Women's Empowerment in Kenya

DEVELOPING A MEASURE

2020

WOMEN'S EMPOWERMENT

in Kenya

Contents

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Acronyms

AU	African Union
BPfA	Beijing Platform for Action
CEDAW	Convention on Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
CIDPs	County Integrated Development Plans
DD	Decision-making Dominance
DHS	Demographic and Health Survey
EAC	East African Community
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
FGM/C	Female Genital Mutilation/Cutting
GBV	Gender-Based Violence
GEWE	Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment
GII	Gender Inequality Index
GPI	Gender Parity Index
HIV/AIDS	Human Immunodeficiency Virus/Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
KDHS	Kenya Demographic and Health Survey
KIHBS	Kenya Integrated Household Budget Survey
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin
KNBS	Kenya National Bureau of Statistics
KPHC	Kenya Population and Housing Census
KShs	Kenyan Shillings
MDGs	Millennium Development Goal
MMR	Maternal Mortality Ratio
MTCT	Mother-to-Child Transmission of HIV
MTP	Medium Term Plan
NEET	Not in Employment, Education or Training
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organisations
RC	Relationship Control
RMSEA	Root Means Square Error of Approximation
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
SGBV	Sexual- and Gender-Based Violence
SRPS	Sexual Relationship Power Scale
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
VET	Vocational Education Training
WEI	Women's Empowerment Index

Foreword

This document presents the development and the first use of the inaugural measure of women's empowerment in Kenya – the Women's Empowerment Index (WEI). Development of the WEI represents a major milestone in the country's evidence-based policymaking and sets a baseline for monitoring of the government's progress toward Sustainable Development Goal 5 (SDG5) on achieving gender equality and empowerment of all women and girls.

A fundamental principle under the 2030 Agenda is to leave no one behind. It articulates how every human being should not suffer the confines of poverty or remain destitute. However, evidence shows that women and girls continue to be most vulnerable hence the need to increase efforts towards their ability to assert their resilience, versatility and capabilities.

The Constitution of Kenya and the ratification of many UN conventions in support of women's development and empowerment provide the impetus to track and monitor changes in women's empowerment. While very many interventions have been implemented over the last 50 years, Kenya still lacks a national tool that can be used to measure, track and evaluate progress towards women's empowerment.

The Kenya National Bureau of Statistics in collaboration with its partners has developed the Women Empowerment Index as an approach to women's empowerment in support of efforts to rigorously assess, demonstrate and learn about the impact of development interventions that are working towards women's empowerment. It recognizes that empowerment is a multi-dimensional concept. The index therefore combines information from a variety of indicators into one composite index. The index targets to meaningfully measure changes in women's empowerment in the context of the development interventions for various socioeconomic groups in spatial and temporal terms. This formulation becomes very challenging when data has to be used to operationalize it. The most proximate data available for such analysis in this period is the 2014 Kenya Demographic and Health Survey (KDHS).

The Kenya Women's Empowerment Index draws from important legislative and policy documents at the national and international levels. It is based on an in-depth literature review and empirical analysis, and is contextualized through extensive consultations with numerous stakeholders in the country. The findings from the analysis shows that only 29 percent of women in Kenya between the ages of 15 and 49 years were empowered in 2014. The empowerment rate of women in urban areas is 40 percent, nearly double the rate of empowered women in rural areas, at 22 percent over the same year.

Notably, efforts should be made to ensure that the 71 percent of women identified as disempowered are effectively empowered. Key recommendations of the report include improved quality, availability, and representativeness of data; improved advocacy on the use of the Women's Empowerment Index to inform laws, policies and resource allocation towards gender equality and women's empowerment; enhancing coordination of all relevant stakeholders and partners to increase demand and utilization of gender statistics including the WEI; and strengthening timeliness of production of WEI figures and its integration in reporting for achievements toward objectives and targets of Vision 2030, BPfA, CEDAW, and SDGs.

I wish to thank the Director General, Kenya National Bureau of Statistics for his leadership in the development of this Index and secondly, thank the State Department for Gender, UN Women and UNICEF for their technical and financial support respectively.

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Executive Summary

It has long been recognised that women's empowerment is a precondition for sustained economic development and poverty reduction; and that it is inexorably linked to social transformation. Empowerment of women and girls has therefore been incorporated in numerous policy and legal instruments like the UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), and the Maputo Protocol amongst others. In addition to signing and ratifying these documents, the Government of Kenya mainstreamed women's empowerment through several articles in its 2010 Constitution. The topic holds an important place in the country's key development policy and strategy documents.

Progress in monitoring Kenya's achievements in enhancing women's empowerment has been slower in the absence of an official measure. This report aims to fill this data and knowledge gap by conceptualising and developing an official measure for women's empowerment in Kenya that is strongly embedded in the country's context and existing legislation and policy documents. As a first step, a comprehensive literature review was carried out to take stock of existing methodologies and practices for measuring women's empowerment with a special focus on developing countries. Kabeer's (1999) conceptual framework - consisting of three interrelated dimensions: resources, agency and achievement - was then used in consultations with a wide range of stakeholders, as the basis for selection of parameters that best capture the ability of women in Kenya to exercise choice. The second step involved running econometric analysis using the 2014 Kenya Demographic and Health Survey (KDHS) to identify domains of women's empowerment and the constituting factors of each. For women in union, the econometric model identified five domains of empowerment: (a) Attitudes toward wife-beating, (b) Human and social resources, (c) Household decision-making, (d) Control over sexual relations, and (e) Economic domain. For women not in union, the model selected three domains of empowerment: (a) Economic, (b) Human and social resources, and (c) Attitudes towards wife-beating. To construct the Women's Empowerment Index (WEI), each of the domains was assigned equal weights, and the weight of the domain was then distributed equally to each of its constituting indicators. In this report, a woman is considered empowered if she is empowered in at least 80 percent of the total weighted indicators of empowerment. Even though empowerment is measured separately for women in union and women not in union, the results are presented jointly for all women aged 15-49 years.

The findings show that 29 percent of women aged 15-49 years in Kenya are empowered. Women in urban areas are nearly twice as likely to be empowered compared to those in rural areas, with incidence rates of 40 and 22 percent, respectively. Empowerment is positively associated with household wealth. While only 6 percent of women belonging to the poorest wealth quintile are empowered, in the richest wealth quintile the rate reaches 53 percent. Other socio-economic characteristics are also relevant. Single and married women are more likely to be empowered, while the opposite is true for widowed women with only 12 percent of them empowered. Women in monogamous marriages are also more likely to be empowered compared to those in polygamous marriages. The empowerment rate is the highest among women aged 15-19 years and the lowest among those aged 40-49 years. Sex and educational attainment of the household head are also relevant. Incidence of women's empowerment ranges from 10 percent among households where the head has not completed any formal education to 62 percent where the head has completed high education.

This Women's Empowerment Index represents a major landmark in Kenya's evidence-based policy making for setting the baseline and monitoring the country's progress in achieving SDG 5: "achieve gender equality and empower all girls and women". It is based on a thorough literature review, empirical

analysis, draws on important legislative and policy documents at the national and international level, and is contextualised through extensive consultations with a wide range of stakeholders in the country. However, its construction faced several limitations due to data availability. The recommendations highlight several ways to improve the data collection tools for a more robust and comprehensive measure in the future.

Introduction

1.1   Background and Context

The topic of women's empowerment gained its first momentum in the mid-1970s with the adoption of the resolution 31/136 of the United Nations Decade for Women (United Nations, 1976). The resolution called upon governments to ensure equal and effective participation of women in the political, economic, social and cultural life. Its adoption paved way for other resolutions and international declarations, including the United Nations (UN) Convention on Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) in 1979, and the 1995 Beijing Platform for Action (BPfA). In 2000, the United Nations Millennium Declaration set the basis for incorporating women's empowerment in the global development agenda. Under the Millennium Development Goal (MDG) 3, Kenya committed to promote gender equality and empower women. Even though this was a step forward, the goal and its targets were restricted to a few areas including education, paid employment in the non-agricultural sector, and women's political representation and did not treat women's empowerment comprehensively. An improvement was achieved with the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), particularly SDG 5[1]: "Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls," which covers a broad set of themes and indicators to measure gender equality and women's empowerment in a comprehensive manner (UN, 2015).

The first decade of 2000s highlights several crucial developments in both Kenya and the continent in efforts to enhance gender equality and women's empowerment. In 2003, under the Maputo Protocol[2], African countries committed to guarantee women comprehensive rights to participate in the social and political spheres equally with men, enhance their autonomy to make decisions about their reproductive health and end female genital mutilation (African Union, 2003). The disproportionate incidence of poverty, illiteracy and disease faced by women is also recognised under the African Union (AU) Agenda 2063, Aspiration 6, whose achievement is set out in the Strategy for Gender Equality & Women's Empowerment (GEWE) 2018-2028. Regionally, gender equality and equity and women's empowerment are envisioned in the East Africa Community (EAC) Gender Policy under the EAC Vision 2050 (EAC, 2015: 94).

In Kenya, the legal framework safeguarding women's empowerment is embedded in the 2010 Constitution through several articles, including Article 21 on Implementation of rights and fundamental freedoms[3], Article 27 on Equality and freedom from discrimination[4], Article 81 on General principles of the electoral system[5], and Article 100[6] on Promotion of representation of marginalised groups (Republic of Kenya, 2010). Vision 2030, implemented through five-year medium-term plans (MTPs), is one of the key policy frameworks promoting gender equality and women's empowerment. Its MTP III (2018-2022) emphasises promotion of gender equality through equal access, economic opportunities, prevention and response to Gender-Based Violence (GBV),

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[1] SDG 5 targets: 5.1. End all forms of discrimination against all women and girls everywhere; 5.2. Eliminate all forms of violence against all women and girls in the public and private spheres, including trafficking, sexual and other types of exploitation; 5.3. Eliminate all harmful practices, such as child, early and forced marriage and female genital mutilation; 5.4. Recognise and value unpaid care and domestic work through the provision of public services, infrastructure and social protection policies and the promotion of shared responsibility within the household and the family as nationally appropriate; 5.5. Ensure women's full and effective participation and equal opportunities for leadership at all levels of decision-making in political, economic and public life; 5.6. Ensure universal access to sexual and reproductive health and reproductive rights as agreed in accordance with the Programme of Action of the International Conference on Population and Development and the Beijing Platform for Action and the outcome documents of their review conferences; 5.A. Undertake reforms to give women equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to ownership and control over land and other forms of property, financial services, inheritance and natural resources in accordance with national laws; 5.B. Enhance the use of enabling technology, in particular information and communications technology, to promote the empowerment of women; 5.C. Adopt and strengthen sound policies and enforceable legislation for the promotion of gender equality and the empowerment of all women and girls at all levels (UN, 2015).

[2] Protocol to the African Charter on Human and People's Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa.

[3] Paragraph (3): All State organs and all public officers have the duty to address the needs of vulnerable groups within society, including women, older members of society, persons with disabilities, children, youth, members of minority or marginalised communities, and members of particular ethnic, religious and cultural communities.

