Measuring Women’s Economic Empowerment in Private Sector Development

Guidelines for Practitioners

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These guidelines were commissioned by the Donor Committee for Enterprise Development (DCED) Working Group on Women’s Entrepreneurship Development. The paper was written by Erin Markel, Principal Consultant at MarketShare Associates. Feedback is welcome and should be sent to Admin@Enterprise-Development.org.

The DCED is a long-standing forum for donors, foundations and UN agencies working in private sector development who share experience, identify innovations and formulate guidance on effective practice. The Women’s Entrepreneurship Development Working Group (WEDWG) aims to harness the knowledge and expertise of DCED member agencies to overcome some of the major obstacles to Women’s Entrepreneurship Development in developing countries. For more information on the DCED WEDWG or to view the DCED Knowledge Page on women’s entrepreneurship development, including an online library with hundreds of resources, please visit the DCED website at www.enterprise-development.org/organisational-structure/working-groups/overview-of-the-womens-economic-empowerment-working-group. For more information on the DCED Standard for Results Measurement, please visit the DCED website at www.enterprise-development.org/measuring-results-the-dced-standard.

These guidelines are based on extensive interviews with experts and field practitioners, desk research, and two cases studies conducted by the author in Bangladesh with the Making Markets Work for the Chars programme, implemented by Swisscontact and Practical Action, and in Georgia with the Alliances Lesser Caucasus programme, implemented by Mercy Corps. Both programmes are funded by the Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation (SDC).

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Introduction

“When women do better, economies do better.” --Christine Lagarde, Managing Director, International Monetary Fund, Davos, 2013, addressing the issue of inclusive growth.

Why do economies do better when women do better? In every part of the world, women are paid less for their work and see fewer benefits of their labour. Discrimination and extra household responsibilities reduce their access to decent work, capital and time needed to improve their businesses relative to men. In short, women are more likely to live in poverty. Yet, across the developing world more women than ever are managing family farms and businesses. As technology enhances their access to information and inputs, they are starting to demand their rights. As millions of men migrate to urban areas, new opportunities for women are opening up. More women entering the labour force can accelerate poverty reduction, support sustainable markets and improve the welfare of families.

Increasing the number of working women and their incomes is only part of the equation. For women, their families and society to reap the full benefits of development, investments in women must also promote their empowerment, e.g., a woman's ability advance economically, and make and act on economic decisions. Studies by the World Bank, the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), the United Nations (UN) and others show that investments in private sector development that promote women’s economic empowerment can yield higher returns – in terms of poverty reduction and broader positive effects – on development, compared to investments that do not incorporate women’s economic empowerment. Donors have increasingly focused their private sector development strategies on women’s economic empowerment. Canada's DFATD, USAID, UK’s DFID, Sida, SDC and Australia’s DFAT have recently produced updated strategies to enhance women’s economic empowerment and demonstrate their renewed commitments to gender equality.1

Why create guidelines for measuring the results of women’s economic empowerment in PSD at the household-level?

Most guidelines on women’s economic empowerment focus on theory or guiding implementation practices, such as conducting gender analysis and designing successful interventions. Certain guidance documents are particularly helpful and relevant to private sector development (PSD) programmes such as the work conducted by a multi-donor effort coordinated by the M4P Hub in 2011.2 However, there are few documents available that provide suggestions on the measurement of women’s economic empowerment. The ones that do tend to focus on definitions and indicators and are not specifically tailored to PSD programmes. Moreover, most PSD programmes measure enterprise-level results rather than household-level results. Measuring household dynamics is important because this is one key place where women and men live and experience the various effects – positive and sometimes negative – of development and empowerment.

1 See reference list for citations on each donor’s strategy.
Therefore, these guidelines specifically aim to:

- Provide practical advice to practitioners seeking to measure women’s economic empowerment (WEE) in PSD programming;
- Document how to make each aspect of results measurement more gender-responsive;
- Highlight important issues in results measurement for practitioners focused on WEE, paying particular attention to measuring household-level changes.

