2006). One reason could be the high interest rates charged by microcredit organizations. In this paper, we focus only on women’s employment in general and to what extent it relates to NGO activities in Bangladesh.

***Economically Inactive versus Non-employed Women in Bangladesh***

The 2010 Labour Force Survey (LFS) states that those people engaged in household work plus students and others including beggars, pensioners, income recipients and the disabled are economically inactive (BBS, 2011). Women who are engaged in such tasks such as child care, cooking food and taking care of elderly relatives are therefore considered to be economically inactive. Efroymson at el. (2006) revealed that women in Bangladesh work as much as 16 hours per day at various unpaid household tasks including activities such as farm work, helping in the family business and so on. However, due to the low level of education amongst women in Bangladesh, they are economically dependent on male relatives in three phases throughout their lifetime: first with their father, then a husband and then a son. According to 2010 LFS, of the 38.9 million economically inactive people in Bangladesh, 30.6 million are women. Of the total inactive women, as many as 25.1 million (81.7 per cent) were engaged in household work followed by students at 2.2 million (10.3 per cent) with others at 3.3 million (8.0 per cent). Of the inactive 8.4 million males in the population, only 1.4 million (13.9 per cent) were engaged in household work, 4.6 million (54.6 per cent) were students and 2.6 million (31.5 per cent) were others (BBS, 2011).

The definition of “unemployment” is as recommended by the International Labour Organisation (ILO) based on the context of Bangladesh that is followed by the LFS. So a person aged 15 years and above is considered to be unemployed if s/he did not work at all, even for an hour in the reference week or during the preceding week of the survey but was actively looking for a job or, was available for work but did not due to illness or because there was no work available. The 2010 LFS also states that people who work in a family business for less than 16 hours per week and do not get paid for that work then they are also unemployed. However, LFS 2010 argued that many of those considered as unemployed generally do perform some work in a family enterprise or other place and are not actually unemployed (BBS, 2011). The above definition of unemployment therefore may be problematic. If the survey was conducted during the lean season then the rate of unemployment would be higher. For example, in the northwest region of Bangladesh, a large number of people are unemployed mainly during two periods in a year: March-April and September-November. Since many women assist in a family business and in farming alongside their full time household work, they could be seen as either unemployed because they do not actively look for a job or seen as economically inactive. The term “non-employed” includes people like stay-at-home mothers and retired people who are not employed but may not be looking for work (i.e., out of the work-force at the time of survey). If a woman is found to be engaged in economic activities in Bangladesh then this is considered to show that they are “employed”.

***Participation Trends in the Female Labour Force***

Bangladesh has a population of over 155 million with the majority living in rural areas. The economy of the country is predominantly dependent on the service sector, agriculture, garment exports, and some foreign remittances. According to the Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics (BBS, 2008), the number of women in the labour force increased from 5.4 million in 1995-96 to 12.1 million in 2005-06. In the same time periods, the number of men in the labour force increased from 30.6 million to 37.3 million. There were 23 million people of working age in the population (15 years of age and over) in urban areas and 72 million in rural areas (Khuda, 2014). It appears that the participation of women in the labour force in Bangladesh is very low, standing at just one-third of the participation of men (Hossain et al., 2004; Khuda, 2014). However, although there is no noticeable change in the rate of male participation within the period 1999-2010, LFS statistics show that at the country level there is an increasing trend for female participation in Bangladesh (BBS, 2002). This trend was seen to be declining in India from 2010-2012 (Verick, 2014).

Table 1 shows the labour force participation of those aged 15 years or more by age and gender. The distribution indicates that there is still a huge gap in economic activity rates between men and women as well as across various age cohorts. Overall, men appear to be dominating the labour force in Bangladesh. For instance, the participation of men in the 60 years or above age group is higher compared to their female counterparts. Participation of older women in 2005/06 seems to be exceptionally higher than expected and this requires further investigation. On the other hand, the participation rate of women noticeably increases for the age cohort 20-49. This could be explained by the revolutionary increase in the numbers of girls enrolling in school that started two decades ago. Moreover, increasing job opportunities for girls in various sectors including NGOs and garments seemed to play important role. All these have had tremendous impacts in recent years by increasing the participation of women in the labour force.

**Table 1 about here**

***Nature of Women’s Economic Activities in Bangladesh***

The majority of women in Bangladesh have tended to engage in home management activities while men have usually tended to work outside the home such as in agriculture, trading, marketing and so on. The absence of women’s participation indicated in official agricultural statistics is primarily due to deeply embedded social and cultural norms of patriarchy (a set of social relations with a material base that enables men to dominate women) and *purdah* that proscribes the seclusion of women including severe restrictions on their movement outside of their homes (see for example, Paris et al. 2004; Asadullah and Wahhaj, 2012). The International Rice Research Institute (IRRI) conducted Focus Group Discussions (FGD) among men and women separately covering 62 villages in 57 Districts in Bangladesh. This nationwide survey was initially conducted in 1987 and then again in 2000 to gain an understanding and provide information about women’s economic activities. In this study, the IRRI found that cooking food for family members is a major responsibility of women as is preserving rice seeds while also being heavily involved in household maintenance, reproductive activities, taking care of elderly relatives, nursing family members when they get sick and tutoring children. Women have been performing economic activities such as raising cattle and poultry, in vegetable production, gardening, post-harvest, agro-forestry and importantly, income increasing, or expenditure saving activities (Kabeer, 2001). There are also seasonal variations of women’s economic activities in rural areas in Bangladesh (Paris et al., 2004). For example, during the peak seasons of rice production (usually running from July to December) men are busy with harvesting and women with post-harvesting activities such as drying-up rice. There are two seasons during the year for rice production that take about six months each with a special type of production during the winter season (November-March) called *Boro* in Bengali that takes place in some parts of Bangladesh. So women living in those parts of the country are usually busy with post-harvesting activities in the winter season as well. For instance, women will sew clothes, make indigenous mats and quilts and different types of baskets as well as foodstuffs and then sell them either at the local market or to their neighbours during the off-peak seasons. Moreover, they can be raising cattle and poultry and selling milk and eggs in order to help meet the needs of their families as well as constructing mud stoves for boiling large volumes of rice.

According to Bhatt (1989), women who have engaged in these activities have been labelled as ‘marginalised’, ‘informal, ‘unrecognised, ‘peripheral’, and ‘black economy workers’ implying that they are inferior and insignificant while in actual fact, they are making a major contribution to the central economy. Bhatt suggested that it would be better to refer to these women workers as ‘self-employed’ to enhance their status. So in actuality women have been actively engaged in economic activities throughout the year that help boost the family income. It is unfortunate that their contribution remains invisible in the economy. The Bangladesh Home Workers Women’s Association (BHWA) revealed that the estimated annual contribution of home-based workers to GDP is about TK.150 billion (Islam, 2006). Some studies have pointed out that men do not even appreciate women’s household work in Bangladesh or their economic activities (Mehra, 1997; Sen, 1997; Bhatt, 1989; Efroymson et al., 2006; Sadaquat and Sheikh, 2011). In the 1961 Census, women’s household work was defined as “productive economic activity” but in the 1974 Census (the First Census after independence in 1971) women’s household work was defined as “housewife” (Waring, 1998). This shows that Bangladeshi women did not change their activities after the country became independent but rather the perception and categorisation of their activities had changed.

