Role of Patriarchal Values and Generalized Self-Efficacy on Female Decision Making for Labour Force Participation in Afghanistan

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Abstract

Female labour force participation (FLFP) in developing countries is far lower than their male counterparts. Many factors such as household, education, culture, economic, age influence female decision making for labour force participation (LFP). The present study attempts to examine the impact of patriarchal values and generalized self-efficacy (GSE) on female decision making for labour force participation in Afghanistan. 414 responses collected using stratified sampling from females between the age of 15 to 64 years old living in Afghanistan. Females doing any activity that generates money or actively searching for a paid job, were considered participating in the labour force. We found that GSE, patriarchal value and education qualification are some of the important factors determine female decision making for labour force participation in Afghanistan. GSE play significantly positive role on female decision making for LFP. However, patriarchy do not have any impact on FLFP in the presence of other factors, however, controlling other factors (especially education), patriarchy value has significantly negative impact on FLFP. It was also found that education qualification is one of the most powerful factors determine female decision making for LFP. Female with illiterate, primary and high school certificate are less likely to enter the labour market than those with bachelor, master and Ph.D. degrees.

INTRODUCTION

Female labour force participation (FLFP) is particularly below that of

males particularly in developing countries like Afghanistan. The FLFP rate in this country was just 14.85% in 2021, which is below the world standard (50%) (WB, 2022) and South Asian standard (23.6%) (WB, 2020). This country experienced the highest female labour force participation rate (FLFPR) in 2019 with an FLFPR of 21.57 percent which has a decline of 5.38 percent in 2020 and 1.3 percent in 2021. It was 16.19 percent and 14.85 percent for 2020 and 2021 respectively. In 2021, Afghanistan was ranked 41 out of 47 in Asia and 177 out of 181 (5th from bottom) in the world ranking.

Literature in developing countries evidenced that culture is one of the powerful factors that determine females' employment status. Patriarchy values are mostly found to be one of the strongest barriers on the way for women to enter the labour market. Females, who believe in patriarchy values are less likely to enter the labour force. (Göksel, 2013; and Atasoy, 2016).

Patriarchy, is a social and ideological construct, in which males are the patriarchs and are superior to females. In a patriarchal social system, men are the primary authority and have authority not only over females and children but over property as well. The stereotypes of masculinity and femininity characters imposed by patriarchy, in which, equal power does not exist between males and females (Rawat, 2014). She states that patriarchy composes of six factors named the household, paid employment, male-on-female violence, sexuality, and cultural institutions. The term "household" refers to a home environment in which the housewife and her contributions to running the household are undervalued and devalued. Domestically, her husband is a disenfranchised class. Paid employment describes patriarchal relationships in the workplace, where women are in inferior jobs and are paid less than men for the same jobs. The state as an instrument of patriarchy supports patriarchal, racist and capitalist interests by choosing not to intervene or to intervene slowly in cases of injustice against women. The male-on-female violence is the abuse (violence and discrimination) inflicted on women based on beliefs in their inferiority and subordination. Violence against women is frequent, endured systematically and tolerated by society, but also tolerated by the state's refusal to intervene. Sexuality means that heterosexuality is and should be the norm in patriarchal settings. Other sexual preferences can be seen as violating patriarchal norms and are punishable by society. Finally, cultural institutions represent the patriarchal situation in cultural institutions and regulate women's behavior in public. For example, dress codes in public places and freedom of movement in society.

The existence of patriarchal and social relations is one of the factors

that determine women's rights in Afghanistan (Ahmed-Ghosh, 2003). Social norms control women's activities in all aspects of their lives, whether it is inside the family or in society. Even they don't have much role in their marriage and divorce decision. For instance, they get married within the group or village. Even in some cases, some families sold their 10 years old daughter as a bride for a 220-pound bag of flour (Riphenburg, 2004). The family might sell their daughter because of mass poverty, but we can not ignore the role of patriarchal values and social norms. Why did they decide to sell their daughters only? Was it the only option for surviving or they had other options as well? Is this due to poverty only or did cultural factors such as social norms, patriarchy values, and gender role attitudes also influence the parent's decision to sell their daughter?

