CHAPTER V

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

5.1 INTRODUCTION:

Data collected with the help of the three interview schedules are presented here for analysis and interpretation. The presentation is in tabular forms. Both simple and cross tables were used in order to locate independent, genuine, relevant and cumulative effects of the variables on social change as well as simplicity and precision as the procedures suggested by Hirschi and Selvin (1967; 73-87) and Rosenberg (1968; 169-183) as mentioned in the Methodology Chapter of this study (3.9.7. Procedures of presentation and analysis of data). As mentioned in the Methodology Chapter, χ^2 values (Mecnemar, 1963; 201 and Garret, 1971; 265) and Yule'sQ (Muller and Schuessler, 1969; 244) are calculated to find out the significance of association of education and change attributes, and coefficient of association and the strength of relationships of education and change attributes.

The presentation is divided into eight parts as (i) education and modernity, (ii) education and change in superstitious beliefs, (iii) education and change in family and marriage affairs, (iv) education and change in educational affairs, (v) education and change in religiosity, (vi) education and change in

occupational aspects, (vii) education and change in social hierarchy and social mobility and (viii) education and polity and participation. One hypothesis is put to test in each section. In all there are eight hypotheses.

5.1.1 EDUCATION AND MODERNITY (MODERNIZATION):

The term modernity, as discussed in Chapter I, carries a heavy weight of connotations. These connotations may be applicable to men, nations, political systems, socio-economic systems, to cities, to manners, to clothes so on and so forth (Inkeles and Smith, 1974; 15). It may be a change from traditional religious, familial, ethnic authority to single, secular, national, legal, scientific system basing on achievement basis rather than ascription basis (Huntington, 1966; 373-414). Modernity denotes the common behavioural system relating to industrial, literate and participant societies of the western nations as well as U.S.S.R. and Japan in the east (Gore, et al, 1967; 33-51).

Of course, modernity, as mentioned in Chapter I, does not stand for total deviation or discontinuation of tradition. No society can completely break with

the past. Modern views refer to the exploration of new ways of doing things with scientific and rational methods. The traditional society is by no means entirely traditional and modern society is by no means, completely free of tradition (Shah and Rao, 1965; 49). In fact, the difference between traditional and modern society as well as traditional and modern person is a degree of difference. Japan is a case in point (Moore, 1966). Inkeles and Smith (1974; 65) take modernity as a general quality reflected in values and behaviour in many and diverse realms of social action. Modernization relates to social change, change in values, attidues etc.(Shills, 1968; 386). Inkeles and Smith (1974; 109) put individual modernity as a man can learn how to exert considerable control over his environment. He thus advances his own goals rather than being dominated by forces created by more powerful man or by nature itself. A modern man approves social change. He is ready for basic change, including change in almost every kind of social organization, political and economic institutions and in interpersonal relations and in social customs (Inkeles and Smith, 1974; 301).

As mentioned in theoretical framework in

Chapter III, this study adapted the theoretical model of modern man of Inkeles and Smith (1974; 15-25). They have developed a scale to measure the individual modernity or who is a modern man? As mentioned earlier, this scale is used for this present study to measure the modernity of the villagers in the four villages.

The hypothesis (No.1) that has been put forward for testing, reads as follows:

" The more educated person is, the more he/she will be modern. "

As mentioned in the Chapter III (3.9.4.1) the responses were coded according to the procedures of the authors and guide and experts. Maximum scores for all thirteen questions were 37 and minimum being 13 (1 x 13). Total scores were dichotomized at arithmetic mean (21) as 21 and above as high score and 20 and below as low score. High score stands for high modernity. (Total scores are affixed to appendix B - Table No.7.1).

Table No.5.1.1 shows high and low modernity of the villagers according to their levels of education.

Table No.5.1.1

Association between levels of Education and Modernity

Modernity	LEVELS OF EDUCATION								
	Higher Education		S.S.C.		Primary		Illiterate		Total
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	31	100.00	48	88.89	30	37.03	20	13.08	129
Low	00	0.00	6	11.11	51	62.97	133	86.92	190
Total	31	100.00	54	100.00	81	100.00	153	100.00	319

(Source: Table No.7.1 appendix B)

Table No.5.1.1 reveals that all the 31 respondents having higher level of education score high modernity, percentage being 100.00. Out of 54 respondents having S.S.C. level of education 48 (88.89%) score high modernity and 6 (11.11%) score low modernity. Out of 81 respondents having primary level of education, 30 (37.03%) score high modernity and 51 (62.97%) score low modernity. Out of 153 illiterate respondents 20 (13.08%) score high modernity and rest 133 (86.92%) score low modernity. Out of these scores, it is found that with the increase in the levels of education the level of modernity also

increases. It is also found that though in smaller proportion, respondents having no formal education (illiterate) have high modernity and some educated also possess low modernity, to some extent.

5.1.2 Association between Education and Modernity:

The same scores are presented in Table 5.1.2 according to the dichotomizing forms of literate respondents (consisting of higher education, S.S.C. and primary education) and illiterate, as mentioned in Chapter III in the section on 3.9.2 variables, to find out the association of education and modernity and its level of significance in a more clear, simple and precise way.

Table 5.1.2

Association between Education and Modernity

Modernity	Education				Total
	Literate		Illiterate		
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	109	65.67	20	13.08	129
Low	57	34.33	133	86.92	190
	166	100.00	153	100.00	319

X^2 = 91.425; df.1; P < .01; Q = 0.854

Data in table no.5.1.2 confirm the hypothesis. Among 166 literate respondents, 109 (65.67%) and 57 (34.35%) score high modernity and low modernity respectively, while among the 153 illiterate respondents only 20 (13.08%) amd the rest 133 (86.92%) score high and low modernity respectively. The association (X^2 = 91.425) is significant at .01 level and positive (Q = 0.854). (Chi-square values and Yule's Q were discussed in Chapter III on 3.9.7 procedures of presentation and analysis of data). The formulae for Yule's Q, and Chi-square are as follows:

$$Q = \frac{AD - BC}{AD + BC}$$ (Muller and Schuessler, 1969; 244)

A	B
C	D

$$X^2 = \frac{N\,(AD-BC)^2}{(A+B)\,(C+D)\,(A+C)\,(B+D)}$$ (Garret, 1971; 265 and Mcnemar, 1963; 201)

and with Yate's correction for figure 5 or lessthan 5

$$X_c^2 = \frac{N\left\{(AD-BC) - \frac{N}{2}\right\}^2}{(A+B)\,(C+D)\,(A+C)\,(B+D)}$$

Now the question arises how far the positive association of education and modernity is genuine. This may be due to some other antecedent variables active in the village. In order to find out an answer to such a question and to find out independent, relative and cumulative effects of variables of education, sex, age,

bari (family) status, occupation and income, the data are presented according to the cross tables taking education (as education is the independent variable) as constant in every case as the procedure suggested by Hirchsi and Selvin (1967; 73-87) as mentioned in the earlier section (5.1) of the chapter.

5.1.3 Association of Education and Modernity when controlled for Sex.

Table No.5.1.3

Association of Education with Modernity when controlled for Sex

Modernity	MALE					FEMALE				
	Literate		Illiterate		Total	Literate		Illiterate		Total
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	68	70.66	12	16.00	77	44	59.46	8	10.26	52
Low	27	29.34	63	84.00	90	30	40.54	70	89.74	100
Total	92	100.00	75	100.00	167	74	100.00	78	100.00	152
Q = 0.853						Q = 0.855				
X^2 = 49.660 df.1, P < .01						X^2 = 40.841, df.1, P < .01				

Among female respondents of 152, 48.67% (74) are literates and 51.31% (78) illiterates, respectively, among male 167 respondents, 55.90% (92) literates and 44.10% (75) illiterates,

respectively. Thus, the percentage of literates is more (55.90) among males than that of females (48.69). The data in Table no.5.1.3 reveal that education and modernity are positively associated for both males (X^2 = 49.660 and Q = 0.853) and females (X^2 = 40.481, and Q = 0.855). This indicates the effect of education on modernity independent of sex.

Within both male and female groups, literates have larger proportion of high modernity than illiterates. The percentage difference in males is 54.66 (70.66 - 16.0) and 49.20 (59.46 - 10.26) for females. In other words, when sex is controlled, education has an independent effect on modernity. Conversely, within each of the literate and illiterate groups, sex is also related to modernity to some extent. Among literates, males are more modern than females. The percentage difference is 11.20 (70.66 - 59.46) for literates and it is 5.74 (16.0 - 10.26) for illiterates. Thus, when education is controlled, sex has also some independent effect on modernity though the proportion is very small in comparison to that of education.

Now, relatively which variable is more effective, education or sex? This is the question of relative

effect and Rosenberg (1968; 169-183), as mentioned earlier, suggested to compare the proportion in two "Counter directional" groups. The proportion of modernity among male illiterates is 16.0, while among female literates it is 59.46. Thus, female literate respondents are more modern than male illiterate respondents. The same fact can be represented by ranking the percentage.

	Groups	Modernity in Percentage
1.	Male literates	70.66
2.	Female literates	59.46
3.	Male illiterates	16.00
4.	Female illiterates	10.26

Above figures can be used to calculate the average percentage difference. The average effect of education, controlling sex, is 51.93. It is the average of (70.66 - 16.00) and (59.46 - 10.26). Conversely, the average effect of sex, controlling education, is 8.47. It is the average of (70.66 - 59.46) and (16.00 - 10.26).

The cumulative effect of education and sex on modernity is 60.40 (70.66 - 10.26). It is the difference of two "extreme consistent" groups as suggested by

Rosenberg (1968; 169-183).

Thus, it is found from the analysis and discussion that education and modernity are positively associated though sex has slight effect in favour of male. Education then makes a person modern irrespective of sex. Males are found more modern as they are directly related with the functioning of the society more than females. In other words, it indicates the dominant parts played in the society by the males particularly in the developing countries of the world.

5.1.4 Education and Modernity when controlled for Age:

Table No.5.1.4

Association between Modernity & Education when controlled for Age

Modernity	LOW AGE					HIGH AGE				
	Literate		Illiterate		Total	Literate		Illiterate		Total
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	65	67.70	12	15.0	77	44	62.86	8	10.96	52
Low	31	32.30	68	85.0	99	26	37.14	65	89.04	91
	96	100.00	80	100.0	176	70	100.00	73	100.00	143
Q = 0.844						Q = 0.864				
X^2 =49.261 df.1, P < .01						X^2= 41.592, df.1, P < .01				

Among the 176 respondents of low age group 54.54

percent (96) are literates and 45.46 percent (80) illiterates and among the 143 of high age 48.96 percent (70) are literates and 51.04 percent (73) are illiterates, respectively. Thus, the percentage of literates is more (54.54) in low age group than that of high age group (48.96).

The data in table no.5.1.4 reveal that education and modernity are positively associated with both high age (X^2 = 41.592, Q = 0.864) and low age (X^2 = 49.261, Q = 0.844), though there is variation in percentage. The table also reveals that irrespective of age groups, the literates have higher percentage of modernity, it is 67.70 for low age and 62.86 for high age. This indicates the effect of education independent of age.

Within both high age and low groups, literates have larger proportion of modernity in comparison to illiterates. The percentage difference is 51.90 (62.86 - 10.96), for high age and 52.70 (67.70 - 15.00) for low age. In other words, when age is controlled education has an independent effect on modernity. Conversely, within each of the literate and illiterate

groups, age is also related to modernity to some extent. Among both literates and illiterates, low age group is modern than high age group. The percentage difference is 4.84 (67.70 - 62.86) for literates and 4.04 (15.0 - 10.96) for illiterates. Thus, when education is controlled age has also some independent effect on modernity, though the proportion is very small in comparison to education. Which one of these two variables is more effective? This is the question of relative effect. It is the proportion in two "counter directional" groups as suggested by Rosarberg (1968). The proportion of modernity among low age illiterates is 15.0 and that of high age literates is 62.86. Thus, the high age literates are more modern than low age illiterates. The same fact can be put by ranking the percentage.

	Groups	Modernity in Percentage
1.	Low age literates	67.70
2.	High age literates	62.86
3.	Low age illiterates	15.00
4.	High age illiterates	10.96

Above figures can be used to calculate the average percentage difference. The average effect of

education, controlling age, is 52.70. It is the average of (67.70 - 15.0) and (62.86 - 10.96). Conversely, the effect of age, controlling education, is 4.44. It is the average of (67.70 - 62.86) and (15.0 - 10.96).

The cumulative effect of education and age is 56.74 (67.70 - 10.96). It is the difference of two "extreme consistent" groups (Rosenberg, 1968).

Thus, the impact of education on modernity is found positively associated, irrespective of variation in age.

5.1.5 Education and Modernity when controlled for Bari Status:

Table No.5.1.5

Association between Education and Modernity when controlled for Bari Status

Modernity	Traditional Unchu Bari					Traditional Nichchu Bari				
	Literate		Illiterate		Total	Literate		Illiterate		Total
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	56	69.13	7	10.30	63	53	62.36	13	15.30	66
Low	25	30.87	61	89.70	86	32	37.64	72	84.70	104
	81	100.00	68	100.00	149	85	100.00	85	100.00	170

Q = 0.902
X^2 = 52.439, df.1, P < .01

Q = 0.803
X^2 = 39.627, df.1, P < .01

Among traditional nichchu bari (low family) respondents of 170, 50 percent (85) and 50 percent (85) are literates and illiterates respectively; among 149 respondents of traditional unchu bari (high family status) 54.37 percent (81) and 45.63 percent (68) are literates and illiterates, respectively. Thus, the percentage of literates is more (54.37) among unchu bari respondents than nichchu bari respondents.

The data in Table No.5.1.5 reveal that education and modernity are positively associated for both unchu bari (X^2 = 52.439, Q = 0.902) and for nichchu bari (X^2 = 39.627, Q = 0.803) though there is slight variation. This indicates the effect of education on modernity independent of bari status.

Within both unchu bari and nichchu bari groups, literates have larger proportion of modernity, than illiterates. The percentage difference in unchu bari is 58.83 (69.13 - 10.30) and in nichchu bari, it is 47.06 (62.36 - 15.30).

In other words, when bari status is controlled, education has an independent effect on modernity. Conversely, within each of the literate and illiterate

groups, bari is also related to modernity to some extent. Among literates, unchu bari status group is more modern than nichchu bari group. The percentage difference is 6.77 (69.13 - 62.36) for literates. But for illiterates, the picture is other way round, that is, the nichchu bari status group is more modern, the percentage difference is 5.00(15.30 - 10.30). This effect of nichchu bari may be due to income, occupation or indirect effect of education in the sense they may be connected with educated group. Thus, when education is controlled bari status has also some independent effect on modernity though proportion is very less in comparson to education.

Which one of these two variables is more effective? This is the question of relative effect. The procedure suggested by Rosenberg (1968) is to compare the proportion in two "Counter-directional" groups. The proportion of high modernity among unchu bari status illiterates is 10.30, while among nichchu bari literate group, it is 62.36. Thus, nichchu bari literate respondents are more modern than unchu bari illiterates. The same fact can be represented by ranking the percentage.

	Groups	Modernity Percentage
1.	Unchu bari literates	69.13
2.	Nichchu bari literates	62.36
3.	Unchu bari illiterates	10.30
4.	Nichchu bari illiterates	15.30

Above figures can be used to calculate the average percentage difference. The average effect of bari status, controlling education, is 5.885. It is the average of (69.13 - 62.36 and 15.30 - 10.30). Conversely, the average effect of education, controlling bari status, is 52.945, it is the average of 69.13 - 10.30 and 62.36 - 15.30. The cumulative effect of education and sex is 53.83 (69.13 - 15.30), it is the difference of the two "extreme consistent" groups (Rosenbarg, 1968; 180). Thus, the impact of education is much more higher than that of bari status.

5.1.6 Education and Modernity when controlled for Occupation:

5.1.6 Association between Education with Modernity when controlled for Occupation.

Table No.5.1.6

Modernity	Non-Agricultural					Agricultural				
	Literate		Illiterate		Total	Literate		Illiterate		Total
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	62	82.67	6	25.0	68	47	51.64	14	10.86	61
Low	13	17.33	18	75.0	31	44	48.36	115	89.14	159
Total	75	100.00	24	100.0	99	91	100.00	129	100.00	220

Q = 0.869 X^2 = 28.111 df 1, P < .01

Q = 0.795 X^2 =44.316, df 1, P < .01

Among agricultural occupants of 220, 41.37 percent (91) are literates and 58.63 percent (129) are illiterates, and among non-agricultural occupants of 99, 75.76 percent (75) are literates and 24.24 percent (24) are illiterates. Thus, percentage of literates is more (75-76) among non-agricultural occupants than that of agricultural (41.37) occupants.

The data in Table No.5.1.6 reveal that education and modernity are positively associated for both non-

agricultural respondents (X^2 = 28.111, Q = 0.869) and agricultural respondents (X^2 = 44.316, Q = 0.795) though there is a variation in percentage between agricultural and non-agricultural groups. This indicates the effect of education on modernity independent of occupation. Within both non-agricultural and agricultural groups, literates have larger proportion of modernity than illiterates. The percentage difference is 57.67 (82.67 - 25.00) for non-agricultural group and 40.78 (51.64 - 10.86) for agricultural group. In other words, when occupation is controlled education has an independent effect on modernity. Conversely, within each of literate and illiterate groups, occupation is related to modernity to some extent. Among both literates and illiterates, non-agricultural occupants are more modern than agricultural occupants. The percentage difference is 31.03 (82.67 - 51.64) for literates and 14.14 (25.0 - 10.86) for illiterates. Thus, when education is controlled occupation has some independent effect on modernity though the proportion is less in comparison to that of education.

Which one of these two variables is more effective? This is the question of relative effect. The procedure suggested by Rosenberg (1968) is to compare the proportion

in two "Counter directional" groups. The proportion of modernity among non-agricultural illiterates is 25.00 while among agricultural literate group is 51.64. Thus, the agricultural literate respondents are more modern than non-agricultural illiterates. The same fact can be represented by ranking the percentage.

	Groups	Modernity in Percentage
1.	Non-agricultural literates	82.67
2.	Agricultural literates	51.64
3.	Non-agricultural illiterates	25.00
4.	Agricultural illiterates	10.86

Above figures can be used to calculate the average percentage of difference. The average effect of occupation, controlling education, is 22.58 , it is the average of 82.67 - 51.64 and 25.00 - 10.86. Conversely, the average effect of education, controlling occupation, is 49.22 , it is the average of 82.67 - 25 and 51.64 - 10.86. The cumulative effect of education and occupation, is 71.81 (82.67 - 10.86). It is the difference of two extreme "consistent groups" (Rosenberg, 1968). Thus, impact of education on modernity is higher than that of occupation.

5.1.7 Education and Modernity when controlled for Income:

Table 5.1.7

Association between Education and Modernity when controlled for Income

Modernity	High Income					Low Income				
	Literate		Illiterate		Total	Literate		Illiterate		Total
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	72	75.0	8	20.0	80	37	52.86	12	10.61	49
Low	24	25.0	32	80.0	56	33	47.14	101	89.39	134
Total	96	100.00	40	100.0	136	70	100.00	113	100.00	183
Q = 0.846						Q = 0.808				
X^2 = 35.262, df=1, P < .01						X^2 = 39.330 df=1, P < .01				

Among low income-group respondents of 183, 38.26 percent (70) are literates and 61.74 percent (113) are illiterates. Of the 136 respondents of high income group, 70.51 percent (96) are literates and 29.41 percent (40) are illiterates. Thus, the percentage of literates is more among high income group (70.51) than that of low income group (38.26).

The data in Table 5.1.7 reveal that education and

modernity are positively associated for both high income group (X^2 = 35.262, Q = 0.846) and low income group (X^2 = 39.33, Q = 0.808), though there is variation in percentage between high income and low income groups. This indicates the effect of education on modernity independent of income.

Within both high income and low income groups, literates have larger proportion of modernity than illiterates. The percentage difference is 55.00(75.00- 20.00) for high income group and 42.25 (52.86 - 10.61) for low income group. In other words, when income is controlled, education has an independent effect on modernity. Conversely, within each of literate and illiterate groups, income is related to modernity. Among literates and illiterates, high income respondents are more modern than low income ones. The percentage difference is 22.14 (75.00- 52.86) for literates and 9.39 (20.00- 10.61) for illiterates. Thus, when education is controlled, income has some independent effect on modernity though the proportion is less in comparison to that of education.

Which one of these two variables is more effective? This is the question of relative effect. Rosenberg (1968)

suggested a procedure to compare in two "Counter directional" groups. The proportion of modernity among high income illiterates is 20.0 while among low income literate group it is 52.86. Thus, low income literate respondents are more modern than high income illiterates. The same fact can be represented by ranking the percentage.

	Groups	Modernity Percentage
1.	High Income literates	75.00
2.	Low Income literates	52.86
3.	High Income illiterates	20.00
4.	Low Income illiterates	10.61

Above figures can be used to calculate the average percentage difference. The average effect of income, controlling education, is 15.73, it is the average of 75.00- 52.86 and 20.00- 10.61. Conversely, the average effect of education, controlling income, is 48.623, it is the average of 75.0 - 20.0 and 52.86 - 10.61. The cumulative effect of education and income is 64.39 (75.00- 10.61). It is the difference of two extreme"consistent groups"(Rosenberg, 1968). Thus, impact of education on modernity is higher than that of income.

5.1.8 Summary and Conclusions:

Foregoing analysis and discussions reveal that education is positively associated with modernity when it is controlled for variables like sex, age, bari status, occupation and income. In simple parlance, it can be put that irrespective of variation regarding age, sex, bari status, occupation and income of the respondents, educated persons will be having more of modern attributes. Similar findings were reported by Inkeles and Smith (174; 260) in their study of six countries the world over that is irrespective of variation in urban-rural, factory experience etc., modern was a man who had higher level of education. In their study the correlation for education was as follows:

	Argentina	Chile	Bangladesh	India	Israel	Nigeria
Education	.55	.54	.56	.74	.43	.48

Inkeles and Smith's(1974, 73) case study of illiterate farmer Ahmed Ullah of East Pakistan (Bangladesh) is found fit here also.

Bhatnagar (1972) in his studies in Punjab villages reported similar impact of education on modern values,

attitudes of the villagers. Sullivan (1968) in his studies found modern attitudes of the trainees in the teacher's training colleges in Gujarat, India. Gore et al (1970) found changing attitudes of educational participants due to impact of education. Karim (Ward, 1964; 294-322) in his study found the impact of education in changing values, attitudes, in Bangladeshi (East Pakistan) society. Ward (1964; 25-102) found the role of education in attitudinal change, particularly among women in Asia. Gani (Ward, 1964; 323-340) found similar trend in Pakistani society. Rajaguru (1980) found, in his study of family planning acceptance, education has the important factor. Foster (1967) found the role of education in changing attitudes of the African for national movement and independence. Kalra (1978) found in villages in U.P., India, the role of education in changing attitudes from tradition to modern. Pandey (1975) found in Bihar that education helped in creating modern values of reformists' attitudes among people. Srinivas (1966; 119-134) found girls were less particular about traditional beliefs and rituals, due to education. Jain (1981) found in his article that the spread of education revolutionalized the popular attitudes. Inkeles and

Smith (1974; 143) found that those who had been in school for longer period were not only better informed and verbally more fluent, but also had a different sense of time, and a strong sense of personal and social efficiency, rather than the men who had lower period of schooling. The study suggested the positive association between education and acceptance of modern values in society.