In the 1980s, there were a plethora of studies on women’s involvement in home production activities in Bangladesh (for example, Halim and McCarthy, 1985; Hossain et al., 1988) and the role of women’s economic activities on development and poverty reduction continues to be an important area of investigation (see for example, McCarthy and Feldman, 1988; Rothschild and Mahmud, 1989; Jahan, 1990; Amin and Pebley, 1994; Hashemi et al., 1996). Shah (1986) conducted a study to investigate the role of women’s economic activities between 1951 and 1981 in Pakistan. This study found that the socio-economic status of the households such as ownership of assets, husband’s education and observance of *Purdah* are having an impact on the ability of women to participate in economic activities in Pakistan and Bangladesh (Kabeer, 2001).

The majority of the NGOs in developing countries concentrate on poor people and small-scale entrepreneurs to stimulate the development process. For example, most of the Self-Employed Women’s Association (SEWA) in India and BRAC and the Grameen Bank in Bangladesh (Sen, 1997), focused particularly on improving women’s economic status as well as changing perceptions of men towards women. As a result, the government and development agencies or donors including DFID, World Food Programme, UNICEF and Work Bank began to rely on NGOs in developing countries to accelerate the growth of the development process. Mehra (1997) revealed that women’s capabilities, as part of building human capital, have been increased through improvements in access to education and a better health care service. However, there has been a much slower progress in terms of women’s choices in accessing economic opportunities. Mehra (1997) is also concerned that globally only one-third of women are economically active whereas about half of women in East Asia and the Sub-Saharan are economically active. Women’s participation in the labour force or involvement in economic activities depended significantly on the number of children, age, education, poverty status, women’s wage rate and predicted male wage rate (Sultana et al. 1994; Aly and Quisi, 1996; Azid et al. 2001). It is, however, recognised that women work more hours than men particularly in low-income households, more hours in agricultural than in non-agricultural economic activities, and more hours as unpaid family labourers than as managers. Even if they do most of the work, men mostly control decision-making and have ownership of household resources. As we have seen, since women do not have access to or control over household resources such as land and other consumer durables, they are further disadvantaged because of traditional cultural and social norms that confer power and privilege on men(Paris et al., 2004). Men target institutional services for career development and even when women are targeted, such as in micro-credit programmes, they are often used as a front and men keep control over managing the resources. Thus, it is acknowledged that women are disadvantaged by not being able to acquire knowledge about farm and non-farm production systems and technologies from the service sectors (Kabeer, 2001).

Women’s contributions to household income and wellbeing through various economic activities have been on-going for a considerable time but, as indicated earlier, their contribution to the economy has largely been ignored (Elora, 2004; Bradshaw et al., 2013). Paris et al. (2004)said that since women’s activities are not to be recognised outside those they perform within their immediate families then they will not be seen as being involved in field agricultural activities nor allowed to go to public places such as the market. In this way, the contributions of women to the economy and even their existence remain invisible to researchers but many women from poor households are getting involved in micro-credit programmes and attaining co-breadwinner status within the family through helping their male counterparts with post-harvest agricultural activities (Karim and Law, 2013). Torri and Martinez (2011) conducted research on a woman’s community-based enterprise known as the Gram Mooligai Company Limited (GMCL) in Tamil Nadu, India that is promoted by the local NGOs in the Tamil Nadu State. They assessed the impact that GMCL was having on the capacity building of women and local development and showed that it is playing an important economic role by increasing the managing, marketing and entrepreneurial skills of women as well as enhancing their productive capacity. They also discovered that the work of GMCL was helping change perceptions towards women in India.

The ready-made garments (RMG) sector has emerged as the biggest earner of country’s foreign currency and the sector contributes significantly to the GDP in Bangladesh. Since the 1980s there has been a rapid growth in the garment industry and it provides employment to around 4.2 million Bangladeshis, mainly women from low income families. Women account for about two-thirds of the total employment in the garment industry and it has played an important part in changing the employment scenario for women with little or no education (Rahman and Islam, 2013). It is worthwhile to mention that although the gender pay gap has been reduced significantly in many industries in Bangladesh, in general, women still tend to be paid less than men (Hossain and Tisdell, 2005). Employees union in garments sector seemed to have been less active in raising their voice regarding pay discrimination, on the other hand, garment owners associations are seen to be well organised in protecting their financial interests.

In this study, we define economic activities as those that are either generating income for the household or are saving household expenditure for the acquisition of goods from the market. This includes employment in the agricultural and non-agricultural labour market, but also unpaid work in crop cultivation, homestead gardening, livestock and poultry raising, fishing, cottage industry, transport operation, construction, business, and personal services. It excludes unpaid activities such as domestic activities. There are many other activities mostly performed by women that are quasi-economic but are not valued in national income accounting. For example, food-processing and preparation of meals for family members, taking care of children as well as the elderly and sick members of the household and tutoring of children. If households had to hire workers to perform these jobs then it would involve expenditure (Efroymson at el. (2006). The most recent employment status on women is used to consider all kinds of job involvements in last 12 months. Finally, Women’s involvements in NGO activities are consider whether or not a woman has ever been involved with any sort of NGO activities. The following section will discuss details on research methods. Then key results of the study will be highlighted before drawing a conclusion of the study.

**Research Methods**

***The Data***

The data for this study was extracted from the Bangladesh Demographic and Health Survey (BDHS) 2007, a nationally representative cross-sectional survey that is widely used by research communities. The detailed methodology of the survey including the data collection method and quality of the data was explained in the national report of the survey (NIPORT, 2009). In short, the survey covers the population residing in private dwelling units in Bangladesh and was based on the sampling frame of the 2001 population census. The sample was selected using a two-stage stratified technique, where 361 primary sampling units (PSUs) were selected in the first stage (227 from rural areas and 134 from urban PSUs). All households in the selected PSUs were recorded from January to March 2007. The resulting list of households was used as the sampling frame for selection of households in the second stage. On average, 30 households were selected from each PSU using an equal probability sampling technique. About 10,819 households were selected for the survey where 10,461 were occupied. Interviews were successfully completed in 10,400 households (99.4% of total households). A total of 11,178 eligible women aged 15-49 were identified in the selected households and 10,996 (6,845 from rural and 4,151 from urban) were interviewed for the women’s questionnaire (the response rate is 98.4 per cent). The 10,996 women sample is used for the analysis in the paper. The BDHS is a nationally representative household survey that has been conducted in the country since 1993 at regular intervals, preferably once every two years, in order to generate vital statistics and population health indicators in Bangladesh. For many low and middle income countries this DHS survey is the only reliable source of information that can be used to carry out comparative studies across the world.

