WHAT GETS MEASURED MATTERS

A METHODS NOTE FOR MEASURING WOMEN AND GIRLS’ EMPOWERMENT

BILL & MELINDA GATES FOUNDATION
This Methods Note has been developed in partnership with and for the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation. It is the product of close collaboration between The Equality Institute (EQI), the foundation Gender Equality Team, and program staff of the foundation, building off research and analysis conducted by the Gender Team of the Royal Tropical Institute (KIT) of the Netherlands.

The Equality Institute team that developed this Methods Note consists of Emma Fulu and Sarah Gosper, with contributions from Marta Jasinska.

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The purpose of the Methods Note
This Methods Note is intended to help with rigorous measurement of empowerment to better inform and design investments and improve the lives of women and girls.

What gets measured matters. Given the central role of women and girls’ empowerment in development, it is vital that we measure empowerment in a meaningful way.

The purpose of this Methods Note is to provide practical guidance on how to integrate measures of empowerment into investments that strive to achieve gender equality and women and girls’ empowerment.

The Methods Note will help you to:

1. Apply the foundation’s Model of Women and Girls’ Empowerment in practical and tangible ways
2. Design programs that effectively and holistically integrate women and girls’ empowerment into their approaches
3. Develop clear measures for tracking progress toward women and girls’ empowerment
4. Better understand and apply appropriate and effective methods for measuring empowerment

The guidance in this note is rooted in the foundation’s principles and approach to measurement and evaluation. The note is also rooted in and builds on the framework presented in the foundation’s Conceptual Model on Women and Girls’ Empowerment. It can be used to support good practice in Outcome Investing when incorporating empowerment interventions into grants, through identifying empowerment-related outcomes, articulating a pathway towards achieving them, and identifying relevant indicators to monitor changes.

The guidance on outcomes, indicators, and data collection methodologies can also inform good practice in evaluating empowerment interventions, in line with the foundation’s evaluation policy. As stated in the policy, “Evaluation is a high priority when program outcomes are difficult to observe and knowledge is lacking on how best to achieve results...” For this reason, measuring empowerment is of specific interest for evaluations that can help build evidence and support learning in this area.

The empowerment model and measurement methods note are part of the foundation’s Gender Equality Toolbox, which offers resources for integrating a gender lens into the work of teams across the foundation. The tools can support teams to make investments that are gender intentional — by identifying and addressing gender gaps in access to resources; and gender transformative — by making targeted investments to promote changes in gender power relations, such as efforts to increase women and girls’ empowerment.

The Gender Integration Guide is a job aid for Program Officers (POs) to guide their discussions with partners in the development or redesign of an investment to explore how gender affects the targeted problem and to identify potential opportunities to deepen gender integration in the investment design. It is a useful companion tool to the Methods Note, which can inform the development of the Results Framework and M&E plan in the design phase of an investment.
Primary audience of the Methods Note

The Methods Note is intended for grant makers across the foundation who are motivated to amplify the impact of their work through gender transformative investments that target women and girls’ empowerment. The note will also be of benefit to grantees and other partners, as illustrated below.

Who is this methods note for?

- **Measurement and evaluation specialists** who want to develop a better understanding of gender equality and empowerment, and how to measure changes.
- **Program staff and leadership** working to integrate gender equality and empowerment outcomes into their initiative or strategy-level goals.
- **Program officers** working with grantees to integrate measures of women and girls' empowerment into grant design and M&E plans.
- **Foundation partners and grantees** when targeting women and girls’ empowerment in their programs.

What is included in the methods note

**SECTION 1 - THE METHODS NOTE AND HOW IT WILL HELP YOU**

**SECTION 2 – WHY MEASURING WOMEN AND GIRLS’ EMPOWERMENT MATTERS**

- The focus of Section 3 is on what to measure. It provides guidance around how to integrate empowerment into a results framework, including examples, with empowerment as a primary outcome, intermediate outcome, or both.
- It provides guidance on outcomes and indicators of empowerment of women and girls, presented by the three elements of the empowerment model: agency; institutional structures; and resources.
- Indicators for each element of the empowerment model are presented by sector, with a focus on: agriculture; family planning; water, sanitation and hygiene; and financial services for the poor. Validated indicators commonly used in the field are included as examples, as well as other more innovative or experimental indicators.

**SECTION 3 – WHAT TO MEASURE: RESULTS FRAMEWORKS AND INDICATORS**

- The focus of Section 4 is on what methods to use to measure empowerment.
- A mixed methods approach to measuring empowerment is the most effective way to capture changes in power dynamics and advances in women and girls’ empowerment.
- Specific guidance on when to use qualitative and quantitative methods and the strengths and limitations of each respective method.
- What is measurement bias, and what are the best methods to employ to avoid it.

**SECTION 4 – HOW TO MEASURE EMPOWERMENT**

- Section 5 focuses on key considerations for implementation of measurement of empowerment.
- This section focuses on ways to improve measurement of empowerment at all stages of your research or evaluation from design to data analysis to reporting.
- Ethical and safety considerations for conducting evaluations on women and girls’ empowerment.
SECTION 2
WHY MEASURING WOMEN AND GIRLS’ EMPOWERMENT MATTERS

Melinda Gates’s call to action in the journal, Science to put women and girls at the center of global development set in motion a series of conversations and initiatives within the foundation on how to address gender equality in the foundation’s work. The model of women and girls’ empowerment and this measurement guidance came out of a collaboration across eight program teams, striving to improve how we understand and measure this complex concept.

The foundation has three main motivations for taking an intentional approach to investing in women and girls’ empowerment:

1. Investing in the empowerment of women and girls to achieve greater gender equality as an end in itself aligns with the foundation’s mission and core values as all lives have equal value and so we must work towards gender equality.

2. We believe that investing in the empowerment of women and girls can lead to better health and development outcomes. A large and growing body of evidence shows that empowered women and girls acting as agents of change in their communities can and do bring about better health and development outcomes for all.

3. We recognize the importance of intentionally focusing on power relations and inequality in the contexts in which we work to avoid harmful unintended consequences. If we do not seek to understand and address power imbalances and inequality, we risk reinforcing them.

The Conceptual Model on Women and Girls’ Empowerment is underpinned by a rigorous review of the literature and is informed by past and present thinking and lessons learned on empowerment of women and girls. The model defines empowerment as the expansion of choice and strengthening of voice through the transformation of power relations so that women and girls have more control over their lives and futures.

“We define empowerment as the expansion of choice and strengthening of voice through the transformation of power relations so women and girls have more control over their lives and futures.”
Empowerment is a process of ongoing change through which women and girls expand their aspirations, strengthen their voice, and exercise more choice. Expansion of choice and strengthening of voice entail a transformation of unequal power relations.

Transformation of power relations occurs when women and girls exercise agency and take action through expanded access to and control over resources and changes to the institutional structures that ultimately shape their lives and futures. Agency, institutional structures, and resources are the key elements in our model of women and girls’ empowerment. The cross-cutting considerations of intersectionality and working with men and boys are central to how women and girls experience empowerment or disempowerment and are critical to how we understand the entire model of empowerment.

What makes measuring empowerment unique?

**Empowerment is a complex and multifaceted concept.** The elements of empowerment are interrelated and can be mutually reinforcing. Agency is at the heart of our empowerment model, and changes to an individual woman or girl’s agency can be a promising sign of potential changes in her ability to exercise choice and voice. However, she is also greatly affected by the resources she has access to and controls, as well as the norms and institutions that shape her daily life. Measures that capture only those dimensions related to only one element of empowerment, such as individual agency, will not provide a holistic picture of empowerment nor the inter-relations between the different components.

**Empowerment is non-linear,** and so measuring empowerment differs somewhat from conventional monitoring techniques that assume a linear progression with milestones of success. Empowerment is context specific and contingent on having opportunities to both access and exercise certain rights.

**Empowerment is both a process and an outcome.** Measuring empowerment is complex, and therefore differs from traditional development approaches that measure, for example, the number of people an investment has reached.

**Empowerment can result in backlash.** Reversals and setbacks occur when social power relations are challenged. Tracking negative change is vital for flexibly adapting programming and strategies along the way. In fact, responses such as resistance and setbacks may be signs that power relations are indeed being challenged. It is important therefore to track and respond to reversals and backlash by using a set of indicators and methods that can document incidents of resistance.

The foundation’s work on gender

In addition to efforts to improve measurement of empowerment in our strategies and grant making, the foundation’s Gender Equality team has a full strategy on Women’s Economic Empowerment and portfolios supporting Gender Data and Women’s Movements.
Critical issues and debates related to empowerment and measurement

The evolving and emerging practice of measuring women and girls’ empowerment has been subject to ongoing debate. These include challenges of a technical nature – related to the what and how of measuring empowerment. They also include political challenges – related to the contested nature of measuring empowerment linked to the purpose of measurement, debates on whose knowledge and voices count, and tensions between upward and downward accountability.

Often, measurement in the context of Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E) is used for upward accountability for donors focused on performance and demonstrating results. Donor-driven use of M&E to show results, particularly causality, efficiency and accountability may contradict the need for a flexible and enabling role (with more emphasis on learning) which supports empowerment as a process of social change.¹

This tension raises a much larger political issue related to downward accountability, in relation to how (M&E) impacts the power relationships between donors and partners, implementers, and program participants. Choices on what, for whom, and how change is measured are never simple nor free of bias and power dynamics. In this context, measurement can either capture voice well, or not at all.

The choice of methodology itself can also be controversial. It raises questions about whose knowledge counts, who should lead the process of monitoring and knowledge generation, and who is best placed to give validity and meaning to processes of empowerment.² Given the very nature of empowerment, measures should create space for women and girls’ voices that express how change is happening, and more importantly, experienced from their own perspectives.

Women and girls’ empowerment is considered a sensitive topic in many contexts, and its measurement may be particularly subject to bias. Respondents may find questions on this topic – such as decision-making on finances, family planning, health decisions within the household, or experiences of violence – taboo, private or inappropriate. Respondents may also be less inclined to give truthful answers to sensitive questions if they believe that their involvement in a study will not bring about any changes, or may answer questions in a socially desirable way, to conform to local norms or attitudes.

Bias in reporting and measurement can lead to over-reporting or overestimation – because of social desirability, or to underestimation or under-reporting – because of a lack of trust or intrusiveness. There are however several research techniques that can be used to overcome measurement bias, and should be used in measurement of empowerment of women and girls. Methods for mitigating bias are discussed in Section 4.

There are key ethical and safety standards that apply to all research pertaining to women and girls’ empowerment. Data collection of empowerment indicators will need to follow the same ethical protocols as any other type of research, including voluntary participation, informed consent, confidentiality, and safety. Researchers should aim to minimize risks to, and burdens on, those participating in the research, and seek to maximize the benefits and reduce any unnecessary harms that might occur from negative or critical evaluation, without compromising the integrity of the program. For further reading on ethics and safety see Appendix 8.

A note on feminist evaluations

Empowerment fits within the larger context of gender equality, and measuring empowerment builds on the lessons of feminist evaluation, which is grounded in principles of feminist theory and focuses on gender inequities leading to social injustice. It does not advocate for ‘one approach’, but makes the politics of evaluation explicit. Feminist evaluation approaches emphasize that there are multiple ways of knowing, with some forms more privileged than others. They often give specific emphasis to the voices and experiences of women and girls in evaluations and recognize the diversity amongst women across the lifecycle. For a useful description and resources on feminist evaluation, see the BetterEvaluation.org themes page on feminist evaluation.

Despite its unique complexities, it is possible to measure empowerment of women and girls, and good methods do exist. While the field is still evolving and there is no one-size-fits-all approach, there are guiding principles that can support decisions on how to be intentional in ensuring measurement practices contribute to, rather than impede, processes of empowerment.
Guiding principles to measuring empowerment

Tailor methods to purpose and contexts
Empowerment is best measured using a mixed-methods approach - a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods. Selected methods should be based on best-practice and, where possible, objective rather than only self-reported and subjective. In alignment with the foundation’s evaluation policy, methods for measuring empowerment should be fit-for-purpose, meaning they are relevant and specific to context and target groups, taking into consideration varied interpretations of empowerment (e.g., adolescents likely define empowerment differently than adults, even within the same community).