**Approach: DCED Standard and Case Studies**

The DCED Standard provides a helpful framework for measuring results in PSD. Therefore, this paper draws on primary and secondary research, particularly but not exclusively, from implementing agencies seeking to comply with the DCED Standard. Each section highlights how dimensions of women’s economic empowerment can be integrated into the eight elements of the DCED Standard. In particular, the guidelines draw from the good practices and lessons learned from Making Markets Work for the Chars (M4C) in Bangladesh, implemented by Swisscontact and Practical Action, and the Alliances Lesser Caucasus Programme (ALCP) in Georgia, implemented by Mercy Corps. The programmes were selected by the DCED WED Working Group because of the sophistication in their approach to measuring women’s economic empowerment.

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**If You Are New to the DCED Standard**

The DCED Standard outlines a practical framework for PSD programmes to monitor progress towards a programme’s objectives. These guidelines assume a basic knowledge of the DCED Standard. The DCED Standard includes eight elements:

- **Articulating Results Chains.** Results chains visually represent how programme activities are expected to create outputs, outcomes and impact; showing the expected causal links and relationships between them.
- **Defining indicators of change.** An indicator is linked to the results chains and helps you measure the extent of change.
- **Measuring changes in indicators.** Once the indicators have been defined, they should be monitored at appropriate times. This allows you to see whether desired changes have occurred and to manage your programme accordingly.
- **Estimating attributable changes.** Once a change is observed, you need to estimate if and what part of that change can be attributed to your programme.
- **Capturing wider changes in the system or market.** Many PSD programmes aim to affect entire market systems, and should aim to capture these changes.
- **Tracking programme costs.** In order to assess the success of the programme it is necessary to know how much was spent.
- **Reporting results.** Findings should be communicated clearly to donors, local stakeholders and to the wider development community where possible.
- **Managing the system for results measurement.** The results measurement system should be adequately resourced and integrated into programme management; informing the implementation and guiding the strategy.

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4 Sen, Nabanita. A Walk through the DCED Standard for Measuring Results in PSD. DCED. 2010. Note that Elements 3 and 4 have been combined since then (making 7 elements total). This would require restructuring the whole report, however.
Overview of Case Studies

More details are provided on each case in Annex A.

Case Study #1: Making Markets Work for the Chars – Bangladesh

Making Markets Work for the Jamuna, Padma and Teesta Chars (M4C) is a five-year project funded by the Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation (SDC), implemented by Swisscontact, the lead agency, and Practical Action, in collaboration with Rural Development Academy under the Ministry of Local Government, Rural Development and Cooperatives of the Government of Bangladesh. The project started in December 2011 and aims to reduce the poverty and vulnerability of 60,000 char households in ten districts of Northern Bangladesh by facilitating market systems that enhance opportunities for employment and income generation. Ensuring that both women and men benefit and promoting women’s economic empowerment are a key objectives of the programme.

M4C is guided by the Making Markets Work for the Poor (M4P) approach. The programme intends to have a large-scale, sustainable impact by improving market systems in Char regions. M4C seeks to integrate gender issues throughout the entire programme life cycle, including the implementation of a gender-responsive monitoring and results measurement system. The programme has developed a specific theory of change for economically empowering women that links the types of work women do to their level of empowerment.

Case Study #2: Alliances Lesser Caucasus Programme (ALCP) - Georgia

The Alliances Lesser Caucasus Programme (ALCP) is a market development programme that builds on existing initiatives to improve the productivity, incomes and resilience of small-scale livestock producers in three regions of Georgia lying along the Lesser Caucasus mountain chain from eastern Georgia to the Black Sea. Ensuring that both women and men benefit and promoting women’s economic empowerment are key objectives of the programme.

The ALCP approach is based on Making Markets Work for the Poor (M4P), which engages a spectrum of market players across the private and public sector. The ALCP’s strategy document states that “gender is integral to every programme activity and is included from the first and every step of the programme cycle.” ALCP integrates in-depth gender analyses into all market research. In early 2012 the programme was one of the two case studies of the M4P Hub Phase 2: Guidelines for Incorporating WEE into M4P Programmes.

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Overview of Report
The methods presented here are continuously updated and refined by practitioners, and are likely to further evolve. The steps described below document current thinking and lessons learned.