[4] Paragraph (3): Women and men have the right to equal treatment, including the right to equal opportunities in political, economic, cultural and social spheres.

[5] Paragraph (b): Not more than two-thirds of the members of the elective public bodies shall be of the same gender.

[6] Parliament shall enact legislation to promote the representation in Parliament of – paragraph (a) Women

elimination of female genital mutilation (FGM), gender mainstreaming and the sanitary towels programme (Republic of Kenya, 2018). Other related policies and legislative acts include: the Sexual Offences Act 2006, Prohibition of FGM Act 2011, Matrimonial Property Act 2013, Marriage Act 2014, Prevention Against Domestic Violence Act 2015, the National Policy on Prevention and Response to GBV 2014, Policy on Eradication of FGM 2019 and the National Policy on Gender and Development 2019.

1.2   Situation Analysis

While progress in the policy and legislative frameworks has been remarkable, implementation and enforcement has faced a myriad of challenges resulting in slow progress in closing the gender gap and enhancing women's empowerment in the social, economic and political spheres. Kenya ranks the 109th out of 153 countries in the 2020 Global Gender Gap rankings of the World Economic Forum[7]. In the rankings of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), using the Gender Inequality Index (GII)[8], Kenya ranks the 137th out of 189 countries ranked from best to poorest performers. It fares better than Malawi, Eswatini and Mozambique in the Eastern and Southern Africa region[9].

According to the 2019 Kenya Population and Housing Census (KPHC), women comprise 50.5 percent of the total population in the country[10]. Nevertheless, their representation across wellbeing indicators is not equal to men. To begin with, women are more likely to be poor than men. Findings of the latest Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (KNBS) & United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) 2020 Comprehensive Poverty Analysis report shows that 65 percent of women aged 35-59 years are multidimensionally poor compared to 56 percent of their male counterparts. Incidence of monetary poverty[11] among women aged 35-59 years is 34 percent, while that of men is 30 percent[12]. Similarly, 30 percent of women headed households live below the monetary poverty line compared to 26 percent of those headed by men (KNBS, 2018: 64).

The KNBS Economic Survey 2019 figures show that women are underrepresented in wage employment comprising slightly above a third (37%). Similarly, they are underrepresented in most sectors of formal employment requiring high education or specialised skills, including information and communication (36%), financial and insurance activities (39%), real estate (23%), manufacturing (20%), administration and support services (10%), and professional, scientific and technical activities (29%) (Table 1). In addition, they are overrepresented in vulnerable employment (68% compared to 39% of men)[13] and in sectors that highlight women's traditional roles in the society, namely human health and social work activities (58%), and activities of households as employers or domestic work services (61%) (Table 1).

[7] Countries ranked in descending order, starting with Iceland with the highest score of 0.88. The Global Gender Gap framework covers the country's progress across the following areas: economic participation and opportunity, educational attainment, health and survival, and political empowerment (See: http://reports.weforum.org/global-gender-gap-report-2020/the-global-gender-gap-index-2020/results-and-analysis/).

[8] The GII measures gender inequalities in three areas: reproductive health (maternal mortality ratio, adolescent birth rates), empowerment (parliamentary seats occupied by females, proportion of adult females and males aged 25 years and older with at least some secondary education); and economic status/labour market participation (labour market participation rate of female and male populations aged 15 years or older) (See: http://hdr.undp.org/en/content/gender-inequality-index-gii).

[9] GII figures for Angola, Comoros, Eritrea, Madagascar, Somalia and South Sudan not available.

[10] KNBS. 2019 Kenya Population and Housing Census Volume III: 2019 Kenya Population and Housing Census: Volume III: Distribution of Population by Age and Sex. Retrieved from: https://www.knbs.or.ke/?wpdmpro=2019-kenya-population-and-housing-census-volume-iii-distribution-of-population-by-age-sex-and-administrative-units&wpdmdl=5729&ind=sHOeKZnay794WcLlxz_ndE728Tw5kHml9MEx_VnHGl-xuwmhElpUsK2EfXoUXiPnzlSF4ghK-aH7RXyfe9Tfdg

[11] Calculations using the overall poverty line of KShs 3,352 monthly per adult equivalent in rural areas and KShs 5,995 monthly per adult equivalent in urban areas (KNBS, 2018, p.30).

[12] KNBS &UNICEF, 2020, Comprehensive poverty analysis: Children, youths and women in focus. Forthcoming.

[13] World Bank DataBank, Gender Statistics, 2020: https://databank.worldbank.org/source/gender-statistics

Table 1: Wage employment by select industries by sex, 2018

Industry	Women (%)	Men (%)
Administrative and support service activities	9.8	90.2
Mining and quarrying	16.9	83.1
Manufacturing	20.4	79.6
Real estate activities	23.3	76.7
Financial and insurance activities	38.5	61.5
Accommodation and food service activities	30.9	69.1
Information and communication	35.6	64.4
Professional, scientific and technical activities	29.0	71.0
Education	47.7	52.3
Human health and social work activities	57.7	42.3
Activities of households as employers; undifferentiated goods and services producing activities of households for own use	60.6	39.4
Wage employment	36.5	63.5

Source: Calculation of percentages using KNBS Economic Survey data, 2017 and 2018.

The gender gap in lower levels of education is narrower than in the labour market. The transition rate from primary to secondary education is nearly equal, 91 percent among girls and 90.8 percent among boys, and the Gender Parity Index (GPI) is above 1 for primary school education. For Vocational Education Training (VET) and tertiary education, the GPI is 0.82 and 0.74, respectively. In addition, twice as many young women as young men (18% and 9%, respectively) are Not in Employment, Education or Training (NEET). Women comprise 42 percent of students enrolled in VET[14].

Women are also more disadvantaged than men in access to Information and Communication Technology (ICT) which enhances their empowerment through improved access to information, financial services and products, and a higher degree of independence and autonomy including for professional purposes. According to Kenya Integrated Household Budget Survey (KIHBS) 2015/16 data, nearly 69 percent of women aged 15 years or over have a mobile phone compared to nearly 73 percent of men[15].

Other indicators of wellbeing point to additional drivers of gender inequality. The Maternal Mortality Ratio (MMR) of 342 deaths per 100,000 live births in 2017[16] is nearly 5 times the SDG 3.1 target of 70/100,000 live births[17]. In addition, women are more likely to experience Sexual and Gender-Based Violence (SGBV) from their intimate partner compared to men. In 2014, 45 percent of women aged 15-49 years had experienced physical violence since age 15 compared to 44 percent of men. The main perpetrators of physical violence among women are the current husband/partner (45%) and former husband/partner (18.9%); while among men, current and former wife/partner/girlfriend comprise 20 percent of physical violence perpetrators[18]. The rate of women of reproductive age who ever experienced sexual violence is more than double that of men, 14 and 8 percent, respectively (KNBS, 2015: 298-299). Further, the Female Genital Mutilation/Cutting (FGM/C) incidence shows that nearly a quarter of women (21%) face health and other risks from the practice despite notable progress. The rate of FGM/C among adolescent girls (aged 15-19 years) in 2014 is nearly 4 times smaller (11%) compared to older women (45-49 years) which is 41 percent (KDHS, 2015, p. 333). Improvements have also been made in child marriage, yet nearly 11 percent of girls aged 15-19 years reported being married in 2014. The median age at first marriage among women is 20.2 years compared to 25.3 years among men (KDHS, 2015, 56-59). Nearly 59 percent of women of reproductive age (15-49 years) use a modern contraception method[19].

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[14] World Bank Databank, Gender Statistics, 2020: https://databank.worldbank.org/source/gender-statistics/county/kenya & Education Statistics 2020: https://datatopics.worldbank.org/education/country/kenya

[15] Calculations for the purposes of this report using KIHBS 2015-16 original data.

[16] World Bank Databank, Gender Statistics, 2020. Maternal mortality ratio (modeled estimate, per 100,000 live births): https://databank.worldbank.org/source/gender-statistics/county/kenya

[17] SDG target 3.1: "By 2030, reduce the global maternal mortality ratio to less than 70 per 100,000 live births. https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/sdg3

[18] Main perpetrators of physical violence among men include father/step-father (19.9%), mother/step-mother (14.2%), teacher (36.4%) and others (42.8%), KDHS, 2015. https://dhsprogram.com/pubs/pdf/fr308/fr308.pdf

[19] World Bank Databank, Gender Statistics, 2020. Contraceptive prevalence, modern methods (% of women aged 15-49 years). https://databank.worldbank.org/source/gender-statistics/county/kenya

Progress in enhancing women's representation in line with Article 27 of the Constitution of Kenya (2010) has been notable across most key decision-making positions of public service (Table 2). Women represented nearly or a third of a few appointive decision-making positions in 2019, including Chief Administrative Secretaries, Assistant County Commissioners and County Executive Committee Members. In the judiciary, nearly 54 percent of the Magistrates were women. In contrast, across elective positions, the threshold of a one-third gender rule was fulfilled only in the County Assembly where women represented nearly 34 percent of members in 2019. At the national level, 31 percent of the Senators were women. Representation at the county level remains particularly low; only 2 out of the 47 County Governors (4%) are women, and 17 percent of them are Deputy County Governors.

Table 2: Participation in public decision-making positions by sex, 2018 and 2019

Positions	2018				2019*			
	Women	Men	Total	% Women	Women	Men	Total	% Women
Executive								
National								
Cabinet Secretaries	6	16	22	27.3	7	17	24	29.2
Chief Administrative Secretaries	-	-	-	-	9	18	27	33.3
Principal Secretaries	8	32	40	20.0	10	34	44	22.7
Diplomatic Corps	13	43	56	23.2	14	40	54	25.9
Regional County Commissioners	1	7	8	12.5	1	7	8	12.5
County Commissioners	14	33	47	29.8	6	41	47	12.8
Deputy County Commissioners	34	261	295	11.5	37	285	322	11.5
Assistant County Commissioners	241	510	751	32.1	348	721	1069	32.6
Chiefs	132	2458	2590	5.1	392	3028	3420	11.5
Assistant Chiefs	494	5392	5886	8.4	1492	6505	7997	18.7
County								
Governors	3	44	47	6.4	2	45	47	4.3
Deputy Governors	7	40	47	14.9	8	38	46	17.4
County Executive Committee Members	143	305	448	31.9	136	294	430	31.6
Legislature								
National								
Senators	21	46	67	31.3	21	46	67	31.3
Members of Parliament	76	273	349	21.8	76	273	349	21.8
Speakers	0	2	2	0.00	0	2	2	0.00
County								
Members of County Assembly	761	1463	2224	34.2	737	1456	2193	33.6
Judiciary								
Supreme Court Judges	2	5	7	28.6	2	5	7	28.6
Court of Appeal Judges	7	12	19	36.8	7	12	19	36.8
High Court Judges	40	42	82	48.8	40	42	82	48.8
Magistrates	215	244	459	46.8	269	234	503	53.5
Kadhis	0	54	54	0.00	0	53	53	0.00

Source: KNBS, Economic Survey 2020.
Note: * Provisional

1.3 Rationale

The call to "leave no one behind" is a key principle of the Sustainable Development Agenda, offering a blueprint for a better and sustainable future for everyone by 2030. The goals which address global challenges including inequality in general, and SDG 5 in particular, call for "achievement of gender equality and empowering all women and girls". Achieving gender equality is absolutely critical considering that women bear the heaviest burden, yet they are frequently denied the resources, information and freedom of action.