Take a holistic approach to measurement
Ideally the three elements of the model should be used to inform a holistic approach to measurement that captures shifts in power relations. Multiple measures of the diverse dimension and constructs of empowerment should be used, including both direct and indirect (proxy) measures. Single indicators or narrowly defined indices fail to capture if and how empowering experiences in one dimension of a woman’s life (e.g., financial assets) affect another dimension (freedom from violence). Measures should capture individual-level change and collective and systemic changes.

Be informed by women and girls’ voices
Measures should create space for the voices of the subject of the intervention. Measures of empowerment should be informed by women and girls’ realities and interests. Mixed methods and participatory approaches that integrate women and girls’ voices should be used at different stages: monitoring and evaluation design; piloting of measures; data collection; analysis and/or validation of findings.

Consider intersectionality
The advantages or disadvantages that a woman or girl faces depend on how gender intersects with her age, class, ethnicity, religion, sexual orientation, and other social markers of difference. Focusing on gender alone can mask disparities in the conditions and relative empowerment of women and girls within and across contexts. Using an intersectional lens is therefore crucial to measuring a woman or girl’s empowerment.

Understand that empowerment takes time
Empowerment is a long-term process. Measuring the outcomes often requires careful longitudinal study of how women and girls’ lives are changing. This can be achieved through a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods that can capture these processes of change.
SECTION 3

WHAT TO MEASURE: RESULTS AND INDICATORS

Translating the Model of Women and Girls’ Empowerment to measurement in grants entails three steps:

1. Articulating empowerment of women and girls in a results chain.
2. Formulating explicit empowerment focused outcomes within that results chain.
3. Developing relevant indicators for those outcomes, and subsequently selecting appropriate data collection and analysis methods.

Although there is often a temptation to apply universal templates and frameworks, there is no one standard approach to measuring empowerment. Some comparable measures that can be used across contexts. For example, the Women’s Empowerment in Agriculture Index (WEAI), the Demographic Health Survey (DHS) measures, such as those assessing freedom of movement and household decision-making control; or the World Bank’s Living Standards Measurement Survey (LSMS) measures of intra-family relationships and time use. However, these indicators may not be easily applicable in all foundation investments, and if you do use them you may need to supplement or adapt them to ensure they are relevant and specific to the context of your investment. Just like your investment, your approach to measurement should always be fit-for-purpose.

Be clear and strategic about why empowerment is being measured in the program and how it will be used – what change do you want to see, and what would success look like? Decisions about what to measure should stem from the theory of change that underpins the specific strategies and activities of the intervention, and findings from measurement should feed back into the intervention to improve its effectiveness.

You should also use an intersectional lens to measure empowerment. This requires collecting data on different demographics or social markers of difference, such as ethnicity or gender identity and disaggregating empowerment data by these demographics. For example, when choosing an indicator for a particular outcome around decision-making you may keep your original indicators, that examine differences in decision-making between men and women. But to address considerations of intersectionality, you would include additional indicators and analyze the data differently to draw out the distinct experiences of groups of people based on markers of identity. For example, do women with a disability face additional barriers to equitable decision-making compared with able-bodied women? Do women who identify as lesbian, bisexual or transgender encounter unique barriers to accessing and controlling economic resources as compared to heterosexual and/or cisgender women?

This Methods Note works with the following definitions, which the foundation uses for Outcome Investing:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary outcomes</th>
<th>The overall change(s) in technologies, systems, populations or behaviors the investment seeks to achieve within the context of the investment timeframe.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intermediate outcomes</td>
<td>The changes in technologies, systems, populations or behaviors that need to be achieved to realize the primary outcome(s).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outputs</td>
<td>The goods, services, events or deliverables against which progress can be assessed or comparisons made.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indicators</td>
<td>Quantitative or qualitative variables against which progress can be assessed or comparisons made.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proxy</td>
<td>Indirect measure that approximates the phenomenon in the absence of a direct measure.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Index / scale</td>
<td>Composite measures of multiple indicators, that condense information to allow for comparison across time and space.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
EMERGE

(Evidence-based Measures of Empowerment for Research on Gender Equality) is a project focused on the quantitative measurement of gender equality and empowerment (GE/E) to monitor and/or evaluate health and development programs in India, and state or national progress on UN Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 5: To achieve gender equality and empower all girls. The EMERGE project aims to identify, adapt, and develop reliable and valid quantitative social and behavioural measures of GE/E based on established principles and methodologies of measurement, with a focus on nine dimensions of GE/E: psychological, social, economic, legal, political, health, household and intrafamilial, environment and sustainability, and time use/time poverty. The project supports grant funding for novel measurement studies, and also identifies quantitative measures of empowerment across the nine dimensions of focus, scoring the measures on their psychometric strength for field-based research.

Definitions from the EMERGE project

Gender equality: a form of social equality in which one’s rights, responsibilities, or opportunities are unchanged by gender considerations.

Gender empowerment: a type of social empowerment that is geared at improving one’s autonomy and self-determination within a particular culture or context. (See Raj et al.1)
RESOURCES BOX
Compiled toolkits of indicators and scales for measuring empowerment


USAID. 2011. Compendium of gender scales. C-Change, fhi360, and USAID. This compendium contains several gender-related scales that can be used to measure women and girls’ empowerment.

CARE. 2013. WE-MEASR: a new tool for measuring women’s empowerment in health programs. This tool contains 23 short, validated scales designed to measure women’s empowerment in domains critical to sexual, reproductive and maternal health and nutrition.

Golla, A., Nanda, P. and Mehra, R. 2011. Understanding and measuring women’s economic empowerment: definition, framework and indicators, ICRW. This paper outlines how to define and measure women’s economic empowerment, and provides a suggested list of indicators.

See Appendix 8 for additional resources.

Results chains: capturing empowerment as a process of transformational change

Results chains that capture empowerment of women and girls as a process and an outcome of transformative change share the following characteristics:

1. They present a combination of outcomes from different elements of the model (agency, institutional structures and resources). See Results Framework 1.

2. They present changes at multiple levels, within the context of larger social and systemic change.

The decision to include empowerment, or an element of empowerment as a primary outcome, intermediate outcome, or both, will depend on the priorities and the logical flow of the program’s theory of change. Every outcome is critical, which is why there are so few. Only those deemed to be logical and important should be included. Therefore, in relation to empowerment, outcomes intended to achieve empowerment as an end in and of itself should be included as a primary outcome, while outcomes that provide a pathway or contribution towards achieving a primary outcome can be included as intermediate outcomes.

Sometimes empowerment will be a strategic goal, as illustrated by the AgDev example below, but it is not necessarily something we can expect to achieve in one investment. While the empowerment concept as a whole may not be a primary outcome, elements of the model, such as agency or decision-making, can be used instead to measure the process of empowerment.

The example results frameworks below demonstrate where the elements of empowerment can logically fit in your investment, as either a primary or intermediate outcomes, or both. Empowerment is located at the strategy level for this program team; even though empowerment is not a primary outcome, it can be measured through the Women’s Empowerment in Agriculture Index (WEAI).
Illustrative Results Framework 1 – Empowerment as a primary outcome
Strategic Goal: Increase women’s empowerment in agriculture

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary outcome</th>
<th>Intermediate outcomes</th>
<th>Outputs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Increased women’s agency over resources (for example, livestock)</td>
<td>1.1. Increase women’s decision-making around livestock production *Agency (decision-making) is an intermediate outcome to highlight its importance to transforming power relations.</td>
<td>1.1.1. Discussion space supported for female farmers to discuss issues around land rights, ownership and decision-making (over livestock)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.2. Positive shift in attitudes at the community level, in support of women’s decision-making power over resources Institutional structures can enable or constrain women and girls’ expression of agency. Therefore, in this example, shifting attitudes/social acceptance is included as an intermediate outcome to highlight the link between changing norms and increasing agency.</td>
<td>1.2.1. Community leaders trained on a weekly basis on the benefits of women’s active involvement in decision-making related to agricultural activities 1.2.2. Radio campaigns broadcast on women and farming 1.2.3. New edutainment programs developed and aired on radio and television</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Increased land productivity for female-managed plots *Women who have more control over decision-making related to agricultural resources are more likely to produce higher yields, adopt new technologies and have improved family health.</td>
<td>2.1. Increased use of agricultural interventions that improve productivity for female-managed plots</td>
<td>2.1.1. Female farmers attended training on farming practices, seed varieties, and new technologies 2.1.2. Agricultural technologies that are prioritized by women and reduce women’s triple burden are introduced</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Illustrative Results Framework 2 – Empowerment as an intermediate outcome
Strategic Goal: Increase empowered family planning decision-making by women in India

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary outcome</th>
<th>Intermediate outcomes</th>
<th>Outputs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Increased contraceptive use among young women (15-24) in four inner-city slums in Delhi</td>
<td>1.1. Increased decision-making power among young women (15-24 years old) in four inner-city slums in Delhi</td>
<td>1.1.1. Young women and men receive training on family planning, Sexual Reproductive Health (SRH), and HIV, including a module on negotiating condom use with partners 1.1.2. Regular community meetings held with young women, husbands/partners, in-laws, religious leaders etc., to discuss family planning and SRH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.2. Expanded access to family planning services available to young (15-24 years old) women in four inner-city slums in Delhi</td>
<td>2.1.1. Clinical providers of family planning are trained in gender awareness, youth-friendly service provision, and interpersonal communication 1.2.2. Service provision restrictions based on age and/or marital status are removed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

See Appendix 1 for results frameworks with indicators.
Additional results frameworks for each element of empowerment are included in Appendix 2. They cover the four key sectors explored in this methods note: family planning, agriculture, water, sanitation and hygiene, and financial services for the poor.
**Indicators**

The indicators presented in this section are examples only, and there is no definitive list of perfect indicators for measuring agency. When you are selecting indicators for your investment, refer to the principles outlined in Section 2, and be mindful that they are fit-for-purpose and use a mixed methods approach.

The indicators for decision-making, norms and time use are aligned with the intermediate outcomes of the two results frameworks. The indicators for agriculture are consistent with the standard indicators used by the agriculture team, and aligned with their intermediate outcomes. Additional indicators have also been included to help illustrate the principles related to empowerment measurement. The other dimensions of each element are tailored to the two sectors: water, sanitation and hygiene, and financial services for the poor.

See Appendix 3 for additional indicators for each element and sector.

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**Target setting**

Setting targets based on the rates of change you can expect to see in indicators is context specific and will depend on the project, the indicator and timeline. To set appropriate targets, a gender analysis will help to get a baseline understanding of the local context, if change has been observed in the past, and whether similar change can be expected in the future.

Results from a mid-term evaluation of a community empowerment program by Tostan, highlight the different pace of change in unique cultural contexts. In Guinea-Bissau, the percentage of community members who thought it was acceptable for a woman to work outside of the house increased from 48% women/45% men at baseline, to 77% women/64% men at mid-line. However, in Mali, the change was much smaller, from 52% women/45% men at baseline, to 53% women/50% men at mid-line.

Given the complex nature of empowerment, change is often non-linear. There may be a threshold effect, where progress is made quite quickly. However, periods of backlash are also common, resulting in a ‘backwards’ movement of an indicator, which does not necessarily mean that progress is not being made. For this reason, it is important to regularly reassess and refine your targets, using findings from both qualitative and quantitative assessments.
WHEN TO USE INDICES OR SCALES VERSUS INDICATORS?

If you are measuring empowerment as a primary outcome, you will need an index or a set of indicators that capture the complexity of the concept. In Results Framework 1, you could use the WEAI to measure the primary and intermediate outcomes. Validated indices, scales and modules of indicators can be useful when you need to compare across contexts or have a few resources for formative research to develop context-specific indicators. However, it is likely that in many cases a set of carefully selected indicators may be more relevant than a pre-existing index or you may want to include some indicators that are tailored to the specific context in addition to a standardized index or scale.

