

EGYPT VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN STUDY

SECONDARY ANALYSIS OF VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN DATA
FROM THE WOMEN'S EMPOWERMENT SURVEY

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1. INTRODUCTION

This report has two primary goals. First, we introduce a proposed framework for studying women's empowerment that is adaptable to the Egyptian context. This framework both draws from and adds to the international knowledge on empowerment. We analyze women's empowerment using a pilot sample of Egyptian women surveyed June-August 2007 based on the proposed framework. Second, using this women's empowerment survey data we will also examine the relation between women's empowerment or lack thereof and exposure to domestic violence. We will limit our analysis to domestic violence (and in particular, spousal violence). The report focuses on "ever-married women" (married, divorced, widowed, or separated women) in the women's empowerment survey sample since the number of ever-married women in the sample (N: 2,372) is much larger than the number of single women in the sample (N: 134).

This report was written by Dr. Sahar El-Sheneity and Dr. Mulki Al-Sharmani from the Social Research Center at the American University in Cairo. The National Council for Women (NCW) selected the Social Research Center to conduct this secondary analysis of center's survey of women's empowerment (2007), adding to the council's larger, multi-dimensional study of violence against women in Egypt. The full study process and all research pieces, including that conducted by the Social Research Center, was funded by the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) through the Combating Violence Against Women project.

2. BACKGROUND AND STUDY SIGNIFICANCE

Violence against women is a universal problem. There have been efforts to combat the problem through international conventions, government policies, academic research, and advocacy work. The United Nations Declaration on the Elimination of Violence Against Women, adopted by the UN General Assembly in 1993, defines violence against women as "any act of gender-based violence that results in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual, or mental harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or private life." This definition encompasses a wide range of violence including but not limited to acts of violence at home and/or in various domains of the public space (e.g. workplace, market). Perpetrators of violence against women (VAW) include spouses, relatives, acquaintances, co-workers, strangers, armed factions and state institutions. The international literature on VAW shows that the most widespread form of violence against women is intimate partner violence (IPV), i.e., violence inflicted on a woman by a spouse or a partner (Heise et al 1999; WHO 2002; Kishor and Johnson 2004; WHO 2006).

There are three main points to draw from this literature. First, most coverage has focused on investigating the prevalence of IPV, risk and protective factors for IPV, and the health impacts on the victims and their children. However, there has been little analysis of the dynamics of IPV; women's coping strategies; the mechanisms of help-seeking and the obstacles to this process; and the multilayered ways to combat VAW. Second, there are doubts about the quality and ethics of the methodology and data collection techniques used in VAW studies. Third, the connection between women's empowered status (which has been measured in a wide variety of ways) and the likelihood of their exposure to violence has been driving much of the recent literature.

The ecological model is the most widely used theoretical framework to analyze violence against women and its relation to their empowerment/disempowerment. The model outlines several related factors that could contribute to violence against women or protect them from it (Heise 1998, Heise, et. al. 2002): individual, household, community, and societal factors. Individual factors that may protect women from VAW include: her level of education and/or employment, delayed marriage, her control of economic resources, her mobility, and her involvement in household decision-making. Positive household factors include high household wealth, compatibility between husband and wife in education and economic resources, living in a nuclear household, having fewer children, and gender equity in family relations. Community factors (positive and negative) include urban versus rural, poverty and/or development level, and community norms and practices regarding gender relations and equity. Last, societal factors refer to the norms and policies in the society at large that could contribute to or protect from VAW.

One assumption underlying the ecological model is that factors that are assumed to lead to a woman's empowerment will also most likely protect her from being prone to suffer from intimate partner violence. Numerous studies, nonetheless, have shown that the association between women's empowerment and their exposure to IPV is complex. That is, it is not necessarily education, work, and access to assets that protect women from intimate partner violence, but rather what these resources and skills enable women to do such as establishing a support network, accessing community-based and state institutions and developing confidence and "proactive selfhood" (self-esteem) (Schuler et al 1996; Koenig 2003; Kishor and Johnson 2004, Amoakohene 2004, Flake 2005). Further, some studies show that multiple protective factors (individual, community, and societal) act as a buffer against IPV, whereas the existence of individual protective factors (e.g. a woman's involvement in decision-making, mobility, access to resources) in the absence of other protective factors (e.g. supportive community norms and practices, protective state policies and institutions) is sometimes inadequate and in some cases even counterproductive (Schuler et al 1996; Koenig 2003).

Since Egyptian couples who live together tend to be married, hereafter we will refer to IPV in the Egyptian context as spousal violence. Both the 2005 and the 1995 Egypt Demographic Health Surveys, based on representative samples, report that one-third of Egyptian women suffer from spousal physical violence (Al Zanaty et al 2005; Al Zanaty et al 1995). Other studies that used smaller samples report spousal physical violence that range between 11-30 percent (Hassan et al 2004; Jeyaseelan et al 2004; Yount 2005; Tadros 1998). Much of this literature shows an inverse correlation between women's exposure to spousal physical violence and empower-related factors such as higher educational and/or employment levels, educational compatibility between spouses, and household wealth (Al Zanaty et al 2005, Al Zanaty et al 1995, Yount 2005). However, the studies vary regarding the significance of these reported associations.

This report contributes to both the literature on empowerment of Egyptian women and their experiences of domestic violence by providing a field-based analysis of how to measure empowerment of women and explain it using a framework that takes into account the multidimensionality and procedural nature of empowerment. In addition, we will report on our measurement of domestic violence and the risk and protective factors that are associated with it.

3. WOMEN'S EMPOWERMENT

Since ICDP (1994), the concept of women's empowerment has gained lots of attention in population research. Empowerment applies to women as well as other disadvantaged or socially excluded groups, but women's empowerment encompasses some unique elements (Kabeer, 2000; Malhotra and Schuler, 2005): 1) women are a cross-cutting category of individuals that overlaps with all these other groups; 2) household and interfamilial relations are a central locus of women's disempowerment in a way that is not true for other disadvantaged groups; and 3) women's empowerment requires systematic changes primarily in institutions that support patriarchal structures.

Section 3.1 introduces different definitions, dimensions and conceptualizations of empowerment. Section 3.2 discusses how these definitions and concepts have been operationalized in measuring empowerment in the international literature, while Section 3.3 discusses these in the Egyptian context.

3.1. Defining Empowerment

Kabeer (2000) defines empowerment as “the expansion in people's ability to make strategic life choices in a context where this ability was previously denied to them.” This widely recognized definition implies that: 1) empowerment is a process; a change from a condition of disempowerment, and 2) it involves the idea of human agency and choice; because choice necessarily implies available alternatives.

Among these choices, Kabeer distinguishes between “first-order choices” that are strategic life decisions, and “second-order” ones with less impact on people's lives. Examples of strategic choices include: livelihood, living arrangements, marriage-related decisions, and fertility-related decisions. In her definition, empowerment has three dimensions: resources, agency and achievements.

Resources include various human and social resources that enhance the ability to make choice; they form the conditions under which choices are made. Thus some resources can provide enabling or disabling environments for the empowerment process.

Agency is the ability to define one's goals and act upon them; this is the heart of the process through which the process is made. It encompasses the meaning, motivation and purpose that individuals bring to their activities; that is their “power within”. This includes both positive and negative meanings of power; the term “power to” defines their life choices and pursue them and “power over” which defines the capacity to impose ones' goals over others against their wishes.

Achievements are the outcomes of choices. Kabeer (2000) points out that choices are central to the concept of power. She points out that there are three categories of choice that need to be measured in order to make it relevant to the notion of empowerment. One set of qualifications is the conditions of choice, which refers to the distinction between choices made in the absence, or high cost, of alternatives and those made from the vantage point of alternatives. A second set of qualifications is the consequences of choice, which is sought to distinguish between first-order choices and other, less strategic choices. The third set of qualifications relates to distinguishing between choices with the potential of challenging and destabilizing social inequalities and those that replicate these

inequalities.

When discussing the dimensions of empowerment, Malhotra and Schuler (2005) emphasize agency as the defining criterion for empowerment and refer to examples where access to resources does not lead to greater control over these resources. They ensure that, while resources are often critical in ensuring that women are empowered, they are not sufficient.

The framework developed by Alsop and Heinsohn (2005) had two components: agency and opportunity structure. Agency is defined as the actor's ability to make meaningful choices; that is, the actor is able to envisage options and make a choice. Opportunity structure is defined as the formal and informal contexts within which actors operate. Working together, these two factors give rise to different degrees of empowerment: the existence, use, and achievements of choice. These degrees of empowerment can be measured by assessing 1) whether the person has an opportunity to make a choice, 2) whether s/he actually uses the opportunity to choose, and 3) once the choice is made, whether it results in the desired outcome.

3.1.1. Domains of Empowerment

When defining empowerment, one has to note that empowerment is a complex process that involves different spheres, each of which has multiple domains by itself. Failing to recognize each of these domains and how they interact together could lead to misleading results. Acknowledging that there are multiple domains of women's lives, one can realize that empowerment is multi-leveled and can be divided into the following four levels (Sen and Batliwala, 2000): 1) family/household, 2) community, 3) market, and 4) state level.

The domestic level within the family/household refers to gender-biased division of resources and labor; biased access to health, and/or education; restrictions on physical mobility; weaker role in decision making, perception to women's reproductive capacity and sexuality as family property over which women do not have control.

Community-level refers to class biases that are particularly oppressive to women, social beliefs, norms, and practices that are biased against women's reproductive and sexual autonomy.

Market level is segmented and gender-discriminatory for land, labor, credit, technology and other resources.

The state level relates to the institutional and legal systems or practices on the state level, poorly funded or poor quality government programs and health services.

These levels do not function independently; they are actually closely interrelated.

Alsop and Heinsohn (2005) mention that the complexities of measuring empowerment are dealt with by conceptualizing three different domains: state, market and society. Society level includes both family and community levels. They mention though that in some contexts, it may be necessary to remove or add to these domains.

Since power relations operate on different levels, so does empowerment. Malhotra and Schuler (2005) mention that exactly how these levels are determined varies from one discipline to another. Most disciplines use different levels of aggregation and refer to micro and macro levels. There is clarity at the highest and lowest ends but much less clarity at the intermediate level. That is, the micro level usually includes individual level while macro level includes state level. But where family, community, and market levels fall seems to differ from one field to another.

Kabeer (2000) mentions that the process of empowerment entails changes at different levels and in different dimensions: change can occur at the level of the individual, in their inner sense of self or in their access to material resource; it can occur in relationships within the family and household; or it can reflect alteration in position in the wider hierarchies of economy and state (Kabeer, 2000).

3.1.2. Multidimensionality

Women may be empowered in one area of life while not in others. Thus it should not be assumed if a development intervention promotes women's empowerment along a particular dimension that empowerment in other areas will necessarily follow. It may or it may not (Malhotra and Schuler, 2005).

This multidimensionality means that women may be empowered within familial spheres without similar gains in the political sphere. In terms of practical measurement, however, it is difficult to neatly separate the dimensions.

For example, many aspects of economic or social empowerment overlap considerably with familial dimensions, as in the case of control over domestic spending or savings, or the limitations on mobility or social activities.

Empirical research shows that some dimensions may be more closely interlinked than others. Kishor (2000a) showed that only women's lifetime exposure to employment and family structure was correlated with the survival and immunization of their children in Egypt. Jejeebhoy (2000) also found that decision-making, mobility, and access to resources were more closely related to each other than to child-related decision-making, freedom from physical threat from husbands, and control over resources.

Because of this multidimensionality, researchers must be cautious in constructing indexes or scale variables related to empowerment; this may mask different aspects of interventions on distinct aspects of empowerment. A single indicator is not usually sufficient to measure even a specific dimension of empowerment (Malhotra and Schuler, 2005).

3.2. Measuring Empowerment

Measuring empowerment is neither an easy nor straightforward task due to the complexity of the process and its multi-dimensionality. One has to be cautious though that the concept of empowerment only has meaning within its specific local contexts.

At the same time, operational definitions should be consistent for the purpose of international comparisons. In household-level studies, there is a tendency to measure

agency rather than the process of empowerment itself due to the lack of measurement over time.

There has been a focus on measuring the household decision-making process, financial control, and social or familial constraints. There have also been some trials to measure exogenous measures that influence household bargaining power such as assets at marriage, and non-labor income as well as intra-household allocation and control of resources.

The emphasis on such measures in the empirical literature corresponds with the measurement of resources and agency in the conceptual literature on the basis of a de facto operational assumption as discussed by Kabeer (2000).

3.2.1. Complexities of Measurement

Indivisibility of components: there are several complexities embedded with measurement of empowerment, one of which is that the three dimensions to be measured: resources, agency, and achievement are indivisible in determining the meaning of an indicator and hence its validity as a measure of empowerment. Thus, there is the need to cross-check the evidence provided by an indicator in order to establish that it means what it is believed to mean.

Empowerment is context-specific: behaviors and attitudes that signify empowerment in one context often have different meanings elsewhere. Context can also be important in determining the extent to which empowerment at the household or individual level is determinant of development outcomes. For example, if investments in the healthcare system are strong, then women's role as the intermediary for their children's health through better education or decision-making power in the household will be less important than when this is not the case.

Difficulties in measuring a process: empowerment is a process but processes are difficult to measure. Problems with measuring a process lie within the use of direct measures as opposed to proxy indicators; the lack of availability and use of data across time; the subjectivity inherent in assessing a process; and the shifting relevance of indicators over time.

Several authors have argued that empowerment as a process can only be measured through proxy indicators, like education and employment. However, a growing body of research has argued that the commonly used proxy variables are conceptually distant from the dimensions of gender stratification that are hypothesized to affect outcomes of interest in these studies and may be in some cases irrelevant or misleading. The relevance of a proxy measurement may depend on geographic region (Jejeebhoy, 2000), the outcome being examined (Kishor, 2000a), or the dimensions of empowerment that are of interest (Malhotra and Mather, 1997).

Ideally, the best hope of capturing a process is to follow it across at least two points in time, but women may be empowered in certain dimensions in a short period of time while other dimensions may evolve over decades. There is a considerable lack of available data over time.

The shifting meaning of indicators over time is another problem with measuring a process. Once a behavior becomes the accepted norm, there is little reason to expect that it would be influenced by an individual actor's level of empowerment. For example, once child immunization becomes a universal practice, like it has in Egypt, there is little influence of the level of empowerment on that outcome; children are likely to be immunized regardless of the level of empowerment of their mothers.

Individual empowerment should be measured as a function of the distance between the individual's behavior and the community norm.

Another issue is related to the question of values attached to these indicators and how they complicate the attempts to conceptualize and measure women's empowerment. Also, the need to measure women's own perception of their values within the family and how they are as critical to their sense of empowerment as their perceived value by other family members.

In general, most studies capture some possible slice of empowerment rather than empowerment itself. Most studies conclude that enabling factors such as education and employment, positive marriage or kinship conditions, or programmatic interventions lead to women having more choice, options, and power over their life conditions (Malhotra and Schuler, 2005).

3.3. Empowering Egyptian Women

In Egypt, like other Arab countries, there has been more focus on measuring empowerment on the macro, rather than micro, level. This has led to a body of research focusing on provisions and utilization of services, and project assessments, but very little research focusing on the individual level and the mechanisms through which the utilization and improvement of services could be attained.

Govindasamy and Malhotra (1996) studied the relation between women's position and family planning in Egypt. They used Egypt Demographic and Health Survey (DHS) 1988 data.

Mainly, Govindasamy and Malhotra tried to study if women's control over their fertility can be achieved without empowering them in other critical spheres. Specifically, they questioned whether education and employment lead to fertility control. The argument is usually stated that exposure to education promotes an ideology of independence and egalitarian marital relationships, resulting in women's greater desire for and ability to practice fertility control. Employment is assumed to increase the opportunity costs of having children, increase women's value and power in the family, giving women greater incentive and ability to control their reproduction.