Armer, et al (1971; 604-621) found a clear and consistent influence of western education on modern value-orientation among the people of Kano, Africa. Gosh (1969; 27-37) found that education changed the outlook, values, attitudes, of the respondents. Sachchidananda (1968; 71-85) found that education changed social values of the women of scheduled caste.

The villagers under study have been found to be modern with educational attainments. The independent and genuine impact of education is tested with the help of some other available variables. In every case, education is found mostly determinant factor of modernization or modernity. The modern individual will be working as change agent in the villages under study in Bangladesh by his role, status, attitudes, and overall social interaction. The analysis that follows will cast in this regard to identify social change in the village as a result of education.

5.2 EDUCATION AND SUPERSTITIONS:

5.2.1 Introduction:

Superstitions, rituals (Zaidi, 1970; 91-104) and fatalistic beliefs, generally, refer to a ready and uncritical explanation of phenomena in terms of the doings of unknown agent or agents. It is characterized by a rigid belief in supernatural and a passive dependence on nature's taking her own course. Fatalism may be both an individual and a group phenomena, originating from cultural context (Spiro, 1966). It is, generally assumed that groups, with feelings of insecurity and helplessness owing to the absence of facilities for controlling natural mishaps, show greater fatalistic tendencies. It also sustains them against natural calamities and unexpected happenings (Kerr, 1963).

It is generally believed that villagers in almost all under-developed and developing countries are fatalistic in their attitudes to the supernatural and the unseen. These attitudes have a strong religious bias. It is because of this easy credulity of the villagers in Bangladesh that the simple religious tenents have become mixed with a number of rituals.

The village illiterate in Bangladesh is a typical example of a religious man who strongly believes in the divinity of all unexplainable events (Zaidi, 1970). The villagers believe in the unknown agents responsible for floods, droughts, diseases, epidemics, etc.

Margarret Mead (1955) in her study in Burma found similar type of fatalism and superstitions. To quote her: "These religious systems, the official Budhism and unformalized religion of the NATs are the basis of the concepts about health and illness, misfortune, well-being potency and achievement... If he suffered misfortune, it was because he had failed in his preventive measures against the NATs or because he had unwillingly offended them." Afsar (1979; 79-81) and Zaidi (1970; 91-104) in their studies in some Bangladesh villages, found different kinds of superstitious beliefs and practices. They found that the villagers were fatalistic. It is also generally agreed upon that in every society there are different kinds of superstitious beliefs and practices everywhere in the world.

The present study, as mentioned earlier, intends to find out the impact of education on these superstitious beliefs and practices. The hypothesis (No.2) that

has been put forward for testing reads as follows: "The more educated a person is, the less he/she will have superstitious beliefs and practices."

Out of the innumerable lists of superstitious practices and sayings, as mentioned by Afsar (1979) and Zaidi (1970) regarding traditions, values, agriculture, religion etc., 20 such items were taken to form a schedule according to suitability of the locality concerned. It is to be noted that these sayings vary in the same country also from region to region. These twenty items were selected on the basis of field test in the locality. As mentioned in Chapter No. III on "research - methodology", the answers were in the form of 'Yes' or 'No'. For 'No', it was 0, and for 'Yes', it was I, i.e. minimum score was 0 (0x20), maximum being 20 (1x20) for the schedule. The more the score, the more is the degree of superstitions. The total score was dichomotized as high and low around arithmetic mean (10.99), as 11 and below as low and 12 and above as high (Total scores are affixed to appendix B - Table No.7.2).

5.2.2 Education and change in Superstitions:

Table No.5.2.1

Association between levels of Education and Superstitions

Super-stitions	Higher		S.S.C.		Primary		Illiterate		Total
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	0	0.00	4	7.40	40	49.39	114	74.50	158
Low	31	100.00	50	92.60	41	50.61	39	25.50	161
Total	31	100.00	54	100.00	81	100.00	153	100.00	319

(Source: Table No.7.2 appendix B)

The table no.5.2.1 reveals that all, out of 31 respondents, having higher level of education, are in the low superstitious category, percentage being 100.00. Out of the 54 respondents of S.S.C. level, 4 (7.40) score high and 50 (92.60) score low, of the 81 respondents of primary level, 40 (49.39) score high and 41 (50.61) low, of the 153 illiterates, 114 (74.50) score high and 39 (25.50) low. Out of these scores it is found that with the increase of levels of education the superstitions decrease. These scores, for more clear, precise and simple analysis, can be presented along with the dichotomization of literate, consisting of higher, S.S.C.

and primary levels of education on the one hand and the illiterates on the other, as mentioned in methodology. This follows a 2 x 2 contigency table in order to find out the level of significance and association of superstitious beliefs and practices with education.

Table No.5.2.2

Association between Education and Supérstitious beliefs and practices

Superstition	Literate		Illiterate		Total
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	45	27.11	113	73.86	158
Low	121	72.89	40	26.14	161
Total	166	100.00	153	100.00	319

Q = - 0.767

X^2 = 69.60 df.1, P $\angle$ .01.

The data in table no.5.2.2 confirm the hypothesis. Among 166 literate respondents, 72.89 percent (121) score low on superstitious beliefs and practices while only 27.11 (45) score high. Among 153 illiterate

respondents, 73.86 percent (113) score high on superstitious beliefs and practices while 26.14 (40) score low. The nature of association of superstitions and education is negative ($Q= -0.767$, $X^2=69.60$, $df=1$, $P < .01$).

Now, it is to be found out how genuine is this association. For this purpose, as it is done for modern attributes at the earlier section of this chapter, (5.1) other variables viz. sex, age, bari status, occupation, income are put as test variables keeping education as constant as a) education and sex, b) education and age, c) education and bari status, d) education and occupation, e) education and income. By this analysis, the independent and relative effects of the variables can be assessed (Rosenberg, 1968).

5.2.3 Education and change in superstition when controlled for sex:

Table No.5.2.3

Association between Education and Superstitions when controlled for Sex

Superstitions	MALE					FEMALE				
	Literate		Illiterate		Total	Literate		Illiterate		Total
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	14	15.21	45	60.00	59	31	41.90	68	87.18	99
Low	78	84.79	30	40.00	108	43	58.10	10	12.82	53
Total	92	100.00	75	100.00	167	74	100.00	78	100.00	152
Q = -0.786						Q = -0.808				
X^2 = 36.27, df 1, P < .01						X^2 = 34.29, df 1, P < .01				

The table no.5.2.3 shows literates are more among males (55.09%) than females (48.69%). From the table it is found that education and high superstitions are negatively associated for both male (Q = -0.786, X^2=36.27) and female (Q = -0.808, X^2 = 34.29) though there is slight variation between males and females. This indicates independent effect of education on superstitions.

Within male and female groups, literates have smaller proportion of superstitions than illiterates. The percentage difference is (15.21 - 60.00) 44.79 for male, and 45.28 (41.90 - 87.18), for females. In other words, when sex is controlled education has an independent effect on superstitions. Conversely, when education is controlled sex has also an independent effect though less in comparison to education. Here for literates, it is 26.69 (15.21 - 41.90) and for illiterates 27.18 (87.18 - 41.90) indicating females are more superstitious.

Which one of these two variables is more effective? It is the proportion in two "counter directional" groups (Rosenberg, 1968). The proportion of superstitions among literate female is 41.90 while it is 60.00 for

male illiterates. Thus, female literates are less superstitious than male illiterates. The same fact can be represented by ranking the percentage.

	Groups	Extent of superstition in terms of percentage
1.	Male literates	15.21
2.	Female literates	41.90
3.	Male illiterates	60.00
4.	Female illiterates	87.18

The average effect of sex, controlling education, is 26.94 percent. It is the average of 41.90 - 15.21 and 87.18 - 60. The average effect of education, controlling sex, is 45.4. It is the average of 60.8 - 15.21 and 87.18 - 41.90.

Thus, it is found from the above analysis that educated respondents irrespective of sex are less superstitious.

5.2.4 Education and change in superstition when controlled for Age:

Table No.5.2.4

Association between Education and Superstitious beliefs and practices when controlled for age

Superstition	Low Age					High Age				
	Literate		Illiterate		Total	Literate		Illiterate		Total
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	23	23.96	61	76.25	84	22	31.43	52	71.23	74
Low	73	76.04	19	23.79	92	48	68.57	21	28.27	69
Total	96	100.00	80	100.00	176	70	100.00	73	100.00	143
Q = -0.821						Q = -0.687				
X^2 = 47.826, df.1, P < .01						X^2 = 22.687 df.1, P < .01				

Among the 176 respondents of low age group, 54.54 percent (96) are literates and 45.46 percent (80) are illiterates and among the 143 of high age group 48.96 percent (70) are literates and 51.04 percent (73) are illiterates, respectively. Thus, the percentage of literates is more (54.54) in low age group than that of high age group (48.96).

The data in table no.5.2.4 reveals that education and level of superstitious beliefs and practices

are negatively associated for both high age group (X^2 = 22.687, Q = -0.687) and low age group (X^2 = 47.826, Q = -0.821), though there is variation in percentage. The table also reveals that irrespective of age groups, the literates have lower percentage of superstitions, it is 23.96 percent for low age group and 31.43 percent for high age group, respectively. This indicates the effect of education independent of age.

Within both low age and high age group literates have smaller proportion of superstitions in comparison to illiterates. The percentage difference is 52.30 (76.25 - 23.96) for low age and 39.80 (71.23 - 31.43) for high age group. In other words, when age is controlled, education has an independent effect on superstitious beliefs and practices. Conversely, within each of the literate and illiterate group, age is also related to superstitions. Among literates, low age group is less superstitious than high age group, the percentage difference is 7.47 (31.43 - 23.96). Among illiterates, high age group is less superstitious than low age group, the percentage difference is 5.02 (76.25 - 71.23). Thus, when education is controlled, age has also some independent effect on superstitions.

Which one of these two variables is more effective? This is the question of relative effect. It is the proportion in two "counter directional" groups as suggested by Rosenberg (1968). The proportion of superstitions among literates of high age group is 31.43 while it is 76.25 for illiterates of low age group. Thus, high age literates are less superstitious than low age illiterates. The same fact can be represented by ranking the percentage.

	Groups	Extent of Superstition in Percentage
1.	Low age literates	23.96
2.	High age literates	31.43
3.	Low age illiterates	76.25
4.	High age illiterates	71.23

Above figures can be used to calculate the average percentage difference. The average effect of education, controlling age, is 46.05. It is the average of 76.25 - 23.96 and 71.23 - 31.43. Conversely, the effect of age, controlling education, is 6.25. It is the average of 31.43 - 23.96 and 76.25 - 71.23.

Thus, literates are found to be less superstitious irrespective of age.

5.2.5 Education and change in Superstitions when controlled for Bari Status:

Table No.5.2.5

Association between Education and Superstitious beliefs and practices when controlled for bari status

Super-stitions	Traditional Unchu (High) Bari				Total	Traditional Nichchu (Low) Bari				Total
	Literate		Illiterate			Literate		Illiterate		
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	20	24.70	52	76.48	72	25	29.41	61	71.77	86
Low	61	75.30	16	23.52	77	60	70.59	24	28.23	84
Total	81	100.00	68	100.00	149	85	100.00	85	100.00	170

Q = -0.816 X^2 = 39.688 df.1, P < .01

Q = -0.718 X^2 = 30.498 df.1, P < .01

Among nichchu bari respondents of 170, 50.0 percent (85) and 50.0 percent (85) are literates and illiterates. Among unchu bari, it is 54.37 percent (81) for literates and 45.63 (68) percent for illiterates, respectively. Thus, the percentage of literates is more (54.37) among unchu bari respondents than nichchu bari respondents (50.0).

The data in Table No.5.2.5 reveal that education and superstitious beliefs and practices are negatively associated for both unchu bari (Q = -0.816, X^2 = 39.688) and nichchu bari (Q = -0.718, X^2 = 30.498). This indicates the effect of education on superstitious beliefs and practices independent of bari status.

Within both unchu bari and nichchu bari, literates have smaller proportion of superstitions than illiterates. The percentage difference in unchu bari is 51.78 (76.48 - 24.70) and in nichchu bari is 42.36 (71.77 - 29.41). In other words, when bari status is controlled, education has an independent effect on superstitions. Conversely, within each of the literate and illiterate group, bari status is also related to superstitions to some extent. Among literates nichchu bari status group is more superstitious than unchu bari group, the percentage difference is 4.71 (29.41 - 24.70). For illiterates, unchu bari status group is more superstitious, the percentage difference is 4.71 (76.48 - 71.77).

Thus, when education is controlled bari status has also some independent effect on superstitions though the proportion is very less in comparison to

that of education.

Which one of these two variables is more effective? This is the question of relative effect. This can be found out by comparing in two "counter directional" groups as suggested by Rosenberg (1968). The proportion of high superstitions among unchu bari illiterates is 76.48, while among nichchu bari literates, it is 29.41. Thus, nichchu bari literates are less superstitious than unchu bari illiterates.

The same fact can be represented by ranking the percentage.

	Groups	Extent of superstition in percentage
1.	Unchu bari literates	24.70
2.	Nichchu bari literates	29.41
3.	Unchu bari illiterates	76.48
4.	Nichchu bari illiterates	71.77

Above figures can be used to calculate the average percentage difference. The average effect of bari status, controlling education, is 5.21. It is the average of 29.41 - 24.70 and 76.48 - 71.77. The average effect of education, controlling bari status, is 46.78. It is the average of 76.48 - 24.70

and 71.77 - 29.41. Thus, educated are found to be less superstitious irrespective of bari status.

5.2.6 Education and change in Superstitions when controlled for occupation:

Table No.5.2.6

Association between Education and Superstitions when controlled for Occupation

Super-stition	Non-Agricultural occupants					Agricultural occupants				
	Literates		Illiterates		Total	Literates		Illiterates		Total
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	13	17.33	14	58.33	27	32	35.17	99	76.74	131
Low	62	82.67	10	41.67	72	59	64.23	30	23.26	89
Total	75	100.00	24	100.00	99	91	100.00	129	100.00	220

Q = -0.739 X^2 = 15.409, df.1, P $<$ .01

Q = -0.717 X^2 = 38.295, df.1, P $<$ .01

Among agricultural occupants of 220, 41.37% (91) are literates and 58.63% (129) are illiterates. Among non-agricultural occupants 75.76% (75) are literates and 24.24% (24) are illiterates. Thus, percentage of literates is more (75.76) among non-agricultural

occupants than that of agricultural occupants (41.37%).

The data in Table No.5.2.6 reveal that education and superstitious beliefs and practices are negatively associated for both non-agricultural respondents (Q =-0.739, X^2 = 15.409) and agricultural respondents (Q =-0.717, X^2 = 38.295), though there is variation in percentage between agricultural and non-agricultural groups. This indicates the effect of education on superstitions independent of occupation.

Within both non-agricultural and agricultural groups, literates have smaller proportion of superstitions than illiterates. The percentage difference is 41.00 (58.33 - 17.33)for non-agricultural group and 41.57 (76.74 - 35.17) for agricultural group. In other words, when occupation is controlled, education has an independent effect on superstitions. Conversely, within each of literate and illiterate group, occupation is also related to superstitions to some extent. Among both literates and illiterates, non-agricultural group is less superstitious than agricultural one. The percentage difference is 17.84 (35.17 - 17.33) for literates and 18.41 (76.74 - 58.33) for illiterates.

Thus, when education is controlled occupation has some independent effect on superstitions, though the proportion is less in comparison to that of education.

Which one of these two variables is more effective? This is the question of relative effect. This can be found out by comparing the two "counter directional" groups as suggested by Rosenberg (1968). The proportion of superstitious beliefs and practices among non-agricultural illiterates is 58.33, while among agricultural literates, it is 35.17. Thus, the agricultural literate group is less superstitious than non-agricultural illiterates. The same fact can be represented by ranking the percentage.

	Groups	Extent of superstitions in percentage
1.	Non-Agricultural literates	17.33
2.	Agricultural literates	35.17
3.	Non-Agricultural illiterates	58.33
4.	Agricultural illiterates	76.74

Above figures can be used to calculate average percentage difference. The average effect of education, controlling occupation,is 41.29. It is the

average of 58.33 - 17.33 and 76.74 - 35.17. Conversely, the average effect of occupation, controlling education, is 18.13. It is the average of 35.17 - 17.33 and 76.74 - 58.33.

Thus, educated are found to be less superstitious irrespective of occupation.

5.2.7 Education and change in Superstition when controlled for Income:

Table No.5.2.7

Association between Education and Superstitions when controlled for Income

Superstition	High Income					Low Income				
	Literate		Illiterate			Literate		Illiterate		
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Total	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Total
High	19	19.80	32	80.00	51	26	37.14	81	71.69	107
Low	77	80.20	8	20.00	85	44	63.86	32	28.31	76
Total	96	100.00	40	100.00	136	70	100.00	113	100.00	183

Q = - 0.883 X^2 = 43.671, df.1, P $\angle$ .01

Q = - 0.621 X^2 = 21.234, df.1, P $\angle$ .01

Among low income group of respondents of 183, 38.26% (70) are literates and 61.74% (113) are illiterates.

Of the 136 respondents, of high income group, 70.51% (96) are literates, and 29.41% (40) are illiterates. Thus, the percentage of literates is more among high income group (70.51) than that of low income group (38.26).

The data in Table No.5.2.7 reveal that education and high superstitious beliefs and practices are negatively associated for both high income group ($Q = -0.883$, $X^2 = 43.671$) and low income group ($Q = -0.621$, $X2 = 21.234$) though there is variation in percentage between high income and low income groups. This indicates the independent effect of education on superstitious beliefs and practices. Within, both high income and low income groups, literates have smaller proportion of superstitions than illiterates. The percentage difference is 60.20 (80.00 - 19.80) for high income group and 34.55 (71.69 - 37.14) for low income group. In other words, when income is controlled, education has an independent effect on superstitious beliefs of practices conversely, within each of literate and illiterate group income is also related to superstition. Among literates, high income respondents are less superstitious, the percentage

difference is 17.34 (37.14 - 19.80) for illiterates, high income group is more superstitious, the percentage difference is 8.31 (80.00- 71.69). This may be explained on the basis of the fact that high income may be due to the possession of land property.

Thus, when education is controlled income has also some independent effect on superstitions though the proportion is less in comparison to that of education.

Which one of those two variables is more effective? This is the question of relative effect. This can be found out by comparing the two "counter directional" groups, as suggested by Rosenberg (1968). The proportion of high superstitions among high income illiterates is 80.00 while among low income literate group, it is 37.14. Thus, low income literate respondents are less superstitious than high income illiterates. The same fact can also be represented by ranking the percentage.

	Groups	Extent of Superstitions in percentage
1.	High income literates	19.80
2.	Low income literates	37.14
3.	High income illiterates	80.00
4.	Low income illiterates	71.69

Above figures can be used to calculate the average percentage difference. The average effect of education, controlling income, is 47.37. It is the average of 80.0 - 19.80 and 71.69 - 37.14. Conversely, the average effect of income, controlling education, is 12.82. It is the average of 37.14 - 19.80 and 80.00 - 71.69. Thus, educated are found to be less superstitious, irrespective of income.

5.2.8 Summary and Conclusions:

Foregoing analysis and interpretation reveal that education is negatively associated with superstitions. This confirms the hypothesis. The educated will be having less superstitions. The impact of other variables as sex, age, bari status, occupation and income is there, but as the analysis shows, it is proportionately less to that of education.

The findings of the present study can be supported by the findings of other studies as mentioned somewhere (Chapters I and II) as Inkeles and Smith (1974), Gore, et al (1970), Sullivan (1968), Karim (Ward, 1964), Kalra (1978), Srinivas (1966), Bhatnagar (1972), Dube (1958), Rao (Gore, et al, 1967), Desai (1978), Ward (1964), Gani (Ward, 1964), Alexandar (1968),

Gosh (1969), Sachchidananda (1968), Moomaw (1947), Afsar (1979), Srivastava (1968), Pandey (1975) etc.

5.3.1 EDUCATION AND FAMILY AND MARRIAGE:

Family is considered as one of the basic institutions of the society (Mukherjee, 1971; 241). B. Russel takes family as one of the two most important systems of the society, the other being, the economic system (Karim, 1972; 102). Inkeles and Smith (1974; 25) place family as only second to religion in social system. Ivor Morrish (1972; 162) maintains family as one of the basic primary groups of the society. Aristotle in his Politics (Karim, 1972; 183) focussed on family as very encompassing including economic aspects. The word 'economic' also was derived from the greek word Oikos meaning family or homestead (Karim, 1972; 83).

Marriage is considered as one of deepest and most complex involvements of human relationships (Kapur, 1980; 63). It is the corner stone of societies. There are various institutionalized rituals and practices that are attached to the system of marriage. Marriage, technically, is a legal contract, between a couple (Zaidi, 1970; 46).

From the dawn of civilization, different types of families and marriages have been found in practice. Unich (Shills, 1968; Vol. 10:1) identifies families not only of the marital couples and their children, but also of larger group. He differentiates various types of families. The extended or joint family includes a nuclear family plus lineal and collateral kinsmen. Nuclear family, on the other hand, is where rights and obligations among those in the larger kins group are given little emphasis relative to the claim among the members of the same nuclear family.

In Indian situation, Mukherjee (Unithan, et al, 1965; 200) and Kapadia (1958; 272) find joint or extended families consisted of some generations under the same family as husband, wife, their children, children's children, parents, cousins, sister's children with some other relatives. Morrison (1959; 45-67) found three types of families as nuclear, consisted of conjugal pair with or without other relatives; joint family, consisting of two or more conjugal pairs with or without other relatives and quasi-joint family consisting of two conjugal pairs with or without other relatives and further if the husbands in two pairs are related as father and son. In Bangladesh, Karim

(Ward, 1964) found joint family consisted of some generations as the Dutta family of the district of Noakhali.

Contracting and performing marriages follow many formalities and vary from culture to culture as well as within a culture. Karim (Ward, 1964; 311) finds in Bangladesh (East Pakistan), the prevailing idea in Moslem society is that there should not be a moment's delay in the marriage of a girl as soon as she comes of marriage age, sometimes before puberty. In rural Bangladesh, the parents of a girl who remains unmarried after puberty suffer severe censure from the society. In Pakistan, Amna Gani (Ward, 1964; 323-340) finds that if a girl is not married at the age of 20, she was suspected as being physically or mentally ailmented. Mukherjee (1971; 8-19) found in Bengal that, bachelors were not entertained in the society, they would be ostracised from main-stream of society. Around - 1942 - 45, he found marriage for boys as 16 years to 18 years and for girls 12 years to 14 years for previous period it was, as he found, 15 years to 16 years for boys and 10 years to 12 years for girls.

Studies by Aird (Maron, 1957; 36) in the villages of Karful and Senpara, Dacca around 1952-53, found marriage age for girls in Karful was 11.7 years and

Senpara 11.1 and for boys 19.4 years in Karful and 19.6 in Senpara, respectively. Smith (Ward, 1964; 507) found marriage age as 15 years to 19 years in South East Asia and it was 20 years for Western Europe and North America. In Indian sub-continent about 70 percent got married between 15 years and 19 years while it was 17 years to 18 years for Indonesia. In the period 1946-51, marriage age for rural areas was 14.6 years and 16.4 for urban areas in India (Ward, 1964), Godwin (1972; 65) found traditional marriage age in village communities as 12 years to 15 years for girls, and 13 years to 15 years for boys, respectively.