On the other hand, the internal barrier within a female's psychology has not been discussed much in the literature. Personality Generalized Self-Efficacy (GSE) for example, affects individuals' decision makings. That is why, investigating the role of GSE on female decision making for LFP is important.

Self-efficacy is defined by Scholz *et al.* (2002) as the way people feel, think and act. It is the "degree" of an individual's belief that he or she can successfully perform (Song *et al.,* 2018; Federici and Skaalvik, 2011).

General Self-Efficacy (GSE) is defined by Scherbaum *et al.* (2006) as "*individuals' perception of their ability to perform across a variety of different situations*". It is a situation-independent competence belief. It is considered to be a stable generalized belief, by which an individual can deal with the challenges that he or she experiences.

Self-efficacy affect individuals' behavior (Song *et al.* (2018), women's employment (McKelway (2019), and positive work related outcome (Federici and Skaalvik, 2011; Tams, 2008). Self-efficacious employees had more self-confidence and a positive attitude toward their work (Liu *et al.,* 2017).

Individuals with higher levels of self-efficacy are considered to put in more task-related efforts and persist longer in the face of obstacles and as a result their chance of success increases. Whereas, people with a lower degree of self-efficacy have lower aspirations to pursue their goals and fail to complete their tasks (Tian *et al.,* 2019).

A person with a low level of self-efficacy would have depression, anxiety, and [feels] helpless (Scholz *et al.,* 2002). A low degree of self-efficacy also has negative perceptions of one's own capabilities. While high self-efficacy has a positive role and provides information to carry out actions. Those with low self-efficacy, doubt their capabilities and consider difficult tasks as treats,

whereas, those with high self-efficacy tend to regard difficult tasks and challenges. They also may set challenging goals for themselves and strive to achieve these making and maintaining an effort. A high degree of self-efficacy not only reduces stress but also decreases the likelihood of mental disorders. Self-efficacy beliefs not only influence the experience of stress and anxiety when engaging in activities but also influences the self-regulatory process (Federici and Skaalvik, 2011).

The present study, attempts to examine the role of GSE, patriarchy values and education qualifications on female decision making for labour force participation in Afghanistan. The study has five sections, introduction, literature review, methodology, results and discussion and conclusion.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Employment

Cheng *et al.* (2021) define LFP as those who have been "*in a paid job in the last 7 days, or actively sought a paid job in the last 4 weeks*". However, Andlib and Khan (2018) defined the LFP as those who are somehow engaged in economic activities, either working or looking for work.

Mollet (2011) argued that the Western concept of LFP is inappropriate for developing countries, he categorized FLFP (above 10 years old) into three groups. Labour working for wages or profit, labour working inside the home (such as payment in kind, unpaid, nomadic, hunters, fishermen, subsistence farmers etc.), and unpaid labour working outside the home (such as unpaid servants, sharecroppers, apprentices and others).

Cahalan *et al.* (2020) stated that employed women are those who have been working in the previous week (excluding housework) or those who are employed but have been temporarily absent from work for leave, illness, vacation or other reasons. Job seekers do not include in the employment.

Education Level

Education qualification is one of the most powerful factors influencing FLFP. Many studies discussed the role of the education of women on FLFP. Most of them such as Lisaniler (2005), Mansour *et al.* (2020) and Yakubu (2010) found significantly positive relationship between education and female decision for labour force participation, while some other researchers such as Shaheen *et al.* (2011) who found a negative link between education (primary, middle, and madrassa) and FLFP. On the other hand, some researchers such as Widarti (1998) found that education would have an impact on FLFP through

intermediate variables like age at first marriage and fertility.

Many researchers investigated the role of female education on FLFP and found that education was one of the main determinants of FLFP. Yakubu (2010) for example, found that females with lower levels of education were economically less active compared to higher levels of education (middle school or higher).

Lincove (2008) investigated the role of women in developing countries over time by integrating theories of education, labour and growth in longitudinal analysis. This paper noted that it is expected that economic development increases human capital development through expanding the labour market and investment in education. It is important to invest in education because the education of women determines the reduction of the fertility rate, improves child health, and finally, it will create labour market opportunities for women. Education would have a positive role in the productivity of women at home. It increases the capacity of women to benefit from modernization and also gain white-collar jobs. Furthermore, higher education would increase the opportunity cost of non-participation, it will stimulate the development of modern norms for paid and unpaid females and also determines the development of women's desire for having their own professional career.