Kishor (2000a) used Egypt Demographic and Health Survey (EDHS) 1995 data to study the links between female empowerment and the survival and health of their infants. In her research, the author noted that one needs to distinguish conceptually between variables that provide direct evidence of empowerment, and those that are sources of empowerment or those that can be expected to provide an appropriate setting for empowerment. According to such conceptualization, most indicators that are commonly used as proxies for female empowerment (like education and work) would fall into one of the latter two

categories rather than the first.

Kishor (2000a) used factor analysis and extracted three factors; one for each of the above axes of empowerment. In her indicators, she distinguished between control over current and past lives. The latter included indicators related to the choice of husband and wedding arrangements. Indicators of control over current lives mainly include control over household resources besides other decision-making, gender roles and perception indexes.

Results showed that sources of empowerment include age at first marriage, education, media exposure, work-related variables, and ownership of assets. Favorable settings include higher level of parents' education and having a high level of communication with her husband, while unfavorable settings include a large difference in age and educational differences between spouses, living with in-laws, or marrying a relative.

Kishor (2000b) used the same data to examine the extent to which the effects on contraceptive use, generally attributed to education and employment, are explained by more direct measures of women's empowerment. Results showed that women's empowerment is important in explaining both the need for and use of modern contraceptives, net of any education, or employment effects.

Again, Rastogi and Nguyen (2005) used the same DHS 1995 data to study the relationship between status and contraceptive use. They created some indexes of female autonomy: physical mobility index, perceived gender role index, decision-making index, and financial autonomy variables. They studied their relationship with modern contraceptive use. Their results showed that decision making index is the most important dimension of female autonomy in predicting women's use of modern contraceptives. None of the financial autonomy variables was significant.

3.4. Theoretical Framework

Building on the previous review of how empowerment is conceptualized and measured, especially in the framework proposed by Kishor (2000a) for the Egyptian context, a proposed framework for studying empowerment is outlined in Figure 1 (Annex A).

In this framework, direct indicators of empowerment are those indicators that provide evidence that a woman is empowered; that is they are the outcomes of the empowerment process. These are the indicators that we will use to define empowerment; they are apt to reflect practices that signify empowerment. That is women will have different degrees of empowerment according to these indicators.

We plan to define a set of indexes of empowerment using these indicators. The weights of these indicators within each index will be determined by the data and not predetermined.

Indirect indicators are the sources of empowerment; that is they are the intermediate step in the process that could lead to empowerment. These are either individual sources relating to one's own characteristics or non-individual ones relating to the woman's surroundings. The latter are indicators of enabling environments; those that determine the favorable settings that could lead to women's empowerment.

Indicators that are not directly related to the woman's own characteristics are related to

her own spouse, family socioeconomic status, or community. In the latter, we want to measure how common it is for women in her community to utilize different services and institutions. The more common it is, the more enabling is her environment. We also try to measure the common gender norms.

Each of the above group of indicators can operate on two levels; the household level; that is it related to relations and interactions within the household, and the community or state level; which is related to the interaction of women within their local community (neighborhood) or with state institutions. So a woman might be more empowered on the household level than she is on the community or state level or vice versa.

In Kishor's (2000a) framework, both the indirect indicators of empowerment and the enabling environments interact with each other positively. It is difficult to determine cause and effect. The more enabling the environment is, the more prevalent the indirect indicators of empowerment are, and vice versa. That is why in the proposed framework we define them all as indirect indicators. We distinguish though between individual sources and other sources of empowerment.

In the empowerment literature, positive gender values are commonly used as an evidence of empowerment. In our framework, we propose using gender values as a source rather than an evidence of empowerment. Our belief is that having positive gender values does not always translate into the application of such values in one's life; it could be more of an aspiration rather than an implementation.

Moreover, the proposed framework takes the utilization of services by other women in the community and how it could relate to women's empowerment. We provide a description of the proposed direct and indirect indicators in Annex (Section A).

4. RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

The research instrument used in the pilot study consists of three questionnaires: 1) Household Questionnaire used to collect data on background information of the household and select eligible women for individual interviews, 2) Individual Questionnaire for ever-married women aged 15-60, and, 3) Individual Questionnaire for never-married women aged 25-60 (results from which are not discussed in this paper).

The "Ever-married Questionnaire" covers a variety of topics ranging from respondent's background and demographic characteristics, health status, daily lives, ownership of assets, access to and utilization of resources, work, violence and gender-related values.

The questionnaire focuses on the measurement of domestic violence (particularly spousal violence), since the literature shows that this is the most prevalent form (Al Zanaty et al 1995, Ammar 2006, Yount 2005). Nonetheless, sexual harassment in the street and the workplace is also measured, albeit in a limited way. (Questions on harassment and violence are given in Section F.)

We measure domestic violence through the module on family relations. The first three questions in the section investigate the communication pattern between the respondent and her husband (whether they discuss different issues pertaining to their life, how they resolve disagreements and conflicts). Then the remaining questions in the section inquire

about respondents' experiences of physical violence, the perpetrators, the frequency of violence, the reasons for violence, the respondent's attitude towards it, the reactions of the respondent, and if and how she seeks help. Respondents are also asked whether they have been exposed to specific forms of emotional violence such as the threat of physical violence and divorce and what the outcomes were.

There are advantages in the violence measurement used in this survey. For instance, respondents are asked about the reasons for their exposure to physical violence, unlike the case in the 2005 and 1995 EDHS. Furthermore, respondents' attitudes towards spousal violence are investigated from multiple angles. First, we attempt to identify the attitudes of respondents towards spousal violence within the context of their own experiences of violence rather than depending solely on hypothetical scenarios as is the case in the 2005 and 1995 Egyptian DHS. Then, the respondent is asked about her attitude towards spousal violence in general. In other words, asking about the respondent's attitude towards her particular experience of spousal violence as well as her general views on the issue in two different sections allows us to have a nuanced and multilayered understanding of respondents' attitudes.

Second, the instrument asks about respondents' instant reactions to spousal violence as well as specific actions that they may have undertaken to seek long-term solutions. For instance, respondents are asked whether they did nothing, insulted their spouse, yelled at them, hit them back, talked to their family, talked to their in-laws, or left the house when they were subjected to spousal physical violence. Respondents are also asked whether they thought of seeking divorce and if they had not done that, what the reasons were. This list of possible reactions and help-seeking actions allows us to differentiate respondents according to the actions they take when they are exposed to spousal violence and the constraints on their ability to do so.

Another advantage of this instrument is that although it does not include a wide range of emotional forms of violence, it focuses on two that are significant in our local context (i.e. threat of physical violence and threat of divorce). Moreover, the outcomes of exposure to such forms of emotional violence are investigated.

A fourth strength is the use of multiple measures of VAW. That is, apart from the questions on domestic violence, there are multiple questions located in other sections that are either: 1) designed to investigate other forms of violence such as sexual harassment in workplace and other public domains or 2) can generate further data on domestic violence.

However, we are aware of a number of limitations in the instrument. The questions on spousal violence do not include any questions on sexual abuse. In addition, physical violence is broadly defined as beating, but no specific acts of physical violence are listed. This could contribute to the problem of underreporting. Another drawback is there is no measurement of exposure to current physical or emotional violence. Also, the outcomes of physical violence are not investigated.

5. SAMPLING DESIGN

The pilot study conducted by the Social Research Center (SRC) aimed at piloting the suggested tool in three different settings in Egypt. These settings were chosen to be as representative as possible of the nation. Multistage stratified sampling scheme was

applied. First, Cairo was chosen as a representative of Urban Governorates, Sharkeyah as a representative of Lower Egypt, and Menya as a representative of Upper Egypt.

The designed total sample size was 2,400 observations equally split across the three settings as follows:

1. Four sheyakhas were selected from Cairo. Two sheyakhas whose socioeconomic standards and services were below average and two above average were selected and 200 households were selected from each sheyakha,
2. In Sharkeyah, the sample was distributed between urban and rural to be as close as possible to their distribution in the Egypt Census 2006. Accordingly, the sample was split to 600 observations from rural areas and 200 from urban ones,
3. In Menya, the sample was also distributed between urban and rural to be as close as possible to their distribution in the Egypt Census 2006. Accordingly, the sample was split to 600 observations from rural areas and 200 from urban ones.

Within each of these areas, a systematic random sampling scheme was applied. Interviewers first collected data on the household, then used the household roaster to select eligible women for ever and never-married interviews. One “ever-married” and one “never-married” woman were selected from each household whenever applicable. In cases where the household had more than one woman eligible for the ever or never-married interviews, interviewers were asked to select only one woman for each interview using Kish table for random selection. Table B.1 gives the distribution of the sample successfully interviewed. We interviewed 2,402 households, 12,726 individuals, 2,372 ever-married women and 130 never-married women of age 25-60. Table B.2 gives the distribution of the sample according to urban or rural residence as well as the distribution of urban and rural regions in Lower and Upper Egypt according to the Egypt 2006 census.

Since measuring work and its relation with women’s situations and living conditions is one of the primary goals of this pilot study, we adopted a screening approach for working women in two areas in Cairo; Wayly and Basateen. Households were screened for working women. Interviewers went to randomly selected households as described by the scheme mentioned before. Here, they asked if this household had a working woman or not, if not, no interview was conducted for that household. This scheme implies that the 387 women successfully interviewed in these areas work.

Representation of the sample: as mentioned earlier, the proposed tool was piloted in three settings in Egypt. The settings were chosen to be as representative as possible of Egypt, but this sample is not a national sample. Thus one needs to be careful in interpreting results drawn from the data. No national numbers could be drawn from this sample. We need to be careful also when applying any statistical techniques to this sample since it is not self-weighted and does not represent Egypt overall. Also, the screening-for-working-women technique that was applied in half the sample in Cairo makes this part of the sample “a random sample of working women” in these areas, but not a “random sample of women” in these areas.

6. PROFILE OF EVER-MARRIED RESPONDENTS

Figure B.1 provides the population pyramid for the sample. The sample in screened areas in Cairo is the oldest in general and has the highest percent of women in the age group 40-49 (about 41 percent). It is followed by non-screened Cairo. The sample of rural Sharkeyah and rural Menya are the youngest (about 37 percent and 34 percent are in the age group 20-29 respectively).

Table B.3 shows the background and demographic characteristics of ever-married women interviewed in the study. Eighty-four percent of respondents in Cairo are currently married. In Sharkeyah, 91 percent of respondents are currently married compared to 88 percent in Menya. The percent of divorced women is the highest in Cairo (5 percent), followed by Menya (2.38 percent) then Sharkeyah (1 percent). The image is complemented when we see that the percentage of women marrying more than once in rural Menya is high (about 8 percent) compared to Sharkeyah and screened areas of Cairo, and those ever divorced constitute 8 percent of the sample in rural Menya. This implies that a high percentage of divorced women in rural Menya get remarried. We see the same pattern in non-screened areas of Cairo where 11 percent are ever-divorced and in urban Sharkeyah (6 percent).

The percentage of ever-widowed in all areas is very close to that of the currently widowed women. This indicates that widowed women tend not to remarry as often as divorced women.

In terms of fertility, 34 percent of women in screened areas of Cairo have two children and 30 percent have three, compared to 18 percent and 23 percent in Sharkeyah, and 13 percent and 15 percent in Menya. On the other hand, 20 percent of ever-married women in non screened areas of Cairo have five or more children, compared to 25 percent in Sharkeyah, while this percent rises to 39 percent in Menya. When taking into consideration that the sample distribution shows that working women in screened areas of Cairo are older in general (Figure B.1), there is an indication that working women in this area have the lowest fertility among the sampled areas.

The lowest percentage of school attendance shows in rural Menya where only 41.5 percent of respondents ever went to school. Among those who go to school, 20 percent have only had primary education. This put the total of those with no education or primary education in rural Menya at 79 percent.

In all regions, once a girl passes the primary education, the percentage dropping out of education decreases. This is shown in the percent having preparatory education, which is always lower than those with secondary education. For example, 28 percent of respondents have secondary education in Cairo compared to 6 percent with preparatory. This pattern also applies to Sharkeyah and Menya, but the percent having higher education in Cairo (39 percent) is phenomenally higher than in the two other areas (6 percent in Sharkeyah and 3 percent in Menya). This is attributed to the higher percent of women with university education or higher in screened areas (67 percent).

Traditions and norms play roles in girls' school attendance and dropout rates. Twenty-seven percent of respondents in Menya said that they have not attended school or that they dropped out because it is the norm that girls do not attend school in their family.

Affordability of expenses was also the most commonly mentioned reason for not attending or dropping out of school (21 percent in Cairo, 18 percent in Sharkeyah and 26 percent in Menya). “Not liking” school was the main reason for dropout in non screened areas in Cairo and in Sharkeyah (25 percent in both areas).

7. DIMENSIONS OF EMPOWERMENT: FINDINGS

According to the framework (Annex A), all indirect indicators of empowerment are assumed to have a positive correlation with the direct ones; that is, sources are actually utilized and translate into evidence of empowerment. We would like to investigate the multidimensionality of empowerment using the proposed indicators to understand how such indicators (both direct and indirect) correlate to represent the different dimensions of empowerment. For this purpose, factor analysis was used to investigate such a correlation.

The results of the factor analysis will help us summarize and reduce the indicators of empowerment along broad dimensions, which will make analysis easier. For instance, many of the indirect indicators of empowerment concern whether the respondent believes stereotypical norms about gender roles, such as whether the husband has the right to prevent his wife from working or whether the husband has the final decision in family planning. Rather than analyze the results of each of these indicators separately, factor analysis will assist in creating an index that summarizes a respondent’s response on all of these similar indicators into a single score. Each factor resulting from the analysis has a label and a description (Table C.3-C.6) that best describes the dimension of empowerment that the factor appears to summarize.

7.1. Evidence of empowerment

Following the proposed framework, we created a set of variables representing direct and indirect indicators. All variables representing the direct indicators of empowerment were first checked for collinearity using principal components and variables causing collinearity were dropped. All remaining non collinear variables were entered together, both on household and community or state level, in a factor analysis using principal component factor method. Rotated factor loadings were examined and those higher than 0.4 were considered for interpretation. Variables with very high communalities were dropped. The first twelve factors were retained. They explain 63 percent of the total variance (N: 2356). Table C.3 gives the factor loadings while Table C.4 gives their description.

Autonomy factors. Analysis of the data suggests that autonomy is represented in several factors. For example, Factors 1 and 12 represent dimensions of autonomy that mainly relate to mobility and freedom to make non-strategic choices. For Factor 1, the analysis showed that having the freedom to open a savings or bank account, not needing permission to do leisure activities, to use health services as well as other services, and not to borrow money are correlated. Each indicator measures an aspect of empowerment along the non-financial autonomy dimension. Thus, the label of “Autonomy” is best used to describe this factor. Individuals with higher scores for this factor can be said to have higher levels of empowerment along the autonomy dimension while individuals with lower scores on this factor have lower levels of empowerment along this dimension. Factor 12, which we label as “Autonomy 2,” concerns the ability or inability to seek

health services alone.

Involvement in decisions related to children's education and regarding buying household durables and assets are all correlated as shown in Factor 7 and could be used as an evidence of empowerment as well. Involvement in decisions related to living arrangements at time of marriage and not being consulted in sons' and daughters' marriages are all correlated as well (Factor 8).

Participation in elections (both with and without the need for "permission" from the husband) as well as self dependence in deciding on who to vote for are correlated (Factor 11).

The dimension of financial autonomy is represented in Factors 5 and 10. Factor 5 focuses on having a bank or savings account and managing it, as well as work-related autonomy, which refers to involvement in the decision to work and having non-financial benefits of work. Factor 10 focuses on managing household budget; namely being able to freely buy things for herself and having the freedom to seek medical consultation.

Autonomy and marital status. Factor 6 highlights the correlation of variables related to widowhood. It mainly focuses on self dependence after widowhood, having an inheritance, and being able to claim it as well as receiving social insurance easily whenever applicable.

Similarly, Factor 9 shows the correlation structure for ever-divorced women. This lies in their self dependence after divorce, not relinquishing any of their rights to get the divorce, and receiving satisfactory alimony from ex-husband.

Factor 2 concerns whether a woman gets help or not with daily household tasks.