Component 1: Articulating Women’s Economic Empowerment in Results Chains
1.1: Define women’s economic empowerment
1.2: Articulate your women’s economic empowerment approach and degree of focus
1.3: Collect gender-responsive market research
1.4: Create a PSD-WEE strategic results framework
1.5: Design results chains

Component 2: Gender-Responsive Indicators of Change
2.1: Develop or refine indicators to measure WEE
2.2: Basket of indicators to measure PSD-WEE household-level dynamics
2.3: Gender-responsive management of indicators
2.4: Women’s participation projections and targets

Component 3: Measuring Changes in Women’s Economic Empowerment
3.1: Find innovative ways to integrate WEE into commonly used PSD research tools
3.2: Establish a process for collecting information and highlight where WEE fits in
3.3: Understand good gender-responsive research practices
3.4: Collect reliable household-level data on WEE

Component 4: Estimating Attributable Changes
4.1: Understand interventions’ link to empowerment and household-level changes

Component 5: Capturing Systemic Change
5.1: Explore measuring systemic change at the household level

Component 6: Programme Costs for WEE
6.1: Effective budgeting
6.2: Additional costs

Component 7: Reporting Results
7.1: Ensure anonymity or designing a set of procedures that protects data and the identities of beneficiaries
7.2: Endorse strong gender analysis

Component 8: Managing a gender-responsive System for Results Measurement
8.1: Establish a gender-responsive system for results measurement
8.2: Human resources and integration
Component 1: Articulating Women’s Economic Empowerment in Results Chains

Articulating intervention-specific results chains is the first element of the DCED Standard. By definition, a results chain is a visual “hypothesis about how the activities of the programme are expected to lead to outputs, outcomes, and eventually development impact.”9 To learn more about developing results chains, please consult the DCED Standard’s guidance on Implementing Results Chains.10 There are several key elements to developing results chains for PSD programmes with women’s economic empowerment objectives.

These include:

1.1: Define women’s economic empowerment
1.2: Articulate your women’s economic empowerment approach and degree of focus
1.3: Collect gender-responsive market research
1.4: Create a PSD-WEE strategic results framework
1.5: Design results chains

1.1: Define women’s economic empowerment

Many definitions of women’s economic empowerment exist. Naila Kabeer writes that there are important differences, yet common themes arise around concepts of agency, choice and decision-making in relation to the market.11 For a review of various donor definitions and their common elements see the M4P Hub’s: Discussion Paper for an M4P WEE Framework. 12

Sample Definition:13 A woman is economically empowered when she has both: a) access to resources: the options to advance economically; and b) agency: the power to make and act on economic decisions.

Figure 1: WEE Main Components14

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How women’s economic empowerment is experienced can vary between contexts and among groups. Therefore, it is important to contextualize your programme’s understanding of the definition within your results chains and definition of indicators. This can be done together with key programme stakeholders.

1.2: Articulate your WEE approach and degree of focus

Programme objectives and time and resource constraints shape a programme’s degree of focus on women’s economic empowerment. Outlined below is a spectrum of five common WEE approaches. How these approaches link to the intensity of focus on women’s economic empowerment, and the potential risks and effects of each one are highlighted below.

*Figure 2: The PSD-WEE Continuum*

PSD programmes that do not include any gender considerations risk failing to meet their development objectives and can cause harm to local female populations. At a minimum, Do No Harm (#5) and Gender Aware (#4) practices can help to mitigate unintended negative results.

Programmes aiming to catalyse changes in women’s economic empowerment will need to articulate a more comprehensive strategy. Objectives could include Mainstreaming Gender (#2) throughout the overall programme, Targeting Women (#3) specifically or using a Combined approach (#1) of