In the traditional societies family background, age, religion, caste, sect, wealth were the main criterias for arranging marriage (Zaidi, 1970; 50), Karim (1976; 147) found the family background as basis of marriage selection. The high family (unchu bangsha) did not have marital relations with the low family (nichchu bangsha). Karim (Ward, 1964) also found in earlier times marriage ceremonial function would continue for month long with many formalities, with heavy financial involvements. This was one of the causes of rural indebtedness in villages, in earlier times. The extreme form of traditional marriage pattern was found in Egyptian royal families where marriages

would be arranged between brother and sister in order to preserve the royal blood, as mentioned by Lowie (Karim, 1972; 82). Marriage in high family (unchu bangsha) means elevation of social status. Bertocci (1970) called it as getting into 'Sardari' lineage. Wood (Huq, 1978; 16-58) found marriages between high family and high family.

It is generally assumed and as found by Ross (1961; 264) in Indian situation that education spreads a spirit of individual and social mobility consequently leading to changes in types and patterns of family and marriage. Karim (Ward, 1964) found in Bangladesh that marriage function of educated couples took only some hours in the city of Dacca. Educated mothers are found to be more adaptive to family planning measures (Rajaguru, 1980). Studies in Punjab villages in India showed that joint family, dowry system, caste marriage were not suppored by educated respondents (Bhatnagar, 1972; 81-103).

Pandey (1975) found in Bihar that educated people fought against dowry system, child marriage, other rituals and discarded purdah system. Inter-caste marriages were found in Kerala, India, among educated

by Alexandar (1968). Rajamanickam (1966), Ahmad (1973), Baker (1973), Mehta (1974), Narain (1975) found that majority University/college students and educated persons disfavoured joint family, preferred self selection of marriage partners, better status for women and approved family planning. Karim (Ward, 1964) found change in role and status of educated women in Bangladesh. Gore and others (1970) found educated supported inter-caste marriage, self-selection of marriage partners, and less particular about rituals. Of course, there are some studies which found that educated did not support inter-caste marriage or discard of rituals etc,. as for example, Ojha (1968).

On the basis of the importance of the institution of family and marriage in the village communities and studies on education and family and marriage, it is assumed that education will have an impact on changes in family and marriage affairs.

As mentioned earlier in Chapter III (3.9.4.3) twelve questions were asked to the respondents for their views. The responses were evaluated according to the content of the responses and the specimen set up by M.S.Gore and others (1970; 136-17) (Specimen are put in appendix B) and guiding teacher and experts as

mentioned in Methodology. (Evaluation Procedures according to questions and trends of responses are affixed to appendix B). Change oriented responses were evaluated for scoring two and less, change-oriented responses for one. As mentioned in Methodology chapter, out of the twelve questions, the maximum score was 24 (2x12) while minimum was 12 (1x12). The scores were dichotomized at arithmetic mean 16.4 as 17 and above high (more change-oriented), 16 and below low (less change-oriented). The hypothesis (No.3) that has been put forward for testing reads as follows:

"The more educated a person is, the more he/she will prefer a change in family and marriage affairs."

Data are presented for testing the hypothesis according to the tables that follow:

Table No.5.3.1

Association between Levels of Education and Change in Family and Marriage affairs

Change	Educational Levels									
	Higher		S.S.C.		Primary		Illiterate		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
High	29	93.55	37	68.51	33	40.75	25	16.33	124	38.88
Low	2	6.45	17	31.49	48	59.25	128	83.67	195	61.12
	31	100.00	54	100.00	81	100.00	153	100.00	319	1000.00

(Source: Table No.7.3 appendix B)

Table No.5.3.1 reveals that 29 respondents, out of the total 31 respondents of higher education score high change, percentage being 93.35 and 2 score low change, percentage being 6.45; 37 out of the total 54 respondents of S.S.C. education score high change, percentage being 68.51 and 17 score low change, percentage being 31.49; 33 respondents of the total 81 respondents of primary education score high change, percentage being 40.75 and 48 score low, percentage being 59.25; and out of the total 153 illiterate respondents, only 25 score high change, percentage being 16.33 and the rest 128 score low change, percentage being 83.67. These scores reveal that with the increase of the levels of education, the percentage of change also increases. It also indicates that though in smaller proportion, illiterates also possess some change and educated also possess some less change in attributes. For more clear and precision, these are presented below.

5.3.2 Association between Education and change in Family and Marriage affairs:

The same scores are presented in Table 5.3.2 according to the dichotomizing forms of literate and illiterate respondents (as mentioned in Methodology in 3.9.2 and for the sections of the Chapter on "Education

and Modernity", and "Education and Superstitions") to find out the association of education and change in family and marriage affairs in a more, clear, simple and precise way.

Table No.5.3.2

Association between Education and change in Family and Marriage Affairs

Change	Literate		Illiterate		Total
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	99	59.63	25	16.33	124
Low	67	40.37	128	83.67	195
Total	166	100.00	153	100.00	319

$Q = 0.766 \quad X^2 = 62.817 \quad df.1, P < .01$

The data in the table No.5.3.2 confirm the hypothesis. Among 166 literate respondents, 99 (59.63) and 67 (40.37) score high change and low change-oriented attributes, respectively, while among the 153 illiterate respondents, 25 (16.33) and the rest 128 (83.17) score high and low change-oriented attributes, respectively. The association ($X^2 = 62.817$) is significant at .01 level, and positive ($Q = 0.766$).

Now, the question may arise, how far this positive association of education with change-oriented attributes on family and marriage is genuine. This may be due to some other antecedent variables active in the village. In order to find an answer to such a question and to find out independent, relative, and cumulative effect of the variables of education, sex, age, bari status, occupation and income, the data are presented according to cross tables that follow, taking in every case education as constant, as per technique suggested by Travis Hirschi and Selvin (1967; 73) and Rosenberg (1968; 169-182).

5.3.3 Education and change in Family and Marriage affairs when controlled for Sex:

Table No.5.3.3

Association between Education and change in Family of Marriage Affairs when controlled for Sex

	Male					Female				
Change	Literate		Illiterate		Total	Literate		Illiterate		Total
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	59	64.13	16	21.33	75	40	54.05	9	11.53	49
Low	33	35.87	59	78.67	92	34	45.95	69	88.47	103
Total	92	100.00	75	100.00	167	74	100.00	78	100.00	152

Q = 0.736 X^2 = 30.587, df.1, P $<$ .01

Q = 0.800 X^2 = 31.421, df.1, P $<$ .01

The data in Table No.5.3.3 reveal that among 152 female respondents, 48.67 percent (74) are literates and 51.31 percent (78) are illiterates respectively, among 167 males, 55.09 percent (92) are literates and 44.91 percent are illiterates, respectively. Thus, the percentage of literates is more (55.09) among males than that of females (48.69). The data show that education and change in family and marriage affairs are positively associated for both male (X^2 = 30.587, Q = 0.736) and female (X^2 = 31.421, Q = 0.800) though there is some variation in percentage between males and females, males being more change-oriented than females. This indicates the effect of education on change in family and marriage independent of sex.

Within both male and female groups, literates have larger proportion of change than illiterates. The percentage difference in males is 42.80 (64.13 - 21.33) and 42.52 (54.05 - 11.53) for females. In other words, when sex is controlled, education has an independent effect on family and marriage. Conversely, within each of the literate and illiterate groups, sex is also related to change to some extent. Among both literates and illiterates, males are more change-oriented than females. The percentage difference is 10.08 (64.13 - 54.05)

for literates and 9.80 (21.33 - 11.53) for illiterates. Thus, when education is controlled, sex has also some independent effect on 'change' though the proportion is very small in comparison to 'education'.

Now, relatively which variable is more effective, 'education' or 'sex'? This is the question of relative effect as Rosenberg (1968) suggested the procedure to compare the proportion in two "counter directional" groups. The proportion of 'change' among male illiterates is 21.33 and that of female literates is 54.05. Thus, the female literate respondents are more change-oriented than male illiterates.

The same fact can be represented by ranking the percentages

	Groups	Percentage of change for family and marriage affairs
1.	Male literates	64.13
2.	Female literates	54.05
3.	Male illiterates	21.33
4.	Female illiterates	11.53

Above figures can be used to calculate the average percentage difference. The average effect of education, controlling sex, is 42.66. It is the average of 64.13-21.33

and 54.05 - 11.53. Conversely, the average effect of sex, controlling education, is 9'91. It is the average of 64.13 - 54.05 and 21.33 - 11.53.

Once the independent and relative effects of education and sex are found out, it is the turn of cumulative effect. In other words, how strongly sex and education combinely effect on change in family and marriage affairs. For cumulative effect, Rosenberg (1968; 169-183) suggested to compare the two "extreme consistent" groups. The cumulative effect is 52.60 (64.13 - 11.53).

Thus, it is found that education has a greater impact on change in family and marriage affairs in comparison to sex.

5.3.4 Education and change in Family and Marriage affairs when controlled for Age:

Table No.5.3.4

Association between Education and Change in Family and Marriage affairs when controlled for Age

Change	Low Age					High Age				
	Literate		Illiterate		Total	Literate		Illiterate		Total
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	60	62.50	14	17.50	74	39	55.71	11	15.07	50
Low	36	37.50	66	82.50	102	31	44.29	62	84.93	93
Total	96	100.00	80	100.00	176	70	100.00	73	100.00	143
Q = 0.774						Q = 0.752				
X^2 = 36.263, df.1, P ∠ .01						X^2 = 25.961, df.1, P ∠ .01				

Among the 176 respondents of low age group, 54.54 percent (96) are literates and 45.46 percent (80) are illiterates and among the 143 of the higher age group 48.96 percent (70) are literates and 51.04 percent (73) are illiterates, respectively. Thus, the percentage of literates is more (54.54) in low age group than that of high age group (48.96).

The data in table no.5.3.4 reveal that education and change in family and marriage affairs are positively associated for both low age group (X^2 = 36.263, Q = 0.774) and high age group (X^2 = 25.961, Q = 0.752) though there is variation in percentage. The table also reveals that irrespective of age groups, the literates have higher percentage of change, it is 62.5 for low age and 55.71 for high age. This indicates the effect of education, independent of age.

Within both high age and low age, literates are more change oriented than illiterates. The percentage difference is 45.0 (62.5 - 17.5) for low age, and 40.64 (55.71 - 15.07) for high age. In other words, when age is controlled, education has an independent effect on change in family and marriage affairs. Conversely, within each of the literate and illiterate groups, age

is also related to change to some extent. Among both literates and illiterates, low age group is more change-oriented than high age group. The percentage difference is 6.79 (62.50- 55.71) for literates and 2.43 (17.5 - 15.07) for illiterates.

Thus, when education is controlled age has also some independent effect on change though it is very insignificant in comparison to that of education. Which one of these two variables is more effective? This is the question of relative effect. It is the proportion in two "counter directional" group, as suggested by Rosenberg (1968). The proportion of change among low age illiterates is 17.50 and that of high age literates is 55.71. Thus, the high age literates are more change-oriented than low age illiterates. The same fact can be put by ranking the percentage.

	Groups	Percentage in change
1.	Low age literates	62.50
2.	High age literates	55.71
3.	Low age illiterates	17.50
4.	High age illiterates	15.07

Above figures can be used to calculate the average percentage difference. The average effect of education,

controlling age, is 42.82. It is the average of 62.5 - 17.5 and 55.71 - 15.07. Conversely, the effect of age, controlling education, is 4.61. It is the average of 62.50 - 55.71 and 17.50 - 15.07. The cumulative effect of education and age is 47.43 (62.50 - 15.07). It is the difference of two "extreme consistent" groups (Rosenberg, 1968; 180).

Thus, the impact of education on change in family and marriage affairs is highly associated irrespective of variation in age.

5.3.5 Education and change in Family and Marriage affairs when controlled for Bari Status:

Table No.5.3.5

Association between Education and change when controlled for Bari Status

Change	Unchu (High) Bari Status					Nichchu (Low) Bari Status				
	Literate		Illiterate		Total	Literate		Illiterate		Total
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	51	62.97	12	17.64	63	48	56.48	13	15.30	61
Low	30	37.03	56	82.36	86	37	43.50	72	84.70	109
Total	81	100.00	68	100.00	149	85	100.00	85	100.00	170
Q = 0.776						Q = 0.755				
X^2 = 31.105, df.1, P $\angle$ .01						X^2 = 31.320, df.1, P $\angle$ .01				

Among 170 respondents of nichchu (low) bari status

group, 50 percent (85) are literates and 50 percent (85) are illiterates, respectively and among 149 respondents of unchu (high) bari status group 54.37 percent (81) and 45.63 percent (68) are literates and illiterates, respectively. Thus, the percentage of literates is more (54.37) among unchu (high) bari respondents than nichchu (low) bari respondents (50.0).

The data in Table No.5.3.5 reveal that education and change in family and marriage are positively associated for both bnchu bari group (X^2 = 31.105; Q = 0.766) and nichchu bari group (X^2 = 31.320, Q = 0.755). This indicates the effect of education on change independent of bari status. Within both the unchu bari and nichchu bari groups, literates have larger proportion of change than illiterates. The percentage difference in unchu bari is 45.33 (62.97 - 17.64) and in nichchu bari, it is 41.18 (56.48 - 15.30). In other words, when bari status is controlled, education has an independent effect on change in family and marriage. Conversely, within each of the literate and illiterate groups, bari status is also related to change to some extent. Among literates, unchu bari group is more change-oriented than nichchu bari group. The percentage difference for literates is 5.49 (62.97-56.48),

for illiterates it is 2.34 (17.64 - 15.30). Thus, when education is controlled, bari status has also some effect on change though the proportion is very small in comparison to education.

The relative effect of education and bari status is 39.04 (56.48 - 17.64). It is the proportion in two "counter directional" groups as suggested by Rosenberg (1968). The proportion of change among high (unchu) bari illiterate group is 17.64 and among nichchu (low) bari literate group is 56.48. Thus, the nichchu bari literates are more change-oriented than unchu bari illiterates. The same fact can be represented by ranking the percentage.

	Groups	Change in Percentage
1.	Unchu bari literates	62.97
2.	Nichchu bari literates	56.48
3.	Unchu bari illiterates	17.64
4.	Nichchu bari illiterates	15.30

Above figures can be used to calculate the average percentage difference. The average effect of education, controlling bari status, is 43.26. It is the average of 62.97 - 17.64 and 56.48 - 15.30. Conversely, the average effect of bari status is 3.92. It is the average of

62.97 - 56.48 and 17.64 - 15.30.

The cumulative effect of unchu bari and education is 47.67 (62.97 - 15.30). It is the difference (in percentage) of two "extreme consistent" groups (Rosenberg, 1968). Thus, the impact of education is higher than that of bari status on change.

5.3.6 Education and change in Family and Marriage affairs when controlled for occupation:

Table No.5.3.6

Association between Education and change when controlled for Occupation

Change	Non-agricultural occupation				Total	Agricultural occupation				Total
	Literate		Illiterate			Literate		Illiterate		
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	51	68.0	9	37.5	60	48	52.74	16	12.4	64
Low	24	32.0	15	62.5	39	43	47.26	113	87.6	156
Total	75	100.0	24	100.0	99	91	100.00	129	100.0	220

Q = 0.559 X^2 = 7.08, df.1, P < .01

Q = 0.774 X^2 = 42.102, df.1, P < .01

Among 220 respondents of agricultural occupation, 41.37 percent (91) are literates and 58.63 percent (129) are illiterates, and among 99 non-agricultural occupants

75.76 percent (76) are literates and 24.24 percent (24) are illiterates. Thus, the percentage of literates is more (75.76) among non-agricultural occupants than that of agricultural occupants (41.37). The data in Table No.5.3.6 reveal that education and change are positively associated for both non-agricultural occupants (X^2 = 7.08, Q = 0.559) and agricultural occupants (X^2 = 42.102, Q = 0.774) though there is variation in percentage between non-agricultural and agricultural groups. This indicates the effect of education on change in family and marriage independent of occupation.

Within both non-agricultural and agricultural groups, literates have larger proportion of change than illiterates. The percentage difference is 20.5 (68.0 - 37.5) for non-agricultural group and 40.34 (52.74 - 12.40) for agricultural group. In other words, when occupation is controlled, education has an independent effect on change in family and marriage affairs. Conversely, within each of literate and illiterate groups, occupation is related to change to some extent. Among both literate and illiterate groups, non-agricultural occupants are more-change-oriented than agricultural occupants. The percentage difference for literates is 15.26 (68.0 - 52.74) and it is 25.10

(37.50- 12.40) for illiterates. Thus, when education is controlled, occupation has also some independent effect on change though the proportion is less than that of education.

What is the relative effect of education and occupation? It is the proportion in two "counter directional" groups as suggested by Rosenberg (1968). The proportion of change among non-agricultural illiterate group is 37.5 and it is 52.74 for agricultural literate group. Thus, the agricultural literates are more change-oriented than non-agricultural illiterates. The same fact can be represented by ranking percentage.

	Groups	Change in Percentage
1.	Non-agricultural literates	68.00
2.	Agricultural literates	52.74
3.	Non-agricultural illiterates	37.50
4.	Agricultural illiterates	12.40

The above figures can be used to calculate the average percentage difference. The average effect of education, controlling occupation, is 30.42. It is the average of 68.0 - 37.5 and 52.74 - 12.40. Conversely,

the average effect of occupation, controlling education, is 20.18. It is the average of 68.00- 52.74 and 37.50- 12.40.

The cumulative effect of non-agricultural occupation and education is 55.60 (68.00- 12.40). It is the difference (in percentage) of two "extreme consistent" groups (Rosenberg, 1968).

Thus, the impact of education is higher than that of occupation.

5.3.7 Education and change in Family and Marriage affairs when controlled for Income:

Table No.5.3.7

Association between Education and change in Family and Marriage when controlled for Income

Change	High Income					Low Income				
	Literate		Illiterate		Total	Literate		Illiterate		Total
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	60	62.50	12	30.0	72	39	55.71	13	11.50	52
Low	36	37.50	28	70.0	64	31	44.29	100	88.50	131
Total	96	100.00	40	100.0	136	70	100.00	113	100.00	183
Q = 0.590						Q = 0.812				
X^2 = 11.970, df.1, P $\angle$ .01						X^2 = 41.532, df.1, P $\angle$ .01				

Among 183 respondents of low income group, 38.36 percent (70) are literates and 61.74 percent (113) are illiterates; of the 136 respondents of high income group, 70.51 (96) are literates and 29.41 percent (40) are illiterates. Thus, the percentage of literates is more among high income group (70.61) than that of low income group (38.26). The data in table no.5.3.7 reveal that education and change in family and marriage are positively associated for both high income group (X^2= 11.970, Q =0.590) and low income group (X^2 = 41.532, Q = 0.812), though, there is a variation in percentage between high income and low income groups. This indicates the effect of education on change in family and marriage independent of income.

Within both high income and low income groups, literates have larger proportion of change than illiterates. The percentage difference is 32.5 (62.5 - 30.0) for high income group and 44.21 (55.71 - 11.50) for low income group. In other words, when income is controlled, education has an independent effect on family marriage. Conversely, within each of literate and illiterate groups, income is related to change. Among both literates and illiterates, high income respondents are more modern than low income one. The percentage

difference is 6.79 (62.50 - 55.71) for literates and is 18.50 (30.00 - 11.50) for illiterates. Thus, when education is controlled, income has also some independent effect on family and marriage though the proportion is less than that of education.

What is relative effect of education and income? It is the proportion in two "counter directional" groups as suggested by Rosenberg (1968). The proportion of change among high income illiterates is 30.00while among low income literates, it is 55.71. Thus, low income literates are more change-oriented than high income illiterates. The same fact can be represented by ranking the percentage.

	Groups	Percentage in Change
1.	High income literates	62.50
2.	Low income literates	55.71
3.	High income illiterates	30.00
4.	Low income illiterates	11.50

Above figures can be used to calculate the average percentage difference. The average effect of education, controlling income,is 38.36. It is the average of 62.50 - 30.00 and 55.71 - 11.50. Conversely, the average effect of income, controlling education,is 12.65. It is

the average of 62.50 - 55.71 and 30.00 - 11.50.

The cumulative effect of high income and education is 51.0. It is the difference (in percentage) of the two "extreme consistent" groups (Rosenberg, 1968).

Thus, the impact of education on marriage and family is higher than that of income.

3.3.8 Summary and Conclusion:

The findings of the foregoing analysis and interpretation confirm the hypothesis. Education has an impact on change in family and marriage affairs in the village communities under study in Bangladesh. Villagers with the growth of their educational attainments will act as an agent of change in family and marriage affairs.

In support of these findings the following studies can be put, as mentioned earlier, Bhatnagar (1972), Gore, et al (1970), Sullivan (1968), Inkeles and Smith (1974), Karim (Ward, 1964), Rajaguru (1980), Pandey (1975), Alexander (1968), Ojha (1968), Ahmed (1973), Baker (1973), Mehta (1974), Gani (Ward, 1964), Smith (Ward, 1964), Godwin (1972), Aird (Maron, 1957), Karim (1976), Wood (Huq, 1978), Kapur (1980), Morrison (1959), etc.

5.4.1 Education and change in Educational affairs:

On the basis of the discussion in the Chapters on "Introduction" and "Review of related literature and Research", these questions were asked to the villagers to locate the change in educational affairs. The responses out of ten questions were evaluated in the process as mentioned in "Methodology" and in the previous sections of this Chapter on "Modernity", "Superstitions" and "Family and Marriage". Change-oriented responses scored two and less change-oriented scored one. Maximum scores out of ten questions were 20 (2x10) and minimum 10 (1x10). Total scores were dichotomized at arithematic mean (14.4) as 15 and above as high score, 14 and below as low score. High scores stand for more change-oriented.

The hypothesis (No.4) that has been put forward for testing reads as follows:

" The more educated a person is, the more he/she will prefer a change in educational affairs. "

Data are presented in the following tables.

Table No.5.4.1

Association between levels of education and change in Educational affairs

Scores	Levels of Education								Total
	Higher		S.S.C.		Primary		Illiterate		
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	29	93.55	41	75.92	37	45.68	40	26.14	147
Low	2	6.45	13	24.08	44	54.32	113	73.86	172
Total	31	100.00	54	100.00	81	100.00	153	100.00	319

(Source: Table No.7.4, appendix B)

Data in the table no.5.4.1 reveal that 29 respondents, of the total 31 of higher level of education score high change, percentage being 93.55, and the rest 2 score low change, percentage being 6.45; 41 of the total 54 respondents of the S.S.C. level of education score high change, percentage being 75.92, and the rest 13 score low change, percentage being 24.08, 37 of the total 81 respondents of the primary level of education score high change, percentage being 45.68 and the rest 44 score low, percentage being 54.32; 40 of the total 153 of the illiterate respondents score high, percentage being 26.14, and the rest 113 score low, percentage being

73.86. These scores reveal certain direction in the sense that percentage of high score goes up with the growth of the levels of education, highest percentage for higher (93.55) level of education and lowest (26.14) for the illiterates. It also indicates the direction that though in smaller proportion, some illiterate respondents also possess some attributes of high change and some educated also possess low change attributes. This difference of percentage can be put in a clear, precise and simple way by dichotomizing, the respondents into 'literates' consisting of higher, S.S.C. and primary levels of education and illiterates, as mentioned earlier. This follows a 2x2 contigency table (No.5.4.2).