Utilization of the justice system. Factors 3 and 4 relate to the utilization of the justice system (formal and informal) both for marital and non-marital problems. They both highlight the correlation between taking an action to solve such problems, satisfaction with the outcome, and feeling treated with justice.

Looking at the previous factors, the complexity of the empowerment process is evident. While some factors (Factors 3 and 4) could represent evidence of empowerment on the community level, Factors 6 and 9 (widowhood and divorce) represent a mixture of evidence both on the household and community levels.

The non-financial and work-related autonomy factors also highlight such complexity since they represent a mixture of decision making and mobility. This is attributed to the association between higher levels of mobility and the freedom to make the decisions of being mobile to different places. Seeking permission for mobility means the lack of ability to be in charge of oneself and to make the decision to go out independently.

To sum up, evidence of empowerment is represented by three main dimensions: autonomy as reflected in respondents' involvement in decision making on different levels as well as their mobility and financial autonomy; autonomy and marital status, and utilization of the justice system.

7.2. Sources of empowerment

Gender values. When analyzing sources of empowerment, indicators were created relating to opinions on spousal relations and reactions to different marital problems. Another set of indicators arose representing the differences in responses to the same problem for both husband and wife. For example, if a woman said that a wife should be “patient” if her husband is infertile, but felt that the husband should react differently (e.g. marry another woman) if his wife is infertile, then this is a difference in response.

Averages of variables representing positive gender values and beliefs about marital relations were computed for women living in the same area to represent the dominant gender values. There was an extremely high correlation between what women expressed and the average computed for women in their own neighborhoods. This high correlation would cause mathematical problems. Thus, we decided to use the variables reflecting the woman’s opinion only in further analysis but the existence of such relation stresses the importance of dominant beliefs about gender values and marital relations.

All proposed indicators relating to opinions on spousal relations and reactions to different marital problems and differences in responses for some problems were entered in factor analysis using principal component factor method. The first seven factors were retained. They explain 55 percent of the total variance (N: 2369). Table C.5 gives the factor loadings while Table C.6 gives their description.

Opinions on spousal relation are reflected in Factors 1 and 2, while attitudes towards possible exit routes to marital problems are reflected in factors 3-5 and 7. Factor 6 represents a mixture of both.

Factor 1 mainly concerns the respondent’s views on stereotyped norms about marital relations and gender roles that give husbands more control over his wife in spousal relations. These stereotypes include: the husband’s demand to prevent his wife from working; receiving his working wife’s earnings in part or in full; demanding that his wife bear another child if he so desires; and his having the final say in son’s and daughter’s marriages. It also shows that opposition to these views is correlated with opposing female genital mutilation.

Factor 2 concerns health-and fertility-related behaviors like women’s taking care of their health, bearing fewer children, using contraceptives, and seeking medical consultation when sick.

Factor 3 concerns women’s responses in particular situations of marital conflicts such as spouse’s beating of children, his unemployment, or his failure to devote adequate time to the family.

Factor 4 concerns attitudes and reactions towards other marital problems, such as the husband’s taking a second wife, flirting with other women, and/or abandonment.

Factor 5 shows the correlation between respondents’ different responses towards husband’s not respecting wife’s family and vice versa; possible reactions if he does not take her opinion into consideration in decision making; and not giving her adequate spending money.

Factor 6 shows the correlation between respondents' difference in attitudes towards husband's infertility compared to wife's infertility and possible reaction to spousal violence.

Factor 7 shows the correlation between differences in responses towards unsatisfactory sexual relations within marriage.

Before applying these factors in further analysis, we need to stress that positive gender values are not always associated with implementation of such values in one's life. They sometimes reflect aspiration of such values being implemented rather than actual implementation. On the other hand, negative gender values are usually associated with implementation of such values. It is for this reason that the proposed framework assumed that these values are a potential source of empowerment rather than an evidence contrary to what is commonly assumed in the literature.

To sum up, positive gender values are outlined by four main dimensions that reflect attitudes rather than actual implementation: opposing stereotypes about gender roles within the family; positively reacting to different marital problems; having a non-gendered attitude towards spouses' reaction to the same problems; and having positive attitudes towards fertility-related behaviors.

Other sources. Other sources of empowerment include: background variables including region of residence; socioeconomic status of the household (described below); father's education; respondent's marital status, education, relation to husband, his education, spousal age and educational differences; and current living arrangements. We assume that, when couples live in enabling communities (regions), households with better socioeconomic status are sources of empowerment. Other sources of empowerment: fathers and spouses with higher education; spousal compatibility in terms of age and education; or a woman living alone. No assumption is made in our analysis in terms of husband being a relative (e.g. a cousin) because this could influence the empowerment levels in either direction depending on the other controls.

Demographic variables include current age, age at first marriage, and number of children. The assumptions regarding age and number of children are not straightforward. It is argued in the literature both ways; empowerment may increase with age, but it also could be argued that older women become less economically independent and thus are less empowered compared to middle-aged women. The same assumption applies to having children (with special value given to having boys) since having more children can be a source of empowerment in certain regions and settings while having too many could be a burden and affects economic participation leading to less empowerment. As for age at first marriages, our assumption is that women marrying too young are less empowered.

Other variables like employment status, working for cash, length of time worked, sector of employment (i.e., government versus private), reading papers and using internet, participation in social activities, ownership of assets, and ease in accessing the formal justice system we assume have a positive relation with empowerment.

All the above variables of sources of empowerment (except for those relating to opinions and values) will be entered in analysis directly rather than in factors. This will help give better evidence for policy makers.

Living conditions. Women's living conditions are measured by their region of residence and the status of their households. The latter is usually measured via the wealth index as represented by ownership of assets, and amenities in the household. Variables on the ownership of assets as well as housing unit characteristics (type of sewage, fuel, toilet facility, water source, and persons per room) were all entered into factor analysis using principal components factors method. The first factor explained 21 percent of the total variance. We retained it after rotation and scored it to create an index of household socioeconomic status.

To explore the relation between household socioeconomic status (SES) and region of residence, the generated index was regressed on region. Table C.7a gives the results (R -squared = 0.71) while Table C.7b gives the distribution of regions according to their SES. They show that all regions differ in their SES levels and that the one associated with the highest SES is the screened area of Cairo. We expected this since the area was originally selected on the basis of its SES. Regression results as well as Table C.7b show that non-screened areas of Cairo have the second highest SES, followed by urban Sharkeyah, then rural Sharkeyah. The latter has a large span across different levels of SES. Menya comes last both urban and rural. This ranking of regions according to the SES index is expected and follows the well known ranking in Egypt where areas in Upper Egypt are more deprived than those in Lower Egypt and Urban Governorates. Both region and SES index will be used in our analysis of violence.

The correlation between region of residence and SES is high. The sampled regions are sorted according to the index created to measure the socioeconomic status of household with screened areas of Cairo having the highest SES, followed by non-screened areas, then Sharkeyah while Menya has the lowest SES.

7.3. Relationship between Sources and Evidence of Empowerment

Now that we've identified and discussed sources and evidence of empowerment, we will explore the relationship between sources and evidence of empowerment. That is, we would like to profile women having these sources and see if they are empowered or not.

To this end, we chose Factors 1 and 7 of the evidence of empowerment to represent the autonomy dimension of empowerment, and Factors 5 and 10 to represent the financial autonomy and work-related dimensions of empowerment. Each factor was then regressed on the variables representing sources of empowerment. Variables that were insignificant in all regressions were dropped from the final model. Table C.8 shows the regression results. Region was included in all models since the sample is not self weighted as mentioned earlier due to the screening of working women in parts of Cairo.

As we mentioned previously, Factor 1 of evidence of empowerment relates to mobility and making non strategic choices, while Factor 10 relates to managing household budget. The performance of the models for these two factors was not satisfactory, both in terms of obtaining interpretable results and the low R -squared. This basically tells us that the sources suggested here explain a low percent of the variability in these two factors.

When it comes to Factor 7 of evidence of empowerment (involvement in strategic choices) and Factor 5 (Financial and work related autonomy), the models perform better and more subtle interpretations are possible.

Looking at the results, one can not detect a pattern that is clearly interpretable. One region is associated with higher levels in one dimension of empowerment but with lower levels in other dimensions.

For instance, there are significant differences among regions but the pattern changes from one factor to the other. For the factor on involvement in strategic decisions (children's education and buying household durables and assets), and looking at t-test for equality of parameters, we observe that rural Menya is the lowest, followed by screened areas of Cairo and urban Menya then rural Sharkeyah and non screened areas of Cairo. Urban Sharkeyah is associated with the highest coefficient.

On the other hand, the factor on financial and work-related autonomy, and looking at t-tests for equality of parameters, we find that urban Sharkeyah was significantly lower than the other regions. All the other regions (except for rural Sharkeyah) were higher than non screened areas of Cairo. That is, screened areas of Cairo and all Menya showed better financial and work-related autonomy than non screened areas of Cairo and rural Sharkeyah. Urban Sharkeyah was the associated with the lowest level of this factor.

Most variables in the model change pattern and significance depending on the dimension of empowerment under investigation. For example, SES is significant only in financial and work-related autonomy and has a positive association with the factor, while age is positively correlated with involvement in strategic decisions. Late age at first marriage (25+) is negatively associated with Factor 7 which focuses on involvement in strategic choices (lower than those married at earlier ages), while being married at age 25-29 is positively associated with Factor 5 relating to financial and work-related autonomy (higher than those married at any other age group).

Higher levels of education are positively correlated with higher scores for financial and work-related autonomy compared to being not educated or having preparatory education. Preparatory education is the highest in Factor 7 which focuses on involvement in strategic choices. This result does not have a clear interpretation but it could be attributed to the small number of respondents having preparatory education in our sample (only 6.5 percent of ever-married respondents had preparatory education). When examining them across different variables, this could lead to structural zeros (empty cells) and affect the parameter estimates.

The only variable that was significant in all models is working for cash, which is associated with an increase in the score of Factor 7 (involvement in strategic decision) by 0.314 and in Factor 5 (financial and work-related autonomy) by 0.497. Some of the indexes on gender values were significant in Factor 7 but not Factor 5.

Caution is needed here in interpreting this result. First, the process that we are trying to measure is complex by its nature and finding a model to explain the variability in the factors of evidence of empowerment is not an easy task. This is clear in the low explanatory power of all the regression models introduced. Second, the sample size affects this analysis since some cells have very few observations and generalizing the results is not applicable. Third, as mentioned earlier, this is not a national sample and is used for profiling rather than drawing inferences about the population.

To sum up, our findings show that there was no consistent relation between sources and evidence of empowerment (with the exception of working for cash). This tells us that the empowerment of women entails a complex process that goes beyond simply having the skills and resources commonly associated with an empowered status. Perhaps we can draw from this that any policy interventions aiming at empowering women need to adopt an integrated approach, taking into account the multidimensionality of the process as well as the dynamics through which resources can operate.

8. SPOUSAL VIOLENCE: FINDINGS

8.1. Harassment

The instrument included questions on different types of violence, like harassment in the street, work place and domestic violence. Only 2.74 percent of all respondents reported harassment in the streets when asked about things that bothered them when they go out to run their daily errands. When explicitly asked about harassment in the streets, about 1 percent of respondents said that they are frequently harassed, 6 percent reported they are sometimes harassed while 7 percent said that they are rarely harassed. This leaves about 86 percent of respondents who did not report ever being harassed in the streets.

Six percent of working women reported experiencing harassment on the way to work, but only 1 percent of women in workplaces having male colleagues reported being harassed.

The above findings reveal that the low prevalence of harassment in the street or workplace. Some percentages reported are even too small to analyze. In this report we will analyze the data generated on domestic violence; specifically spousal violence.

8.2. Prevalence of Spousal Violence

Overall, 25 percent of respondents report ever having been beaten since being married, with the most common perpetrator being the husband (93 percent), which brings spousal violence to 23 percent. Table D.1 shows the characteristics of women exposed to spousal violence. The percentage of physical violence reported in our data falls within the range of the reported figures in the existing literature (e.g. 32 percent exposed to physical violence since age 15 in 2005 EDHS, and 24 percent during the preceding 12 months in Yount 2005). However, it is important to recall the limitations of the survey instrument. The questions on spousal violence in the questionnaire did not include references to sexual abuse. In addition, physical violence is broadly defined as beating, but no specific acts of physical violence were listed. This could contribute to the problem of underreporting.

When it comes to emotional violence, e.g. threats of beating or divorce, about 8 percent of respondents reported experiencing such form of violence, with non-working women in Cairo being the highest (14.5 percent) and urban Menya being the lowest (2 percent). It is to be noted that the reported percentage of emotional violence in this study is much lower than the percentage reported in 2005 EDHS (18 percent were exposed to emotional violence since age 15).

8.3. Profile of Women Exposed to Spousal Violence

Table D.1 shows the profile of women exposed to spousal violence. It is notable that the highest prevalence of physical violence was in non screened areas of Cairo (32 percent), followed by rural Sharkeyah (27 percent) and urban Menya (26 percent). The lowest prevalence of violence was for working women in the screened areas of Cairo (14 percent) followed by rural Menya (19 percent).

As shown in Table D.1, a higher percentage of women with primary or preparatory education report experiencing both physical and emotional violence. For instance, respondents with preparatory education experienced the highest prevalence of physical violence in the sample (36 percent) compared to 17 percent for respondents with secondary education and 10 percent for those with university level or higher. Also, respondents with primary or preparatory education reported the highest level of emotional violence (12 and 16 percent respectively).

About 23.5 percent of working women reported exposure to physical violence, nearly the same percentage for non-working women. There were no clear differences in terms of exposure to emotional violence where 9 percent of working women were exposed to it compared to 8 percent of non-working women.

Also, there were no differences in the percentage of women reporting exposure to both physical and emotional violence based on whether or not their most recent husband was a relative.

When looking at the profile of women reporting exposure to spousal violence in terms of their marital status, separated and divorced women had the highest prevalence (46 percent and 43 percent respectively). Also, those marrying before the age of 20 had the highest prevalence (about 26 percent) and those having no children had the lowest prevalence (11 percent). The latter result is interpretable when we look at the reasons for exposure to spousal violence since child care and child raising issues are commonly stated reasons by women for why they experienced spousal violence, at 14 percent (Figure D.2). These “stated reasons” include claims of the wife neglecting or beating the children, or being caught in the middle of a “conflict” between husband and children.

8.4. of Spousal Violence

Nineteen and one-half percent of respondents who were victims of spousal physical violence reported that beatings always occurred during the violence, while 29 percent reported being “sometimes beaten.” Twenty-four percent of respondents who reported being subjected to threats of beating from their husbands said that the men always carried through on the threats, while 50 percent of the respondents sometimes received these threats. 29 percent of respondents who reported threats of divorce also said that they suffered this form of emotional violence on a continual basis, while 34 percent sometimes received divorce threats from their husbands. Fifty-four percent of the respondents who reported receiving threats of divorce stated that they discontinued the actions that triggered the husband’s threats. Also, 37 percent of the women who were threatened to be beaten by their husbands discontinued the actions that they believed instigated these threats.

Figure D.1 displays the frequency of physical violence in different sampled regions. Respondents in rural Sharkeyah were seemingly beaten more frequently than those in the other areas.

8.5. Reasons for Spousal Violence

Figure D.2 shows the reasons for exerting violence against women who were ever beaten since their last marriage. It could be seen that answering back to their husbands is the most common reason in all areas. Child care and child raising issues as well as in-laws related problems were the second common reason across all areas.

8.6. Respondents' Attitudes towards Spousal Violence

Since rural areas in Egypt have a more dominant patriarchal system, acceptance of violence is expected to be higher in these areas. As shown in Table D.1, in rural Sharkeyah, 34 percent of respondents believe that their perpetrators had the right to use violence against them compared to 25 percent in rural Menya. Only 7 percent of women in screened areas of Cairo felt this way.

On the other hand, respondents' general views on spousal violence against women reflected a more proactive position. For example, close to 60 percent of women who reported experiencing spousal physical violence said that a wife should take action if her husband beats her and about 81 percent of these women thought that a wife should seek help if her husband is frequently beating her.

