

CHAPTER-II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The main focus of the study is on mother's empowerment which is analogous to women empowerment where the women is married and a part of a family comprising of her children, husband and other relatives who together live in a joint or nuclear structured family and to show the impact of mother's empowerment on their children's education. As such, a comprehensive review of available literatures is made here that throws light on the different aspects of women empowerment and its impact on children's education. Thus brief reviews are in two parts which are as under.

2.1 Reviews on Women Empowerment

This part of review of literature deals with different aspect of women empowerment which is as under.

Naved (1994) conducted a study in Bangladesh. He tried to focus on how the women beneficiaries of empowerment programmes perceived interventions and what according to them were the outcomes of such interventions. Using in-depth interviews and focus group discussions this study documented women's perceptions about the changes brought about by credit programmes. The author found that women are more valued in the family for their contribution in family's income. Verbal and physical abuse and violence against women has been reduced. Mobility of women has increased tremendously. Linkages with various service providing institutions and social organizations has developed. Women has learned to defend their own interests through group actions. All of these have ultimately translated into better living conditions for children.

Mehra (1997) tried to show that development policies and programmes tend not to view women as integral to the economic development process. This is reflected in the higher

investments in women's reproductive rather than their productive roles, mainly in population programs. Yet women throughout the developing world engage in economically productive work and earn incomes. They work primarily in agriculture and in the informal sector and, increasingly, in formal wage employment. Their earnings, however, are generally low. Since the 1950s, development agencies have responded to the need for poor women to earn incomes by making relatively small investments in income-generating projects. Often such projects fail because they are motivated by welfare and not development concerns, offering women temporary and part-time employment in traditionally feminine skills such as knitting and sewing that have limited markets. By contrast, over the past twenty years, some nongovernmental organizations, such as the Self-Employed Women's Association in India, have been effective in improving women's economic status because they have started with the premise that women are fundamental to the process of economic development.

Neidell (1998) in his study using the 1994 International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) as a case study, he examined how women's empowerment amassed public attention. He investigated feminist preparations for the conference and suggested that by playing an active role in preparatory meetings and the conference, women gained recognition from governments throughout the world and from the United Nations, and helped frame issues in a way that motivated the press to highlight women's empowerment. He argued 'empowering women' became a catch phrase for media coverage and that abortion surfaced as a symbol of this empowerment. UN publications and reports of proceedings prior to, and during the 1994 ICPD, and articles from The New York Times illustrated use of this media package. The paper raised questions

about types of policies governments will use to improve the position of women and the political power women will have in decisions.

Kritz and Adebusoje (1999) in their study conducted in Nigeria tried to look at the determinants of wife's decision-making authority by using data from a 1991 survey of five ethnic groups in Nigeria. Their analysis showed that ethnicity plays a very important role in shaping wife's decision-making authority and is even more important than wife's individual-level characteristics as a determinant of authority. The ethnic effect occurs both by shaping the levels of resources that women achieved and by shaping the relationships of wife's achieved characteristics to family decision-making. To the extent that characteristics other than ethnicity make a difference for authority, they found that wife's contributions to household expenditures are important. That factor significantly increases wife's authority, as does wife's formal education, age, and work for pay outside the home. The findings underscored the importance of looking at ethnic social differentiation in the African context and advancing educational and employment opportunities for women.

Schroeder (2000) in his study conducted in Tarija, Bolivia, tried to examine the spatial component of women's economic activities in a low-income barrio following the imposition of structural-adjustment programmes in the 1980s and 1990s. He found that women who pursue employment away from home must rely on other women. In particular, households that include more than one woman who is capable of handling important daily chores are more likely to have a woman engaged in income-generating activities away from the home and the neighbourhood. Women at home make it possible for other women to extend their economic activity into the broader community. These

findings are important because they draw attention to women's reliance on other women, how women use space, and how they are constrained by spatial factors as they negotiate their daily lives.

Fonjong (2001) in his study, conducted in Cameroon, tried to focus on women's participation in development through non-governmental efforts. He examined case studies of NGOs and women's empowerment in Cameroon, and highlighted their successes, with regard to improved access and welfare and their limitations, with regard to conscientisation, participation and control. He found that women constitute 52 per cent of the population of Cameroon and play a very crucial role in the development of society at all levels. The 'grassroots' approach of NGOs has been effective in reaching women at all levels. Activities of NGOs have had far reaching but mixed effects in meeting both practical and strategic gender needs. NGOs have been successful in increasing women's access to resources in Cameroon. But a lot remains to be done to try to truly empower the Cameroonian woman. Their interventions have improved women's access to health, credit, training, employment, and family decision-making and they provide opportunities for women to exchange ideas. All these satisfy women's immediate needs such as food, health and water, which are required by everybody, especially children. But NGOs have had little impact in reversing discrimination against and subordination of women. In other words, their strategic gender needs have not yet been met. Women's access to political participation and control, which the UNICEF framework sees as the high point of empowerment, is still inadequate. Fundamental changes towards women's empowerment in Cameroon will not be possible without a

remarkable change in male attitudes and contributions from government and other development agents.

Kongolo and Bamgose (2002) in their study, conducted in South Africa tried to focus on participation of rural women in development. The study investigates factors which influence limited participation in the development process by women in South Africa's rural areas. The influence of government development policy, education and cultural values on rural women was sought and investigated in the study. The sample size was 72 households representing a total of 152 female respondents (rural women). The data was gathered using a non-probability sampling procedure. This method was used because of the lack of women's groups represented in these villages. Data collection basically involved traveling to the areas studied first, to familiarize with respondents for easy interactions as well as personal contact with them. Secondly, group discussions were organized by the researchers to facilitate an understanding of the whole study process. The results suggest that most women in rural areas are illiterate. They lack initiatives, innovations and self-reliance attitudes. Women in rural areas are isolated, confined and marginalized through the non-interactive government policies on rural areas. Rural women in most African households carry out subsistence and near-subsistence agriculture, being over 80 percent of agricultural labour force. They are also responsible for many other tasks such as planting, weeding, watering, harvesting, and storing of crops. These symptoms reflect a lack of structured development strategy to create needed opportunities in these areas. As a result, there is a high rate of unemployment, because the present development policy clearly has failed to enhance the welfare of most rural women in the country.