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Mainstreaming, Targeting and/or Do No Harm. Combined approaches (#1) tend to integrate Do No Harm into programme planning practices, and then identify whether to Mainstream Gender or Target Women specifically at an intervention-specific level. For example, programmes may decide to apply a Gender Mainstreaming approach in one value chain, yet specifically select another value chain for a Women Targeted intervention. These approaches enhance positive impacts and mitigate unintended negative impacts on women. The chart below articulates the differences between Gender Aware, Gender Mainstreaming and Women Targeted.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>WEE Approach</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender Aware</td>
<td>Programmes seek to understand the differences between men and women and how gender may affect programming. Gender concerns are integrated into some aspects of the programme life cycle such as market research, and participation targets between men and women are established and monitored. WEE is not a key objective of the programme.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender Mainstreaming</td>
<td>Programmes explicitly integrate women’s economic empowerment into all aspects of the programme cycle. Examples include: conducting gender-responsive market research, gender-responsive sector and intervention selection, identifying key entry points for women in targeted value chains, strategies for enhancing women’s participation and leadership, and a gender-responsive results measurement system. Interventions aim to facilitate change for female and male beneficiaries. WEE is one of the key objectives of the programme.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women Targeted</td>
<td>Programmes are designed to economically empower women. Interventions aim to facilitate change for female beneficiaries. WEE is the key objective of the programme.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The experiences from M4C and ALCP suggest that articulating how both women and men will benefit, as well as stating women’s economic empowerment as a key objective from the very start of a programme can lead to greater success and results. Using this Combined approach leaves both M4C and ALCP the flexibility to match the relevant approach to each unique intervention. Both programmes articulate a Combined approach (#1) in their gender strategies. For example, all ALCP interventions are either Gender Mainstreamed (#2) interventions or Women Targeted (#3) interventions, which they call:

1. Gender Sensitized Interventions (GSIs), and
2. Gender Overt Interventions (GOIs).

Importantly, M4C’s and ALCP’s approach to gender was outlined prior to conducting market research. This helped to guide the types of gender-responsive information required to design each intervention. Both programmes regularly update their gender approaches for each intervention.

1.3: Collect gender-responsive market research
Conducting effective market research that incorporates an understanding of gender dynamics is the heart of any programme aiming to catalyse WEE.16 M4C and ALCP integrate gender concerns throughout

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all market research. Both programmes do not conduct gender analysis and market analysis separately. Instead, it is done as a combined process. For M4C and ALCP this seems to not only produce more programme relevant information relating to gender, but also more team cohesion and buy-in around promoting women’s economic empowerment. For example, ALCP and M4C follow the M4P guidelines to market research.\textsuperscript{17} In terms of initial gender-responsive market research they examined:

1. **Core market systems**: gender roles and responsibilities in each sub-sector,
2. **Supporting functions**: gender-based access and control over resources and services
3. **Rules**: gender-friendly policies, social/community acceptance of women in various jobs, and women’s decision-making abilities and time-use.

### Helpful Resources

To learn more about how to conduct an effective value chain analysis that incorporates gender issues, please see the ILO’s *Guide to Mainstreaming Gender in Value Chain Analysis*.\textsuperscript{18} For guidance on transforming gender-responsive analysis into interventions, please see USAID’s: *A Guide to Integrating Gender into Agricultural Value Chains*.\textsuperscript{19} Also, *Agri-ProFocus Guide on Challenging Chains to Change: Gender Equity in Agricultural Value Chain Development* offers helpful case studies towards understanding potential interventions.\textsuperscript{20} If your programme focuses on the labour market or employment, WIEGO’s technical note on *Making Agricultural Value Chains Work for Workers* could also be helpful.\textsuperscript{21} For guidance on gender and M4P market research, see ALCP Georgia’s website for a full market analysis report\textsuperscript{22} or the section on market research in the Discussion Paper for an M4P WEE Framework: How can the Making Markets Work for the Poor Framework work for poor women and for poor men?\textsuperscript{23}

No programme should expect to address all of the constraints to women’s economic empowerment. Instead, programmes should rely on sound market research to understand the wider context including key market constraints and influencers on how a woman experiences economic empowerment, and then select solutions and interventions that align with a programme’s resources, capacity and objectives. This understanding will help to define programme scope and logic, as well as identify the most relevant local stakeholders and service providers.

\textsuperscript{17} The Springfield Centre. The Operational Guide for the Making Markets Work for the Poor (M4P) Approach. SDC and DFID. 2008. [https://beamexchange.org/resources/167/](https://beamexchange.org/resources/167/)
\textsuperscript{20} KIT, Agri-ProFocus and IIRR. Challenging chains to change: Gender equity in agricultural value chain development. KIT Publishers, Royal Tropical Institute, Amsterdam. 2012.
\textsuperscript{22} SDC and Mercy Corps. Update to the Market Analysis: Alliances Lesser Caucasus Programme. SDC and Mercy Corps. 2013. [http://alcp.ge](http://alcp.ge)
1.4: Create a PSD-WEE strategic results framework

A strategic results framework is an overarching logic model that lays out the pathways of change for a programme. It establishes the rationale and general approach for reaching its programmatic goals. Articulating a combined PSD-WEE strategic results framework can help clarify and integrate a PSD programme’s logic with a WEE theory of change.