Patriarchal Values

Diwan and Vartanova (2017) examined the relationship between culture and FLFP in developing countries, especially in Arab and Muslim societies in the global context. The data for this study comes from World Value Survey (WVS) two waves (between 2005 and 2013). The study used a log of GDP per capita as the country level variable. They found that patriarchal value was high in Muslim majority countries and among Muslims. Arab and Muslim majority countries, as well as some African countries and a few from other regions, stand out as more patriarchal compared to the rest of the world. They also found that in some countries like Egypt, female labour force participation raise fast with their education, however, in some countries like Sweden, the FLFP raises a bit more with female education.

Salari (2020) examined the role of culture and heritage language on FLFP among second-generation immigrant women in the US in the period of 1970-2017. Some cultures prepare women to stay at home, while others appreciate those women who work outside. Culture may affect married women's decision to the allocation of time for staying between home and working outside, and also their decision about education, experience, and fertility. The

result of his study shows that culture influences women's decisions regarding their labour market.

Mansour *et al.* (2020) examined the role of modernization on FLFP in Oman. The data for this study comes from the 2010 Omani census data. The researchers found a positive relationship between modernization and FLFP in the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) countries. However, they found that cultural attitudes, social norms, and traditional customs have blocked the modernization processes in the rural and desert areas of Oman.

Atasoy (2016) stated that cultural norms, religiosity and social protection are some of the factors that determine FLFP in Turkey. He explored the role of traditionalism on FLFP in this country. Probit and multinomial log model were applied for the analysis. Turkey is a conservatism society. In old patriarchal values which highly exist in Turkey, men don't want to lose their status as "breadwinner" and "the head of the family". Turkey has a very traditional culture and patriarchal norms.

Göksel (2013) stated that social norms and conservatism affect female decision making through three different links named education, marriage and concerns the labour market. The first link (education), parents are the ones to make decisions for their children's education until a certain age. For instance, if the parents do not invest in their children's education, they will not be able to go to university even because only the first 12 years of education are compulsory in Turkey. The second link (marriage), a woman in a conservatism society does not have much role in choosing her partner. That is why she would have less bargaining power in the family and she has to obey her husband after marriage. When she has low bargaining power, in other words, it means she has less influence in the decision making about the number of children. Females with a larger family may get less opportunity to enter the labour market. The third link (concerning the labour market), is in conservative societies, social norms that discourage the employment of women mean that employers can set women's wages lower. This happens mostly in the private sector. Employers may hire a man when the choice is between a man and a woman. This would cause a lower return of women to education than that of men, which strengthens the education (first) link.

Davis (2023) examined the association between culture, development and FLFP in 177 countries for 28 years (1990-2018). The patriarchal culture was measured using six indicators named the origins of gender inequality in culture, agricultural revolution timing, the use of gender specific language, patriarchal religious practices, historical rainfall fluctuations and pronominal representation.

Moreover, the researcher also created a patriarchal history index. FLFP was measured by the percentage of female economically active population above 15 years old. This paper found that patriarchal history affects FLFP. The U curve in countries with a higher level of patriarchal history would below compared to countries with a lower level of patriarchal history.

Yasmin *et al.* (2022) investigated the impact of religion and culture on FLFP. A panel logistic regression was applied using five waves of the World Values Survey (WVS) between 1989 to 2014. Researchers found a negative relationship between religiosity and traditional culture and FLFP. However, the researcher failed to find a conclusive statement regarding the relationship between religion and FLFP.

Self-Efficacy

Judge *et al.* (2007) conducted a meta-analysis on Self-Efficacy. They stated that self-efficacy as a central variable of social-cognitive theory, has been studied widely in the past 25 years. Since 1982, there have been more than 10,000 investigations on self-efficacy. Only in 2004, there was an average of 1.67 research articles published per day on this topic. Self-efficacy is considered to be one of the most focal concepts in contemporary psychological research. Self-efficacy is not only popular in psychology, but it is remarkably popular in industrial organizational psychology as well. There were more than 800 articles published on self-efficacy since 1982 in this field. As self-efficacy is called "the wave of the future" by Landy (1989) we see almost every area of organizational research has utilized self-efficacy such as training, leadership, newcomer socialization and adjustment, performance evaluation, stress, political influence behaviors, creativity, negotiation and group-team processes.