Indices and scales

There are some advantages to using indices or scales over individual measures. An index is a way of compiling one score from a series of questions or statements that reflects a belief, feeling, or attitude, for example the WEAI. A scale asks a series of related questions about a key issue, allowing you to aggregate, or combine, multiple indicators into a single score, and often helps to more accurately capture the complexity of an issue than through a single measure. By using a validated scale, you can also compare results across different settings and countries. However, because scales and indices include multiple questions you should weigh their benefits with the length they will add to your survey.

There are several scales and indices that can be used to measure different elements or dimensions of empowerment. While this is not a comprehensive list, these are some of the better-known scales and indices:

- The WEAI measures elements of: agency (decision-making, leadership) and resources (assets and time). It focuses specifically on agriculture and can be used for performance monitoring and impact evaluation. It includes men and women, and can also capture changes over shorter time periods [see Appendix 4].

- The Gender Equitable Men (GEM) Scale measures attitudes toward gender norms in intimate relationships or differing social expectations for men and women. It was developed to administer with men, but has also been used with women.

- The DHS women’s status and empowerment module measures various aspects of women’s empowerment, including the elements of: agency (decision-making), resources (financial and productive assets), and institutional structures (relations and attitudes). (See Appendix 5).

- The Global Early Adolescent Study (GEAS) empowerment module measures empowerment of girls aged 10-14, through two elements: resources (bodily integrity and critical consciousness) and agency (decision-making). The empowerment module is one of ten modules that comprise the Health Instrument.

- The WHO measure for Intimate Partner Violence is the internationally recognized gold standard for measuring women’s experiences of emotional, physical and sexual violence by a male intimate partner. However, there are a number of ethical and safety issues to be cognizant of if using this measure in a survey and you should refer to ‘Safety First’.
Measuring agency

Agency is at the heart of our model of empowerment. It refers to the capacity of women and girls to take purposeful action and pursue goals, free from the threat of violence or retribution. The three core expressions of agency are: decision-making, leadership, and collective action. These are not simply ingredients for agency; rather, they are ways that women and girls can exercise agency in their lives.

There have been many innovative methodologies developed to measure agency. Using a combination of carefully crafted indicators can be effective at capturing shifts in agency over time (for example, life stages), and in different spaces (such as the household and the community).^3

Measuring decision-making

There are several commonly used measures of decision-making that have been validated in many settings and useful for comparability across settings. The most commonly used measures across contexts in the health and agriculture sectors are:

- DHS Women’s Empowerment module (see Appendix 5)
- Women’s Empowerment in Agriculture Index (see Appendix 5)

Before using any of these measures, make sure that they are directly relevant for measuring your specific outcomes.

In every case, tailor decision-making indicators to the life stages of women and girls (married women, single women, adolescent girls, elderly women), as well as the domain and sphere (household versus public space) (see Family Planning indicator 1.2., p. x.).

In addition to measuring sole or joint decision-making, be specific about what is at stake: ability to make strategic decisions, level of influence, level of control, autonomy, or equitable decision-making. For example, equitable decision-making might be more relevant for household assets or expenditures, whereas independent decision-making and autonomy might be more critical for decisions related to body and health (see discussion in Box X).

Final outcomes that you may desire as a grant maker may not necessarily reflect empowered decision-making or bodily integrity. For example, a higher parity might be considered negative from the perspective of the grant maker because of health issues related to high fertility rates. However, a woman’s choice to have more children could have been empowered and well-informed. Alternatively, a woman’s decision to have fewer children may have been influenced by coercive control over her body by family members or lack of resources that limit her choices.
**Tips for measuring decision making**

1. **Use formative and qualitative research** to understand the extent to which women and girls are satisfied with the outcomes of the decisions that affect their lives, including those that they make. Assess if women desire decision-making control unilaterally or jointly with partner or parent, so you have clarity on interpretation of findings.

2. **Include questions or indicators that capture the processes and influences in decision-making** in addition to measuring the final outcome (see Family Planning indicator 1.1).

### AGENCY – DECISION-MAKING

#### ILLUSTRATIVE INDICATORS FOR AGRICULTURE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Outcome</th>
<th>Indicators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>From Framework 1 – Intermediate Outcome 1.1.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased women’s decision-making around (livestock) production</td>
<td>1.1.1. % of rural women with input into productive decisions¹</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.1.2. % of rural women with access to and decision-making power over credit¹</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intermediate Outcome 2.1. Increased use of agricultural interventions that improve productivity by female-managed plots</td>
<td>2.1.1. % of rural women with input over land useº</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.1.2. % of rural women with knowledge of new farming techniques</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- This indicator represents Tip#2 because it looks not just at the outcome of increased yields but who is making these decisions.
- You may use the full decision-making module from the WEAI to measure these indicators.
- This indicator overlaps with the element of Resources, specifically the dimension of knowledge and skills. By capturing women’s knowledge around agricultural interventions, it is possible to gain a greater understanding of the extent to which women are making informed decision.

#### ILLUSTRATIVE INDICATORS FOR FAMILY PLANNING

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Outcome</th>
<th>Indicators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>From Framework 2 – Intermediate Outcome 1.1.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased decision-making power related to family planning among young women in four inner-city slums in Delhi</td>
<td>1.1.1. % of women who report their husband’s disapproval as reason for discontinuing contraceptive use</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.1.2. % of women currently using family planning whose decision to use it was made independently or jointly with their husband/partner¹</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outcome 1.2. Expanded access to family planning services available to young women in four inner-city slums in Delhi</td>
<td>1.2.1. % of health care workers who believe that young women should have access to family planning services even if they aren’t married</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.2.2. # of family planning clinics in each inner-city slum</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Women’s access to contraception can be constrained or influenced by other factors, including the preference of a partner. This is important to consider when trying to understand the extent of power a woman has over her decisions.
- This indicator is also used to capture norms around access to family planning.
Tips for measuring collective action and leadership

1. **Use quantitative and qualitative measures** to capture the strength of women and girls’ organizing and mobilizing; include both membership in groups, and the influence and achievements of collective action and mobilizing.

2. **Include measures that capture the extent to which women and girls experience substantive and transformative leadership**, rather than just their presence (see WSH indicator 2.2.1.)

3. **Use participatory methods** to capture those areas and decision-making bodies that matter for women and girls’ lives, or those spheres that are male dominated and in which women and girls’ leadership is unconventional (see WSH indicator 2.1.1.).

### AGENCY - COLLECTIVE ACTION AND LEADERSHIP

#### ILLUSTRATIVE INDICATORS FOR FINANCIAL SERVICES FOR THE POOR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Outcome</th>
<th>Indicators for collective action</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Increased group strength of adolescent girls’ groups</td>
<td>1.1. % adolescent girls engaged in training or networking on business training programs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### ILLUSTRATIVE INDICATORS FOR WATER, SANITATION AND HYGIENE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Outcome</th>
<th>Indicators for collective action</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. Increased participation of women in governance related to sanitation programs and initiatives</td>
<td>2.2.1. # of women, in senior (director and above) positions in the relevant decision making body (municipal government, utility) directly involved in the design and implementation of sanitation programs and initiatives</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### ILLUSTRATIVE INDICATORS FOR WATER, SANITATION AND HYGIENE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Outcome</th>
<th>Indicators for leadership</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Increased representation of women in microfinance self-help groups</td>
<td>1.2.1. % of microfinance self-help groups led by women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2. % of female membership of self-help groups</td>
<td>1.2.2. % of female membership of self-help groups</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Measuring institutional structures

The empowerment model locates institutional structures within four spheres in which women and girls live their lives: the family, community, market and state. Within each of these spheres, institutional arrangements are shaped by formal laws and policies, norms, and relations among groups and individuals.

The environment that surrounds and conditions choices (legal, political, institutional, representational, etc.) is central to women and girls’ capacity to exercise choice and voice. Broad empowerment cannot be achieved without focusing on norms, relations, and laws and policies.

The table below provides a brief overview of terms relevant to measuring norms, and illustrative examples of how you might measure each term.

Overview of terms relevant to measuring norms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Example Survey Questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitudes</td>
<td>An attitude is an individually held belief that assesses whether something is good, bad, sacred, dirty, appropriate or inappropriate.</td>
<td>Do you believe that women should do all the household chores?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norms</td>
<td>A social norm is a collectively shared belief about typical (descriptive norm) and appropriate (injunctive norm) behavior within a reference group.</td>
<td>Do you believe that other community members expect women to do all the household chores? (Injunctive norm)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norms</td>
<td>A social norm is a collectively shared belief about typical (descriptive norm) and appropriate (injunctive norm) behavior within a reference group.</td>
<td>Among your group of friends, are men the primary breadwinners in their households? (Descriptive norm)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavior</td>
<td>A behavior is a person’s actions. Although social norms and behaviors are separate (a belief and an action), they are linked: often a social norm will predict a behavior, and a behavior can reveal a social norm.</td>
<td>Do you do all the household chores yourself?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A reference group is the group of people important to an individual when he or she is making a particular decision. For example, they could be family, village members, friends, religious authorities, celebrities, co-workers, etc. Reference groups are particularly important when understanding and measuring norms.

**Sanctions**

Social sanctions or rewards regulate group adherence to a norm. For example, shame, stigma or financial exclusion versus status, leadership or financial security.

Measurement of social norms is a newer field than measurement of individual attitudes and behaviors. However, continual improvements have been made in measuring social norms, particularly in establishing the relationship between social norms and several behaviors of interest (e.g. family planning use, FGM/C, gender-based violence). Efforts are in place to make resources, expertise and practical guidance widely accessible, through several new initiatives.¹²

Social norms are not static, and they can change alongside new roles, responsibilities, behaviors, or ideas. Capturing a range of insights about what people think and what they do can give you a more rounded picture of norms in a particular area, and how people’s attitudes and practices may be changing (see Agriculture indicators 1.1.1. and 1.1.2. on p.22).¹³

If changing social norms is a focus of your grant and you want to measure norms in detail you may want to explore ascribing and changing intent in questions targeting attitudes, behaviors and norms. For example, ask questions that explore if people react differently knowing that a norm was violated accidentally versus purposefully. Or if the norm is viewed as unchangeable, for example: % of men and women who believe that the gendered division of labor is natural and cannot be changed. This will indicate the power of the reference group, the social benefit of adhering to a norm, and how likely the norm is to change.

---

**MEASURING SOCIAL NORMS**

There is growing conceptual clarity around social norms and how they influence behavior. However, challenges remain in terms of measuring norms quantitatively. Commonly recognized challenges in this field include: finding a balance between asking enough questions to explore relevant norms and keeping data collection tools within a manageable length; wording questions to capture the social dynamics around the behaviors of interest; and generating unbiased and precise measures of behaviors and beliefs, especially around sensitive and sometimes socially censured attitudes or practices.
**Tips for measuring norms**

1. **Use formative research** to understand the culturally specific norms, policies and relations that relate to empowerment in your setting, and to build an understanding of what is acceptable or not acceptable in a community.

2. **Use methods such as vignettes to reduce social desirability bias** when measuring norms – be aware of institutional and environmental factors that influence their importance or relevance (see family planning indicator 1.2.1. and Section 4 on reducing biases).

### Institutional Structures – Norms

#### Illustrative Indicators for Agriculture

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Outcome</th>
<th>Indicators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>From Framework 1 – Intermediate Outcome 1.2&lt;br&gt;Positive shift in attitudes at the community level, in support of women's decision-making power over agricultural resources</td>
<td>1.2.1. % of men and women who believe that the gendered division of labor is natural and cannot be changed&lt;sup&gt;1&lt;/sup&gt; [Attitude]&lt;br&gt; 1.2.2. % of men and women who believe that most people in their community think that women should have decision-making power over agricultural resources [Norm]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It may be useful to measure both attitudes and norms because they may change at different rates. A change in attitudes may occur first and indicate that you are moving in the right direction towards shifting norms.