***Tools of data collection and processing***

The BDHS used the MEASURE DHS+ model questionnaires and were pre-tested before data collection. Information was collected about socio-economic and demographic characteristics, health and lifestyle factors, marriage and family planning, health care facilities, HIV/AIDS, sexually transmitted diseases (STD), and domestic violence. To ensure the quality of data, qualified personnel from Mitra and Associates, along with officials from the National Institute of Population Research and Training (NIPORT) were employed. Data processing was carried out between 16 April and 31 August 2007 using CSPro including editing, coding of open-ended questions, data entry, and editing inconsistencies observed in the computer programme and each stage of the survey was carefully monitored by USAID, NIPORT, Mitra and Associates, Ministry of Health, and Macro International USA (NIPORT, 2009).

In addition to 2007 BDHS, we employ the latest BDHS 2011 dataset in order to compare any noticeable change over time. About 17,749 women aged 15-49 years surveyed in the BDHS 2011 of which 4,619 and 13,130 women were successfully interviewed in urban and rural areas respectively. The methodology is same as all other previous BDHS and overall data quality are found to be valid and reliable. Variables selected in the paper have same definitions and measurements as of BDHS 2007 and thus allow us to carry out a comparative analysis. The detailed survey methodology including an executive summary and a brief report is made available for further analysis (NIPORT, 2013).

***Variables used for statistical analysis***

Variables were carefully selected from the earlier studies to examine their effects on economic as well as NGO activities in Bangladesh. The description of variables and their measures along with the BDHS survey variable codes are presented in Table 2. The variable code helps the reader to view and check each question if wished. Variables are further classified according to their causality and the use of statistical models and are described as follows:

**Dependent variables**

Women’s occupations are considered to examine the pattern of their economic engagement by their socioeconomic and demographic backgrounds. There is a long list of occupational categories in the BDHS survey which are reduced to a small number of categories as follows: i) non-employed, ii) professional, iii) business (small and large business), iv) semi-skilled labour (home based manufacturing; factory worker, blue collar services; semi-skilled labourer), v)farmer/poultry worker (land owner; farmer; agriculture worker; fisherman; poultry and cattle raising), vi) unskilled labour (rickshaw driver, brick breaking, road building construction work; domestic servant), vii) others (student; retired; other). Then two dichotomous dependent variables were considered to study women’s participation in economic activities: i) women’s participation in employment during the last 12 months or so (either employed or non-employed); and ii) women’s involvement in NGOs activities as being actively involved or not involved at all.

**Independent variables**

From the large set of variables we selected those we felt to be relevant namely, age of the women, marital status, number of living children, urbanisation, geographical regions, educational status of respondents and their partners, asset quintiles and involvement in NGOs. Definition and measurement of the variables are illustrated in Table 2. The variables were selected based on existing literature and theories (Becker, 1961; Hossain et al., 2004) on women’s participation in economic activities.

***Statistical tools used for analysis***

Firstly, we performed a univariate analysis and presented descriptive information about the study sample along with women’s participation in employment activities by selected variables. Secondly, the bivariate association of the two outcome variables (women’s participation in employment and women’s participation in NGO activities) with each of the selected independent variables (including p-values of the test statistics for testing the null hypothesis of no association) was reported based on the Chi-square test (Chan, 2003). Finally, we performed a univariate as well as a multivariable binary logistic regression analysis for both dichotomous dependent variables. Univariate analysis provides the direct effect of a variable without controlling for any covariates and we call it the *unadjusted* *effect*. On the other hand, the *adjusted effect* of a variable is calculated when all remaining variables are controlled for. We reported the odds ratio (OR) and the 95% confidence interval (CI) for adjusted and unadjusted cases to show summary statistics of the univariate as well as multivariable models. The effect measures the likelihood of involvement in economic activity and the strength of the effect is captured by the odds ratios (each group is compared with the reference group). The reference groups are carefully selected in the paper and are consistent with the past research studies and reliable in terms of sample size.

In brief, for a logistic regression model, women’s participation in employment was dichotomized as “yes = 1, if participated in any employment in the last 12 months of the survey” and “no = 0, if no participation in employment”. Likewise, 1 is coded if a respondent belongs to an NGO, otherwise 0 is coded and thus we can also construct an appropriate logistic regression model for women’s participation in NGO activities.

For general understanding, the dependent variable y being a binary variable that equals ‘1’ if the respondent has any employment, and ‘0’ for otherwise. Thus the following logistic regression model is considered for the multivariate analysis and this is to be fitted for both BDHS 2007 and 2011 datasets.



Where p is the probability of being occurring y = 1, βo indicates the intercept of logistic regression model, βi (i=1, 2,...,k) are the linear regression coefficients indicating the effects of the independent variables and ε is error term. A detailed explanation of the model can be found elsewhere (Khan and Raeside, 1997; Hosmer and Lemeshow, 2001; Chan, 2004; Khan and Flynn, 2015).

**Results and Discussions**

***Descriptive analysis***

Table 2 shows the summary statistics of the characteristics of the respondents used in the paper. This study found that a vast majority of women (about 65%) are non-employed at the time of the survey. However, 17.6% are engaged in farming and poultry-related works. More than 9% of women are employed in the semi-skilled labour sector, nearly 5% of them in unskilled labour or doing other types of jobs. Therefore, in the survey, about 35% of women are found to be employed for the last 12 months. The proportion of respondents is equally distributed across the age cohorts 15-24, 25-34 and 35-49 years. The vast majority of women (93%) are currently married. About 11% of respondents reported that they have no children in their family with a majority having at least one child in the household. Nearly 77% of respondents live in rural areas and the rest (23%) living in urban areas. In terms of geographical locations, a majority (31%) of respondents surveyed came from the Dhaka Division followed by 25% from Rajshahi Division, and 18% from Chittagong Division. The lowest proportion (6%) came from Barishal and Sylhet Divisions. In the survey, the highest proportion of women (34%) did not have any formal education and a small percentage (about 6%) had college and university level education. A similar trend is also observed in terms of a partner’s education although proportion of higher education is found to be almost double than the women counterparts. Proportion of women is more or less equally distributed by the wealth index. Social activity (predominantly NGO economic activities) is becoming popular and socially acceptable in Bangladesh. As mentioned earlier, both NGOs and MFIs are providing micro-credit to poor people in order to improve the borrower’s socio-economic status (Rahman, 2010; Farazi, 2011). Lastly, it was found that about 14% of women belong to ‘another organisation’, followed by the Grameen Bank (13.4%) and ASA (11.1 %).

**Table 2 about here**

Table 3 describes women’s economic status and occupations by selected characteristics. By and large, most women were found to have no job at the time of the survey (higher for those aged below 24 years) and about 63 per cent were found to have no involvement in NGO activities. A small proportion of women were engaged in professional jobs, but the proportion is observed to be higher among those who were over 25 years old, married, had no children, lived in urban areas and had the highest education along with a partner’s highest level of education, and also were the richest and less involved in social activities. Women who were involved in business were relatively more active in NGO activities, had no formal education, lived in the northern part of the country, were more likely to be divorced, separated, or widowed, aged over 35, and to have three or more children living in the household. Farming, agriculture and poultry were the important sectors where women were contributing significantly. Women who belonged to this group were comparatively older in age, presently married, with three or more children in the household, living in a rural area, coming from the northern part of the country, no formal education, no partner education, poorest of the poor and involved in NGO activities. The results help to in understanding women’s socioeconomic and demographic situations and how they are related to various employment activities in Bangladesh.

