Determinants of Empowerment in a Capability Based Poverty Approach: Evidence from The Gambia

Sofia Karina Trommlerová (IHEID Geneva) Stephan Klasen (University of Göttingen) Ortrud Lessmann (Helmut-Schmidt-Universität Hamburg)

January 2014

Abstract

Although empowerment is seen as intrinsically important and instrumentally valuable to escape poverty, there is very little research on the empirical drivers of empowerment. Using custom-made household-level information and using advanced econometric techniques that also correct for endogeneity, we examine what empowers individuals in The Gambia to change their own lives and affect changes in their communities. We show that, age, gender, marital status, nationality, economic activity, and health are found to be important determinants of empowerment at both communal and individual level. We also show that self-reported capabilities as well as communal empowerment strongly affect the desire to change things in their lives. Lastly, our results indicate that respondents' confidence that *they* will be the most powerful agents in their lives is higher for men, foreigners, people free of health limitations, and younger people.

JEL codes: I30, I32, O15, Z13, Z18

Keywords: empowerment, agency, capability approach, The Gambia, correction for endogeneity

1. Introduction

Well-being and poverty are nowadays perceived as multidimensional concepts that cannot be assessed merely in monetary terms. The Capability Approach goes even further by emphasizing the importance of agency in promoting human development. Increasing agency means enhancing people's freedoms to act and to achieve what they consider valuable, i.e. having the freedom to act in line with one's own values and to pursue one's goals. Empowerment is a concept closely related to agency. We define empowerment as an increase in agency which enables individuals to pursue valuable and important goals.

Both agency and empowerment are intrinsically valuable, and can be instrumentally effective in promoting human development and reducing poverty (Alkire, 2009). In fact, there has been a number of theoretical and empirical studies that focus on *women's* empowerment or empowerment of the *poor* and found positive well-being outcomes of increases in agency (e.g. Thomas, 1997; Hindin, 2000; Allendorf, 2007a; Kim et al. 2007). In contrast, there is very little literature that considers empowerment outside of this gender context, which is the focus of our study. Moreover, most of these studies employ suboptimal measures of agency and empowerment. In the last few years, the Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative (OPHI) has developed an improved set of desirable agency and empowerment measures that aim at capturing various aspects of empowerment. Whereas some of these aspects have already been analyzed empirically, others are still to be investigated. The most widely researched empowerment measures are those focusing on household decision-making (e.g. Malhotra and Mather, 1997; Hindin, 2000; Jejeebhoy, 2000) and to a certain extent those capturing domain-specific autonomy (e.g. Chirkov et al. 2005).¹

This article presents an empirical analysis of those aspects of empowerment which have been largely neglected so far. The analysis is based on a unique dataset from The Gambia which contains information on capabilities and on empowerment indicators as had been proposed by OPHI. The

¹ See Ibrahim and Alkire (2007) for a more detailed list of relevant empirical studies.

main goal is to look for determinants of empowerment, with a particular focus on determinants of individuals' self-reported ability to induce changes in their lives at communal and individual level. Generalized ordered logit and multinomial logit models are employed in search for correlates of this type of empowerment and tested for potential sample selection and endogeneity biases.

Our results show that individuals' ability to induce changes in communal life in The Gambia is causally related to education, origin, age, gender and marital status, economic activity, and health. Concerning the ability to change things in one's own life (which we call 'individual' empowerment), we first show that people's self-reported capabilities are much more important correlates of individuals' desire to change something in their lives than their socio-demographic characteristics or economic situation. We also show that respondents' confidence that *they* will be the most powerful agents in their lives is significantly higher for men, foreigners, severely disabled people, people free of health limitations, and younger people. Furthermore, higher age and some health limitations cause Gambians to rely more often on their families or the government for support. Gender, marital status, origin, literacy, economic activity and household wealth are also determinants of reliance on others (family or government).

We argue that the results matter for several reasons. First, it is pioneering exploratory work in using new, internationally comparable direct measures of communal and individual agency and empowerment. Second, the pool of possible determinants of empowerment analyzed comprises not only objectively observable socio-demographic and economic characteristics of respondents but also a unique set of self-reported capabilities. Third, this work is of great relevance in considering empowerment in general terms, moving beyond the existing literature on women's or poor's empowerment. Finally, advanced econometric techniques are applied to correct for endogeneity and sample selection problems.

The structure of this article is as follows. The next chapter is concerned with definition and measurement of empowerment as an agency-related concept. It also formulates our hypotheses regarding the determinants of empowerment. Section 3 describes the data. Section 4 presents the

empirical evidence on empowerment at both communal and individual level. Section 5 concludes and identifies areas for potential future research.

2. Measurement of empowerment and hypotheses

Empowerment has experienced growing importance in the development economics literature especially since the turn of the new millennium when Voices of the Poor (Narayan, 2000) and the World Development Report 2000/2001 were published. Dozens of theoretical and empirical studies have refined the concept since then; most of them focus on women's empowerment or on empowerment of the poor.

Unfortunately, it lacks a single clear definition. Ibrahim and Alkire (2007) alone list 29 distinct definitions. Their main common feature is that they define empowerment as a process (e.g. Kabeer, 1999; Malhotra and Schuler, 2005) in which a marginalized or relatively powerless group improves its position. The critical point, in which the proposed definitions differ, is regarding the domain or dimension of improvement brought about by empowerment. In this study, following largely Alkire (2005) and Ibrahim and Alkire (2007), empowerment is understood as an increased possibility to gain agency.²

Agency is one of the integral parts of Amartya Sen's Capability Approach. Sen (1985) defines agency freedom as "what the person is free to do and achieve in pursuit of whatever goals or values he or she regards as important." (p. 203). Thus, we see empowerment as a gain in agency, enabling the individual to pursue valuable and important goals. Agency, seen in Sen's definition, is both

² Generally, the concept of empowerment is related to agency, autonomy, self-direction, self-confidence, self-worth, self-determination, liberation, participation, and mobilization (Narayan, 2005; Ibrahim and Alkire, 2007). More specifically, different studies define empowerment in different terms, for instance as an increased possibility to make choices (Alsop et al., 2006; Kabeer, 1999; Mayoux, 2000; Moser, 1991) or decisions (Appleyard, 2002; Khwaja, 2005; Rowlands, 1997), or to gain power (Lokshin and Ravallion, 2005; Malena, 2003; Moser, 1991), control (Chambers, 1993; Jackson, 1994; Mason and Smith, 2003; Moser, 1991; Strandberg, 2001), influence (Khwaja, 2005; McMillan et al., 1995; Moser, 1991; World Bank, 2001), or assets and capabilities (Grootaert, 2003; Malhotra et al., 2002; Narayan, 2005). This overview is based on a list of definitions which was assembled by Ibrahim and Alkire (2007); the definitions often refer specifically to women's empowerment.

intrinsically valuable and instrumentally effective in promoting human development and reducing poverty (Alkire, 2009).

2.1 Conceptualization and indicators

When framing empowerment as an increase in human agency, Ibrahim and Alkire (2007) draw on the concept of four types of power developed by Rowlands (1997): power *over* ('controlling power'), power *to* ('generative or productive power'), power *with* (collective power of a group), and power *from within* (strength based on self-acceptance). Ibrahim and Alkire (2007) think of each type of power as a distinct exercise of agency, namely in terms of control, choice, communal belonging, and change, see Table 1. The latter two, which will be the focus of this article, represent the ability to change aspects in one's life at communal and individual level, respectively.

[Table 1 approximately here]

Measures of empowerment as conceptualized here face, however, considerable methodological challenges related to the locale of empowerment, the comparability of empowerment across contexts, and the difficulty of measuring this elusive concept with quantitative methods (Narayan, 2005).

Despite these difficulties, Ibrahim and Alkire (2007) propose a set of internationally comparable direct measures of agency and empowerment. The main criteria for empowerment indicators to be included in Ibrahim's and Alkire's (2007) final set are: coverage of areas particularly relevant to the life of the poor, international comparability, coverage of both instrumental and intrinsic aspects of empowerment, possibility to identify changes in agency over time, and positive experience with the particular indicators in previous surveys. Regarding the first and second type of empowerment in Table 1, Ibrahim and Alkire (2007) list a number of empirical studies that were undertaken based on the proposed indicators. However, there seem to be no empirical studies focusing on the third and fourth type of empowerment. In an attempt to fill this gap, we focus on empowerment in community and empowerment as change. The indicators proposed by Ibrahim and Alkire (2007) are adopted here with minor alterations.

The empowerment in the community is captured by the following question:

Q: Do you feel that people like yourself can generally change things in their community if they want to?

A: Yes, very easily / Yes, fairly easily / Yes, but with a little difficulty / Yes, but with a great deal of difficulty / No, not at all

Despite being measured at individual level, the question aims at capturing "the ability of people to change things *collectively* in their community" (Ibrahim and Alkire, 2007, p. 29, accentuations by the authors), i.e. their power *with* other community members. The formulation 'people like yourself' intends to depart at least partly from the individual empowerment and to encompass, to a certain degree, collective empowerment.

The empowerment as change in one's own life is measured by two questions:³

Q1: Would you like to change anything in your life at this point in time?

A1: Yes / No

Q2: Who do you think will contribute most to any change in your own life?

A2: Myself / My family / Village development committee / Our community (village) / The ward development committee / The state government / Don't know / Other

Both questions aim at measuring "the ability to induce change in one's life, thus enhancing one's own self-acceptance" (Ibrahim and Alkire, 2007, p. 28), i.e. the power *from within*. While the first question addresses individuals' willingness to change their lives, the second question assesses their actual ability to act as agents of change in their lives (Ibrahim and Alkire, 2007).

³ Originally, there are three questions measuring empowerment as change in Ibrahim's and Alkire's (2007) proposal. Since one of them is not a subject of the investigation here, it is not mentioned in detail.

2.2 Existing literature on drivers of empowerment

As our paper is largely empirical, we will focus primarily on the empirical literature but briefly want to comment on some of the theoretical literature on the drivers of empowerment. Kabeer (1999) presents a useful conceptual framework and claims that a broad notion of 'resources', including material, human, and social resources available to individuals and communities affect their empowerment. Consequently, greater control over economic resources (such as control over land, property, access to paid employment), better education and access to information, and more social rights (which are often related to group membership such as membership of a caste or clan, an ethnicity, one's sex, age, etc.) can all be important drivers of both individual and communal empowerment. Empirical studies have indeed mostly focused on these factors.

The existing empirical literature that is concerned with empowerment in general terms is rather small (Samman and Santos (2009) offer an overview); the vast majority of empirical studies investigate specifically women's empowerment. Another common feature of some of these studies is that they are not primarily concerned with socio-demographic determinants or correlates of empowerment per se but investigate the empowering effect of specific economic characteristics or interventions, such as land ownership or microcredit programs, and add socio-demographic factors merely as control variables. Lastly, most of the current literature identifies *correlates* of empowerment rather than its *causes*, i.e. the majority of studies does not address possible endogeneity problems, such as reverse causality, and thus cannot identify causal effects (Samman and Santos, 2009). Our overview starts with studies that do not address endogeneity issues and identify correlates of women's empowerment. Subsequently, two studies that correct for endogeneity are presented. The studies are summarized in Table 2.

[Table 2 approximately here]

Gupta and Yesudian (2006) focus on a sample of ever-married women in India. In order to measure empowerment, they create indices on women's mobility and participation in household decision making. In a logit regression, they find that women's educational level, literacy, age, mass media exposure, and wealth of the household are significant correlates of women's empowerment within the household.

Allendorf (2007a) investigates the impact of female agricultural workers' land rights on their empowerment in Nepal. Empowerment is measured by women's participation in household decision making. Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) and logit estimations reveal that women's ownership of land or livestock, effective land or livestock rights, and receipt of pay for work promote empowerment. Women's age and education have also expected but relatively weak empowerment effects, as have religion and caste of the respondent. Additionally, the position of a woman within the household structure seems to be particularly important for her empowerment in terms of her participation in household's decision making.

In another study, Allendorf (2012) measures women's empowerment by their mobility and decision making in terms of spending. In an OLS regression, she identifies family relationship quality, area of residence, age, higher education, and employment outside the household as correlates of married mother's empowerment in India.

Other studies that find empowering effects of education in various countries are Malhotra and Mather (1997) for Sri Lanka, Hindin (2000) for Zimbabwe, Jejeebhoy and Sathar (2001) for India and Pakistan, and Jejeebhoy (2000) and Roy and Niranjan (2004) for India.

The only study that does not focus explicitly on women's empowerment is Lokshin and Ravallion (2005). In their analysis of Russian data, they find positive correlation between income and power. Concerning socio-demographic characteristics, men and educated individuals feel empowered. Younger and unemployed respondents, on the other hand, perceive themselves as less empowered.

The empirical studies presented so far find merely *correlates* of (women's) empowerment because they ignore a possible endogeneity bias. Two studies, that make an attempt to identify *determinants* of women's empowerment by addressing endogeneity problems, follow. Garikipati (2008) measures Indian women's empowerment in terms of household decision making and ownership of assets and income. In a 2SLS tobit-logit regression, women's secondary education, household wealth status, and women's participation in a microcredit program are identified as significant determinants of empowerment.⁴ Surprisingly, the latter shows a negative effect. This study has to be treated with a great deal of caution, though, because the data on women's empowerment were reported either by women themselves or by their husbands. As Allendorf (2007b) shows in her study on Nepal, husbands' and wives' perceptions on women's empowerment differ substantially. Additionally and more importantly, using two nonlinear models (tobit and logit) in a 2SLS approach is, from econometrical point of view, problematic and yields biased and inconsistent estimates (Stock and Watson, 2011).