Looking at Table D.1, it is observed that levels of acceptance of violence decrease as SES increases even though the prevalence does not follow the same pattern; the highest level of acceptance is at the lowest level of SES (33 percent) while the lowest is at the highest SES (4 percent).

The percentage of women who express a degree of acceptance with the violence committed against them is very close for all levels of education except for women educated at a university level and higher, where this percent is extremely low compared to all other educational levels (3 percent). The percent is slightly lower for working women (20 percent) compared to non-working ones (24 percent). The same was true whether the spouse was a relative or not. The percentage of divorced women accepting violence is the lowest (4 percent) compared to those with other marital statuses while married women are the highest (24.5 percent).

A larger percentage of respondents who were married for the first time at the age of 15-19 expressed acceptance of violence against them (27 percent) followed by those married at 20-24 (22 percent) compared to those married at other age groups.

Tolerance of violence does not have a clear pattern with the number of children but those having no children show a considerably lower level (12 percent) than those with one (27 percent) or two children (23 percent).

8.7. Responses to Spousal Violence

To evaluate help-seeking behavior, we asked respondents what, if anything, they did during or after spousal violence. Figure D.3 displays the results. The most common reaction in all areas was simply “do nothing” while the next common reaction was to leave the house.

Thirty-six percent of respondents who have experienced violence had a positive reaction to the violence, where a positive reaction is defined as taking some positive action towards this violence. Doing nothing or just yelling at their husbands or beating them back was considered a non-positive action. Thus, a positive reaction to violence includes telling their family, husband’s family, leaving the house, or doing a similar action.

The profile of those who positively reacted to violence shows that 44 percent of respondents who experience violence in non screened areas in Cairo react to violence followed by rural Sharkeyah (43 percent) while the least reaction is in rural Menya (19 percent). Those with university education or higher (51 percent); separated or divorced (55 percent and 58 percent respectively); having fewer children (41 percent for those having no children and 44 percent for those having one child); whose spouse is not a relative (38 percent) show a higher percentage of reaction to violence. However, the data also shows that respondents at the lowest as well as highest levels of SES reported higher levels of response to violence (41 percent and 44 percent respectively). This finding needs further research for an interpretation.

There is no clear difference in the percentage reacting to violence for working (37 percent) and non-working women (35 percent), and those married at different ages.

About 27 percent of the sampled women who were ever beaten by their spouses said that they have thought of asking for divorce because of the exertion of violence against them. In Cairo, 54 percent (73 percent in screened areas) of those who said that they did not think of divorce reported that this use of violence is “not a big deal”, while 35 percent said that they feel resigned to their fate. The percentage of women who reported that their experience of spousal violence was “not a big deal” was 75 percent in rural Sharkeyah and 74 percent in rural Menya (similar to screened areas of Cairo at 48 percent). Forty-eight percent of those polled from screened areas of Cairo considered divorce, and 42 percent from the highest SES. Fifty-nine percent of respondents with university education and higher and 35 percent of those living in extended families (mostly with in-laws) reacted to violence. When it comes to the effect of children on stabilizing the marital relation, we see that 44 percent of those having no children and 44 percent of those having one child pondered divorce. The percentage is lower for those having more children.

We also see that a higher percent of those married at older ages thought of divorce as a response to their exposure to violence; 45 percent of those married at the age of 25-29 and 47 percent of those married at 30 or older did think of seeking divorce because of the violence exerted on them.

The percent of working women who said that they had thought of seeking divorce because of the violence exerted on them was 32 percent compared to 26 percent for non working women.

Seventy-five percent of divorced women said that they thought of divorce because of the use of violence against them. The image is complemented by the fact that among divorced women who were ever beaten by their last spouse, 12 percent said that spouse's ill-treatment and 23 percent said that spouse's beating them was the main reason for divorce. Ill treatment could be used as an indication of emotional violence.

On the other hand, 50 percent of separated women exposed to violence said that they thought of seeking divorce.

8.8. Spousal Violence and Empowerment

In this section we would like to explore the relation between prevalence, attitudes, reaction to violence and empowerment. The question raised here is whether empowered women are less subject to violence and whether their attitudes and reactions are related to their empowerment level or to their expressed gender values.

Table D.2 displays the percent of women exposed to violence, their attitudes, and reaction according to the developed factors of empowerment and factors relating to gender values. An ANOVA was performed on each of the topics under investigation (prevalence, attitude, and reaction) according to the quartiles of the developed factors (each separately) to investigate if there are significant differences among factor quartiles in terms of each of these issues. The table gives the percents for those factors that showed significant differences.

Autonomy. The factor on financial autonomy (Factor 10) focuses on managing household budget; namely being able to freely buy things for herself and having the freedom to seek medical consultation. This factor is inversely related to exposure to spousal violence with those at the lowest level of this factor having the highest level of exposure (26.5 percent). The same relation shows for exposure to emotional violence (10.34 percent).

Gender values. There is an inverse relation with the factor which stresses the correlation between respondents' difference in attitudes towards husband's infertility compared to wife's infertility and possible reaction to spousal violence (RMP 4). Those at the lowest level of this factor (i.e. exhibiting more gendered views on these issues) had the highest level of exposure (28 percent).

The factor concerning attitudes towards health and fertility-related behavior (HEALTH) was directly related to exposure to spousal violence with respondents at the highest level of this factor reporting experiencing the highest level of exposure to physical violence. This relationship is not clear and needs further investigation. Also, acceptance of violence was highest for women having higher levels of this factor.

Women who have the highest level of opposing stereotypes about marital relations have higher percent reacting to violence (45 percent) compared to those at lower levels of that factor.

The factor that focuses on women's responses in particular situations of marital conflicts such as spouse's beating of children, his unemployment, or his failure to devote adequate time to the family (RMP 1) is directly related to thinking of divorce or reacting to

violence except for those at the last quartile which is lower than those at the first quartile for both thinking of divorce and reacting to violence. This relationship is not clear and needs further investigation.

Utilization of the justice system. We see a connection between the factors of satisfaction with the justice system (both formal and informal) to solve marital or non marital problems (Factors 3 and 4) and exposure to violence is direct with those at the lowest levels of these factors having the lowest level of exposure to spousal violence.

Other factors. Women with higher levels of the daily household assistance factor (i.e. those getting help with carrying out daily tasks) reported higher level of reaction to violence. There is no clear pattern in thinking of divorce or reacting to violence in the other factors.

9. RISK FACTORS OF VIOLENCE

We have explored in previous sections the profile of women exposed to both physical and emotional violence as well as their empowerment profiles. We have seen that region of residence, SES, education, being separated or divorced, having children, and marrying at younger ages are all related to exposure to violence. Financial autonomy is found to be inversely related to exposure to physical violence, whereas utilization of the legal system (both formal and informal) is directly related.

So far, we have explored the relation between each of these factors and exposure to physical violence by their spouses. As mentioned earlier, physical violence is defined as ever being beaten since last marriage. Thus, spousal physical violence is defined as ever being beaten by husband since last marriage

In this section we will explore the relation between exposure to such violence and all these factors collectively. Our aim is to know what factors will stand out as significantly related to exposure to violence when all the other factors are included in the model (controlled). This will help outline the significant variables underlying the risk of exposure to both physical and emotional violence. Logistic regression is to serve for this purpose. Two models are fit; one for exposure to spousal physical violence and the other for exposure to emotional violence as defined by being threatened with beating or divorce since last marriage. Variables that were insignificant in both models were dropped from the final analysis.

Table E.1 gives the results of the logistic regression. For each variable, odds ratios are presented in the table, which indicate the relationship between the variable and the odds of being exposed to violence when controlling for all other variables. An odds ratio greater than one indicates a positive relationship between the variable and exposure to violence, while an odds ratio of less than one indicates a negative relationship between the variable and violence. Results show that all the fitted models are significant.

9.1. Background Variables

Regional. The relation between exposure to physical violence and region shows that women residing in Cairo (both screened and non-screened) and urban Sharkeyah were not significantly different from each other and that they had the highest level of exposure.

Those living in rural Sharkeyah were 39 percent less likely to be exposed to physical spousal violence, while those living in Urban Menya were 49 percent less, and those residing in Rural Menya were the least likely to be exposed to violence (68 percent less than those in Cairo and urban Sharkeyah).

When it comes to emotional violence; that is being threatened with beating or divorce, those living in Menya (both urban and rural) are less likely to be exposed to emotional violence by 88 percent and 66 percent respectively compared to those living in other areas.

At this point, we would like to note the changes observed in the patterns of the variables of region and working for cash when entered individually (Table D.1) versus when entered collectively (Table E.1). When each region was examined separately, women in screened areas of Cairo reported lower levels of exposure to spousal physical violence, whereas when the variable was entered collectively with others, the same area became insignificantly different from non screened areas of Cairo and urban Sharkeyah. These three areas had the highest risks of exposure when all the other variables were controlled.

Socioeconomic/work status. Looking at the effect of women's living condition (SES), results show that an increase in the SES index by one unit is associated with a decrease in the odds of exposure to physical violence by 23 percent.

Working for cash is associated with a 45 percent increase in the odds of exposure to physical violence. Also, the variable of working for cash contributes no differences in terms of exposure to spousal violence when entered separately (See Table D.1). On the other hand, working for cash was associated with an increased risk of exposure to physical violence by 45 percent when entered with other variables collectively (See Table E.1). These apparently contradictory results on the relationship between exposure to violence and region and work call for further in-depth ethnographic research.

Education. The association between having higher levels of education and lower risks of exposure to violence is clear. Respondents with secondary education and higher are less likely to be exposed to physical violence compared to those with other levels of education (47 percent less for those with secondary and 70 percent for those with university level or higher).

Having less education is associated with increased risk of exposure to emotional violence, with respondents having preparatory education experiencing the highest level (more than three times those with no education). However, only 6.5 percent of the interviewed respondents had preparatory education (or higher) so the number of observations within cells was too small when factoring in multiple variables. This affects the results for this category.

Marital status. Divorced women are more than two-and-a-half times as likely to have been exposed to violence than those with other marital status. When we look at the main reasons for divorce reported by ever-divorced women, we find that 9.5 percent of the respondents reported being beaten as the main reason for divorce. An additional 22 percent expressed husband's ill treatment as the main reason of divorce. These reasons are 10 percent and 15 percent, respectively, for currently divorced women. Poor treatment could be an indicator of violence (physical or emotional) not explicitly mentioned.

Divorced women also show the highest risk of having experienced emotional violence (more than five times more than those with other marital statuses). An increase in the factor of satisfaction with the justice system is also associated with 16 percent increase in the risk of exposure.

Other background variables, such as ownership of assets, work period, and work sector were not significant influential factors for physical and emotional violence and were dropped from the final models.

9.2. Demographic Variables

Children. Respondents with one or two children are almost two and a half times as likely to be exposed to spousal violence as those with no children, while those with three or more children are twice as likely to be exposed to spousal violence as those with no children. As mentioned earlier, this is corroborated by the fact that child care and child raising issues were commonly mentioned reasons for spousal violence. Other demographic variables like current age and age at first marriage were not significant in either models and were dropped from the final models.

Utilization of the justice system. Positive utilization of the justice system (formal and informal) is associated with an increase in the odds of exposure to physical violence. A unit increase in the index of satisfaction with the justice system for marital and non-marital problems is associated with an increase of 26 percent and 12 percent in the odds of being beaten respectively. This direct relation could be explained as the respondents seeking redress because of their exposure to violence. In other words, their seeking justice was a result of violence rather than a cause. On the other hand, respondents who believe that it is easy for them to access the justice have lower odds of exposure to violence by 25 percent compared to those who do not believe in this easy accessibility.

Satisfaction with the justice system for marital problems shows the same relation here as for physical violence (20 percent increase in the odds). We adopt the same interpretation as before.

Autonomy. Involvement in decisions related to living arrangements at time of marriage and not being consulted in sons' and daughters' marriages are correlated in Factor 8. A unit increase in this factor is associated with 17 percent decrease in the odds of exposure to physical violence.

Factor 10 focuses on managing household budgets, namely being able to freely buy things for herself and having the freedom to seek medical consultation. A unit increase in this factor is associated with an 8 percent decrease in the odds of exposure to physical violence. The other factors of evidence of empowerment and sources were insignificant in both models.

Other factors. Use of the internet, which reflects more access to information and is also associated with having higher levels of education, is associated with a decrease in the incidence of violence by 55 percent. A one-year increase in spousal educational difference is associated with a two percent decrease in the risk of exposure.

10. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

We can draw some central points from the analysis of this data regarding empowerment of women, profile of women who are vulnerable to violence, the risk factors of violence, attitudes and help-seeking behavior. In what follows, we will outline our main conclusions on each of the above mentioned points.

10.1. Empowerment

An empowered status for Egyptian women implies enjoyment of multidimensional autonomy. This multidimensionality makes the process complex and creating one index to summarize the whole process will hide the inherent dynamics. The relationship between sources and evidence is not straightforward; it varies depending on the source and evidence under investigation.

Autonomy was found as one of the key dimensions of women's empowerment and included respondents' involvement in decision making, mobility, financial autonomy and ability to solve one's problems.

Positive gender values seem to reflect more of respondents' attitudes but do not necessarily impact their behavior.

Working for cash is the only source that had a consistent relation with evidence of empowerment.

10.2. Profile of women vulnerable to exposure to violence

Our findings show that less educated women, especially those with lower than secondary education, face a higher risk of exposure to violence. Our survey results correspond to the 2005 EDHS which showed that 39 percent of women with secondary education or higher reported experienced physical violence, versus more than 50 percent for women with lower education (Al Zanaty et al 2005). The 1995 EDHS also reported that women who had only primary education or none were three times more likely to experience physical violence than women with secondary education or higher. (Al Zanaty et. al. 1995). Respondents who were married for the first time before the age of 20 reported higher levels of exposure to physical violence.

Women living in certain communities are at higher risks of exposure to violence, but these are communities that do not necessarily have lower SES. For example, women living in the non-screened areas of Cairo had the highest level of exposure even though they were ranked as the second region in terms of their SES index. On the other hand, Menya ranked as the region with the lowest SES, and women living there reported lower levels of exposure to violence than those living in the non-screened areas of Cairo.

Divorced and separated women reported high levels of exposure to violence by their ex-spouse than did women who'd never-married, widows, or women currently married. Divorced respondents also reported that spousal violence and ill treatment were main causes of the breakup of their marriages.

10.3. Risk factors of violence

Our findings support some of the results of existing literature regarding the relationship between spousal violence and education level, while they show a different relationship with whether or not a woman works.

Our results show that an educational level of secondary and higher is significantly associated with a reduced risk of exposure to violence. Similarly, Yount (2005) found that educational compatibility between spouses impacted women's exposure to spousal physical violence. In her sample, women who received 6-17 fewer years of education than their husband were 49 percent more likely to be beaten by their spouses than women who had the same level of education as their husbands.

The contribution of this study goes beyond confirmation of some of the main findings of the literature. For instance, this study identifies a negative association between a woman's financial autonomy as represented by managing household budget; namely respondent being able to freely buy things for herself and having the freedom to seek medical consultation and her exposure to spousal violence. This finding is significant because financial autonomy in this study is conceptualized and measured multi-dimensionally. That is, it goes beyond owning assets and includes involvement in making financial decisions for the household and for oneself.

On the other hand, other factors of evidence of empowerment such as the non-financial aspects of autonomy (e.g. mobility and involvement in non-financial decisions) as well as work-related autonomy did not show a significant relationship with the risk of exposure to both physical and emotional violence. None of the indexes on gender values was significantly associated with risks of exposure to violence.

Another significance of the findings of this study is revealing the association between accessibility of legal system and exposure to spousal violence. This finding is interesting. It suggests that women who are more likely to be exposed to spousal violence are also more likely to seek legal redress. This association can be interpreted as a reflection of awareness and agency on the part of these respondents, which is a dimension of empowerment.

Results show that there is a negative association between respondents' belief that it is easy for them to access the formal justice system and their exposure to violence.