Some researchers (such as Tims *et al.,* 2014; Tian *et al.,* 2019) investigated the relationship between self-efficacy and work performance on a single day and found that individuals with high self-efficacy achieve better performance, compared to others.

A few researchers focused on constraints that internal, and psychological that keep women from working even when external constraints do not bind. McKelway (2019) argued that men's self-efficacy was higher than women's. According to him, generalized self-efficacy is considered to be particularly important in forming beliefs about capabilities in new domains. It can also play an important role in FLFP as low LFP could imply many women lack experience in employment domains. Men's General Self-Efficacy was higher than women's in many countries. Women's beliefs may affect their low

assessments of their abilities in employment-related domains. That is why, women may not try harder to overcome external barriers to their employment. This paper examined the role of women's self-efficacy in their employment. This paper collected data from 1,022 women in India. The findings show that psychosocial intervention to increase the GSE of women in India raises their employment. Furthermore, this paper finds that the reduction of external constraints raises the employment of women.

Song *et al.* (2018) investigated the impact of the learning-organization culture on the teachers' self-efficacy and work-engagement level and job performance improvement. They collected information from 593 high school teachers in South Korea. Self-efficacy was measured by using an 8-item scale. Their result shows that the effect of teachers' level of self-efficacy and work engagement was significant.

Federici and Skaalvik (2011) examined the relationship between principal self-efficacy and work engagement by using the Norwegian Principal Self-Efficacy Scale (NPSES). They randomly selected 300 public elementary schools and middle schools (1st-10th grades) in Norway. The data was collected through an electronic questionnaire. Principal self-efficacy was measured by a multi-dimensional 22-item scale (Norwegian Principal Self-Efficacy Scale). The data were analyzed utilizing Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and Structural Equation Modeling (SEM). The findings of this paper shows that principal self-efficacy was positively related to work engagement in this country.

Stajkovic and Luthans (1998) conducted a meta-analytical to aggregate and analyze the findings of individual research about the relationship between self-efficacy and work-related performance. The meta-analysis (114 studies) of this paper shows that there was a significant weighted average correlation between self-efficacy and work-related performance and a significant within-group heterogeneity of individual correlations.

Tian *et al.* (2019) investigate the mediating influence of work engagement in the self-efficacy-work performance relationship. They argued that the relationship between self-efficacy and work engagement and work performance was found to be significant. They collected data from 241 employees of three banking companies in China. Self-efficacy was measured with Luthans *et al.* (2007) psychological capital questionnaire. Structural equation modeling was used in this paper to analyze the mediating effect of work engagement in the relationship between work performance and self-efficacy. Their findings show that self-efficacy and work engagement had significantly positive effects on work

performance. The effect of self-efficacy on work performance was also significantly positive.

Liu *et al.* (2017) examined the moderator role of self-efficacy between gender and work engagement. This paper collected data from a total number of 149 employees from 107 restaurants in the US. Self-efficacy was measured by a 10-item General Self-Efficacy Scale. They found that self-efficacy moderates the impact of Perceived Organizational Support (POS) on work engagement, but only for women with low self-efficacy. It emphasizes the significance of self-efficacy for women. The moderating effect of self-efficacy on the relationship between POS and work engagement was only significant for women.

Siu *et al.* (2005) investigated the moderating role of self-efficacy on job satisfaction in China. They collected data from 233 employees in Hong Kong and Beijing. The researchers used a self-administered questionnaire survey and a quota sampling method. Self-efficacy was measured through the Chinese version of the 10-item General Self-Efficacy Scale. The paper used a 6-point Likert scale from 1 (not at all true) to 6 (exactly true). Their findings revealed that self-efficacy significantly moderated four out of six stressor-job satisfaction relationships. The finding also shows that self-efficacy did not moderate any physical symptom or behavior symptom relationship for the Hong Kong sample.