#### Illustrative Indicators for Family Planning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Outcome</th>
<th>Indicators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>From Framework 2 – Intermediate Outcome 1.1.&lt;br&gt;Increased decision-making power related to family planning among young women in four inner-city slums in Delhi</td>
<td>1.1.1. % of young women who believe that parents would look down on adolescent girls if they used contraception before they got married&lt;sup&gt;4&lt;/sup&gt; [Norm]&lt;br&gt; 1.1.2. % of young people who believe that sexually active girls/young women can refuse sex with their partner&lt;sup&gt;11&lt;/sup&gt; [Attitude]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This indicator captures any negative social sanctions in response to behaviour that deviates from the norm under investigation.

This was captured by CARE in their SNAP Tool, asking respondents - if they agree a lot, agree a little, disagree a little, disagree a lot, don’t know, or refuse – with the following questions:<br>“Parents expect adolescent girls to get married before the age of 18 years.”<br>“Parents would look down on adolescent girls if they get pregnant before they get married.”

| Outcome 1.2. Expanded access to family planning services available to young women in four inner-city slums in Delhi | 1.2.1. % of health care workers who believe that young women should have access to family planning services regardless of their age, parity or marital status [Reference Group]<br> 1.2.2. % of adolescent boys who believe that it is the responsibility of the girl to avoid getting pregnant<sup>12</sup> |

Thinking about Tip #2 you may want to consider conducting a focus group discussion with health care workers using vignettes to accurately capture their attitudes and norms related to young women's rights to family planning, and to help avoid them telling the interviewers what they think they want to hear (social desirability bias).

The GEAS Gender Norms quantitative measures includes a series of questions that capture this attitude.<br>“It is okay for an adolescent girl to have sex as long as she avoids getting pregnant.”<br>“It is okay for an adolescent boy to have sex as long as he avoids getting a girl pregnant.”<br>“It is the girl’s responsibility to prevent pregnancy. Do you agree or disagree?”<br>“Women who carry condoms on them are easy. Do you agree or disagree?”
Tips for measuring policies and laws, and relations

1. **Use power mapping or analysis tools** to understand relations in multiple relevant spheres: e.g. relations between partners/spouses or between parents and children in the family, relations between peers, and between girls and boys, as well as relations at the community level, and relations with private and public authorities and/or service providers (in market or state arena).

2. **Use qualitative research** to understand the quality of relations, including positive features (equity, trust, reciprocity, support), and a reduction of negative features (reduced levels of conflicts and threats of violence) (see indicator 1.1.1.).

### INSTITUTIONAL STRUCTURES – POLICIES AND LAWS, AND RELATIONS

#### ILLUSTRATIVE INDICATORS FOR FINANCIAL SERVICES FOR THE POOR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Outcome</th>
<th>Indicators for laws and policies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1.1. Stronger legal provisions on women's property and land rights | 1.1.1. % of women who own property or resources for the production of goods, services and/or income in their own name

#### ILLUSTRATIVE INDICATORS FOR WATER, SANITATION AND HYGIENE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Outcome</th>
<th>Indicators for laws and policies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 2.1. Greater gender equity in the laws and policies in the WSH sector | 2.1.1. # of gender-responsive policies, that formally recognize gender-specific needs and barriers, in WSH sector
| | 2.1.2. # of government WSH policies and programs that address gender and incorporate plans explicitly informed and directed by gender analysis

#### ILLUSTRATIVE INDICATORS FOR FINANCIAL SERVICES FOR THE POOR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Outcome</th>
<th>Indicators for relations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1.2. Improved quality of communication in couples on financial decisions | 1.2.1. % of women who report having discussed financial decisions with their spouse at least once in the past month
| | 1.2.2. Degree of satisfaction on inter-spousal communication reported by women

#### ILLUSTRATIVE INDICATORS FOR WATER, SANITATION AND HYGIENE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Outcome</th>
<th>Indicators for relations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 2.2. Improved identification of diverse sanitation needs of beneficiary groups and relevant barriers to accessing sanitation resources | 2.2.1. % women who report having discussed the allocation of responsibilities for operation and maintenance of WSH facilities in the home, with their spouse
| | 2.2.2. % women (out of those employed in the WSH sector) who report having a say in their job attributes and career

Indicators can be both quantitative and qualitative. Qualitative data for this indicator can be collected through in-depth interviews.
Measuring Resources

The three types of resources included in the empowerment model are bodily integrity, critical consciousness and assets.

Measuring assets: Time

As time use is the key focus of resources, in line with the previous two sub-sections, it is presented first, and illustrative outcomes and indicators are based on the Agriculture and Family Planning sectors. The other types of resources follow accordingly, and their respective outcomes and indicators are presented for the Financial Services for the Poor, and Water, Sanitation and Hygiene sectors.

Assets include both tangible and intangible economic, social, or productive resources, which can constrain or enable women and girls’ empowerment.

Time is a resource, and expectations on how it is used and the degree of control over one’s time can be unfairly affected by gender, age, nationality, class, race, ethnicity and caste. Differences or changes in gendered time allocation patterns may impact women’s empowerment through diverse effects on agency, institutions and other resources.

Taking an intersectional approach to measuring time use will help track unintended consequences, such as spill-over effects (e.g. shifts in labor burden onto girls), and help to avoid underestimating childcare time. Disaggregating by sex, age and marital status, as well as race/ethnicity, caste, income and education, will provide a more nuanced understanding of women’s time use and changing trends. Use qualitative methods to capture the nuances of people’s experiences in different contexts.
Tips for measuring time use

1. **Carry out research in different seasons** particularly for interventions in the agriculture and education sectors, where time use can vary considerably by season. A selected time sample should be representative in terms of days of a week, and total days of a year, to reflect seasonal patterns.

2. **Measure time use of multiple people**, including the division between paid and unpaid work for different members of the household.

3. **Make sure to measure multi-tasking** for the context in which your data will be collected. For example, women often care for children while preparing food, tending to livestock, and collecting water. It would be important to use a data collection tool that allows for reporting and coding of these many tasks simultaneously.

4. **Experiment with objective data collection methods**, such as wearable technology (activity trackers, necklace cameras) and observational data from service provision or work sites, etc.

5. **Definitions of work can vary by context**, so make sure to consult women and girls to develop appropriate understandings of work. For example, did they feel tired, happy, sad, stressed or burdened while performing a certain activity to identify unequal distribution of ‘unpleasant’ tasks.

### RESOURCES – TIME

**ILLUSTRATIVE INDICATORS FOR AGRICULTURE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Outcome</th>
<th>Indicator</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>From Framework 1 – Intermediate Outcome 2.1. Increased uptake of agricultural labor-saving technologies</td>
<td>2.1.1. % of rural women reporting a reduction in workload, disaggregated by age, marital status, and education</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**ILLUSTRATIVE INDICATORS FOR FAMILY PLANNING**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Outcome</th>
<th>Indicators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>From Framework 2 – Intermediate Outcome 1.1. More equitable unpaid care distribution between men and women</td>
<td>1.1.1. Average number of hours women and men spent on unpaid childcare work in the last week</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.1.2. Average number of hours men spent on unpaid domestic work in the last week</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outcome 1.2. Expanded access to family planning services available to young women in four inner-city slums in Delhi</td>
<td>1.2.1. Average number of hours women spend traveling to health clinics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.2.2. Average number of hours women spend waiting for services at health clinics</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**ILLUSTRATIVE INDICATORS FOR WATER, SANITATION AND HYGIENE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Outcome</th>
<th>Indicators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Additional example outcome More equitable distribution of time spent obtaining WSH services between men and women</td>
<td>1. Average number of hours women and men spent on fetching water for domestic use.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Average number of hours women and men spent seeking a place to defecate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Average number of hours women and men spent seeking a place to urinate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Questions on time use should be specific to avoid confusion. For example, asking about a fixed reference period such as ‘the last 7 days’ is much more likely to yield consistent interpretation than asking about vaguely defined or hypothetical reference periods.

“In the last 7 days, how much time in hours did you spend on [ACTIVITY]?”
Measuring assets: financial and productive assets, knowledge and skills and social capital

Tips for measuring assets and social capital

1. **Use a combination of indicators** to distinguish between access, use and control of financial and productive assets.

2. **Collect a range of indicators** on knowledge and skills by a range of different formal education and informal training, by sector. This will provide a better understanding of where and how women and girls acquire knowledge and skills.

3. **Use social network analysis** to measure social capital. It can also help to identify reference groups and analyze who is the most influential within a particular group (see Section 4).

### RESOURCES – ASSETS

#### ILLUSTRATIVE INDICATORS FOR FINANCIAL SERVICES FOR THE POOR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Outcome</th>
<th>Indicators for assets</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Increased access to and control of migrant women over formal credit</td>
<td>% of migrant women who have used their savings for business or money-lending$^a$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This indicator reflects Tip #1 by demonstrating an overlap with the dimension of decision-making. By measuring women’s use of personal finances, it also captures the extent of decision-making power.

#### ILLUSTRATIVE INDICATORS FOR WATER, SANITATION AND HYGIENE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Outcome</th>
<th>Indicators for assets</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reduce gender gaps in ownership and access to productive WSH assets</td>
<td>% of men and women who derive income from ownership or operation of WSH assets or from WSH enterprises</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### ILLUSTRATIVE INDICATORS FOR FINANCIAL SERVICES FOR THE POOR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Outcome</th>
<th>Indicators for knowledge and skills</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Enhanced technical skills of women with small businesses</td>
<td>% of women who use their mobile phone to pay bills$^b$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### ILLUSTRATIVE INDICATORS FOR WATER, SANITATION AND HYGIENE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Outcome</th>
<th>Indicators for knowledge and skills</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Increased WSH technical knowledge</td>
<td>% of women who report negotiating with sanitation service providers, for maintenance and operation of facilities in the home</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### RESOURCES – ASSETS – SOCIAL CAPITAL

#### ILLUSTRATIVE INDICATORS FOR FINANCIAL SERVICES FOR THE POOR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Outcome</th>
<th>Indicator for social capital</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strengthened social capital among women who joined savings clubs</td>
<td>% of women who saved money using a savings club or a person outside of the family</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Measuring resources: Bodily integrity and critical consciousness**

*Body integrity* entails a woman or girl having control over her physical and mental well-being. This includes unconstrained access to health care, and freedom from acts of violence or coercion.

Women and girls gain *critical consciousness* when they identify and question how inequalities and power operate in their lives and affirm their sense of self and their rights. As a woman or girl gains critical consciousness, her “power within” is transformed and her aspirations and sense of self-awareness, confidence, self-esteem, and self-efficacy grow. It is this internal change that enables her to exercise agency.

Ideal indicators to measure critical consciousness track: self-awareness, desire for change, aspirations for leadership, self-esteem, and perceptions of inferiority.

**Tips for measuring critical consciousness and bodily integrity**

1. Use flexible and qualitative indicators to collect data on critical consciousness. It is crucial that they are informed by women and girls’ realities and desires, and can capture unanticipated changes over time.

2. Use the WHO indicators when measuring violence against women as they are considered best-practice.25

3. Adhere to specific ethical and safety standards when measuring issues related to bodily integrity, especially violence against women and girls (see Section 4).

**RESOURCES – CRITICAL CONSCIOUSNESS AND BODILY INTEGRITY**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ILLUSTRATIVE INDICATORS FOR FINANCIAL SERVICES FOR THE POOR</th>
<th>Outcome</th>
<th>Indicators for critical consciousness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Increased awareness of labor rights among women</td>
<td>% of women who understand their employment rights</td>
<td>% of women who are confident negotiating working conditions with their employers26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ILLUSTRATIVE INDICATORS FOR WATER, SANITATION AND HYGIENE</th>
<th>Outcome</th>
<th>Indicators for critical consciousness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Increased self-efficacy of adolescent girls</td>
<td>% of adolescent girls who report confidence in safely managing their menses</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ILLUSTRATIVE INDICATORS FOR FINANCIAL SERVICES FOR THE POOR</th>
<th>Outcome</th>
<th>Indicators for bodily integrity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reduced prevalence of financial abuse against women by intimate partners</td>
<td>% of women who have experienced financial abuse by their husband/partner in the past 12 months</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ILLUSTRATIVE INDICATORS FOR WATER, SANITATION AND HYGIENE</th>
<th>Outcome</th>
<th>Indicators for critical consciousness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reduced fear of sexual harassment against adolescent girls on the way to and around water and sanitation facilities</td>
<td>% of women who had to use sanitation facilities outside of the home, in the dark (late at night or before dawn).</td>
<td>% of adolescent girls who have experienced feeling unsafe on the way to, or around water and sanitation facilities</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Transformative change is dynamic and iterative and empowerment as a process of social transformation is a journey that takes diverse pathways that can be unpredictable and non-linear. Changes in existing power relations might lead to increased tension and violence towards women and girls even as they develop greater agency. For example, unintended consequences could include: increased conflict; violence; time burden; and transfer of responsibilities to others who may be more marginalized. These incidences of backlash and unintended consequences are important to capture to determine the extent of women and girls’ empowerment.