Regarding work, our findings differed from those in the existing literature. The 2005 DHS found a difference in the prevalence of physical violence between women who worked for cash and those who did not (44.3 percent and 48.1 percent respectively). This difference was higher in the 1995 DHS where the respondents who did not work for cash were twice as likely to be exposed to spousal physical violence as those who worked for cash. Yount (2005) also found a negative association between women's employment for cash or kind and their exposure to spousal violence. In addition, in a population-based household survey that was conducted in multiple countries including Egypt, Jeyaseelan et al(2004) found a low rate of spousal violence among the Egyptian respondents (N: 631) who had an employment status that was equal or higher to their husbands.

However, our results show that women who are working for cash were significantly associated with higher risks of exposure to violence when all variables are entered into our model together. These findings call for in-depth qualitative research to understand the dynamics through which work interplays with power in the household, leading to higher risks of exposure.

10.4. Attitudes towards violence and help-seeking behavior

Respondents in rural areas had the highest levels of acceptance of violence. This is expected due to the dominant patriarchal system in these areas. Respondents living in the screened areas of Cairo, as well as those with the highest level of SES and a secondary level of education or higher, expressed the lowest levels of acceptance to violence.

Divorced and separated respondents, respondents having no children, and those married at the age of 30 or afterwards expressed low levels of acceptance of violence as well.

In addition, having high levels of SES, a university education or higher, having no children or just one child as well as divorced and separated respondents were associated with the highest level of oppositional reaction to violence.

10.5. Policy recommendations

Our findings showed a low prevalence of street and workplace harassment. Thus, policies to combat violence against women should support further research in this area since harassment is a sensitive topic and women might be reluctant to talk about their experiences. Qualitative research methods need to be introduced in conjunction with quantitative ones. At the same time, such policies should devote more attention to maintaining the environments that would keep these percentages low.

Having secondary education or higher was inversely related to the risk of exposure to violence. This relation was significant whether education was being analyzed alone or collectively with other variables. Having secondary education or higher was also associated with taking steps to eliminate or decrease such violence. Based on this finding, we recommend that policies to combat domestic violence target increasing school retention and university enrollment for girls.

The risk of exposure to violence was higher in certain regions. These regions were not necessarily the ones with lower SES. This brings the attention to the effect of dominant gender values on the community level. Policies targeting domestic violence should work to change the cultural norms and values sanctioning violence against women on a long-term and systematic basis.

The relation between utilizing the justice system and exposure to violence together with the low immediate response towards it brings the attention to the need to create facilitating mechanisms through which women can seek help in violent situations.

The relationship between exposure to violence and work was not straightforward in our study. Examined separately, both working and non-working respondents reported the same level of exposure to violence. When analyzed collectively with other variables, work was associated with an increased risk of exposure. Any policies addressing the issue

of domestic violence need to support in-depth qualitative research to help understand the dynamics through which work interplays with marital and power relations in the household leading to higher risks of exposure.

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ANNEX A: FRAMEWORK FOR STUDYING WOMEN'S EMPOWERMENT IN EGYPT

Figure A.1: Framework for studying women empowerment in Egypt

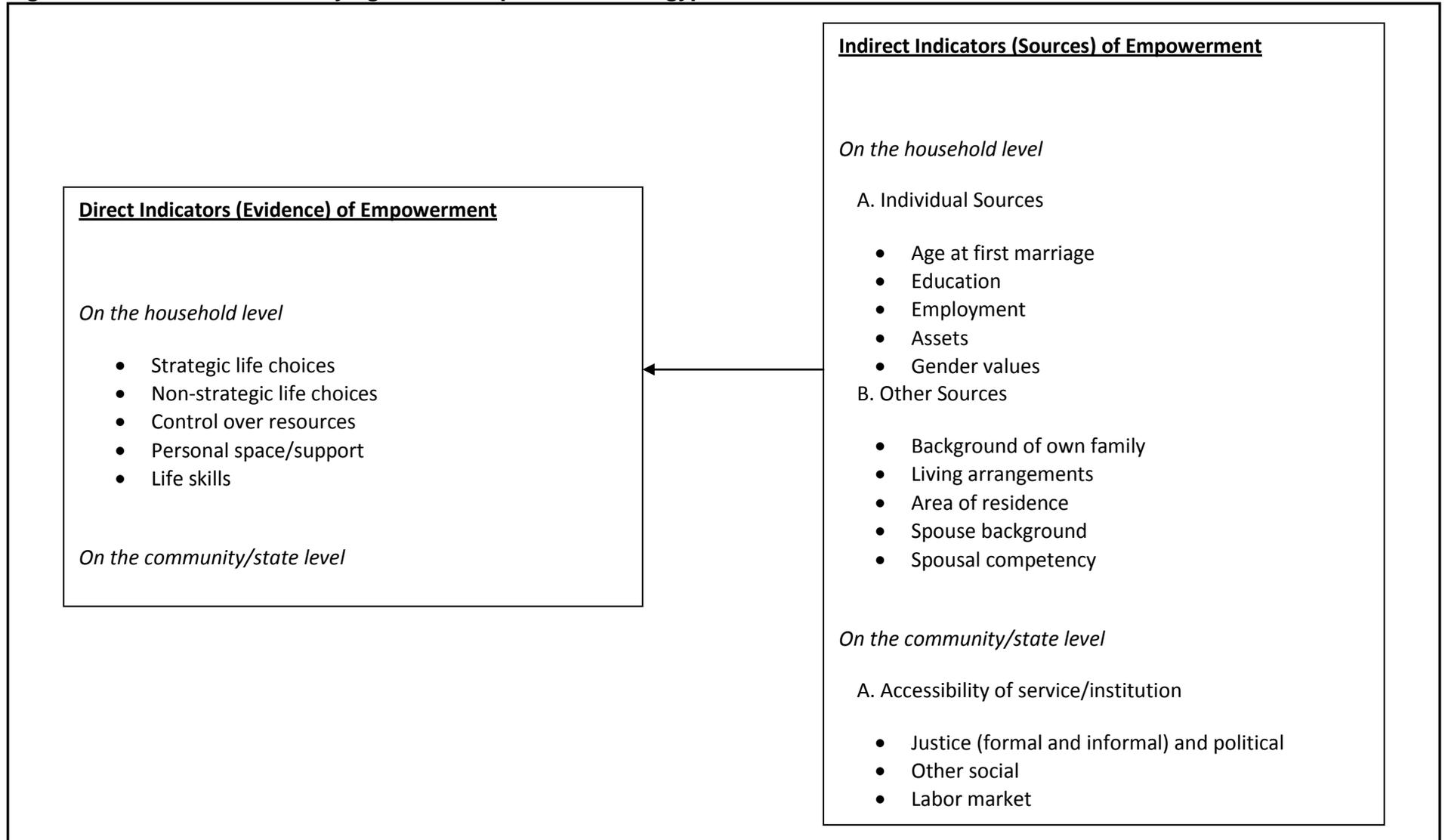


Figure A.2: Direct indicators (Evidence) of Empowerment

On the *household* level, they could be categorized into five different groups:

1. Strategic life choices are less frequent in occurrence but can provide strong evidence in favor or against empowerment. Indicators in this subgroup include:
 - a) positive involvement in decision of work before marriage,
 - b) positive role in marriage decision,
 - c) positive role in marriage process,
 - d) positive involvement in living arrangements,
 - e) positive involvement in fertility-related decisions,
 - f) positive involvement in decision of work after marriage,
 - g) positive involvement in the divorce decision (if divorced),
 - h) ability to acquire assets (decision and implementation).
2. Non-strategic life choices are those that involve daily life decisions, besides other non daily choices as well as control over oneself and body. They include:
 - a) unrestricted mobility,
 - b) gain of non-financial benefits from work (if working/worked)
 - c) taking action to eliminate violence inflicted on her,
 - d) positive involvement in decision making related to spousal sexual relation,
 - e) positive involvement in other decision makings,
3. Control over resources reflects woman's control over different resources accessible to her. These are:
 - a) control over income before marriage (if worked),
 - b) control over income after marriage (if working/worked),
 - c) control over household budget,
 - d) control over other sources of income/assets that she owns.
4. Personal space/support
 - a) having leisure time,
 - b) getting the help she needs in daily chores within affordability,
 - c) getting the help she needs for child/elderly care within affordability,
 - d) getting the help she needs for any health problem within affordability.
 - e) getting the help she needs when violence is inflicted on her.
5. Life skills mainly reflect if she can manage on her own without the need for a male-support. This includes issues of mobility and accessing different services as well as financial independence. These indicators include:
 - a) self dependence,
 - b) managing well on her own after divorce (if divorced),
 - c) managing well on her own after widowhood (if widowed),

Figure A.2 (cont'd): Direct indicators (Evidence) of Empowerment

On the *community/state* level

1. Utilization of justice (formal and informal) and political services/institutions with fair treatment and outcome. That is:
 - a) got divorced when she wanted (if divorced),
 - b) got divorced without relinquishing any of her rights (if divorced),
 - c) found the legal process of divorce satisfactory (if divorced),
 - d) utilized the justice system with fair treatment and output for non marital problems,
 - e) was not cheated out of her inheritance (if widowed),
 - f) participates in different forms of political life,
2. Utilization of other social services/institutions
 - a) receives satisfactory maintenance from ex-husband (if divorced),
 - b) receives social payments easily (if widowed),
 - c) participates in organizations,
 - d) utilizes health system with satisfactory achievements,
 - e) utilizes credit resources with positive achievement,
 - f) utilizes the education system for her children.
3. Utilization of labor market means that accessing the labor market with positive achievement, e.g. whether she tried to work and managed to find a decent job.

Figure A.3: Indirect indicators (Sources) of Empowerment

On the *household* level, they include:

1. Individual Sources

- a) reasonable age at first marriage,
- b) higher level of education
- c) work experience (before and/or after marriage),
- d) ownership of assets including marital assets, other material assets as well as other non material ones (informational, organizational, and psychological),
- e) positive gender values including opinions about gender roles/relations and exit routes to marital problems.

2. Other Sources

- a) Background of own family:
 - parents education,
 - parents occupation,
 - parents marital status at time of her marriage,
 - siblings education,
- b) Living arrangements (both at time of marriage and current one).
- c) Area of residence
- d) Spouse background (education and occupation),
- e) Spousal compatibility in terms of age, education and occupation; i.e. spouse age and educational difference.

On the *community/state* level

1. Accessibility of service/institution

- a) Justice (formal and informal) and political
 - easily accessible justice system for marital problems,
 - easily accessible justice system for non-marital problems,
 - easily accessible political system (ability to participate in elections is an example),
- b) Other social
 - Easily accessible quality affordable health services
 - Easily accessible credit resources
 - Easily accessible schools
- c) Easily accessible labor market with wide range of opportunities.

2. Utilization of service/institution by other women in community

- a) Justice (formal and informal) and political
- b) Other social
- c) Labor market

Figure A.3 (cont'd): Indirect indicators (Sources) of Empowerment

3. Dominant gender values are positive. Examples of such values are:

- a) Women should not be subject to different forms of violence,
- b) They should take action to eliminate violence inflicted on them,
- c) Husband should help his wife in housework,
- d) Women should be involved in different decisions within their families,
- e) Both husband and wife are responsible for child care,
- f) Women have the right to work and control their earnings,
- g) Both husband and wife should have equal routes in handling different marital problems.

ANNEX B

Table B.1: Distribution of successfully completed interviews by residence

			Number		
			House-Holds	Ever married	Never married
	Masr Kadima	Anwar and Eshash Baroud	200	198	10
	Wayly Than Madinat Nasr	Demerdash Sadess	200	192	20
	Basateen	Ezbat Gebreel	200	195	25
			200	195	14
Subtotal			800	780	69
	Menya Kamh	Abou Towala Hameedeyah	301	300	5
			301	295	12
	Bilbees	Bilbees	200	198	6
Subtotal			802	793	23
	Edwa	Safaneyah Kafr Mahdy	300	300	11
			300	300	10
	Samaloot	Samaloot	200	199	17
Subtotal			800	799	38
Total			2402	2372	130

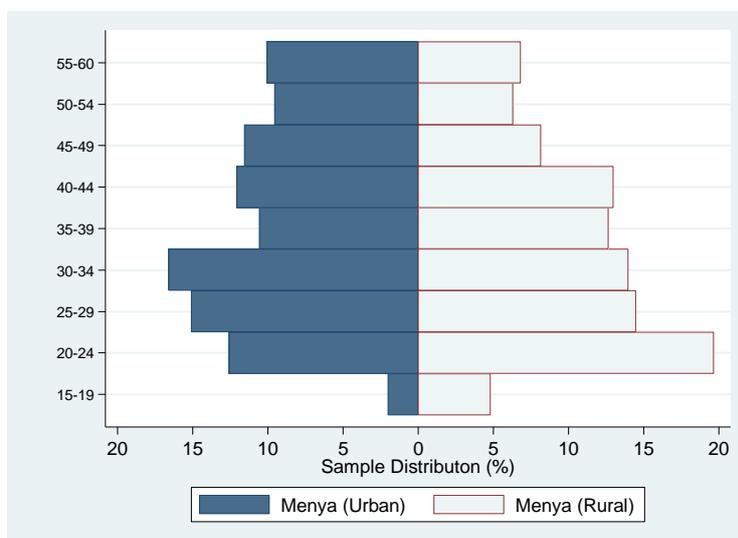
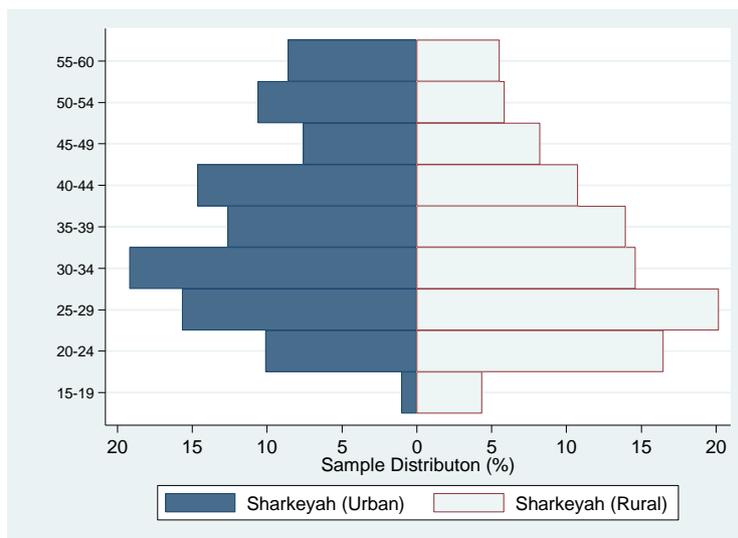
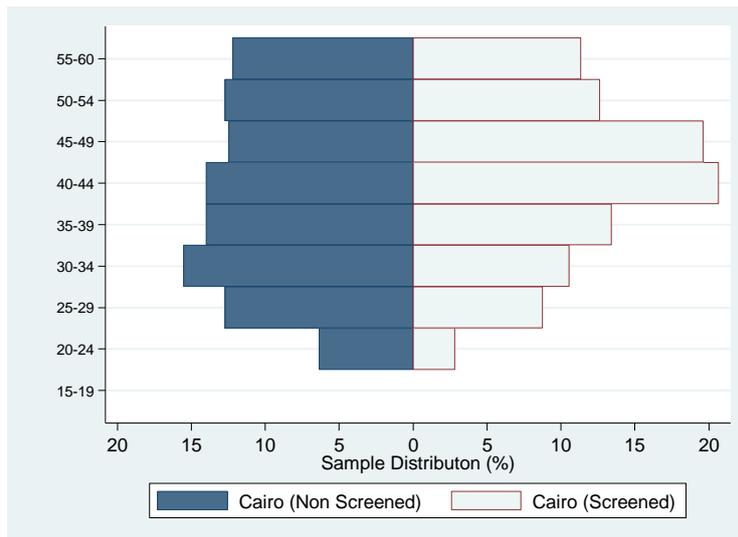
Table B.2: Distribution of sample according to urban and rural residence