In contrast, some researchers found a negative relationship between self-efficacy and work performance. Vancouver *et al.* (2002) for example conducted two experimental studies through an analytic game. Their findings show that the self-efficacy of participants led to overconfidence and increased the likelihood of them committing logic errors during the game.

Hypothesis

H_{01} : Generalized Self-Efficacy have positive impact on female decision making for labour force participation in Afghanistan

H_{02} : Patriarchal values have negative impact on female decision making for labour force participation in Afghanistan

H_{03} : Female education level has positive impacts on female decision making for labour force participation in Afghanistan.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Sample

An adequately suggested sample size for a cause and effect relationship could range from fifty to preferably two hundred (Lindquist *et al.,* 2001). Some

other recommendations from scholars such as (Hoelter 1983; Garver and Mentzer, 1999; Malhotra and Dash, 2011) outline that an adequate size of sample for a research in the realm of social science could range between 200 and 400. A least digit of 200 might readily be sufficient for a desired path analysis based on the primary data. In addition, Boomsma (1985) recommends a digit of 200 or more, for considering maximum likelihood method in the analysis.

However, Gerbing and Anderson (1988) affirm that a sample size of 100 for a simple model having at least three items per component is enough. An alignment between the sample size and number of factors a model encompasses is highlighted in the last viewpoint. So, a sample size of 100 turns to be sufficient while a sample of 150 an optimal solution. Further, Worthington and Whittaker, (2006) suggested a least of 300 for topmost cases. Pervious literature remarks a digit of lesser than 100 or a minimum of three responses for an item as poor sample (Quinn, 2002; Velicer and Fava, 1998). However, Gorsuch (1997) considers a least of five responses for one item as satisfactory. Further, perhaps it is sufficient if an item of factor receives four responses and so a ratio of more than 0.6 factor loadings could considered an accepted proportion (Worthington and Whittaker, 2006). Also Siddiqui (2013) highlights a stepwise classification of sample digits for cause and effects studies. Samples of 50, 100, 200, 300, 500, and 1000 have been considered as very poor, poor, fair, good, very good, and excellent samples respectively. Suggestions evidenced in the literature justify the use of the digit; four hundred fourteen for the current case.

Four hundred fourteen questionnaires were collected from females between the ages of 15-64 years old living in Afghanistan. Around 34% of the respondents were between the age of 15-24, 42% percent between the age of 25-34, 14.5% were between the age of 25-44, 6.2% were between the age of 45-54, and 3.6% were between the age of 55-64 years old.

Moreover, 13.9% of the respondents were in the illiterate/primary category, 24.6% were with high school certificates, 37.7% were in the bachelor category, 21.6% were in the master category, and 2.2% were in the PhD category. Presented in Table 1.

Following Sutradhar *et al.* (2017), Faridi *et al.* (2009), and Hafeez and Ahmad (2002) method, the present study employed a cross-sectional research design to examine the association between patriarchal values and self-efficacy on FLFP in a single point of time. The cross-sectional design is easy and needs limited time and cost (Robinson *et al.*, 2005). This was the main reason, among other things to select this method for the present study. Moreover, access to the same respondent over time for follow-up research was not possible, which is

why the longitudinal design was not selected for this study. However, using a longitudinal design could be a useful approach to finding out better outcomes over the time period.

Research Instrument

A self-administered questionnaire used in this study. A dummy variable created which takes 1 for female labour force participation. Females who were doing any activity that generates money or actively searching for a paid job, and 0 otherwise.

The Generalized self-efficacy was measured using the Generalized Self-Efficacy scale (10 items) adopted from Schwarzer and Jerusalem (1995). The patriarchal value was measured using 3 items scale adapted from Diwan and Vartanova (2017).

Both scales were translated into the Persian-Dari language and it was verified by two individuals holding PhD in Persian Literature and good knowledge of English.

Pilot Test and Data Collection

Before collecting the data, a pilot study was conducted by researchers using stratified sampling technique. A total number of 52 responses were collected for the pilot study. The alpha value of the pilot study was .872 and a KMO value of .690.

RESULTS

The results are presented in two different parts. The demographic background, descriptive analysis and explanatory factor analysis EFA along with alpha and KMO values presented in the first part, and the logistic regression analysis is presented in the second part.