Lastly, Anderson and Eswaran (2009) apply the 2SLS method in order to examine data on household heads' wives in Bangladesh. Again, empowerment is measured by women's participation in household decision making. Anderson and Eswaran (2009) correct for endogeneity bias and find that value of woman's assets, woman's earnings from work, and the time a woman worked for income have positive impact on empowerment.⁵ Furthermore, the household structure is also relevant for empowerment and the effect of age is – contrary to the findings of previous studies – negative. One possible explanation for the latter is cultural change: older women grew up in a more traditional society and therefore, they might be – all other things equal – less empowered compared to young women who grew up under different social norms.

To summarize, Kabeer's broad notion of 'resources' seems to empirically matter for empowerment in the existing empirical literature: education, literacy, age, and position within the household were identified as the main socio-demographic correlates of women's empowerment. Additionally,

⁴ Women's participation in a microcredit program is endogenous due to self-selection. Therefore, it is instrumented by the size of respondent's neighborhood and by a dummy variable indicating whether the respondent belongs to a minority caste in her neighborhood.

⁵ Women's earnings from work and the time they worked for income, as potentially endogenous explanatory variables, are instrumented by exogenous shocks to the household, namely crop loss, sickness of a family member, and rainfall patterns.

women's assets and income as well as the wealth of the household belong to economic correlates of women's empowerment. Studies focusing on empowerment in general are rare; they find that age, gender, education, employment, and income are significantly correlated with empowerment in general terms.

2.3 Hypotheses

Based on both the theoretical background and the existing literature, we pose the following hypotheses regarding the determinants of agency and empowerment which are also summarized in Table 3. First, in line with Kabeer's theoretical approach, we expect gender, age, position within the household, religion, ethnicity, education, employment, household wealth status, and area of residence to affect empowerment as there are indicators of the 'resources' needed to affect change in one's own life and in the community. Additionally, we expect marital status, foreigner status, and literacy to be relevant as well. Although these characteristics have not been explored so far, they are closely related to the determinants that were already identified, and also can be seen as 'resources' for empowerment. Lastly, we hypothesize that the self-reported health status to affect empowerment as well. But the effects of some of these variables are likely to be different for individual versus community empowerment.

In terms of empowerment within the community, certain groups of individuals are expected to be more influential than others. Socio-economic status, knowledge, experience, ethnic origin, and social standing are individual characteristics that are very likely to be relevant. In this sense, we hypothesize that wealth, employment, education and literacy, and being Gambian (rather than foreigner) leads to more communal empowerment. Similarly, age is expected to be a positive determinant of empowerment in the community, possibly with a diminishing marginal return. Apart from economic means and other factors mentioned to far, better health might cause individuals to feel more control over their life and therefore to feel more empowered in their communities. Gender norms and social norms might also play a role. When it comes to marital status and position within the household, household heads and married individuals might be more respected in their communities. What is unclear is whether being married has the same effect for both genders. Additionally, the type of marriage (polygamous or monogamous) could matter in terms of communal empowerment as well.

Second, in terms of the empowerment at the individual level, the question is whether individuals rely more on themselves or rather on their families or government. We expect that men rely more often on themselves whereas women more on their families. Also, younger individuals are expected to rely more on themselves and less on their families or the government. In terms of marital status and position within the household, household heads and married individuals might rely more often on their families whereas unmarried individuals on themselves. Furthermore, being employed, educated, literate, and foreigner might cause individuals to rely rather on themselves than on their families or the government. The effect of health is not clear ex ante: while poor health might reduce the ability to affect change, people who are chronically ill might have developed ways to rely on themselves. Concerning regional information, one can hypothesize that rural dwellers put higher expectations on their families due to stronger social networks in the villages and due to remittances sent from relatives working in the cities. Furthermore, as a consequence of lower access to public goods in the villages, rural dwellers may expect the government to introduce developmental programs and improve infrastructure.

Lastly, the effects of tribal belonging and religious belief are not clear ex ante and will not be focused on in detail. However, it is important to include them in the analysis in order to control for cultural differences in The Gambia.

3. Context and data

The dataset used in this analysis stems from a household survey that was conducted in The Gambia in August 2008. The Gambia is the smallest country on the mainland of Africa, situated on the Western coast of the continent. It spreads along the river Gambia and, except for its Atlantic

seaboard, is entirely surrounded by Senegal. The climate is tropical with two distinct seasons – a hot rainy season between June and November and a cooler dry season between November and May (CIA, 2012). It belongs to the group of the least developed countries in the world, both from economic and developmental point of view. With its GDP per capita of 590 US\$ in 2008, The Gambia falls into the low income group and also belongs to the group of Least Developed Countries. The GDP growth over the last five years has been relatively high, though, with annual growth rates of over 6% between 2007 and 2010. In spite of these relatively high growth rates, 48.4% of population lived below the national poverty line in 2010 (World Bank, 2012).From the development group, according to the Human Development Index (HDI) in 2007/2008. The socio-demographic situation is characterized by a low life expectancy at birth (59 years for women and 56 years for men in 2008) and high fertility rates(5.1 births per woman in 2008); the maternal mortality reached 360 deaths per 100,000 births in 2010 (World Bank, 2012). 90% of Gambians are Muslims (CIA, 2012) and polygamous marriages are very common.

Our data stems from the 'Joint Rural Labor Force / Community Driven Development Project (CDDP) Baseline Survey' that was conducted in The Gambia in August 2008. The survey was implemented in order to collect baseline data for an impact evaluation of World Bank's CDDPs in The Gambia and to study the characteristics of the Gambian rural labor force. A special module containing capability-approach and empowerment related questions were added in order to gather new unique data analyzed in this paper.⁶ The survey collected information both at household and individual level. At the individual level, basic personal information, such as socio-demographic characteristics, was collected for all household members. Specific information, e.g. information on the Capability Approach, was gathered only for the survey respondents, who were mostly household heads (83.9% of respondents in the final sample are household heads). Since the questions on

⁶ Since the sampling processes differed in rural and urban areas, the survey is not representative unless special sampling weights are applied. Our sample is not nationally representative given that only one household member was interviewed on empowerment related questions.

empowerment were asked within the block on the Capability Approach, our sample consists of one observation per household which is always the respondent. The final sample comprises 2184 observations on individuals with valid responses for all the variables used in the analysis.

As discussed above, the first dependent variable captures individuals' ability to change something in their communal life. As for empowerment at the individual level, one variable measures respondents' desire for a change in their lives and another variable captures respondents' expectations about who will contribute most to changes in their lives: respondents themselves (referred to as 'myself' hereafter), their family, the government, and other actors.⁷ This variable is available only for those respondents who indicated that they want to change something in their lives, i.e. the sample size for this dependent variable is smaller.

Table 3 gives an overview of the explanatory variables and of our hypotheses on how they affect communal and individual empowerment. The variables encompass socio-demographic and socio-economic characteristics, spatial information, and self-reported information on capabilities.

[Table 3 approximately here]

While the socio-demographic variables are largely self-explanatory, among the economic variables, short-term economic well-being is represented by the logarithm of expenditure aggregate. In general, expenditure reflects the actual economic situation of the household better than income because it is less volatile. We measure expenditure on 15 groups of items per year and using equivalence scales. The second economic variable reflects household's accumulated wealth in form of assets, and therefore its long-term economic situation. Based on 16 household's assets, a wealth index was created using polychoric principal component analysis (PCA) following an approach by Filmer and Pritchett (2001), and refined by Kolenikov and Angeles (2009). Based on the wealth index, a household's wealth percentile was created.

⁷ Originally, there were eight answer choices. Four of them (Village development committee, Our community (village), The ward development committee, and Don't know) were subsumed into the already existing category 'Other'. The main reason was an extremely low response rate for these categories (less than 2% for each category).

We also control for location (urban/rural) and local government area and include a subjective health assessment among the covariates.

4. Econometric Methods and Results

Each indicator of empowerment is investigated in a different model, depending on the nature of the indicator. Regarding empowerment within the community, in response to the question whether people like themselves can generally change things in their community if they want to, we aggregate the responses shown in section 2.1 to three categories: 'Yes, easily', 'Yes, with difficulty' and 'No, not at all'. The resulting variable is ordinal and ordered, and is therefore examined using the generalized ordered logit model. This allows the estimation of different coefficients to affect the transition from category one to two, and category two to three which was found to be relevant for some covariates.⁸

For the second question, the desire to change things in one's life, we use a binary probit model.⁹ First, a probit model without self-reported capability variables will be fitted. Subsequently, self-reported capability variables (self-reported happiness, suitability of accommodation, and whther they are treated with respect) will be added in order to see whether these self-reported variables alter the explanatory power of objectively observed variables and whether they have added value in analyzing empowerment-related issues.

After studying the determinants of wishing to change things, the following analysis is performed conditionally on the existence of a desire to change things in one's life.. Actors who can bring about

⁸ A logit model is preferred over probit because the former offers the possibility to interpret coefficients in terms of oddsratios. The originally preferred ordered logit model cannot be used because it is based on a parallel regression assumption, which means that the coefficients are assumed to be identical across all categories of the dependent variable. This assumption was tested by both the Brant test and the approximate Likelihood Ratio test, as proposed by Long and Freese (2006), and was rejected at 1% significance level. The generalized ordered logit model, proposed by Williams (2006), starts with the parallel regression assumption but allows estimating separate coefficients for comparison of adjacent categories for those variables for which the parallel regression assumption is violated. These variables include *foreigner, literate, log(expenditure), urban*, four regional variables (LGAs), and the tribe Wollof. The significance level used for testing the parallel regression assumption was set to 5%.

⁹ Although a *logit* model was preferred in the previous section due to the possibility to interpret results in terms of oddsratios, a probit model is the preferred one in this section. One of the reasons is its comparability to a Heckman probit model which will be estimated later.

changes in respondents' lives are respondents themselves, their families, the state government, and other actors. Given that these categories are represented by a nominal variable where the responses cannot be ordered, a multinomial logit model was employed in order to make pairwise comparisons between all categories.

As the question about the agent of change is observed only for those respondents who indicated that they want to change something in their lives, there is potentially sample selection bias. At the same time, there are two indications that the sample selection bias might not be very important. First, the fraction of the "excluded" observations is small (6% of the full sample). Second, the selection criterion is correlated only with a few explanatory variables from the empowerment-regression.¹⁰Nevertheless, we run a separate Heckman probit model for each of the actors ('myself', 'family', 'government') in order to provide empirical evidence on the relevance of sample selection...

However, these models do not detect causal relationships due to possible endogeneity of some of the explanatory variables, particularly reverse causality or unobserved heterogeneity. We suspect that particularly the variables education, literacy, economic activity, and wealth might suffer from these problems. The second step of the analysis of communal and individual empowerment therefore represents an attempt to correct for possible endogeneity by applying instrumental variable estimations and estimating the equations using the 2SLS technique. We use village averages of these variables as instruments for each respondent (which vary among respondents as for each respondent the village average of all residents except the respondent is used) plus village fixed effects as instruments (see also below).

¹⁰ More precisely, most of the objectively observable respondents' characteristics turned out to be either statistically or economically insignificant when the desire for change was modeled in section 4.3.1, see Table 5.

4.1 Descriptive statistics

Table A1 in the appendix summarizes the descriptive statistics of respondents' characteristics, both overall and disaggregated by respondents' "empowerment status" on communal and individual level. Table A2 gives an overview of the empowerment variables, both overall and disaggregated by respondents' characteristics. The average respondent (Table A1) is 47 years old, male, household head, Muslim, Gambian, with no education, illiterate, economically active, and living in a monogamous marriage in rural area. Most of the respondents live in the LGA Brikama and belong to the tribe Fula. The majority of respondents is not limited at all in their daily activities by their health, feels happy, has suitable accommodation, and is always treated with respect and never unfairly. An average respondent in the *restricted* sample has the same profile, as shown in the column 'Wants change' in Table A1.

When looking at the distribution of empowerment at the communal level (Table A2 in the appendix), one half of the sample falls into the middle category (change possible albeit with difficulty), and one third feels completely empowered in the sense that people like them can change things in their community easily if they want to. At the individual level, most respondents (94%) wish to change something in their lives. Out of them, one third of respondents rely on themselves, another third on their family, one fourth has expectations towards the government, and 7% of the sample relies on other actors.¹¹

4.2 Correlates and determinants of empowerment at communal level

We now report results on perceived empowerment at the communal level. The first column of Table 4 shows the estimated odds-ratios associated with each covariate; variables which violate the parallel regression assumption of the ordered logit model have two odds-ratios, the left one for the comparison between change not possible and the other categories, and the right one for the

¹¹ There are some unexpected findings in the data: people completely limited by their health seem to rely on the government or on themselves rather than on their families. Furthermore, those being partially limited by their health feel disproportionately empowered in their communities. See also the discussion below on interpreting these effects.

comparison between change easily and the other categories. Except for the variables *not Muslim*, *log(expenditure)*, and *urban*, all odds-ratios are significant at least at 10% significance level.¹²

[Table 4 approximately here]

The strongest effects are observed for foreigners as compared to the Gambians and for health-related variables. In particular, the odds of feeling any degree of empowerment ('change with difficulty' or 'change easily') as compared to no empowerment in the community are 2.65 times higher for the Gambians than for foreigners, holding all other variables constant.¹³ This is one of the few cases when two separate coefficients were estimated and they suggest that being foreigner leads to a particularly high probability of not being able to change anything at all, while that status has a smaller impact on the difference in the likelihood of achieving change easily or with difficulty. Concerning health, the changes in odds are even larger. Having fewer health limitations strongly increases the ability to affect change in the community, compared to being completely limited by one's health. Education (odds-ratio 1.52) and literacy (odds-ratio 1.44; comparison of any degree of empowerment. Further effects that are significant and of considerable magnitude occur for gender, economic activity, and marital status. In particular, people living in polygamous marriages feel more able to change matters in their communities than both unmarried respondents (odds-ratio 1.41) and monogamously married people (odds-ratio 1.24).¹⁴

¹² Despite being individually insignificant, the variables on tribal belonging are jointly significant at 5% significance level.