Malhotra, Schuler and Boender (2002) in their study identified the most promising methodological approaches to measuring and analyzing women's empowerment. They found that there is substantial agreement on "process" and "agency" as being essential to women's empowerment, and in distinguishing it from related terms such as gender equality. Moreover, considerable groundwork has already been done in developing frameworks that specify the dimensions of empowerment, its contextual nature, and the various levels at which it could be measured. Empirically as well, a number of studies from a range of disciplines have attempted to measure various aspects of women's empowerment, either as the outcome of interest, or as the intermediary factor affecting other development outcomes. Efforts at data collection and analysis, especially at the household and individual level, have become more common and sophisticated in recent years, and although they continue to have limitations, they provide important guidance for future efforts at measuring women's empowerment. At the same time, important challenges remain. The vast majority of empirical studies are not measuring the process element of empowerment. Additionally, macro-level studies are especially weak on measuring agency and often do not employ a relevant conceptual framework. Household level studies have made significant progress in conceptualizing broader, context-specific frameworks and in specifying indicators that can be said to capture aspects of agency, but considerably more work is required in this area. Data limitations have also presented an important constraint in efforts to measure women's empowerment. Macro-level studies are especially limited in the extent to which they can operationalize innovative approaches to this task by the lack of gender-disaggregated data from developing countries on a vast majority of relevant indicators. Their review of the empirical literature

suggests that in many cases researchers recognize the data constraints, but have had to adapt their studies to the limitations. Others have collected primary data, but often in isolation from each other, and never through longitudinal or panel studies.

Rubalcava, Teruel and Thomas (2002) focused on welfare design, women's empowerment and income pooling. They used a data set from PROGRESA, Mexico's largest anti-poverty program- to investigate intrahousehold decisions and its relationship to specific welfare design policies that seek the empowerment of women. Their results showed that as the benefit in the hands of the woman increases, more resources are allocated towards girls and boy's clothing, and less to expenditures on adult male goods, such as male clothing. Parallel, women with more power tend to allocate more resources towards what they might perceive as an improvement of the dietary condition of their household members.

Mason & Smith (2003) in their study, conducted in five Asian countries (India, Malaysia, Pakistan, the Philippines, and Thailand), analyzed multiple measures of married women's empowerment in the domestic sphere in 56 communities spanning five Asian countries. The data used in this paper were collected in 56 purposively-selected communities in Pakistan, India, Malaysia, Thailand, and the Philippines in 1993 and 1994. The authors had explored three issues concerning the conceptualization and measurement of women's domestic empowerment. First, consistent with a sociological approach that views women's empowerment largely as a property of social systems in particular, of gender stratification systems and their ideologies. They had shown that across the 56 communities, community could explain more variation in the empowerment of individual women than could their personal and household characteristics. Moreover,

within countries at least, gender norms can explain two-thirds or more of all the variation in women's empowerment that occurs across communities. Thus, gender norms appear to be an important feature of communities that determines the levels of empowerment enjoyed by the female members of these communities. Second, they had also shown that female empowerment in the domestic sphere was multidimensional, both conceptually and empirically. Finally, they had also shown that proxy measures of women's empowerment commonly used in past studies tend to be problematic except when employed at very high levels of aggregation over a wide range of countries and then only for certain proxies in relation to particular aspects of women's empowerment and power. The main implication of the results presented in this paper is the importance of conceptualizing development as social transformations rather than as the result of millions of uncoordinated and unrelated individual responses to changing "constraints." Their attention thereby focused specifically on the ability of women to affect particular outcomes in their day-to-day lives within their families and households. To the extent that women's empowerment is important for the social transformations that development involves, by implication, results from social and normative transformations, not just from shifts in individual decision-making. This point is often forgotten or ignored by those who work in the tradition of microeconomic or rational action theory. The analysis showed that gender relations are heavily influenced by community norms and values; community is a far stronger predictor of women's empowerment than are individual traits. The relationship of both community and individual traits to different measures of empowerment vary, suggesting that "empowerment" is inherently a multi-dimensional phenomenon, with women relatively empowered in some spheres but not in others. The

primary policy implication is the importance of changing community norms and values about gender relations for empowering women. Their results also suggest that policies to rise women's age at marriage enhance their educations and open greater employment opportunities will also help to empower them, at least in some respects.

Scheyvens (2003) in his study conducted in Solomon Islands tried to focus on Church women's groups and the empowerment of women in Solomon Islands. By drawing on case studies from Solomon Islands in the period leading up to the onset of political crisis in 1999, this article demonstrated that a welfare approach does not preclude women's groups from engaging in strategic activities for the empowerment of women. Such activities include support for logging protests, workshops to affirm the importance of women's roles and develop their confidence, and opportunities for them to travel and expand their knowledge basis. Furthermore, the process of coming together to engage in welfare activities which many women enjoyed greatly could provide opportunities for confidence-building, income generation, and networking.

Odutolu et al (2003) in their study conducted in Osun State, Nigeria tried to examine whether women are increasingly being recognized as equal partners in development. The authors utilized qualitative data collected as part of an intervention programme designed to increase access to reproductive health information/ services and economic resources among young women in Osogbo, Nigeria. The aim was to provide reproductive health information and training in basic business skills and micro-credit facilities to enable beneficiaries to establish private businesses. They found that the importance of the relationship between female education, access to economic resources as a means of improving empowerment of women especially in terms of their reproductive behaviour.

The paper argues that increased access to resources is a major factor toward ensuring the much desired empowerment.

Kishor and Gupta (2004) in their study they used data from the NFHS-2 to document women's empowerment as a whole and in each of 26 states with 1999 boundaries (2000 for Tripura) to document women's empowerment in the country as a whole and in each of 26 states with 1999 boundaries. NFHS-2 collected information on several aspects of the empowerment of ever-married women age 15-49. The authors identified 13 indicators or groups of indicators and ranked all states according to these indicators. Rankings are provided for each state on each indicator or set of indicators, on the groups of indicators identified as measuring the three different faces of empowerment (evidence, sources, and setting), and overall. Thus, empowerment as measured by 'evidence' indicators is highest in Mizoram, followed by Himachal Pradesh, Arunachal Pradesh, Punjab and Goa; empowerment as measured by the 'sources' variables is highest in Delhi, Kerala, Goa, Mizoram, and Manipur; and empowerment as measured by the 'settings' variables is highest in Delhi, Punjab, Goa, Mizoram, and Himachal Pradesh. Not surprisingly then, Mizoram has the highest level of overall empowerment; the other states in the top five are Delhi, Goa, Kerala, and Punjab. Again, this ranking is only relative and does not imply that the absolute level in any of these states is satisfactory. Therefore, they found that there is great variation in the level of women's empowerment across the different states and across indicators.

Parveen and Leonhauser (2004) in their study conducted in Bangladesh tried to focus on the nature and extent of rural women's empowerment and factors influencing it. The methodology of their study is an integration of quantitative and qualitative methods based

on data collected in three villages of Mymensingh district. Six key indicators of empowerment covering three dimensions were chosen for this purpose. Data were collected from 156 respondents during January-April 2003 following stratified random sampling. Finally, a cumulative empowerment index (CEI) was developed adding the obtained scores of six empowerment indicators. They found that 83 percent of the women have a very low to low economic contribution, 44 percent have a very low to low access to resources, 93 percent have a very poor to poor asset ownership, 73 percent have a moderate to high participation in household decision-making, 43 percent have a highly unfavourable to unfavourable perception on gender awareness and 72 percent have a moderate to high coping capacity to household shocks. The distribution of CEI demonstrates that the majority of rural women have a very low to moderate (82 percent) level of empowerment. By using multiple regression analysis the authors have shown that there were strong positive effects of formal and non-formal education, information media exposure and spatial mobility on women's CEI, while traditional socio-cultural norms have a strong negative effect. The author suggests that education, training and exposure to information media have the potential to increase women's empowerment. Therefore, 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.