**Table 3 about here**

We observe that various factors are associated with types of employment activities in Bangladesh although some categories only had small samples. It is, therefore, worthwhile to examine the degree to which factors are associated with women’s economic activities over the past 12 months.

It is shown in Table 4 that age, marital status, number of living children, types of residence, geographical regions, education of respondent as well as partner’s education, wealth index and involvement in NGOs are strongly related to engagement in work activity in Bangladesh. The χ2 test with its *p-value* (zero or close to zero) shows the statistical significance. Table 4 also demonstrates the frequency distribution of women actively engaged in the workforce, for example, more women in the age group 25-49 are involved in work than those in the 15-24 age group. Similarly, women with no education, no partner education, the poorest group of the society and those involved with NGOs were found to be more economically active.

**Table 4 about here**

Likewise, Chi-squared tests are performed for the selected variables to examine whether any association existed between the selected variables and NGO activities. As we have shown, almost all NGO activities are related to micro-credit programmes. It can be seen from Table 4 that age, marital status, number of children, type of place of residence, geographical regions, education of women and their partners, and the wealth index are found to be strongly associated with NGO activities. Women aged over 25 years are more likely to have an involvement in NGO activities compared to their younger counterparts. Number of children in the household is positively associated with woman being involved in NGO activities. A higher proportion of women involved in NGOs are in a rural location than an urban location. The highest proportion of women involved in NGO activities had no formal education with a similar pattern observed for a partner’s education. Table 4 also shows that women from the poorer wealth cohort are likely to be more involved in NGO activities than their richer counterparts.

From the Pivotal analysis it is difficult to confirm the net effects that independent variables and their categories have and so we applied advanced statistical techniques to tease out the effects of the variables in this study. Given the kind of problem being addressed in the paper and data sources we develop logistic regression models and the results are illustrated in Tables 5 and 6.

***Logistic Regression Analysis***

Logistic regression model is widely used in social science research and it is fairly easy to interpret the results of fitted regression models. The results of the logistic regression analysis for women’s participation in economic activities are presented in Table 5. Both univariate as well as multivariate logistic regression models were constructed to evaluate the effects of predictors for unadjusted and adjusted effects. An unadjusted model deals with effects of a variable in the absence of other predictors, however, the adjusted model includes all predictors in multivariate analysis. This allows us to determine effect of co-variate by controlling for other predictors. The purpose of using both unadjusted and adjusted is to evaluate the changes in effects with selected predictors in models. Both effects are discussed simultaneously in this section. This study found that women aged over 25 years are more likely to be engaged in employment activity compared to the younger age cohort. The effect is found to be 1.796 times higher with 95% CI (1.595-2.021) for the age cohort 25-34 and 1.577 times higher with 95% CI (1.379-1.805) than the reference group 15-24 age cohort. Similar kind of result is also found in case of BDHS 2011. Currently, married women are less likely to have engaged in work even after controlling for other variables and are found to be 61.7% lower than divorced/separated/widowed group (OR=0.383, 95% CI: 0.327-0.449). In 2011 BDHS data analysis, we have found the similar trend in effects.

The number of children living in a household had strong positive effects on economic involvement. This study found that the higher the number of children living in the household the higher the chance of a woman participating in economic activities. In Table 5, those who had 3 or more children had a 1.614 times (95% CI: 1.402-1.857) higher chance of involvement in economic activities than those who had no children. Similarly, women who had one (1) or two (2) children had a higher probability of being involved (Odds Ratio =1.487, 95% CI: 1.294-1.710, p<0.000). However, the predictor becomes statistically insignificant when controlling for other variables in a multivariate model. This means that other factors may be more important than the number of children when modeling economic activities in Bangladesh. On the other hand, number of children is found to be negatively associated with women’s NGO activities and the results are statistically significant. .

The place of residence is found to have a statistically significant effect on women’s economic activities, for example, rural women are found to be less likely to engage in economic activities than those in urban areas (OR=0.0.800, p<0.001). It meant that when all other variables are considered in the model, rural women are found to have a 20% lower likelihood to be employed as compared to women from urban. This may be explained by the fact that job opportunities are higher in urban areas. Analysis of 2011 BDHS also shows similar result. Geographical region is considered as a predictor to estimate the effects of regional influences on continuing in economic activities.There are regional disparities in terms of income and job opportunities, for example, the Northwest region suffers from lack of job opportunities and low average income compared to the rest of the country. And because of that the Government has special programmes in those areas to support poor families tackling Monga3 (seasonal food insecurity) in rural Bangladesh. The lean season reduces peoples’ access to income which is a shock to their livelihoods and fuels chronic poverty (Zug, 2006). This study revealed that women from the North West part of Bangladesh (Khulna, Rajshahi, Rangpur, and Barishal) have a higher chance (16.0 per cent) of being involved in the workforce compared to women in the Dhaka Division (OR=1.160, 95% CI: 1.052-1.280). In contrast, women from the Southeast part of Bangladesh (Chittagong and Sylhet regions in Bangladesh) have a 48.4% lower chance of being involved compared to the Dhaka regions (OR=0.516, 95% CI: 0.457-0.583). The analysis of BDHS 2011 data also reveals similar result. The Northwest region is poor compared to the rest of the country and women have to seriously look for a job in order to survive. On the other hand, it is widely known that women living in the South East of the country are restricted to their houses and are less likely to receive permission for working outside their homes by the head of the household who are usually men. Dhaka is often used as a reference category for comparative purposes as it is situated in the central part of the country and we believe it can provide a fair judgement on the likelihood of changes in circumstances in other areas. The results are consistent with existing literature.

Women’s education is found to have an important predictor role in their engagement in economic activities. Generally speaking, lower education is associated with a less likelihood of being engaged in economic activities. The results of the univariate model show that women with secondary education had a 29.9 per cent lower chance of engaging in economic activity compared to those women who possessed a higher level of education. This is also found to be consistent while controlling for other remaining variables in the model and means that women with secondary education are found to have a 45.1 per cent lower chance for continuing in economic activity compared to women who possess a higher level of education. While analyzing the 2011 BDHS dataset we have found that nearly 62 per cent lower chance of getting a job. The results are expected because women’s education plays an important role in their economic participation. On the other hand, a husband’s education appeared to be an insignificant factor that means it has no significant association with women’s participation in economic activities.

The wealth index is a good predictor for capturing the probability of involvement in economic activities. As it can be seen from Table 5, relatively poor women are more likely to be involved in economic activities than the richest counterparts. It is observed that the magnitude of the odds ratio is consistently changing with respect to various categories of the wealth index. For example, those who belong to the poorest, poorer, middle and richer categories are found to have 2.506, 2.184, 1.672 and 1.604 times higher chances respectively of being engaged in economic activities than the richest wealth group.