¹³ The odds-ratios represent a comparison between the category represented by the dummy variable and the base category. In order to compare the reverse, i.e. the left-out category with the category in the regression, the inverse of the odds-ratio must be taken (1/odds-ratio). Since odds-ratios higher than 1 are easier to comprehend than those below 1, the comparisons will always be made for the constellation in which the odds-ratio is larger than 1. All the interpretations that follow are to be understood as holding all other explanatory variables constant.

¹⁴ Additionally, there are regional effects of considerable magnitude which will not be elaborated in further detail. Variables representing age and wealth have statistically significant but economically insignificant coefficients; the variable distinguishing household head from an ordinary household member is only marginally significant.

The 2SLS results to correct of the potential endogeneity of education, literacy, economic activity, and wealth¹⁵ yield qualitatively similar results to both generalized ordered logit and OLS (see columns 1-3 in Table 4), except for the variables literacy and wealth which are no longer significant.¹⁶ This supports the view that all variables identified so far except those two can be interpreted causally as determinants of communal empowerment.

In Table A4, we calculate the changes in the probability of feeling a certain degree of communal empowerment when the explanatory dummy variable switches from 0 to 1, i.e. the marginal effects. Table A4 summarizes the changes in these probabilities evaluated at the median of the explanatory variables and indicates whether they are statistically significant. Most of them lie between 3 and 8 percentage points (p.p. hereafter) although some changes are substantially larger, up to 21.1 p.p.. Health, which was confirmed as a significant determinant of communal empowerment also in the 2SLS, shows the largest effects, as expected from the analysis of the odds-ratios. The health-related variable comprises four ordered categories. Probability changes between virtually all combinations of these four categories are significant, which means that the effects occur not only when comparing the worst category ('health completely limiting') to any better category but also when comparing the categories gradually. This result was not visible in the regression in the first column of Table 4. The results regarding health can be summarized as follows: Generally, less limiting health leads to a

¹⁵ We apply 2SLS method in order to correct for possible endogeneity biases. In the first stage, the instrumental variables (IVs) chosen for respondents' education, literacy, and economic activity are averages of these variables in respondent's village. The calculation is based on all adults in the village (available in our data) except for the respondent. This approach yields IVs which do vary among respondents in the same village as the respondents themselves are always excluded from the calculation of their own IV. As for the wealth percentile, which is measured at household level, the IV is the average wealth percentile in respondent's village calculated from all households in the village except for the respondent's household. Village fixed effects are included in the 2SLS estimation. All four IVs are individually highly significant with respect to the respective endogenous variables they instrument for and they are also jointly highly significant in all first stage regressions, see Table A3. Also, the R-squared in all first stages is high (0.7 – 0.9). We believe that these instruments do not directly influence our dependent variable, i.e. they are exogenous. Their exogeneity together with their relevance (they affect the endogenous explanatory variables significantly) make them valid instruments.

The second stage of the 2SLS has been estimated with some simplifications: The dependent variable is treated as a continuous variable that indicates ascending easiness in changing one's community life. Four variables are statistically significant in the 2SLS estimation: age, marital status, education, and health. All of these variables show stronger effects than they have in the OLS regression, see columns 2 and 3 of Table 4.

We are happy to provide more information on this analysis upon request.

¹⁶ The Hausman test of endogeneity indicates that there are endogeneity problems (p-value 0.005).

significantly lower probability of individuals thinking that they cannot change anything at all and to a higher probability of thinking that they can change things in their community easily. It also leads to a lower probability in the middle category ('change with difficulty') but these effects are not always significant and are smaller in magnitude.

Another interesting finding concerns the effect of gender and marital status. For women, the probability to feel no empowerment at all or partial empowerment in the community is higher by 3.3 and 2.8 percentage points than for men, respectively. Accordingly, the probability to be able to change things easily is 6.1 p.p. higher for men than for women. Concerning marital status, statistically significant differences occur between polygamous and monogamous marriages, and between polygamous marriages and people living without a partner (i.e. never married, divorced, widowed). Generally, people in polygamous marriages feel more empowered - the probability that they can change things easily is 7.7 and 4.9 p.p. higher for them than for unmarried and for those living in monogamous marriages, respectively. Since polygamy affects men and women in a different way, a new estimation was made allowing for interactions between marital status and gender. The results are shown in the lower panel of Table A4. As expected, it is explicitly the polygamous men who turn out to feel more influential in their communities. The probability that they feel fully empowered is significantly higher when compared to unmarried males (14.0 p.p.), to men living in monogamous marriages (7.2 p.p.) and also to women living in polygamous marriages (15.6 p.p.). At the same time, polygamous men feel hardship or powerlessness in changing their communal life with a significantly lower probability than their counterparts, the effects lie between 2.8 and 7.9 p.p.. As for the monogamously married men, there is weak evidence that they feel more empowered when compared to unmarried men and to monogamously married women. In the light of these findings, the gender and marital status effects observed in the original specification are misleading. In particular, *married* women feel less empowered in their communities than married men and this effect is particularly strong in polygamous marriages. Furthermore, marital status and polygamy have an effect on empowerment of men in their communities but not on empowerment of women: men living in polygamous marriages feel more empowered in their communities as compared to unmarried or monogamously married men, while no effects are not found among women.

The remaining two effects concern education and age. People who went to school tend to feel completely empowered with a higher probability (9.7 p.p.) than their counterparts. In contrast, those who did not go to school are significantly more prone to feel difficulties in changing things (6.2 p.p. higher probability) or not being able to change anything at all in their community (3.6 p.p. higher probability). Concerning the age, there is a positive, but diminishing effect. Getting older means more empowerment and less disempowerment in the community. However, this effect is strong only for young people and it becomes less prevalent as they grow older, until it disappears completely. For example, becoming 10 years older means a 4.5 p.p. higher probability of full empowerment for a 20-year-old individual but only a 1.9 p.p. higher probability for a 40-year old.¹⁷ For a 60-year old person, the probability becomes negative and insignificant. The turning point, after which there is a negative marginal effect of age on empowerment in the community, was estimated at 56 years of age. The strong inhibiting effect of age for young people is of great importance: 63% of Gambians are younger than 25 and are thus affected by the strongly disempowering effect of youth.¹⁸

4.3 Correlates and determinants of empowerment at individual level

We now shift from empowerment at the communal level to empowerment at the individual level. In order to analyze this issue, two stages will be considered in the analysis. In the first stage, the focus will be on respondents' desire to change something in their lives. In particular, the correlates of desire for change will be examined because data on individual empowerment were collected only for

¹⁷ The latter effect corresponds to '10 years increase around the median' in Table A4.

¹⁸ Lastly, a the larger coefficients in the 2SLS regressions than the OLS regressions in Table 4 indicates a substantial endogeneity bias in case of monogamous marriages, economic activity, and position within the household. Thus, one can assume that the effects of these characteristics on communal empowerment are in reality larger than what was estimated in Table A4.

those wishing to change their lives. In the second stage, the question of interest will be who is expected to contribute most to any changes in respondent's life.

4.3.1 Desire to change something in one's life

When looking for correlates of the desire to change something in one's life at individual level, two specifications will be estimated, one with and without self-reported capabilities. Table 5 shows results of both probit specifications. The first column indicates that age, religion, schooling, and wealth are statistically significant correlates of the desire for change. There are also regional effects. When self-reported variables on respondents' capabilities are added, none of the variables from the previous specification loses its importance. On the contrary, the coefficients generally become higher and are at least as significant as before. The only exception is wealth – its coefficient is relatively small in the first specification and it decreases further in the second regression, but stays significant. The newly added capability variables include health, happiness, accommodation, and perceptions regarding respectful and unfair treatment. All of them are highly significant.

[Table 5 approximately here]

Overall, the coefficients in the second column of Table 5 indicate a negative association between the desire for change and age, not being Muslim (i.e. belonging to a religious minority), being a foreigner, having formal education, and being wealthy. Regarding the self-reported variables, the effects can be grouped into three categories. First, there are straightforward effects of happiness and quality of accommodation – more happiness and better accommodation decrease the desire for change. Second, there seem to be nonlinear effects of health and respectful treatment in the sense that more respectful treatment and less health limitations are associated with decreases in the desire for change at first but with increases in such a desire afterwards. For instance, those who are treated with respect always or occasionally seem to be more prone to wish to change their lives than their counterparts who are treated with respect frequently. Lastly, there is a seemingly counter- intuitive finding on unfair treatment – those who are treated unfairly less often show bigger desire for change.

It is striking that this pattern holds even when controlling for socio-demographic characteristics and subjective measures of life satisfaction, an issue to which we return to below.

When we calculate the marginal effects, i.e. the changes in probabilities at the mean of the explanatory variables, we find that nearly all self-reported capability variables show marginal effects that are both statistically and economically significant (results not shown). Happiness and good accommodation lead to less need to change things in one's life – the marginal effects are around 3 p.p. and 5 p.p., respectively. The marginal effects corresponding to better health and more respect are approximately -2.7 p.p. and -3.4 p.p., respectively. However, they are substantial only when the average individual moves out of the worst health or respect-related category and they become rather negligible with further improvements. Overall, these results confirm the expectation that the desire to change one's life depends on both objectively observable and self-reported variables. What is more, persons' self-reported capabilities seem to be much more relevant than their socio-demographic characteristics.

As was shown in column 2 of Table 5, wealthier and happier respondents are less prone to desire changes in their life. On the other hand, frequent unfair treatment leads to less desire for change than respectful treatment. This indicates that the group of people not longing for change, which comprises 6% of the respondents, might be heterogeneous: it might encompass both the highly empowered individuals, who have already exercised agency and changed their life to their satisfaction, and the completely disempowered ones, who have resigned themselves with their current position because the cost of changing anything is too high or the probability of succeeding is too low. This suspicion is confirmed when empowerment in the community is added as an additional covariate in column 3: those fully empowered and fully disempowered in the community are less likely to desire changes in their own lives than those who do not feel entirely empowered in the community. It is important to keep this in mind because the following analysis of individual empowerment will be restricted only to those wishing change in their life, as only those responded to the question about the agents of change. The resulting sample selection bias will be addressed in a Heckman selection model.

4.3.2 Correlates and determinants of empowerment at individual level

We now turn to the question on who is best able to affect change in one's life, the central indicator of individual empowerment. Table 6 shows the resulting six sets of odds-ratios comparing the different options.¹⁹ The last three columns show that odds-ratios related to the category 'other actors' are hardly ever significant. Therefore, the following analysis will focus only on pairwise comparisons among the remaining three categories. Generally, respondents' ability to change their lives on their own is significantly influenced by their age, gender, health, and foreigner status. Reliance on family depends on economic activity of the individual. Expectations towards government depend on wealth and area of residence of the household. Lastly, marital status is correlated with the decision whether to rely on government or family. A more detailed analysis of these general patterns follows.

[Table 6 approximately here]

When comparing the categories 'myself' and 'family', the strongest effects in the whole regression emerge for health, gender, and foreigner variables. Health-related variables show the strongest effects overall but their direction are somewhat surprising. According to the results, respondents completely limited by their health are much more prone to rely on themselves (rather than on their family) than people with less or even no health-related limitations. In particular, the odds of relying on themselves are 3.63 and 4.14 times higher for the completely limited individuals when compared to those a lot limited and somewhat limited, respectively. This means that less limited people are by 263% and 314% more prone to rely on their families when compared to the disabled individuals. What is more, even those who are not limited at all have 1.76 times higher odds to expect their family to change their life than the disabled respondents. One possible explanation is that disabled individuals have learned that they cannot rely much on others in this generally poor socio-economic environment and consequently expect not much assistance. With regard to other substantial effects, women, when compared to men, are 2.75 times more prone to rely on their families than on

¹⁹ The corresponding marginal effects evaluated in terms of changes in probabilities at the median of the explanatory variables are shown in Table A5.

themselves. Foreigners, on the other hand, tend to rely on themselves 2.43 times more often than the Gambians. Furthermore, economically inactive people are 1.67 times more prone to expect their families to contribute to changes in their own lives. Lastly, age shows a positive effect in favor of reliance on the family; the economic significance is negligible, though. Those effects are all in line with the hypotheses stated above.

The same pattern (in favor or to the detriment of the category 'myself') emerges also when comparing the choices 'myself' and 'government'. The magnitudes of the odds-ratios are smaller, though, and the economic activity variable is insignificant. Instead, the area of residence is significant – urban dwellers are 1.61 times more prone to rely on themselves than rural dwellers and the inhabitants of rural areas are, correspondingly, by 61% more likely to rely on the government than urban residents. The wealth percentile is statistically but not economically significant.