Table No.5.4.2
Association between Education and Change in Educational affairs

Change	Literates		Illiterates		Total
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	107	64.46	40	26.14	147
Low	59	35.54	113	73.86	172
Total	166	100.00	153	100.00	319

$Q = 0.673$, $X^2 = 47.039$, df. 1, $P < .01$.

Data in table no.5.4.2 confirm the hypothesis. Among 166 literate respondents, 107 (64.46) and 59 (35.54) score high change and low change regarding education, respectively, while among the 153 illiterate respondents, 40 (26.14) and the rest 113 (73.86) score high change and low change, respectively. The association (X^2 = 47.039) is significant at .01 level and positive (Q = 0.673).

Now the question arises that how far this positive association of education with educational change is genuine. This may be due to some other antecedent variables. In order to find out an answer to such a question and to find out independent, relevant and cumulative effect of the variables of education, sex, age, bari status, occupation, and income, the data are presented according to the cross tables that follow, taking education as constant in every table as the technique suggested by Hirschi and Selvin (1967; 73) and Rosenberg (1968; 169-182).

5.4.3 Education and change in educational affairs when controlled for sex:

Table No.5.4.3

Association between Education and Educational change when controlled for sex

Change	MALE					FEMALE				
	Literate		Illiterate		Total	Literate		Illiterate		Total
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	65	70.66	22	29.33	87	42	56.76	18	23.08	60
Low	27	29.34	53	70.67	80	32	43.24	60	76.92	92
Total	92	100.00	75	100.00	167	74	100.00	78	100.00	152

Q = 0.705 X^2 = 28.265, df.1, P $\angle$ .01

Q = 0.627 X^2 = 18.02 df.1, P $\angle$ .01

Data in table no.5.4.3 reveal that among 152 female respondents, 48.67 percent (74) are literates, and 51.31 percent (78) are illiterates, respectively; among 167 male respondents, 35.09 percent (92) are literates and 44.91 (75) are illiterates. Thus, the percentage of literates is more (55.09) among males than that of females (48.69). The data show that education and change in educational affairs are positively associated for both male (X^2 = 28.265, Q = 0.705) and female (X^2 = 18.02,

Q = 0.627) though there is some variation in percent between males and females, males being more change-oriented than females. This indicates the effect of education on change in educational affairs, independent of sex.

Within both male and female groups, literates have larger proportion of change than illiterates. The percentage difference for males is 41.33 (70.66 - 29.33) and for females is 33.68 (56.76 - 23.08). In other words, when sex is controlled, education has an independent effect on change in education. Conversely, within each of the literate and illiterate groups, sex is also related to change to some extent. Among both literates and illiterates, males are more change-oriented than females. The percent difference is 13.90 (70.66 - 56.76) for literates and 6.25 (29.33 - 23.08) for illiterates. Thus, when education is controlled, sex has also some independent effect on change in educational affairs though the proportion is very small in comparison to that of education.

Now, relatively which variable is more effective, education or sex? This is the question of relative effect and Rosenberg (1968) suggested the procedure to

compare the proportion in two "counter directional" groups. The proportion of change among male illiterates is 29.33 and that of female literates is 56.76. Thus the female literates are more change-oriented than male illiterates. The same fact can be represented by ranking the percentage.

	Groups	Percentage of change
1.	Male literates	70.66
2.	Female literates	56.76
3.	Male illiterates	29.33
4.	Female illiterates	23.08

Above figures can be used to calculate the average percentage difference. The average effect of eduction, controlling sex,is 37.51. It is the average of 70.66 - 29.33 and 56.76 - 23.08. Conversely, the average effect of sex, controlling education,is 10.08. It is the average of 70.66 - 56.76 and 29.33 - 23.08.

Cumulative effect of education and sex is 47.58 (70.66 - 23.08). It is the percentage difference of two "extreme consistent" groups. Thus, it is found that education has an independent and greater effect on educational affairs than sex.

5.4.4 Education and change in educational affairs when controlled for age:

Table No.5.4.4

Association between Education and change in Educational affairs when controlled for age

Change	Low Age				Total	High Age				Total
	Literate		Illiterate			Literate		Illiterate		
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	65	67.70	23	28.75	88	42	60.00	17	23.29	59
Low	31	32.30	57	71.25	88	28	40.00	56	76.71	84
Total	96	100.00	80	100.00	176	70	100.00	73	100.00	143

Q = 0.677 X^2 = 26.491, df.1, P $<$ .01

Q = 0.663 X^2 = 19.872, df.1, P $<$ .01

Among the 176 respondents of low age group, 54.54 percent (96) are literates and 49.46 percent (80) are illiterates and among the 143 respondents of the high age group, 48.96 percent (70) are literates and 51.04 (73) are illiterates. Thus, the percentage of literates is more (54.54) in low age group than that of high age group (48.96).

The data in table no.5.4.4 reveal that education

and change in educational affairs are positively associated for both low age group (X^2 = 26.491, Q = 0.677) and high age group (X^2 = 19.872, Q = 0.663) though there is variation in percentage. The table also reveals that irrespective of age groups, the literates have higher percentage of change, it is 67.70 for low age and 60.00 for high age. This indicates the effect of education, independent of age.

Within both high age and low age groups, literates are more change-oriented than illiterates. The percent difference is 38.95 (67.70 - 28.75) for low age and is 36.71 (60.00 - 23.29) for high age. In other words, when age is controlled, education has an independent effect on change. Conversely, within each of the literate and illiterate groups, age is also related to change to some extent. Among both literates and illiterates, low age group is more change-oriented than high age group. The percentage difference is 7.70 (67.70 - 60.00) for literates and 5.46 (28.75 - 23.29) for illiterates. Thus, when education is controlled, age has also some independent effect on change though it is very small in comparison to that of education.

Which one of these two variables is more effective? This is the question of relative effect.

It is the proportion in two "counter directional" groups (Rosenberg, 1968). The proportion of change among low age illiterate is 28.75 and that of high age literate is 60.0. Thus, the high age literates are more change-oriented than low age illiterates. The same fact can be represented by ranking the percentage.

	Groups	Percentage in change
1.	Low age literates	67.70
2.	High age literates	60.00
3.	Low age illiterates	28.75
4.	High age illiterates	23.29

Above figures can be used to evaluate the average percentage difference. The average effect of education, controlling age, is 37.83. It is the average of 67.70 - 28.75 and 60.00 - 23.29. Conversely, the effect of age, controlling education, is 5.58. It is the average of 67.70 - 60.00 and 28.75 - 23.29.

The cumulative effect of education and age is 44.41 (67.70 - 23.29). It is the difference of two "extreme consistent" groups (Rosenberg, 1968; 180).

Thus, education and change in educational affairs is positively associated irrespective of variation in age.

5.4.5 Education and change in educational affairs when controlled for Bari Status:

Table No.5.4.5

Association between Education and change in Educational affairs controlled for Bari Status

Change	Unchu (High) Bari					Nichchu (Low) Bari				
	Literate		Illiterate		Total	Literate		Illiterate		Total
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	56	69.13	19	27.94	75	51	60.0	21	24.70	72
Low	25	30.87	49	70.06	74	34	40.0	64	75.30	98
Total	81	100.00	68	100.00	149	85	100.0	85	100.00	170
Q = 0.704						Q = 0.641				
X^2 = 25.093, df.1, P ∠ .01						X^2 = 21.683, df.1, P ∠ .01				

Among the 170 respondents of nichchu (low) bari status group 50 percent (85) are literates and 50 percent (85) are illiterates, among 149 respondents of unchu (high) bari status group, 54.37 percent (81) and 45.63 percent (68) are literates and illiterates, respectively. Thus the percentage of literates is more (54.37) among unchu (high) bari group than nichchu (low) bari group (50.0).

The data in table no.5.4.5 reveal that education

and change are positively associated for both unchu (high) bari group (X^2 = 25.093, Q = 0.704) and nichchu bari group (X^2= 21.683, Q = 0.641) though there is slight variation between the groups. This indicates the effect of education on change independent of bari status. Within both the unchu bari and nichchu bari groups, literates have larger proportion of change than illiterates. The percentage difference is 41.19 (69.13 - 27.94) for unchu bari, and 35.30 (60.00- 24.70) for nichchu bari. In other words, when bari status is controlled, education has an independent effect on change in educational affairs. Conversely, within each of the literate and illiterate groups, bari status is also related to change to some extent. Among both literates and illiterates, unchu bari group is more change-oriented than nichchu bari group. The percentage difference is 9.13 (69.13-60.0) for literates, and 3.24 (27.94 - 24.70) for illiterates. Thus, when education is controlled, Bari Status, has also some effect on change though the proportion is very small in comparison to that of education.

The relative effect of education and bari status is the proportion in two "counter directional" groups as suggested by Rosenberg (1968). The proportion

of change among high (unchu) bari illiterate group is 27.94 and among nichchu (low) bari literate group is 60.0. Thus,the nichchu bari literates are more change-oriented than unchu bari illiterates. The same fact can be represented by ranking the percentage.

	Groups	Change in percentage
1.	Unchu bari literates	69.13
2.	Nichchu bari literates	60.00
3.	Unchu bari illiterates	27.94
4.	Nichchu bari illiterates	24.70

Above figures can be used to calculate the average percentage difference. The average effect of education, controlling bari status,is 39.25. It is the average of 39.13 - 27.94 and 60.00- 24.70. Conversely, the average effect of bari status,is 6.19. It is the average of 69.13 - 60.00and 27.94 - 24.70. The cumulative effect of education and bari status is 44.43. It is the difference of (in percent) the two "extreme consistent" groups (Rosenberg, 1968). Thus, the impact of education is higher than that of bari status on change in educational affairs.

5.4.6 Education and change in educational affairs when controlled for occupation:

Table No.5.4.6

Association between Education and change in educational affairs when controlled for occupation

Change	Non-agricultural occupation				Total	Agricultural occupation				Total
	Literate		Illiterate			Literate		Illiterate		
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	59	78.67	11	48.84	70	48	52.74	29	22.49	77
Low	16	21,33	13	54.16	29	43	47.26	100	77.51	143
Total	75	100.00	24	100.00	99	91	100.00	129	100.00	220

Q = 0.626 X^2 = 9.463, df.1, P $<$ .01

Q = 0.587 X^2 =21.485, df.1, P $<$ .01

Among 220 respondents of agricultural occupation, 41.37 percent (91) are literates and 58.63 percent (129) are illiterates, and among 99 non-agricultural occupants, 75.76 percent (75) are literates and 24.24 percent (24) are illiterates. Thus, the percentage of literates is more (75.76) in non-agricultural occupants than that of agricultural occupants (41.37). The data in table No.5.4.6 reveal that education and change are positively associated for both non-agricultural occupants

(X^2 = 9.463, Q = 0.626) and agricultural occupants (X^2 =21.485, Q = 0.587) though there is variation between non-agricultural and agricultural groups. This indicates the effect of education on change in educational affairs is independent of occupation.

Within both non-agricultural and agricultural groups, literates have larger proportion of change than illiterates. The percent difference is 29.83 (78.67 - 48.84) for non-agricultural groups and is 31.81 (52.74 - 20.93) for agricultural group. In other words, when occupation is controlled education has an independent effect on change. Conversely, within each of literate and illiterate groups, occupation is related to change to some extent. Among both, literate and illiterate groups, non-agricultural occupants are more change-oriented than agricultural occupants. The percent difference for literates is 25.73 (78.67-52.74) and it is 27.91 (48.84-20.93) for illiterates. Thus, when education is controlled, occupation has also some independent effect.

The relative effect of education and occupation is the proportion in two "counter directional" groups as suggested by Rosenberg (1968). The proportion of change among non-agricultural illiterates is 48.84

and it is 52.74 for agricultural literates. Thus, agricultural literates are more change-oriented than non-agricultural illiterates. The same fact can be represented by ranking percentage.

	Groups	Change in percentage
1.	Non-agricultural literates	78.67
2.	Agricultural literates	52.74
3.	Non-agricultural illiterates	48.84
4.	Agricultural illiterates	20.93

The above figures can be used to calculate the average percentage difference. The average effect of education, controlling occupation, is 30.82. It is the average of 78.67 - 48.84 and 52.74 - 20.93. Conversely, the average effect of occupation, controlling education, is 26.92. It is the average of 78.67 - 52.74 and 48.84 - 20.93.

The cumulative effect of education and occupation is 57.74 (78.67 - 20.93). It is the difference (in percent) of two "extreme consistent groups" (Rosenberg, 1968).

Thus, education is positively associated with change, of course occupation has also moderate effect.

It is in consonance with findings of Alex Inkeles and Smith (1974). In their case factory experience came next to formal schooling.

3.4.7 Education and change in educational affairs when controlled for income:

Table No.5.4.7

Association between Education and change in educational affairs when controlled for income

Change	High Income				Total	Low Income				Total
	Literates		Illiterates			Literate		Illiterate		
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	64	66.67	13	32.50	77	44	62.86	26	23.0	70
Low	32	33.33	27	67.50	59	26	37.14	87	77.0	113
Total	96	100.00	40	100.00	136	70	100.00	113	100.0	183

Q = 0.611 X^2 = 13.419, df.1, P $<$ .01

Q = 0.699 X^2 = 29.058, df.1, P $<$ .01

Among 183 respondents of low income group 38.26 percent (70) are literates and 61.74 (113) are illiterates and of the 136 respondents of high income group, 70.51 percent (96) are literates and 29.41 (40) are illiterates. Thus, the percentage of literates, is

more among high income group (70.51) than that of low income group (38.26). The data in Table No.5.4.7 reveal that education and change in educational affairs are positively associated for both high income group (X^2 = 13.419, Q = 0.611) and low income group (X^2 = 29.058, Q = 0.699) though there is variation in percentage between high and low income groups. This indicates the effect of education on change in educational affairs independent of income.

Within both high income and low income groups, literates have larger proportion of change than illiterates. The percentage difference is 34.17 (66.67 - 32.5) for high income group and 39.86 (62.86 - 23.0) for low income group. In other words, when income is controlled, education has an independent effect on educational affairs. Conversely, within each of literate and illiterate groups, income is related to change. Among both literates and illiterates, high income group is more change-oriented than low income group. The percentage difference is 3.81 (6667-62.86) for literates and 9.5 (32.5 - 23.0) for illiterates.

Thus, when education is controlled, income has some independent effect on change, though the proportion is smaller in comparison to that of education.

The relative effect of education and income, it is the proportion in two "counter directional" groups as suggested by Rosenberg (1968). The proportion of change among high income illiterates is 32.5 while among low income literate it is 62.86. Thus, low income literates are more change-oriented than high income illiterates. The same fact can be represented by ranking the percentage.

	Groups	Percentage in change
1.	High income literates	66.67
2.	Low income literates	62.86
3.	High income illiterates	32.50
4.	Low income illiterates	23.00

The above figures can be used to calculate the average percentage difference. The average effect of education, controlling income, is 37.02. It is the average of 66.67 - 32.5 and 62.86 - 23.0. Conversely, the average effect of income, controlling education, is 6.66. It is the average of 66.67 - 62.86 and 32.5 - 23.0. The cumulative effect of education and income is, 43.67 (66.67 - 23.0). It is the difference of two "extreme consistent"groups.

Thus, on the basis of foregoing analysis, it is

found that the impact of education of change in educational affairs is more than that of sex, age, Bari, occupation and income.

5.4.8 Summary and Conclusions:

Previous studies on education also found that educated persons preferred a change in educational affairs. The educated persons prefer for modern, secular and scientific education. Education is for the pursuit of knowledge. Gore and others (1970) found in their studies that educated respondents prefer modern education. This view is supported by other reserchers as Bhatnagar (1972), Karim (Ward, 1964), Pandey (1975), Kabra (1978), Ojha (1968), Zaidi (1970), Ahmad (1973), Sullivan (1968) and others as mentioned earlier.

Thus, hypothesis is confirmed, education has an impact on change in educational affairs in the villages, under study.

5.5.1 Education and Change in religiosity:

Sociologists, all over the world, generally observe that village people have a greater disposition to religion. The rural people's dependence on agriculture, the unmastered forces of nature like rains, cyclones, floods, natural calamities made them god-fearing. Traditional religion with crudest conceptions holds in the minds of the rural population. Rural religion is the conglomeration of animism, magic, ghost, beliefs, superstitions (Desai, 1978). In Bangladesh it is difficult to find out the difference between real Islam religion and beliefs, superstitions and rituals (Zaidi, 1970). Villager's family life, social life, norms, values, morality, all are standardised by religious flavour. For village people, it is cradle to grave phenomenon. Religion, besides cover physiology, medicine, agronomy, dress, food, diet, so on and so forth. The functions, ceremonies also almost start with religious formalities.

Social thinkers, Sociologists thought of origin, function, evolution of religions from the dawn of civilization. Comte's 'Law of three stages' pass

through theological, metaphysical and positive stages. Comte traces theological stage from animism to monotheism (Bottomore, 1962; 221-229). Spencer and Tylor believed that the idea of the soul was the principal feature in religious belief and from the supposed reality of ghosts developed all kinds of supposed, supernatural beings (Bottomore, 1962; 221). Marx viewed, that religion originated in the fear and anxiety by natural phenomena and it was an illusion which would disappear ultimately. To him, it is the optimum of the masses. To Durkheim (1947) religion is a unified system of beliefs and practices related to sacred things. Max Weber studies religion with its relation to economic order. E.B. Tylor talked of religion as the belief in supernatural beings.

The institution of religion is of crucial importance in the study of Bangladesh society particularly her villages. It is generally believed that due to the overall social, economic development, there will be some sort of change in religious affairs also. Desai (1978; 54) finds a distinction between rural population and its counterpart in the urban in respect of religious beliefs and practices.

Geoffrey Parrinder (1953; 123) found in his studies in African society that with modernization religion was caught by the 'acids' of modernity.

Karim (Ward, 1964; 296-322) in his studies in Bangladesh finds due to the growth of modern secular education and urbanisation the religious beliefs and practices are being modified. Religious functions as 'Id' 'Milad' are more of social type than of religious. Bhatnagar (1972; 105-118) in his studies finds that educated people possess secular, modern and formal attitudes toward religion and religious practices. It is the educated class in Indian sub-continent who started religious reformists' movement. Raja Ram Mohan Roy is a case in point.

Kalra (1978; 129) in his village studies found educated people were secular and rational. Sullivan (1968) in his studies of teacher trainees in India found that religious views were changing. Inkeles and Smith (1974) found that modern man was secular, activists, rational and practical towards religion. M.S. Gore, et al, (1970) in their field studies all over 8 Indian states found that educated respondents were moving out of rigid and traditional religious

beliefs and practices. Inkeles and Smith (1974; 27,28) found with better economic conditions, people living in city could observe religious ceremonies in a befitting manner than their poor counterparts in the village. It may be their own brothers. The city dwellers sent, zakat, sadqah, clothes, for poor relatives in the village. Slaughtering big and costly animals at the Bugri Id is another trend in religion now-a-days. In city the advent of modern educated Pir is a new flavour of religion.

Zaidi (1970), Ojha (1968), Ahmad (1973), Mehta (1974), Narain (1975) find some educated also still persist religiosity and religious practices are observed. Pundlick (1970) finds inspite of spread of secularism, religious bigotry persists and continues to grow in newer forms. Mehta (1974) finds women college teachers are not afraid of speaking socio-religious obligations.

In order to assess the change in religious aspects of the villagers, thirteen questions were asked. The responses were evaluated as more change-oriented scoring two and less change-oriented scoring one, according to the procedures in Methodology and as for the previous sections on 'Modernity', 'Superstitions',

'Family and Marriage', and 'Educational affairs'. Evaluation procedure and total scores are placed at appendix B. Maximum scores for all thirteen questions were 26 (2x13) and minimum 13 (1x13). High score and low score were dichotomized at arithmetic mean (18.2) as 19 and above as high score, 18 and below as low score. High scores stand for more change, low scores for less change.

The hypothesis that has been put forward for testing reads as follows:

"The more educated a person is, the more he/she will follow practical, secular and rational outlook, towards religion and religious practices."

Data are presented according to the tables that follow .

Table No.5.5.1

Association between levels of Education and change in religiosity

Change	Higher		S.S.C.		Primary		Illiterates		Total
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	22	70.97	36	66.67	32	39.50	16	10.46	106
Low	9	29.03	18	33.33	49	60.50	137	89.54	213
	31	100.00	54	100.00	81	100.00	153	100.00	319

(Source: Table No.7.5, appendix 'B')

Data in Table No.5.5.1 reveal that 22 respondents of the total 31 higher level of education score high change, percentage being 70.97 and the rest 9 score low change, percentage being 29.03; 36 of the total 54 of the S.S.C. level of education score high change, percentage is 66.67, and rest 18 score low change, percentage being 33.33; 32 of the total 81 respondents of primary level of education score high change, percentage being 39.50 and the rest 49 score low change, percentage being 60.50; 16 out of the total 153 illiterate respondents score high, percentage being 10.46 and rest 137 score low change, percentage being 89.54. These score reveal certain direction in the sense that percentage of high score goes up with the growth of the levels of education, highest percent (70.97) for higher level of education and lowest percent (10.46) for the illiterates. It also indicates the direction that though in smaller proportion some illiterate respondents also possess some changed attributes of religiosity and some educated also possess low change attributes of religiosity. This difference of percent can be put in a more clear, precise and simple way by dichotomizing total respondents into literates

consisting of higher, S.S.C. and primary levels of education on the one hand as mentioned earlier, and total illiterates on the other. This follows a 2x2 contigency table (No.5.5.2).

Table No.5.5.2

Association between Education and change in Religiosity

Change	Literate		Illiterate		Total
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	90	54.21	16	10.46	106
Low	76	45.79	137	89.54	213
	166	100.00	153	100.00	319

Q = 0.820 X^2 = 68.714, df.1, P $<$ .01

Data in the table no.5.5.2 confirm the hypothesis. Among 166 literate respondents 90 (54.21) and 76 (45.79) score high change and low change in religiosity, respectively while among the 153 illiterate respondents 16 (10.46) and the rest 137 (89.54) score high and low change in religiosity respectively. The association (X^2 = 68.714) is significant at .01 level and positive (Q = 0.820).

Now the question arises that how far this positive association of education with change in religiosity is genuine. This may be due to some other antecedent variables as sex, age, bari status, occupation and income. In order to find out an answer to such a question and to find out, independent, relevant and cumulative effects of the variables of education, sex, age, bari status, occupation and income, the data are presented according to the cross tables that follow, taking education as constant in every table as the technique suggested by Hirschi and Selvin (1967; 73) and Rosenberg (1968; 169-182).