Gender equality and women's empowerment is key to a peaceful and a prosperous world, a moral imperative and fundamental human right. Women's rights are violated through retrogressive social norms, legal discrimination and economic inequality. Every individual requires living an independent life free of domination and subjugation. In addition, providing women and girls with equal access to education, health care, decent work, recognition of unpaid and domestic care work, and ensuring that they are represented in political and decision-making processes, has been demonstrated in policy and practice to benefit the society at large.

The need for measuring women's empowerment cannot be understated. Women's Empowerment Index (WEI) is a composite index that is designed to measure progress in multiple domains of women's empowerment, including access to resources, information and knowledge; opinions and attitudes; agency and ability to act; achievement of desired change and gender parity. The measure is embedded in national legislation and policies and contextualised to the country. The WEI can be used as a tool by the government to measure and monitor progress against national, regional and international commitments. This will facilitate advocacy towards better policies and increased financing to accelerate gender equality and women's empowerment. It is against this backdrop, that Kenya has sought to establish a baseline measure for women's empowerment.

1.4   Outline of the Report

The report is organised in the following sections: Chapter 1 lays out the contextual background, including a brief summary of situation analysis, and describes the rationale for developing an official measure for women's empowerment; Chapter 2 presents the methodology that details the empirical analysis carried out to construct the WEI and limitations of the study; Chapter 3 presents the main findings of the study; and Chapter 4 presents recommendations to improve data collection instruments for constructing a more comprehensive and robust measure of women's empowerment in the future that can also be disaggregated at the subnational (county) level.

Methodology

2.1 Conceptualisation of Women's Empowerment

Globally, over the last three decades, a lot of work has been done by both academia and organisations to define and measure women's empowerment. Even though to date there is no commonly used definition or measure, it is widely agreed that empowerment involves a "process of change" which results from one's "ability to make choices" (Kabeer, 1999). Kabeer's conceptual framework for measuring women's empowerment developed in 1999 laid out the basis for most work in the field and is commonly referred in the related literature. The author's framework consists of three interrelated dimensions: resources (preconditions), agency (process) and achievements (outcomes) (Figure 1).

Resources or preconditions for empowerment include: economic resources (e.g. income), and human and social resources that enhance the ability to make choices including institutions such as the family, market and community (Kabeer, 1999). The domain of agency or process of exercising choice is defined as: "the ability of the woman to define her goals and act upon them, often measured through decision-making power." Kabeer (1999) argues that the meaning, motivation and purpose of activity is also important for this domain. Many studies nowadays make a distinction between instrumental agency (household decision-making) and intrinsic agency (attitudes towards issues pertaining specifically to women's wellbeing). The domains of resources and agency constitute Sen's (1985) capability approach: "the potential that people have for living the lives that they want." This highlights the multidimensionality of women's empowerment. The domain of achievements or outcomes is defined as: "the extent to which potential is realised and whether it has transformative power" (Kabeer, 1999; Kabeer 2005). Some of the most used indicators in the literature include: child survival, child immunisation, usage of contraception and utilisation of antenatal care (Kabeer, 1999).

If we take utilisation of antenatal care as an example, one of the resources or preconditions for empowerment would be the woman's knowledge about importance of antenatal care for protecting her (and the child's) health during pregnancy, childbirth and post-birth. The domain of agency would include the woman's ability to decide on her own whether to utilise antenatal care services. The achievement domain would include utilisation of antenatal care services that results in reduced health and other risks for the woman during pregnancy (and possibly also during delivery and post birth).

Figure 1: Kabeer's conceptual framework of women's empowerment (1999)

The number and diversity of parameters used to measure women's empowerment in the literature is vast. Earlier conceptualisations and measurements used a single indicator, for example women's educational attainment, labour market participation or marriage characteristics (Heckert and Fabic, 2013) or focused on a specific group, for example poor women (Narayan, 2002)[20]. Recent measurements use as many as 30 indicators at the individual, community and broader levels. Malhotra, Schuler, and Boender (2002) group these into six domains: a) Economic, b) Socio-cultural, c) Familial/interpersonal, d) Legal, e) Political and f) Psychological. Narayan (2005) emphasises four elements of empowerment: a) Access to information, b) Inclusion and participation, c) Accountability, and d) Local organisational capacity.

Many studies in Kenya and the region use empirical analysis to identify parameters for measuring women's empowerment. Miedema et al. (2018) use the Demographic Health Survey (DHS) data in Ethiopia, Kenya, Rwanda, Tanzania and Uganda, and identify a three-factor model of women's empowerment consisting of: a) Women's human/social assets, b) Attitudes towards wife abuse, and c) Women's participation in household decisions. The human/social assets factor comprises the following indicators: a) Age at first sexual intercourse, b) Age at first cohabitation, and c) Age at first birth. The attitudes towards wife abuse factor consists of questions on women's attitudes towards wife-beating in the following situations: a) If the wife goes out without telling her husband, b) If the wife neglects the children, c) If the wife argues with her husband, d) If the wife burns the food, and d) If the wife refuses to have sex with her husband. The household decision-making factor consists of questions on whether the woman participates (alone or jointly with husband) in making the following decisions: a) Use of her earnings; b) Her health; c) Large household purchases; and d) Visits to family and/or relatives. The authors apply Kabeer's (1999) conceptual framework and group the indicators used in the analysis into enabling factors (human/social assets), instrumental agency (household decision-making), and intrinsic agency (attitudes toward women's abuse).

Shimamoto and Gibson (2017) identify the following domains (and related indicators of each) to measure women's empowerment in Senegal: a) Household decision-making, b) Attitudes towards violence, and c) Gender norms for sex negotiation. Analysis carried out by Tadesse et al. (2013) identifies five domains of women's empowerment in Ethiopia: a) Acceptance of domestic violence, b) Knowledge on legal rights pertaining to empowerment, c) Household decision-making, d) Educational attainment, and e) Exposure to media.

Heckert and Fabit (2003) use a different approach in their attempt to improve the measurement of women's empowerment in sub-Saharan Africa. They review the DHS questionnaires and carry out qualitative research with gender and health experts in Ghana, Mozambique, Senegal and Uganda. The authors propose using DHS to collect additional data in the domains of economic empowerment, legal rights and recourse, decision-making, and social norms and attitudes. For the economic empowerment domain, they find the following to be important: women's possession of resources to generate income, having a say in household spending, and distinguishing between ownership and access to resources. For the legal rights and recourse domain, they suggest collecting data on: women's knowledge of relevant laws, perceptions on whether these laws are enforced, and whether they can seek recourse when their legal rights are violated. For the decision-making domain, they suggest including a broader range of topics such as permission for HIV testing, acceptability of women's public participation, and women's decision-making power on their children's daily and future activities. For the social norms and attitudes domain, they propose collecting data on women's perceptions about husbands', husband kins', families', and communities' attitudes and expectations.

Other studies focusing on women's empowerment in Kenya typically use one domain or a less complex approach to define it. Brunson, Shell-Duncan and Steele (2009) use the term women's autonomy interchangeably with women's empowerment, and measure it with the following: a) Autonomy stemming from knowledge or experience of the world, b) Decision-making authority, c) Physical autonomy including freedom of movement, d) Emotional autonomy, and e) Economic and social autonomy that includes access to and control over resources. Takayanagi (2016) uses the economic domain, defined as the ability to stay out of poverty

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[20] Narayan (2002) defines empowerment as: "the expansion of assets and capabilities of poor people to participate in, negotiate with, influence, control and hold accountable institutions that affect their lives."

through income generation, and the psychological domain, defined using indicators of self-esteem, self-confidence and self-empowerment.

Kulb et al. (2016) use the same domains of empowerment, but define them differently. The economic domain is measured using women's access to capital, whereas the psychological domain focuses on emotional stress. Voronca, Walker and Edege (2018) use two scales for women's empowerment: women's participation in decision-making (instrumental agency), and their attitudes towards domestic violence against women (intrinsic agency). Bello et al. (2019) measure women's empowerment through the modified Sexual Relationship Power Scale[21] (SRPS) consisting of Relationship Control (RC) and Decision-making Dominance (DD) indicators. Pulerwitz, Mathur and Woznica (2018) use the same scale (SRPS) to define empowerment of adolescent girls and young women (aged 15-24 years), and assess its relationship with violence and HIV outcomes. Omwami (2014) defines women's empowerment as their ability to limit the number of children that they want to have. A comprehensive literature review on studies defining and measuring women's empowerment and its relationship with other outcomes is in Annex 1.

2.2   Step-by-Step Methodology for WEI Construction

2.2.1   Stakeholder consultations and contextualisation

The first step in constructing the measure of women's empowerment for Kenya was to identify indicators from the KDHS 2014. The survey captures different aspects of women's empowerment that are relevant for the country's context. Contextualisation included two steps: a) Review of national and international policy and legal documents including declarations and conventions[22]; b) Consultations with national stakeholders and development partners in Kenya during May 2019 including the KNBS, governmental institutions, Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs), academia, UN WOMEN, and UNICEF for indicator selection and definitions (Annex 2). Only indicators that fulfilled the following criteria were kept in the analysis: a) Relevance to the country context, b) Correspondence with the literature on the topic and with Kabeer's conceptual framework of women's empowerment, and c) High variance and low percentage of missing values.

2.2.2   Data and samples

The empirical analysis includes women aged 15-49 years, and was carried out separately for women in union; married women and women residing with a partner; and women not in union, single women, widows, divorcees, and separated women. The group of women in union included a sample of n=8,857, while that of women not in union included a sample of n=5,513. For both groups, only women who completed the long questionnaire of the KDHS were included in the empirical analysis.

2.2.3   Limitations

Even though the KDHS 2014 was the most comprehensive dataset available for the purpose of this study, the analysis and definition of the WEI, and therefore policy recommendations based on it, were constrained in several aspects due to KDHS sampling methodology and questionnaire design.

At the sub-national level, the collected data is a representative of only urban and rural areas and regions, even though the latter does not have any administrative relevance. As such, the WEI figures cannot be used for evidence-based policy making and advocacy at the county level.

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[21] Developed and validated by Pulerwitz, Gortmaker and DeJong in 2000.

[22] Constitution of Kenya (2010), the Maputo Protocol (2003), the Decade on African Women (2010-202), Sustainable Development Goals and targets, the Universal Declaration on Human Rights (1948), the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women -CEDAW (1979), the Convention on the Political Rights of Women (1953), the Declaration on the Elimination of Violence Against Women, and the Women's Empowerment Principles (1993).