Table 1

Present the Demographic Background of the Respondents

Descriptive Statistics								
	N	Range	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Age	414	4	1.96	.924	1.276	.120	1.964	.239
Edu_Level	414	4	2.99	.969	-.276	.120	-.255	.239

The descriptive analysis of the respondents is presented in above table. For age (M=1.96, SD=.924) and education level (M=2.99, SD=.969).

Table 2
Shows the EFA Result
 Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component	
	1	**2**
GSE_1	.689	
GSE_2	.639	
GSE_4	.698	
GSE_5	.782	
GSE_6	.799	
GSE_7	.739	
GSE_8	.819	
GSE_9	.820	
GSE_10	.746	
PTR1		.793
PTR2		.815
PTR3		.773
Alpha	.903	.716

Extraction Method : Principal Component Analysis
Rotation Method : Varimax with Kaiser Normalization
a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

Two factors named generalized self-efficacy and patriarchy values have been created after running the explanatory factor analysis (EFA). The alpha values were also presented for each factor in the Table 2, the alpha value was .903 and .716 for generalized self-efficacy and patriarchy respectively. Moreover, the KMO for the data was .872, ($x2 = 2333.310$, df = 66, p = .000).

Regression Analysis and Model Fit

As Gujarati *et al.* (2018) suggest, in a situation when we have a nominal, or indicator, or categorical, qualitative or dummy dependent variable, such as labour force participation can be of the yes or no type, the dummy receives "yes" if the person is employed, and "no" otherwise. In such situations, the regression model can be estimated using the method of ordinary least squares (OLS). Binary logistic regression was conducted in this study.

Table 3

Present the Omnibus Tests Model Coefficients

Omnibus Tests of Model Coefficients				
		Chi-square	df	Sig.
Step 1	Step	77.766	6	.000
	Block	77.766	6	.000
	Model	77.766	6	.000

The coefficients of the omnibus test model use to test the model fit. A significant result indicates that it fits significantly better than the null model. The current study omnibus is significant (p=0.000), indicating a good fit for the model.

Table 4

The Model Summary

Model Summary		
Step	-2 Log likelihood	Cox and Snell R Square	Nagelkerke R Square
1	304.800[a]	.171	.284

a. Estimation terminated at iteration number 5 because parameter estimates changed by
  less than .001.

Cox and Snell and Negelkerk's R2 is presented in the table. According to the Cox and Snell R2 results, the logistic model accounts for 17.1% of the variation in the dependent variable. However, Nagelkerk's R2 shows that the logit model accounts for 28.4% of the variation in the dependent variable. Since the Cox and Snell R2 tends to underestimate the actual variation (Leech *et al.,* 2005), Nagelkerk's R2 is considered more accurate as it ranges between 0 and 1. Referring to the analysis by Tranmer and Elliot (2008), it can be concluded that the model explains turnout variation within the range of 17.1% to 28.4%.

Table 5
Variables in the Equation

		B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp (B)
Variables in the Equation							
Step 1[a]	GSE	.071	.028	6.441	1	.011	1.074
	PTRCH	-.092	.061	2.261	1	.133	.912
	Edu_Level			53.179	4	.000	
	Edu_Level (1)	-2.979	1.118	7.093	1	.008	.051
	Edu_Level (2)	-1.805	1.082	2.782	1	.095	.164
	Edu_Level (3)	-.232	1.082	.046	1	.830	.793
	Edu_Level (4)	.010	1.111	.000	1	.993	1.010
	Constant	.784	1.418	.306	1	.580	2.190

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1 : GSE, PTRCH, Edu_Level.

The above Table indicates the relation between dependent and independent variables. It shows that self-efficacy (B=.071, P=.011) had significant positive impact on female decision making for labour force participation in Afghanistan. However, the relationship between patriarchy (B=-.092, P=.133) and female decision making for labour force participation was not significant. While the impact of education qualification on female decision making for labour force participation was also significant.

It can be interpreted that there is a positive relationship between GSE and female decision making for labour force participation in Afghanistan. Females with a higher level of self-efficacy are more likely to participate in the labour force than those with a lower level of self-efficacy.