5.5.3 Education and change in religiosity when controlled for sex:

Table No.5.5.3

Association between education and change in religiosity when controlled for sex

Change	Male				Total	Female				Total
	Literate		Illiterate			Literate		Illiterate		
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	52	56.52	10	13.33	62	38	51.36	6	7.70	44
Low	40	43.48	65	86.67	105	36	48.64	72	92.30	108
Total	92	100.00	75	100.00	167	74	100.00	78	100.00	152
Q = 0.788						Q = 0.853				
X^2 = 33.015, df.1, P $\angle$ .01						X^2 = 35.191, df.1, P $\angle$ .01				

Data in Table No.5.5.3 reveal that among 152 female respondents, 48.67 percent (74) are literates and 51.31 percent (78) are illiterates, respectively; among 167 male respondents, 55.09 percent (92) are literates and 44.91 (75) are illiterates. Thus, the percentage of literates is more (55.09) among males than that of females (48.69). The data show that education and change in religiosity are positively associated for both males (X^2 = 33.015, Q = 0.788) and females (X^2 = 35.191, Q = 0.853) though there is some variation in percent between males and females, males being more change-oriented than females. This indicates the effect of education on change in religiosity independent of sex.

Within both male and female groups, literates have larger proportion of change than illiterates. The percentage difference is 43.19 (56.52 - 13.33) for males and 43.66 (51.36 - 7.70) for females. In other words, when sex is controlled, education has an independent effect on change in religiosity. Conversely, within each of literate and illiterate groups, sex is also related to change to some extent. Among both literates and illiterates, males are more change-

oriented than females. The percent difference is 5.16 (56.52 - 51.36) for literates and 5.63 (13.33 - 7.70), for illiterates. Thus, when education is controlled, sex has also some independent effect on religiosity though the proportion is very small in comparison to that of education.

Now, relatively which variable is more effective, education or sex? This is the question of relative effect and Rosenberg (1968) suggested to compare the proportion in two "counter directional" groups. The proportion of change among male illiterates is 13.33 and that of female literates is 51.36. Thus, the female literates are more change-oriented than male illiterates. The same fact can be represented by ranking the percentage.

	Groups	Change in Percentage
1.	Male literates	56.52
2.	Female literates	51.36
3.	Male illiterates	13.33
4.	Female illiterates	7.70

Above figures can be used to calculate the average percentage difference. The average effect of education,

controlling sex, is 43.43. It is the average of 56.52 - 13.33 and 51.36 - 7.70. Conversely, the average effect of sex, controlling education, is 5.40. It is the average of 56.52 - 51.36 and 13.33 - 7.70. The cumulative effect of education and sex is 48.82 (56.52 - 7.70). It is the percentage difference of two "extreme consistent" groups (Rosenberg, 1968).

Thus, education has an independent and greater effect on religiosity irrespect of sex difference.

5.5.4 Education and Religiosity when controlled for age:

Table No.5.5.4

Association between Education and change in Religiosity when controlled for age

Change	Low Age					High Age				
	Literate		Illiterate		Total	Literate		Illiterate		Total
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	54	56.25	10	12.5	64	36	51.42	6	8.21	42
Low	42	43.75	70	87.5	112	34	48.58	67	91.79	101
Total	96	100.00	80	100.0	176	70	100.00	73	100.00	143

Q = 0.800
X^2 = 36.093, df.1, P $\angle$ .01

Q = 0.844
X^2 = 32.161, df.1, P $\angle$ .01

Among the 176 respondents of low age group 54.54 percent (96) are literates and 45.46 percent (80) are illiterates and among the 143 respondents of high age group 48.96 percent (70) are literates and 51.04 percent (73) are illiterates. Thus, the percentage of literates is more (54.54) in low age group than that of high age group (48.96).

The data in table no.5.5.4 reveal that education and change in religiosity are positively associated for both low age group (X^2 = 36.093, Q = 0.800) and high age group (X^2 = 32.161, Q = 0.844), though there is variation in percentage. The table also reveals that irrespective of age groups, the literates have higher percentage of change, it is 56.25 for low age and 51.42 for high age. This indicates the effect of education, independent of age.

Within both the groups of high age and low age, literates are more change-oriented than illiterates. The percent difference is 43.75 (56.25 - 12.5) for low age and is 43.21 (51.42 - 8.21) for high age. In other words, when age is controlled, education has an independent effect on change in religiosity. Conversely, within each of the literate and illiterate groups, age is also related to change to some extent. Among

both literates and illiterates low age group is more change-oriented than high age group. The percent difference is 4.83 (56.25 - 51.42) for literates and is 4.29 (12.5 - 8.21) for illiterates. Thus, when education is controlled, age has also some independent effect on religiosity, though it is very small in comparison to that of education.

Which one of these two variables is more effective? This is the question of relative effect. It is the proportion in two "counter directional" groups (Rosenberg, 1968; 179-182). The proportion of change among low age illiterates is 12.5 while it is 51.42 among high age literates. Thus, the high age literates are more change-oriented than low age illiterates. The same fact can be represented by ranking the percentage.

	Groups	Change in percentage
1.	Low age literates	56.25
2.	High age literates	51.42
3.	Low age illiterates	12.50
4.	High age illiterates	8.21

Above figures can be used to calculate the average percentage difference. The average effect of

education, controlling age, is 43.48. It is the average of 56.25 - 12.50 and 51.42 - 8.21. Conversely, the effect of age, controlling education, is 4.56. It is the average of 56.25 - 51.42 and 12.50 - 8.21. The cumulative effect of education and age is 48.04. (56.25 - 8.21). It is the difference of two "extreme consistent" groups (Rosenberg, 1968; 180).

Thus, education and change in religiosity are positively associated irrespective of variation in age.

5.5.5 Education and change in religiosity when controlled for Bari Status:

Table No.5.5.5

Association between Education and change in religiosity when controlled for bari status

Change	Unchu (High) Bari				Total	Nichchu (Low) Bari				Total
	Literate		Illiterate			Literate		Illiterate		
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	43	53.09	6	8.82	49	47	55.30	10	11.77	57
Low	38	46.91	62	91.18	100	38	44.70	75	88.23	113
Total	81	100.00	68	100.00	149	85	100.00	85	100.00	170

Q = 0.842 X^2 = 32.814, df.1, P $<$ .01

Q = 0.805 X^2 = 36.132, df.1, P $<$ .01

Among 170 respondents of Nichchu (low) Bari group, 50 percent (85) are literates and 50 percent (85) are illiterates; among 149 respondents of Unchu (high) Bari group, 54.37 percent (81) and 45.63 percent (68) are literates and illiterates, respectively. Thus, the percentage of literates is more (54.37) among Unchu bari group than nichchu (low) bari group (50.0). The data in table no.5.5.5 reveal that education and change in religiosity are positively associated for both unchu bari group ($Q = 0.842$, $X^2 = 32.814$) and nichchu bari group ($Q = 0.805$, $X^2 = 36.132$) though there is slight variation between bari groups. This indicates the effect of education on change independent of bari status. Within both the groups of Unchu bari and Nichchu bari literates have larger proportion of change than illiterates. The percentage difference is 44.27 (53.09 - 8.82) for unchu bari and 43.53 (55.30 - 11.77) for nichchu bari. In other words, when bari status is controlled, education has an independent effect on religiosity. Conversely, within each of the literate and illiterate groups, bari status is also related to change to some extent. Among both literates and illiterates, Nichchu bari group is more change-oriented than Unchu bari. The percentage difference

for literate is 2.21 (55.30 - 53.09) and for illiterates is 2.95 (11.77 - 8.82). Thus, when education is controlled, bari status has also some effect on religiosity though the proportion is very small than that of education.

The relative effect of education and bari status, it is the proportion in two "counter directional" groups asssuggested by Rosenberg (1968). The proportion of change among unchu (high) bari illiterates is 8.82 and that of nichchu bari literates is 55.30. Thus the nichchu bari literates are more change-oriented than unchu bari illiterates. The same fact can be represented by ranking the percentage.

	Groups	Change in percentage
1.	Unchu bari literates	53.09
2.	Nichchu bari literates	55.30
3.	Unchu bari illiterates	8.82
4.	Nichchu bari illiterates	11.77

The above figures can be used to calculate the average percentage difference. The average effect of education, controlling bari status, is 43.90. It is the average of 55.30 - 11.77 and 53.09 - 8.82. Conversely, the average effect of bari status is 2.58.

It is the average of 55.30 - 53.09 and 11.77 - 8.82.

The cumulative effect of education and bari status is 41.32 (53.09 - 11.77). It is the difference of two "extreme consistent" groups (Rosenberg, 1968; 180).

Thus, the impact of education on change in religiosity is higher than that of bari status.

5.5.6 Education and change in Religiosity when controlled for occupation:

Table No.5.5.6

Association between Education and change in Religiosity when controlled for occupation

Change	Non-agricultural occupants				Total	Agricultural occupants				Total
	Literate		Illiterate			Literate		Illiterate		
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	43	57.33	6	25.0	49	47	51.64	10	7.76	57
Low	32	42.67	18	75.0	50	44	48.36	119	92.24	163
Total	75	100.00	24	100.0	99	91	100.00	129	100.00	220

Q = 0.602 X^2 = 7.604, df.1, P $\angle$ .01

Q = 0.854 X^2 = 53.561, df.1, P $\angle$ .01

Among 220 respondents of agricultural occupation, 41.37 percent (91) are literates and 58.63 percent (129) are illiterates, and among 99 non-agricultural occupants, 75.76 percent (75) are literates and 24.24 (24) are illiterates. Thus, the percentage of literates is more (75.76) in non-agricultural occupants than that of agricultural occupants (41.37). The data in table no.5.5.6 reveal that education and religiosity change are positively associated for both non-agricultural (X^2 = 7.604, Q = 0.602) and agricultural (X^2 = 53.561, Q = 0.854) groups, though there is variation between agricultural and non-agricultural groups. This indicates the effect of education on change in religiosity independent of occupation. Within both non-agricultural and agricultural groups, literates have larger proportion of change than illiterates. The percent difference is 32.33 (57.33 - 25.0) for non-agricultural occupants, and is 43.88 (51.64 - 7.76) for agricultural occupants. In other words, when occupation is controlled education has an independent effect on change in religiosity. Conversely, within each of literate and illiterate groups, occupation is related to change in religiosity to some extent. Among, both literate and illiterate groups, non-agricultural occupants are

more change-oriented than agricultural occupants. The percent difference for literates is 5.69 (57.33 - 51.64) and is 17.24 (25.00- 7.76) for illiterates. Thus, when education is controlled, occupation has also some independent effect on religiosity. The relative effect of education and occupation, it is the proportion in two "counter directional" groups, as suggested by Rosenberg (1968). The proportion of change among the non-agricultural illiterates is 25.00and it is 51.64 for agricultural literates. Thus, agricultural literates are more change-oriented than non-agricultural illiterates. The same fact can be represented by ranking the percentage.

	Groups	Percentage in change
1.	Non-agricultural literates	57.33
2.	Agricultural literates	51.64
3.	Non-agricultural illiterates	25.00
4.	Agricultural illiterates	07.76

The above figures can be used to calculate the average percentage difference. The average effect of education, controlling occupation,is 38.11. It is the average of 57.33 - 25.00and 51.64 - 7.76. Conversely, the average effect of occupation,

controlling education, is 11.47. It is the average of 57.33 - 51.64 and 25.00- 7.76.

The cumulative effect of education and occupation is 49.57 (57.33 - 7.76). It is the difference between two extreme "consistent groups" (Rosenberg, 1968; 180). Thus, education is positively associated with change in religiosity. Of course, occupation has also some effect. It is in consonance with findings of Alex Inkeles and H.Smith (1974) for factory workers.

5.5.7 Education and change in religiosity when controlled for income:

Table No.5.5.7

Association between Education with change in Religiosity when controlled for Income

Change	High Income					Low Income				
	Literate		Illiterate		Total	Literate		Illiterate		Total
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	53	55.20	5	12.50	58	37	52.86	11	9.73	48
Low	43	44.80	35	87.50	78	33	47.14	102	90.27	135
Total	96	100.00	40	100.00	136	70	100.00	113	100.00	183
Q = 0.792						Q = 0.824				
X^2 = 19.34, df.1, P $\angle$ .01						X^2 = 41.539, df.1, P $\angle$ .01				

Among 183 low income group respondents, 38.26 percent (70) are literates and 61.74 percent (113) are literates and of the 136 high income group respondents, 70.51 percent (96) are literates and 29.41 percent (40) are illiterates. Thus, the percentage of literates is more among high income group (70.51) than that of low income group (38.26). The data in table no.5.5.7 reveal that education and change in religiosity are positively associated for both low income group (X^2 = 41.539, Q = 0.824) and high income group (X^2 = 19.34, Q = 0.792) though there is variation in percentage between high and low income groups. This indicates the effect of education on religiosity independent of income.

Within both high income and low income groups, literates have larger proportion of change than illiterates. The percentage difference is 42.70 (55.20 - 12.5) for high income group and 43.13 (52.86 - 9.73) for low income group. In other words, when income is controlled, education has an independent effect on religiosity. Conversely, within each of literate and illiterate groups, income is also related to change in religiosity. Among both literates and illiterates, high income group

is more change-oriented than low income group. The percentage difference is 2.34 (55.20 - 52.86) for literates, 2.77 (12.50- 9.73) for illiterates. Thus, when education is controlled, income has some independent effect on change in religiosity, though the proportion is negligible in comparison to that of education.

The relative effect of education and income, it is the proportion in two "counter directional" groups as suggested by Rosenberg (1968). The proportion of change among high income illiterate is 12.50 and while among low income literate, it is 52.86. Thus, low income literates are more change-oriented than high income illiterates. The same fact can be represented by ranking the percentage.

	Groups	Change in percentage
1.	High income literates	55.20
2.	Low income literates	52.86
3.	High income illiterates	12.50
4.	Low income illiterates	9.73

Above figures can be used to calculate the average percentage difference. The average effect of education, controlling income, is 47.93. It is the

average of 55.20 - 12.5 and 52.86 - 9.73. Conversely, the average effect of income, controlling education, is 2.56. It is the average of 55.20 - 52.86 and 12.5 - 9.73.

The cumulative effect of education and income is 45.47 (55.20 - 9.73). It is the difference of two "extreme consistent" groups (Rosenberg, 1968).

Thus, on the basis of foregoing analysis, it is found that the impact of education on change in religiosity is more than that of income.

The foregoing analysis and interpretation reveal that education has an impact on change in religiosity of the villagers, under study. The effect of other variables is also there but their impact is insignificant in comparison to that of education. Thus, the hypothesis is confirmed by the data that are presented so far.

These findings are supported more or less by findings in the relevant studies as Inkeles and Smith (1974), M.S.Gore, et al (1970), Bhatnagar (1972), Pandey (1975), Kerla (1978), Zaidi (1970), Karim (Ward, 1964) and other studies as mentioned earlier.

5.6 EDUCATION AND CHANGE IN OCCUPATIONAL ASPECTS:

5.6.1 Introduction:

Agriculture is the main occupation in the village (Mukherjee, 1971; 48). In other words, rural society is based predominantly on agriculture (Desai, 1978; 23). From land villagers produce, by means of technique and their labour power, a variety of agrarian products, rice, jute, tea and other foodstuffs. The occupation is closely related with social structure of the village in general. Occupation is one of the criteria measuring one's social status and hierarchy in any society, along with other factors like family, religion, caste for Hindu society (D'Souza; 192-211). In traditional ascribed society, occupation is determined mostly by birth, but with the growth of knowledge and skill, this is changing. Education is treated as one of the factors for occupational mobility in the present day's society based on achievement rather than ascription. People with educational background and achievement will prefer occupation other than agriculture (Chaterjee, et al, 1959). In his studies, in the Punjab villages, Bhatnagar (1972)

reported that education made an impact on occupation as educated were not following occupation of their fathers or caste-affiliated occupations. Alexander (1968) in his study of Pulya Harijan of Kerala found that due to education, there were major changes in occupations and subsequent development in economy. Rao (Gore, et al, 1967; 127-146) finds in his paper that education is directly related to occupational mobility. Education increases and improves both labours' quality and mobility (Shipman, 1971; 215). Education enables a man to adopt a profession or job or volation (Singh, 1976).

Perhaps, the role of education in occupational mobility is better spoken by Margarret Mead (1943; 59). When she speaks, "Modern education turns the child of peasant into a clerk, of the farmer into a lawyer (of the immigrants imto Americans, of the illiterates into a literate)".

From the discussions of available literature and research findings, and objectives of the present study, it was assumed that educated people will prefer occupational mobility. With this assumption 13 (thirteen) questions were included in the general

interview schedule under the heading "Occupation". Though there are 15 questions, first two question nos. 5.1 and 5.2 were considered to determine the income level only. The motive behind the questions was to find out the trend of change in occupation due to education. According to the procedures mentioned on "Methodology" and for evaluating other questions, the responses on these questions on occupation were categorised as more change-oriented or less change-oriented according to the nature of replies. The more change-oriented replies were evaluated as scoring two while less oriented ones as one. In this way, out of 13 (thirteen) questions maximum score 26 (2x13) and minimum 13 (1x13). Total evaluation was discussed in methodology and presented in appendix B.

According to the above mentioned evaluating process the total scores of all the respondents were dichotomized as high and low around arithmetic mean (18.9) as 20 and above, as high, 19 and below as low.

The hypothesis (No.6) that has been put forward for testing, reads as follows:

"The more educated a person is, the more he/she will prefer a change in occupational aspects."

5.6.2 Education and change in occupational aspects:

Table No.5.6.1

Association between levels of education and change and occupational aspects

Change	Levels of Education									
	Higher		S.S.C.		Primary		Illiterate		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
High	30	96.78	43	79.62	35	43.20	46	30.07	154	48.28
Low	1	3.22	11	23.38	46	56.80	107	69.93	165	51.72
Total	31	100.00	54	100.00	81	100.00	153	100.00	319	100.00

(Source: Table No.7.6, appendix B)

Data in the table no.5.6.1 reveal that 30 respondents of the total 31 of the higher level of education score high change, percentage being 96.78, and rest only 1 (one) respondent scores low change, percentage being 3.22; 43 out of the total 54 respondents of the S.S.C. level of education score high change, percentage being 79.62 and the rest 11 score low change, percentage being 23.38; 35 of the total 81 respondents of Primary level of education score high change, percentage being 43.20; and the rest 46 score low change, percentage being

56.80; 46 out of the total 153 illiterate respondents score high change, percentage being 30.07, and the rest 107 score low change, percentage being 69.93. These scores reveal certain direction in the sense that percentage of high change score goes up with the growth of the levels of education, highest percent (96.78) for higher level of education and lowest percent (30.07) for the illiterates. It also indicates the direction that though in smaller proportion, some illiterates possess some change-oriented attributes and some educated also possess some low change attributes. This difference of percent can be put in a clear, precise and simple way by dichotomizing the total respondents into literates consisting of higher, S.S.C. and Primary levels of education on the one hand and total illiterates on the other, as mentioned earlier. This follows a 2x2 contigency table.

Table No.5.6.2

Association between Education and change in occupation

Change	Literate		Illiterate		Total
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	108	65.07	46	30.67	154
Low	58	34.93	107	69.23	165
Total	166	100.00	153	100.00	319

$Q = 0.624$ $\quad X^2 = 39.047$ df.1, $\quad P < .01$

Data in table nos.5.6.2 confirm the hypothesis. Among 166 literate respondents, 108 (65.07%) and 58 (34.93%) score high change and low change in occupation respectively. While among the 153 illiterate respondents 46 (30.67%) and 107 (69.23%) score high change and low change in occupation, respectively. The association (X^2 = 39.047) is significant at .01 level and positive (Q = 0.624).

Now the question arises that how far this positive association of education with change in occupational aspects is genuine. This may be due to some other antecedent variables, as sex, age, Bari Status, occupation and income. In order to find out an answer to such a question and to find out, independent, relevant and cumulative effects of the variables of education, sex, age, bari status, occupation and income, the data are presented according to the cross tables that follow, taking education as constant in every table as the technique suggested by Hirschi and Selvin (1967; 73) and Morris Rosenberg (1968; 169-182).

5.6.3 Education and change in occupational aspects:

Table No.5.6.3

Association between education and change in occupational aspects when controlled for sex

Change	Male				Total	Female				Total
	Literate		Illiterate			Literate		Illiterate		
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	65	70.66	26	34.67	91	43	58.10	20	25.64	63
Low	27	29.34	49	65.33	76	31	49.90	58	74.36	89
Total	92	100.00	75	100.00	167	74	100.00	78	100.00	152
Q = 0.638						Q = 0.601				
X^2 = 21.575, df.1, P < .01						X^2 = 16.493, df.1, P < .01				

Data in table no.5.6.3 reveal that among 152 female respondents, 48.67 percent (74) are literates and 51.31 percent (78) are illiterates; among 167 male respondents, 55.09 percent (92) are literates and 44.91 (75) percent are illiterates. Thus, the percentage of literates is more (55.09) among male than that of female (48.67). The data show that education and change in occupational aspects are positively associated for both males (X^2 = 21.57, Q = 0.638) and females (X^2 = 16.493, Q = 0.601)

though there is small variation in percentage between males and females, males being more change-oriented than females. This indicates the effect of education on change in occupational aspects independent of sex.

Within both males and females, literates have larger proportion of change than illiterates. The percentage difference for males is 35.99 (70.66 - 34.67) and for females it is 32.46 (58.10 - 25.64). In other words, when sex is controlled, education has an independent effect on occupation. Conversely, within each of literate and illiterate groups, sex is also related to change in occupation to some extent. Among both literates and illiterates, males are more change-oriented than females. The percentage difference is 12.56 (70.66 - 58.10) for literates and 9.03 (34.67 - 25.64) for illiterates. Thus, when education is controlled, sex has also some independent effect on occupation though the proportion is very small in comparison to that of education.

Now, relatively which variable is more effective, education or sex. This is the question of relative effect and Rosenberg (1968) suggested to compare the proportion in two "counter directional" groups. The proportion of change among male illiterates is 34.67 and that of female literates is 58.10. Thus, female

literates are more change-oriented than male illiterates. The same fact can be represented by ranking the percentage.

	Groups	Change in percentage
1.	Male literates	70.66
2.	Female literates	58.10
3.	Male illiterates	34.67
4.	Female illiterates	25.64

Above figures can be used to calculate the average percentage difference. The average effect of education, controlling sex, is 34.26. It is the average of 70.66 - 34.67 and 58.10 - 25.64. Conversely, the average effect of sex, controlling education, is 10.80. It is the average of 70.66 - 58.10 and 34.67 - 25.64.

The cumulative effect of education and sex is 45.02 (70.66 - 25.64). It is the difference of two "extreme consistent" groups (Rosenberg, 1968; 180).

Thus, education has an independent effect on change in occupational aspects irrespective of sex.

5.6.4 Education and change in occupational aspects:

Table No.5.6.4

Association between Education and change in occupational aspects when controlled for age

Change	Low Age				Total	High Age				Total
	Literate		Illiterate			Literate		Illiterate		
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	65	67.70	25	31.25	90	43	61.42	21	28.77	64
Low	31	32.30	55	68.75	86	27	38.58	52	71.23	79
Total	96	100.00	80	100.00	176	70	100.00	73	100.00	143

Q = 0.643 X^2 = 23.212, df.1, P $<$ .01

Q = 0.595 X^2 = 15.417, df.1, P $<$ .01

Among the 176 respondents of the low age group, 54.54 percent (96) are literates and 45.46 percent (80) are illiterates and among the 143 respondents of high age group, 48.96 percent (70) are literates and 51.04 percent (73) are illiterates. Thus, the percentage of literates is more (54.54) in low age group than that of high age group (48.96).