In addition, KDHS does not capture several domains of women's empowerment that were identified as relevant in the literature, including psychological, legal knowledge, and participation. Indicators such as emotional distress and perceived self-confidence, self-esteem and self-empowerment were found to be crucial. Further, knowledge on legal rights pertaining to women's empowerment such as domestic violence, right to inheritance and property ownership, of recourse mechanisms, and perceptions of whether such rights are reinforced are also important. Participation in the community and the public are also insightful and already included in several global indices of gender equality and women's empowerment.

For women not in union and young women (aged 15-24 years), data did not permit measuring their ability to make choices (instrumental agency) because KDHS questions on decision-making pertain to women in union only by focusing on husband/partner. Studies show that women's agency is constrained also by other family members such as parents and siblings, grandparents, family in-law, kin, relatives and others in the community. For both groups of women, decision-making on aspects such as HIV testing, lives of children in the present and the future etc., are not included in the questionnaire even though they are important.

For the domain intrinsic agency, KDHS lacked data on perceptions and attitudes of women's family and community about women's roles, participation, characteristics of an empowered person, and the empowerment of other family members (spouses, parents, siblings and children). All of these factors were found to be associated with women's empowerment in the literature.

2.2.4 Variables

All the variables that may reflect women's empowerment across different conceptual domains were added in the Exploratory Factor Analyses (EFA) including economic, socio-cultural, human and social resources, and familial/interpersonal. The socio-cultural and familial/interpersonal domains included indicators pertaining to instrumental agency such as household decision-making and sexual/reproductive decision-making; and intrinsic agency reflecting attitudes towards relevant social norms and phenomena such as justification of wife-beating and FGM. The human and social resources domain included variables such as education, access to information and knowledge on related topics like family planning, and HIV/AIDS transmission and prevention. All the variables were coded as dichotomous or binary; with 1 denoting the woman is empowered in the indicator, and 0 not empowered in the indicator. Table 3 presents frequencies and share of missing values for each of these variables.

2.2.5 Economic domain

In this domain, there were two indicators for women in union: paid employment and house or land ownership. The domain draws on Kabeer's (1999) resources component of empowerment. A woman is considered empowered in paid employment if she is employed continuously throughout the year and is paid, while women who are in seasonal or occasional employment or who are not paid (regardless of the type of employment) are considered disempowered. A woman is considered empowered in the indicator of house/land ownership if she owns a house or land either alone or jointly with her husband/partner. For women not in union, only the indicator of paid employment was used in the analysis.

2.2.6 Human and social resources

This domain also draws from Kabeer's (1999) resources component of empowerment. For women in union, it included the indicators of educational attainment, exposure to media, exposure to family planning information, knowledge about modern contraception, knowledge about access to contraception, and knowledge about HIV/AIDS prevention and transmission. A woman is considered empowered in educational attainment if she has completed secondary or higher education. For the indicator of exposure to media, a woman is considered empowered if she read a newspaper, listened to the radio or watched television at least once in the week

preceding the survey. If she did not have exposure to any of the above mentioned types of media at least once per week preceding the survey, she is considered disempowered. A woman is considered empowered in the indicator knowledge of modern contraception if she knows at least two modern methods of contraception, and disempowered if she knows about only folkloric/traditional methods or only one modern method.

For the indicator of exposure to family planning information, a woman is considered empowered if she has heard/seen/talked about family planning at least from one source[23] over the last few months, and disempowered if otherwise. On knowledge about access to contraception, a woman is considered empowered if she knows where a female or a male condom can be obtained, and disempowered if she does not have this information. Finally, a woman is considered empowered in the indicator of comprehensive knowledge about HIV/AIDS if she: a) Has heard about HIV/AIDS; ii) Knows that the risk of getting infected with HIV can be reduced by not having sex, always using a condom during sex, and having sex with only one partner who has no other partners; c) Refutes three of the most common misconceptions about HIV transmission (that it can be transmitted through witchcraft/supernatural means, from mosquito bites, and by sharing food with people infected with HIV); d) Knows that a healthy-looking person can have HIV, and e) Knows that HIV can be transmitted during pregnancy, childbirth and breastfeeding. Women who do not have knowledge in either of the five questions are considered disempowered.

For women not in union, this domain consists of educational attainment, knowledge on HIV/AIDS prevention and transmission, exposure to media, and knowledge about where contraception can be accessed.

2.2.7 Household and sexual/reproductive decision-making

The indicators in this component draw from the agency[24] component of Kabeer's (1999) conceptual framework of empowerment. In the taxonomy of Malhotra, Schuler and Boender (2002), they can be classified under the socio-cultural and familial/interpersonal domains, whereas in Miedema et al. (2018), they comprise the instrumental agency component of empowerment. For women in union, the indicators used in the EFA include: birth spacing and limiting, decision-making power on large household purchases, own healthcare, visiting family or relatives, husband's/partner's earnings, ability to refuse sex and freedom/ability to ask partner to use a condom during sexual intercourse.

A woman in union is considered empowered in the indicator of birth limiting and spacing if she has no unmet need for family planning; and disempowered, if she is unable to either limit childbearing or space pregnancies to her wishes/preferences. For the four indicators of decision-making at the household level, a woman in union is considered empowered if she makes the decision herself or jointly with her partner, and disempowered if the decisions are taken by her husband/partner or by someone else (without consulting her). A woman in union who can refuse sex is considered empowered. Women who cannot refuse sex, do not know or are not sure whether they can refuse sex, and those who can refuse it only under certain conditions, are considered disempowered. Likewise, women in union who can ask their partners to use a condom during sexual intercourse are considered empowered, while those who cannot, are not sure whether they can, or can ask only under certain conditions, are considered disempowered.

For women not in union, this domain comprises birth spacing and limiting, and difficulty of getting permission to seek medical help for oneself. The definition for birth spacing and limiting is the same as for women in union. For the other indicator, a woman not in union is considered empowered if she can easily get permission to seek medical help for herself and disempowered if getting permission is a big problem.

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[23] Sources include: radio, TV, print media, public forums, informational material, visits by health workers, messages in social media, messages through text, email, political, religious and community leaders talks.

[24] Except for birth spacing and limiting, which is an achievement/outcome indicator.

2.2.8 Attitudes towards socio-cultural norms

The indicators in this component draw from the agency component of Kabeer's (1999) conceptual framework of empowerment. In the taxonomy of Malhotra, Schuler, and Boender (2002), they can be classified under the socio-cultural domain, whereas in Miedema et al. (2018), they comprise the intrinsic agency component of empowerment. Five indicators measure attitudes towards GBV, that is, whether the woman justifies wife-beating in the following situations: a) If the wife goes out without telling her husband; ii) If the wife neglects the children; iii) If the wife argues with her husband; iv) If the wife refuses to have sex with her husband; and v) If the wife burns the food. Women who think that wife-beating is justified in each of the situations are considered disempowered, while those who believe that it is not justified are considered empowered. Finally, women who believe that female genital mutilation (FGM) should be stopped are considered empowered, while those who believe that it should continue, do not know or are unsure, are considered disempowered. The same indicators are used for both groups of women.

Table 3: Indicators of women's empowerment: Summary statistics

	Women in union		Women not in union	
Variable	**% empowered**	**% missing**	**% empowered**	**% missing**
Domain: Economic				
Woman is in continuous, paid employment	35.8	0.09	64.9	0.05
Woman owns house/land alone or jointly with her husband/partner	70.7	0.00		
Domain: Human and social resources				
Woman has completed secondary or higher education	20.6	0.00	57.3	0
Woman has exposure to media	69.3	0.00	72.4	0
Woman has exposure to family planning information	79.6	0.01		
Woman has knowledge of at least two methods of modern contraception	96.1	0.00		
Woman has knowledge about where male/female condoms can be accessed	49.1	0.00	41.2	0.16
Woman has knowledge about HIV/AIDS prevention and transmission, including Mother-to-Child Transmission of HIV (MTCT)	19.7	0.00	21.6	0
Domain: Household and sexual/reproductive decision-making				
Woman has no unmet need for family planning (birth spacing and limiting)	81.1	0.23	97.7	0
Woman decides alone or with partner about large household purchases	71.2	0.18		
Woman decides alone or with partner about seeking healthcare for herself	77.3	0.18		
Woman decides alone or with partner about visiting family or relatives	72.5	0.20		
Woman decides alone or with partner about where/how husband's earnings will be spent	55.5	2.80		
Woman can refuse sex with her husband/partner	70.9	0.20		
Woman can ask partner to use a condom during sexual intercourse	67.7	0.19		
Woman can get permission to seek medical care for herself without a problem			92.8	0
Domain: Attitudes towards socio-cultural norms and phenomena				
Woman thinks that wife-beating is not justified if the wife goes out without telling her husband	71.8	0.00	75.4	0
Woman thinks that wife-beating is not justified if the wife neglects the children	59.8	0.00	62.6	0
Woman thinks that wife-beating is not justified if the wife argues with her husband	73.2	0.00	77.6	0
Woman thinks that wife-beating is not justified if the wife refuses to have sex with her husband	77.3	0.00	80.7	0
Woman thinks that wife-beating is not justified if the wife burns the food	90.2	0.00	89.8	0
Woman thinks that FGM should be stopped	82.2	0.27	85.6	0.16

Women in union n=8,857; Women not in union=5,514

2.2.9 Empirical analysis and results

Descriptive statistics in Table 3 include all the indicators used in the EFA. After carrying out EFA, orthogonal rotation was used to identify the domains of empowerment (factors/latent variables) that are more likely to be explained by a group of indicators jointly. The indicators that did not fulfil the statistical criteria (Annex 3) were kept in the model, only if there was strong evidence in the literature that they are essential for measuring women's empowerment and there was consensus among stakeholders. As a next step, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was used to assess the appropriateness and generalisability of the model (Annex 3 presents technical details on empirical analysis and results).