### Example indicators to capture backlash and unintended consequences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Indicator</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Decision-making</td>
<td>% of adolescent girls who report being ineligible for marriage (for example, in relation to a cash transfer program that increased girls’ financial knowledge)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td># of days girls have missed school to help with production in the past year (for example, to capture unintended increases in workload)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norms</td>
<td>% of women who have experienced financial abuse by a partner in the past 12 months (for example, in relation to a program that seeks to challenge harmful norms around women’s control of their income)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Mixed-methods

As Section 3 explained, measuring empowerment means tracking changes in the access to and exercise of choice, voice and power over time, and comparing these changes across populations. Ideally, your approach should include both qualitative and quantitative methods in what is often called a mixed-method approach. A mixed-methods approach is the most effective way to capture these complex power relations and the multiple, intersecting elements of empowerment. Although a mixed-methods approach can be more time and resource intensive, both in terms of the data collection and analysis process, it is the most effective way to shed light on local processes that are either facilitating or hindering program effectiveness.

There are several commonly used mixed-methods approaches to measuring empowerment.

These include:

- **Outcome mapping** – a mixed-methods, participatory approach to planning, monitoring and evaluation, that is designed to define and track the intermediate changes in a pathway towards longer-term programmatic outcomes.
- **WEAI** – a tool comprised of two sub-indexes: one measures how empowered women are within five domains, and the other measures gender parity in empowerment within the household. The WEAI includes qualitative methods which allows for a more diverse understanding of what empowerment means for different people, better understanding of context and social norms, and gives meaning to the quantitative numbers, and where cut-offs for each domain should be.

Gender-sensitive Evaluation for Measuring Women and Girls’ Empowerment

Any evaluation of women and girls’ empowerment should ideally be gender-sensitive and participatory. For more information on such evaluation approaches see:

- International Development Research Centre, Engendering policy through evaluation. This website provides links to other websites and references for conducting feminist evaluations.
- R, Murthy. 2015. Toolkit on gender-sensitive participatory evaluation methods. The purpose of this toolkit is to strengthen the use of gender-sensitive participatory evaluation methods in evaluation practice in India. It is a useful resource that can be applied to a number of contexts, for practitioners working in empowerment and poverty reduction.
- Batiwala, S. and Pittman, Association for Women’s Rights in Development (AWID) 2010, Capturing change in women’s realities: a critical overview of current monitoring and evaluation frameworks and approaches. This document provides a critique of current monitoring and evaluation frameworks and approaches as experienced by women’s organizations and movements worldwide along with an analysis of a large number of M&E frameworks and tools.
- Better Evaluation – Feminist Evaluation. This website provides an overview of feminist evaluation, including the basic concepts, the difference between gender approaches and feminist evaluation, advice for using feminist evaluation as well as some key examples.
The Child Grant Programme in Zambia, aimed to increase women’s empowerment through a poverty-targeted, unconditional transfer for mothers or primary care-givers of young children aged 0-5. The evaluation used a mixed-methods approach: an RCT at the community and household levels; and in-depth interviews with women and male partners. The survey instrument included a module on women’s empowerment, saving and future expectations that contained questions on intra-household decision-making. The qualitative component included questions, probes and follow-ups around gender norms and activities, economic empowerment, decision-making and the impact of the program on intra-household relationships. These themes were intentionally chosen to explore pathways and triangulate quantitative results, and to investigate how women and men view and conceptualize empowerment. The quantitative data found that the women in beneficiary households were making more sole and joint decisions, though increases were only cited among sole decisions related to the woman’s own health. Qualitatively, the study found that changes in intra-household relationships were limited by entrenched gender norms, which indicate men as heads of household and primary decision-makers. However, women’s narratives showed that the transfer did increase overall household well-being because they felt increased financial empowerment and were able to retain control over transfers for household investment and savings for emergencies.
### Quantitative data collection methods

Quantitative data can be useful for tracking changes in empowerment or different elements of empowerment over a period of time, and for monitoring and formal evaluation. For example, quantitative methods are particularly useful to analyze variables in large samples, that have been identified through qualitative research. Quantitative research is also effective at overcoming researcher bias and avoids over-generalizing findings, which can occur through qualitative methods. However, they do not easily answer questions such as ‘why has agency increased/decreased?’ or ‘how have gender norms changed or improved?’. This is why it is important to use a mixed-methods approach for a holistic measurement of empowerment.

A variety of methods can be used to measure empowerment. You just need to take into consideration the four principles outlined in Section 2. There are many additional quantitative data collection methods that are not included in the table below including cohort studies, and case control studies.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>When to use it</th>
<th>Key considerations when using this method to measure empowerment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **HOUSEHOLD SURVEYS**    | Surveys are a commonly used method of measurement because they can be used to collect large amounts of quantitative, representative data which can show change over time. Surveys are useful for collecting data on knowledge, attitudes or behaviors. Time use tools can be inserted into household surveys to gather data on time use. | • The gender of the enumerator is important because of power relations and social norms in different contexts. Women may not be comfortable talking about sensitive issues related to ‘bodily integrity’ with a male enumerator and vice versa. Age of the enumerator may also influence disclosure and quality of data.  
• Make sure that enumerators received adequate training to be able to talk about sensitive issues related to empowerment in ethical and safe ways. |
| **PARTICIPATORY MONITORING** | Participatory monitoring is an effective method of empowerment measurement because it captures and grounds measurement directly through women and girls’ understanding of empowerment. | • Participatory monitoring is most often useful at the formative stage when establishing the results framework, and for developing indicators that are reflective of women and girls’ voices.  
• Unless engaged with intentionally, the most marginalized populations can be inadvertently excluded. |
| **COMMUNITY SCORECARD**  | A community scorecard is useful to measure the relations element of the empowerment model. In particular, they can be used to evaluate the impact of service delivery on empowerment from both the user perspective and the service provider. Community scorecards are also useful for gathering data at both the project and community level. | • Women and girls who do not access services are excluded from a community scorecard method. Consider how to engage those women and girls who have been excluded.  
• Pay attention to group dynamics and consider how to ensure that a diverse range of women and girls’ voices are represented and heard. |
| **SOCIAL NETWORK ANALYSIS** | Social network analysis (SNA) is a body of methods developed for analyzing relationships and social capital within a network. It can capture the relations and social capital dimensions of the empowerment model, as well as how these influence the flow of resources, leadership and the reinforcement of norms. SNA is mainly used at the community level, and can also facilitate cross-country comparisons. For this reason, SNA is most useful for impact evaluations to assess changes in social networks. | • Be aware that this method does not indicate the relative importance of ‘what’ is shared in networks for women and girls’ agency or how power flows through networks.  
• This method is accompanied by dedicated software, and so requires skilled implementers with training on SNA software.  
• This method can also be used to analyze big data, such as social media data. |
## Qualitative data collection methods

Qualitative research methods are useful for assessing community needs, designing prevention campaigns, planning and evaluating interventions, and engaging community actors via participatory research. They are also useful in designing and field-testing questionnaires, and in interpreting quantitative research findings. Qualitative methods can provide deeper insight into meaning, motivations and dynamics around women and girls’ empowerment. The table below provides an illustrative list of commonly used methods for qualitative data collection. A variety of methods can be used to measure empowerment, provided that the principles outlined in Section 2 are applied.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>When to use it</th>
<th>Key considerations when using this method to measure empowerment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSIONS         | Focus group discussions (FGDs) are useful for capturing information on attitudes or opinions and why they are held, unpacking the progress and achievements of a program, and when different perspectives and points of views of stakeholders need to be explored. They are useful for collecting data on the empowerment dimensions of decision-making, critical consciousness, and norms. | • Be aware that FGDs are not ideal for very sensitive topics and should not be used where total confidentiality is required, for example when asking about experiences of violence.  
• The group setting can influence the responses of the individual; a dominant member of the discussion could affect the outcomes. For instance, marginalized participants may not be comfortable sharing individual or collective experiences of discrimination in access to micro-credit schemes. Well-trained and experienced facilitators can help to mediate this risk. |
| IN-DEPTH INTERVIEWS             | In-depth interviews are well suited to collecting data on social norms, attitudes and behaviors, as well processes of change, and nuances around decision-making. Interviews are also useful for collecting data on individual as opposed to collective opinions. The data captured is often valuable for triangulating or confirming data captured by other methods. | • The gender and age of the interviewer are important because of power relations and social norms in different contexts.  
• Ensure interviews are conducted in a private and confidential space, especially if talking about sensitive topics. |
| EMBEDDED ETHNOGRAPHY            | Embedded ethnography is used to understand an ongoing process or situation. It is useful for understanding empowerment in a holistic way to see how different elements interact in a situation. Embedded ethnography also provides direct information about behavior of individuals and groups, rather than relying on what people said they did, and is helpful in identifying unanticipated outcomes. | • Think about the power dynamics between the observer and the community and how this impacts behavior. People usually perform better when they know they are being observed. For example, if you are observing time use and social norms around the gendered division of labor, participants may be inclined to behave more favorably. See the section on overcoming measurement bias below.  
• This method requires well-qualified, highly-trained observers. They need to understand gender dynamics and the specific cultural context in order to accurately interpret what they observe.  
• Embedded ethnography is time and labor intensive and so can be more costly. |
| BODY MAPPING                    | Body mapping is an interactive tool to obtain visual representation of women and girls’ ability to assert choice and articulate voice over resources (including bodily integrity). It is most valuable at the formative stage to understand the link between resources and expressions of agency. Body mapping can be used at the project and community level. | • Consider comparing maps between different groups to stimulate dialogue around key constraints and opportunities for empowerment, and to highlight intersectionality.  
• Try to explore both individual and institutional constraints to understand the relationship between inequalities in access to, use and control over resources and freedom of movement.  
• Ensure facilitators are well-trained and experienced.  
• Body mapping can be used both as an intervention as well as a data collection methodology. |
Participatory evaluation is an approach that involves the stakeholders of a program in the evaluation process. This can occur at any stage of the evaluation process: design, data collection and analysis, and reporting. A participatory approach can be taken with any impact evaluation design and with quantitative and qualitative data. The purpose of the evaluation will dictate the type and level of stakeholder involvement, and this will maximize the effectiveness of the approach. When done well, this approach can empower participants and aligns with the key principles for measuring empowerment.

Participatory evaluation approaches are practiced in a variety of ways: self-assessment, stakeholder evaluation, internal evaluation and joint evaluation. It can also include story-telling, participatory social mapping, outcome mapping, causal linkage and trend and change diagramming, scoring, and brainstorming on program strengths and weaknesses.

For further discussion on using participatory methods for measuring empowerment, including measurement of time use, see Appendix 7.

There are many additional qualitative data collection methods that are not included in the table above:

- Collecting stories and narratives – provides an insight into how people experience their lives. The process of collecting stories usually begins with an interview, whether in groups or in individual interviews. Story-telling is useful for evaluation, and can be used to focus on a particular intervention while also reflecting on the different contextual factors that influence outcomes.
  - Participatory visual storytelling – this an umbrella term for a variety of methodologies embedded in action research used to empower project participants in telling their life story through digital media such as photography or video.

- Life histories – these can be collected through semi or unstructured interviews to develop highly nuanced narratives of individual’s experiences relating to social norms and attitudes, and to track changes in individual awareness or beliefs about gender roles.