Riyami, Afifi, & Mabry (2004) in their study conducted in Oman focused on women's autonomy, education and employment in Oman and their influence on contraceptive use. The study was to define baseline data on ever-married women's empowerment in Oman

from a national study in 2000, analyzed the correlates of women's empowerment and the effect of empowerment on unmet need for contraception. Two indicators of empowerment were used: women's involvement in decision-making and freedom of movement. Bivariate analysis was used to link these measures and their proxies, education and employment status, with use of a family planning method. They found that unmet contraceptive need for women exposed to pregnancy was nearly 250 percent, but decreased significantly with educational level and paid employment. While empowered women were more likely to use contraception, women's education was a better predictor of "met need" than autonomy as traditional factors and community influence remain strong. For nearly half the 1,830 women in the study, the husband decided whether contraception was used. Fewer than 1% were using contraception before their first child as women are expected to have a child within the first year of marriage.

Santilldn et al (2004) in their study conducted in Vietnam tried to carry out a qualitative study in rural Vietnam to explore relationships between gender equity and reproductive health. This paper describes the process of developing, testing, and refining the empowerment indicators. The author have excluded the domains of housework (socio-economic sphere) and pregnancy (reproductive health arena) because of the limited extent to which the behaviours of interest in these domains reflect the agency dimension of women's empowerment. These domains are more a reflection of gender equity within the family, and they are highly influenced by factors such as relative poverty and household composition. Whether a man does housework reveals more about the husband's attitudes and actions than about the wife's level of empowerment. A husband may be more willing to do housework if his wife is economically empowered and makes

a substantial contribution to the family income, but in such a situation the husband's involvement in housework would be best described as an outcome of his wife's empowerment rather than as an indicator of empowerment per se. Behaviours such as food intake during pregnancy also fail to reflect women's empowerment, since they are affected greatly by poverty and other factors outside women's control. As health and development policies and programmes gradually expand their focus to include a concern with promoting women's empowerment and gender equity, it will be important to continue to refine research methods and indicators to measure these complex variables. This paper is intended as a contribution to that process. The paper concluded by recommending a set of Vietnam specific domains for assessing women's empowerment in the socio-economic sphere as well as in reproductive health.

Kamal and Zunaid (2004) in their study conducted in Bangladesh found that twenty percent women work for cash. Among them only 48 percent are able to spend their money on their own, the rest are dependent upon spouses or other family members to take joint decisions on spending. Defining this variable as a measure of empowerment, their analysis investigates correlates of empowerment using logistic regression analysis. The model found that marital status is the most significant predictor of empowerment in Bangladesh. Unmarried women are six times more likely to be empowered. Secondary education is another major determinant of empowerment, along with the woman's mobility and decision making scores. The paper recommends strengthening women's secondary education in Bangladesh and also taking measures to encourage late marriage for women.

Anderson and Eswaran (2005) conducted a study in Bangladesh examined the determinants of female autonomy within households. The author investigated the relative contributions of earned versus unearned income in enhancing women's autonomy and the role of employment outside of their husband's farm. The authors used data of Matlab Health and Socio-economic Survey (MHSS) conducted in 1996, where approximately 4364 households were surveyed. From these 4364 households the authors were taken 3700 households of married couple. The authors found that earned income is more important than unearned income and also found that employment outside their husbands' farms that contributes to women's autonomy.

Hossain and Tisdell (2005) examined the relationship between women's workforce participation and various direct indicators of women's empowerment and welfare on the basis of micro-level data from two largest cities in Bangladesh. While the generic assessment indicated that women's paid jobs had positive implications for women's participation in decisions on fertility, children's education and healthcare as well as their possession and control of resources, the econometric assessment negated most of these observations. Furthermore, women's education appeared to be more important than their participation in the labour force. The authors also found the importance of women's job category, religion and regional differences for women's empowerment.

Tandley (2005) in their study conducted in Chennai tried to obtain a scientific measure of empowerment. The study had taken into consideration a section of teachers, i.e. the married PGT teachers. In order to obtain information, a representative sample of 80 women PGT teachers from the total population in the city of Chennai were chosen for detailed analysis to find out their empowerment status. This study was conducted in

schools, which employed PGT teachers and are earning a salary in accordance with the government pay scale affiliated to the Sixth Pay Commission that came into effect from 1st January 1996. The data for the study had been collected during July–September 2004. The sampling technique used was the stratified random sampling. In order to obtain a proper representation of the unit under study, the city of Chennai had been divided into four regions – the North, South, Central, and East zones. A sample of 20 teachers had been collected from each zone. The total schools that had been sampled were 12 and each zone consisted of 3 schools. They found that whenever the standard of living of women is higher they give equal weightage for all the characteristic features or attributes considered as women empowerment. This was clearly demonstrated by comparing the model in which the women’s self-perception of empowerment was taken as an independent variable with respect to the quantitative model having Empowerment Index as the dependent variable. Hence the author established that the Empowerment Index constructed reflect the reality (i.e., the self-perception of women regarding empowerment). Secondly, he strongly recommended some of the most important factors to be considered by the decision makers while introducing any policy initiative for empowering women by constructing two different reasonable models which reflects the same. Hence, the level of economic equality and independence are the real indicators for measuring the status of women in any society. Also by analyzing both the quantitative and qualitative methods the study was able to compare the perception of empowerment felt by the respondents individually and the Empowerment Index of women framed from earlier literature.

Furuta and Salway (2006) in their study conducted in Nepal tried to focus on women's position within the household as a determinant of maternal health care use in Nepal. Data on ever-married women aged 15-49 from the 2001 Nepal Demographic and Health Survey were analyzed to explore three dimensions of women's position within their household—decision making, employment and influence over earnings, and spousal discussion of family planning. Logistic regression models assessed the relationship of these variables to receipt of skilled antenatal and delivery care. Few women reported participation in household decision making, and even fewer had any control over their own earnings. However, more than half reported discussing family planning with their husbands, and there were significant differences among subgroups in these indicators of women's position. Though associations were not consistent across all indicators, spousal discussion of family planning was linked to an increased likelihood of receiving skilled antenatal and delivery care (odds ratios, 1.4 and 1.3, respectively). Women's secondary education was also strongly associated with the greater use of health care (5.1-5.6). Gender inequality constrains women's access to skilled health care in Nepal. Interventions to improve communication and strengthen women's influence deserve continued support. The strong association of women's education with health care use highlights the need for efforts to increase girls' schooling and alter perceptions of the value of skilled maternal health care.