Table 4: Confirmatory factor analysis on women's empowerment latent domains identified through EFA, women in union

Indicator	Women in union (N=8,857)				
	F1 Attitudes towards wife-beating	F2 Human and social resources	F3 Household decision-making	F4 Control over sexual relations	F5 Economic
Woman thinks that wife-beating is not justified if the wife goes out without telling her husband	0.6803*				
Woman thinks that wife-beating is not justified if the wife neglects the children	0.8525*				
Woman thinks that wife-beating is not justified if the wife argues with her husband	0.6549*				
Woman thinks that wife-beating is not justified if the wife refuses to have sex with her husband	0.5973*				
Woman thinks that wife-beating is not justified if the wife burns the food	0.3998*				
Woman has access to media		0.6060*			
Woman thinks that FGM should be stopped		0.5529*			
Woman has exposure to family planning information		0.7109*			
Woman has knowledge about modern contraception		0.4308 *			
Woman decides alone or with partner about large household purchases			0.6988*		
Woman decides alone or with partner about her healthcare			0.6758*		
Woman decides alone or with partner about visiting family or relatives			0.5663*		
Woman decides alone or with partner about where/how husband's earnings will be spent			0.4864*		
Woman can refuse sex with her husband/partner				0.5358*	
Woman can ask partner to use condom during sexual intercourse				0.7574*	
Woman has knowledge about where male/female condoms can be accessed				0.4494*	
Woman has completed secondary education					0.5313*
Woman is in continuous paid employment					0.4437*

Table 5: Confirmatory factor analysis on women's empowerment latent domains identified through EFA, women not in union

Indicator	Women not in union (N=5,514)		
	F1 Attitudes towards wife-beating	F2 Economic	F3 Human and social resources
Woman thinks that wife-beating is not justified if the wife goes out without telling her husband	0.6960*		
Woman thinks that wife-beating is not justified if the wife neglects the children	0.6668*		
Woman thinks that wife-beating is not justified if the wife argues with her husband	0.7093*		
Woman thinks that wife-beating is not justified if the wife refuses to have sex with her husband	0.6850*		
Woman thinks that wife-beating is not justified if the wife burns the food	0.5959*		
Woman has completed secondary education		0.8119*	
Woman is in continuous, paid employment		0.5570*	
Woman has access to media			0.4110*
Woman thinks that FGM should be stopped			0.4823*
Woman has knowledge about where male/female condoms can be accessed			0.3238*
Woman has knowledge about HIV/AIDS prevention and transmission, including MTCT transmission of HIV			0.2660*

Tables 4 and 5 show the results for EFA and CFA. For women in union, indicators measuring empowerment were grouped into five domains: a) Attitudes towards wife-beating, b) Human and social resources, c) Household decision-making (familial/interpersonal), d) Control over sexual relations, and e) economic domain. For women not in union, they were grouped into three domains: a) Attitudes towards wife-beating, b) Human and social resources, and c) Economic domain.

For both groups of women, indicators pertaining to women's attitudes towards GBV measured as justification of wife-beating in five different situations were loaded into a single domain, labelled as attitudes towards wife-beating domain for the purpose of this study. The indicator attitudes towards FGM was loaded in other factors (domains) for both groups of women.

For women in union, three of the indicators loaded under human and social resources domain correspond with the conceptual framework: a) Access to media, b) Exposure to family planning information, and c) Knowledge about modern contraception methods. The domain includes also the indicator attitudes toward FGM even though conceptually, the latter belonged to the domain household and sexual/reproductive decision-making. For women not in union, the human and social resources domain consists of the following factors: a) Access to media, b) Knowledge about where male/female condoms can be accessed in the community, c) Attitude towards FGM, and d) Knowledge about HIV/AIDS prevention and transmission.

The indicators of instrumental agency among women in union, household- and sexual/reproductive- decision-making were grouped into two separate domains, as in other studies. The household decision-making (familial/interpersonal) domain consists of the following indicators: a) Whether the woman decides alone or jointly with partner about large household purchases, b) Own healthcare, c) Visiting family or relatives, and d) How husband's/partner's earnings will be spent. The control over sexual relations domain consists of the following: a) Woman can refuse to have sex with her partner/husband, b) Woman can ask her partner/husband to use a condom during sexual intercourse, and c) Woman has knowledge about where female or male condoms can be accessed.

The economic domain among both women in union and women not in union consists of educational attainment and employment status. For women in union, the indicator comprehensive knowledge about HIV/AIDS transmission and prevention was not grouped under any of the domains in EFA, while ownership of real estate jointly/alone with husband/partner had a negative sign under the economic domain. For women not in union, unmet need for family planning and difficulty in getting permission to seek healthcare were not loaded under any of the domains. After consultations with the stakeholders, consensus was reached to not include these four indicators when constructing the WEI.

2.2.10 Constructing the women's empowerment index

To construct the WEI, each of the domains identified in the EFA and CFA were assigned equal weights, and the weight of the domain was then distributed equally to each of its constituting indicators. A woman is considered empowered if she is empowered in at least 80 percent of the total weighted indicators (Table 6). For interpretation of results, the index is coded as binary, where 1 denotes empowerment in at least 80 percent of weighted indicators, while 0 denotes that the woman is empowered in less than 80 percent of the weighted indicators. The results at the national level in the next section are presented also for other thresholds.

Table 6: List of domains, indicators and weights used to construct the Women's Empowerment Index (WEI)

Domain	Women in union	Women not in union
Attitudes towards wife beating	Woman thinks that wife-beating is not justified if the wife goes out without telling her husband (1/25). Woman thinks that wife-beating is not justified if the wife neglects the children (1/25). Woman thinks that wife-beating is not justified if the wife argues with her husband (1/25). Woman thinks that wife-beating is not justified if the wife refuses to have sex with her husband (1/25). Woman thinks that wife-beating is not justified if the wife burns the food (1/25).	Woman thinks that wife-beating is not justified if the wife goes out without telling her husband (1/15). Woman thinks that wife-beating is not justified if the wife neglects the children (1/15). Woman thinks that wife-beating is not justified if the wife argues with her husband (1/15). Woman thinks that wife-beating is not justified if the wife refuses to have sex with her husband (1/15). Woman thinks that wife-beating is not justified if the wife burns the food (1/15).
Human and social resources	Woman has access to media (1/20). Woman thinks that FGM should be stopped (1/20). Woman has exposure to family planning information (1/20). Woman has knowledge about modern contraception (1/20).	Woman has access to media (1/12). Woman thinks that FGM should be stopped (1/12). Woman has knowledge about where male or female condoms can be accessed (1/12). Woman has knowledge about HIV/AIDS prevention and transmission, including MTCT (1/12).
Household decision-making (Familial/Interpersonal)	Woman decides alone or with partner about large household purchases (1/20). Woman decides alone or with partner about her healthcare (1/20). Woman decides alone or with partner about visiting family or relatives (1/20). Woman decides alone or with partner about where/how husband's earnings will be spent (1/20).	
Control over sexual relations	Woman can refuse sex with her husband/partner (1/15). Woman can ask partner to use condom during sexual intercourse (1/15). Woman has knowledge about where male/female condoms can be accessed (1/15).	
Economic	Woman has completed secondary education (1/10). Woman is in continuous paid employment (1/10).	Woman has completed secondary education (1/6). Woman is in continuous paid employment (1/6).

Findings

Twenty-nine percent of women in Kenya are empowered; that is, empowered in 80 percent of the total weighted indicators set as a threshold by a consensus of related stakeholders. Women in urban areas are nearly twice (40%) as likely to be empowered compared to those in rural areas (22%) (Figure 2).

Figure 3 compares the incidence of empowerment using 3 different thresholds: 80, 70 and 60 percent. When the threshold of empowerment is lowered to 70 percent of weighted indicators, 48 percent of women are empowered, whereas 68 percent of them are empowered at a threshold of 60 percent of weighted indicators.

Figure 2: Incidence of women's empowerment, national level and by area of residence, 2014
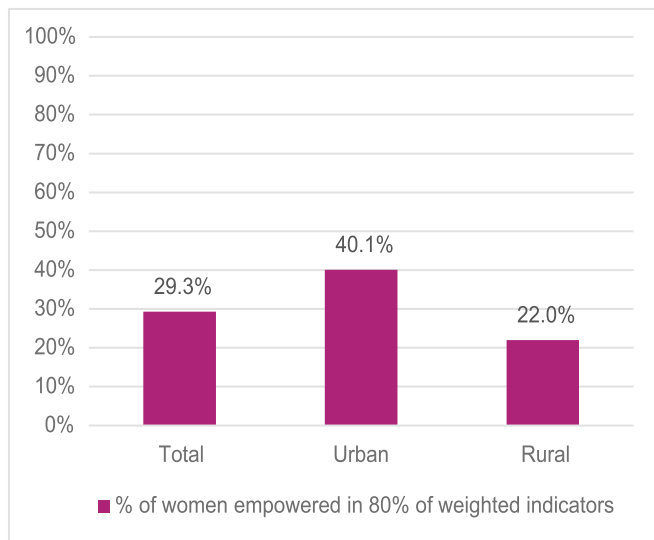
Source: KDHS, 2014

Figure 3: Incidence of women's empowerment, national level, different thresholds, 2014
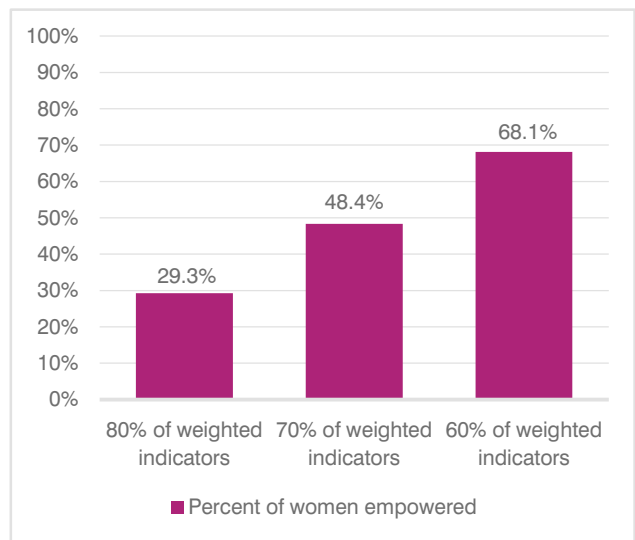
Source: KDHS, 2014

Figure 4: Incidence of women's empowerment by age group 2014
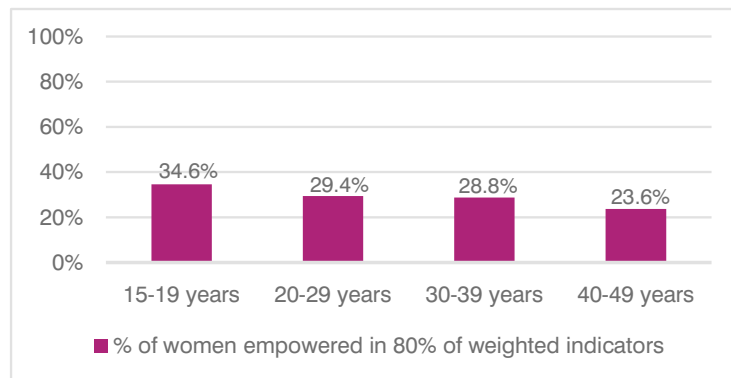
Source: KDHS, 2014

Women's empowerment figures presented in this section were calculated using a threshold of 80 percent of weighted indicators, defined by the stakeholder consultations as the minimum for a woman to be considered empowered. Annex 4 presents figures for the two other thresholds, 70 and 60 percent of weighted indicators, for comparative purposes and to facilitate the dialogue on future measurements.

Disaggregation of empowerment by women's age group shows that younger women are more likely to empowered, especially compared to women aged 40-49 years. More than 3 in 10 young women aged 15-19 years are empowered compared to 29 percent of women aged 20-39 years, and 24 percent of women aged 40-49 years (Figure 4). These results could also imply that there has been improvement in empowerment over the years, considering the differences between the age cohorts. However, results should be interpreted with caution considering data limitations in capturing empowerment among adolescent girls and women (15-19 year-olds), and women not in union (see Chapter 2, section on limitations). Annex 5 provides figures by area of residence.