The last comparison comprises the categories family and government. Wealth and urbanization effects are similar to the previous case. Whereas the magnitude of the urbanization odds-ratio is smaller than it was in case of myself-government comparison, the wealth odds-ratio is larger, albeit still economically insignificant. Furthermore, economic activity is statistically significant: economically inactive people expect more support from their families whereas the active ones rely 1.84 times more often on the government. A very similar effect was present in the myself vs. government comparison as well. What is completely new are the marital status effects. People living in polygamous marriages tend to expect more from their families than from the government – they do 1.59 and 1.34 times more often than unmarried and monogamous people, respectively.

As discussed above sample selection might be an issue which needs to be addressed. Table A6 shows sample-selection-adjusted Heckman probit and unadjusted probit models for each actor. The signs and significances of coefficients in the Heckman probit model are consistent with the multinomial logit estimations presented in Table 6. Also, the differences between Heckman probit and unadjusted probit models are rather negligible. Therefore, we conclude that the sample selection, although it is

indicated by a Likelihood Ratio test, is clearly of little practical importance and does not alter the results substantially.²⁰

Similarly to the communal empowerment, we run a 2SLS regression in order to avoid possible endogeneity bias in education, literacy, economic activity, and wealth. A linear probability model is estimated in the second stage for each actor separately (see Table A7 for the first stages and Table A8 for the second stages and simple OLS results for comparison).²¹ The 2SLS identifies health, gender, foreigner status, and literacy as the main statistically and economically significant determinants of empowerment at individual level; marital status and economic activity are marginally significant in the government regression; age and wealth show statistically significant but economically negligible effects.

To sum up the main results, partially disabled people tend to rely on their families and government whereas those with great or no health problems expect to change their lives on their own. Women, as compared to men, are less prone to rely on themselves and more prone to expect their families or the government to change their own lives. The opposite is true for foreigners – they expect to change their lives on their own whereas the Gambians rely more often on their families. Literate respondents tend to rely on the government and expect less from their families than their illiterate counterparts. Regarding marital status, unmarried and monogamously married people rely more often on government than those living in polygamous marriages. Lastly, people not engaged and not planning to engage in economic activities feel less often that the government will contribute to changes in their lives.

4.4 Discussion of the results

A qualitative summary of the results obtained in all estimations is shown in Table 7.

 $^{^{20}}$ The Likelihood Ratio test of independent equations shows that there is a sample selection bias in case of actors 'myself' (p-value 0.025) and 'government' (p-value 0.007); 'family' equation does not suffer from this problem (p-value 0.402).

²¹ The Hausman test of endogeneity indicates that there is no endogeneity bias in categories 'myself' and 'government' (p-value 0.106 and 0.628, respectively), whereas endogeneity is a problem in the category 'family' (p-value 0.051).

[Table 7 approximately here]

All in all, our findings mainly confirm our hypotheses and confirm that Kabeer's view of a broad notion of 'resources' promoting empowerment at the communal and individual level: At communal level, men, in particular polygamously married men, Gambians, older, economically active, educated, and literate people as well as people a lot limited in health or completely healthy feel that they are able to induce changes. Wealth is relevant to a lesser extent. All these characteristics, except for literacy and wealth, stay significant after correcting for possible endogeneity. Gender is not a determinant of empowerment per se but it contributes to empowerment depending on the marital status in monogamous or polygamous unions. Age was shown to have a positive but diminishing marginal effect, i.e. empowerment increases with age especially at young age. Some findings are surprising: Household headship and the wealth status of the household have no (economically) significant effect on empowerment in the community. Furthermore, with respect to health we found that those who are a lot limited feel more often fully empowered than anyone else, even than those that are completely healthy. This may indicate that they take part in meetings and discussions at the communal level more often or that they know better what is happening in the community since they cannot work and have more time to engage in this type of activities

To sum up, it is particularly education, age, economic activity, being Gambian, and polygamously married male that enhances empowerment. Age, gender and origin cannot be changed by the individuals. Thus, our analysis recommends looking into the structure of political representation at the communal level in order to enhance the empowerment of women and young people at the communal level whereas the efforts of the government in collaboration with international agencies is focused on women in decision making positions on higher governmental levels (Ministry of Women's Affairs 2010). It has been well established in other contexts that the formation of women's groups are effective tools to increase their empowerment in addition to raising their education and improving their health (e.g. SEWA in India, see Narayan 2005: 20). In a similar vein it may enhance the status of young people if they have a right to elect representatives at the communal level who

have to be consulted in any decision by the local committees (Village or Ward Development Committee). Governmental policy mainly targets participation of "youth leaders in all the youth programming" (Gambia National Youth Policy 2009: 17) thus limiting the scope of their participation. Furthermore, while the government has created a national youth council, its commitment to "promote … the role of youth in the management of resources within the communities" (Gambia National Youth Policy 2009: 19) stays vague. Finally, concerning foreigners, it appears that they have a precarious standing in the community which may relate to the security of their status and their acceptance in the community as equal; improvements in their legal status are one way to address this issue.

At the individual level, the analysis comprised two stages. In the first stage, the focus was on whether individuals wish to change something in their lives. Both objectively observable characteristics and self-reported capabilities play a role, but the latter are much more important than the former.

In the second stage of the analysis, we analyzed expectations about who will contribute to any changes in one's life, conditionally on the existence of a desire for change. Essentially, respondents either trust in themselves, their family or the government. Men, foreigners, younger people, completely healthy and completely disabled individuals were found to believe that they themselves will contribute most to any changes in their lives. Testing for possible sample selection bias showed no considerable deviations from the original results. In case of disabled and foreigners, the combination little ability to affect change in the community and their reliance on oneself for change in one-'s own life appears to be more an expression of their isolation, lacking rights, and despondence than an expression of their self-confidence and empowerment. In contrast, those who are less limited by their health and Gambians voice more trust in their families. Furthermore, members of wealthy households, women, older and illiterate people think that their families will contribute most to changes in their lives.

Concerning the expectations towards the government, it is in particular women, older, not married and monogamously married, economically active, Gambians, literate, and relatively less wealthy people who put their hope in the government.

To sum up, age, gender, nationality, health, marital status, and economic activity are determinants of empowerment at both individual and communal level. Additionally, whereas education determines positively communal empowerment, literacy and wealth determine empowerment at individual level. Given these findings the official government policies point to the right direction. The government seems to have successfully improved education in the last couple of years (Ministry of Women's Affairs 2010). In particular, educational enrolment of girls has increased. However, as other studies have shown, there is a time-lag of five to ten years between improvements in education of women and a measurable empowerment effect (Wyndow et al. 2013). Also, the government rightly states that it is challenging to maintain enrolment rates and further the quality of education, in particular given the sustained population growth (Gambia National Youth Policy 2009-2018). "Progress in health indicators has been less consistent" as the World Bank and African Development Bank (2013: 7) state. They explain these results by a shift from primary to tertiary health care in combination with centralized budgeting and aim to focus their aid on service delivery at the community level. Our findings suggest benefitting from the empowerment of people limited by their health at the communal level. Concerning individual empowerment our findings raise the question of the status of people with ill health in their families. Their participation in health programs at the communal level may have positive effects on their individual empowerment as well.

5. Conclusion

The concept of empowerment is closely related to agency and thereby to human development. Since both agency and empowerment are not only intrinsically valuable but also instrumentally important for poverty reduction, this study investigated empirically the correlates and determinants of empowerment and agency. Further we asked which socio-demographic groups feel particularly empowered.

In our empirical analysis, we focused on empowerment at communal and individual level. Individuals' ability and willingness to induce changes in their lives as well as respondents' expectations about the actors who will most contribute to any changes in their lives were examined using a unique dataset from The Gambia. It contains not only new and superior direct measures of agency and empowerment but also self-reported data on capabilities. We included the latter in our analysis in order to complement socio-demographic and economic characteristics of respondents. Most importantly, this analysis is concerned with empowerment in general terms, i.e. no particular group is focused on a priori. In this sense it is a pioneer work because it gives new and valuable insights into empowerment of various socio-demographic groups in a developing country setting, not exclusively into women's empowerment. Additionally, econometric techniques aimed at correcting for possible sample selection and endogeneity biases have been applied.

This work was a first attempt to determine which characteristics and capabilities of individuals in a developing country setting are particularly relevant and causal for their empowerment. Future research could deploy more sensible econometric techniques such as General Method of Moments (GMM) in order to deal with endogeneity in a more sophisticated way. Also, availability of panel data would be of great importance as it would enable to explore changes in empowerment over time.

References

- Alkire, S. (2005). Subjective quantitative studies of human agency. *Social Indicators Research*, 74, 217–260.
- Alkire, S. (2009). Concepts and Measures of Agency. In K. Basu, S. M. R. Kanbur & A. Sen (Eds.), Arguments for a Better World. Essays in Honor of Amartya Sen Vol. 1, Ethics, Welfare and Measurement (pp. 455-474). Oxford; New York: Oxford University Press.
- Allendorf, K. (2007a). Do Women's Land Rights Promote Empowerment and Child Health in Nepal? *World Development*, *35*(11), 1975-1988.
- Allendorf, K. (2007b). Couples' Reports of Women's Autonomy and Health-care Use in Nepal. *Studies in Family Planning*, *38*(1), 35–46.
- Allendorf, K. (2012). Women's Agency and the Quality of Family Relationships in India. *Population Research and Policy Review*, *31*(2), 187–206.
- Alsop, R., Bertelsen, M. F., & Holland, J. (2006). *Empowerment in Practice: From Analysis to Implementation*. Washington D.C.: World Bank.
- Alsop, R. & Heinsohn, N. (2005). *Measuring Empowerment in Practice: Structuring Analysis and Framing Indicators*. Policy Research Working Paper. World Bank.
- Anderson, S. & Eswaran, M. (2009). What Determines Female Autonomy? Evidence from Bangladesh. *Journal of Development Economics*, 90(2), 179–191.
- Appleyard, S. (2002). A Rights-Based Approach to Development: What the policy documents of the UN, development cooperation and NGO agencies say. Background Paper for Human Rights
 Roundtable No. 1: "A rights-based approach to development". Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights, Asia-Pacific.
- Chambers, R. (1993). *Challenging the Professions: Frontiers for Rural Development*. London: Intermediate Technology Publications.

- Chirkov, V., Ryanand, R. M., & Willness, C. (2005). Cultural context and psychological needs in Canada and Brazil: testing a self-determination approach to the internalization of cultural practices, identity, and well-being. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, *36*, 423–443.
- CIA (2012). *The World Factbook: The Gambia*. Central Intelligence Agency. Version updated on September 11, 2012; accessed on October 7, 2012. <u>www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/ga.html</u>
- Filmer, D. &Pritchett, L. (2001). Estimating Wealth Effect Without Expenditure Data Or Tears: An Application to Educational Enrollments in States of India. *Demography*, 38, 115-132.
- Gambia National Youth Policy (2009) Gambai National Youth Policy 2009-2018. http://planipolis.iiep.unesco.org/upload/Youth/Gambia/Gambia_National_%20Youth_Policy_20 09_%202018.pdf accessed 23/12/2013.
- Garikipati, S. (2008). The Impact of Lending to Women on Household Vulnerability and Women's Empowerment: Evidence from India. *World Development*, *36*(12), 2620–2642.
- Grootaert, C. (2003). *Assessing Empowerment in the Eca Region*. Paper given at the World Bank Workshop on Measuring Empowerment: Cross-disciplinary Perspectives. Washington D.C.
- Gupta, K. & Yesudian, P. P. (2006). Evidence of Women's Empowerment in India: a Study of Socio-spatial Disparities. *GeoJournal*, 65(4), 365–380.
- Hindin, M. J. (2000). Women's Power and Anthropometric Status in Zimbabwe. *Social Science and Medicine*, *51*, 1517-1528.
- Ibrahim, S. & Alkire, S. (2007). Agency and Empowerment: A Proposal for Internationally Comparable Indicators. *Oxford Development Studies*, *35*(4), 379-403.
- Jackson, C. (1996). Rescuing Gender from the Poverty Trap. World Development, 24(3), 489-504.

- Jejeebhoy, S. J. (2000). Women's autonomy in rural India: Its dimensions, determinants and the influence of context. In H. Presser & G. Sen (Eds.), Women's Empowerment and Demographic Processes. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Jejeebhoy S. J. & Sathar, Z. A. (2001). Women's Autonomy in India and Pakistan: The Influence of Religion and Region. *Population and Development Review*, *27*, 687-712.
- Kabeer, N. (1999). Resources, agency, achievements: reflections on the measurement of women's empowerment. *Development and Change*, *30*(3), 435-464.
- Khwaja, A. I. (2005). Measuring empowerment at the community level: an economist's perspective.In D. Narayan (Ed.), *Measuring Empowerment: Cross-Disciplinary Perspectives* (pp. 267–284).Washington D.C.: World Bank.
- Kim, J. C., Watts, Ch. H., Hargreaves, J. R., Ndhlovu, L. X., Phetla, G., Morison, L. A., ... Pronyk,
 P. (2007). Understanding the Impact of a Microfinance-Based Intervention on Women's Empowerment and the Reduction of Intimate Partner Violence in South Africa. *American Journal of Public Health*, 97(10), 1794–1802.
- Klasen, S. (2000). Measuring Poverty and Deprivation in South Africa. *Review of Income and Wealth*, 46(1), 33–58.
- Kolenikov, S. & Angeles, G. (2009). Socioeconomic Status Measurement with Discrete Proxy Variables: Is Principal Component Analysis A Reliable Answer? *Review of Income and Wealth*, 55(1), 128–165.
- Lokshin, M. & Ravallion, M. (2005). Self-Rated Power and Welfare in Russia. In D. Narayan (Ed.), *Measuring Empowerment: Cross-Disciplinary Perspectives* (pp. 177-195). Washington D.C.: World Bank.
- Long, J. S. & Freese, J. (2006). Regression Models for Categorical Dependent Variables Using Stata. College Station, Tex.: Stata Press.