Women’s involvement in NGO activities is used to examine whether or not it has any association with women’s economic activities. Analysing the BDHS 2007 data it was found that women who are involved in NGO activities have an 88.4 per cent higher chance (95% CI: 1.739-2.042) of continuing employment than those who were not involved in at all. This unadjusted effect was the sole direct effect of women’s NGO participation on continuing employment. Similar findings emerged when controlling for all remaining covariates (OR = 1.617, 95%CI: 1.487-1.768, p<0.000). The 2011 BDHS data analysis also show similar kind of result. The effects are found to be similar although has a slightly lower in 2011 than that of 2007. The decline might be partly because of last economic crisis. The wealth index gives us a clear indication that relatively poor background women are highly likely to involve in economic activities. It is stressed that women’s NGO activities are positively associated with continue employment in labour market. Micro-credit programmes have been running successfully in Bangladesh and a major proportion of women are involved in at least one NGO activity. The NGO sectors employ a huge number of women in Bangladesh and therefore it is worthwhile to investigate the key factors that are associated with NGO activities.

**Table 5 about here**

Because a variable such as “women’s involvement in NGO activities” is a dichotomous variable we also fit a logistic regression model. Both univariate as well as multivariate models are constructed for the BDHS 2007. In addition, only multivariate model is built on the BDHS 2011 data to show comparison over time. All results are shown in Table 6. The findings revealed that the higher the age of women, the greater the likelihood of them being involved in NGO activities. The effects of variables remain unchanged over the period 2007-2011. Marital status was found to have a statistically significant effect on involvement in NGO activities. For example, the adjusted effect showed that currently married women have a 55.5 per cent higher probability of involvement in NGOs than any other group (OR=1.553, 95% CI: 1.317-1.837).

Women’s participation in NGO activities may bring numerous benefits to a country’s economy such as fertility and a decline in mortality as well as raising health awareness and education. This study found that women with a higher number of children are more likely to be involved in NGO activities in Bangladesh. For BDHS 2007 and 2011, both adjusted and unadjusted effects revealed that there are some consistent findings to support the statement that women generate money to feed and support the family and the support is even higher for those families that have a higher number of children (Table 6).

Urbanization has dominated some social science research because of its power to explain socio-cultural changes. In this study, we have considered it in order to examine how it may have influenced women to get involved in NGO activities. Such activities are more likely to be concentrated in the relatively developed region (urbanized) where better transport facilities and government and private facilities are available (Sharma and Zeller, 1999). Therefore, people who live in an urban area or proximity to an urban area are more likely to be participating in NGO activities. The study reveals that in both 2007 and 2011 surveys rural women have lower chance of engaging NGO activities than their urban counterparts. However, many NGOs or MFIs such as Grameen Bank, BRAC and ASA are working across the country to bring poor women into the traditional financial system. It is worth mentioning here that according to the Micro-credit Regulatory Authority (MRA), there are about 34 million clients who are actively involved in NGO activities and most of them are women from rural areas (MRA, 2011). Thus it could be argued that women who live in rural areas have the opportunity to get involved in NGO activities because of the abundance of micro-credit programmes.

Table 6 shows a significant variation in engagement with NGO activities across three geographical regions. Looking at the adjusted effects of geographical region, it could be interpreted that women in the Northwest region (Khulna, Rajshahi, Rangpur, and Barishal) have a higher chance of engaging in NGO activities compared with women in the Dhaka Division (OR=1.218, 95% CI: 1.135-1.373, p<0.000). On the other hand, women from the Southeast region (Chittagong and Sylhet) are found to have a 41 per cent lower chance (OR=0.590, p<0.000) of being involved in NGO activities. Similar kind of results is also found for the BDHS 2011. This can be partly explained by the fact that people in the Southeast region are comparatively better off than people in the Northwest region.

With regards to the level of education of the respondents, a lower level of education is associated with NGO activities. It can be seen from Table 6 that women with primary education have a 1.391 times higher chance of engaging in NGO activities than those who have a higher level of education even when controlling for other variables (95% CI: 1.088-1.813). Analysis of the BDHS 2011 also shows the similar result. This emphasises the fact that the vast majority of women engaged in NGO activities come from poor educational backgrounds. A similar finding also emerged for the level of education of their partners. Both surveys indicate the fact that women are likely to engage in NGO activities when the partner education is relatively lower as compared with the higher educated partners.

Economists are always keen to understand the effects of wealth on social outcomes. Generally, this study indicates that poorer women are more likely to be active in NGO activities than richer women. For example, in an unadjusted model, the involvement in NGO activities of the poorest women is 2.486 times (95% CI: 2.182-2.832, p<0.000) higher than the richest group of women. On the other hand, for an adjusted model using the BDHS 2007 the wealth index for the poorest is found to be 1.706 (95% CI: 1.435-2.029). The result remains statistically important and consistent even after controlling for the other variables. Furthermore, the analysis of the BDHS 2011 also show similar trend which explains that women have higher chance of involving in NGO activities if they come from lower wealth index. Thus it can be concluded that the lower the wealth index quintile the higher the probability for involvement in NGO activities in Bangladesh.

**Table 6 about here**

**Conclusions**

This study examined the economic activities of women in Bangladesh on the basis of the macro-level data on women’s participation in the labour force, continuity of their employment and participation in NGO activities. A set of socioeconomic and demographic characteristics of women was used including the age of the women, their marital status, number of living children, place of residence, geographical region, education and wealth index in order to examine the effects on women’s economic activities in Bangladesh. Firstly, we attempted to understand the types of women’s occupations in Bangladesh; secondly, we mapped women’s continuity of employment, and finally, identified the key determinants of women’s involvement in NGO activities as well as economic activities in Bangladesh. This study indicates that female labour force participation has been gradually increasing in Bangladesh but the rate is not an encouraging one when compared to participation of male counterparts. This indicates that a big gender gap still exists in labour market participation. Moreover, variation in economic participation is also found to be significant for age cohorts. It is suggested that policy-makers should take the finding seriously in order to balance equal participation by age and sex in labour market. The study has revealed that among those employed a vast majority of women are performing economic activities in farming, agriculture and poultry industries particularly in the homesteads. Women in Bangladesh have a long tradition of involvement in this sector and may well prefer to keep engaging in it because of socio-cultural norms. It is likely to be continued unless other sectors are developed in Bangladesh particularly in rural setting. In such a case, micro-credit may play an important role in income generation, alleviating poverty through entrepreneurship and more importantly encouraging people to involve in various types of economic activities (Rahman and Khan, 2013).

The findings indicate that age, marital status, number of children living in the household, place of residence, geographical location, education, partner’s education and the wealth index are important factors in enabling women’s involvement in labour market. In other words, those women involved in the labour market generally tended to come from poor backgrounds, have very little education, live in the Northwest geographical region and have a large family living in the same house. The empirical findings confirm the theoretical linkages as to how socio-economic and demographic factors are associated with labour-force participation. In other words, it tells us why women are engaged in economic activities and how the government of the country can benefit out of the key findings of research. The results can be used for policy-making purposes at national as well as local authority level. The study shows that recent economic crisis has had negative effect on overall women’s participation however, the decline is not found to be significant. On the other hand, there is no decline in NGO sector activities. This indicates that expanding NGO activities particularly micro-credit can help protecting the future economic crisis.