Figure 5: Incidence of women's empowerment by marital status, 2014

Figure 6: Incidence of women's empowerment by type of marriage, 2014

Source: KDHS, 2014
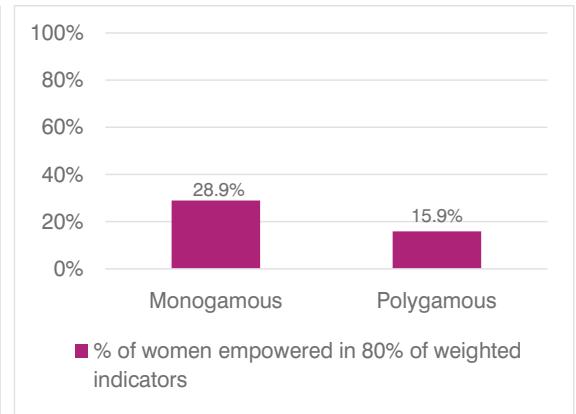
Figures by women's marital status show that separated and widowed women are less likely to be empowered compared to the other groups. The rate of empowerment is the highest among single women (39%), followed by married women and those cohabiting with partners (27%), and the lowest among widowed women (12%) (Figure 5). The type of marriage is also relevant; significantly fewer women in polygamous marriage (16%) are empowered compared to those in monogamous marriage (29%) (Figure 6). These figures should also be interpreted with caution considering the limitations in KDHS for constructing the WEI among different groups of women.

Figure 7: Incidence of women's empowerment by sex of household head, 2014
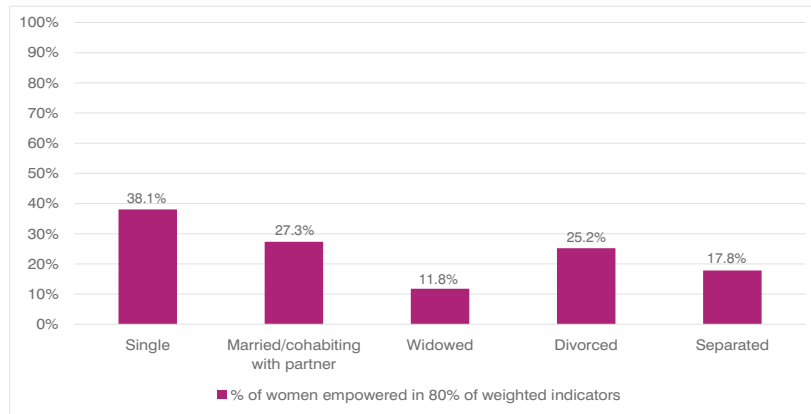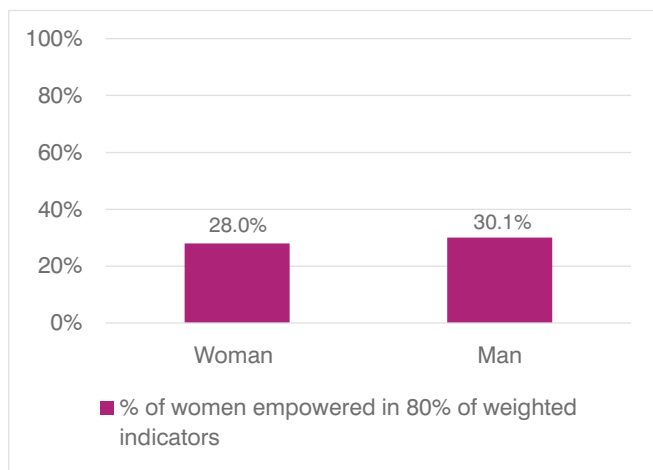

Source: KDHS. 2014

Figure 8: Incidence of women's empowerment by educational attainment of household head, 2014
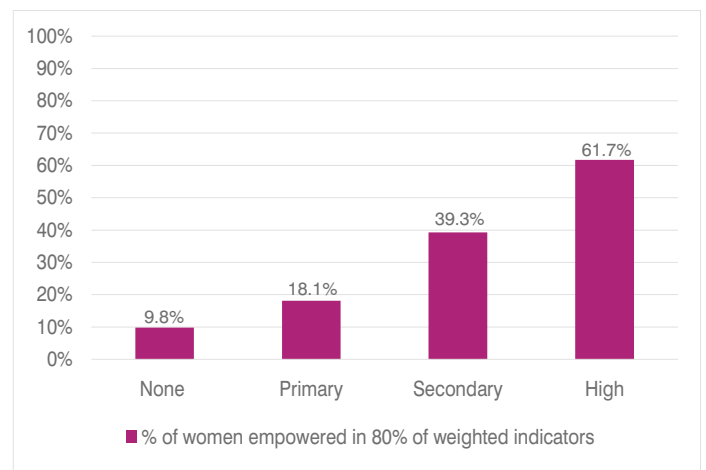
Source: KDHS. 2014

Incidence of women's empowerment is slightly higher among households headed by men (30%) compared to those headed by women (28%) (Figure 7 and Annex 5 for figures by area of residence). Further, Figure 8 shows that empowerment increases with educational attainment of the household head. Incidence of empowerment among households where the head has completed no education is 10 percent compared to 62 percent among households where the head has completed high education (see Annex 5 for figures by area of residence).

Figure 9: Incidence of women's empowerment by wealth quintiles, 2014
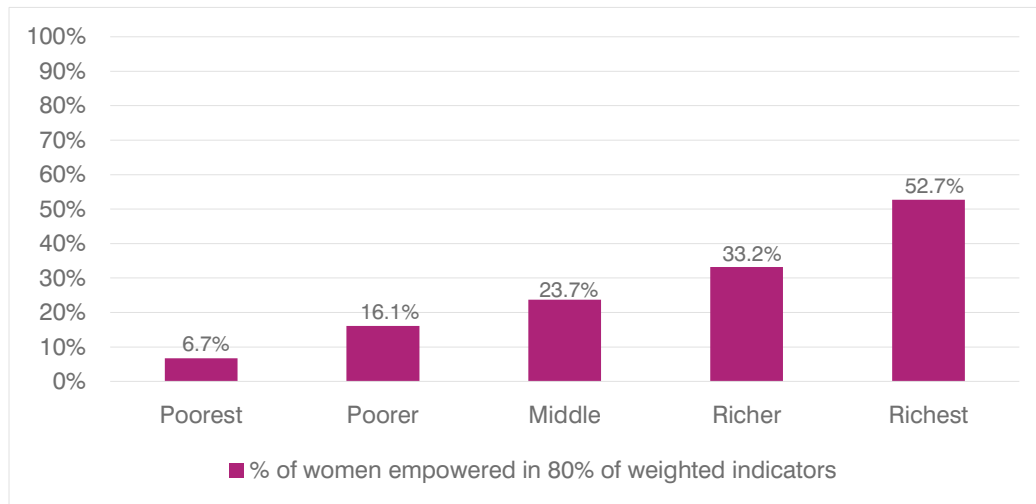
Source: KDHS, 2014

Women's empowerment is associated with household wealth (Figure 9). Incidence of empowerment increases from 7 percent in the poorest to 24 percent in the middle wealth quintile, and reaches 53 percent in the richest wealth quintile (see Annex 5 for figures by area of residence).

Conclusions and Recommendations

4.1 Conclusions

Kenya has demonstrated its firm commitments to enhancing gender equality and women's empowerment through ratification of various international and regional commitments including the SDGs, CEDAW, Maputo Protocol and Agenda 2063 among others. At the national level, Kenya has highlighted gender equality and women's empowerment as fundamental rights and one of the core agenda to ensure sustainable development, including in the Constitution of Kenya's (2010) Chapter 4 on Bill of Rights, Vision 2030 and MTP III's gender, youth and vulnerable groups sector among others. In addition, at the county level, the second generation of the County Integrated Development Plans (CIDPs) have invariably prioritised gender equality and women's empowerment. The development of the WEI is a significant step towards demonstrating the commitment of the Government of Kenya to these aspirations.

In terms of the development of WEI, the Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (KNBS) in collaboration with its partners has thoroughly explored the relevant literature review and conceptual frameworks at global and national level. The methodology used was adopted from the conceptual framework for women's empowerment (Kabeer, 1999). The analysis used data from KDHS 2014 which contains significantly more relevant variables and indicators compared to any other dataset available, collecting information at the individual level. Despite the limitations, the analysis yielded a relatively robust measure of women's empowerment that is contextualised and approved through an extensive participatory process and can serve as a baseline in Kenya.

This report presented results for women's empowerment at the national level, by area of residence and other socio-economic characteristics of women including age, marital status, sex and educational attainment of household head, and wealth quintiles. At the national level, 29 percent of women in Kenya were empowered in 2014. The empowerment incidence in urban areas is nearly twice (40%) that of rural areas (22%).

4.2 Recommendations for Improving the Measure of Women's Empowerment

The Women's Empowerment Index represents a major milestone in Kenya's evidence-based policy making for setting the baseline and monitoring the country's progress in achieving SDG 5. Given the limitations discussion in the methodology, the following recommendations should be considered to build a more robust and comprehensive measure:
   a) Changing the sampling methodology to allow measurement of women's empowerment at the county level.
   b) Expanding the range of indicators measured for different age groups to reflect lifecycle needs and rights of women, and measure empowerment comprehensively for all. Even though such variables and indicators should be identified through a dedicated follow-up activity, the following should also be considered when revising the survey questionnaires:
      o Including questions on agency or decision-making power of adolescent girls and young women (aged 15-24 years), and women not in union (single, divorced, separated and widowed). Household decision-making dynamics should be captured by including questions about different members including father, mother, brother, grandparents of girls and (young) women, in-laws of women previously or currently in union, and other kin.

o   Collecting data on women's access to ICT at the individual level, including ownership, usage, and purpose of usage of mobile phone, computer and internet.
o   Collecting information on women's knowledge of their legal rights and mechanisms, and institutions through which they can seek recourse and through which their rights are reinforced.
o   Collecting data on women's access, ownership and usage of productive resources such as land, house, enterprises and other capital.
o   Collecting data on women's participation and ability to engage in public speaking.
o   Collecting data on women's psychological empowerment, including feelings of self-confidence, self-esteem and self-empowerment, as well as perceived psychological wellbeing.
o   Collecting data on women's perceptions of power and empowerment in the community.
o   Collecting data on women's perceptions on empowerment of their spouses, parents, siblings and children.
o   Collecting data on women's perceptions of power, and of their husbands', families's, and communities' attitudes and expectations.

c) Expanding the consultations process to include a wide range of related stakeholders, particularly women in design of the measure of women's empowerment.