- Sensemaker – a narrative-based research methodology to collect and analyze large numbers of stories for understanding complex change, with active participation of project participants. It involves a dedicated software package for collection and analysis.

- Case studies – a useful tool that captures a clear story or example of the processes or experiences of a program, in relation to specific domains of change. A number of different data collection methods can be used to build a case study and to triangulate the information retrieved.

- Most Significant Change approach – a participatory method that looks for stakeholders’ perspectives on the impact of a program. Putting this method into action can involve both semi-structured interviews to gather participants’ stories about change, and focus group discussions to determine whether stories most accurately describe the changes occurring.

- Voice, Action, Comportment and Opportunity (VACO) checklist – this checklist is an evaluation tool used to measure girls’ empowerment and leadership. It links program staff’s observations and participant’s self-reports of skill building. (See Appendix 7)

- Journals or log keeping – a useful method for tracking lessons learned and challenges as they are experienced during the implementation and/or evaluation of a program, from the perspective of those involved.
QUALITATIVE APPROACH: KISSA KAHANI, UTTAR PRADESH, INDIA

The Kissa Kahani project combined body mapping with multimedia approaches to empower adolescents to communicate experiences – daily lives, hopes and dreams – around reproductive health in the urban region of Uttar Pradesh, India. This two-year project used storytelling and narrative based research methods to understand adolescent sexual and reproductive health through storytelling to support youth focused solutions to barriers in sexual and reproductive health. At the heart of the approach is an emphasis on strengthening the voice of young people.

This approach uses innovative methodologies including art, storytelling, and games that provide new information about young people’s lives. In addition to producing the digital stories, Ci3 used a variety of narrative based research tools to further build out the ecological framework of a young person in the study area.

Methods for mitigating measurement bias

Section 2 mentioned the particular challenges of reporting and measurement bias relevant for studies of empowerment. A variety of methods can be used to overcome this bias, as long as the principles outlined in Section 2 are applied. A selection of these methods is provided in the table below, though this is not an exhaustive list.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>When to use it</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RANDOM RESPONSE TECHNIQUE</td>
<td>The Random Response Technique is an approach that can be used in surveys to decrease social desirability bias and obtain reliable estimates. This survey technique determines whether a respondent answers sensitive questions or not, blinded to the interviewer. It is useful when dealing with sensitive personal issues. Random response technique is best self-administered and in face-to-face interviews.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VIGNETTES</td>
<td>Vignettes are a simple technique that places respondents in hypothetical situations. They can provide a less personal way of exploring sensitive topics. Vignettes are well-suited to gathering data on social norms and processes behind decision-making. Vignettes are best used in self-administered and face-to-face interviews or focus group discussions. See Appendix 5 for a discussion on using vignettes to measure social norms.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMPLICIT ASSOCIATION TEST</td>
<td>Implicit Association Test (IAT) is the automatic association between mental representations of objects in memory. It is used to elicit (implicit) associations and capture attitudes that cannot be measured through explicit self-reporting methods. It is useful for overcoming social desirability. IAT can be used in self-administered and face-to-face interviews.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACASI ELECTRONIC SURVEYS</td>
<td>Self-administered surveys can be done by either paper or electronic means. Electronic surveys allow the survey to be read out-loud, which is helpful for illiterate populations. They can be self-administered with audio files to ask questions or can be administered from a distance, to provide a more confidential assessment. Audio Computer-Assisted Self-Interview (ACASI) uses a computer as an interviewer. The questions are generated through the computer itself. The ACASI method is useful for dealing with sensitive personal issues.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIE SCALE</td>
<td>The Lie Scale is a set of items that can be included in a survey to capture lying. It is often used by psychologists to indicate whether or not a respondent has been truthful in other parts of the survey.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
There are things that you can do to improve the measurement of empowerment at each stage of the grant:

1. Developing your monitoring and evaluation design.
2. Implementing research.
3. Analyzing data and sharing results.
4. Feeding evaluation findings back into program design.

Stage 1 – Developing the evaluation design

Expected change over time

Change in empowerment measures will likely be non-linear and take time. Have realistic expectations about what can change in the grant timeline, and develop indicators and methods accordingly.

Think about how much time is necessary or reasonable to observe change as a result of your grant – use short, medium and long-term goals to track change.

Your choice of research and evaluation design – between formative research and process evaluation; impact evaluation; experimental evaluations – should be based on how well established the program is and existing evidence of its effectiveness against your intended outcome [see figure below].
Staff and expertise
Measuring women and girls’ empowerment requires a combination of expertise in monitoring and evaluation, gender, facilitation skills, and participatory approaches. Having different skillsets will be both necessary and useful at different stages of measurement: formative stage; implementation stage; impact evaluation.
Also take into account issues of intersectionality by including people on the research team who represent diverse backgrounds, and have expertise in issues related to race, ethnicity, class, disability and other possible areas of disadvantage.

Resources: finances and time
Because empowerment is complex and non-linear, make sure you build in adequate resources (budgets, time, dedicated staff) for adaptive programming and learning. This means having enough money for formative research; process evaluations and learning; iterative feedback loops; and dissemination of learning from empowerment programming and measurement. Resources might also be needed for ongoing capacity building and mentoring of implementing partners and stakeholders, on gender analytical skills, learning oriented M&E and participatory approaches.
Allow enough time to ensure your measures are fit-for-purpose. This includes time for adapting measures to cultural and sector context, and training of enumerators. Also, build in time to share findings from the evaluation with a diverse range of stakeholders.

Stage 2 – Implementation
Use a feminist approach to evaluation to challenge unequal power relations, and make sure that the principles of measurement are reflected throughout the process. Reflect and evaluate throughout the implementation process. Interventions require flexibility in their design to allow for adaptations, as well as continuous monitoring and long term engagement.

Participatory approach
Evaluation is a tool for transformation and change, and the process of evaluation can be empowering in and of itself. To achieve this, the participation of and accountability to women and girls is key. Use participatory processes that support reflection, capacity building and learning, and create knowledge to be used by participants rather than to provide solutions. Participatory approaches to measurement that create space and actively privilege marginalized perspectives are opportunities to validate different types of knowledge that are of greater relevance to empowerment and can be empowering in themselves.

Stage 3 – Analyzing data and sharing results
When conducting your analysis, disaggregate data by different demographic variables to understand the unique experiences of different populations.
Build in time and resources for sense-making of the findings with communities. Undertake a joint process of analyzing or understanding the data and, in particular, ensure the engagement of women and girls throughout the process.
Consider how data from the evaluation can be effectively communicated to key stakeholders. Communicate in a way that is accessible, useful and tailored for your audiences. For example, when communicating with your community, a brochure summarizing key points may be more appropriate than a long report. Drip-feeding information to generate interest in your grant and the final evaluation report is also an effective method.

Stage 4 – Feeding back into program design
Look at the feedback from your key findings and identify which parts of your grant worked well and what parts may need to be re-thought. Be sure to include women and girls in the feedback loop, and use their feedback to address any unintended consequences, and to adapt and evolve the process. The feedback from the evaluation will provide lessons, insights and recommendations for future grants. These takeaways will also be useful for scaling up programs, or adapting to other contexts.

Moving forward
A gender intentional approach to measurement and investment design is imperative for us to achieve our goal of helping all people lead healthy and productive lives.
In the words of Srilatha Batliwala, “empowerment of women that will have lasting impacts must involve consciousness raising before the social construction of gender, which subordinates women in the family, class, caste, religion, or society, can be changed.”

Women and girls’ empowerment is central to social and economic development. By putting this goal front and center, we are embarking on a new chapter at the foundation – one that is both innovative and grounded in rigorous evidence. And although it will be a complex process, improving the lives of women and girls, and therefore their communities, it is a cause deserving of the highest degree of effort and dedication.
### Appendix 1: Results frameworks with indicators

#### Results framework 1: Empowerment as a primary outcome

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary outcome</th>
<th>Intermediate outcomes</th>
<th>Outputs</th>
<th>Indicators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Increase women's control over resources (for example, livestock)</td>
<td>1.1 Increase women’s decision-making around (livestock) production</td>
<td>1.1.1 Discussion space supported for female farmers to discuss issues around land rights, ownership and decision-making.</td>
<td>% of rural women with input into productive decisions. % of rural women with access to and decision-making power over credit.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.2 Positive shift in attitudes at the community level, in support of women’s decision-making power over agricultural resources.</td>
<td>1.2.1. Community leaders trained on a weekly basis on the benefits of women’s active involvement in decision-making related to agricultural activities. 1.2.2 Radio campaigns broadcast on women and farming. 1.2.3 New edutainment programs developed and aired on radio and television.</td>
<td>% of men and women who believe that the gendered division of labor is natural and cannot be changed % of men and women who believe that most people in their community think that women should have decision-making power over agricultural production.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Increased land productivity for female-managed plots.</td>
<td>2.1 Increased use of agricultural interventions that improve productivity for female-managed plots.</td>
<td>2.1.1 Female farmers attended training on farming practices, seed varieties, and new technologies. 2.1.2 Agricultural technologies that are prioritized by women and reduce women’s triple burden are introduced.</td>
<td>% of rural women using mobile phones to access new farming practices.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Results framework 2: Empowerment as an intermediate outcome

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary outcome</th>
<th>Intermediate outcomes</th>
<th>Outputs</th>
<th>Indicators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Increased contraceptive use among young women (15-24) in four inner-city slums in Delhi</td>
<td>1.1 Increased decision-making power among young women (15-24) in four inner-city slums in Delhi</td>
<td>1.1.1 Young women receive training on family planning, SRH, and HIV. Training includes a module on negotiating condom use with partners 1.1.2 Regular community meetings held with young women, husbands/partners, in-laws, religious leaders etc, to discuss family planning and SRH</td>
<td>% of women who report their husband’s disapproval for discontinuing contraceptive use % of women currently using family planning whose decision to use it was made independently or jointly with their husband/partner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.2 Expanded access to family planning services available to young women (15-24) in four inner-city slums in Delhi</td>
<td>2.1.1 Clinical providers of family planning are trained in gender awareness, and interpersonal communication 1.2.2 Service provision restrictions based on age and/or marital status are removed</td>
<td>% of health care workers who believe that young women should have access to family planning even if they are not married # of family planning clinics in each inner-city slum</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Agency

The following results frameworks place the dimensions of agency as either a primary or intermediate outcome.

### Decision-making

**Family planning**

This results framework is an adaptation of the investment, Improving Adolescent Reproductive Health and Nutrition in Ethiopia through Structural Solutions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary outcome</th>
<th>Intermediate outcomes</th>
<th>Outputs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1. Increased decision-making power among adolescent girls in four districts in West Hararghe by 2020. | 1.1 Increased adolescent girls’ (13-17 year olds) skills in negotiation, advocacy, understanding of their bodies, confidence, social cohesion, and aspirations in four districts of West Hararghe by 2020. | 1.1.1 Life skills curriculum developed with adolescent girls by the end of year one for the in-school girls.  
1.1.2 In-school girls’ group formed and meeting regularly and, e.g., supported with dissemination of adolescent girls’ puberty book and edutainment. |
| 1.2 A change in social norms regarding SRH, nutrition, early marriage, and increasing the value of adolescent girls among reference groups including parents, in-laws, boys, husbands, and peers in four districts of West Hararghe by 2020. | 1.2.1 Barrier analysis of social norms conducted with adolescent girls by the end of year one.  
1.2.2 Women’s Development Army and Farmers Groups meeting regularly with reference groups. |
| 2. By 2020 demonstrated support for evidence-based scale-up in West Hararghe zone and beyond. | 2.1 Increased multi-stakeholder support for the A+ approach beyond the zone (e.g. by the Ethiopian Adolescents Technical Working Group by 2020). | 2.1.1 Lesson learning and influencing of key stakeholders, e.g. through field visits and presentations at joint reviews of annual progress. |

### Financial services for the poor

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary outcome</th>
<th>Intermediate outcomes</th>
<th>Outputs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Increased decision-making power over allocation of household income among married women in two rural regions of Pakistan. | Increased access to mobile banking services among married women in two rural regions of Pakistan. | • Married women receive training in financial services, management and tools.  
• Married women (banking customers) are enrolled for mobile money services. |
| Expanded coverage of digital payment systems in two rural regions of Pakistan. | Increased uptake of digital payment systems by small business owners in two rural regions of Pakistan. | • Small business owners attend training on digital payment systems.  
• Stakeholders engaged to provide support to ongoing development of digital payment systems. |

### Agriculture

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary outcome</th>
<th>Intermediate outcomes</th>
<th>Outputs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Increased decision-making power among female farmers in rural Malawi. | Increased access to agricultural products among female farmers in rural Malawi. | • Female farmers receive credit to buy agricultural products, such as livestock, seedlings and tools.  
• Female farmers attend training on business leadership in agriculture. |
| Improved knowledge about digital technologies to assist in farm production, female farmers in rural Malawi | Workshops held to inform and engage female farmers on emerging digital technologies. Training also includes general guidance around crop and livestock development. |
### Institutional structures
The following results framework locates norms, relations and laws and policies as either primary or intermediate outcomes.