Relatively higher aged women, currently married (persons living in consensual unions or in visiting partnerships), having a higher number of children, living in semi-rural areas, from the North-West region with almost no education and belonging to the poor wealth index quintile are found to be associated more with NGO activities in Bangladesh. A recent study carried out by Rahman and Wright (2013) confirmed that about half of the ASA borrowers are landless and two-fifths of ASA borrowers in Bangladesh have no formal education. The present study has also confirmed that women who come from a poor financial background, currently married and who have a higher number of children living in the household are more likely to engage in economic as well as NGO activities in Bangladesh. It however suggests that the Bangladesh Government should invest in women’s education and create more job opportunities for women particularly in the North-West region in order to enhance the country’s economy.

Our findings clearly indicate there are potential barriers that are preventing Bangladeshi women from engaging in the labour market that could reinforce the case for reshaping the Government’s labour policies. The study shows that education has a positive impact on labour market participation and then increasing educational opportunities can reduce the risk of labour market enrolment. It is generally understood that enhancing women’s economic participation has a positive impact at family, community and country levels.

Although the study has carefully selected important variables for multivariate data analysis and assumes that there is no statistically correlation between selected independent variables, however, it appears to be a limitation in the study and thus future study should look at this issue by analysing correlation matrix for model building purposes. There are serious consequences of such limitation. Ignoring it at the analytical stage may mislead the findings of the study. Thus future study should check multicollinearity issues as part of diagnostic tests before developing models.

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**Endnotes:**

As on 31 December 2010, 3652 Micro Financial Institutions around the world reported their total number of borrowers.

According to the World Bank people are living on less than $1.25 a day, are under the poverty.

1. Monga is a seasonal food insecurity in ecologically vulnerable and economically weak parts of north-western Bangladesh, primarily caused by an employment and income deficit before aman2 is harvested. It mainly affects those rural poor, who have an undiversified income that is directly or indirectly based on agriculture.

**Table 1: Labour Force Participation Rates in Percent (Aged 15 years or more) by Age and Gender: Evidence from *Labour Force Survey* (LFS) in Bangladesh**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Age  (in years) | 1999-2000 | | | 2002-2003 | | | 2005-2006 | | | 2010 | | |
| Male | Female |  | Male | Female |  | Male | Female |  | Male | Female |  |
| 15-19 | 55.9 | 23.4 |  | 58.9 | 38.2 |  | 62.9 | 13.8 |  | 48.4 | 29.4 |  |
| 20-24 | 74.0 | 26.3 |  | 84.9 | 26.7 |  | 80.4 | 29.0 |  | 75.9 | 41.0 |  |
| 25-29 | 91.3 | 27.1 |  | 97.7 | 27.5 |  | 95.3 | 33.7 |  | 98.2 | 44.7 |  |
| 30-34 | 95.7 | 26.5 |  | 99.7 | 27.5 |  | 98.7 | 34.9 |  | 97.3 | 46.6 |  |
| 35-39 | 98.2 | 25.7 |  | 99.8 | 28.1 |  | 98.8 | 34.8 |  | 98.3 | 47.7 |  |
| 40-44 | 97.8 | 26.6 |  | 99.7 | 25.6 |  | 97.7 | 35.2 |  | 98.1 | 46.2 |  |
| 45-49 | 97.6 | 23.4 |  | 99.5 | 22.6 |  | 97.8 | 32.6 |  | 97.4 | 47.6 |  |
| 50-54 | 95.8 | 18.3 |  | 99.2 | 19.9 |  | 95.4 | 31.1 |  | 94.1 | 10.3 |  |
| 55-59 | 93.5 | 18.4 |  | 97.3 | 17.2 |  | 92.7 | 27.7 |  | 88.5 | 11.2 |  |
| 60-65 | 81.4 | 11.1 |  | 87.8 | 13.4 |  | 82.7 | 22.6 |  | 77.2 | 6.6 |  |
| 65+ | 56.6 | 9.0 |  | 66.1 | 8.7 |  | 59.3 | 14.8 |  | - | - |  |
| Total | 84.0 | 23.9 |  | 87.4 | 26.1 |  | 85.8 | 29.2 |  | 82.5 | 36.0 |  |

*Sources: The Bangladesh Labour Force Surveys, 2000, 2003, 2006 and 2010 (BBS, 2002, 2004, 2008, 2011)*

**Table 2: Description of variables used in the study and their summary analysis (BDHS, 2007)**

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Characteristics of respondents** | **Survey question ID** | **Measurement of variables** | **N** | **%** |
| Occupation of women | V716 | Non-employed  Professional  Business  Semi-skilled labour  Farmer/poultry worker  Unskilled labour  Other | 7147  128  230  1015  1933  523  11 | 65.0  1.2  2.1  9.2  17.6  4.8  0.1 |
| Continuity of employment  (worked in last 12 months) | V731 | Otherwise  Employed all the year | 7145  3851 | 65.0  35.0 |
| Age in years | V013 | 15-24  25-34  35-49 | 3599  3590  3807 | 32.7  32.7  34.6 |
| Marital status | S105A | Divorced/separated/widowed  Currently married | 804  10192 | 7.3  92.7 |
| Number of living children | V218 | 0  1-2  3+ | 1212  5144  4640 | 11.0  46.8  42.2 |
| Type of place of residence | V025 | Urban  Rural | 2482  8514 | 22.6  77.4 |
| Geographical regions | V024 | Barishal  Chittagong  Dhaka  Khulna  Rajshahi  Sylhet | 662  2023  3431  1396  2776  707 | 6.0  18.4  31.2  12.7  25.2  6.4 |
| Educational attainment | V106 | No education  Primary  Secondary  Higher | 3746  3263  3341  646 | 34.1  29.7  30.4  5.9 |
| Partner’s educational  attainment | V701 | No education  Primary  Secondary  Higher | 3915  2888  2846  1334 | 35.6  26.3  25.9  12.1 |
| Wealth index | V190 | Poorest  Poorer  Middle  Richer  Richest | 2115  2157  2186  2259  2278 | 19.2  19.6  19.9  20.5  20.7 |
| Involvement in NGO  activities | S116A  S116B  S116C  S116D  S116E  S116F  S116G | Belongs to Grameen Bank (yes, no)  Belongs to BRAC (yes, no)  Belongs to ASHA (yes, no)  Belongs to PROSHIKA (yes, no)  Belongs to BRDB (yes, no)  Belongs to Mothers Club (yes, no)  Belongs to other organisation (yes, no) | 1470  932  1225  90  127  3  1583 | 13.4  8.5  11.1  0.8  1.2  0.0  14.4 |

*Note: Total study sample: 10,996 women. Same set of variables are also considered for BDHS 2011.*