4.3   Recommendations for Policy and Advocacy

The following recommendations should be considered for policy and advocacy:
a) Improve advocacy on the use of WEI to inform legislative, policy and resources allocation towards gender equality and women's empowerment.
b) Enhance coordination of all relevant stakeholders and partners to increase demand and utilisation of gender statistics including the WEI.
c) Strengthen timeliness of production of WEI and its integration in reporting mechanisms for gender equality and women's empowerment such as Vision 2030, BPFA, CEDAW and SDGs.

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Annexures

Annex 1: Conceptualisation of women's empowerment: Literature review

The parameters – dimensions and indicators – used to measure women's empowerment in the academic and organisational literature are vast. While earlier conceptualisations and measurements were one-dimensional and used a single indicator such as women's educational attainment, labour market participation, marriage characteristics (Heckert & Fabic, 2013) or focused on a specific group, the poor (Narayan, 2002)[25], recent measurements use as many as 30 indicators at the individual, community and broader levels. Malhotra, Schuler, and Boender (2002) group the most common indicators used to measure women's empowerment into six domains: i) Economic, ii) Socio-cultural, iii) Familial/interpersonal, iv) Legal, v) Political and vi) Psychological. Narayan (2005) emphasises four elements of empowerment: i) Access to information, ii) Inclusion and participation, iii) Accountability, and iv) Local organisational capacity. Alkire and Ibrahim (2007) focus and expand on the agency component of empowerment, and propose indicators across five areas: i) Control over personal decisions assessing the extent to which the agency of individuals and social groups is constrained by patriarchal social structures and local power relations; ii) Household decision-making with respect to different aspects of life; iii) Domain-specific autonomy measuring the extent to which individuals feel their actions across different domains of life are motivated by reward or punishment; iv) Ability to change one's life; and v) Ability to change things collectively in the community.

Most country and region-focused studies use empirical analysis to identify the parameters for measuring women's empowerment. For instance, Shimamoto and Gipson (2017) carry out factor analysis and group indicators measuring women's empowerment in Senegal into three domains: i) Household decision-making, ii) Attitudes towards violence, and ii) Gender norms for sex negotiation. In a study assessing the relationship between women's empowerment and contraception in Ethiopia, Tadesse et al. (2013) use five components to measure women's empowerment: i) Acceptance of domestic violence; ii) Knowledge on legal rights pertaining to empowerment; iii) Household decision-making; d) Educational attainment; and iv) Exposure to media. Using latest Demographic and Health Survey (DHS) data in Ethiopia, Kenya, Rwanda, Tanzania, and Uganda, and applying exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and multi-country confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), Miedema et al. (2018) identify an invariant three-factor model of women's empowerment consisting of: a) Women's human/social assets, b) Attitudes towards wife abuse, and c) Women's participation in household decisions. The human/social assets factor is comprised of the following indicators: i) Age at first sexual intercourse, ii) Age at first cohabitation, and iii) Age at first birth. The factor of attitudes towards wife abuse consists of questions on women's attitudes towards wife-beating (i.e. justification of wife-beating) in the following five occasions: i) If the wife goes out without telling her husband; ii) If the wife neglects the children; iii) If the wife argues with her husband; iv) If the wife burns the food; and v) If the wife refuses to have sex with her husband. The factor of household decision-making consists of questions on whether the woman participates (alone or jointly with husband) in making the following decisions: i) Use of her earnings; ii) Her health; iii) Large household purchases, and d) Visits to family and/or friends. The authors use Kabeer's (1999) conceptual framework on women's empowerment and group the identified indicators into enabling factors (human/social assets), instrumental agency (household decision-making), and intrinsic agency (attitudes toward women's abuse). In their attempt to improve the measurement of women's empowerment in sub-Saharan Africa, Heckert and Fabit (2003) review the

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[25] Narayan (2002) defines empowerment as 'the expansion of assets and capabilities of poor people to participate in, negotiate with, influence, control and hold accountable institutions that affect their lives.

DHS questionnaires and complement it with qualitative research with gender and health experts in Ghana, Mozambique, Senegal and Uganda for insights on how the instrument can be further expanded. They propose the following dimensions for measuring women's empowerment: i) Economic empowerment, ii) Legal rights and recourse, iii) Decision-making, and iv) Social norms and attitudes. They find that for the economic empowerment domain, collecting data on women's possession of resources to generate income and having a say in household spending is very important, and that a distinction between ownership and access is crucial. For the legal rights and recourse domain, they suggest using data on women's knowledge of relevant laws, perceptions on whether these laws are enforced, and whether they can seek recourse when their legal rights are violated. Heckert and Fabit (2003) also suggest that data collected on decision-making should include a broader range of topics such as permission for HIV testing, acceptability of women's public participation, and women's decision-making power on their children's daily and future activities. The authors also find that data on social norms and attitudes should include questions on perceptions of women about their husbands', husbands kins', families', and communities' attitudes and expectations given that these are very influential on women's actions and ability to make choices.

Other studies measuring women's empowerment in Kenya and its relationship to other outcomes or factors associated with it, use a simpler definition, focus only on one domain and/or use a less complex approach. Brunson, Shell-Duncan and Steele (2009) use the term "women's autonomy" interchangeably with "women's empowerment" to assess its relationship with children's nutrition. They use the following dimensions: i) Autonomy stemming from knowledge or experience of the world, ii) Decision-making authority, iii) Physical autonomy including freedom of movement, iv) Emotional autonomy, and v) Economic and social autonomy that includes access to and control over resources. Takayanagi (2016) investigates the activities of a village-based literacy center in Kenya and the benefits on women's wellbeing. The author's implied definition of empowerment includes two domains: economic (ability to stay out of poverty through income generation) and psychological (self-esteem, self-confidence and self-empowerment). The findings show that the programme's impact on women's empowerment was manifold: it strengthened women's capacity to stay out of poverty as they were able to engage in income-generating activities, it boosted the self-esteem and self-confidence of participants and as a result they felt self-empowered, and it contributed to enhancing solidarity among participants and enabled them to secure gender-specific insurance. Kulb et al. (2016) who find a positive effect of a microcredit programme in women's empowerment in Vinya Wa Aka Group in Kenya also look at several domains of empowerment, including the economic (through women's access to capital/resources) and psychological (as participants reported to experience less emotional stress). The authors also find that the programme resulted in enhancement of women's agency through building of solidarity among programme participants and building of social cohesion (power with – exercised agency through joint action to tackle common concerns). In their study on assessing the relationship between empowerment and wealth, Voronca, Walker and Edege (2018) use two scales for women's empowerment: women's participation in decision-making (instrumental agency) and their attitudes towards domestic violence against women (intrinsic agency). Bello et al. (2019) measure women's empowerment through the modified Sexual Relationship Power Scale[26] (SRPS) consisting of Relationship Control (RC) and the Decision-making Dominance (DD) to assess the relationship between women's empowerment and male engagement in seeking pregnancy healthcare in western Kenya. The statements: "My partner always wants to know where I am"; "My partner does what he wants, even if I don't want him to"; and "My partner would get angry if I suggested condom use" are some of the indicators used to construct the RC domain, while the following questions (among others) were used to construct the DD domain: "Who usually has more say about whether you have sex?" and "Who usually has more say about important decisions?". Pulerwitz, Mathur and Woznica (2018) use the same scale (SRPS) to define empowerment of adolescent girls and young women (aged 15-24 years) and assess its relationship to two violence outcomes (physical and sexual violence by intimate partner), and three HIV risk outcomes: usage of condom in the last sexual intercourse with primary partner, partner having other partners in the past year, and knowledge of partner's HIV status. The analysis was carried out using a focused survey in Kisumu, Kenya. Omwami (2014) assesses the relationship between educational attainment and women's empowerment across generations and defines the latter in terms of achievements of Kabeer's (1999) conceptual framework by using the indicator of fertility or women's ability to limit the number of children that they want to have.

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[26] Developed and validated by Pulerwitz, Gortmaker, and DeJong in 2000.

The remaining research in Kenya on the topic focuses and expands mainly on the exercise of agency of Kabeer's (1999) framework. Musalia (2017) examines the decision-making process among married women in Kenya using Latent Class Analytical method, and carries out multivariate analysis to gain an insight on factors associated with each. Women who made all the decisions jointly with their husbands except for what food to cook were classified as egalitarian; women who made all the decisions except for how their husbands' money is spent were classified as independent, and women who made only food decisions and considered all the others to be a man's responsibility were classified as conservative. The results classify the majority of married women in Kenya (46%) as egalitarian, 29 percent as independent, and 25 percent as conservative, suggesting that the patriarchal structure is not as overarching as assumed. The study also found that the educational attainment, occupation, husband's educational attainment, and residence endorsed conservatism compared to egalitarianism. Participation in the labour market and household headship on the other hand, were found to endorse independence rather than egalitarianism (Musalia, 2017).

In their study of gendered perceptions of decision-making in rural Kenya, Aberman, Behrman and Birner (2016) introduce an important factor of agency: the local definition of power. Their study shows that even though women and men may negotiate for their priorities (each with their degree of power), while men have absolute power including over social and physical capital, women's exercise of power depends on men's permission. In addition, characteristics such as control over resources, charisma and confidence, hard work and determination, which are considered to be attributes of a powerful individual, disfavour women significantly. The authors also find that the only time when women's gain of power is not considered a "threat" [of loss of power of men] is when the activity benefits the family and increases the family's net worth compared to others in the community (Aberman, Behrman & Birner, 2016).

Galie and Farnworth (2019) find similar results in their qualitative fieldwork conducted in agricultural communities in Kenya[27] that good health, self-confidence, skills, determination and energy are characteristics of an empowered person. However, open display of determination and self-confidence by women in the community is considered as disrespectful towards their husbands; therefore, such women are not regarded as empowered by the community. The latter introduces a fifth definition of power in relation to agency - "power through" - which is defined as the power[28] that an individual gains or loses through empowerment of others or by relating with others. According to Galie and Farnworth (2019), changes in empowerment of the individual are mediated through changes in empowerment of important individuals they are associated with – spouses, parents, siblings, children and others, the way that personal characteristics affect how the individual relates to others, and the judgment of the immediate community where the individual lives.

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[27] The research included also fieldwork in agricultural communities in Syria and Tanzania, but for reasons of brevity this section presents only the ones on Kenya.

[28] The four other definitions of power include: a) Power within – transformation of the individual's consciousness that results in new self-confidence to act (Rowlands, 1997), b) Power with – power stemming from organised individuals acting as a group for common concerns, solidarity or sociability (Gammage et al. 2016; Cornwall 2016), c) Power to – lead to a desired change/outcome or resist change (Allen , 1999), and d) Power over – a social relation of power (domination or subordination) between individuals (Pansardi, 2012).