### Norms
**Agriculture**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary outcome</th>
<th>Intermediate outcomes</th>
<th>Outputs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1. Improved access to small business loans for women in three rural regions of Peru. | 1.1 Improved business development knowledge among women in three rural regions of Peru. | 1.1.1 200 women receive small business loans.  
1.1.2 Women receive training in business and negotiation skills and financial literacy. |
| | 1.2 The policy and institutional context is improved for women farmers and entrepreneurs. | 1.2.1 Removing policy barriers to women’s participation in agricultural value chains (e.g. supporting women’s ability to register a business/take out a loan/buy land).  
1.2.2 Supporting the formal recognition of women’s agricultural work. |
| 2. Positive shift in gender norms towards women’s role in the formal economy among women and men in in three rural regions of Peru. | 2.1 Improved knowledge and understanding among men about the benefits of women’s engagement in the formal economy.  
*Shifting harmful norms around gender roles, particularly women’s contribution outside of the household, can increase their agency and their access to financial and productive assets.* | 2.1.1 Men trained in gender equality and women’s economic empowerment.  
2.1.2 Social mobilization routinely implemented  
2.1.3 Support women’s community leadership. |

### Resources
The following results framework locates bodily integrity, critical consciousness and assets as either primary or intermediate outcomes.

### Assets - Time
**Water, sanitation and hygiene**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary outcome</th>
<th>Intermediate outcomes</th>
<th>Outputs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1. Improved access to water supplies in four inner-city slums in Delhi. | 1.1 Reduction in time spent fetching water among women in four inner-city slums in Delhi. | 1.1.1 Evidence produced on the cost-effectiveness of enhanced water services for local communities.  
1.1.2 Enhanced water services rolled out in four inner-city slums.  
1.1.3 Local infrastructure is safe and designed for women and children. |
| | 1.2 Adoption of local strategy for improving access to water facilities for all residents of four inner-city slums in Delhi. | 1.2.1 Women’s advisory panel is established to inform stakeholders about the gendered aspects of water services and access.  
1.2.2 Learning data on the cost-effectiveness of enhanced water services for local communities generated, analyzed and shared with local government. |
## Appendix 3: Additional indicators

### Agency

#### Decision-making

**Water, sanitation and hygiene**
- % of women who share equal WSH decision-making in the household
- % of women in job skills training on operation and maintenance of water supply and sanitation, including for technical and managerial roles
- % of girls reporting any restrictions on their freedom during menstruation

**Family planning**
- # of births to adolescent girls aged 15-19 that occurred in the last year

**Agriculture**
- % of rural women with access to and decision-making power over credit

#### Financial services for the poor
- % of women who have control over personal decisions related to finances/income
- % of women who have control over use of their husband’s income
- % of women who work for an income, who have control over how their income is spent
- % of women accessing credit for food production

#### Collective action

**Family planning**
- # of young people trained as peer educators in SRH who are active during a reference period

**Agriculture**
- % of rural women who participate in farmers’ associations

**Financial services for the poor**
- % women engaged in training or networking
- # of women who are members of a microfinance group

#### Leadership

**Water, sanitation and hygiene**
- # of women who attend a community water user group

**Family planning**
- # of adolescents involved in the design of materials and activities and in the implementation of a program on SRH

**Agriculture**
- % of rural women in leadership roles with decision-making power on agriculture

#### Institutional Structures

##### Attitudes and norms

**Water, sanitation and hygiene**
- % of parents who believe it is acceptable to talk to their children about menstruation

**Family planning**
- % of women who believe that an ideal family would consist of more boys than girls
- % of women who approve of family planning
- # of men who believe a man should attend the birth of his children

**Financial services for the poor**
- % of women and men who agree that if money is scarce, girls and boys should have equal priority to remain in school
- % of community members who believe that women should have the right to spend their own money how they want
### Laws and policies

#### Water, sanitation and hygiene
Existence of locally relevant policy that promotes good menstrual hygiene management (e.g. regulations that stipulate menstrual disposal facilities in school toilets)

% of governments who have in place fiscal policies that encourage menstrual hygiene management (e.g. removal of VAT on menstrual hygiene products)

#### Family planning
% of women who know their right to SRH

% of budget allocation to family planning

#### Agriculture
Adoption of explicit laws or clauses in existing legislation that reduce or eliminate gender discrimination in land rights

% of rural women who hold land titles (where appropriate disaggregated by caste, ethnicity, disability)

### Relations

#### Water, sanitation and hygiene
% of health centers teaching good menstrual hygiene management in their reproductive health clinics

#### Family planning
% of women who report being treated fairly by health care workers

# of laws/acts addressing social, gender, ethnic and religious discrimination in hospitals

#### Agriculture
% of households with joint ownership of property and productive assets

% of women with access to financial services

#### Financial services for the poor
% of women accessing formal credit sources over the last year

# of women who have received a bank loan over the last year

### Resources

#### Critical consciousness

#### Family planning
% of women using contraception who were informed about the side effects of the method used

% of women who have experienced a shift in the allocation of household labor and so can devote more time to enterprise development

#### Agriculture
% of rural women with autonomy in agriculture

% of rural women using mobile phones to access new innovations

#### Financial services for the poor
# of women who have improved self-esteem which has enabled them to increase business risk-taking

### Time

#### Water, sanitation and hygiene
# of hours spent by women collecting water (disaggregate by time frame/reference period)

# of hours saved by women using improved water and sanitation services

#### Agriculture
# of hours rural women save per day as a result of agricultural innovation

% of rural women satisfied with the available time for leisure activities

#### Financial services for the poor
Average number of hours adolescent girls and boys spend on unpaid domestic duties, including childcare, in the last week

% of women who report being underemployed
### Knowledge and skills

| Water, sanitation and hygiene | # of girls with improved knowledge of and attitudes of MHM
| Family planning | % of all women who know any contraceptive method, by specific method
| Family planning | % of health care workers with adequate knowledge around SRH
| Financial services for the poor | % of adolescent girls enrolled in business development/vocational courses

### Social capital

| Water, sanitation and hygiene | % of adolescent girls who attend school during menstruation
| Family planning | # of self-help groups that provide maternal health services, to women
| Agriculture | % of women who are members of farming networks
| Financial services for the poor | # of women provided with social protection, such as basic nutritional support

### Bodily integrity

| Water, sanitation and hygiene | % of girls reporting a lack of privacy or feeling unsafe when using the sanitary facilities at school
| Family planning | % of pregnant women who ask permission from their husband before seeking pre-natal care
| Agriculture | % of married women whose husband/partner has control over contraceptive use
| Financial services for the poor | % of women who report feeling safe using public transport to get to work

### Financial and productive assets

| Water, sanitation and hygiene | % of women who have paid for a private toilet to be installed in their house
| Family planning | % of women who own a house alone
| Family planning | % of households with a female head
| Agriculture | % of female farmers who own agricultural assets
| Agriculture | # of rural women who have access to new agricultural technologies, resulting in increased crop value
| Financial services for the poor | % of women who report feeling safe using public transport to get to work

### Example survey questions:

**Example survey questions:**

Has your partner ever told you not to use contraception, blocked you from getting a method, or hid or taken away your contraception?

This indicator can be used in combination with contraceptive use indicators measuring decision-making. A woman’s control over her bodily integrity can determine whether she has access to contraception – link between decision-making and control of access to resources.
Appendix 4: Existing quantitative measures of women’s empowerment: An assessment of the DHS women’s empowerment module and the Women’s Empowerment in Agriculture Index

The following two case studies provide a brief overview of existing quantitative measures of women’s empowerment. The DHS Women’s Empowerment module and the WEAI are two of the most commonly used measures.

**DHS Women’s Empowerment module**

The DHS measures various aspects of women’s empowerment, including the elements of: agency (decision-making), resources (financial and productive assets), institutional structures (relations and attitudes). There are many surveys that use these measures from the empowerment module. The DHS has been used and validated across many countries and so can provide cross-country comparable data. Many countries have also done the DHS multiple times, which may give you multiple data points over time.

However, there are some limitations to this module. Firstly, it is a relatively simplistic measure of empowerment and will not necessarily be perfectly aligned, or fit-for-purpose for your grant. Moreover, the DHS makes assumptions about what empowerment for women in relationships looks like. For example, the questions on sole or joint decision-making tend to assume that independent decision-making is better. However, joint decision-making may reflect a more empowered and healthy relationship from the perspective of the woman. Or she may feel empowered and have chosen not to be involved in certain aspects of household decision-making. Thus, you may want to consider adding additional quantitative or qualitative indicators that capture the level of influence, or pairing the DHS module with more participatory and innovative research methods.

**Quantitative approach: Women’s Empowerment in Agriculture Index (WEAI)**

The WEAI measures the empowerment, agency, and the inclusion of women in the agriculture sector. This index shows to what extent women are empowered and have control over certain aspects of their lives within the household and community focused mainly on how expressions of agency are related to access and control over resources. Additionally, the tool measures women’s empowerment in comparison to men, to highlight the degree of inequality between them within the household. It is a predominantly quantitative approach with qualitative add-ons to understand empowerment in agriculture programs. However, the WEAI is not relevant for other sectors outside of agriculture or in urban settings, and it does not disaggregate by age to capture girls, or life cycle.

The A-WEAI (Abbreviated WEAI) is a shortened version of the WEAI. It provides better articulation of expressions of agency (control, ownership over assets and autonomy on decision making) using vignettes. The Pro-WEAI (Project WEAI) is an extension of the A-WEAI to give the flexibility to add specialized project relevant modules (still under development). Its add-on modules allow for more context specific understanding of empowerment in different agricultural projects. Moreover, its inclusion of qualitative methods allows for a more diverse understanding of what empowerment means for different people, better understanding of context and social norms, and gives meaning to the quantitative numbers, and where cut-offs for each domain should be.
Appendix 5: Measuring social norms for better project design

Abdiboru [Improving Adolescent Reproductive Health and Nutrition through Structural Solutions] is an operations intervention [funded by the foundation], focused on reducing early marriage and improving health and nutrition outcomes for young adolescent girls in Ethiopia. In this project, CARE looked at how to shift and measure changes in gendered social norms more systematically and precisely. There were four measurement stages and methods used: formative research to identify social norms, sanctions and reference groups; quantitative surveys, qualitative interviews and vignettes in FGDs at baseline to verify social norms, assess strength, identify ‘cracks’ in norms and opportunities for interventions; activity monitoring and observation at the monitoring stage to observe signs of norm change and to monitor backlash; and quantitative surveys, qualitative interviews and vignettes in FGDs at endline to assess changes in social norms, and correlate with changes in behavior and attitudes.

Qualitative vignettes were extremely useful for identifying norms, attitudes and beliefs, and provided compelling evidence of causal links between norms and practices. CARE developed a Social Norms Analysis Plot (SNAP) tool to help staff to identify changes in social norms. The tool introduces study participants to a hypothetical scenario (a ‘vignette’) and the context in which a practice takes place. It then explores participants’ expectations related to that practice. Next, it introduces a twist in the narration (i.e. a character in this story does not comply with the norm), setting the stage for questions related to potential sanctions and exceptions to the norm. CARE reported that the vignettes worked particularly well and generated data in ways that direct questions would not have done.