The figure below draws upon the M4C and ALCP programmes and shows how a commonly used PSD strategic results framework links to a WEE pathway of change.

*Figure 4: PSD-WEE Results Framework*

![PSD-WEE Results Framework Diagram](source)

*Steps for creating a PSD-WEE strategic framework*

**Step 1:** Defining your poverty reduction and empowerment objectives means defining a specific target group of women such as poor women, women business owners, etc. and a goal for improving their condition in terms of poverty and empowerment. It is helpful to define this in positive terms. For poverty reduction, the change tends to be an increase in enterprise income, assets and/or jobs. For empowerment, this tends to manifest as a positive change in household agency, including increased household control over resources, decision-making abilities, time-use, and changes in roles and responsibilities; all of which M4C and ALCP include for various interventions at this level in their results chains.

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Looking at household change is particularly important at this level because it has a significant impact on a woman’s ability to change her behaviour and interact with markets. Since PSD programmes do not typically intervene at the household level, it may take longer to see changes at this level. Key questions in Step 1 are:

- Which group of women is being targeted and what is their economic profile?
- What is the anticipated final impact on the target group in terms of poverty reduction and empowerment?

**Step 2:** Next, it is important to define women’s access, agency and growth at an outcome level. This means understanding and articulating how access to opportunities and the capability to respond to these opportunities can be improved. Here changes tend to be seen in:

- community participation
- leadership
- decision making
- workplace participation
- norms and conditions
- occupational segregation
- participation and roles and responsibilities
- changes in policies and how they affect women

At this outcome level, M4C has a different strategic framework for initiatives that are Mainstreamed versus ones that are Women Targeted. For its Women Targeted interventions, M4C aims to enhance women’s access to skills and increase their wages. For the Mainstreamed initiatives, M4C focuses on women’s access to skills development opportunities and enterprise growth. ALCP includes an outcome-level statement for both the service provider and end beneficiary. For end beneficiaries in Mainstreamed initiatives, ALCP generally aims for improved access to information, and stabilized access to services for male and female farmers. Key questions in Step 2 are:

- What is the gender-responsive opportunity?
- How can women’s position in the target market be improved?

**Step 3:** Most PSD initiatives seek systemic change. Here, programmes tend to be concerned with how service providers can better serve women. For example, at this level M4C aims to enhance the gender-responsiveness of service providers and participation of women in the services provided. In terms of women’s economic empowerment, programmes also track women’s participation as business owners (i.e. number of women-owned businesses). Key questions in Step 3 are:

- How can service providers and enterprises become (more) gender-responsive?
- What do service provider and enterprise practices need to change to best serve women in a sustainable manner?

**Step 4:** The intervention is defined within the strategic framework more generally. Each intervention should define whether it will apply a Gender Mainstreaming, Women Targeted or Combined approach at this level. As noted above, both M4C and ALCP strategise their WEE approach per intervention prior to developing results chains.
1.5: Design results chains

Once good information is collected and strategic results frameworks are articulated, it is important for programmes to incorporate this knowledge not only into programme design, but also into results chains. Results chains will differ based on a programme’s approach and degree of focus.

Both M4C and ALCP found this process more straightforward for Women Targeted interventions, as each step in the results chain focuses specifically on women and their empowerment. For Gender Mainstreamed interventions this can be more challenging. Some steps may need specific WEE activities and result statements; others may not. Good practices for incorporating WEE into results chains from M4C and ALCP are presented below. Additional suggestions for Gender Aware programmes and programmes aiming to incorporate Do No Harm principals are located in Annex B.