Annex 2: List of participants in the consultations process

Name	Position	Institution
Zachary Mwangi	Director General	Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (DG)
Erëblina Elezaj	Social Policy Specialist//Research fellow	Social Policy Research Institute (SPRI) Global
Nesha Ramful	Research fellow	Social Policy Research Institute (SPRI) Global
Godfrey Ndeng'e	Social Planning Specialist	UNICEF
Mary Wanyonyi	Director Statistical Coordination and Methods	Kenya National Bureau of Statistics
Robert Nderitu	Director Production Statistics	Kenya National Bureau of Statistics
Paul Samoei	Senior Manager	Kenya National Bureau of Statistics
Salome Kihara	Manager	Kenya National Bureau of Statistics
Silas Mulwa	Manager	Kenya National Bureau of Statistics
Michael Gitau	Manager	Kenya National Bureau of Statistics
Oganga Caneble	Senior Statistician	Kenya National Bureau of Statistics
Sarah Omache	Senior Statistician	Kenya National Bureau of Statistics
Stephen Ngugi	Manager	Kenya National Bureau of Statistics
Gladys Mbaluku	Manager	Kenya National Bureau of Statistics
George Magara	Senior Statistician	Kenya National Bureau of Statistics
Francis Mwandembo	Assistant Manager	Kenya National Bureau of Statistics
Carol Gatwiri		Kenya National Bureau of Statistics
Tabitha Wambui	Assistant Manager	Kenya National Bureau of Statistics
Rosemary Chepkoech	Manager	Kenya National Bureau of Statistics
John Bore	Assistant Manager	Kenya National Bureau of Statistics
James Ng'ang'a	Manager	Kenya National Bureau of Statistics
Geoffrey Kariuki	Assistant Manager	Kenya National Bureau of Statistics
Julie Mwabe	Principle economist	Executive Office of the President Policy and Strategy Unit (PASU),
William Komu	Principle economist	State Department for gender
Rosamary Kongani	Assistant Manager	Kenya National Bureau of Statistics
Stella Wangechi		Kenya National Commission for Human Rights
James Ntabo		National Social Protection Secretariat
James Omondi		The National Treasury and Planning
George Kimani		National Commission for Gender Equality
Michael Gichimu		National Commission for Gender Equality
Terry Watiri		Ministry of Health
Elda Onsumo		Kenya Institute of Public Policy and Research and Analysis
Joanne N. Kiarie		Presidential Delivery Unit
Jane Mghambi		Office of the Controller of Budget
Joshua Musyimi		UNWomen
Patrick Ndivo		Women Empowerment Centre

Annex 3: Technical notes on empirical analysis and results

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA)

Descriptive statistics in Table 3 of the report include all the indicators used in the EFA, with notes on whether the indicators were kept in the final model for both women in union and women not in union. Tetrachoric correlation and Barttlet's Test of sphericity were used to assess whether there are sufficient intercorrelations to run the factor analysis. The sphericity test is significant (p-value=0.000) and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy (KMO=0.822 for women in union and KMO=0.786 for women not in union) indicates that there is sufficient shared variance between the variables to run the analysis. Exploratory Factor Analysis is run on all the variables of empowerment, and orthogonal rotation is used to measure factor correlation. The indicators that did not load with sufficient magnitude on any factor $|<.400|$ (Steven, 2009) were dropped from the analysis unless there was strong evidence in the literature that they are essential for measuring women's empowerment and there was wide consensus among workshop stakeholders that they should be kept in constructing the index.

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)

After identifying the domains and comprising indicators of each, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was performed to understand whether the chosen indicators correspond with the conceptual framework (Table 7 and Table 8). The fitness of the models was assessed using the following indices: Root Means Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) and Comparative Fit Index (CFI). The thresholds for fit incidences were: RMSEA<0.07 and TLI>0.90 (Hooper, Coughlan, & Mullen, 2008).

Table 7: Confirmatory factor analyses on women's empowerment latent domains identified through EFA, women in union

Indicator	Women in union (N=8,568)				
	F1 Attitudes towards wife-beating	F2 Human and social resources	F3 Household decision-making	F4 Control over sexual relations	F5 Economic
Woman thinks that wife-beating is not justified if the wife goes out without telling her husband	0.6803*				
Woman thinks that wife-beating is not justified if the wife neglects the children	0.8525*				
Woman thinks that wife-beating is not justified if the wife argues with her husband	0.6549*				
Woman thinks that wife-beating is not justified if the wife refuses to have sex with her husband	0.5973*				
Woman thinks that wife-beating is not justified if the wife burns the food	0.3998*				
Woman has access to media		0.6060*			
Woman thinks that FGM should be stopped		0.5529*			
Woman has exposure to family planning information		0.7109*			
Woman has knowledge about modern contraception		0.4308 *			
Woman decides alone or with partner about large household purchases			0.6988*		
Woman decides alone or with partner about her healthcare			0.6758*		
Woman decides alone or with partner about visiting family or relatives			0.5663*		
Woman decides alone or with partner about where/how husband's earnings will be spent			0.4864*		
Woman can refuse sex with her husband/partner				0.5358*	
Woman can ask partner to use condom during sexual intercourse				0.7574*	
Woman has knowledge about where male/female condoms can be accessed				0.4494*	
Woman has completed secondary education					0.5313*
Woman is in continuous paid employment					0.4437*
CFA fit statistics					
CFI	0.926				
TLI	0.911				
RMSEA	0.051				
×2 (p-value)	(p<0.001)				

Source: Analysis using KDHS 2014 data

Table 8: Confirmatory factor analyses on women's empowerment latent domains identified through EFA, women not in union

Indicator	Women not in union (N=5,514)		
	F1 Attitudes towards wife-beating	F2 Economic	F3 Human and social resources
Woman thinks that wife-beating is not justified if the wife goes out without telling her husband	0.6960*		
Woman thinks that wife-beating is not justified if the wife neglects the children	0.6668*		
Woman thinks that wife-beating is not justified if the wife argues with her husband	0.7093*		
Woman thinks that wife-beating is not justified if the wife refuses to have sex with her husband	0.6850*		
Woman thinks that wife-beating is not justified if the wife burns the food	0.5959*		
Woman has completed secondary education		0.8119*	
Woman is in continuous, paid employment		0.5570*	
Woman has access to media			0.4110*
Woman thinks that FGM should be stopped			0.4823*
Woman has knowledge about where male/female condoms can be accessed			0.3238*
Woman has knowledge about HIV/AIDS prevention and transmission, including MTCT transmission of HIV			0.2660*
CFA fit statistics			
CFI	0.933		
TLI	0.910		
RMSEA	0.056		
χ2 (p-value)	(p<0.001)		

Source: Analysis using KDHS 2014 data

Annex 4: Characteristics of empowered women

Characteristics		Woman is empowered		
		80% of weighted indicators	70% of weighted indicators	60% of weighted indicators
		Standard error	Standard error	Standard error
National	Kenya	29.3%	48.4%	68.1%
		(0.380)	(0.417)	(0.389)
Area of residence	Urban	40.1%	60.9%	79.1%
		(0.672)	(0.669)	(0.558)
	Rural	22.0%	39.9%	60.7%
		(0.435)	(0.515)	(0.513)
Age group	15-19 years	34.6%	55.8%	75.2%
		(0.905)	(0.945)	(0.822)
	20-29 years	29.4%	48.0%	67.4%
		(0.631)	(0.692)	(0.649)
	30-39 years	28.8%	48.4%	67.4%
		(0.723)	(0.798)	(0.748)
	40-49 years	23.6%	40.9%	62.8%
		(0.856)	(0.991)	(0.974)
Marital status	Single (never married)	38.1%	57.3%	75.7%
		(0.776)	(0.791)	(0.685)
	Married/cohabiting with partner	27.3%	47.5%	68.0%
		(0.474)	(0.531)	(0.496)
	Widowed	11.8%	19.5%	37.9%
		(1.350)	(1.661)	(2.034)
	Divorced	25.2%	37.1%	53.6%
		(2.401)	(2.672)	(2.758)
	Separated	17.8%	34.5%	55.5%
		(1.442)	(1.791)	(1.873)
Type of marriage	Monogamous	28.9%	49.4%	70.3%
		(0.526)	(0.580)	(0.530)
	Polygamous	15.9%	34.2%	49.9%
		(1.046)	(1.356)	(1.429)
Sex of household head	Woman	28.0%	45.4%	64.4%
		(0.592)	(0.656)	(0.631)
	Man	30.1%	50.2%	70.4%
		(0.494)	(0.539)	(0.492)
Educational attainment of household head	None	9.8%	20.6%	35.2%
		(0.594)	(0.809)	(0.956)
	Primary	18.1%	38.2%	61.7%
		(0.465)	(0.586)	(0.587)
	Secondary	39.3%	61.3%	80.4%
		(0.845)	(0.843)	(0.686)
	High	61.7%	78.5%	90.0%
		(1.208)	(1.020)	(0.747)
Wealth quintiles	Poorest	6.7%	17.4%	34.2%
		(0.432)	(0.656)	(0.821)
	Poorer	16.1%	35.5%	58.8%
		(0.694)	(0.904)	(0.930)
	Middle	23.7%	43.1%	67.6%
		(0.810)	(0.943)	(0.891)
	Richer	33.2%	57.5%	77.7%
		(0.895)	(0.940)	(0.791)
	Richest	52.7%	72.1%	87.2%
		(0.961)	(0.864)	(0.644)

Source: Calculations using KDHS 2014 data

Annex 5: Characteristics of empowered women, by area of residence

Area of residence		Urban	Rural
Women empowered in 80% of weighted indicators		40.1%	22.0%
(Standard error)		(0.672)	(0.435)
Age group	15-19 years	33.7%	35.0%
		(1.630)	(1.089)
	20-29 years	40.9%	18.4%
		(1.035)	(0.712)
	30-39 years	44.0%	18.1%
		(1.302)	(0.775)
	40-49 years	34.8%	18.9%
		(1.726)	(0.950)
Marital status	Single (never married)	44.0%	34.0%
		(1.300)	(0.956)
	Married/cohabiting with partner	40.9%	18.5%
		(0.869)	(0.516)
	Widowed	20.4%	8.7%
		(3.203)	(1.392)
	Divorced	34.8%	13.4%
		(3.621)	(2.752)
	Separated	25.3%	10.2%
		(2.408)	(1.556)
Type of marriage	Monogamous	42.1%	19.5%
		(0.936)	(0.581)
	Polygamous	28.1%	12.0%
		(2.470)	(1.086)
Sex of household head	Woman	40.5%	19.9%
		(1.055)	(0.666)
	Man	39.8%	23.3%
		(0.872)	(0.572)
Educational attainment of household head	None	9.9%	9.8%
		(1.245)	(0.677)
	Primary	21.9%	16.5%
		(0.913)	(0.536)
	Secondary	45.3%	32.5%
		(1.245)	(1.122)
	High	63.8%	57.1%
		(1.477)	(2.091)
Wealth quintiles	Poorest	9.8%	6.3%
		(1.339)	(0.456)
	Poorer	16.5%	16.0%
		(1.532)	(0.779)
	Middle	20.1%	24.6%
		(1.562)	(0.939)
	Richer	30.5%	35.8%
		(1.269)	(1.258)
	Richest	52.3%	54.8%
		(1.052)	(2.373)

Source: Calculations using KDHS 2014 data