Governorate	Rural	Urban	Total
Cairo	0	3,708	3,708
%	0	100	100
% in Census	0	100	100
Sharkeyah	3,028	909	3,937
%	77	23	100.00
Lower Egypt (% in Census)	76	24	100
Menya	3,915	1,166	5,081
%	77	23	100.00
Upper Egypt (% in Census)	80	20	100
Total	6,943	5,783	12,726
%	55	45	100
Egypt (% in Census)	58	42	100

Table B.3: Background of ever-married respondents

	Cairo			Sharkeyah			Menya			Total		
	Non Screened	Screened	Total	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural	Total
Age												
15-19	0	0	0.00	1.01	4.37	3.53	2.01	4.83	4.13	0.51	4.60	2.57
20-24	6.36	2.84	4.62	10.10	16.47	14.88	12.56	19.67	17.90	6.88	18.08	12.52
25-29	12.72	8.79	10.77	15.66	20.17	19.04	15.08	14.50	14.64	12.32	17.32	14.84
30-34	15.52	10.59	13.08	19.19	14.62	15.76	16.58	14.00	14.64	14.70	14.31	14.50
35-39	13.99	13.44	13.72	12.63	13.95	13.62	10.55	12.67	12.14	13.00	13.31	13.15
40-44	13.99	20.67	17.31	14.65	10.76	11.73	12.06	13.00	12.77	15.97	11.88	13.91
45-49	12.47	19.64	16.03	7.58	8.24	8.07	11.56	8.17	9.01	13.85	8.20	11.00
50-54	12.72	12.66	12.69	10.61	5.88	7.06	9.55	6.33	7.13	11.81	6.11	8.94
55-60	12.21	11.37	11.79	8.59	5.55	6.31	10.05	6.83	7.63	10.96	6.19	8.56
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
Marital Status												
Married	81.93	86.56	84.23	85.86	92.77	91.05	86.43	89.00	88.36	84.88	90.88	87.90
Separated	2.29	0.78	1.54	1.52	0.67	0.88	1.01	0.50	0.63	1.44	0.59	1.01
Divorced	4.58	4.65	4.62	1.01	0.50	0.63	2.01	2.50	2.38	3.57	1.51	2.53
Widowed	11.2	8.01	9.62	11.62	6.05	7.44	10.55	8.00	8.64	10.11	7.03	8.56
Total	100	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
Number of Marriages												
1	91.09	96.9	93.97	92.93	96.64	95.71	96.48	92.33	93.37	94.22	94.48	94.35
2	7.89	2.84	5.38	5.56	3.36	3.91	3.52	7.33	6.38	5.10	5.36	5.23
3+	1.01	0.26	0.64	1.52	0.00	0.38	0.00	0.33	0.25	0.68	0.17	0.42
Total	100	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
Ever Divorced	11.2	6.72	8.97	6.06	3.70	4.29	4.02	8.33	7.26	7.65	6.03	6.83
Ever Widowed	13.23	8.27	10.77	13.13	6.22	7.94	12.06	9.00	9.76	11.38	7.62	9.49
Number of children												
0	6.36	9.3	7.82	4.55	4.03	4.16	8.04	8.50	8.39	7.31	6.28	6.79
1	10.94	10.34	10.64	11.11	16.64	15.26	8.54	9.50	9.26	10.37	13.05	11.72
2	21.12	34.11	27.56	18.69	17.31	17.65	14.07	12.00	12.52	23.79	14.64	19.18
3	24.43	29.72	27.05	21.72	23.70	23.20	22.11	13.00	15.27	25.32	18.33	21.80
4	16.54	11.63	14.10	19.19	13.28	14.75	11.56	16.33	15.14	14.53	14.81	14.67
5+	20.6	4.92	12.82	24.75	25.04	24.97	35.68	40.67	39.42	18.69	32.89	25.84
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
Attended School	82.19	95.35	88.72	77.27	68.91	71.00	52.76	41.50	44.31	80.71	55.15	67.83
Education												
None	17.81	4.65	11.28	22.73	31.09	29.00	47.24	58.50	55.69	19.29	44.85	32.17
Primary	30.53	1.29	16.03	27.27	22.52	23.71	15.08	20.33	19.02	17.76	21.42	19.60
Preparatory	10.94	0.52	5.77	8.59	10.08	9.71	6.53	3.33	4.13	6.37	6.69	6.53
Secondary	30.28	26.61	28.46	32.83	30.76	31.27	26.13	16.00	18.52	28.80	23.35	26.05
Higher	10.43	66.93	38.46	8.59	5.55	6.31	5.03	1.83	2.63	27.78	3.68	15.64
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
N	393	387	780	198	595	793	199	600	799	1,177	1,195	2,372
Reasons for quitting/ not going to school												
Don't like school	25.41	6.90	23.44	28.95	23.75	24.95	15.00	14.17	14.35	22.39	18.36	19.89
Norms	14.34	37.93	16.85	13.16	21.11	19.27	28.57	26.90	27.27	19.17	24.36	22.40
Can't afford it	19.26	31.03	20.51	19.30	17.94	18.26	18.57	28.34	26.16	19.73	23.79	22.25
Help in childcare	12.7	3.45	11.72	11.4	13.29	10.55	11.43	13.14	12.76	11.89	11.57	11.77
Help in housework	7.38	13.79	8.06	10.53	9.5	9.74	9.29	7.39	7.81	8.31	8.92	8.54
N	244	29	273	114	379	493	140	487	627	527	866	1,393

Figure B.1: Sample distribution by age



ANNEX C

Table C.1: Description of direct indicators of empowerment

INDICATOR DESCRIPTION	MEAN	S.D.
Lived alone at time of 1 st marriage?	0.44	0.50
Involved in decision of living arrangement at 1 st marriage?	0.54	0.50
Involved in decision to work?	0.35	0.48
Have non financial benefits of work?	0.08	0.28
Free to open savings/bank account?	0.33	0.47
Have a bank/savings account?	0.17	0.38
Free to manage Bank/savings account?	0.15	0.36
Involved in decision of HH purchase: consumer durables?	0.74	0.44
Involved in decision of HH purchase: assets?	0.70	0.46
Free to manage budget: buy clothes for herself?	0.56	0.50
Free to manage budget: seek healthcare for herself?	0.55	0.50
Have daughters in marriage age and not consulted in their marriage?	0.13	0.34
Have sons in marriage age and not consulted in their marriage?	0.11	0.31
Involved in decision of children's education?	0.65	0.48
Need permission to seek medical consultation?	0.68	0.47
Doesn't go to health service alone: husband refuses?	0.66	0.47
Doesn't go to health service alone: other reasons?	0.06	0.24
Does leisure activities without permission?	0.30	0.46
Does leisure activities with permission?	0.68	0.47
Participates in voting: don't need permission?	0.11	0.32
Participates in voting: need permission?	0.14	0.35
Self dependent in voting (decides on candidate alone)?	0.15	0.35
Need permission to use services?	0.67	0.47
Need permission to borrow money?	0.71	0.45
Does daily chores and gets no help?	0.50	0.50
Does daily chores and gets help?	0.39	0.49
Does daily purchases and gets no help?	0.40	0.49
Does daily purchases and gets help?	0.38	0.49
Responsible for child study and gets no help?	0.37	0.48
Responsible for child study and gets help?	0.10	0.30
Responsible for child care and gets no help?	0.11	0.31
Responsible for child care and gets help?	0.45	0.50

Table C.1 (cont'd): Description of direct indicators of empowerment

INDICATOR DESCRIPTION	MEAN	S.D
Involved in decision of divorce?	0.05	0.22
Self dependent in divorce (Manages well alone)?	0.03	0.16
Did not relinquish any of her rights upon divorce?	0.02	0.15
Receives maintenance from ex-husband?	0.00	0.05
Self dependent in widowhood (Manages well alone)?	0.06	0.24
Had inheritance from husband and took it?	0.03	0.18
Receives social payments easily?	0.06	0.24
Had marital problem and did something?	0.04	0.20
Satisfied with the result/procedures/treatment for marital problems?	0.03	0.16
Treated with justice in the result/procedures/treatment for marital problems?	0.03	0.18
Had non-marital problem and did something?	0.04	0.19
Satisfied with the result/procedures/treatment for non marital problems?	0.03	0.16
Treated with justice in the result/procedures/treatment for non marital problems?	0.03	0.17

Table C.2: Description of indirect indicators of empowerment

INDICATOR DESCRIPTION	MEAN	S.D.
Age in complete years 15-19	0.03	0.16
Age in complete years 20-24	0.13	0.33
Age in complete years 25-29	0.15	0.36
Age in complete years 30-34	0.15	0.35
Age in complete years 35-39	0.13	0.34
Age in complete years 40-44	0.14	0.35
Age in complete years 45-49	0.11	0.31
Age in complete years 50-54	0.09	0.29
Age in complete years 55-60	0.09	0.28
Number of Living Sons 0	0.80	0.40
Number of Living Sons 1	0.05	0.21
Number of Living Sons 2	0.07	0.26
Number of Living Sons 3+	0.09	0.28
Number of Living Daughters 0	0.79	0.41
Number of Living Daughters 1	0.04	0.20
Number of Living Daughters 2	0.06	0.23
Number of Living Daughters 3+	0.11	0.31
First Marriage?	0.94	0.23
Age at first marriage <15	0.08	0.26
Age at first marriage 15-19	0.46	0.50
Age at first marriage 20-24	0.31	0.46
Age at first marriage 25-29	0.12	0.33
Age at first marriage 30+	0.04	0.19
No education?	0.32	0.47
Primary education?	0.20	0.40
Preparatory education?	0.07	0.25
Secondary education?	0.26	0.44
Higher education?	0.16	0.36
Worked/working in the past 2 years?	0.36	0.48
Work period in years	0.41	0.75
Work in government sector?	0.16	0.37
Work in private sector?	0.19	0.39
Works for cash?	0.33	0.47
Continuous job?	0.23	0.42
Almost daily reads newspaper/magazines/..?	0.10	0.30
Use the internet?	0.05	0.21
Own assets?	0.49	0.50

Table C.2 (cont'd): Description of indirect indicators of empowerment

INDICATOR DESCRIPTION	MEAN	S.D.
Wife be patient if husb. is infertile but not vice versa?	0.37	0.48
Wife be patient if husb. does not respect her family but not vice versa?	0.17	0.37
Wife be patient if not happy with marital relation but not vice versa?	0.17	0.38
Wife be patient if husb. not able of sex but not vice versa?	0.16	0.37
Do something if husb. not take her opinion?	0.79	0.41
Do something if husb. not give enough money?	0.67	0.47
Do something if husb. sometimes beats her?	0.68	0.47
Do something if husb. always beats her?"	0.88	0.32
Do something if husb. marry someone else?	0.65	0.48
Do something if husb. flirts?	0.67	0.47
Do something if husb. departed her?	0.61	0.49
Do something if husb. always beats kids?	0.87	0.34
Do something if husb. not work regularly?	0.72	0.45
Do something if husb. spends too much time with friends?	0.78	0.41
Girl should not be circumcised?	0.26	0.44
Woman should take care of her health and not have many children?	0.99	0.10
Woman can use family planning method?	0.99	0.10
She should seek medical care if she was sick?	0.99	0.12
A husband should help his wife in housework?	0.90	0.29
Husb. should not make decisions without consulting with his wife?	0.31	0.46
Husb. does not have the right to prevent his wife from working?	0.36	0.48
If wife works, she does not have to give all or part of earnings to husb?	0.46	0.50
If husb. Wants another child, the wife does not have to have it?	0.32	0.47
Husb. is not the only one who has the final say in sons/daughters' marriages?	0.37	0.48
Father Education: None	0.64	0.48
Father Education: Primary	0.10	0.30
Father Education: preparatory	0.06	0.23
Father Education: Secondary	0.08	0.28
Father Education: Higher	0.06	0.23
Father Education: Don't know	0.06	0.24
Last husband is a relative?	0.33	0.47
Husband's Education: None	0.19	0.39
Husband's Education: Primary	0.18	0.39
Husband's Education: preparatory	0.12	0.32
Husband's Education: Secondary	0.30	0.46
Husband's Education: Higher	0.21	0.41
Spousal education difference (levels) (Husband – wife)	0.42	1.11
Spousal age difference (Husband – wife)	6.85	6.10
Living alone now?	0.77	0.42
Think would be treated fairly if ever went to the police station or to prosecution /court? Very fair	0.43	0.50
How easy to proceed to any police station or prosecutors' office/court to claim rights? Easy	0.32	0.47

Table C.3: Factors for the dimensions of evidence of empowerment with the variables that are most correlated with them (factor loading of 0.4 or more)

Factor no.	Assigned factor label	Variables most correlated with the factor (loading 0.4 or more after rotation) and factor loading after rotation
1	Autonomy (Autonomy 1)	
2	Daily help (Daily)	Does daily chores and gets no help (-0.84) Does daily chores and gets help (0.84) Does daily purchase and gets no help (-0.83) Does daily purchase and gets help (0.75)
3	Satisfaction with justice system: Marital problems (SATIS MAR)	Had marital problems and did something to solve then (0.94) satisfied with the result/procedures/treatment for marital problems (0.94) Justice in the result/procedures/treatment for marital problems (0.96)
4	Satisfaction with justice system: Non marital problems (SATIS NMAR)	Had non marital problems and did something (0.95) satisfied with the result/procedures/treatment for non marital problems (0.95) Justice in the result/procedures/treatment for non marital problems (0.97)
5	Financial and work-related autonomy (FinWork Aut)	Involved in decision to work (0.45) Non financial benefits of work (0.45) Have a bank/savings account (0.92) Free to manage Bank/savings account (0.92)
6	Widowhood (Widow)	Self dependent in widowhood (0.81) Not cheated out of inheritance (0.76) Receives social payments easily (0.82)
7	Involvement in decisions (Decisions)	Involved in decision of children's education (0.54) Involved in decision of household purchase: consumer durables (0.85) Involved in decision of household: purchase: assets (0.84)

Table C.3 (cont'd): Factors for the dimensions of evidence of empowerment with the variables that are most correlated with them (factor loading of 0.4 or more)

Factor no.	Assigned factor label	Variables most correlated with the factor (loading 0.4 or more after rotation) and factor loading after rotation
8	Living arrangements (Live)	Lived alone at time of marriage (0.73) Involved in living arrangement at marriage (0.74) Have boys in marriage age and not consulted in their marriages (-0.42) Have girls in marriage age and not consulted in their marriages (-0.40) Responsible for child study and gets no help (-0.59)
9	Divorce (Divorce)	Involved in the divorce decision (0.76) Self dependent in divorce (0.66) Did not relinquish any of her rights (0.78) Receives maintenance from ex-husband (0.52)
10	Financial autonomy (Fin Aut)	Free to man. budget: buy clothes for herself (0.89) Free to man. budget: seek healthcare for herself (0.89)
11	Political participation (Voting)	Participates in elections without permission (0.70) Participates in elections with permission (0.45) Self dependent in voting (0.90)
12	Autonomy (Autonomy 2)	Not go to health service alone b/c husband refuses (-0.65) Not go to health service alone for other reasons (0.67)

Table C.4: Description of the factors for evidence of empowerment

Factor no.	Assigned factor label	Factor description
1	Autonomy (Autonomy 1)	
2	Daily help (Daily)	
3	Satisfaction with justice system: Marital problems (SATIS MAR)	
4	Satisfaction with justice system: Non marital problems (SATIS NMAR)	
5	Financial and work- related autonomy (FinWork Aut)	
6	Widowhood (Widow)	
7	Involvement in decisions (Decisions)	

Table C.4 (cont'd): Description of the factors for evidence of empowerment

Factor no.	Assigned factor label	Factor description
8	Living arrangements (Live)	
9	Divorce (Divorce)	
10	Financial autonomy (Fin Aut)	
11	Political participation (Voting)	
12	Autonomy (Autonomy 2)	

Table C.5: Factors for the opinions on spousal relations and reaction to different marital problems with the variables that are most correlated with them (factor loading of 0.4 or more)