ALCP Georgia - Gender Mainstreaming Example

ALCP reminds us that programmes aiming to directly impact both men and women through an intervention (i.e. Mainstreaming Gender) must take into account that men and women “perform different roles as market players, face different constraints and are able to exploit different market opportunities.”26 Thus, ALCP integrated questions on men and women’s access and control, and roles and responsibilities into all market research in the dairy, beef and sheep value chains. The research specifically focused on how these gender roles corresponded to the M4P market segments of supporting functions, core market systems and rules.27

From this exercise, the team found that in order to address women’s economic empowerment certain interventions needed to focus solely on women while other interventions only required specific activities targeting women. For example, women in Georgia have limited access to public decision-making opportunities, so the team implemented a Women Targeted intervention to enhance their participation in public fora. This had a direct implication for PSD aspects of the programme since these women are also small scale livestock producers. All other interventions target both men and women (i.e. gender is mainstreamed). ALCP developed gender-responsive results chains using the following steps:28

1. The team examines relevant market research and identifies the constraints, entry points and opportunities specific to women.
2. The team uses the information from the market research to develop gender disaggregated results statements and matching indicators.
3. They list the key assumptions required for a gender disaggregated indicator to directly impact women’s economic empowerment.
4. The team transforms the most critical assumptions into WEE specific indicators.
5. The team adds another result box into the results chains to reflect the new WEE specific indicator. They highlight the box using the colour pink as a visual reminder

28 Bradbury, Helen. 3 Step WEE Indicator Generation Process. 2013.
Once identified, the specific WEE results statements are incorporated into results chains as pink boxes. Figure 5 is an excerpt from an intervention focused on improving breed bulls:

*Figure 5: Sample Livestock Results Chain*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender-disaggregated results statement</th>
<th>Key WEE assumptions</th>
<th>New WEE results statement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Increased incomes for female and male farmers.</td>
<td>Women have a measure of control over the income they earn.</td>
<td>Increased women’s household (HH) decision-making.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*M4C Bangladesh – Women Targeted Example*

From their gendered market research, the team found that certain agricultural sub-sectors such as chili, maize and jute are male dominated, yet women are engaged in production activities. The programme identified several ways to improve the position of women and men within selected value chains by mapping out the entry points of women, and identifying key constraints and opportunities for both men and women. It then selected gender-related activities in the chili, maize and jute sub-sectors. The team also found that women on the mainland were already working as paid labourers in the handicraft sub-sector, but not on the chars. This type of paid labour was found to be more socially acceptable than agricultural work. Thus, the team looked for ways to promote skills development and market linkages through handicraft companies, creating new employment opportunities for women on the chars.

To incorporate these interventions into their results measurement systems, the team developed two types of results chains. The Gender Mainstreamed interventions in the chili, maize and jute markets disaggregated all results statements by sex where relevant, developed gender participation targets and
incorporated specific qualitative indicators for measuring WEE. For the handicrafts intervention the result chains reflect a focus on women at each step.

Figure 6: Sample Handicraft Results Chain

M4C and ALCP had all team members participate in the development of the result chains. Participation enhanced the team’s sense of ownership and understanding of women’s economic empowerment, as well as the importance of monitoring. It also provided a chance for management to demonstrate the importance of women’s economic empowerment; the programme’s expected degree of focus and expected time allocations of staff. M4C also reminds us that while it is important to be explicit about your WEE approach and how you will measure it from Day One, “make sure the process is flexible enough to allow for regular updates of the results chains as new information is acquired.”

Component 2: Gender-Responsive Indicators of Change
The DCED Standard requires that indicators correspond to the logic of the results chains. The results chains clarify what you expect to happen at each step, and the matching indicators outline how you will measure the change. For more information on how to develop indicators, please see DCED’s guidance document Developing Indicators.

There are several key elements to developing and refining gender-responsive indicators for PSD-WEE results chains.

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30 Sen, Nabanita. DCED Guide to Developing Indicators. DCED. 2013.
31 Ibid.
These include:
- 2.1: Develop or refine indicators to measure women’s economic empowerment
- 2.2: Select from a basket of indicators to measure PSD-WEE household-level dynamics
- 2.3: Manage gender-responsive indicators
- 2.4: Set gender-responsive projections and targets

2.1 Develop or refine indicators to measure women’s economic empowerment

The following section assumes that you have general knowledge of developing indicators, therefore it focuses on eight steps required to make indicators gender responsive.