The data in table no.5.6.4 reveal that education and change in occupational affairs are positively associated for both low age group (X^2 = 23.212, Q=0.643)

and high age group (X^2 = 15.417, Q = 0.595) though there is variation in percentage. The table also shows that irrespective of age groups, the literates have higher percentage of change, it is 67.70 for low age group and 61.42 for high age group. This indicates the effect of education, independent of age.

Within both the groups of high age and low age, literates are more change-oriented than illiterates. The percentage difference is 36.45 (67.70 - 31.25) for low age and 32.65 (61.42 - 28.77) for high age. In other words, when age is controlled, education has an independent effect on change in occupation. Conversely, within each of the literate and illiterate groups, age is also related to change to some extent. Among both literates and illiterates, low age group is more change-oriented than high age group. The percentage difference is 6.28 (67.70 - 61.42) for literates and 2.48 (31.25 - 28.77) for illiterates. Thus when education is controlled age has also some independent effect on occupation, though it is very small in comparison to that of education.

Which one of these two variables is more effective?

This is the question of relative effect. It is the proportion in two "counter directional" groups (Rosenberg, 1968). The proportion of change among low age illiterates is 31.25 and that of high age literates is 61.42. Thus, the high age literates are more change-oriented than low age illiterates. The same fact can be represented by ranking the percentage.

	Groups	Change in percentage
1.	Low age literates	67.70
2.	High age literates	61.42
3.	Low age illiterates	31.25
4.	High age illiterates	28.77

Above figures can be used to calculate the average percentage difference. The average effect of education, controlling age, is 34.55. It is the average of 67.70 - 31.25 and 61.42 - 28.77. Conversely, the effect of age, controlling education, is 4.38. It is the average of 67.70 - 61.42 and 31.25 - 28.77.

The cumulative effect of education and age is 38.93 (67.70 - 28.77). It is the difference of two "extreme consistent" groups (Rosenberg, 1968; 180).

Thus, education is positively associated with change in occupational affairs irrespective of age.

5.6.5 Education and change in occupational aspects when controlled for Bari Status:

Table No.5.6.5

Association between Education and change in occupational aspects when controlled for Bari Status

Change	Unchu Bari				Total	Nichchu Bari				Total
	Literate		Illiterate			Literate		Illiterate		
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	57	70.38	26	38.23	83	51	60.0	20	23.52	71
Low	24	29.32	42	61.77	66	34	40.0	65	76.48	99
Total	81	100.00	68	100.00	149	85	100.0	85	100.00	170
Q = 0.586						Q = 0.659				
X^2 = 15.470, df.1, P $\angle$ .01						X^2 = 23.242, df.1, P $\angle$ .01				

Among 170 respondents of nichchu bari group, 50 percent (85) are literates and 50 percent (85) are illiterates; among 149 respondents of unchu bari status 54.37 percent (81) and 45.63 percent (68) are literates and illiterates, respectively. Thus, the percentage of literates is more (54.37) in unchu bari group than nichchu bari group (50.0). The data in table no.5.6.5 reveal that education and change in occupational aspects

are positively associated for both unchu bari group (χ^2 = 15.470, Q = 0.586) and nichchu bari group (χ^2 = 23.242, Q = 0.659) though there is small variation between the bari groups. The table also reveals that irrespective of bari groups, the literates have higher percentage of change, it is 70.38 for umchu bari group and 60.0 for nichchu bari group. This indicates the effect of education independent of bari.

Within both the groups of bari status, literates have larger proportion of change than illiterates. The percentage difference is 32.15 (70.38 - 38.23) for unchu bari group and 36.48 (60.0 - 23.52) for nichchu bari group. In other words, when bari status is controlled, education has an independent effect on occupational change. Conversely, within each of the literate and illiterate groups, bari status is also related to change to some extent. Among both literates and illiterates unchu bari group is more change-oriented than nichchu bari group. The percentage difference for literates is 10.38 (70.38 - 60.0) and 14.71 (38.23 - 23.52) for illiterates. Thus, when education is controlled, bari has also some effect on occupational

change though the proportion is less than that of education.

Which one of these two variables is more effective? This is the question of relative effect. It is the proportion in two "counter directional" groups (Rosenberg, 1968; 179-182). The proportion of change among unchu bari group illiterates is 38.23 and that of nichchu bari literates is 60.0. Thus, nichchu bari literates are more change-oriented than unchu bari illiterates. The same fact can be represented by ranking the percentage.

	Groups	Change in Percentage
1.	Unchu bari literates	70.38
2.	Nichchu bari literates	60.00
3.	Unchu bari illiterates	38.23
4.	Nichchu bari illiterates	23.52

The above figures can be used to calculate the average percentage difference. The average effect of education, controlling bari status,is 34.32. It is the average of 70.38 - 38.23 and 60.00- 23.52. Conversely, the average effect of bari status is 7.35. It is the average of 70.38 - 60.00and 38.23 - 23.52.

The cumulative effect of education and bari

is 46.86 (70.38 - 23.52). It is the difference of two "extreme consistent" groups (Rosenberg, 1968; 180). Thus, education and change in occupational aspects are positively associated, irrespective of variation of bari status.

5.6.6 Education and change in occupational aspects when controlled for occupation:

Table No.5.6.6

Association between Education and change in occupational aspects when controlled for occupation

Change	Non-agricultural				Total	Agricultural				Total
	Literate		Illiterate			Literate		Illiterate		
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	58	77.33	10	41.67	68	50	54.94	36	27.90	86
Low	17	22.67	14	58.33	31	41	45.06	93	72.10	134
Total	75	100.00	24	100.00	99	91	100.00	129	100.00	220

Q = 0.653 X^2 = 10.753, df.1, P $<$ .01

Q = 0.518 X^2 = 16.383, df.1, P $<$ .01

Among the 220 respondents of agricultural occupation, 41.37 percent (91) are literates and 58.63 percent (129) are illiterates and among 99 non-agricultural occupants 75.76 percent (75) are literates and 24.24 percent (24) are illiterates. Thus, the percentage of

literates is more in non-agricultural group (75.76) than that of agricultural group (41.37). The data in table no.5.6.6 reveal that education and change in occupational aspects are positively associated for both non-agricultural group (X^2 = 10.753, Q = 0.653) and agricultural group (X^2 = 16.383, Q = 0.518). The data also reveals that irrespective of occupation, the literates have high percentage of change, it is 77.33 for non-agricultural group and 54.94 for agricultural group. This indicates the effect of education on occupational change, independent of occupation.

Within both non-agricultural and agricultural groups, literates have larger proportion of change than illiterates. The percentage difference is 35.66 (77.33 - 41.67) for non-agricultural occupants and 27.04 (54.94 - 27.90) for agricultural occupants. In other words, when occupation is controlled, education has an independent effect on change. Conversely, within each of the literate or illiterate groups, occupation is also related to change. Among both literate and illiterate groups, non-agricultural occupants are more change-oriented than agricultural group. The percentage difference for literates is 22.39 (77.33 - 54.94) and for illiterates 13.77

(41.67 - 27.90). Thus, when education is controlled, occupation has also some independent effect on change in occupational aspects.

Which one of these two variables is more effective? This is the question of relative effect. It is the proportion in two "counter directional" groups (Rosenberg, 1968; 178-182). The proportion of change among non-agricultural illiterates is 41.67 and that of agricultural literates is 54.94. Thus the agricultural literates are more change-oriented than non-agricultural illiterates. The same fact can be represented by ranking the percentage.

	Groups	Change in Percentage
1.	Non-agricultural literates	77.33
2.	Agricultural literates	54.94
3.	Non-agricultural illiterates	41.67
4.	Agricultural illiterates	27.90

The above figures can be used to calculate the average percentage difference. The average effect of education, controlling occupation, is 31.35. It is the average of 77.33 - 41.67 and 54.94 - 27.90.

Conversely, the average effect of occupation,

controlling education, is 18.9. It is the average of 77.33 - 54.94 and 41.67 - 27.90.

The cumulative effect of education and occupation is 49.43 (77.33 - 27.90). It is the difference between two "extreme consistent" groups (Rosenberg, 1968; 180).

Thus, education is positively associated with occupational change, of course non-agricultural occupation has also moderate effect in comparison to that of education. This is in consonance with findings of Alex Inkeles and H.Smith (1974) for their factory influence. Rao (Gore, et al, 1967) finds wealth related to education

5.6.7 Education and change in occupational aspects when controlled for income:

Table No.5.6.7

Association between education and change in occupational aspects when controlled for income

Change	High Income				Total	Low Income				Total
	Literate		Illiterate			Literate		Illiterate		
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		Freq.	%	Freq	%	
High	71	74.0	19	47.5	90	37	60.0	27	23.90	64
Low	25	26.0	21	52.5	46	33	40.0	86	76.10	119
Total	96	100.0	40	100.0	136	70	100.0	113	100.00	183

$Q = 0.516$
$X^2 = 8.830$, df.1, $P < .01$

$Q = 0.562$
$X^2 = 15.944$, df.1, $P < .01$

Among 183 low income group respondents, 38;26 percent (70) are literates and 61.74 percent (113) are illiterates and of the 136 high income group respondents, 70.51 percent (96) are literates and 29.41 percent (40) are illiterates. Thus, the percentage of literates is more among high income group (70.51) than that of low income group (38.26). The data in table no.5.6.7 reveal that education and change in occupational aspects are positively associated for both high income group (X^2 = 8.830, Q = 0.516) and low income group (X^2 = 15.944, Q = 0.562) though there is variation in percentage between high and low income groups. The table also reveals that irrespective of income groups, the literates have higher percentage of change, it is 74.0 for high income group and 60.0 for low income group. This indicates the effect of education, independent of income.

Within both high income and low income groups, literates have higher proportion of change than illiterates. The percentage difference is 26.50 (74.00-47.50) for high income group and is 36.10 (60.00- 23.90) for low income group. In other words, when income is controlled, education has an independent effect on occupational aspects. Conversely, within each of

literate and illiterate groups, income is also related to change in occupational aspects. Among both literates and illiterates, high income group is more change-oriented than low income group.The percentage difference is 14.0 (74.0 - 60.0) for literates and 23.60 (47.50 - 23.90) for illiterates. Thus, when education is controlled, income has independent effect on change in occupational aspects.

Which one of these two variables is more effective? This is the question of relative effect. It is the proportion in two "counter directional" groups (Rosenberg, 1968). The proportion of change among high income illiterates is 47.50 while it is 60.0 among low income literates. Thus the low income literates are more change-oriented than high income illiterates. The same fact can be represented by ranking the percentage.

	Groups	Change in percentage
1.	High income literates	74.00
2.	Low income literates	60.00
3.	High income illiterates	47.50
4.	Low income illiterates	23.90

The above figures can be used to calculate the average percentage difference. The effect of education, controlling income,is 31.30. It is the average of

74.00- 47.50 and 60.00- 23.90. Conversely, the effect of income, controlling education, is 18.80. It is the average of 74.00- 60.00and 47.50 - 23.90.

The cumulative effect of education and income is 50.10 (74.00 - 23.90). It is the difference of two "extreme consistent" groups (Rosenberg, 1968; 180).

Thus, the association between education and change in occupational aspects is positive though income has a moderate effect.

5.6.8 Summary and Conclusions:

Thus, from the foregoing analysis, it is found that education has an impact on occupational aspects. The other variables of sex, age, Bari, occupation and income have also some impact. Among these variables occupation and income have moderate impact. This can be interpreted as these two variables are positively related to education. Ottaway (1976; 107) finds education as means of occupational mobility to have occupational entry and social mobility and better job. These findings are relevant with other studies as mentioned earlier part of this analysis.

These findings confirm the hypothesis that education helps the villagers to have changes in their

occupational aspects. The impact of income, occupation is these but their influence is lesser than that of education and in many cases, they are inter-related.

5.7 EDUCATION AND SOCIAL HIERARCHY AND MOBILITY:

5.7.1 Introduction:

From the dawn of civilization it is almost common feature of social structure that it is divided into many strata, classes or hierarchical orders, the most rigid being the Indian caste system, others being slavery, estate serfdom (Bottomore, 1962; 179). There is hardly any society found by the anthropologists where each and every human being is treated equal. These hierarchical order depends on the types and structure of society and its development. In its simplest form, it may be in the form of sex, age, physical strength. In the medieval period, it was on the basis of birth, religion, family, wealth. In the present day,society, social herarchy is based on economic terms, social background, knowledge, skills, etc. With social developments, social hierarchy is based on achievement rather than birth or ascription. Educational achievement is taken as a means of

social mobility and hierarchy in the present day society. Karim (1976; 115-138) finds in Bangladesh emerging of an educated middle class who is ascending the society in all aspects of political, social and cultural. To him this is the class who is responsible for political, social and cultural change in contemporary Bengali society. He also finds such a class in the West Bengal society of India. Rao (Gore, et al, 1967; 138) finds the families with higher economic status are not held high in public esteem if their children are not correspondingly educated.

Education changes the status of lower caste to some extent (Dube; 1955). Lee Deighton mentions education as the primary inroad to certain social position. Milner (1972; 24) finds education changes the status. In all India field survey in sociology of education, it is found that majority wanted education as the basis of social esteem (Gore, et al, 1970). In Bihar study, Pandey (1975) finds education as a source to climb social hierarchy. In villages of Bangladesh Aird (Maron; 1953) found that education was recognised as a status hierarchy.

Education challenges the traditional hierarchy (Shipman, 1971; 269). Gold Thorpe (Hall, 1969) finds

educated men of different racial status enter into social relations.

Education bring changes about social status, behaviour, life style, dress. In Kerala Harijan, Alexander (1968) found that due to education there was change in behaviour pattern, mode of dress, eating, drinking habits. The process of "Sanskritization" was there. Education changes role and status of a person. Educated persons are climbing up higher status by marriage (Gore, et al, 1967). For the present study, it is assumed that education will have an impact on social hierarchy and mobility in the villages of Bangladesh. With this assumption, 12 questions were included in the interview schedule on "Social hierarchy and mobility". According to the procedures mentiomed on "Methodology" and at the earlier part of this chapter, the responses out of these questions were categorised as "more change-oriented" or positive or modern scoring two and negative or traditional as less change-oriented, responded scoring one. Maximum scores out of total twelve questions were 24 (2x12), while minimum were12 (1x12) (appendix B).

After such evaluation, the total scores were dichotomized as high and low around mean (arithmetic

mean 16.6) as 18 and above as high and 17 and below as low.

The hypothesis (No.7) that has been put forward for testing reads as follows:

"The more educated a person is, the more he/she will prefer a change in social hierarchy and mobility".

Accordingly, the data are presented as follows:

5.7.2 Education and change in social hierarchy and mobility:

Table No.5.7.1

Association between levels of Education and change in Hierarchy and Mobility

Change	Levels of Education								Total
	Higher		S.S.C.		Primary		Illiterate		
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	30	96.78	38	70.38	28	34.57	31	20.27	127
Low	1	3.22	16	29.62	53	64.43	122	79.73	192
Total	31	100.00	54	100.00	81	100.00	153	100.00	319

(Source: Table No.7.7 in appendix B)

Data in table no.5.7.1 reveal that 30 respondents of the total 31 of higher level of education score high change, percentage being 96.78 and only one respondent scores low change, percentage being 3.22; 38 of the total

54 respondents of the S.S.C. level of education score high change, percentage being 70.38 and 16 score low change, percentage being 29.62; 28 of the total 81 respondents of the Primary level of education score high change, percentage being 34.57 and 53 score low change, percentage being 64.43; 31 of the total 153 illiterate respondents score high change, percentage being 20.27 and 122 score low change, percentage being 79.73. These data reveal certain direction in the sense that percentage of high change grows up with the growth of the levels of education, higher percent (96.78) for higher level of education and lowest (20.27) for the illiterates. It also indicates the direction that though in smaller proportion, some illiterates possess change-oriented attributes and some educated also possess low change attributes. These data can be put in clear, precise and simple way by dichotomizing the total respondents into literates, consisting of higher, S.S.C. and primary levels of education on the one hand and the illiterates on the other, as mentioned earlier. This follows a 2x2 contigency table.

Table No.5.7.2

Association between Education and change in Hierarchy and Mobility

Change	Literate		Illiterate		Total
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	96	57.83	31	20.27	127
Low	70	42.17	122	79.73	192
Total	166	100.00	153	100.00	319

Q = 0.687 X^2 = 46.899, df.1, P $<$ .01

Data in table no.5.7.2 confirm the hypothesis. Among 166 literate respondents 96 score high in change, percentage being 57.83 and 70 score low change, percentage being 42.17, among the 153 illiterate respondents, 31 score high change, percentage beimg 20.27 and 122 low change, percentage beimg 79.73, respectively. The association (X^2 = 46.899) is significant at .01 positive level (Q = 0.687).

Now the question arises that how far this positive association between education and trend of change in hierarchy and mobility is genuine. This may be due to some other antecedent variables as sex, age, bari status,

occupation and income. In order to find out an answer to such a question and to find out independent relative and cumulative effects of the variables of education, sex, age, bari status, occupation and income regarding the trend of change in herarchy and mobility, data are presented according to cross tables that follow taking education as constant in every table as the technique suggested by Hirschi and Selvin (1967; 73) and Morris Rosenberg (1968; 169-182).

5.7.3. Education and change in social hierarchy and mobility when controlled for sex:

Table No.5.7.3

Association between Education and change in hierarchy and mobility when controlled for sex

Change	Male				Total	Female				Total
	Literate		Illiterate			Literate		Illiterate		
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	57	61.96	20	26.67	77	39	52.70	11	14.10	50
Low	35	38.04	55	73.33	90	35	47.30	67	85.90	102
Total	92	100.00	75	100.00	167	74	100.00	78	100.00	152

Q = 0.634 X^2 = 20.707, df.1, P $<$ .01

Q = 0.743 X^2 = 25.631, df.1, P $<$ .01

Data in table no.5.7.3 show that among 152 female respondents, 48.67 percent (74) are literates and 51.31 percent (78) are illiterates and among 167 male respondents, 55.09 percent (92) are literates and 44.91 (75) percent are illiterates. Thus the percentage of literates is more (55.09) among males than that of females (48.67). The data show that education and change in hierarchy and mobility are positively associated for both male respondents (X^2 = 20.707, Q = 0.634) and female respondents (X^2 = 25.631, Q = 0.743), though there is small variation in percentage between males and females, males being more change-oriented (61.96%) than females (52.70%). The table also shows, in both the male and female groups, literates have high percentage of change (61.96) for males and (52.70) for females, respectively. This indicates the effect of education on change in hierarchy and mobility independent of sex.

Within both males and females, literates have larger proportion of change than illiterates. The percentage difference for males is 35.29 (61.96 - 26.67) and is 38.60 (52.70 - 14.10) for females. In other words, when sex is controlled, education has an independent effect on hierarchy and mobility. Conversely, within each of literate and illiterate groups, sex is

also related to change to some extent. Among both literates and illiterates, males are more change-oriented than females. The percentage difference is 9.26 (61.96 - 52.70) for literates and 12.57 (26.67 - 14.10) for illiterates. Thus, when education is controlled, sex has also some independent effect on change though the proportion is smaller in comparison to that of education.

Now, relatively which variable is more effective, education or sex? This is the question of relative effect and Rosenberg (1968) suggested to compare the proportion in two "counter directional" groups. The proportion of change among male illiterates is 26.67 and that of female literates is 52.70. Thus, female literates are more change-oriented than male illiterates. The same fact can be represented by ranking the percentage:

	Groups	Change in percentage
1.	Male literates	61.96
2.	Female literates	52.70
3.	Male illiterates	26.67
4.	Female illiterates	14.10

Above figures can be used to calculate the average percentage difference. The average effect of education, controlling sex, is 36.95. It is the average

of 61.96 - 26.67 and 52.70 - 14.10. Conversely, the average effect of sex, controlling education, is 10.92. It is the average of 61.96 - 52.70 and 26.67 - 14.10.

The cumulative effect of education and sex is 47.86. It is the difference of 61.96 - 14.10 of two "extreme consistent" groups (Rosenberg, 1968; 180).

Thus, education has an independent and higher effect on change in hierarchy abd mobility irrespective of sex difference.

5.7.4 Education and change in social hierarchy and mobility when controlled for age:

Table No.5.7.4

Association between Education and change in Hierarchy and Mobility, when controlled for age

Change	Low Age				Total	High Age				Total
	Literate		Illiterate			Literate		Illiterate		
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	59	61.46	18	22.50	77	37	52.86	13	17.80	50
Low	37	38.54	62	77.50	99	33	42.14	60	82.20	93
Total	96	100.00	80	100.00	176	70	100.00	73	100.00	143

Q = 0.691 X^2 = 26.912, df.1, P < .01

Q = 0.676 X^2 = 19.304, df.1, P < .01

Among the 176 low age group of respondents, 54.54 percent (96) are literates and 45.46 percent (80) are illiterates and among the 143 high age group of respondents, 48.96 percent (70) are literates and and 51.04 percent (73) are illiterates. Thus, the percentage of literates is more (54.54) in low age group than that of high age group (48.96). The data in table no.5.7.4 reveal that education and change in hierarchy and mobility are positively associated for both low age group (X^2 = 26.912, Q = 0.691) and high age group (X^2 = 19.304, Q = 0.671), though there is variation in percentage. The table also shows that irrespective of age groups, the literates have high percentage of change, percentage being 52.86 for high age and 61.46 percent for low age group. This indicates the effect of education, independent of age.

Within both the groups of high age and low age, literates are more change-oriented than illiterates. The percentage difference is 38.96 (61.46 - 22.50) for low age and 35.06 (52.86 - 17.80) for high age. In other words, when age is controlled, education has an independent effect on change in hierarchy and mobility. Conversely, within each of the literate and illiterate groups, age is also related to change.

Among both literates and illiterates, low age group is more change-oriented than high age group. The percent difference is 8.60 (61.46 - 52.86) for literates and 4.70 (22.50 - 17.80) for illiterates. Thus, when education is controlled, age has also some independent effect, though proportion is smaller in comparison to that of education.

Which one of these two variables is more effective? This is the question of relative effect. It is the proportion in two "counter directional" groups (Rosenberg, 1968; 169-182). The proportion of change among low age illiterates is 22.50 while that of high age literates is 52.86. Thus, the high age literates are more change-oriented than low age illiterates. The same fact can be represented by ranking the percentage.

	Groups	Change in percentage
1.	Low age literates	61.46
2.	High age literates	52.86
3.	Low age illiterates	22.50
4.	High age illiterates	17.80

Above figures can be used to calculate the average percentage difference. The average effect of education, controlling age, is 37.01. It is the average

of 61.46 - 22.50 and 52.86 - 17.80. Conversely, the effect of age, controlling education, is 6.65. It is the average of 61.46 - 52.86 and 22.50 - 17.80.

The cumulative effect of education and age is 43.66 (61.46 - 17.86). It is the difference of two "extreme consistent" groups (Rosenberg, 1968; 180).

Thus, education is positively associated with change in hierarchy and mobility irrespective of age.