Factor no.	Assigned factor label	Variables most correlated with the factor (loading 0.4 or more after rotation) and factor loading after rotation
1	Oppose stereotypes on spousal relations (OppStereo)	Husband does not have the right to prevent his wife from working? (0.74) If wife works, she does not have to give all or part earnings to husband? (0.69) If husband wants another child, the wife does not have to bear it? (0.66) Husband is not the only one who has the final say in sons/daughters' marriages? (0.76) Girls should not be circumcised (0.40)
2	Health care for women (Health)	A woman should take care of her health and not have many children? (0.80) A woman can use family planning method? (0.90) She should seek medical care if she was sick? (0.84)
3	Reaction to marital Problems (RMP 1)	Do something if husband always beats kids? (0.73) Do something if husband not work regularly? (0.81) Do something if husband spends too much time with friends? (0.70)
4	Reaction to marital problems (RMP 2)	Do something if husband marry someone else? (0.72) Do something if husband flirts? (0.75) Do something if husband departed her (0.59)
5	Reaction to marital problems (RMP 3)	Do something if husband not take her opinion? (0.82) Do something if husband not give enough money? (0.52) Wife patient if husband not respect her family but not vice versa? (-0.82)
6	Reaction to marital problems (RMP 4)	Wife patient if husband infertile but not vice versa (0.65) Do something if husband sometimes beats her? (0.53) Do something if husband always beats her? (0.55) Husband should take his wife's opinion into consideration (0.40)
7	Reaction to marital Problems (RMP 5)	Wife patient of not happy with marital relation but not vice versa (0.71) Wife patient of husband is sick but not vice versa (0.81)

Table C.6: Description of the factors for opinions on spousal relations and reaction to different marital problems

Factor no.	Assigned factor label	Factor description
1	Oppose stereotypes on spousal relations (OppStereo)	
2	Health care for women (Health)	
3	Reaction to marital Problems (RMP 1)	
4	Reaction to marital Problems (RMP 2)	
5	Reaction to marital Problems (RMP 3)	
6	Reaction to marital Problems (RMP 4)	
7	Reaction to marital Problems (RMP 5)	

Table C.7a: Regression of the index of household socioeconomic status on region of residence

Source	SS	df	MS	Number of obs = 2341		
Model	1653.71426	5	330.742853	F(5, 2335) =	1130.50	
Residual	683.136781	2335	.292563932	Prob > F =	0.0000	
				R-squared =	0.7077	
				Adj R-squared =	0.7070	
				Root MSE =	.54089	
Total	2336.85105	2340	.998654293			

SES	Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]	
Cairo-non screened (Ref.)						
Cairo-Screened	1.289031	.0388588	33.17	0.000	1.21283	1.365233
Sharkeyah-Urban	-.2816755	.0473194	-5.95	0.000	-.374468	-.1888831
Sharkeyah-Rural	-.9158901	.0353421	-25.92	0.000	-.9851953	-.846585
Menya-Urban	-1.15556	.0471614	-24.50	0.000	-1.248043	-1.063077
Menay-Rural	-1.008234	.0354869	-28.41	0.000	-1.077823	-.938645
Constant	.3845196	.0274596	14.00	0.000	.3306718	.4383674

Table C.7b: Distribution of Regions according to SES (6 quantiles)

Region	SES						Total
	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Cairo-No Screen	0.00	0.77	4.12	28.09	51.55	15.46	100.00
Cairo-Screened	0.00	0.52	2.07	4.13	13.95	79.33	100.00
Sharkeyah-Urban	0.51	2.54	13.71	38.58	39.09	5.58	100.00
Sharkeyah-Rural	27.41	21.15	21.32	20.98	7.78	1.35	100.00
Menya-Urban	47.24	33.67	11.56	5.53	2.01	0.00	100.00
Menya-Rural	23.32	32.99	33.33	9.33	1.04	0.00	100.00
Total	16.74	16.79	16.79	16.66	16.53	16.49	100.00

Table C.8: Regression of selected indexes of evidence of empowerment on sources of empowerment

	Factor 1		Factor 7		Factor 5		Factor 10	
	Coeff.	P-value	Coeff.	P-value	Coeff.	P-value	Coeff.	P-value
	R2 adjusted = 0.16		R2 adjusted = 0.31		R2 adjusted = 0.32		R2 adjusted = 0.11	
Constant	0.111	0.547	-0.706	0.000***	-0.521	0.002***	-0.918	0.000***
<u>Region</u>								
Cairo (non screened) (Reference)								
Cairo (screened)	0.023	0.809	-0.180	0.032**	0.174	0.041**	0.269	0.005***
Sharkeyah (Urban)	-0.098	0.260	0.325	0.000***	-0.220	0.005***	0.412	0.000***
Sharkeyah (Rural)	-0.371	0.000***	0.034	0.622	0.027	0.702	0.509	0.000***
Menya (Urban)	-0.318	0.001***	-0.351	0.000***	0.258	0.004***	0.119	0.244
Menya (Rural)	-0.420	0.000***	-0.600	0.000***	0.186	0.012**	0.352	0.000***
SES Index	-0.113	0.006***	0.013	0.717	0.207	0.000***	0.084	0.043*
<u>Age</u>								
15-19 (Reference)								
20-24	0.025	0.850	0.124	0.294	-0.022	0.855	0.017	0.903
25-29	0.101	0.443	0.671	0.000***	0.057	0.632	0.149	0.268
30-34	0.228	0.086*	0.837	0.000***	0.129	0.284	0.224	0.100*
35-39	0.315	0.018**	0.981	0.000***	0.114	0.347	0.421	0.002***
40-44	0.381	0.005***	1.032	0.000***	0.135	0.266	0.502	0.000***
45-49	0.491	0.000***	0.976	0.000***	0.134	0.285	0.454	0.001***
50-54	0.643	0.000***	0.859	0.000***	0.087	0.500	0.572	0.000***
55-60	0.737	0.000***	0.778	0.000***	0.020	0.877	0.665	0.000***

*** Significant at $\alpha = 0.01$

** Significant at $\alpha = 0.05$

* Significant at $\alpha = 0.1$

++ All models are significant with $p > F = 0.0000$

Table C.8 (cont'd): Regression of selected indexes of evidence of empowerment on sources of empowerment

	Factor 1		Factor 7		Factor 5		Factor 10	
	Coeff.	P-value	Coeff.	P-value	Coeff.	P-value	Coeff.	P-value
	R2 adjusted = 0.16		R2 adjusted = 0.31		R2 adjusted = 0.32		R2 adjusted = 0.11	
<u>Age at first marriage</u>								
<15 (Reference)								
15-19	-0.180	0.027**	-0.046	0.524	0.106	0.149	-0.052	0.532
20-24	-0.265	0.003***	-0.126	0.117	0.052	0.520	-0.078	0.394
25-29	-0.230	0.031**	-0.205	0.031**	0.213	0.027**	-0.149	0.172
30+	-0.299	0.030**	-0.345	0.005***	0.116	0.354	-0.152	0.282
First marriage?	0.064	0.473	0.051	0.523	-0.055	0.496	0.198	0.031**
<u>Education</u>								
None (Reference)								
Primary	-0.012	0.837	0.006	0.906	0.101	0.055*	0.026	0.658
Preparatory	-0.164	0.062*	0.163	0.038**	0.079	0.320	-0.027	0.768
Secondary	-0.144	0.022**	0.032	0.568	0.229	0.000***	0.092	0.151
University/higher	-0.131	0.162	-0.059	0.484	0.459	0.000***	0.137	0.156
Work(ed) for cash?	-0.097	0.068*	0.314	0.000***	0.497	0.000***	0.213	0.000***
Uses internet?	0.019	0.859	-0.117	0.209	0.302	0.001***	0.030	0.777
Own any asset?	0.003	0.941	0.131	0.001***	0.043	0.270	-0.079	0.074*

*** Significant at $\alpha = 0.01$

** Significant at $\alpha = 0.05$

* Significant at $\alpha = 0.1$

++ All models are significant with $p > F = 0.0000$

Table C.8 (cont'd): Regression of selected indexes of evidence of empowerment on sources of empowerment

	Factor 1		Factor 7		Factor 5		Factor 10	
	Coeff.	P-value	Coeff.	P-value	Coeff.	P-value	Coeff.	P-value
	R2 adjusted = 0.16		R2 adjusted = 0.31		R2 adjusted = 0.32		R2 adjusted = 0.11	
<u>Gender Values</u>								
IndF1	0.246	0.000***	0.079	0.000***	-0.016	0.450	0.104	0.000***
IndF2	0.002	0.906	0.004	0.831	-0.026	0.142	-0.003	0.878
IndF3	0.062	0.003***	0.058	0.002***	-0.018	0.351	0.007	0.744
IndF4	-0.079	0.000***	0.113	0.000***	0.000	0.991	-0.095	0.000***
IndF5	0.037	0.083*	0.029	0.124	0.007	0.720	0.029	0.188
IndF6	-0.096	0.000***	0.138	0.000***	-0.027	0.134	-0.041	0.045**
IndF7	0.023	0.249	-0.127	0.000***	0.020	0.272	0.068	0.001***
Spousal age difference (Husband – Wife)	0.005	0.107	0.003	0.407	-0.006	0.044**	0.010	0.006***

*** Significant at $\alpha = 0.01$

** Significant at $\alpha = 0.05$

* Significant at $\alpha = 0.1$

++ All models are significant with $p > F = 0.0000$

ANNEX D

Table D.1: Characteristics of respondents exposed to spousal violence, attitudes of those exposed to physical violence, reaction to it and their thoughts of seeking divorce (Row %)

	Physical Violence				
	Prevalence ¹	Right to beat ²	Thought of divorce ²	React to violence ²	
Total	23.19	22.41	26.96	35.64	8.22
<u>Region</u>					
Cairo (non screened)	32.06	15.87	35.54	44.44	14.50
Cairo (screened)	13.95	7.41	48.00	37.04	8.79
Sharkeyah (Urban)	23.23	15.22	21.74	36.96	6.57
Sahrkeyah (Rural)	26.55	33.76	24.20	42.41	9.41
Menya (Urban)	26.13	19.23	20.69	26.92	2.01
Menya (Rural)	19.00	24.56	23.21	19.30	5.17
<u>Socioeconomic Status (SES)</u> <u>(Six quantiles)</u>					
First	27.81	33.03	21.1	41.28	6.38
Second	25.19	26.53	28.28	28.28	6.62
Third	19.59	27.27	18.42	28.57	6.11
Fourth	30.77	23.33	29.17	32.50	11.28
Fifth	24.29	8.51	29.79	42.55	12.40
Sixth	11.66	4.44	42.22	44.44	6.74
<u>Education</u>					
None	27.39	25.84	25.39	32.54	5.11
Primary	30.97	23.61	28.06	33.33	11.61
Preparatory	35.48	21.82	26.42	36.36	16.13
Secondary	16.99	20.19	26.04	39.05	8.9
University or higher	9.97	2.7	58.82	51.35	5.93
<u>Worked in past 2 years?</u>					
No	23.01	23.7	26.32	34.58	7.69
Yes	23.50	19.7	32.29	37.44	9.14
<u>Living alone now?</u>					
No	23.41	25.6	35.04	36.00	7.68
Yes	23.12	21.23	26.63	35.53	8.38

1. % among all ever-married respondents

2. % among those exposed to physical spousal violence

Table D.1 (cont'd): Characteristics of respondents exposed to spousal violence, attitudes of those exposed to physical violence, reaction to it and their thoughts of seeking divorce (Row %)

	Physical Violence				
	Prevalence ¹	Right to beat ²	Thought of divorce ²	React to violence ²	
<u>Marital Status</u>					
Married	22.54	24.52	25.73	34.68	7.77
Separated	45.83	9.09	50	54.55	20.83
Divorced	43.33	3.85	75	57.69	33.33
Widowed	21.18	11.63	26.32	27.91	3.94
<u>Number of births</u>					
0	10.56	11.76	43.75	41.18	8.07
1	21.22	27.12	21.43	44.07	7.19
2	23.96	22.94	40.4	36.70	10.11
3	22.82	17.95	23.15	39.83	6.58
4+	25.70	23.48	26.69	30.77	8.53
<u>Last husband a relative?</u>					
No	23.30	21.77	28.13	38.34	8.43
Yes	22.96	23.16	29.45	29.94	7.78
<u>Age at first Marriage</u>					
<15	25.56	13.04	25	39.13	7.22
15-19	26.99	26.78	23.47	33.56	8.14
20-24	19.31	21.58	32.03	37.86	7.31
25-29	17.99	11.54	44.9	38.46	9.69
30+	20.00	5.88	47.06	35.29	14.12