**Table 3: Percent distribution of women’s participation in economic activities by selected variables (BDHS, 2007)**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Variable | N | Non-employed | Profe-ssional | Business | Semi  skilled  labour | Farmer/  poultry  worker | Unskilled labour | Other |
| Age of women:  15-24  25-34  35+ | 3599  3590  3807 | 74.1  59.5  61.8 | 0.7  1.7  1.1 | 1.2  1.7  3.3 | 9.6  10.3  7.8 | 12.1  20.9  19.8 | 2.3  5.9  6.0 | 0.0  0.1  0.2 |
| Marital status:  Divorced/separated/widowed  Currently married | 804  10192 | 43.1  66.8 | 0.7  1.2 | 4.7  1.9 | 14.8  8.8 | 13.6  17.9 | 22.4  3.4 | 0.6  0.1 |
| Number of living children:  0  1-2  3+ | 1212  5144  4640 | 73.3  65.0  63.3 | 1.8  1.6  0.5 | 0.8  2.1  2.4 | 11.1  10.2  7.6 | 8.6  16.2  21.5 | 4.2  4.7  5.0 | 0.2  0.1  0.1 |
| Type of place of residence:  Urban  Rural | 2482  8514 | 67.6  64.3 | 2.1  0.9 | 2.5  2.0 | 14.5  7.7 | 5.4  21.1 | 7.7  3.9 | 0.1  0.1 |
| Geographical regions:  Barishal  Chittagong  Dhaka  Khulna  Rajshahi  Sylhet | 662  2023  3431  1396  2776  707 | 76.1  76.2  63.7  60.6  53.5  83.3 | 1.4  0.9  1.1  1.6  1.2  0.8 | 2.1  1.1  1.7  3.2  3.0  1.0 | 6.5  10.0  9.8  9.7  9.6  4.4 | 10.9  8.0  18.6  20.4  27.1  4.1 | 3.0  3.7  5.0  4.5  5.5  6.1 | 0.0  0.1  0.1  0.0  0.1  0.3 |
| Education of respondent:  No education  Primary  Secondary  Higher | 3746  3263  3341  646 | 56.1  65.5  74.2  66.8 | 0.1  0.2  0.6  15.8 | 3.0  2.1  1.4  0.3 | 8.0  8.5  10.6  12.4 | 22.8  20.0  12.0  3.9 | 9.6  3.7  1.1  0.8 | 0.3  0.0  0.0  0.0 |
| Partner’s education:  No education  Primary  Secondary  Higher | 3915  2888  2846  1334 | 57.5  66.3  70.1  73.2 | 0.0  0.1  0.7  7.7 | 2.3  2.6  2.0  0.7 | 8.8  8.5  10.4  9.7 | 23.2  17.9  14.1  8.0 | 8.0  4.4  2.6  0.6 | 0.2  0.1  0.0  0.0 |
| Wealth index:  Poorest  Poorer  Middle  Richer  Richest | 2115  2157  2186  2259  2278 | 52.8  59.4  67.6  68.9  75.6 | 0.0  0.3  0.4  1.4  3.6 | 2.3  2.6  1.7  2.7  1.2 | 5.8  9.6  8.3  11.2  11.1 | 30.7  22.9  17.7  13.4  4.6 | 7.9  5.1  4.4  2.5  4.0 | 0.4  0.0  0.0  0.0  0.0 |
| Involvement in NGO:  Yes  No | 4109  6883 | 55.9  70.9 | 0.8  1.4 | 3.6  1.2 | 11.7  7.8 | 22.6  14.6 | 5.3  4.4 | 0.0  0.2 |

**Table 4: Percent distribution of women employment as well as NGO activities**

**in Bangladesh (BDHS, 2007) by selected variables**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Variables | Employment status | | | NGO involvement | | |
| Employed | Non-employed | P-value | Involved | Non-involved | P-value |
| Age of women:  15-24  25-34  35+ | 26.0  40.6  38.3 | 74.0  59.4  61.7 | 0.00 | 30.6  41.6  39.9 | 69.4  58.4  60.1 | 0.00 |
| Marital status:  Divorced/separated/widowed  Currently married | 57.0  33.3 | 43.0  66.7 | 0.00 | 29.2  38.0 | 70.8  62.0 | 0.00 |
| Number of living children:  0  1-2  3+ | 26.7  35.2  37.0 | 73.3  64.8  63.0 | 0.00 | 18.6  36.8  43.0 | 81.4  63.2  57.0 | 0.00 |
| Type of place of residence:  Urban  Rural | 32.5  35.8 | 67.5  64.2 | 0.00 | 33.4  38.6 | 66.6  61.4 | 0.00 |
| Geographical regions:  Barishal  Chittagong  Dhaka  Khulna  Rajshahi  Sylhet | 24.0  24.0  36.3  39.5  46.5  16.8 | 76.0  76.0  63.7  60.5  53.5  83.2 | 0.00 | 42.3  27.7  37.1  46.2  42.2  25.6 | 57.7  72.3  62.9  53.8  57.8  74.4 | 0.00 |
| Education of respondent:  No education  Primary  Secondary  Higher | 43.9  34.5  25.9  33.2 | 56.1  65.5  74.1  66.8 | 0.00 | 42.9  41.8  30.3  19.7 | 57.1  58.2  69.7  80.3 | 0.00 |
| Partner’s education:  No education  Primary  Secondary  Higher | 42.6  33.7  29.9  26.8 | 57.4  66.3  70.1  73.2 | 0.00 | 43.8  41.2  32.2  21.4 | 56.2  58.8  67.8  78.6 | 0.00 |
| Wealth index:  Poorest  Poorer  Middle  Richer  Richest | 47.2  40.7  32.6  31.2  24.5 | 52.8  59.3  67.4  68.8  75.5 | 0.00 | 42.6  43.8  40.8  37.6  23.0 | 57.4  56.2  59.2  62.4  77.0 | 0.00 |
| Involvement in NGO:  Yes  No | 44.2  29.6 | 55.8  70.4 | 0.00 | - | - | - |