5.7.5 Education and change in social hierarchy and mobility when controlled for Bari Status:

Table No.5.7.5

Association between Education and change in hierarchy and mobility when controlled for Bari

Change	Unchu Bari				Total	Nichchu Bari				Total
	Literate		Illiterate			Literate		Illiterate		
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	46	56.80	13	19.11	59	50	58.32	18	21.18	68
Low	35	43.20	55	80.89	90	35	41.18	67	78.82	102
Total	81	100.00	68	100.00	149	85	100.00	85	100.00	170
Q =	0.695					Q = 0.683				
X^2 =	21.934, df.1, P $\angle$ .01					X^2 = 25.098, df.1, P $\angle$ .01				

Among 170 respondents of Nichchu bari group 50

percent (85) are literates and 50 percent (85) are illiterates, among 149 respondents of unchu bari status group, 54.37 percent (81) and 45.63 percent (68) are literates and illiterates respectively. Thus, the percentage of literates is more (54.37) in unchu bari group than in nichchu bari group (50.0). The data in table no.5.7.5 reveal that education and change in hierarchy and mobility are positively associated for both unchu bari group (X^2 = 21.934, Q = 0.695) and nichchu bari group (X^2 = 25.098, Q = 0.683) though there is variation in bari groups. The table shows that irrespective of bari groups, the literates have higher percentage of change, it is 58.82 for nichchu bari and 56.80 for unchu bari. This indicates the effect of education independent of bari.

Within both the groups of bari status, literates have larger proportion of change than illiterates. The percentage difference is 37.64 (58.82 - 21.18) for nichchu bari and is 37.69 (56.80 - 19.11) for unchu bari. In other words, when bari status is controlled, education has an independent effect on hierarchy and mobility. Conversely, within each of the literate and illiterate groups, bari status is also related to change. Among literates the percentage of difference is

2.02 (58.82 - 56.80) and among illiterates, it is 2.07 (21.18 - 19.11). Thus, when education is controlled, Bari Status has some effect on change in hierarchy and mobility though the proportion is very smaller in comparison to that of education.

Which one of these two variables is more effective? This is the question of relative effect. It is the proportion in two "counter directional" groups (Rosenberg, 1968; 179-182). The proportion of change among unchu bari illiterates is 19.11 and that of nichchu bari literates is 58.82. Thus, nichchu bari literates are more change-oriented than unchu bari illiterates. The same fact can be represented by ranking the percentage.

	Groups	Change in percentage
1.	Unchu bari literates	56.80
2.	Nichchu bari literates	58.82
3.	Unchu bari illiterates	19.11
4.	Nichchu bari illiterates	21.18

The above figures can be used to calculate the average percentage difference. The average effect of education, controlling bari status, is 37.67. It is the average of 58.82 - 21.18 and 56.80 - 19.11. Conversely, the average effect of bari, controlling

education,is 2.05. It is the average of 58.82 - 56.80 and 21.18 - 19.11.

The cumulative effect of education and bari is 35.62 (56.80 - 21.18). It is the difference of two "extreme consistent" groups (Rosenberg, 1968; 180).

Thus, education and change in hierarchy and mobility are positively associated irrespective of variation of bari status.

5.7.6 Education and change in social hierarchy and mobility when controlled for occupation:

Table No.5.7.6

Association between Education and change in hierarchy and mobility when controlled for occupation

Change	Non-agricultural occupation				Total	Agricultural occupation				Total
	Literate		Illiterate			Literate		Illiterate		
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	50	66.67	7	29.17	57	46	50.54	24	18.60	70
Low	25	33.33	17	70.33	42	45	49.46	105	81.40	150
Total	75	100.00	24	100.00	99	91	100.00	129	100.00	220
Q = 0.658						Q = 0.634				
X^2 = 10.467, df.1, P $\angle$ .01						X^2= 25.099, df.1, P $\angle$ .01				

Among 220 agricultural occupants, 41.37 percent (91) are literates and 58.63 percent (129) are illiterates and among 99 non-agricultural occupants, 75.76 percent (75) are literates and 24.24 (24) are illiterates. Thus, the percentage of literates is more in non-agricultural group (75.76) than that of agricultural group (41.37). The data in table no.5.7.6 reveal that education and change in hierarchy and mobility are positively associated for both non-agricultural group (X^2 = 10.467, Q = 0.658) and agricultural group (X^2 = 25.099, Q = 0.634) though there is variation among groups of occupation. The table reveals that irrespective of occupations, literates have high percentage of change, it is 66.67 for non-agriculturists and 50.54 for agriculturists. Thus, the data in the table no.5.7.6 indicate the effect of education on hierarchy and mobility independent of occupation.

Within both non-agricultural and agricultural occupants literates have larger proportion of change than illiterates. The percentage difference is 37.50, (66.67 - 29.17) for non-agriculturists and is 31.94 (50.54 - 18.60) for agriculturists. In other words, when occupation is controlled, education has an independent effect on change in hierarchy and mobility.

Conversely, within each of the literate and illiterate groups, non-agriculturists are more change-oriented than agriculturists. The percentage difference for literates is 16.13 (66.67 - 50.54) and 10.57 (29.17 - 18.60) for illiterates. Thus, when education is controlled, occupation has also some independent effect on hierarchy and mobility.

Which one of these two variables is more effective? This is the question of relative effect. It is the proportion in two "counter directional" groups (Rosenberg, 1968; 179-182). The proportion of change among non-agricultural illiterates is 29.17 and that of agricultural literates it is 50.54. Thus the agricultural literates are more change-oriented than non-agricultural illiterates. The same fact can be represented by ranking the percentage.

	Groups	Change in percentage
1.	Non-agricultural literates	66.67
2.	Agricultural literates	50.54
3.	Non-agricultiral illiterates	29.17
4.	Agricultural illiterates	18.60

The above figures can be used to calculate the average percentage difference. The average effect of education, controlling occupation, is 34.72. It is the average of 66.67 - 29.17 and 50.54 - 18.60. Conversely, the average effect of occupation, controlling education, is 13.85. It is the average of 66.67 - 50.54 and 29.17 - 18.60.

The cumulative effect of education and occupation is 48.07 (66.67 - 18.60). It is the difference between two "extreme consistent" groups (Rosenberg, 1968; 180).

Thus, education is positively associated with change in hierarchy and mobility irrespective of variation of occupational groups.

5.7.7 Education and change in social hierarchy and mobility when controlled for income:

Table No.5.7.7

Association between education and change in hierarchy and mobility when controlled for income

Change	High Income				Total	Low Income				Total
	Literate		Illiterate			Literate		Illiterate		
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	59	61.46	14	35.0	73	37	52.86	17	15.04	54
Low	37	38.54	26	65.0	63	33	47.14	96	84.96	129
Total	96	100.00	40	100.0	136	70	100.00	113	100.00	183

Q = 0.495
X^2 = 7.949, df.1, P $\angle$ .01

Q = 0.727
X^2 = 29.711, df.1, P $\angle$ .01

Among 183 low income group respondents 38.26 percent (70) are literates and 61.74 percent (113) are illiterates and of the 136 high income group respondents, 70.51 percent (96) are literates and 29.41 percent (40) are illiterates. Thus, the percentage of literates is more in high income group (70.51) than that of low income group (38.26). The data in table no.5.7.7 reveal that education and change in hierarchy and mobility are positively associated for both high income group (X^2 = 7.949, Q = 0.495) and low income group (X^2 = 29.711, Q = 0.727) though there is variation in percentage between high and low income groups. The table also reveals that irrespective of income groups, the literates have higher percentage of change, it is 61.46 for high income and 52.86 for low income group. This indicates the effect of education independent of income.

Within, both high income and low income groups, literates are more change-oriented than illiterates. The percentage difference is 26.46 (61.46 - 35.0) for high income group and 37.82 (52.86 - 15.04) for low income group. In other words, when income is controlled, educated has an independent effect on

hierarchy and mobility. Conversely, within each of literate and illiterate groups, income is also related to hierarchy and mobility. Among both literates and illiterates, high income group is more change-oriented than low income group. The percentage difference is 8.60 (61.46 - 52.86) for literates and for illiterates, it is 19.96 (35.0 - 15.04). Thus, when education is controlled, income has also some independent effect on hierarchy and mobility.

Which one of these two variables is more effective, education or income? This is the question of relative effect. It is the proportion in two "counter directional" groups (Rosenberg, 1968). The proportion of change among high income illiterates is 35.0 and that of low income literates is 52.86. Thus, low income literates are more change-oriented than high income group illiterates. The same fact can be represented by ranking the percentage.

	Groups	Change in percentage
1.	High income literates	61.46
2.	Low income literates	52.86
3.	High income illiterates	35.00
4.	Low income illiterates	15.04

The above figures can be used to calculate the average percentage difference. The effect of education, controlling income, is 32.14. It is the average of 61.46 - 35.0 and 52.86 - 15.04. Conversely, the effect of income, controlling education, is 14.28. It is the average of 61.46 - 52.86 and 35.0 - 15.04.

The cumulative effect of education and income is 46.42 (61.46 - 15.04). It is the difference of two "extreme consistent" groups (Rosenberg, 1968; 180).

Thus, the association between education and change in hierarchy and mobility is positively associated irrespective of variation due to income.

These findings are in consonance with other studies mentioned in the introductory section of this analysis.

5.7.8 Summary and Conclusions:

Thus, the foregoing analysis expresses the impact of education on change in hierarchy and mobility. Other variables as sex, age, Bari, occupation and income have also some effect on change but in every case that of education is found in higher proportion.

These findings are supported by other studies in the field of education and social change. Most of them are mentioned in various chapters to avoid repetition. Only a few can be cited as Rao (Gore, et al, 1967), Dube (1955, 1958), Pandey (1975), Shipman (1971), Gore, et al (1970, 1967), Hall (1969), Karim (1964 1972, 1976), Srinivas (1966), Beteille (1966), Huq (1978), Milner (1972), Savarimuthu (1978), Ottaway (1976).

The discussions, analysis and findings in the section reveal that hypothesis is confirmed, education has an impact on social hierarchy and social mobility in these villages, under study, in Bangladesh. Education is helping the individuals in taking up new roles and status with changed values, attitudes. Hence education is an agent of social change.

5.8 EDUCATION AND POLITY AND PARTICIPATION: CHANGE

5.8.1 Introduction:

Political institutions are concerned with the distribution of power in society (Bottomore, 1962; 147,150) and political behaviour of the people. In the primitive type of society, political behaviour was organized and influenced by religion and kinship

(Bottomore, 1962). Advent of tribal chief is taken as the initiation of political participation of the members (Karim, 1972; 160). Political participation plays a very important role in human society. In the historical context of the sub-continent there was self government in the villages. With social development these traditional self governmental bodies were replaced by Panchayat in India (Oscar, 1965; 26), basic democracy, union parishads in Bangladesh and Pakistan (Sobhan, 1968). Though, it is taken that villagers are politically inert but at the time great movement as 'Quit India' (Desai, 1978; 45-53) 'Satyagraha', 'Swadeshi' movement, 'Dandi - march' independence movement in India, 'Telengana movement', 'Tribaga' movement in Bengal and Assam, 1969, mass upsurge, 1971 war of liberation, participation in Ulshi-Jadunathpur Project, Rural works programmes in Bangladesh, the villagers took an active role.

Studies in rural polity and participation by Kogekar and Park (1956), Someji (1959), Firth (1957) in India found that things were influenced by caste, religion, even threat and bribes, factionalism,

regionalisation, etc. Weiner (1957) found in Indian situation that party system was not of final or rigid type. Jones (1957) found that middle class members were active in politics and holding major proportion of elected representatives. Beteille (1966) found in his study in Tamil Nadu village of Sripuram, India, that non-brahmin middle class with educated back ground dominated the political scene. Dube (1958) found the existence of a rural elite with some education, land property and having contact with outside the village. Bhatnagar (1972) found that educated were more participating in politics and preferred to have educated leaders, while illiterates preferred traditional political system.

Srinivas (Mathias, 1968; 18,43) found in Bihar that educated class took part in local politics in Taluka and District levels. In Bangladesh also the students leaders took part in national and local politics. Sukla (1963) found education as basis of political participation of the middle class. In the village educated got political power (Shipman, 1971; 263).

In the modern age, national movements were

started by the educated middle class in India by the 'Bengali Bhadralok', 'Chita Pavan' of Maharashtra, 'Tamilian Brahmin' (Basu, 1974; iv, 114). Waverstein (1968; 8) found that nationalist movement started with educated middle class. Ayub (Chopra, 1971; 40,59) found in Bangladesh the liberation movement was led by educated middle class having rural peasantry background.

In the Bangladesh context, Karim (1976; 115-138) found the rise of an educated muslim middle class around the beginning of this century who was leading the country in all fields. Chowdhury (1978) finds the influence of education in village politics along with groups. In Bangladesh, families having educated members who can arrange official patronage dominate the village scene by occupying key posts. Huq (1978; 144) finds the importance of Bari-kinship group, family, as the basis of political participation. In his study of two villages of Bangladesh, Zaidi(1970; 126-134) found in every village there were 5 to 10 traditional informal Pradhans or matabhar (village leaders) or Sardar who would mitigate and control the village affairs. They are selected generally on the family, bari, kinship, age, wealth, locality basis. Karim

(1976; 141-157) finds such a type of village traditional informal leadership. Huq (1978) also reports of such a type of 'Sardars' in village society.

With the introduction of new political system of 'Basic democracy' in the early sixties and introduction of rural works programmes the village scene is changing. Traditional leadership is changing. People having some formal education and otherwise influence dominate the village polity. In the developmental works, government tries its best to make the general people participate enmass to boost up the village economy for rural upliftment (Planning Commission - First Five Year Plan) through development package deal of agrarian modernization which indlude, modernization of agricultural, rural health and sanitary service, mass education, women's emancipation, introduction of direct elected representative to the local bodies. In the present study, it is assumed that education will have an impact on these rural projects.

Thirteen questions were asked in the section. The responses out of the total 13 questions were

evaluated according to the earlier mentioned procedures in appendix B. Maximum scores out of thirteen questions were 26 (2x13) and minimum 13 (1x13) as more participating responses scored two and less participating scored one. After evaluation of the total replies, the total scores were dichotomized around mean (arithmetic mean 18.2), as 19 and above as high, 18 and above as low. The hypothesis (No.8)that has been put forward for testing reads as follows:

"The more educated a person is, the more he/she will be participating in civic, political and rural developmental works."

Data are being presented in the following table.

5.8.2 Education and Participation in civic, political and developmental works:

Table No.5.8.1

Association between levels of education and participation (change) in civic, political and rural developmental works

(Change) (Participation)	Higher		S.S.C.		Primary		Illiterate		Total
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	29	93.54	37	68.51	43	53.09	36	23.52	145
Low	2	6.46	17	31.49	38	46.91	117	76.48	174
Total	31	100.00	54	100.00	81	100.00	153	100.00	319

(Source: Table No.7.8, appendix B)

Data in table no.5.8.1 reveal that 29 of the total 31 respondents of higher level of education have high participation, percentage being 93.54 and two respondents have low participation, percentage being 6.46; 37 of the total 54 respondents of the S.S.C. level of education have high participation, Percentage being 68.51 and 17 have low participation, percentage being 31.49; 43 of the total 81 respondents of the primary level of education have high participation, percentage being 53.09 and 38 have low participation, percentage being 46.91; 36 of the total 153 illiterate respondents have high participation, percentage being 23.52 and 117 have low participation, percentage being 76.48. These data reveal certain direction in the sense that percentage of high participation (change) grows up with the growth of the levels of education, highest percentage for higher level of education (93.54) and lowest (23.52) for the illiterates. It also indicates the direction that though in smaller proportion, some illiterates have participation and some literates also have low participation. The data can be presented in a clear, precise and simple way by dichotomizing the total respondents into 'Literate' consisting of all the three levels of education of higher, S.S.C. and Primary, on the one hand, as mentioned earlier and

'Illiterate' on the other. This follows a 2x2 contigency table,

Table No.5.8.2

Association between Education and participation of the respondents on 'Polity and Participation'

Participation (Change)	Literate		Illiterate		Total
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	109	65.67	36	23.52	145
Low	57	34.33	117	76.48	174
Total	166	100.00	153	100.00	319

$Q = 0.722$, $X^2 = 57.006$, df. 1, $P < .01$

Data in table no.5.8.2 confirm the hypothesis. Among 166 literate respondents, 109 have high participation, percentage being 65.67 and 57 have low participation, percentage being 34.33; among the 153 illiterate respondents, 36 have high participation, percentage being 23.52, and 117 have low participation, percentage being 76.48, respectively. The association ($X^2 = 57.006$) is significant at $< .01$ level ($Q = 0.722$). The nature of association is positive.

Now the question arises that how far this

association between education and high participation in polity, civic and development works is genuine. This may be due to some other antecedent variables as sex, age, bari status, occupation and income. In order to find out an answer to such a question and to find out independent, relative and cumulative effects of variables of education, sex, age, bari status, occupation and income on "Polity and Participation", data are represented according to the cross tables that follow taking educatiom as constant in every table as the technique suggested by Hirschi and Selvin (1967) and Morris Rosenberg (1968; 169-182).

5.8.3 Education and Participation when controlled for sex:

Table No.5.8.3

Association between Education and Participation (Change) in Polity, Civic and Development Works

Participation (change)	Male				Total	Female				Total
	Literate		Illiterate			Literate		Illiterate		
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	63	68.48	21	28.0	84	46	62.17	15	19.23	61
Low	29	31.52	54	72.0	83	28	37.83	63	80.77	91
Total	92	100.00	75	100.0	167	74	100.00	78	100.00	152

Q = 0.696
X^2 = 27.080, df.1, P < .01

Q = 0.746
X^2 = 29.130, df.1, P < .01

Data in table no.5.8.3 show that among 152 female respondents, 48.67 (78) are literates and 51.31 (74) are illiterates and among 167 male respondents 55.09 percent (92) are literates and 44.91 percent (75) are illiterates. Thus the percentage of literates is more (55.09) among males than females (48.67). The data show that education and participation are positively associated for both male respondents (X^2 = 27.080, Q = 0.696) and female respondents (X^2 = 29.130, Q = 0.746), though there is variation in percentage between male and female groups, males being more participating (68.48) than females (62.17). The table shows also that in both male and female groups, literates have more percentage of participation (68.48) for males and (62.17) for females, respectively. This indicates the effect of education on participation in polity, civic and rural development works in-dependent of sex.

Within both males and females, literates have larger proportion of participation than illiterates. The percentage difference is 40.48 (68.48 - 28.0) for males and 42.94 (62.17 - 19.23) for females. In other words, when sex is controlled, education has an independent effect on participation. Conversely, when

education is controlled, sex has also some independent effect on participation. Among both literates and illiterates, males are more participating than females. The percentage difference is 6.31 (68.48 - 62.17) for literates and 8.77 (28.00- 19.23) for illiterates. Thus, sex has also some effect independent of education though the proportion is smaller in comparison to that of education.

Now relatively which variable is more effective, education or sex? This is the question of relative effect and Rosenberg (1968) suggested to compare the proportion in two "counter directional" groups. The proportion of participation among male illiterates is 28.0 and that of female literates is 62.17. Thus female literates are more participating and more change-oriented than male illiterates. The same fact can be represented by ranking the percentage.

	Groups	Participation in percentage
1.	Male literates	68.48
2.	Female literates	62.17
3.	Male illiterates	28.00
4.	Female illiterates	19.23

Above figures can be used to calculate the average percentage difference. The average effect of education, controlling sex, is 41.71. It is the average of 68.28 - 28.00 and 62.17 - 19.23. Conversely, the average effect of sex, controlling education, is 5.52. It is the average of 62.48 - 62.17 and 28.00 - 19.23.

The cumulative effect of education and sex is 49.05 (68.48 - 19.23). It is the difference of two "extreme consistent" groups (Rosenberg, 1968; 180).

Thus, education has positive independent and higher effect on participation and change in villages, irrespective of sex difference.

5.8.4 Education and Participation when controlled for age:

Table No.5.8.4

Association between Education and Participation (Change) in polity, rural developmental works when controlled for age

Change	How Age					High Age				
	Literate		Illiterate		Total	Literate		Illiterate		Total
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		Freq.	%	Freq	%	
High	66	68.75	21	26.25	87	43	61.42	15	20.56	58
Low	30	31.25	59	73.75	89	27	38.58	58	79.44	85
Total	96	100.00	80	100.00	176	70	100.00	73	100.00	143
Q = 0.721						Q = 0.720				
X^2 = 31.531, df.1, P < .01						X^2 = 24.771, df.1, P < .01				

Among the 176 low age group respondents, 54.54 percent (96) are literates and 45.46 percent (80) are illiterates and among 143 respondents of high age group 48.96 percent (70) are literates and 51.04 percent (73) are illiterates. Thus, the percentage of literates is more (54.54) in low age group than that of high age group (48.96). The data in Table No.5.8.4 reveal that education and participation (change) in polity, civic, and rural development works are positively associated for both low age group (X^2 = 31.531, Q = 0.721) and high age group (X^2 = 24.771, Q = 0.720), though there is variation in percentage. The table also shows that irrespective of age groups, the literates, have high percentage of participation (change) being 68.75 for low age group and 61.42 for high age group. This indicates the effect of education independent of age.

Within both the groups of high and low age, literates are more participating than illiterates. The percentage difference is 42.50 (68.75 - 26.25) for low age and 40.86 (61.42 - 20.56) for high age group. In other words, when age is controlled education has an independent effect on participation (change). Conversely, within each of the literate and illiterate groups, age

is also related to participation (change). Among both literates and illiterates, low age group is more participating than high age group. The percentage difference is 7.33 (68.75 - 61.42) for literates and 5.09 (26.25-20.56) for illiterates. Thus, when education is controlled age has some independent effect, though proportion is smaller in comparison to that of education.

Which one of these two variables is more effective? This is the question of relative effect. It is the proportion in two "counter directional" groups (Rosenberg, 1968; 169-182). The proportion of participation (change) among low age group illiterates is 26.25 while it is 61.42 among high age literates. Thus, the high age literates are more participating (change) than low age illiterates. The same fact can be represented by ranking the percentage.

	Groups	Participation in Percentage
1.	Low age literates	68.75
2.	High age literates	61.42
3.	Low age illiterates	26.25
4.	High age illiterates	20.56

Above figures can be used to calculate the average percentage difference. The average effect of

education, controlling age, is 41.68. It is the average of 68.75 - 26.25 and 61.42 - 20.56. Conversely, the effect of age, controlling education, is 6.51. It is the average of 68.75 - 61.42 and 26.25 - 20.56.

The cumulative effect of education and age is 48.19 (68.75 - 20.56). It is the difference of two "extreme consistent" groups (Rosenberg, 1968; 180).

Thus, education is positively associated with participation and change in polity, civic and rural developmental works, irrespective of age variation.

5.8.5 Education and Participation (change) when controlled for Bari Status:

Table No.5.8.5

Association between Education and Participation (Change) in polity, civic and developmental works when controlled for Bari Status

Participation	Unchu (High) Bari					Nichchu (Low) Bari				
	Literate		Illiterate		Total	Literate		Illiterate		Total
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	54	66.67	14	20.59	68	55	64.70	22	25.89	77
Low	27	33.33	54	79.41	81	30	35.30	63	74.11	93
Total	81	100.00	68	100.00	149	85	100.00	85	100.00	170
Q = 0.770						Q = 0.680				
X^2 = 31.636, df.1, P < .01						X^2 = 25.852, df.1, P < .01				

Among 170 respondents of nichchu bari group 50 percent (85) are literates and 50 percent (85) are illiterates, and among 149 respondents of unchu bari group, 54.37 percent (81) are literates and 45.63 percent (68) are illiterates, respectively. Thus the percentage of literates is more (54.37) in unchu bari group than nichchu bari group (50.0). The data in table 5.8.5 reveal that education and participation (change) in polity, civic and developmental works are positively associated for both unchu bari group (X^2 = 31.636, Q = 0.770) and nichchu bari group (X^2 = 25.852, Q = 0.680) though there is variation for bari groups. The table shows that irrespective of bari groups, the literates have higher percentage of participation, it is 64.70 for nichchu bari group and 66.67 for unchu bari group. This indicates the effect of education independent of bari groups.