2.1.1 Select your indicators in accordance with your gender approach

M4C and ALCP find that results statements and their matching indicators differ depending on the gender approach of the intervention. Interventions that Mainstream Gender tend to have fewer WEE-specific indicators. Indicators for Women Targeted interventions are focused explicitly on women and their empowerment. The figure below compares M4C’s gender-responsive indicators in their multiple Gender Mainstreamed initiatives and their one Women Targeted initiative in the handicraft subsector.

Note that the Gender Mainstreamed column is an explanation of indicators, not actual indicators. The explanations are presented in order to show the trends in indicators across various interventions. The actual indicators are very specific to each intervention.

**Figure 7: Indicators for Gender Mainstreamed Versus Women Targeted Intervention**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of Result</th>
<th>Gender Mainstreamed Indicator</th>
<th>Women Targeted Indicators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Impact</strong></td>
<td>Increase in incomes of Char households in each selected sector(^{32})</td>
<td>Increase of monthly individual income</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Qualitative measures for household decision making and workloads</td>
<td>Qualitative measures for household decision making</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Outcomes</strong></td>
<td>All indicators at this level are disaggregated by sex</td>
<td>Number of women wage workers in handicrafts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>States what men and women learned and what they are practicing</td>
<td>Number of women with a work order and amount of work orders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Outputs</strong></td>
<td>Number of men and women participants in trainings by service providers (20% female)</td>
<td>Number of women hired for production of handicrafts by companies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Use of gender-sensitive training material by service providers.</td>
<td>Number of production orders from companies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Activities</strong></td>
<td>Service provider is committed to male and female participants (20% female)</td>
<td>Service provider business model and plan reaches women in chars</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^{32}\) M4C measures income at a household unit of analysis and does not disaggregate this income by sex. Instead, they gather WEE specific information at the household level through their qualitative WEE assessment. The reasons for this are explained in the section on Measuring Indicators.
Service provider is committed to gender-sensitive content in training courses and materials

Content of skills development training for women is gender sensitive

Number and location of local hub offices

Service provider commitment to the number of women to be trained

2.1.2 Ensure a mix of **access to resources & agency**

As mentioned in the definition section, it is generally accepted that efforts to measure women’s economic empowerment need to consider various levels and spheres of empowerment including, but not limited to ways of: accessing resources, and enhancing power and agency.\(^{33}\) Access to resources includes indicators like increases in income, skill development and employment opportunities, while agency refers to indicators around time-use, decision-making abilities and physical mobility. CARE International notes that programmes successful at sustaining empowerment for women in the long-term tend to address multiple layers of a woman’s empowerment. DFID notes that evaluations of women’s economic empowerment programmes that scored well “*used a multidimensional range of indicators to measure women’s and girls’ economic advancement and changes in their power and agency.*”\(^{34}\)

The experience of both M4C and ALCP confirm the importance of monitoring indicators for access to resources and agency. When measuring household-level dynamics, most indicators are related to agency.

2.1.3 Include lots of qualitative indicators

The experiences of M4C and ALCP show that quantitative methods are helpful for certain aspects of WEE measurement. However, most categories of indicators at the household level are best conducted using qualitative methods. Qualitative methods help to unpack complex issues such as decision-making capabilities. They allow teams to further probe and triangulate evidence. M4C has found that it is cost effective to conduct follow-up qualitative research on women’s economic empowerment specifically because they use the enterprise as their main unit of analysis in their quantitative surveying. Further details on quantitative and qualitative research methods are explored in the section below on data collection methods.

2.1.4 Define your unit of analysis per indicator

After composing one “good indicator”\(^{35}\) associated with each change in a results chain, it is helpful to revisit and clarify the unit of analysis for each indicator. A unit of analysis refers to: “the choice we make about the level at which to collect data on a particular indicator.”\(^{36}\) For example, M4C collects quantitative data on the income of targeted enterprises or farm income. Here the unit of analysis is the enterprise. Yet, they collect qualitative data on income and control over income from individual women. Here the unit of analysis is the individual. The choice between enterprises, service providers, households or individuals as the unit of analysis is important to note because once you have collected


\(^{34}\) Taylor, Georgia; and Paola Pereznieto. Review of evaluations approaches and methods used by intervention on women and girls’ economic empowerment. Overseas Development Institute. 2014.  