Gupta & Yesudian (2006) tried to define women's issues and taken various efforts to empower them so as to enhance their social status and health status and involve them in developmental activities. Utilizing Indian DHS survey (National Family Health Survey, 1998-1999) data sets, where information on several dimensions of women's

empowerment from 90,303 ever-married women (ages 15-49), from all the states of India, four indices i.e., household autonomy index, mobility index, attitude towards gender index and attitude towards domestic violence index were constructed to measure the different dimensions of empowerment. Using these indices, the spatial and socio-economic and cultural disparities that existed within India were analyzed. Finally, an attempt was made to identify some important determinants for women's empowerment using multiple logistic regression analysis. The results showed that at the national level, 43 percent of the women have high household autonomy; 23 percent of the women have high freedom to move outside their home, 40 percent of the women have no gender preference attitude, and only 43 percent of the women defy domestic violence. But there were significant divergences in these indices of women's empowerment across the different states and socio-economic and cultural settings within India. Women's educational levels emerged as an important predictor for all the four dimensions of women's empowerment. Additionally, media exposure and age have emerged as the important predictors for some dimensions of woman's empowerment.

Rahman and Naoroze (2007) conducted a study in Bangladesh, investigated rural women's empowerment through participation in aquaculture activities within a large scale demonstration project in Bangladesh. The study was based on farm level data collected from 200 women in two districts of Bangladesh. A questionnaire was used for the purpose of data collection and data gathering spanned a period of four months, (September to December) in 2004. The findings showed that women in the study area gained a significant level of empowerment during the course of their participation in the aquaculture program. The extent of their empowerment was positively and significantly

correlated with their education, extension media contact and exposure to training, as well as their knowledge and participation in aquaculture. Other factors, such as age, family size, family farm size, area under aquaculture, and annual family income did not show any significant relationship with the extent of a woman's empowerment through participation in aquaculture.

Tijani and Yano (2007) in their study conducted in Japan tried to focus on the current status of Japanese women farmers using universal measurement of women empowerment. Two prefectures, Hiroshima and Shimane were selected. Stratified sampling technique was used to select respondents from each village while structured questionnaire was employed to collect data on economic, social, familial, legal, mobility and political status of the respondents. The result showed that status of women farmers was improved in the recent time compared to years back. This was revealed in the favourable responses to some statement questions such as, freedom and participation in voting, relationship with husband, participation in outside work and freedom of movement. However, their status as unpaid workers on family farms, lack of freedom to borrow and lend, inability to express their mind over the children to mother-in-law were the prevailing items of their disempowerment. Classifying respondents on the overall empowerment showed that majority of them were highly empowered. Inferential analysis using t-test to compare women farmers past and present status showed a significant difference, $t=4.827$, $p=0.000$. Relationship between personal characteristics of women farmers and their present empowerment status using Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) coefficient r showed negative correlation between age and all empowerment indicators. Again marital status had negative correlation with familial and

legal empowerment while mother-in-law and familial empowerment were positively correlated.

Chakrabarti and Biswas (2008) in their study conducted in eastern zone of India which consisted of 3 states, West Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, tried to look at the empowerment of women. The NFHS-2 (1998-1999 data) was a sample survey and was conducted on selected married women belonging to age group 15-49 years, nearly 95 per cent of whom used to stay with husband. Majority of the remaining were widow and a very few were divorced or separated. The study was done on the combined data for those three states. Though the number of samples taken in the survey was more, only 15513 observations had been included in the study. The paper had introduced the methodology of Structural Equation Modeling (SEM). The estimation of the model had been done by using Linear Structural Relationship (LISREL) methodology. Two measurement models had been estimated. The first one, estimating EI (empowerment index) was made up of two endogenous variables: empowerment index for decision making in household matters (EIH) and empowerment index for freedom in decision making for house related work outside (EIF). The second model estimated latent variable HSC (household condition) using two exogenous variables-SWATER and WLTH. Results of the measurement models proved that both EIH and EIF are determinant variables of the latent variable EI and SWATER and WLTH for the latent variable HSC. The structural model consists of four functional relations corresponding to four endogenous variables. The goodness of fit statistics given by scaled χ^2 and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) were highly significant implying that model fits the data well. The level of empowerment, indicated by empowerment index, the latent variable EI, is primarily determined by (a)

achievement of awareness through information (INF), (b) financial contribution in the family income (CFI) and (c) household economic and cultural condition represented by an estimated latent variable (HSC). Both INF and HSC also increased the awareness level of the male family members, which indirectly affect the level of women empowerment in a positive way. On the other hand, as hypothesized, level of empowerment again positively influenced the decision of the women to enter into the job market which significantly influenced the women to contribute in the family income. Therefore, ROCCU indirectly influence the empowerment level. On the other hand, respondent's education level (REDU) has positive significant impact on the INF, which influences EI. Therefore, in the similar way REDU indirectly influences the empowerment level of women. More interestingly, negative significant contribution of husband's education (HEDU) on respondent occupation (ROCCU) indicates their influence on wives' personal decision. Similarly negative influence of household's condition (HSC), particularly economic condition, and husband's occupation (HOCCU) force the housewives to earn and to contribute in the family income. Particularly in such situation, CFI may not help to increase the decision making power of women. These are the major feature of the developing countries. Therefore, in spite of all Government effort by adopting developmental programme since First Five Year plan and a multi-disciplinary approach with a special thrust on health, education and employment level of women since Sixth Five Year Plan, empowerment level of women did not increase to the expected level till 1998-99.

Swain and Wallentin (2008) tried to examine whether it is the economic or the non-economic factors that have a greater impact on empowering women. Microfinance

programs like Self Help Group Bank linkage program (SHG), aimed to empower women through provision of financial services. The study based on primary data. Using household survey data on SHG from India, a general structural model was adopted where the latent women empowerment and its latent components (economic factors and financial confidence, managerial control, behavioural changes, education and networking, communication and political participation and awareness) are measured using observed indicators. The results showed that for SHG members, economic factors, managerial control and behavioural changes are the most significant factors in empowering women.