*Note: Others are subsequently included under the non-employed category.*

**Table 5: Logistic regression analysis showing the extent of the effects of variables on women’s participation in employment in Bangladesh**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | 2007 BDHS | | | | | 2011 BDHS | |
| Variables | Unadjusted Model | | | Adjusted Model | | Adjusted Model | |
| Odds  Ratio | 95% CI | Odds  Ratio | | 95% CI | Odds  Ratio | 95% CI |
| Age of women:  15-24 (ref.)  25-34  35+ | 1.000  1.943\*\*\*  1.768\*\*\* | 1.758-2.147  1.601-1.952 | 1.000  1.796\*\*\*  1.577\*\*\* | | 1.596-2.021  1.379-1.805 | 1.000  1.735\*\*\*  1.567\*\*\* | 1.537-1.958  1.362-1.803 |
| Marital status:  Divorced/separated  /widowed (ref.)  Currently married | 1.000  0.376\*\*\* | 0.325-0.435 | 1.000  0.383\*\*\* | | 0.327-0.449 | 1.000  0.226\*\*\* | 0.197-0.260 |
| Number of living children:  0 (ref.)  1-2  3+ | 1.000  1.487\*\*\*  1.614\*\*\* | 1.294-1.710  1.402-1.857 | 1.000  1.126  0.949 | | 0.968-1.311  0.799-1.128 | 1.000  0.783\*\*\*  0.429\*\*\* | 0.676-0.908  0.361-0.510 |
| Type of place of residence:  Urban (ref.)  Rural | 1.000  1.158\*\*\* | 1.053-1.273 | 1.000  0.800\*\*\* | | 0.710-0.902 | 1.000  0.411\*\*\* | 0.367-0.460 |
| Geographical regions:  Northwest  Chittagong/Sylhet  Dhaka (ref.) | 1.237\*\*\*  0.498\*\*\*  1.000 | 1.130-1.354  0.444-0.558 | 1.160\*\*\*  0.516\*\*\*  1.000 | | 1.052-1.280  0.457-0.583 | 0.895\*  0.800\*\*\*  1.000 | 0.808-0.991  0.708-0.904 |
| Education of respondent:  No education  Primary  Secondary  Higher (ref.) | 1.575\*\*\*  1.060  0.701\*\*\*  1.000 | 1.321-1.879  0.886-1.268  0.585-0.840 | 0.729\*  0.610\*\*\*  0.549\*\*\*  1.000 | | 0.569-0.934  0.477-0.768  0.447-0.693 | 0.480\*\*\*  0.409\*\*\*  0.380\*\*\*  1.000 | 0.384-0.600  0.332-0.505  0.315-0.457 |
| Partner’s education:  No education  Primary  Secondary  Higher (ref.) | 2.030\*\*\*  1.386\*\*\*  1.166\*  1.000 | 1.771-2.328  1.201-1.601  1.008-1.348 | 1.318\*\*\*  1.150  1.180  1.000 | | 1.083-1.603  0.950-1.393  0.986-1.411 | 1.337\*\*\*  1.286\*\*\*  0.975  1.000 | 1.096-1.631  1.065-1.555  0.820-1.160 |
| Wealth index:  Poorest  Poorer  Middle  Richer  Richest (ref.) | 2.771\*\*\*  2.121\*\*\*  1.497\*\*\*  1.402\*\*\*  1.000 | 2.437-3.150  1.865-2.412  1.313-1.706  1.230-1.597 | 2.506\*\*\*  2.184\*\*\*  1.672\*\*\*  1.604\*\*\*  1.000 | | 2.107-2.982  1.846-2.582  1.419-1.972  1.376-1.870 | 1.994\*\*\*  1.414\*\*\*  1.340\*\*  1.503\*\*\*  1.000 | 1.664-2.390  1.182-1.692  1.131-1.587  1.299-1.740 |
| Involvement in NGO:  No (ref.)  Yes | 1.000  1.884\*\*\* | 1.739-2.042 | 1.000  1.617\*\*\* | | 1.487-1.768 | 1.000  1.644\*\*\* | 1.498-1.804 |

*Note: Odds ratio f or reference category (ref.) is 1.00.*

*Geographical region: Barishal, Khulna, Rajshahi and Rangpur being considered together as* *northwest region.*

*Statistical significance if \*\*\*p<0.000, \*\*p<0.01, and \*p<0.05*

**Table 6: Logistic regression analysis showing the extent of the effects of variables on women’s participation in NGO activities in Bangladesh**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | 2007 BDHS | | | | | 2011 BDHS  Adjusted Model | |
| Variables | Unadjusted Model | | | Adjusted Model | |
| Odds  Ratio | 95% CI | Odds  Ratio | | 95% CI | Odds  Ratio | 95% CI |
| Age of women:  15-24 (ref.)  25-34  35+ | 1.000  1.617\*\*\*  1.507\*\*\* | 1.467-1.782  1.369-1.659 | 1.000  1.348\*\*\*  1.207\*\*\* | | 1.202-1.513  1.052-1.368 | 1.000  1.468\*\*\*  1.397\*\*\* | 1.341-1.608  1.257-1.553 |
| Marital status:  Divorced/separated  /widowed (ref.)  Currently married | 1.000  1.490\*\*\* | 1.273-1.744 | 1.000  1.555\*\*\* | | 1.317-1.837 | 1.000  2.302\*\*\* | 1.971-2.688 |
| Number of living children:  0 (ref.)  1-2  3+ | 1.000  2.545\*\*\*  3.300\*\*\* | 2.179-2.973  2.823-3.857 | 1.000  2.225\*\*\*  2.518\*\*\* | | 1.893-2.616  2.103-3.017 | 1.000  2.386\*\*\*  2.705\*\*\* | 2.076-2.743  2.319-3.156 |
| Type of place of residence:  Urban(ref.)  Rural | 1.000  1.638\*\*\* | 1.439-1.864 | 1.000  0.771\*\*\* | | 0.686-0.867 | 1.000  0.680\*\*\* | 0.621-0.745 |
| Geographical regions:  Northwest  Chittagong/Sylhet  Dhaka (ref.) | 1.302\*\*\*  0.632\*\*\*  1.000 | 1.190-1.424  0.567-0.705 | 1.248\*\*\*  0.590\*\*\*  1.000 | | 1.135-1.373  0.526-0.661 | 1.356\*\*\*  0.736\*\*\*  1.000 | 1.255-1.464  0.671-0.807 |
| Education of respondent:  No education  Primary  Secondary  Higher (ref.) | 3.079\*\*\*  2.934\*\*\*  1.779\*\*\*  1.000 | 2.509-3.778  2.388-3.607  1.446-2.190 | 1.299  1.391\*\*  1.200  1.000 | | 0.997-1.692  1.088-1.813  0.944-1.524 | 1.175  1.366\*\*\*  1.317\*\*\*  1.000 | 0.957-1.441  1.124-1.660  1.098-1.578 |
| Partner’s education:  No education  Primary  Secondary  Higher (ref.) | 2.860\*\*\*  2.568\*\*\*  1.740\*\*\*  1.000 | 2.473-3.307  2.209-2.984  1.493-2.027 | 1.889\*\*\*  1.832\*\*\*  1.427\*\*\*  1.000 | | 1.557-2.291  1.518-2.211  1.195-1.706 | 1.968\*\*\*  2.102\*\*\*  1.587\*\*\*  1.000 | 1.686-2.298  1.813-2.436  1.381-1.824 |
| Wealth index:  Poorest  Poorer  Middle  Richer  Richest (ref.) | 2.486\*\*\*  2.604\*\*\*  2.304\*\*\*  2.015\*\*\*  1.000 | 2.182-2.832  2.288-2.964  2.024-2.623  1.770-2.294 | 1.706\*\*\*  2.009\*\*\*  1.926\*\*\*  1.830\*\*\*  1.000 | | 1.435-2.029  1.701-2.373  1.639-2.263  1.573-2.129 | 2.496\*\*\*  2.495\*\*\*  2.191\*\*\*  1.648\*\*\*  1.000 | 2.172-2.868  2.185-2.850  1.932-2.486  1.466-1.853 |

*Note: Odds ratio f or reference category (ref.) is 1.00.*

*Geographical region: Barishal, Khulna, Rajshahi and Rangpur* *being considered together as* *northwest region.*

*Statistical significance if \*\*\*p<0.000, \*\*p<0.01, and \*p<0.05*