- Malena, C. (2003). Measuring empowerment at the national level: the case of the CIVICUS Civil Society Index (CSI). Paper given at the World Bank Workshop on Measuring Empowerment: Cross-disciplinary Perspectives. Washington D.C.
- Malhotra, A. & Mather, M. (1997). Do Schooling and Work Empower Women in Developing Countries? Gender and Domestic Decisions in Sri Lanka. *Sociological Forum*, *12*(4), 599-630.
- Malhotra, A., Schuler, S. R. & Boender, C. (2002). *Measuring Women's Empowerment as a Variable in International Development*. Washington D.C.: The World Bank.
- Malhotra, A. & Schuler, S. R. (2005). Women's empowerment as a variable in international development. In D. Narayan (Ed.), *Measuring Empowerment: Cross-Disciplinary Perspectives* (pp. 219–246). Washington D.C.: World Bank.
- Mason, K. O. & Smith, H. (2003). *Women's Empowerment and Social Context: Results from Five Asian Countries*. Washington D.C.: Gender and Development Group, World Bank.
- Mayoux, L. (2000). From Access to Empowerment: Gender Issues in Micro-Finance. CSD NGO Women's Caucus Position Paper for CSD-8.
- McMillan, B., Florin, P., Stevenson, J., Kerman, B. & Mitchell, R. (1995). Empowerment Praxis in Community Coalitions. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 23(5), 699–728.
- Ministry of Women's Affairs (2010). *The Gambia National Gender Policy 2010-2020*. <u>http://213.55.79.31/beijing/beijingplus15/Questionnaire/DAW/English/Gambia.pdf</u> accessed 23/12/2013.
- Moser, C. (1991). Gender Planning and Development. London: Routledge.

Narayan, D. (2000). Voices of the Poor: Can Anyone Hear Us? New York: Oxford University Press.

Narayan, D. (2005). Conceptual Framework and Methodological Challenges. In D. Narayan (Ed.), *Measuring Empowerment: Cross-Disciplinary Perspectives* (pp. 3-38). Washington D.C.: World Bank.

- Rowlands, J. (1997). *Questioning Empowerment: Working with Women in Honduras*. Oxford: Oxfam.
- Roy, T. K. & Niranjan, S. (2004). Indicators of Women's Empowerment in India. Asia-Pacific Population Journal, 19(3).
- Samman, E. & Santos, M.E. (2009). Agency and Empowerment: A review of concepts, indicators and empirical evidence. Background paper for the 2009 Human Development Report in Latin America and the Caribbean on Agency, Empowerment and the Intergenerational Transmission of Inequality in Latin America.
- Sen, A. (1985). Well-being, agency and freedom: the Dewey Lectures 1984. The Journal of Philosophy, 82, 169–221.
- Stock, J. H. & Watson, M.W. (2011). Introduction to Econometrics. Boston: Addison-Wesley.
- Strandberg, N. (2001). Conceptualizing Empowerment as a Transformative Strategy for Poverty Eradication and the Implications for Measuring Progress. Paper given at United Nations Division for the Advancement of Women Expert Group Meeting. New Delhi.
- Thomas, D. (1997). Incomes, Expenditures, and health Outcomes: Evidence on Intra-household Resource Allocation. In H. Lawrence, J. Hoddinnott & H. Alderman, (Eds.), *Intra-household Resource Allocation in Developing Countries: Models, Methods and Policy*. Baltimore; London: John Hopkins University Press.
- UNDP (2011). *Human Development Report 2011. Sustainability and equity : a better future for all.* New York: United Nations Development Programme.
- Williams, R. (2006). Generalized Ordered Logit/ Partial Proportional Odds Models for Ordinal Dependent Variables. *The Stata Journal*, 6(1), 58-82.
- World Bank (2001). World Development Report 2000/2001. Attacking Poverty. New York: Oxford University Press.

- World Bank (2012). World Development Indicators: The Gambia. Accessed on October 7, 2012. http://data.worldbank.org/country/gambia
- World Bank & African Development Bank (2012). Second Joint Partnership Strategy for the Republic of The Gambia for Fiscal Years 2013-2016. <u>http://www-wds.worldbank.org/external/default/WDSContentServer/WDSP/IB/2013/04/18/000350881_2013</u>
 <u>0418085848/Rendered/INDEX/721400CAS0REVI00900IDA0R20130006102.txt</u> accessed 23/12/2013.
- Wyndow, P.; Li J. & Mattes, E. (2013). Female Empowerment as the Core Driver of Democratic Development: A dynamic Panel Model from 1980 to 2005. *World Development 52*, 34-54.

Tables

Type of power	Type of empowerment
Power over	Empowerment as control: control over personal decisions
Power to	Empowerment as choice: domain-specific autonomy, household decision-making
Power with	Empowerment in community: changing aspects in one's life at communal level
Power from within	Empowerment as change: changing aspects in one's life at individual level

Table 1: Four types of power and empowerment

Note: Based on Ibrahim and Alkire (2007), p. 388.

Table 2: Empirical	studies of correlates	and determinants of	empowerment
--------------------	-----------------------	---------------------	-------------

Study	Sample	Estimation method	Correction for endogeneity	Correlates/determinants
Gupta and Yesudian (2006)	ever-married women in India	logit regression	no	education, literacy, age, mass media exposure, household wealth
Allendorf (2007a)	female agricultural workers in Nepal	OLS, logit regression	no	ownership of land or livestock, effective land or livestock rights, pay for work, position in the household, age, education, caste, religion
Allendorf (2012)	married mothers in India	OLS	no	family relationship quality, area of residence, age, education, employment outside the household
Lokshin and Ravallion (2005)	adults in Russia	ordered probit regression	no	income, gender, education, age, employment
Garikipati (2008)	women in India	2SLS tobit- logit regression	yes	education, participation in a microcredit program, household wealth
Anderson and Eswaran (2009)	household heads' wives in Bangladesh	2SLS	yes	value of assets, time worked, earnings from work, age, position in the household

	Explanatory	variables		Expectations regard more er	ling which groups are npowered
Type of variable	Variable	Original scale	Measurement	Communal empowerment	Individual empowerment
	age	cardinal	years	older	younger
	gender	nominal	dummy	men	men
socio- demographic	marital status	nominal	set of 3 dummies	married	unmarried
	position within the household	nominal	dummy	household head	regular household member
	religion	nominal	dummy	unclear	unclear
	ethnicity	nominal	set of 7 dummies	unclear	unclear
	foreigner status	nominal	dummy	Gambian	foreigner
socio- demographic socio- economic regional	education	nominal	dummy	educated	educated
	literacy	nominal	dummy	literate	literate
socio- economic	economic activity	nominal	dummy	employed / economically active	employed / economically active
	expenditure (short- term well-being)	cardinal	logarithm	wealthy	wealthy
	wealth index (long- term well-being)	cardinal	percentile	wealthy	wealthy
	rural or urban	nominal	dummy	unclear	urban
regional	local government area	nominal	set of 8 dummies	unclear	unclear
self-reported capabilities	health status	ordinal	set of 4 dummies	healthy	unclear

Table 3: Overview of explanatory variables and expected influence on empowerment

	Ascending grade of easiness in inducing changes in one's community							
Explanatory variables		Correlates		Determinants				
	Generalized ordered (Odds-ratio	logit model os)	OLS	2SLS				
Age	1.043**		0.014**	0.017***				
Age squared	1.000**		-0.000**	-0.000**				
Female	0.746**		-0.107**	-0.100**				
Not married	0.709**		-0.116**	-0.119**				
Monogamous marriage *	0.806**		-0.077**	-0.102***				
Polygamous marriage	RC		RC	RC				
Not household head	1.286*		0.095*	0.126**				
Not Muslim	1.174		0.061	0.088				
Foreigner	0.377***	0.692*	-0.238***	-0.222***				
Went to school	1.516***	¢	0.139***	0.147***				
Literate	1.438***	1.044	0.058	0.059				
Economically inactive	0.764**		-0.089**	-0.164***				
Log(expenditure)	1.064	1.024	-	-				
Expenditure missing	1.217		-	-				
Wealth percentile	1.006**		0.002***	0.001				
Health completely limiting	RC		RC	RC				
Health a lot limiting	2.977***	*	0.376***	0.243***				
Health somewhat limiting	1.725***	¢	0.192***	0.130*				
Health not limiting *	2.336***	*	0.299***	0.209***				
Urban	1.372	0.853	-0.010	0.525				
LGA Banjul	0.203***	0.832	-0.223***	-28.244*				
LGA Kanifing	0.333***	0.793	-0.171***	18.194*				
LGA Brikama *	RC		RC	RC				
LGA Mansakonko	0.317***	1.243	-0.163**	35.354*				
LGA Kerewan	1.275		0.076	17.383*				
LGA Kuntaur	0.628**	1.031	-0.074	45.951*				
LGA Janjanbureh	1.922***	¢	0.220***	36.065*				
LGA Basse	1.513**		0.122**	46.156*				
Tribe Mandinka	1.028		0.006	0.037				
Tribe Fula *	RC		RC	RC				
Tribe Wollof	0.753	1.267	0.005	0.008				
Tribe Jola	0.813		-0.079	-0.046				
Tribe Sarehuleh	1.679		0.149	0.146				
Tribe Sererr	1.327		0.071	-0.006				
Other tribe	0.886		-0.038	-0.015				
Constant	-	-	1.483***	33.819*				

Table 4: Correlates and determinants of the ability to change things in one's community in a generalized ordered logit model, OLS, and 2SLS

Note: Odds-ratios from a generalized ordered logit model estimation are displayed in the 1st column. The generalized ordered logit model estimates one coefficient for each variable under the parallel regression assumption. Two coefficients are estimated for those variables where this assumption is violated. For those variables, the left column coefficient compares (Change easily) and (Change with difficulty) and (Change not possible). The right column coefficient compares (Change easily) and (Change with difficulty or Change not possible). The 2SLS estimation includes village fixed effects. The Hausman test of endogeneity indicates that there are endogeneity problems (p-value 0.005). The reference categories (RC) are displayed for discrete variables with more than two categories; they are left out for binary variables. Significance levels are marked as follows: * 10%, ** 5%, *** 1%. Sample size: 2184 observations.

Table 5: Correlates of the desire to change something in one's life in a probit model

	Desire to change something in one's life						
Explanatory variables	Without self-reported capability variables	With self-reported capability variables	With self-reported capability variables and empowerment in the community				
Age	-0.013***	-0.014***	-0.015***				
Female	0.044	0.172	0.172				
Not married	-0.087	-0.093	-0.101				
Monogamous marriage *	-0.049	-0.061	-0.067				
Polygamous marriage	RC	RC	RC				
Not household head	-0.083	-0.185	-0.195				
Not Muslim	-0.411**	-0.544**	-0.559**				
Foreigner	-0.230	-0.316*	-0.229				
Went to school	-0.254*	-0.286**	-0.286*				
Literate	0.023	0.089	0.064				
Economically inactive	-0.114	-0.084	-0.068				
Log(expenditure)	0.020	0.033	0.025				
Expenditure missing	-0.097	-0.084	-0.120				
Wealth percentile	-0.013***	-0.008**	-0.008**				
Health completely limiting		RC	RC				
Health a lot limiting		-0.891**	-0.910**				
Health somewhat limiting		-0.764*	-0.785*				
Health not limiting *		-0 574	-0.590				
Unhanny		BC	BC				
Hanny *		-0.285	-0.355				
Very happy		0.710***	0.806***				
A commodation unsuitable		-0.71) PC	-0.000				
Accommodation suitable *		0.557***	0.520**				
Accommodation yory suitable		1 110***	1.049***				
		-1.110****	-1.048****				
Respected never of occasionally		1.020***	NC 0.064***				
Respected always *		-1.050***	-0.904				
Tracted unfairly always		-0.043	-0.578				
Treated unfairly aways		0.420*	NC 0.402*				
Treated unfailly nequently		0.429	0.403				
		0.427**	0.430**				
Connect changes this as in the community of all		0.475***	0.479***				
Can shange things in the community with difficulty			NC 0.425***				
Can change things in the community with difficulty			0.423****				
	0.008	0.074	0.215				
Urban	-0.098	-0.0/4	-0.072				
LGA Kapifng	-0.455**	-0.558***	-0.470**				
LCA Dellarer *	-0.819***	-0.855****	-0.81/***				
	RC 0.179	RC 0.126	RC 0.022				
	-0.178	-0.126	-0.023				
LGA Kerewan	-0.722***	-0.797***	-0./98***				
LGA Kuntaur	-0.316	-0.540*	-0.553*				
LGA Janjanbureh	-0.405	-0.408	-0.370				
LGA Basse	-0.464**	-0.464*	-0.452*				
Tribe Mandinka	0.118	0.005	0.020				
Tribe Fula *	RC	RC	RC				
Tribe Wollof	-0.228	-0.438***	-0.413**				
	0.246	0.200	0.229				
The Sarehuleh	-0.212	-0.380	-0.356				
Tribe Seren	0.205	0.037	0.070				
Other tribe	0.161	0.071	0.090				
Constant	3.592***	5.154***	4.925***				

Note: Coefficients from a probit model estimation are displayed. The reference categories (RC) are displayed for discrete variables with more than two categories. The mode categories are marked with an asterisk for discrete variables with more than two categories; they are left out for binary variables. Significance levels are marked as follows: * 10%, ** 5%, *** 1%. Sample size: 2184 observations.