1. % among all ever-married respondents

2. % among those exposed to physical spousal violence

Figure D.1: Frequency of exposure to spousal physical violence

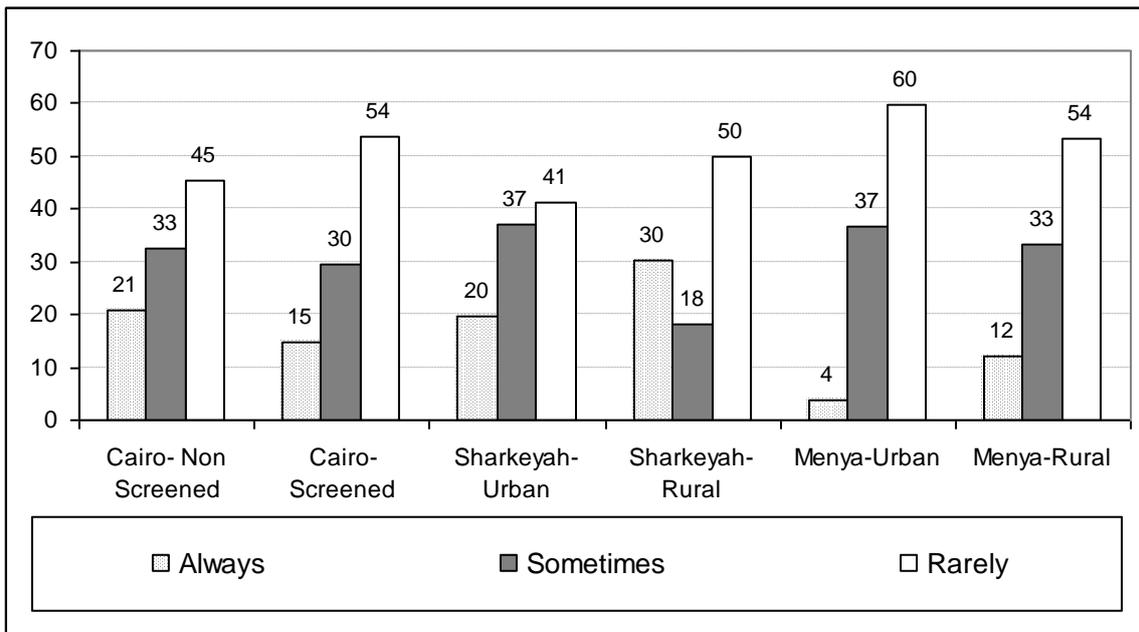


Figure D.2: Reasons for exposure to spousal physical violence

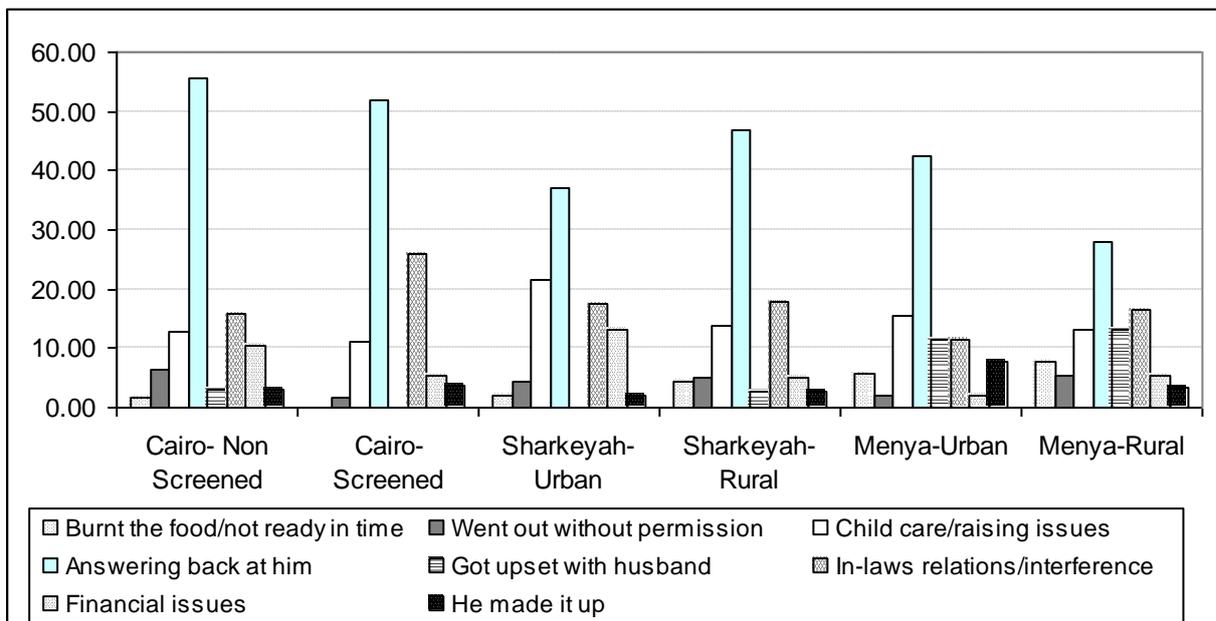


Figure D.3: Reaction to spousal physical violence

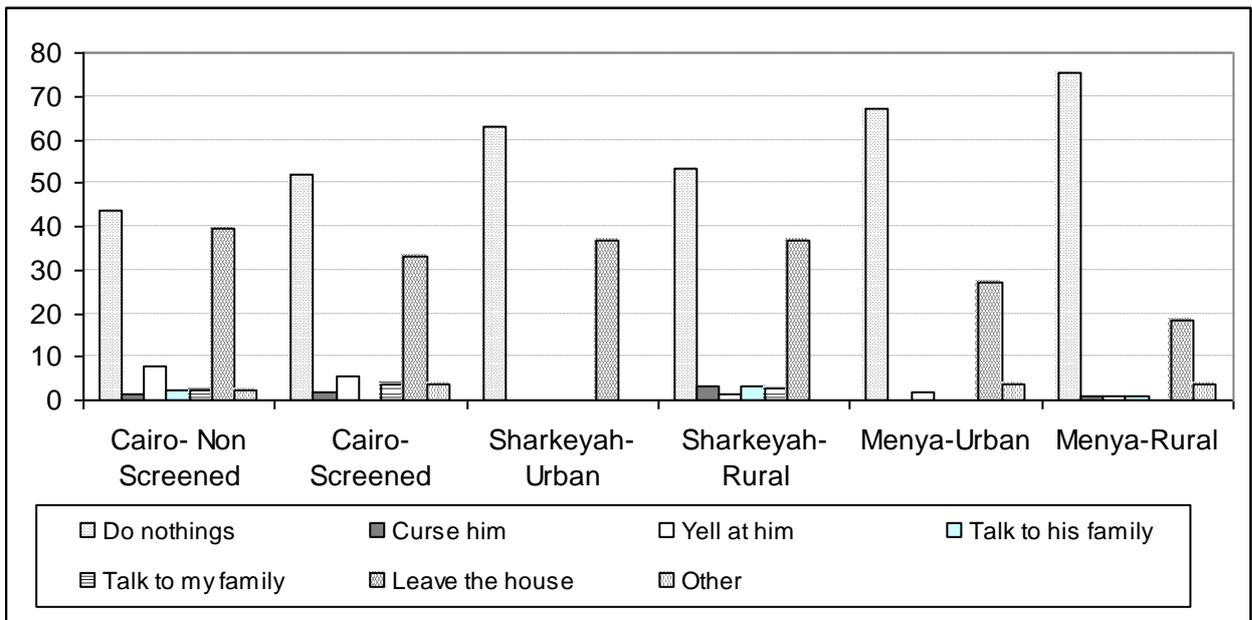


Table D.2: Exposure to spousal violence, attitudes of those exposed to physical violence, reaction to it, and their thoughts of seeking divorce according to quartiles of factors of empowerment and gender values (Row %)

	Physical Violence				
	Prevalence ¹	Right to beat ²	Thought of divorce ²	React to violence ²	
Total	23.19	22.41	26.96	35.64	8.22
Direct Factors of Empowerment					
<u>Daily Help (Factor 2)</u>					
1	26.83	21.52	-	27.85	-
2	19.52	24.35	-	34.78	-
3	20.85	17.89	-	39.84	-
4	25.21	25.85	-	40.54	-
<u>SATISMAR (Factor 3)</u>					
1	20.2	-	-	-	-
2	21.05	-	-	-	-
3	23.6	-	-	-	-
4	27.55	-	-	-	-
<u>SATISNMAR (Factor 4)</u>					
1	18.34	-	-	-	-
2	20.37	-	-	-	-
3	27.16	-	-	-	-
4	26.53	-	-	-	-
<u>FINWORK AUT (Factor 5)</u>					
1	20.03	-	-	-	-
2	25.3	-	-	-	-
3	28.35	-	-	-	-
4	18.71	-	-	-	-
<u>DECISIONS (Factor 7)</u>					
1	22.41	-	21.97	-	-
2	20.54	-	28.33	-	-
3	22.07	-	27.69	-	-
4	27.38	-	29.19	-	-

1. % among all ever-married respondents
2. % among those exposed to physical spousal violence

ANOVA was run on each factor at a time and showed insignificant difference among quartiles

Table D.2 (cont'd): Exposure to spousal violence, attitudes of those exposed to physical violence, reaction to it, and their thoughts of seeking divorce according to factors of empowerment and gender values (Row %)

	Physical Violence				
	Prevalence ¹	Right to beat ²	Thought of divorce ²	React to violence ²	
<u>LIVE (Factor 8)</u>					
1	29.88	-	-	-	-
2	25.3	-	-	-	-
3	20.37	-	-	-	-
4	16.84	-	-	-	-
<u>DIVORCE (Factor 9)</u>					
1	-	-	-	-	8.14
2	-	-	-	-	6.96
3	-	-	-	-	6.46
4	-	-	-	-	11.05
<u>FINAUT (Factor 10)</u>					
1	26.49	-	-	-	10.19
2	23.6	-	-	-	8.66
3	21.56	-	-	-	7.64
4	20.75	-	-	-	6.12
<u>AUTONOMY 2 (Factor 12)</u>					
1	-	-	-	-	10.34
2	-	-	-	-	6.8
3	-	-	-	-	8.83
4	-	-	-	-	6.63
Factors of Gender Values					
<u>OPPSTEREO (Factor 1)</u>					
1	26.98	-	-	37.5	-
2	19.93	-	-	29.66	-
3	24.32	-	-	30.56	-
4	21.62	-	-	44.53	-
<u>HEALTH (Factor 2)</u>					
1	20.24	9.17	-	26.67	-
2	20.9	20	-	43.2	-
3	24.74	26.21	-	41.38	-
4	27.03	30.19	-	31.25	-

1. % among all ever-married respondents

2. % among those exposed to physical spousal violence

ANOVA was run on each factor at a time and showed insignificant difference among quartiles

Table D.2 (cont'd): Exposure to spousal violence, attitudes of those exposed to physical violence, reaction to it and their thoughts of seeking divorce according to factors of empowerment and gender values (Row %)

	Physical Violence				
	Prevalence ¹	Right to beat ²	Thought of divorce ²	React to violence ²	
<u>RMP1 (Factor 3)</u>					
1	-	-	22.79	35.29	-
2	-	-	28.47	36.11	-
3	-	-	40.16	45.53	-
4	-	-	18.37	27.21	-
<u>RMP2 (Factor 4)</u>					
1	-	-	-	32.28	-
2	-	-	-	27.78	-
3	-	-	-	42.95	-
4	-	-	-	39.23	-
<u>RMP3 (Factor 5)</u>					
1	-	-	16.56	-	-
2	-	-	26.09	-	-
3	-	-	39.02	-	-
4	-	-	28.47	-	-
<u>RMP4 (Factor 6)</u>					
1	27.99	-	16.87	27.11	-
2	19.73	-	35.9	40.17	-
3	22.84	-	27.41	34.81	-
4	22.3	-	31.3	43.18	-
<u>RMP5 (Factor 7)</u>					
1	27.49	25.15	20.86	29.45	-
2	21.28	24	27.2	42.86	-
3	18.75	10.81	38.74	43.24	-
4	25.34	26	24.67	30.67	-

1. % among all ever-married respondents
2. % among those exposed to physical spousal violence

ANOVA was run on each factor at a time and showed insignificant difference among quartiles

ANNEX E

Table E.1: Results of logistic regression for violence⁺⁺

Variable	Physical Violence		Emotional Violence	
	Odds Ratio	P-value	Odds Ratio	P-value
Region				
Cairo (Non Screened)	Reference	Reference	Reference	Reference
Cairo (Screened)	0.850	0.528	1.418	0.332
Sharkeyah (Urban)	0.705	0.110	0.510*	0.054
Sharkeyah (Rural)	0.608*	0.010	0.674	0.149
Menya (Urban)	0.519***	0.009	0.122***	0.000
Menya (Rural)	0.318***	0.000	0.339***	0.000
SES	0.768**	0.019	0.826	0.220
Number of births				
0	Reference	Reference	Reference	Reference
1	2.135**	0.016	0.733	0.437
2	2.459***	0.003	1.173	0.654
3	1.983**	0.024	0.673	0.301
4+	1.988**	0.021	1.189	0.637
Marital status				
Married	Reference	Reference	Reference	Reference
Separated	1.781	0.238	0.929	0.926
Divorced	2.652***	0.003	5.124***	0.000
Widowed	0.832	0.351	0.463*	0.061
Education				
None	Reference	Reference	Reference	Reference
Primary	0.999	0.992	1.813**	0.017
Preparatory	1.266	0.255	3.239***	0.000
Secondary	0.532***	0.000	1.792**	0.029
University or higher	0.299***	0.000	0.985	0.970
Work(ed) for cash? (No)	1.446***	0.008	0.958	0.851
Uses Internet? (No)	0.449*	0.081	0.964	0.938

N=2259

*** Significant at $\alpha = 0.01$

** Significant at $\alpha = 0.05$

* Significant at $\alpha = 0.1$

⁺⁺ All models are significant with $p > \chi^2 = 0.0000$

Table E.1 (cont'd): Results of logistic regression for violence⁺⁺

Variable	Physical Violence		Emotional Violence	
	Odds Ratio	P-value	Odds Ratio	P-value
Spousal age difference (Husband-wife)	0.982**	0.040	1.001	0.924
Believe Easy to access justice system? (No)	0.751***	0.010	0.897	0.523
SATIS MAR	1.258***	0.000	1.162**	0.015
SATIS NMAR	1.116**	0.024	1.053	0.460
LIVE	0.827***	0.005	0.866	0.162
FIN AUT	0.915	0.102	0.822	0.021

N=2259

*** Significant at $\alpha = 0.01$

** Significant at $\alpha = 0.05$

* Significant at $\alpha = 0.1$

⁺⁺ All models are significant with $p > \chi^2 = 0.0000$

ANNEX F: QUESTIONS ON HARASSMENT AND VIOLENCE

In general, what things most annoy you when go out in the street?	Crowdedness of the street1 Crowdedness of the transportation1 Harassment1 Chaos1 Drivers (taxi, microbus,...)1 Nothing.....1 Other (specify)_____ 1
When you go out by yourself, Does someone annoy or harass you in the street, transport or in the neighborhood?	Always 1 Sometimes 2 Rarely 3 Never 4 →
What do you do when you experience harassment?	Nothing..... 1 Shout at him 2 Curse him 3 Call out to someone from the neighborhood 4 Other (specify)_____ 6
When you feel that such harassment is unbearable, what do you do?	Nothing..... 1 Curse at him 2 Call out to someone from the neighborhood 3 Other (specify)_____ 6
Do you feel that your male colleagues treat you differently from how they treat each other?	Yes 1 No 2 →
How do you feel that your male colleagues treat you differently? (Record answers mentioned up to 3)	They talk to me rudely 1 They pick on me 1 They load me with extra tasks 1 General feeling 1 Criticize my work 1 Other (specify) 1
Has anyone of them ever bothered you?	Yes 1 No 2 →
How did he bother you? (Record answers mentioned up to 3)	Talked to me rudely 1 Picked on me 1 Load me with extra tasks 1 General feeling 1 Criticize my work 1 Other (specify) 1
Has anyone of them ever (sexually) harassed you?	Yes 1 No 2
Generally, have you ever been beaten since you got married (since last marriage)?	Yes 1 No 2 →
Who beat you? (Record all mentioned)	Father 1 Brother 1 Husband 1 Mother 1 Other (specify)_____ 1
Why?	Burnt food 1 Went out without his permission 1

(Record all mentioned)	Became careless about children ..	1
	Answered him back	1
	Talked to other men	1
	Because I'm spendthrift	1
	Refused to sleep with him	1
	Because I departed marriage household	1
	Other (specify) _____	1
Does/Do (did) he/they beat you whenever this happens (happened)?	Always	1
	Sometimes	2
	Rarely	3
	Not applicable.....	7
What is the utmost thing you usually do when this happens?	Do nothing.....	1
	Curse him	2
	Yell at him	3
	Beat him	4
	Talk to his family	5
	Talk to my family	6
	Leave the house	7
	Other (specify) _____	96
Do you believe that he/they has/have the right to beat you for this/these reason(s)?	Yes	1
	No	2
	Don't know	8
(If perpetrator = 'husband', otherwise skip)	Yes	1 →
	No	2
Have you ever thought about getting divorced/ separated because of this?	Religion doesn't permit.....	7 →
What is the main reason you don't ask for divorce?	It's not a big deal	1
	Resigned to my fate	2
	Don't want to be divorced	3
	My family won't approve it	4
	Where will I live after divorce	5
	Who will cover my expenses	6
	Other (specify) _____	96
Does (did) your husband threaten to beat you?	Yes	1
	No	2 →
What was the reason?	Didn't follow what he said	1
(Record all mentioned)	Burnt food	1
	Became careless about housework	1
	Went out without his permission	1
	Became careless about children	1
	Answered him back	1
	Talked to other men	1
	Because I'm spendthrift	1
	Refused to sleep with him	1
	Refused to give him my money	1
	Other (specify) _____	1
Does (did) he threaten you whenever this happens (happened)? How often?	Always	1
	Sometimes	2
	Rarely	3
	Not applicable.....	7 →
How does (did) this affect you? That is do you stop	Stop doing it	1

doing that thing that bothers him or his threats do not make any difference to you?	Doesn't make any difference	2	
Have you ever thought about seeking divorce because of this?	Yes	1	→
	No	2	
	Religion doesn't permit	7	→
What is the main reason you don't (didn't) ask for divorce?	It's not a big deal	1	
	Resigned to my fate	2	
	Don't want to be divorced	3	
	My family won't approve it	4	
	Where I'm going to live after divorce	5	
	Who will cover my expenses	6	
	Other (specify) _____	96	
Does (did) your husband threaten to divorce you?	Yes	1	
	No	2	→
	Religion doesn't permit	7	→
What was the reason? (Record all mentioned)	Didn't follow what he said	1	
	Burnt food	1	
	Became careless about housework	1	
	Went out without his permission	1	
	Became careless about children	1	
	Answered him back	1	
	Talked to other men	1	
	Because I'm spendthrift	1	
	Refused to sleep with him	1	
	Refused to give him my money	1	
	Other (specify) _____	1	
Does (did) he threaten you whenever this happens (happened)? How often?	Always	1	
	Sometimes	2	
	Rarely	3	
	No	4	
How does (did) this affect you? That is do you stop doing that thing that bothers him or his threats do not make any difference to you?	Stop doing it	1	
	Doesn't make any difference	2	
Have you ever thought about seeking divorce because of this?	Yes	1	→
	No	2	
(if she is currently divorced or widowed, otherwise skip)			
Do (did) you generally feel that you are stable in your marital life?	Yes	1	
	No	2	