Nayak and Mahanta (2008), tried to focus on Women Empowerment in Assam. The study was based on secondary data. The major findings of the study are as follows: 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 the women do not have final say about the use of their own earnings, Most of the women do not have household decision making power, particularly in large household purchases, Most of the women do not have freedom of movement, traditional gender norms particularly those concerning wife beating are still prevailing in the society, the women of Assam enjoy somewhat low status in absolute term and much lower relative to men, household decision making capacity, workforce participation rate and control over resources are lower for the women of Assam in comparison to India, less women of Assam are exposed to physical violence than that of India, sexual violence is more in Assam than in India, less number of women in Assam accepts unequal gender role regarding wife beating as compared to Indian women as a whole, upper Assam shows better performance in the area of education, employment etc. Education, employment and formation of SHGs vary

positively with literacy and per capita DDP. At primary and middle level enrolment rate is same for almost all the districts, sex ratio varies negatively with literacy and DDP, sex ratio is low for Upper Assam as compared to Lower and Central Assam and FLR has positive link with HDI. However FWPR and Sex Ratio have negative relationship with HDI.

Chaudhry and Nosheen (2009), in their study conducted in Pakistan tried to show the determinants of women empowerment in Southern Punjab of Pakistan. The authors made an attempt to explore the possible determinants of women empowerment using regression analysis based on primary data from a district of Southern Punjab. Considering its multidimensional nature and aspects, a cumulative index for women empowerment was constructed using four indices i.e. personal autonomy, family decision making, domestic economic decisions and political autonomy. An empirical analysis showed some new and diverse results for three different areas namely urban, rural and tribal areas. The results showed that women empowerment is considerably influenced by education, access to media, socio-cultural norms of the community, job of women and household participation rate. In this study, apart from the conventional variables, a variable about the knowledge of an Islamic Concept of Women Empowerment also shows significant positive impact on Women Empowerment index. Finally, it was concluded that women empowerment can be improved by concentrating on the significant factors in remote regions and consequently poverty levels will also be reduced across the areas.

Nayak and Mahanta (2009) in their study conducted in India tried to analyze the status of women empowerment in India using various indicators based on data from secondary sources. The study revealed that women of India are relatively disempowered and they

enjoy somewhat lower status than that of men in spite of many efforts undertaken by government. Gender gap exists regarding access to education and employment. Household decision making power and freedom of movement of women vary considerably with their age, education and employment status. They found that acceptance of unequal gender norms by women are still prevailing in the society. More than half of the women believe wife beating to be justified for one reason or the other. Fewer women have final say on how to spend their earnings. Control over cash earnings increases with age, education and with place of residence. Women's exposure to media is also less relative to men. Rural women are more prone to domestic violence than that of urban women. A large gender gap exists in political participation too. The study concludes by an observation that access to education and employment are only the enabling factors to empowerment, achievement towards the goal, however, depends largely on the attitude of the people towards gender equality.

Nikkhah, Redzuan & Abu-Samah (2010) in their study conducted in Shiraz, Iran, tried to focus on The Effect of Women's Socio-demographic Variables on their Empowerment. This study elucidated the relationship between socio-demographic variable of women and their empowerment in Shiraz, Iran. Indeed, this study discovered the effect of respondents' background i.e., age, education, occupation, family income and marital status on their empowerment. Data was collected from 195 women who participated in empowerment process which organized by NGOs in the whole city of Shiraz. They found that among the socio-demographic variables, only education and marital status had effect on empowerment. They also found that the divorced women had high level of empowerment compared to married and widow women. This might be due

to that married women couldn't get their husband permission to participate in empowerment process.

Tayde and Chole (2010) tried to focus on different aspects of women empowerment i.e. psychological, cultural, social, economical and political empowerment. The study was conducted in randomly selected three districts viz. Parbhani, Hingoli and Nanded district in Marathwada region of Maharashtra state. From each district, two development blocks were randomly selected. From each of the development blocks, two villages were randomly selected. Out of these villages those beneficiaries who were receiving benefits through women development programmes were selected. The results of the study showed that majority of women were psychologically empowered who had self confidence but lacked in career ambition. In cultural empowerment, highest beneficiary women had freedom for deciding (food) menu and very less women had freedom wearing a kind of dress. In social empowerment, majority women had freedom to mix in women friends and minimum in to visit the hospitals. In economic empowerment, majority of women were empowered on all the items of economic empowerment except employing labourers, decision about marketing of produce and savings in fixed deposits. The political empowerment in different point was very low because they were not aware about their rights.

Islam et al (2010) attempted to identify the empowerment factors of rural women in Bangladesh through homestead poultry rearing practices. Data were collected from 75 rural women involved in poultry rearing practices through interviews using a structured questionnaire. Factor analysis was performed to identify the empowerment factors. Multiple regression analysis was used to identify the relationships between the six

empowerment factors and the overall empowerment of rural women. The authors found that simple poultry rearing practices do empower rural women and improve their social status. Thus the study indicates that independent decision making authority and increased involvement in family affairs are positively associated with empowerment.

Chaudhuri Sanjukta (2010) used multivariate regression analysis to explore the time and birth cohort trends of women's empowerment in eight countries of South Asia and South East Asia. The measures of women's empowerment were economic participation, educational attainment, wage work, fertility, female to male sex ratio of living children, and the ideal female to male sex ratio. The data (1990s and 2000s) were collected from the Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS.) Comparison of estimated cohort lines demonstrate that Philippines and Vietnam, both in South East Asia, have the highest education level, highest rates of economic participation, and the lowest fertility rates. Cambodia has the highest female to male ratio. Pakistan and Nepal have lowest education, Pakistan and Bangladesh have the lowest economic participation rates and highest fertility rates, and India has the lowest sex ratio. In surveying country specific literature to confirm these estimates, author concludes that social and religious norms hinder women's empowerment in both regions, Progress in women's empowerment has been achieved through feminist movements (the Philippines), government programs (the Doi Moi program of Vietnam) and Non Government Organization efforts (Grameen Bank of Bangladesh), Much of the progress has been achieved with meager access to resources and lastly more empowerment could be the consequence of political turmoil, (Cambodia) and not necessarily economic development or cultural shifts.

Thapa and Gurung (2010) analyzed the association between social, economic and demographic factors on the female teachers' empowerment level. A cross-sectional data was generated following two stage random sampling. First 20 schools were selected then 189 respondents were randomly selected and interviewed. The authors found that rather than women's age, age at marriage, work experience and husband's education and occupation, women's self achievement to earn more income, economic status and positive attitude towards job have positive influence in enhancing empowerment.

Khan et al, (2010), designed the study to know the reasons of low women empowerment and suggested suitable policy measures to raise their status in the society. A sample of size 300 cases was selected using multistage random sampling technique from the District of Rawalpindi, Punjab, Pakistan. Result showed that education, political participation and working for paid job of women are important determinants of women empowerment in the Punjab Province. Women also improved their empowerment status with increase in their conjugal age and cooperation of husbands.