	Pairwise comparisons of the actors expected to contribute most to any changes in one's life							
Explanatory variables	Myself vs. Family	Myself vs. Government	Family vs. Government	Other vs. Government	Other vs. Family	Other vs. Myself		
Age	0.983***	0.983***	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.017**		
Female	0.364***	0.436***	1.200	0.823	0.686	1.886**		
Not married	1.148	0.724	0.631**	1.096	1.737*	1.513		
Monogamous marriage *	1.018	0.759*	0.745**	0.788	1.058	1.039		
Polygamous marriage	RC	RC	RC	RC	RC	RC		
Not household head	0.931	0.760	0.816	0.832	1.019	1.094		
Not Muslim	0.861	0.544*	0.632	0.524	0.830	0.964		
Foreigner	2.428***	1.649**	0.679	1.384	2.037*	0.839		
Went to school	1.352*	1.156	0.855	1.126	1.317	0.974		
Literate	1.016	0.758*	0.745*	0.706	0.947	0.932		
Economically inactive	0.600***	1.106	1.844***	1.429	0.775	1.292		
Log(expenditure)	1.096	1.070	0.976	1.096	1.123	1.024		
Expenditure missing	3.199	1.816	0.568	1.675	2.951	0.922		
Wealth percentile	0.995	1.008**	1.013***	1.008	0.995	1.000		
Health completely limiting	RC	RC	RC	RC	RC	RC		
Health a lot limiting	0.276***	0.464**	1.685	0.634	0.376*	1.366		
Health somewhat limiting	0.242***	0.343***	1.419	0.775	0.546	2.260		
Health not limiting *	0.568**	0.864	1.522	0.777	0.510	0.898		
Urban	1.095	1.613**	1.474**	1.233	0.837	0.765		
LGA Banjul	0.472**	0.752	1.595	6.738***	4.224***	8.955***		
LGA Kanifing	0.810	1.382	1.706**	3.095***	1.815	2.239**		
LGA Brikama *	RC	RC	RC	RC	RC	RC		
LGA Mansakonko	0.857	0.917	1.071	2.144	2.002	2.337*		
LGA Kerewan	0.392***	0.659*	1.684**	0.902	0.536	1.369		
LGA Kuntaur	0.701	0.589**	0.841	0.997	1.185	1.692		
LGA Janjanbureh	0.721	1.269	1.759**	2.196*	1.248	1.730		
LGA Basse	0.869	0.756	0.870	0.297**	0.341*	0.392		
Tribe Mandinka	0.797	1.048	1.316*	1.209	0.919	1.153		
Tribe Fula *	RC	RC	RC	RC	RC	RC		
Tribe Wollof	0.910	0.585***	0.642**	1.092	1.700	1.867*		
Tribe Jola	0.825	0.703	0.852	0.984	1.155	1.400		
Tribe Sarehuleh	0.436*	0.760	1.745	3.219*	1.845	4.234**		
Tribe Sererr	1.006	1.088	1.082	1.782	1.648	1.638		
Other tribe	1.201	1.501	1.249	2.001	1.601	1.333		

Table 6: Correlates of the expectations concerning who will contribute most to any changes in one's life in a multinomial logit model

Note: Odds-ratios from a multinomial logit estimation are displayed. The reference categories (RC) are displayed for discrete variables with more than two categories. The mode categories are marked with an asterisk for discrete variables with more than two categories; they are left out for binary variables. Significance levels are marked as follows: * 10%, ** 5%, *** 1%. Sample size: 2052 observations.

Table 7: Summary of correlates and determinants of empowerment at communal and individual level

	Empowerment a	t communal level		Empowerment at individual level						
	Ascending grade of changes in on	easiness in inducing e's community	А	Actors expected to contribute most to any changes in one's life						
	Correlates	Determinants	(1	Correlates multinomial log	;it)	Determinants (2SLS)				
	(generalized ordered logit)	(2SLS)	Myself vs. Family	Myself vs. Government	Family vs. Government	Myself	Family	Government		
Age	+	+	-	-	0	-	+	+		
Age squared	-	-								
Female	-	-	-	-	0	-	+	+		
Not married	-	-	0	0	-	0	0	+		
Monogamous marriage *	-	-	0	-	-	0	0	+		
Polygamous marriage	RC	RC	RC	RC	RC	RC	RC	RC		
Not household head	+	+	0	0	0	0	0	0		
Not Muslim	0	0	0	-	0	0	0	0		
Foreigner	-	-	+	+	0	+	-	0		
Went to school	+	+	+	0	0	0	0	0		
Literate	+	0	0	-	-	0	-	+		
Economically inactive	-	-	-	0	+	0	0	-		
Log(expenditure)	0		0	0	0					
Expenditure missing	0		0	0	0					
Wealth percentile	+	0	0	+	+	0	+	-		
Health completely limiting	RC	RC	RC	RC	RC	RC	RC	RC		
Health a lot limiting	+	+	-	-	0	-	+	0		
Health somewhat limiting	+	+	-	-	0	-	+	+		
Health not limiting *	+	+	-	0	0	0	0	0		
Urban	0	0	0	+	+	0	0	0		
Number of observations	2184	2184	2052	2052	2052	2052	2052	2052		

Note: The table shows whether the effect of the explanatory variable on the dependent variable is significantly positive (+), significantly negative (-) or whether it is insignificant (0) at 10% significance level. The reference categories (RC) are displayed for discrete variables with more than two categories; they are left out for binary variables. The mode categories are marked with an asterisk for discrete variables with more than two categories; they are left out for binary variables.

Appendix

Table A1: Respondent's characteristics disaggregated by	respondents' ability and	l willingness to change thi	ings in their life, and	by respondents'	expectations about
who will contribute most to any changes in their life					

	Overall	Grade of difficulty in inducing changes in one's community			Desire to cha	ange something ne's life	Actors expected to contribute most to any changes in one's life			
	Overall	Change not possible	Change with difficulty	Change easily	Wants change	Does not want change	Myself	Family	Government	Other
Age	46.8	46.7	46.8	46.8	46.6	50.4	44.3	48.2	47.3	47.0
Male	73.8	66.2	74.3	76.7	74.1	68.2	84.0	64.2	75.3	67.9
Female	26.2	33.8	25.7	23.3	25.9	31.8	16.0	35.8	24.7	32.1
Not married	14.3	19.5	14.0	12.1	13.8	21.2	11.7	15.0	12.5	24.1
Monogamous marriage *	59.9	60.4	60.3	59.1	59.8	61.4	63.3	56.0	61.8	54.0
Polygamous marriage	25.8	20.1	25.7	28.8	26.3	17.4	25.0	29.0	25.6	21.9
Household head	83.9	84.3	83.6	84.0	83.9	83.3	87.9	79.8	84.1	83.2
Not household head	16.1	15.7	16.4	16.0	16.1	16.7	12.1	20.2	15.9	16.8
Muslim	94.1	94.2	93.6	95.0	94.6	87.1	94.3	95.5	94.2	92.7
Not Muslim	5.9	5.8	6.4	5.0	5.4	12.9	5.7	4.5	5.8	7.3
Gambian	92.2	84.1	93.5	94.3	92.5	87.1	88.6	95.7	94.4	89.8
Foreigner	7.8	15.9	6.5	5.7	7.5	12.9	11.4	4.3	5.6	10.2
Did not go to school	72.4	80.5	73.1	67.3	73.8	50.8	69.4	75.9	79.5	65.0
Went to school	27.6	19.5	26.9	32.7	26.2	49.2	30.6	24.1	20.5	35.0
Illiterate	53.9	62.9	53.5	50.1	55.1	36.4	50.2	59.5	57.3	50.4
Literate	46.1	37.1	46.5	49.9	44.9	63.6	49.8	40.5	42.7	49.6
Economically active	83.8	79.1	83.8	86.2	84.7	69.7	89.7	77.2	89.1	81.0
Economically inactive	16.2	20.9	16.2	13.8	15.3	30.3	10.3	22.8	10.9	19.0
Log(expenditure)	7.8	7.2	8.0	7.8	7.8	8.2	7.8	8.0	7.1	8.3
Wealth percentile	50.5	49.3	50.6	50.8	48.8	76.8	49.9	52.8	38.7	59.2
Health completely limiting	5.0	8.0	6.0	2.2	5.3	1.5	6.1	3.5	6.8	4.4
Health a lot limiting	10.1	8.2	9.2	12.3	9.7	15.2	6.5	12.7	10.3	9.5
Health somewhat limiting	20.8	23.6	22.2	17.5	20.7	23.5	12.4	24.8	25.6	24.8
Health not limiting *	64.1	60.2	62.6	68.1	64.3	59.8	75.0	59.0	57.3	61.3
Unhappy	28.6	39.6	25.8	27.3	30.2	3.8	28.0	24.1	42.7	26.3
Happy *	59.8	52.5	63.5	58.0	59.8	59.8	62.2	63.5	50.7	62.0
Very happy	11.6	8.0	10.8	14.7	10.0	36.4	9.9	12.4	6.6	11.7
Accomodation unsuitable	34.0	41.2	33.4	31.2	35.9	4.5	32.3	31.7	46.7	35.8
Accomodation suitable *	58.4	53.0	60.4	58.0	58.0	63.6	60.9	62.3	48.1	57.7
Accomodation very suitable	7.6	5.8	6.2	10.8	6.1	31.8	6.8	5.9	5.2	6.6
Respected occassionally or never	5.7	9.3	6.8	2.2	5.9	1.5	4.9	6.1	7.2	6.6
Respected frequently	15.2	23.4	17.1	8.5	14.6	25.8	14.0	14.9	13.9	18.2
Respected always *	79.1	67.3	76.1	89.4	79.5	72.7	81.1	79.1	78.9	75.2
Treated unfairly always	7.1	4.1	6.5	9.4	6.6	14.4	7.9	4.9	8.0	3.6
Treated unfairly frequently	10.6	4.7	10.1	14.2	10.4	12.9	9.0	9.1	12.9	15.3
Treated unfairly occasionally	27.3	38.5	31.1	16.1	27.1	30.3	23.1	30.4	25.8	35.8
Treated unfairly never *	55.0	52.7	52.3	60.3	55.8	42.4	59.9	55.6	53.3	45.3
Rural	56.2	55.2	54.9	58.5	58.7	17.4	55.1	53.5	75.5	41.6
Urban	43.8	44.8	45.1	41.5	41.3	82.6	44.9	46.5	24.5	58.4
LGA Banjul	6.5	10.2	5.4	6.3	6.2	11.4	4.9	6.6	3.0	22.6
LGA Kanifing	21.0	25.8	21.3	18.1	18.6	59.1	21.3	21.4	8.7	26.3
LGA Brikama *	21.8	15.7	24.6	20.7	22.8	6.1	25.6	21.4	22.9	15.3
LGA Mansakonko	6.1	12.9	3.7	6.4	6.4	1.5	6.1	5.6	7.6	8.0
LGA Kerewan	12.2	8.5	12.3	13.9	12.3	10.6	9.2	15.9	13.3	7.3
LGA Kuntaur	10.6	15.7	9.8	9.3	11.1	3.0	9.5	7.9	18.5	8.8
LGA Janjanbureh	8.3	2.5	8.6	10.8	8.6	3.0	8.2	9.5	8.0	8.8
LGA Basse	13.4	8.8	14.3	14.5	13.9	5.3	15.3	11.7	18.1	2.9
Tribe Mandinka	30.9	26.6	31.9	31.5	31.5	21.2	29.2	37.5	27.8	27.0
I ribe Fula *	31.3	31.0	32.2	30.2	32.0	21.2	35.6	27.4	35.6	22.6
Tribe Lole	13.6	17.0	11.4	15.3	13.0	24.2	11.3	11.1	16.7	17.5
Tribe Somehylah	9.0	11.3	9.4	1.4	9.2	0.8	9.0	9.1	9.5	9.5
Tribe Sarehuleh	1.9	1.6	1.6	2.6	1.7	5.3	1.1	2.5	1.0	3.6
Other tribe	5.1	4.4	4./	0.1	5.0	0.8	4.5	5.8	4.0	8.8
Number of observations	0.1 2184	6.0 364	0.8	7.0	2052	14.4	9.5 710	603	503	10.9

Note: The table displays the sample mean in case of continuous variables (age, log(expenditure), wealth percentile) and the fraction of respondents with the corresponding characteristic in case of discrete variables. The mode category is listed first for binary variables and marked with an asterisk for discrete variables with more than two categories.