This additional data in the formative stage uncovered some important nuances that impacted the design of the baseline tools. For instance, FGDs revealed that girls themselves could also be a driving force in the decision to marry early, and were influenced by their peers. The implementation strategy may have otherwise missed this important reference group because traditional thinking was that adults were the main driving force. Additionally, data revealed a lack of negative social sanctions for violating one of the social norms on girls’ education, thus challenging assumptions about what social norms were influencing decisions for girls to drop out of school.
Appendix 6: Measuring empowerment for better investments

How measuring empowerment can help you make better investments

One of the key goals of the foundation’s Family Planning Strategy is to increase uptake in contraceptive information, services and supplies to 120 million women and girls by 2020. An evaluation of a grant may, for example, demonstrate an increase in the supply of contraceptives but a limited increase in the uptake of contraceptive services by women in the community. If we do not intentionally measure gender and empowerment issues, we will not fully understand the barriers that may be preventing the achievement of better outcomes of the project.

In reality, uptake of contraceptive services is not simply a matter of demand and supply. Major decisions around when and with whom to have sex or how to protect oneself from unwanted pregnancies or sexually transmitted diseases are decisions that are strongly affected by power dynamics related to gender and age, often in intersections with other social markers such as socioeconomic status, sexual orientation, ethnicity, race or caste. Male partners or relatives may restrict women and girls from accessing services and using contraceptives. Experiences of violence may severely curtail women’s choices and bodily integrity. Social norms that promote male dominance over women may limit women’s agency and decision-making power related to contraceptive use. These are all important elements of the empowerment model. Therefore, taking a gender intentional approach and measuring elements of empowerment would help us to understand the barriers to contraceptive uptake, improve programming and ultimately achieve better investment outcomes.

As demonstrated in the results framework below, if your investment intends to measure contraceptive uptake, your outcomes and indicators will need to capture both agency (decision-making) and institutional structures (norms). A mixed-methods approach would be best for measuring these indicators, to fully understand women’s access to sexual and reproductive health. A mixed-methods approach could help to determine not only the number of women accessing and/or using contraception, but also reveal the barriers to contraception uptake, and possible pathways for intervention to improve women’s empowerment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OUTCOMES</th>
<th>INDICATORS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Increased ability to make strategic decisions on child bearing and</td>
<td>1.1 % women reporting husband disapproval as reason for discontinuing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>health among adult women</td>
<td>contraceptive use</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.2 Degree of control over strategic decisions on childbearing and health</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. More positive beliefs and attitudes by men on women’s sexual and</td>
<td>2.1 % men believing in women’s right to family planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reproductive health</td>
<td>2.2 Degree of self-efficacy to discuss and use family planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Improved access to and use of family planning and maternal health</td>
<td>3.1 % of sexually active women who do not want children at this time, using</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>services by married and unmarried women</td>
<td>contraceptives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.2 % women involved in reproductive decisions such as (1) family size</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2) child spacing and (3) use of birth control</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 7: Qualitative methods for measuring empowerment

**Voice, Action, Comportment and Opportunity (VACO) Checklist**

The VACO checklist tool is designed to measure girls’ empowerment and leadership. The VACO checklist was recently adapted by the Girl Power Initiative comprehensive sexuality education program. The adapted tool, VACOK also measures knowledge – girls’ ability to give accurate information on sexuality, human rights and gender issues. The checklist helped Girl Power to measure incremental changes in behaviour that indicate changes in girls’ confidence.

**Measuring Time Use**

**Time use tools: Stylised Questions, 24-hr time diary, and experience sampling**

Time use data can be collected using different tools that are embedded in a survey questionnaire. There are three main types of tool: stylised questions, time diaries and experience sampling:

- **Stylised questions** ask respondents to indicate the amount of time spent on one of more activities over a specified period of time, typically a day or a week. Often the reference period is not the day or the week before the survey interview, but a ‘typical’ day or week. The activities of interest are determined by the aims of the survey exercise.

- **Time diaries** are suited to obtain a more comprehensive picture of how individuals organise their lives as they ask respondents to describe all of the activities performed over a specified period of time, typically the previous 24 hours. Respondents can fill out time use diaries on their own or their answers can be recorded by an interviewer, depending on the context.

- **Experience sampling** asks respondents to record specific details about the activities they are currently engaged in at random moments during the day. It is usually combined with some technological devices that prompt the respondent to give information on what they are doing at that specific point in time. Experience sampling is also an excellent tool for eliminating recall bias.

**Participatory methods for measuring empowerment**

An evaluation method used by ActionAid to measure shifts in power in favour of women was tested in Cambodia, Rwanda and Guatemala. The aim was to empower women from marginalised communities to collect and analyse data to improve their situation. The evaluation sought to understand any changes in gendered power relations, the process of change, and the contribution of ActionAid. Firstly, an analytical framework was developed based on four dimensions of power. Women leaders of collectives were then trained to use participatory tools and facilitate discussions. Leaders then identified factors that describe people with power. A number of methods were used to collect data on power relations: community mapping, scored spaces, and story-telling. The evaluators mapped the changes experienced by women against the dimensions of power and analysed the findings with leaders. Additional interviews with other stakeholders were also conducted to triangulate the findings.

This methodology reflects several of the key principles outlined in Section 2: tailored to context by asking women to define power in their own context; informed by women and girls’ voices by enabling women to lead and participate in the process; and intersectional in its objective to empower the most marginalised women in the community.
Appendix 8: Additional resources

Measurement
Alsop, R. and Heinsohn, N. 2005. Measuring empowerment in practice: structuring analysis and framing indicators, World Bank. This paper presents an analytic framework that can be used to measure and monitor empowerment processes and outcomes. This provides a useful framework for how to gather data on empowerment and structure its analysis.

Bloom, S. and Negroustoueva, S. 2014. Compendium of gender equality and HIV indicators, UNAIDS, UN Women, USAID, PEPFAR and MEASURE Evaluation. The Compendium is a useful set of standardised indicators to measure programmatic areas vital to the intersection of gender and HIV that may be used at national, regional or programmatic levels.

Lombardini S., Kimberley B. K. & Garwood, R. (2017) A ‘how to’ guide for measuring women’s empowerment: sharing experiences from Oxfam’s impact evaluations. Methodological Paper. This is a practical guide on how to measure empowerment, and includes measurement tools to be used as guiding instruments that can be adapted to any context.

Peterman, A. 2015. Women’s economic empowerment: indicators and survey design. Poppov Annual Conference: Methods Workshop, Addis Ababa. This deck of slides presents indicators and outlines survey design on women’s economic empowerment.

SIDA. 2010. Tool: Indicators for measuring results on gender equality. This tool proposes a set of indicators to measure gender equality in different sectors. The suggested indicators can be adapted to monitor national action plans on gender equality, or performance assessment frameworks.

Agency
Donald, A. et al. 2017. Measuring women’s agency. World Bank. This paper presents a multi-disciplinary framework containing the three critical dimensions of agency: goal-setting, perceived control and ability, and acting on goals. For each dimension the paper reviews existing measurement approaches and what is known about their relative quality, as well as emerging evidence from Sub-Sahara.


Wales, J. (2016). Women and Power: what can the numbers tell us about women’s voice, leadership and decision-making? London: ODI. This briefing provides an overview of existing global indicators for measuring women’s voice and leadership, and outlines the methodological and conceptual issues that should be taken into account when using them.

Institutional structures

CARE. 2017. Applying theory to practice: CARE’s journey piloting social norms measures for gender programming. This resource outlines the learning process of three programs focused on social norm change.

Mackie, G. et al. 2015. What are social norms and how are they measured? UNICEF/University of California, San Diego, Center on Global Justice. This paper provides a detailed explanation of social norms, and specific points on how accurately measure social norm change.

Malthotra, A. 2003. Conceptualising and measuring women’s empowerment as a variable in international development, International Centre for Research on Women, and the World Bank Group. This paper clarifies basic conceptual and definitional issues related to empowerment and discusses some of the key issues that need to be addressed in measuring women's empowerment empirically.
Resources
Rao, Smirti (2016). *Indicators of gendered control over agricultural resources: A guide for agricultural policy and research*. CGIAR Gender and Agriculture Research Network. This paper provides guidance around the development of new indicators that can be used for tracking short-to-medium term outcomes of innovative technology, policy and organizational interventions in an agricultural production process.

Seymour, G. et al. *Measuring time use in development settings*. World Bank. This paper discusses the challenges associated with collecting time-use data in low- and middle-income countries. It suggests potential solutions, concentrating on the two most common time-use methods used in development settings: stylised questions and time diaries.

Stevano, S. et al. 2016. *A conceptual map of the linkages between time use and women’s empowerment*. [internal document]. This document discusses the links between time use and women’s empowerment and provides guidance on how to integrate considerations of time-use into policy design, monitoring and evaluation or project implementation processes.

Stevano, S. et al. 2016. *Overview of methods to collect time use data* [internal document]. This document provides an overview of methods to collect data on time use in low- and middle-income countries.

Data collection methods
Boyce, C. and Neale, P. 2006. *Conducting in-depth interviews: a guide for designing and conducting in-depth interviews for evaluation input*. This is a guide around when and why to use in-depth interviews, the benefits and limitations of in-depth interviews, as well as step-by-step guidance around how to design and conduct in-depth interviews for evaluation.

Byrne, D. 2013. *Evaluating complex social interventions in a complex world*. This article explores how to develop generalizable knowledge through research approaches that recognise the complexities of evaluation.

Fhi360. 2016. *Improving the evaluation of integrated programs: a guide for multisector evaluation*. This article discusses the conversation around using evaluative approaches for integrated programs.

Moore, G. et al. 2015. *Process evaluation of complex interventions: Medical Research Council guidance*. This article presents a framework for process evaluation, that includes a systematic approach to designing and conducting process evaluations, clear descriptions of intervention theory, and identifies key process questions.

Ethics and safety


REFERENCES


12. Social Norms Exploration Guide and Toolkit; The CARE SNAP framework; Learning Collaborative to Advance Normative Change; The Align Project; The CUSP Project – cross-disciplinary networks and sources of resources for social and gender norms practitioners; The LSHTM Group on Social Norms and Gender-Related Practices

13. An indicator that is no longer a good marker of empowerment at the individual level within a community may still be good for distinguishing relative levels of empowerment between communities, as long as some variation within the larger society persists. For example, if you are measuring women’s mobility, and there have been some recent changes to that norm, it would probably not be useful to measure women’s mobility at the individual level, but would still be useful at the community level.


18. Global Early Adolescent Study http://www.geastudy.org/


22. Adapted from: Women’s Empowerment Scale https://www.c-changeprogram.org/content/gender-scales-compendium/empowerment.html

25. The WHO gender-based violence measures and the DHS measures were designed for surveillance but are currently used for evaluation. We have not considered the limitations of these measures for evaluation and how they may need to change over time.
32. Women’s Empowerment in Agriculture Index (2012).
33. This indicator has been used by the World Bank in 10-15 different countries to measure poverty. Ibrahim, S. and Alkire, S. [1997].
40. Rao, S. [2016].
42. Ibrahim, S. and Alkire, S. [1997].
43. Women’s Empowerment in Agriculture Index (2012).
45. This was used to measure attitudes towards family planning among women in Mali. Herbert, S. [2015] Social norms, contraception and family planning. Helpdesk Research Report. GSDRC. https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/media/57a08967ed915d3cfd00021e/HDQ1249.pdf
47. ODI [2015].
49. SIDA [2015].

54. Women’s Empowerment in Agriculture Index (2012).


59. DHS Survey Indicators: Family Planning https://dhsprogram.com/data/DHS-Survey-Indicators-Family-Planning.cfm


64. Women’s Empowerment in Agriculture Index (2012).


66. Adapted from: Women’s Empowerment Scale https://www.gender-scales-compendium.org/empowerment.html