We also controlled the education factor, and then the impact of patriarchy became significantly positive. Presented in the below Table 7 indicates that patriarchy (B = -.197, P = .000) has significantly negative impact on female decision making for labour force participation in Afghanistan.

Table 6
Variables in Equation for Patriarchy

Variables in the Equation							
		B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp (B)
Step 1[a]	PTRCH	-.197	.054	13.296	1	.000	.822
	Constant	2.846	.396	51.639	1	.000	17.210

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1 : GSE, PTRCH, Edu_Level.

The association between patriarchy values and female decision making for labour force was insignificant. However, controlling other factors, Table 7 that patriarchy values have a significantly negative relation with female decision making for labour force participation in Afghanistan. It can be interpreted that females who believe more in patriarchal values are less likely to enter to the labour market than those with a lower level of patriarchal values.

To find out the differences between different education qualifications, a series of logit regressions applied in the study. The result is presented in Table 8.

Table 7
Variables in Equation for Different Education Levels

Variables in the Equation							
		B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp (B)
Illiterate/Primary	High School	1.239	.427	8.436	1	.004	3.452
	Bachelor	2.847	.437	42.441	1	.000	17.240
	Master	3.052	.507	36.187	1	.000	21.154
	Ph.D.	3.234	1.090	8.797	1	.003	25.385
High School	Bachelor	1.608	.358	20.168	1	.000	4.994
	Master	1.813	.441	16.886	1	.000	6.127
	Ph.D.	1.995	1.061	3.534	1	.060	7.353
Bachelor	Master	.205	.451	.206	1	.650	1.227
	Ph.D.	.387	1.066	.132	1	.717	1.472
Master	Ph.D.	.182	1.096	.028	1	.868	1.200

As we see in Table 8 it shows that the probability of labour force participation significantly increased for women who have a high school, bachelor, master and Ph.D. degrees compared to women who are illiterate or have primary education. Similarly, females with bachelor, master and Ph.D. degrees are more

likely to enter the labour force than females with high school certificates. There were no significant differences in the probability of labour force participation among females with bachelor, master and Ph.D. degrees. It can be interpreted that females' education level has positive impact on female decision making for labour force participation up to the bachelor degree, while there is no significant difference between bachelor, master and Ph.D. degrees.

LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

A number of limitations must be acknowledged. First, due to the unique characteristics of Afghanistan's situation, the researchers could not include external factors. Future researchers can examine the impact of external factors such as economic conditions or government policies. Second, the study was based on cross-sectional design which makes it challenging to accurately establish a causal relationship between the variables. Longitudinal design can be a good direction for future research. Third, the findings can be limited to Afghanistan, however, it can be generalized to similar contexts like Iran and Middle East countries and some other places with similar contexts. A comparative study between Afghanistan and other countries with similar contexts can be investigated by future researchers.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The present study investigated the impact of self-efficacy, patriarchy values and education qualification of women on their decision making for labour force participation in Afghanistan. It was found that self-efficacy is one of the factors that positively impact female decision making for labour force participation in Afghanistan. The probability of labour force participation for females with higher level of self-efficacy was high than for females with lower level of self-efficacy.

It was also found that the relationship between patriarchy values and female decision making for labour force participation was insignificant, but controlling other factors the impact of patriarchy on female decision making for labour force participation was significantly negative. Females who believe more on patriarchal values are less likely to enter to the labour market than those with lower level of patriarchal values.

Moreover, we also found that education is the most powerful factor influencing female decision making for labour force participation in Afghanistan. Females with higher level of education are more likely to enter the labour force

than those with lower level of education. However, this impact was up to the bachelor degree, and there were no significant differences for bachelor, master and Ph.D.

Our finding regarding the impact of self-efficacy on female decision making for labour force participation is supported in the literature by McKelway, (2019) for example, who reported a positive relation between the level of self-efficacy of women and their employment in India.

The finding regarding the impact of patriarchy on female decision making for labour force participation was similar to Salari (2020) and Atasoy (2016) who found that female's allocation of time for labour force participation influence by culture (patriarchal values).

We argue that education level is the most powerful factor determining female employment status in Afghanistan. As education increases the bargaining power of women at home, it can over come the patriarchal values and the status of men as the only bread winner and the decision maker in the household.

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