Hategekimana (2011) in his study conducted in Rwanda tried to look at the process of women's empowerment in post- 1994 Rwanda, with special focus on twelve cooperatives working in Mayaga region and the way these cooperatives empower women, their households and the community at large. The author found that if women are empowered, they can generate important development outcomes such as improved health, education, income levels and conflict resolution. The findings further indicate how women's empowerment is determined by the livelihood strategies women adopt themselves to respond to their vulnerability, and by the ways in which they express their agency in making a living in a sustainable way, with the available community assets that they have

access to (financial, social, human, natural and physical). This research highlights that the accessibility of the community assets used by women in Mayaga region and in Rwanda as a whole is also determined by policies, institutions and processes that are able to influence their livelihoods positively.

Arora & Meenu (2011) conducted a study in the rural area of the three districts of Punjab namely Amritsar, Jalandhar and Ludhiana. The paper was an attempt to study the role of microfinance intervention in promoting women empowerment in rural India. The study analyzed the role of microfinance in women empowerment and the satisfaction level of the women towards microfinance services. The authors found good saving habit among females as maximum number of the respondents was having saving bank accounts (46.9 per cent) and post office savings (18.4 per cent) but still there were so many obstacles in the way of financial inclusion of women such as the lack of awareness regarding micro financing services being provided by the banks as 80.7 per cent of the respondents were unaware of the banks opening of zero minimum balance saving bank account. The dissatisfaction from various service activities followed by banks such as requirement of collaterals, inconvenient procedural formalities, loan utilization checks and difficult repayment terms was also one of the major reasons for a significant proportion of the rural women to prefer informal sources of finance (74.1 per cent of the respondents availing credit) instead of the formal ones the study also found very negligible use of the SHGs services by the respondents (2.1 per cent in case of savings). These SHGs need to be regulated and supervised in order to keep them actively engaged in the microfinance movement. Moreover, the banks should make provision of more services under the microfinance umbrella as per the requirements of women. Some

attitudinal changes are required on part of the finance providers also to break the age old stigma of the gender discrimination. Women should be encouraged to take up entrepreneurial activities by giving them proper guidance and developing their business skills. Women empowerment to a great extent depends upon the economic empowerment of women and microfinance can prove to be a very powerful instrument of women empowerment in the times to come.

Chakraborty and De (2011) constructed a new direct measure of female autonomy in household decision making by creating an index from the principal components of a variety of household variables on which mother of a child taken decision. They then examined its impacts on her child's secondary education in Mexico and that the children of Mexican mothers with greater autonomy in domestic decision making had higher enrolment in and lower probability of dropping out of secondary school. The authors used the relative proximity of spousal parents as instruments for relative autonomy to ameliorate the potential endogeneity between autonomy and welfare outcomes. They argued that omitted variables that may drive education and autonomy were likely to be uncorrelated with the ones driving location choice of families given the migration patterns in Mexico. However, the positive autonomy effect was weaker and non-existent for older children and for girls suggesting that gender-directed conditional cash transfer policies may not necessarily hasten educational and gender transition in the process of development.

Khan and Awan (2011) tried to evaluate women empowerment in different contexts of family planning and economic decision making within the household. The authors also investigated its appropriate determinants sifting through sociology resource control

theory and economic bargaining theory by controlling for socio-cultural intervening factors. They examined this empirically by utilizing extensive micro level data information (15,453 households) from ‘Pakistan Social and Living Standards Measurement Survey’ (PSLM) for the year of 2005-06. Results suggest the presence of highly constrained and largely dichotomous empowerment within the household. Moreover, socio-economic, level of education and employment status of a woman depict as effect modifier factors across the empowerment contexts and regions. Furthermore, geographic divisions within Pakistan, significantly explain the contextual empowerment of women.

Varghese (2011) measured women empowerment in Oman by identifying the household decision making ability of women, to assess the economic decision making capability of women and evaluated the freedom of mobility of women for giving recommendation and suggestions to boost women empowerment in Oman. The author had taken a sample of 150 women in Sohar region, Sultanate of Oman, with a structured questionnaire and used regression model and frequency tables. For quantitative analysis, the author had taken by selecting five main variables as independent variables and total women empowerment as dependent variable. Total women empowerment index showed that women in Sohar were good decision makers. Another finding was that women in Oman were better in household decision making and economic decision making than social empowerment. Again, majority of women in Sohar region were aware about their rights and duties.

Haque et al (2011) The authors attempted to measure and distinguish women empowerment and autonomy from each other by constructing indices in three specific dimensions namely economic decision making, household decision making, and physical

movement in Bangladesh context. Using data from BDHS-2004, the authors observed that there prevailed a mid-level of women empowerment but autonomy level of Bangladeshi women was absolutely low. The level of women autonomy decreased with the increase of education whereas education increased the level of women empowerment but not smoothly. Women's current age, place of residence, education, religion, media exposure etc. were the important factors affecting women empowerment and their autonomy.

Bhattacharya and Banerjee (2012) tried to offer a comprehensive measure for empowerment where empowerment was viewed as capability-enhancement. They considered autonomy as the sole indicator of empowerment and an attempt was made to supplement autonomy with other dimensions like health and knowledge in shaping empowerment. They also tried to offer a quantitative measure for empowerment constituted of capability scores on all these three dimensions. A particular form of structural equation modeling, called Multiple Indicator Multiple Cause (MIMIC) model was used to estimate capabilities and the empowerment index was constructed as weighted average of the scores of Health, Knowledge and Autonomy. The method was applied on some primary survey data collected from adult women of two districts of West Bengal. The results demonstrated that high autonomy along with high attainment in other capabilities definitely improved the empowerment index, but considerable empowerment-attainment may be observed even with low autonomy with higher achievements in other capabilities and vice-versa.

Chaudhary, et al (2012), attempted to investigate how consciousness /sensitization of women about their rights, economic empowerment of women and women's overall

development could be helpful in achieving the goal of women's empowerment. The study used data for the period of 1996 to 2009 for Pakistan. The authors found that consciousness of women about their rights, economic empowerment of women and women's overall development have positive and significant effect on women's empowerment as measured by Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) index. The authors used Granger Causality Test to find the causality between women's overall development and women's empowerment. The test confirmed the existence of bi-directional causality between women's overall development and women's empowerment. A unidirectional causality existed between sensitization of women and women's empowerment.

Hajra (2012) identified four dimensions of women's decision making power, like Decision in family planning, Decision in savings, Decision in expenditure and Decision in healthcare. The paper attempted to find how far education, age and income have an impact on these four dimensions. In the study the target respondents were only the women segment from Kolkata Municipal Corporation's slum areas and the primary data had been collected by applying multistage sampling technique. The result showed that the level of education of women had significant effect on decision in level of savings and family planning whereas, level of education had no significant effect on decision in family expenditure and Healthcare. Age was a significant determinant in decision of family planning but age of a woman did not play any significant role in taking decision in family savings, family expenditure and Healthcare expenditure. Again income did not play any significant role in any one of the four dimensions of family decision making progress within the household among woman.