Table A2: Fractions of respondents with different possibilities to change something in their community, fractions of respondents willing to change something in their life, and
fractions of respondents who expect a particular actor to contribute most to any changes in their life; disaggregated by respondent's characteristics

	Grade of dif	ficulty in inducion one's communit	ng changes y	Desire to chain o	ange something ne's life	Number of	Actors expected to contribute to any changes in one's li			st	Number of
	Change not possible	Change with difficulty	Change easily	Wants change	Does not want change	observations	Myself	Family	Government	Other	observations
Overall	16.7	49.8	33.6	94.0	6.0	2184	35.0	33.8	24.5	6.7	2052
Male	15.0	50.2	34.9	94.4	5.6	1611	39.7	29.3	24.9	6.1	1521
Female	21.5	48.7	29.8	92.7	7.3	573	21.7	46.7	23.4	8.3	531
Not married	22.8	48.7	28.5	91.0	9.0	312	29.6	36.6	22.2	11.6	284
Monogamous marriage *	16.8	50.1	33.1	93.8	6.2	1309	37.1	31.6	25.3	6.0	1228
Polygamous marriage	13.0	49.6	37.5	95.9	4.1	563	33.3	37.2	23.9	5.6	540
Household head	16.8	49.6	33.6	94.0	6.0	1832	36.7	32.1	24.6	6.6	1722
Not household head	16.2	50.6	33.2	93.8	6.3	352	26.4	42.4	24.2	7.0	330
Muslim	16.7	49.5	33.9	94.4	5.6	2056	34.9	34.1	24.4	6.5	1941
Not Muslim	16.4	54.7	28.9	86.7	13.3	128	36.9	27.9	26.1	9.0	111
Gambian	15.2	50.5	34.3	94.3	5.7	2013	33.6	34.9	25.0	6.5	1898
Foreigner	33.9	41.5	24.6	90.1	9.9	171	53.2	19.5	18.2	9.1	154
Did not go to school	18.5	50.3	31.2	95.8	4.2	1581	33.0	34.7	26.4	5.9	1514
Went to school	11.8	48.4	39.8	89.2	10.8	603	40.9	31.0	19.1	8.9	538
Illiterate	19.4	49.4	31.2	95.9	4.1	1178	31.9	36.5	25.5	6.1	1130
Literate	13.4	50.2	36.4	91.7	8.3	1006	38.8	30.5	23.3	7.4	922
Economically active	15.7	49.8	34.5	95.0	5.0	1831	37.1	30.8	25.8	6.4	1739
Economically inactive	21.5	49.9	28.6	88.7	11.3	353	23.6	50.5	17.6	8.3	313
Health completely limiting	26.4	59.1	14.5	98.2	1.8	110	40.7	22.2	31.5	5.6	108
Health a lot limiting	13.6	45.5	40.9	90.9	9.1	220	23.5	44.0	26.0	6.5	200
Health somewhat limiting	18.9	53.0	28.1	93.2	6.8	455	21.0	40.6	30.4	8.0	424
Health not limiting *	15.7	48.7	35.7	94.4	5.6	1399	40.8	31.0	21.8	6.4	1320
Unhappy	23.1	44.9	32.1	99.2	0.8	624	32.5	27.0	34.7	5.8	619
Happy *	14.6	52.8	32.5	94.0	6.0	1306	36.4	35.9	20.8	6.9	1227
Very happy	11.4	46.1	42.5	81.1	18.9	254	34.5	41.7	16.0	7.8	206
Accomodation unsuitable	20.2	48.9	30.9	99.2	0.8	742	31.5	29.9	31.9	6.7	736
Accomodation suitable *	15.1	51.5	33.3	93.4	6.6	1275	36.8	36.3	20.3	6.6	1191
Accomodation very suitable	12.6	40.1	47.3	74.9	25.1	167	39.2	32.8	20.8	7.2	125
Respected occassionally or never	27.4	59.7	12.9	98.4	1.6	124	28.7	34.4	29.5	7.4	122
Respected frequently	25.5	55.9	18.6	89.8	10.2	333	33.8	34.4	23.4	8.4	299
Respected always *	14.2	47.9	37.9	94.4	5.6	1727	35.7	33.6	24.3	6.3	1631
Treated unfairly always	9.7	45.8	44.5	87.7	12.3	155	41.9	25.0	29.4	3.7	136
Treated unfairly frequently	7.4	47.6	45.0	92.6	7.4	231	30.4	29.4	30.4	9.8	214
Treated unfairly occasionally	23.5	56.7	19.8	93.3	6.7	596	29.9	37.9	23.4	8.8	556
Treated unfairly never *	16.0	47.3	36.8	95.3	4.7	1202	37.6	33.6	23.4	5.4	1146
Rural	16.4	48.7	35.0	98.1	1.9	1227	32.9	30.8	31.6	4.7	1204
Urban	17.0	51.2	31.8	88.6	11.4	957	38.1	38.0	14.5	94	848
LGA Baniul	26.1	41.5	32.4	89.4	10.6	142	27.6	36.2	11.8	24.4	127
LGA Kanifing	20.5	50.5	29.0	83.0	17.0	459	40.2	38.8	11.5	94	381
LGA Brikama *	12.0	56.1	31.9	98.3	17	476	39.3	31.6	24.6	45	468
LGA Mansakonko	35.1	29.9	35.1	98.5	1.5	134	33.3	29.5	28.8	83	132
LGA Kerewan	11.6	50.2	38.2	94.8	5.2	267	26.1	43.5	26.5	4.0	253
LGA Kuntaur	24.6	46.1	29.3	98.3	17	207	29.8	24.1	40.8	53	200
LGA Janianbureh	5.0	51.4	43.6	97.8	2.2	181	33.3	37.3	22.6	68	177
LGA Basse	10.9	52.9	36.2	97.6	2.2	203	38.5	28.3	31.8	1.4	286
Tribe Mandinka	14.4	51.4	34.2	95.0	4.1	675	32.5	40.2	21.6	5.7	647
Tribe Fule *	16.5	51.2	22.2	95.9	4.1	684	30.0	20.0	21.0	17	656
Tribe Wollof	20.9	11.6	32.5	95.9	4.1	202	30.5	29.0	21.5	4.7	266
Tribe Iola	20.8	51.0	27.0	07.5	10.7	107	24.6	20.9	25.0	5.0	100
Tribe Sarahulah	14.2	40.5	45.2	93.4	4.0	197	22.0	33.3 19.6	14.2	14.2	25
Tribo Sararr	14.5	40.5	45.2	63.3	10.7	42	22.9	48.0	14.5	14.5	35
Other tribe	14.5	43.5	40.2	92.0	8.0	176	42.2	38.8	17.4	11./	105
Other tribe	10.5	34.5	29.0	69.2	10.8	1/0	43.3	29.3	17.8	9.0	157

Note: The mode category is listed first for binary variables and marked with an asterisk for discrete variables with more than two categories.

Table A3: First stages of a 2SLS estimation of communal empowerment

Explanatory variables and	Endogenous explanatory variables					
instrumental variables	Went to school	Literate	Economically inactive	Wealth percentile		
Age	-0.002	-0.005*	-0.005***	0.020		
Age squared	0.000	0.000	0.000***	0.000		
Female	-0.051***	-0.175***	0.070***	0.750		
Not married	0.028	-0.021	0.006	-1.083		
Monogamous marriage *	0.010	0.001	0.000	-0.080		
Polygamous marriage	RC	RC	RC	RC		
Not household head	0.019	0.026	0.028*	-0.523		
Not Muslim	0.044*	0.098***	-0.036*	0.997		
Foreigner	-0.086***	0.028	-0.053***	-0.305		
IV Went to school	-54.281***	-11.727***	-1.014	-124.165***		
IV Literate	-0.404	-40.499***	0.278	49.001*		
IV Economically inactive	-1.876*	0.020	-61.873***	-237.003***		
IV Wealth percentile	0.002	0.003	-0.016***	-10.855***		
Health completely limiting	RC	RC	RC	RC		
Health a lot limiting	-0.034	-0.071**	-0.026	2.208**		
Health somewhat limiting	-0.007	-0.084**	-0.018	2.509**		
Health not limiting *	0.016	-0.030	-0.035*	2.089**		
Urban	-0.035	0.262	0.011	4.607		
LGA Banjul	9.531***	35.666***	27.016***	964.868***		
LGA Kanifing	25.928***	47.538***	4.688***	816.843***		
LGA Brikama *	RC	RC	RC	RC		
LGA Mansakonko	13.385***	8.616***	-27.753***	-152.369***		
LGA Kerewan	25.869***	47.345***	4.815***	814.285***		
LGA Kuntaur	-16.808***	20.854***	12.057***	-436.831***		
LGA Janjanbureh	13.404***	8.586***	-27.701***	-154.463***		
LGA Basse	-16.803***	20.826***	12.059***	-438.311***		
Tribe Mandinka	0.007	0.009	-0.011	1.069*		
Tribe Fula *	RC	RC	RC	RC		
Tribe Wollof	0.046**	0.017	0.039**	1.179		
Tribe Jola	0.039*	-0.053*	-0.023	-2.033**		
Tribe Sarehuleh	0.028	0.001	0.061*	3.232**		
Tribe Sererr	0.059**	0.014	-0.005	0.262		
Other tribe	0.094***	-0.007	0.012	0.164		
Constant	30.619***	2.554***	-12.834***	54.585*		
R-squared	0.805	0.698	0.771	0.913		
F-statistic of all 4 IVs	1343.87	727.41	1045.82	1366.72		

Note: First stage OLS regressions of four endogenous explanatory variables on instrumental variables (IV) and on exogenous explanatory variables are displayed. The estimation includes village fixed effects. The IVs are jointly significant at 1% level in all regressions; the corresponding F-statistics are displayed and distributed F(4,2023). The reference categories (RC) are displayed for discrete variables with more than two categories. The mode categories are marked with an asterisk for discrete variables with more than two categories; they are left out for binary variables. Significance levels are marked as follows: * 10%, ** 5%, *** 1%. Sample size: 2184 observations.

	Grade of difficulty in inducing changes in one's community			
	Change not possible	Change with difficulty	Change easily	
Age (1 s.d. increase around median/mean)	-1.23**	-1.41*	2.64**	
Age (increase from 20 to 30 years)	-2.97**	-1.51**	4.48***	
Age (10 years increase around median/mean)	-0.85**	-1.00*	1.85**	
Age (increase from 60 to 70 years)	0.64	0.78	-1.42	
Female vs. Male	3.28**	2.82**	-6.10**	
Not married vs. Polygamous marriage	3.33**	4.33**	-7.67**	
Monogamous vs. Polygamous marriage	1.99**	2.93*	-4.91**	
Not married vs. Monogamous marriage	1.35	1.41	-2.75	
Not household head vs. Household head	-2.28*	-3.47	5.76	
Not muslim vs. Muslim	-1.51	-2.11	3.62	
Foreigner vs. Gambian	13.95***	-6.41	-7.54**	
Went to school vs. Did not go to school	-3.55***	-6.19***	9.74***	
Literate vs. illiterate	-3.16***	2.21	0.95	
Economically inactive vs. Active	2.99*	2.65**	-5.64**	
Expenditure (10% increase around median/mean)	-6.28	1.10	5.18	
Wealth (10% points increase around median/mean)	-0.60**	-0.72**	1.32**	
Health a lot vs. completely limiting	-13.85***	-7.22**	21.07***	
Health somewhat vs. completely limiting	-8.22**	-0.99	9.21***	
Health not at all vs. completely limiting	-11.64***	-3.89*	15.53***	
Health somewhat vs. a lot limiting	5.63***	6.23**	-11.86***	
Health not at all vs. a lot limiting	2.21*	3.34	-5.55*	
Health not at all vs. somewhat limiting	-3.42**	-2.90**	6.31***	
Urban vs. Rural	-2.80	6.20**	-3.40	
	Interactions between gender and marital status			
Male not married vs. Male monogamous marriage	3.87	2.96**	-6.83*	
Male not married vs. Male polygamous marriage	6.70**	7.31***	-14.01***	
Male monogamous vs. Male polygamous marriage	2.83***	4.35**	-7.18***	
Female not married vs. Female monogamous marriage	-0.14	-0.07	0.21	
Female not married vs. Female polygamous marriage	-1.63	-0.68	2.31	
Female monogamous vs. Female polygamous marriage	-1.50	-0.61	2.10	
Female not married vs. Male not married	-0.49	-0.24	0.73	
Female monogamous vs. Male monogamous marriage	3.52	2.79*	-6.31*	
Female polygamous vs. Male polygamous marriage	7.85**	7.75***	-15.60***	

Table A4: Change in the probability to answer Change not possible / Change with difficulty / Change easily when asked about one's ability to change things in one's community

Note: Based on generalized ordered logit model estimation. Changes in probabilities are measured in percentage points and evaluated at the median of the explanatory variables. Significance levels are marked as follows: *10%, **5%, ***1%.

	Actors expected to contribute most to any changes in one's life				
	Myself	Family	Government	Other	
Age (10 years increase around median/mean)	-4.22***	2.07***	1.85**	0.29	
Age (1 s.d. increase around median/mean)	-6.01***	2.96***	2.64**	0.41	
Female vs. Male	-21.51***	14.09***	7.11*	0.31	
Not married vs. Polygamous marriage	-2.58	-4.36	5.44	1.49	
Monogamous vs. Polygamous marriage	-2.66	-1.68	4.38**	-0.04	
Not married vs. Monogamous marriage	0.08	-2.67	1.06	1.53	
Not household head vs. Household head	-4.18	-0.34	4.51	0.01	
Not muslim vs. Muslim	-9.20	-1.13	11.03*	-0.70	
Foreigner vs. Gambian	15.35***	-11.05***	-4.60	0.30	
Went to school vs. Did not go to school	5.19	-4.41*	-1.02	0.24	
Literate vs. illiterate	-3.05	-1.78	5.24**	-0.41	
Economically inactive vs. Active	-6.59	10.77***	-4.60*	0.42	
Expenditure (10% increase around median/mean)	18.06	-13.23	-6.80	1.98	
Wealth (10% points increase around median/mean)	0.28	1.30**	-1.60***	0.03	
Health a lot vs. completely limiting	-23.58***	18.15***	6.22	-0.78	
Health somewhat vs. completely limiting	-28.64***	17.34***	10.63**	0.67	
Health not at all vs. completely limiting	-7.54	8.29**	0.18	-0.93	
Health somewhat vs. a lot limiting	-5.07	-0.81	4.42	1.45	
Health not at all vs. a lot limiting	16.04***	-9.86***	-6.04	-0.15	
Health not at all vs. somewhat limiting	21.11***	-9.05***	-10.46***	-1.60	
Urban vs. Rural	6.39*	0.66	-6.58***	-0.47	

Table A5: Change in the probability to answer Myself / Family / Government / Other when asked who will contribute most to any changes in one's life

Note: Based on multinomial logit model estimation. Changes in probabilities are measured in percentage points and evaluated at the median of the explanatory variables. Significance levels are marked as follows: * 10%, ** 5%, *** 1%.