Within both the groups of baris, literates have larger proportion of participation and change than illiterates. The percentage difference is 46.08 (66.67 - 20.59) for unchu bari and 38.81 (64.70 - 25.89) for nichchu bari group. In other words, when bari status is controlled, education has an independent effect on participation and change in polity, civic and rural development works. Conversely, within each of

the literate and illiterate groups, bari status is also related to participation and change. Among literates the percentage difference is 1.97 (66.67 - 64.70) and it is 5.30 (20.59 - 25.89) for illiterates. Thus, when education is controlled bari status has some effect on polity and participation though in a smaller proportion in comparison to that of education.

Which one of these two variables is more effective? This is the question of relative effect. It is the proportion in two "counter directional" groups (Rosenberg, 1968; 179-182). The proportion of partiti-pation (change) among unchu bari illiterates is 20.59 and that of nichchu bari literates, it is 64.70. Thus, nichchu bari literates are more participating (changing) than unchu bari illiterates. The same fact can be represented by ranking the percentage.

	Groups	Participation (change) in percentage
1.	Unchu bari literates	66.67
2.	Nichchu bari literates	64.70
3.	Unchu bari illiterates	20.59
4.	Nichchu bari illiterates	25.89

The above figures can be used to calculate the average percentage difference. The average effect of

education, controlling bari status,is 42.45. It is the average of 66.67 - 20.59 and 64.70 - 25.89. Conversely, the average effect of bari status, controlling education, is 3.64. It is the average of 66.67 - 64.70 and 25.89 - 20.59.

The cumulative effect of education and bari is 40.78 (66.67 - 25.89). It is the difference of two "extreme consistent" groups (Rosenberg, 1968; 180).

Thus, education and participation (change) is positively associated irrespective of variation in bari status.

5.8.6 Education and Participation (change) when controlled controlled for occupation:

Table No.5.8.6

Association between Education and participation (change) in Polity, Civic and developmental works when controlled for occupation

Participation (change)	Non-agricultural				Total	Agricultural				Total
	Literate		Illiterate			Literate		Illiterate		
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	56	74.69	6	25.0	62	53	58.24	30	23.26	83
Low	19	25.33	18	75.0	37	38	41.76	99	76.74	137
Total	75	100.00	24	100.0	99	91	100.00	129	100.00	220

Q = 0.796
X^2 = 19.162, df.1, P $<$ .01

Q = 0.643
X^2 = 27.799, df.1, P $<$ .01

Among 220 agricultural occupants, 41.37 percent (91) are literates and 58.63 percent (129) are illiterates and among 99 non-agricultural occupants, 75.76 percent (75) are literates and 24.24 percent (24) illiterates. Thus, the percentage of literates is more in non-agricultural group (75.76) than that of agricultural group (41.37). Data in table no.5.8.6 reveal that education and participation (change) in polity, civic and rural developmental works are positively associated for both non-agricultural group (X^2 = 19.162, Q = 0.796) and agricultural group (X^2 = 27.799, Q = 0.643) though there is variation among occupants of agriculture and non-agricultural groups. The table shows that irrespective of occupants, the literates have high percentage of participation (change), it is 74.67 for non-agriculturists and 58.24 for agriculturists. Thus, data in table no.5.8.6 indicate the effect of education on participation (change) on polity, civic and rural development works independent of occupations.

Within both non-agricultural and agricultural occupants, literates have larger proportion of participation (change) than illiterates. The percentage difference is 49.67 (74.67 - 25.00) for non-agriculturists

and 34.98 (58.24 - 23.26) for agriculturists. In other words, when occupation is controlled, education has an independent effect on participation (change). Conversely, within each of the literates and illiterates, non-agriculturists are more participating in polity, civic and rural development. The percentage difference for literates is 16.43 (74.67 - 58.24) and illiterates 1.74 (25.00 - 23.26). Thus, when education is controlled, occupation has also some independent effect on polity and participation.

Which one of these two variables is more effective? This is the question of relative effect. It is the proportion in two "counter directional" groups (Rosenberg, 1968; 179-180). The proportion of participation among non-agricultural illiterates is 25.0 and that of agricultural literates is 58.24. Thus, agricultural literates are more participating than non-agricultural illiterates. The same fact can be represented by ranking the percentage.

	Groups	Participation in percentage
1.	Non-agricultural literates	74.67
2.	Agricultural literates	58.24
3.	Non-agricultural illiterates	25.00
4.	Agricultural illiterates	23.26

The above figures can be used to calculate the average percentage difference. The average effect of education, controlling occupation, is 42.33. It is the average of 74.67 - 25.00 and 58.24 - 23.26. Conversely, the average effect of occupation, controlling education, is 9.9. It is the average of 74.67 - 58.24 and 25.0 - 23.26.

The cumulative effect of education and occupation is 51.41 (74.67 - 23.26). It is the difference between two "extreme consistent" groups (Rosenberg, 1968; 180).

Thus, education is positively associated with participation and change in polity, civic and rural developmental works irrespective of variation in occupation.

5.8.7 Education and Participation when comtrolled for Income:

Table No.5.8.7

Association between Education and Participation (change) in Polity, civic and rural developmental works when controlled for income

Participation (Change)	High Income					Low Income				
	Literate		Illiterate		Total	Literate		Illiterate		Total
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	
High	67	69.80	17	42.5	84	42	60.0	19	16.81	61
Low	29	30.20	23	57.5	52	28	40.0	94	83.19	122
Total	96	100.00	40	100.0	136	70	100.0	113	100.00	183

Q = 0.515
X^2 = 8.905, df.1, P $\angle$ .01

Q = 0.762
X^2 = 36.276, df.1, P $\angle$ .01

Among 183 respondents of low income group, 38.26 percent (70) are literates and 61.74 percent (113) are illiterates and 136 of the high income group 70.51 percent (96) are literates and 29.41 percent (40) are illiterates. Thus, the percentage of literates is more in high income group (70.51) than that of low income group (38.26). The data in table no.5.8.7 reveal that education and participation (high) in polity, civic and rural development works are positively associated for both high income group (X^2 = 8.905, Q = 0.515) and low income group (X^2 = 36.276, Q = 0.762) though there is variation in percentage between high and low income groups. The table also shows that irrespective of income groups, literates have higher percentage of participation (change). It is 69.80 for high income group and it is 60.0 for low income group. This indicates the effect of education, independent of income.

Within both high income and low income group, literates are more participating than illiterates. The percentage difference is 27.30 (69.80 - 42.50) for high income group and 43.19 (60.00 - 16.81) for low income group. In other words, when income is controlled, education has an independent effect on participation (change). Conversely, within each of literate and illiterate groups, income is also related to participation (change). Among

both literates and illiterates, high income group is more participating than low income group. The percentage difference is 9.80 (69.80 - 60.00) for literates and 25.69 (42.50 - 16.81) for illiterates. Thus, when education is controlled, income has also some independent effect on participation (change) in polity, civic and rural development works.

Which one of these two variables is more effective? education or income? This is the question of relative effect. It is the proportion in two "counter directional" groups (Rosenberg, 1968). The proportion of participation among high income illiterates is 42.50 and that of low income literates is 60.00. Thus, low income group literates are more participating than high income group illiterate respondents. The same fact can be represented by ranking the percentage groups.

	Groups	Participation in percentage
1.	High income literates	69.80
2.	Low income literates	60.00
3.	High income illiterates	42.50
4.	Low income illiterates	16.81

The above figures can be used to calculate the average percentage difference. The effect of education,

controlling income, is 35.25. It is the average of 69.80 - 42.50 and 60.00 - 16.81. Conversely, the effect of income, controlling education, is 17.75. It is the average of 69.00 - 60.00 and 42.50 - 16.81. The cumulative effect of education and income is 52.99 (69.80 - 16.81). It is the difference of two "extreme consistent" groups (Rosenberg, 1968; 180). Thus the association between education and participation (change) in polity, civic and rural development works is positively associated irrespective of variation due to income.

5.8.8 Summary and Conclusions:

From above discussions, it can be found out that education is positively associated with the polity, civic and rural developmental works in the villages. The educated are working as agents in this regard. The hypothesis that has been put forward is confirmed by the analysis of data.

The findings are in consonance of the findings by other studies as Karim (1976), Beteille (1966), Srinivas (1966), Bhatnagar (1972), Pandey (1975), Dubey (1958), Desai (1978), Jones (1957), Ayub (Chopra, 1971), and Huq (1978), and other studies as mentioned in the previous section. The overall summary of the findings are discussed in the succeeding section.

5.9.1 Major Findings and Summary:

Major findings of the analysis, interpretation and discussion of the data presented in the tables so far can be put summarily. The findings are presented according to the sections under which hypotheses were put to test. There are in all eight such hypotheses on i. modernity, ii. superstitions, iii. family and marriage, iv. education, v. religion, vi. occupation, vii. social hierarchy and mobility and viii. polity and participation.

5.9.2 Education and Modernity:

Data support positive association between education and modernity thus confirming the hypothesis. Literates are more modern than illiterates. The percentage is 65.67 for literates and 13.08 for illiterates. Males are more modern than females. The percentage is 70.66 for male literates, it is 59.46 for female literates, it is 16.0 for male illiterates and it is 10.26 for female illiterates.

Low age respondents are more modern than high age ones. The percentage is 67.70 for low age literates, while it is 62.86 for high age literates, it is 15.00 for low age illiterates and it is 10.96 for high age

illiterates.

Traditional unchu bari literate respondents are more modern than traditional nichchu bari ones. The percentage is 69.13 for unchu bari, it is 62.30 for nichchu bari. Traditional nichchu bari illiterates are more modern than their counterpart in unchu bari. The percentage is 15.30 for nichchu bari and it is 10.30 for unchu bari.

Non-agricultural respondents are more modern than agricultural ones. The percentage is 82.67 for non-agricultural literates, while it is 51.64 for agricultural literates, it is 25.00 for non-agricultural illiterates and it is 10.86 for agricultural illiterates.

High income respondents are more modern than low income ones. The percentage is 75.00 for high income literates, while it is 52.86 for low income literates, it is 20.00 for high income illiterates and it is 10.61 for low income illiterates.

5.9.3 Education and Superstitions:

Data presented im analysis and interpretation support the negative association between education and superstitions. Educated persons are less superstitious thaa confirming the hypothesis. Literates are less

superstitious than illiterates. The percentage is 27.11 for literates and it is 73.86 for illiterates.

Males are less superstitious than females. The percentage is 15.21 for male literates, while it is 41.90 for female literates, it is 60.00 for male illiterates and it is 87.18 for female illiterates.

Low age literates are less superstitious than high age literates. The percentage is 23.96 for low age while it is 31.43 for high age. High age illiterates are less superstitious than low age illiterates. The percentage is 71.23 for high age and it is 76.25 for low age.

Traditional unchu bari literates are less superstitious than nichchu bari literates. The percentage is 24.70 for unchu bari and 29.41 for nichchu bari. Traditional nichchu bari illiterates are less superstitious than unchu bari illiterates. The percentage is 76.48 for unchu bari and 71.77 for nichchu bari.

Non-agricultural literate occupants are less superstitious than agricultural occupants. The percentage is 17.33 for non-agricultural literates, while it is 35.17 for agricultural literates, it is 58.33 for non-agricultural illiterates and it is 76.74 for

agricultural illiterates.

High income literates are less superstitious than low income literates. The percentage is 19.80 for high income literates, while it is 37.14 for low income literates. The low income illiterates are less superstitious than high income illiterates. The percentage is 71.69 for low income illiterates while it is 80.00 for high income illiterates.

5.9.4 Education, Change in Family and Marriage affairs:

Data presented for analysis and interpretation supported the positive association between education and change in family and marriage affairs, thus confirming the hypothesis.

Literates are more change-oriented than illiterates. The percentage is 59.63 for literates while it is 16.33 for illiterates.

Males are more change-oriented than females. The percentage is 64.13 for male literates, while it is 54.05 for female literates, it is 21.33 for male illiterates and it is 11.53 for female illiterates.

Low age is more change-oriented than high age. The percentage is 62.50 for low age literates, while it is 55.71 for high age literates, it is 17.50 for low age

illiterates and it is 15.07 for high age illiterates.

Unchu bari respondents are more change-oriented than nichchu bari ones. The percentage is 62.97 for unchu bari literates, while it is 56.48 for nichchu bari literates, it is 17.64 for unchu bari illiterates and it is 15.30 for nichchu bari illiterates.

Non-agricultural respondents are more change-oriented than agricultural ones. The percentage is 68.0 for non-agricultural literates, while it is 52.74 for agricultural literates, it is 37.50 for non-agricultural illiterates and it is 12.40 for agricultural illiterates.

High income respondents are more change-oriented than low income ones. The percentage is 62.50 for high income literates, while it is 55.71 for low income literates, it is 30.00 for high income illiterates and it is 11.50 for low income illiterates.

5.9.5. Education and Change in Educational affairs:

Data presented for analysis and interpretation supported the positive association between education and change in educational affairs, thus confirming the hypothesis. Literates are change-oriented than illiterates. The percentage is 64.46 for literates and

it is 26.14 for illiterates.

Males are more change-oriented than females. The percentage is 70.66 for male literates, while it is 56.76 for female literates, it is 29.33 for male illiterates and it is 23.08 for female illiterates.

Low age respondents are change-oriented than high age ones. The percentage is 67.70 for low age literates, while it is 60.00 for high age literates, it is 28.75 for low age illiterates and it is 23.29 for high age illiterates.

Unchu bari respondents are more change-oriented than nichchu bari ones. The percentage is 69.13 for unchu bari literates, while it is 60.00 for nichchu bari literates, it is 27.94 for unchu bari illiterates and it is 24.70 for nichchu bari illiterates.

Non-agricultural respondents are more change-oriented than agricultural ones. The percentage is 78.67 for non-agricultural literates, while it is 52.74 for agricultural literates, it is 48.84 for non-agricultural illiterates and it is 22.49 for agricultural illiterates.

High income group respondents are more change-oriented than low income ones. The percentage is 66.67 for high income literates, while it is 62.86 for low income literates, it is 32.50 for high income illiterates

and it is 23.0 for low income illiterates.

5.9.6 Education and Religion:

Data presented for analysis and interpretation support the positive association between change in religiosity and education, thus, confirming the hypothesis.

Literates are more change-oriented than illiterates. The percentage is 54.21 for literates, while it is 10.46 for illiterates.

Males are more change-oriented than females. The percentage is 56.52 for male literates while it is 51.36 for female literates, it is 13.33 for male illiterates and it is 7.70 for female illiterates.

Low age respondents are more change-oriented than high age. The percentage is 56.25 for low age literates, while it is 51.42 for high age literates, it is 12.50 for low age illiterates and it is 8.21 for high age illiterates.

Nichchu bari respondents are more change-oriented than their counterparts in the unchu baris. The percentage is 55.30 for nichchu bari literates, while it is 53.09 for unchu bari literates, it is 11.77 for nichchu bari

illiterates and it is 8.82 for unchu bari illiterates.

Non-agricultural respondents are more change-oriented than their counterparts in the agricultural group. The percentage is 57.33 for non-agricultural literates, while it is 51.64 for agricultural literates, it is 25.00 for non-agricultural illiterates, and it is 7.76 for agricultural illiterates.

High income group of respondents are more change-oriented than their counterparts in the low income group. The percentage is 55.20 for high income literates, while it is 52.86 for low income literates, it is 12.30 for high income illiterates and it is 9.73 for low income illiterates.

5.9.7 Education and Occupation:

Data presented for analysis and interpretation support the positive association between education and change in occupational affairs, thus confirming the hypothesis. Literates are more change-oriented than illiterates. The percentage is 65.07 for literates, while it is 30.67 for illiterates.

Males are more change-oriented than females. The percentage difference is 70.66 for male literates, while it is 58.10 for female literates, it is 34.67 for

male illiterates and it is 25.64 for female illiterates.

Low age group respondents are more change-oriented than high age group respondents. The percentage is 67.70 for low age literates, while it is 61.42 for high age literates, it is 31.25 for low age illiterates, and it is 28.77 for high age illiterates.

Unchu bari respondents are more change-oriented than nichchu bari respondents. The percentage is 70.38 for unchu bari literates, while it is 60.00 for nichchu bari literates, it is 38.23 for unchu bari illiterates, it is 23.52 for nichchu bari illiterates.

Non-agricultural respondents are more change-oriented than agricultural respondents. The percentage is 77.33 for non-agricultural literates, while it is 54.94 for agricultural literates, it is 41.67 for non-agricultural illiterates and it is 27.90 for agricultural illiterates.

High income group of respondents are more change-oriented than low income group of respondents. The percentage is 74.00 for high income literates, while it is 60.00 for low income literates, it is 47.50 for high income illiterates and it is 23.90 for low income

illiterates.

5.9.8 Education and change in hierarchy and mobility:

Data presented for analysis and interpretation support the positive association between education and change in hierarchy and mobility in the villages under study, thus confirming the hypothesis. Literates are more change-oriented than illiterates. The percentage is 57.83 for literates, while it is 20.27 for illiterates.

Males are more change-oriented than females. The percentage is 61.96 for male literates, while it is 52.70 for female literates, it is 26.67 for male illiterates and it is 14.10 for female illiterates.

Low age group of respondents are more change-oriented than high age group. The percentage is 61.46 for low age literates, while it is 52.86 for high age literates, it is 22.50 for low age illiterates and it is 17.80 for high age illiterates.

Nichchu bari respondents are more change-oriented than unchu bari respondents. The percentage is 58.82 for nichchu bari literates, while it is 56.80 for unchu bari literates, it is 21.18 for nichchu bari illiterates and it is 19.11 for unchu bari illiterates. This can be

interpreted as high bari status responses do not like to change their origin status.

Non-agricultural respondents are more change-oriented than agricultural occupants. The percentage is 66.67 for non-agricultural literates, while it is 50.54 for agricultural literates, it is 29.17 for non-agricultural illiterates and it is 18.60 for agricultural illiterates.

High income group of respondents are more change-oriented than low income group respondents. The percentage is 61.46 for high income literates, while it is 52.86 for low income literates, it is 35.00 for high income illiterates and it is 15.04 for low income illiterates.

5.9.9 Education and participation (change) in polity, civic and rural developmental works:

Data presented for analysis and interpretation support the positive association between participation (change) and education in polity, civic and rural developmental works, thus confirming the hypothesis. Literates are more participating than illiterates. The percentage is 65.67 for literates, while it is 23.52 for illiterates.

Males are more participating than females. The percentage is 68.48 for male literates and it is 62.17

for female literates, it is 28.00 for male illiterates and it is 19.23 for female illiterates.

Low age respondents are more participating than high age group. The percentage is 68.75 for low age literates, while it is 61.42 for high age literates, it is 26.25 for low age illiterates and it is 20.56 for high age illiterates.

Unchu bari literates are more participating than nichchu bari literates. The percentage is 66.67 for literates of unchu bari, while it is 64.70 for nichchu bari literates. Nichchu bari illiterates are more participating than unchu bari illiterates. This can be interpreted as nichchu bari respondents join as manual workers to earn bread out of rural developmental works, under 'Food for Works Programme', etc.

Non-agricultural respondents are more participating than agricultural ones. The percentage is 74.67 for non-agricultural literates, while it is 38.24 for agricultural literates, it is 25.00 for non-agricultural illiterates and it is 23.26 for agricultural illiterates.

High income respondents are more participating than low income respondents. The percentage is 69.80

for high income literates, while it is 60.00 for low income literates, it is 42.50 for high income illiterates and it is 16.81 for low income illiterates.

Thus, all the hypotheses are confirmed by the collected data that are presented, analysed and interpreted. The two case studies of Sharif and Khalil also reveal the impact of education on change in villages, under study. Education is found to function as an agent of social change in the four villages in Bangladesh, under study.

5.9.10 Conclusion:

Thus, it is revealed from the summative presentation of the findings out of the data that educated persons are having more of modern attributes, less of superstitious, change oriented in family and marriage affairs, change oriented in educational affairs, change oriented in religiosity in the sense pragmatic, secular, rational in that sense practical, change-oriented in occupational affairs, change-oriented in social hierarchy and social mobility and more participating in polity, civic and rural development programmes than the illiterates, irrespective of sex, age, bari, occupation and income. The findings, out of this

research, can not be taken as accurately measured, it can only be said that the trend is indicative towards change. Of course, no research in human behaviour or social sciences can claim of cent percent accuracy (Gore, et al, 1970; 54).

This supports the theoretical model of modern man of Alex Inkeles and David H.Smith (1974) that modern man is change-oriented, work-oriented, secular and practical towards religion, not fatalistic, efficatious, planned, open minded, more participating, punctual, aspirative and the like. The model of Dube (1967) for modernization as among others, mobility, high participation, new attitudes, long term plan-oriented, rational ends, social and economic discipline can be related with these findings also. Gerth and Mills (1956) model of relationship between character and structure through role has also relevancy with these findings in the sense that educated persons will have changed role and status in the society through their academic achievements. Consequently, it will generate change in the institutional order of the village communities. The findings also can be related with Karim's (1976,1972) observation of the rising of educated Bangladeshi middle class who is

dominating social, cultural and political scene of Bangladesh. These findings have relevancy with the findings of Gore, et al (1970) where educated were modern, change-oriented, secular and the like. These findings have some relevancy with Weberian (1948) model of status and power, in the sense that educated persons will have new roles and status in the society due to academic achievements. This may have some relevance with the model 'Sanskritization' by Srinivas (1952) in the Indian context.

The findings also reveal that male literates with low age, high bari status, non-agricultural occupations and high income are more prone to change and participation.

Exceptions are applicable to nichchu bari on change in religiosity, social hierarchy and mobility, where literates of nichchu bari are more change-oriented than literates of unchu bari. This may be explained as unchu bari with their religious and aristocratic family origin still try to maintain old heritage. Karim (1976; 148) reported that the petty service holders as clerks, factory workers, from high families (unchu) as Chowdhury, Khundakars, held their traditional

family artistocratic attitudes when they came back to village, though they were holding a subordinate status in the office under literates from nichchu (low) family background. It can be put in Karim's (1976; 148) own words: " A small number of Chowdhuri's and Khundakars ... as clerks in commercial firms, as petty government officers, lawyers, teachers .... wage-earners, ... whatever might be the status of the villagers in towns ... on their return to village (they) would at once resume their status, in the village."

The findings, as mentioned earlier, in the limitation of the study should be read with the limitations of sampling, site selection, variables, evaluating and measuring techniques. Though education is found as prime factor for social change but other factors will also have to be considered. Further, other variables as industrialisation, mass communication, informal education and the like could not be taken for the present study, can be kept in mind in interpreting these findings. Education, at best can be read as one of the many aspects of social change.