Kundu and Chakraborty (2012) conducted a study in West Bengal focused on women empowerment within Muslim Community. A Cumulative Empowerment Index (CEI) was constructed using 22 key indicators that act as explained variables covering four dimension of women empowerment, i.e. control over economic resources, control over household decision making, women's mobility and political awareness. Nine explanatory variables were also selected as determinants of women empowerment (CEI). Multiple regression results showed statistically significant impact of accessing any type of media, family structure, family headship, household income, paid work and duration of marital life on Cumulative Empowerment Index of Muslim women at the study area. The study concluded that active participation of GO's and local NGO's in bringing change of traditional beliefs of Muslim family and gaining awareness about women's rights and practices can accelerate women empowerment process within Muslim community of Murshidabad district.

Mitra and Kundu, (2012) conducted a study in West Bengal. They estimated women empowerment index and determined the effectiveness of joint liability microfinance programmes through Primary Agricultural Credit Societies in empowering rural women in socially and economically. Sample size of the study was two blocks of Hooghly district. The authors used Principal Component analysis to estimate women empowerment index. The result showed that social capital becomes an important component of women empowerment index. Furthermore, the authors used the difference-in-difference estimator to determine the effectiveness of joint liability microfinance programmes through Primary Agricultural Credit Societies in empowering rural women in socially and economically. The authors found that there had been enhancement of

empowerment of rural women in the two blocks of the district both economically and socially belonging to Self-help Groups formed under Primary Agricultural Credit Societies during the concerned time periods when they compared them with the non-participants.

Mohanty, Das and Moahanty (2013) analyzed the rural Odisha women's decision-making and capacity building through participation in Self-Help Groups and microenterprises. The block selected for the study were Banki block and Tigiria block of Cuttack district, Odisha, India. Field data were collected through survey cum interview and focused group discussion from rural women based on their working pattern, socio-economic condition, family background, education level and number of family members. For estimation purpose mean, standard deviation and chi square test were applied. The result revealed that the range of economic activities led by the microenterprises helped the rural Odisha women to earn income of their own. The economic decision-making had been enhanced with mobilization of women in organized collectives as SHGs and their participation in microenterprises. Capacity building of women regarding saving some income and spent on their personal items without any hesitation was also encouraging.

Sultana and Hossen (2013) examined the condition of women empowerment and the role of employment in women empowerment in Khulna City of Bangladesh. The sample size of the study was 120 employed and unemployed women of Khulna city and random sampling technique was followed. The authors constructed cumulative empowerment index for measuring empowerment level and used linear, regression model to reveal the causal relationship between women empowerment and its important determinants. The authors found that the employed women were more empowered than those of

unemployed women in Khulna city. The study also found that age, educational qualification household income and employment had a statistically significant positive effect on women empowerment.

Assaad, etal (2014) conducted a study in Egypt focused on individual and households determinants of women empowerment. The authors used two indicators for measuring women empowerment. One was decision-making index and the other was mobility index. The data used was drawn from the Egyptian Labour market Panel Survey (ELMPS) for 2012, where 8837 married women of aged group 15 to 49 years were surveyed. The result showed that higher education had positive impact on decision-making index whereas, negative impact on mobility index. In case of employment status, being inside the labour force increased women mobility no matter what was her employment status while not all employment status as opposed to outside labour force had a positive effect on the decision making power. Husband employment was relatively less significant for the mobility index as compared to the decision making index. Similar result found for her father's education.

Shettar (2015) analyzed the status of women empowerment in India and highlighted the issues and challenges of women empowerment. The study was based on purely from secondary sources. The study revealed that women of India are relatively disempowered and they enjoy somewhat lower status than that of men in spite of many efforts undertaken by government. It was found that acceptance of unequal gender norms by women are still prevailing in the society. The study concluded by an observation that access to Education, Employment and change in social structure are only enabling factors to women empowerment.

2.2 Reviews on Impact of Mother's Empowerment on different aspects of children's development specially children's Education

This part of review of literature deals with the impact of mother's empowerment on different aspect of their offspring, especially in children's education.

Fleiser (1977) analyzed mother's home time and the production of child quality. Child quality was measured by intelligence (IQ), level of schooling and market earning power. The results indicated that mother's home time was most effective in producing (male) child quality for mothers who had attained relatively high level of schooling.

Baker (1981) conducted a study in Midwestern city, tried to analyze the effect of mother's occupation on children's attainments. The author found that in dual employment families mother's occupation have important influence on son's, daughter's educational and occupational status. Cross-sex effects from mother to son appeared to be slightly greater than the like-sex effects from mother to daughter.

Kalmijn (1994) tried to examine the influence of mother's occupational status on children's educational attainment by using a large national cross-sectional data set. He compared the strengths of maternal and paternal influences and used birth cohorts to examine whether the relative influence of mother has changed. He found that maternal occupational status has a strong effect on schooling, this effect is independent of father's education and occupation, it persists through the schooling career, and it is as important for sons as for daughters. Some evidence suggests that the influence of mother's occupation has increased while the influence of father's occupation has decreased. In contrast, mother's education has always been as important as father's education. In general, the findings underscore the positive effects of maternal labour force participation

on child outcomes through the high-status jobs many married women now hold. At the same time, this study suggests that the independent influence of mother's socio-economic status may lead to an accumulation of educational advantages and disadvantages in subsequent generations, possibly reducing the intergenerational mobility of families.

Loury (1998) conducted a study on effects of mother's home time on children's schooling. The author determined the effect of maternal child care time on offspring years of schooling. The data used in the study came from the University of Michigan Panel study of Income Dynamics (PSID). Offspring used in the analysis included white men and women ages 20-26 in 1982 who were children of the origin of 1968 sample members. The author found that maternal child care time increased with higher maternal home productivity and fell with higher opportunity cost of home time. However, maternal child care time significantly increased the children's years of schooling. Again, the impact was limited to those whose mothers had at least 12 years of schooling. This outcome might result from differences in the composition of time inputs and thus their productivity across groups. Finally, more siblings in the same or older age groups lowered the level of schooling. The effects of younger siblings and maternal employment were generally small and insignificant.

Durrant and Sathar (2000) established the link between women's status and their investment in children. The authors used data from Pakistan Status of Women and Fertility Survey in rural Punjab. The authors found that improvement in women's status at the individual level, particularly in terms of improvement in women's position within the household, would enhance child survival, whereas improvements in women's status

at the more general community level would improve the schooling chances of children, especially girls.

Deding and Hussain (2002) tried to focus on the importance of parental education and living conditions on children's educational attainment. The authors found that parents' education, and especially mother's education, matters for children's educational attainment, and that living conditions also had some importance. For children from low education families, the result was the opposite: no state dependence, but a larger effect of living conditions. It thus seems that parental educational background is less important for children from lower educated families.