Table A6: Correlates of the expectations concerning who will contribute most to any changes in one's life in a Heckman probit model

	Separate models for actors expected to contribute most to any changes in one's life								
		Myself			Family			Government	
Explanatory variables	Heckma	an probit	Probit model	Heckm	an probit	Probit model	Heckm	an probit	Probit model
	Selection model	Probit model	(restricted sample)	Selection model	Probit model	(restricted sample)	Selection model	Probit model	(restricted sample)
Age	-0.014***	-0.010***	-0.010***	-0.015***	0.006**	0.005**	-0.012***	0.006**	0.005*
Female	0.155	-0.536***	-0.555***	0.162	0.356***	0.362***	0.147	0.136	0.153
Not married	-0.083	-0.054	-0.045	-0.092	-0.193*	-0.201*	-0.124	0.17	0.168
Monogamous marriage *	-0.111	-0.061	-0.06	-0.074	-0.08	-0.083	-0.116	0.146**	0.147*
Polygamous marriage	RC	RC	RC	RC	RC	RC	RC	RC	RC
Not household head	-0.197	-0.083	-0.078	-0.166	-0.005	-0.011	-0.18	0.154	0.151
Not Muslim	-0.512**	-0.218	-0.162	-0.534**	0.01	-0.025	-0.520**	0.374**	0.308*
Foreigner	-0.319*	0.340***	0.395***	-0.321*	-0.391***	-0.414***	-0.301*	-0.059	-0.111
Went to school	-0.262*	0.101	0.129	-0.292**	-0.13	-0.146*	-0.294**	0.042	0.004
Literate	0.072	-0.054	-0.057	0.097	-0.076	-0.077	0.093	0.163**	0.170**
Economically inactive	-0.034	-0.176*	-0.173*	-0.062	0.317***	0.314***	-0.075	-0.201**	-0.230**
Log(expenditure)	0.032	0.037	0.039	0.024	-0.041	-0.042	0.056	-0.005	-0.011
Expenditure missing	-0.077	0.4	0.448	-0.155	-0.55	-0.581	0.11	0.087	0.002
Wealth percentile	-0.008**	0	0.001	-0.009**	0.005***	0.005***	-0.008**	-0.004**	-0.006***
Health completely limiting	RC	RC	RC	RC	RC	RC	RC	RC	RC
Health a lot limiting	-0.898**	-0.607***	-0.571***	-0.917**	0.580***	0.549***	-0.822*	0.147	0.078
Health somewhat limiting	-0.799*	-0.713***	-0.695***	-0.803*	0.521***	0.496***	-0.712*	0.245*	0.197
Health not limiting *	-0.572	-0.183	-0.162	-0.61	0.306**	0.289*	-0.505	-0.004	-0.04
Unhappy	RC			RC			RC		
Happy *	-0.26			-0.243			-0.452**		
Very happy	-0.612**			-0.620**			-0.922***		
Accommodation unsuitable	-			RC			RC		
Accommodation suitable *	-0.588***			-0.557***			-0.518***		
Accommodation very suitable	-1.133***			-1.139***			-0.939***		
Respected never or occasionally	RC			RC			RC		
Respected frequently	-1.172***			-1.107***			-1.093***		
Respected always *	-0.742**			-0.708*			-0.700*		
Treated unfairly always	RC			RC			RC		
Treated unfairly frequently	0.586**			0.464*			0.491**		
Treated unfairly occasionally	0.613***			0.510**			0.458**		
Treated unfairly never *	0.561***			0.503***			0.486***		
Urban	-0.09	0.155*	0.160*	-0.093	0.072	0.071	-0.022	-0.216**	-0.234**
LGA Banjul	-0.520**	-0.570***	-0.549***	-0.499*	0.139	0.116	-0.588**	-0.117	-0.206
LGA Kanifing	-0.819***	-0.189*	-0.095	-0.815***	0.153	0.102	-0.887***	-0.095	-0.268**
LGA Brikama *	RC	RC	RC	RC	RC	RC	RC	RC	RC
LGA Mansakonko	-0.016	-0.127	-0.113	-0.134	0.036	0.029	0.152	0.007	-0.021
LGA Kerewan	-0.693***	-0.437***	-0.397***	-0.765***	0.475***	0.447***	-0.704***	0.047	-0.039
LGA Kuntaur	-0.414	-0.323***	-0.300**	-0.457	0.066	0.048	-0.560*	0.247**	0.201
LGA Janjanbureh	-0.405	-0.101	-0.073	-0.391	0.251*	0.234*	-0.497*	-0.203	-0.259*
LGA Basse	-0.363	-0.131	-0.097	-0.404	0.054	0.031	-0.447*	0.195*	0.137
Tribe Mandinka	-0.004	-0.059	-0.073	0.028	0.141*	0.148*	-0.027	-0.111	-0.098
Tribe Fula *	RC	RC	RC	RC	RC	RC	RC	RC	RC
Tribe Wollof	-0.475***	-0.217**	-0.198*	-0.417**	-0.075	-0.094	-0.514***	0.273***	0.253**
Tribe Jola	0.219	-0.119	-0.144	0.229	0.026	0.041	0.142	0.084	0.137
Tribe Sarehuleh	-0.416	-0.460*	-0.453*	-0.378	0.313	0.29	-0.404	-0.02	-0.11
Tribe Sererr	0.105	0.019	0.002	0.095	-0.017	-0.008	0.06	-0.091	-0.062
Other tribe	0.095	0.137	0.118	0.078	-0.059	-0.047	0.085	-0.195	-0.183
Constant	5.128***	0.405	0.29	5.248***	-1.075**	-0.988**	4.935***	-0.912**	-0.678
Number of observations	2184	2052	2052	2184	2052	2052	2184	2052	2052

Note: Heckman probit models (1st and 2nd column of each panel) correct for sample selection bias; Probit models (3rd column of each panel) are estimated on the restricted sample without correction for sample selection. The Likelihood Ratio test of independent equations indicates that there is a sample selection bias in case of actors 'myself' (p-value 0.025) and 'government' (p-value 0.007); there is no sample selection bias in case of 'family' (p-value 0.402). The reference categories (RC) are displayed for discrete variables with more than two categories; they are left out for binary variables. Significance levels are marked as follows: * 10%, ** 5%, *** 1%.

Table A7. This stages of a 25LS estimation of individual empowerment
--

Explanatory variables and	Endogenous explanatory variables					
instrumental variables	Went to school Literate Economically inactive		Economically inactive	Wealth percentile		
Age	-0.002***	-0.001*	0.002***	0.016		
Female	-0.050***	-0.177***	0.064***	0.867		
Not married	0.037**	-0.015	0.029*	-1.202		
Monogamous marriage *	0.008	-0.002	0.003	-0.140		
Polygamous marriage	RC	RC	RC	RC		
Not household head	0.021	0.036	0.040***	-0.455		
Not Muslim	0.026	0.090**	-0.050**	1.306		
Foreigner	-0.084***	0.030	-0.045***	-0.293		
IV Went to school	-53.701***	-11.837***	-0.889	-119.947***		
IV Literate	-0.397	-39.887***	0.218	51.869*		
IV Economically inactive	-1.988*	-0.569	-61.647***	-238.813***		
IV Wealth percentile	0.002	0.004	-0.016***	-10.735***		
Health completely limiting	RC	RC	RC	RC		
Health a lot limiting	-0.037	-0.084**	-0.026	1.750		
Health somewhat limiting	-0.001	-0.087***	-0.022	1.933*		
Health not limiting *	0.014	-0.039	-0.036*	1.531		
Urban	-0.049	0.242	-0.002	4.756		
LGA Banjul	-18.271***	-4.922***	3.696***	202.100***		
LGA Kanifing	0.837**	11.344***	-15.410***	145.135***		
LGA Brikama *	RC	RC	RC	RC		
LGA Mansakonko	15.739***	12.081***	-25.465***	-83.895***		
LGA Kerewan	0.789*	11.168***	-15.237***	142.411***		
LGA Kuntaur	33.372***	55.354***	-40.929***	171.726***		
LGA Janjanbureh	15.747***	12.044***	-25.411***	-86.381***		
LGA Basse	33.368***	55.357***	-40.909***	170.531***		
Tribe Mandinka	0.016	0.019	-0.010	1.273*		
Tribe Fula *	RC	RC	RC	RC		
Tribe Wollof	0.052***	0.014	0.025	0.504		
Tribe Jola	0.032	-0.056*	-0.026	-1.885**		
Tribe Sarehuleh	0.037	0.032	0.039	2.744*		
Tribe Sererr	0.067***	0.016	-0.003	-0.103		
Other tribe	0.085***	-0.004	0.017	-0.372		
Constant	63.121***	50.152***	14.546***	943.080***		
R-squared	0.807	0.696	0.776	0.910		
F-statistic of all 4 IVs	1308.23	687.22	1134.51	1285.30		

Note: First stage OLS regressions of four endogenous explanatory variables on instrumental variables (IV) and on exogenous explanatory variables are displayed. The estimation includes village fixed effects. The IVs are jointly significant at 1% level in all regressions; the corresponding F-statistics are displayed and distributed F(4,1893). The reference categories (RC) are displayed for discrete variables with more than two categories. The mode categories are marked with an asterisk for discrete variables with more than two categories; they are left out for binary variables. Significance levels are marked as follows: *10%, **5%, ***1%. Sample size: 2052 observations.

	Separate models for actors expected to contribute most to any changes in one's life					n one's life
Explanatory variables	Му	Myself Family		Government		
	2SLS	OLS	2SLS	OLS	2SLS	OLS
Age	-0.004***	-0.003***	0.002***	0.002**	0.001*	0.001*
Female	-0.171***	-0.177***	0.112***	0.131***	0.057**	0.045
Not married	-0.015	-0.008	-0.060	-0.071*	0.056*	0.049
Monogamous marriage *	-0.025	-0.017	-0.026	-0.027	0.052**	0.044**
Polygamous marriage	RC	RC	RC	RC	RC	RC
Not household head	-0.030	-0.033	0.010	-0.009	0.027	0.043
Not Muslim	-0.057	-0.067	0.014	-0.008	0.069	0.091*
Foreigner	0.156***	0.147***	-0.127***	-0.131***	-0.030	-0.026
Went to school	0.014	0.049	0.006	-0.054*	-0.011	-0.004
Literate	0.005	-0.019	-0.080**	-0.025	0.078**	0.051**
Economically inactive	-0.008	-0.059*	0.045	0.119***	-0.060*	-0.063**
Wealth percentile	0.000	0.000	0.002**	0.002***	-0.001**	-0.002***
Health completely limiting	RC	RC	RC	RC	RC	RC
Health a lot limiting	-0.164***	-0.192***	0.133**	0.178***	0.062	0.034
Health somewhat limiting	-0.233***	-0.234***	0.126**	0.162***	0.100**	0.069
Health not limiting *	-0.058	-0.059	0.041	0.084*	0.037	-0.008
Urban	-0.321	0.052*	0.636	0.028	-0.323	-0.075***
LGA Banjul	-3.966	-0.182***	1.386	0.033	-1.531	-0.040
LGA Kanifing	2.525	-0.025	-1.606	0.032	1.680	-0.053
LGA Brikama *	RC	RC	RC	RC	RC	RC
LGA Mansakonko	4.757	-0.030	-2.136	-0.011	2.515	-0.002
LGA Kerewan	2.625	-0.136***	-1.311	0.156***	1.205	-0.011
LGA Kuntaur	7.055	-0.099**	-3.483	0.009	3.059	0.083**
LGA Janjanbureh	5.144	-0.028	-2.200	0.087**	2.186	-0.083**
LGA Basse	6.777	-0.035	-3.277	0.014	3.144	0.046
Tribe Mandinka	-0.036	-0.025	0.042	0.056**	-0.002	-0.032
Tribe Fula *	RC	RC	RC	RC	RC	RC
Tribe Wollof	-0.070*	-0.065*	-0.002	-0.041	0.029	0.079**
Tribe Jola	-0.024	-0.055	-0.020	0.013	0.038	0.035
Tribe Sarehuleh	-0.158*	-0.154*	0.099	0.108	-0.025	-0.030
Tribe Sererr	-0.042	-0.010	-0.033	-0.001	0.026	-0.026
Other tribe	0.023	0.046	-0.024	-0.015	-0.024	-0.058
Constant	5.641	0.711***	-2.250	0.023	2.152	0.238***

Table A8: Determinants of the expectations concerning who will contribute most to any changes in one's life in a 2SLS estimation

Note: Linear probability models are estimated. The 2SLS estimation includes village fixed effects. The Hausman test of endogeneity indicates that there is no endogeneity bias in categories 'myself' and 'government' (p-value 0.106 and 0.628, respectively), whereas endogeneity is a problem in the category 'family' (p-value 0.051). The reference categories (RC) are displayed for discrete variables with more than two categories. The mode categories are marked with an asterisk for discrete variables with more than two categories. Significance levels are marked as follows: * 10%, ** 5%, *** 1%. Sample size: 2052 observations.