Plug (2004) estimated the effect of Mother's Schooling on Children's schooling. The data used in the paper were taken from the Wisconsin Longitudinal Survey (WLS) that contained detailed multigenerational information about families. The author used simple multiple regression analysis where children education was the dependent variable. The result showed that specially for mothers, inherited abilities and assortative mating play an important role in the intergenerational transmission of schooling both in case of own child and for adoptees.

Dolley et al (2005) tried to explore the Good Mother Hypothesis which indicated that whether Child Outcomes varied with the Mother's share of Income. The authors used data for two-parent families from the first three cycles of the National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth (NLSCY). The authors found that least squares and logit estimation did not support good mother hypothesis i.e., child activities and cognitive and behavioural or emotional outcomes were not associated with the mother's share of income. But fixed effect model support the Good Mother Hypothesis.

Rankin and Aytac (2006) conducted a study on the educational attainment process and the reasons behind the gender gap in schooling in Turkey. The authors found that one of the most important factors in explaining gender differences at the macro structural level was the level of urbanization. For girls, residence in an urban area increases the likelihood of post-primary education. Thus as the country becomes increasingly urbanized, the educational gender gap should shrink. Further, family resources especially parental education, were important determinants of education of both boys and girls. Maternal education in Turkey seemed to be more important in determining who gets a primary school education.

Namoro and Roushdy (2009) used the 2006 Egypt Labor Market Panel Survey to gauge and compare the effects of parent-specific characteristics, namely the educational attainment and the contributions made by the mother and the father to marriage costs, on children's welfare, which they measured by the cohort-mean adjusted years of education. The empirical model used for this purpose was a reduced-form regression model inspired by the collective rationality model of household decision. They observed that mothers' and fathers' characteristics had differential effects on children's education. In particular, the mother's contribution to marriage costs, unlike the father's, positively affected child schooling.

Afridi (2010) focused on greater empowerment of women in India, measured by their education and autonomy, which was found to be associated with a reduction in the extent to which their sons' educational attainment exceeds that of their daughters. The author also found the importance of women's empowerment for the intergenerational transfer of equality in educational attainment of the sexes.

Monazza and Kingdon (2010) conducted a study in Pakistan tried to focus on Parental Education and Child Health. This study investigated the relationship between parental schooling on the one hand, and child health outcomes (height and weight) and parental health-seeking behaviour (immunisation status of children), on the other. Using unique data from Pakistan, they aimed to understand the mechanisms through which parental schooling promotes better child health and health-seeking behaviour. The following 'pathways' were investigated: educated parents' greater household income, exposure to media, literacy, labour market participation, health knowledge and the extent of maternal empowerment within the home. They found that while father's education was positively associated with the 'one-off' immunization decision, mother's education was more critically associated with longer-term health outcomes in OLS equations. Instrumental variable suggested that father's health knowledge was most positively associated with immunization decisions while mother's health knowledge and her empowerment within the home were the channels through which her education impacts her child's height and weight respectively.

Niaz et al, (2010) conducted a study in Pakistan tried to focus on the impact of women's empowerment on the socio-economic conditions on family level. Purposive sampling technique followed to select sample size. Sample size was 80 empowered women. The authors found that empowered women played a major role in family. They financed their family budget, they shared in all kinds of decision-making related to family matters and they gave better education and health to their children and developed better personality. Furthermore, the authors revealed that empowered women did not exercise any gender discrimination among their children.

Kpein (2011) used DHS monogamous household data to highlight the link between mothers' empowerment and schooling decision, especially gender bias in schooling decision. The author defined a measure of mothers' empowerment using enabling factors such as mother's education, mother's age, mother's participation in labour activity, mother's participation in decision making process in the household, mother's attitude toward gender inequality, women's education and women's participation in labour activity in the community. The results of the estimations suggested that better empowered mothers' lead to a greater probability of attending school for boys and girls. The author noted great differences among countries and among years for the same countries, suggested that the effect of empowerment is dynamic and depend on the society. The author also noted differences among gender. Those differences did not allow them to systematically conclude that lower schooling of girls was due to lower empowerment of the mothers in all the countries, however, they had some cases where empowered women would be more favourable to girls than boys.

Olarenwajin (2013) conducted a study in Nigeria focused on women empowerment as a determinant of investment in children in selected rural communities. The sample size of the study was two hundred and fifty rural women of the age group of 15 to 39 years. Result showed that empowered women were better able to made positive investments in their children and hence increased their likelihood of ever attending school.

Shahidul (2013) examined the household decision-making process of fathers and mothers and explored how their respective levels of participation in decision making affected on the educational outcome for girls. Data were collected in September 2010 from questionnaires administered to the parents of female students in the sub-district of

Pirgonj in Bangladesh. The results showed that mothers had less bargaining power than fathers in the decision-making process as the mean for the mother's participation index was found to be "rarely", while the father's index was found to be "very often" when using a 5-point Likert-type scale. In the logistic regression model, the participation levels of fathers and mothers indicated diverse effects on dropout outcomes in which the father's participation positively predicted the dropout outcome for girls and the mother's participation negatively predicted the dropout outcome for girls.

Kiani and Behrman (2013) conducted a study in Pakistan tried to establish the association between mothers' empowerment and children's inoculations and schooling. The authors constructed a mothers' empowerment index from Pakistani household survey data for 1998-99 and 2007-08. The authors explored instrumental variable estimated using women's ages at the time of marriage as the identifying instrument. The authors found that the greater the mothers' empowerment the more likely that pre-school age children had completed inoculations and the younger was the age of starting school and the greater was the schooling progression rate. However, these effects were larger in absolute magnitude for urban than for rural areas which the authors suggested that the urban context facilitates the effectiveness of mothers' empowerment on investments in children's human capital. Moreover, they also were larger in absolute magnitude for daughters than for sons which the author suggested that some intergenerational own-gender reinforcement. Again, these effects were significantly larger in absolute magnitudes for 2007-08 than for 1998-99.

Luz and Agadjanian (2015) conducted a study in rural Mozambique tried to analyze the relationship between rural women's decision making autonomy and enrollment status of

primary school-age children living in their households and how this relationship differ by child's gender. Multilevel logistic model was used. The results showed a positive association of women's decision-making autonomy with the probability of being enrolled in primary school for daughters, but not for sons.

2.3 Research Gap

After an extensive review of available literature, it is found that there is a research gap in the area of mother's empowerment and its connection with children's educational attainment. Moreover, it is also observed that no study has attempted to find out the level of mother's decision making power in regard to their children's educational goal and attainments. Moreover, there is a perceptible gender difference in regard to mother's decision making regarding the educational attainment of their sons and daughters. Lastly, it is also observed that while many studies have taken into consideration domestic violence in explaining women empowerment, there is no study which has directly taken into consideration "Husband's relation with wife or Husband's cooperation with Wife" at the time of measuring women empowerment. These limitations are observed while reviewing the available literature in this field of study.