\(^{35}\) Ibid.  

data at a certain unit of analysis you cannot normally go back and further disaggregate your data. For instance, if you conduct a survey with the household as the unit of analysis, you cannot disaggregate data by individuals within the household. This will not allow you to determine the difference in income between the female and male household members or if the female household member’s income rose. Figure 8, below, presents sample indicators using different units of analysis.

Figure 8: Unit of Analysis and Income Indicators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unit of Analysis</th>
<th>Sample Indicator</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Enterprise</td>
<td>Additional net income (additional sales minus additional costs) accrued to targeted enterprises as a result of the programme, per year. In addition, the programme must explain why this income is likely to be sustainable. (DCED Standard universal impact indicator)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Household</td>
<td>Number of poor households recording positive change in annual real incomes as a result of the programme.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual</td>
<td>Number of poor female and male farmers recording positive change in annual real incomes as a result of the programme.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Not all indicators can use an individual unit of analysis. For example, if a programme is analysing enterprise sales it is necessary to make the enterprise the unit of analysis. Carefully choose the appropriate unit of analysis based on what is relevant to each indicator, and avoid choosing the individual as the unit of analysis when it might not make sense to do so. Please see the section below for options.

2.1.5 Decide whether to disaggregate indicators

Many gender experts recommend the use of an individual unit of analysis when collecting information on the household dynamics of women’s economic empowerment. However, the DCED has defined its universal impact indicators at the enterprise level, given the challenges of household-level or individual-level measurement. Given this context, programmes wishing to understand household dynamics of WEE have two options.

The first is to collect enterprise-level data while considering the gendered dimensions of ownership. Conventional wisdom suggests that enterprises cannot have a gender. However, a programme could collect enterprise level data and include a question about who is the registered owner of the enterprise. In this way, the data could reveal information on the differences between female- and male-owned enterprises, such as the average wage levels that each pays women employees. Identifying enterprise ownership by sex is not always possible; enterprises may be owned by both spouses or by a group of mixed-gender shareholders. The second option is to collect additional information that is disaggregated by individuals. To do this, M4C, ALCP and others include additional indicators measured at an individual level.

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37 At the 4th World Women’s Conference held in Beijing in 1995, the international community acknowledged that the lives and realities of women and men, girls and boys are often very different. Donors and implementing agencies were encouraged to compile, analyse and publish data separately for both sexes – now known as sex-disaggregated data. In order to disaggregate data by sex it must be collected, analysed and reported on at an individual level.

38 Sen, Nabanita. DCED Guide to Developing Indicators. DCED. 2013.

unit of analysis and disaggregated by sex in order to examine women’s economic empowerment. This information is collected using both quantitative and qualitative methods.

Moreover, M4C’s experience suggests that disaggregating certain indicators by other characteristics (e.g., age, employment status) help to better understand men’s and women’s roles. The team found this to be important because different sub-groups of men and women and the work they do can be linked to unique experiences of development or empowerment. For example, M4C noted that a female unpaid family labourer will typically have a different pathway to empowerment than a female wage worker. Similarly, women in their child-bearing years may have different priorities than those who are not.

2.1.6 Tailor indicators to be closely linked to what the programme can influence in terms of WEE
It is important that programmes develop indicators that are closely linked to their programme objectives to make it possible to assess attribution. M4C and ALCP use indicators that are directly linked to each intervention. For instance, ALCP develops indicators to measure women’s economic empowerment that are directly linked to women and livestock. When they measure changes in women’s decision-making abilities, ALCP ask questions about women’s ability to make decisions on livestock related tasks such as who purchases veterinary services. This step is detailed further in the section on Estimating Attributable Changes in WEE.

2.1.7 Define positive change
Defining which direction of change is positive and negative is important, especially with more complex indicators such as decision-making or mobility. For instance, if a woman decides to drop out of the workforce to raise her children, is she less empowered? The decision would depend on whether or not it was her decision to leave paid work, and how it has affected the burden of competing claims on her time and resources, not whether she is now unemployed or earns less. Programmes that do not document the assumptions around what determines positive and negative change risk misinterpreting their data. For instance, when ALCP measures women’s control over income and household decision-making abilities they define positive as: a) an increase in women keeping the money after the sale, and b) an increase in the number of actual decisions made on certain larger assets. ALCP confirms these assumptions in their early impact assessments.

2.1.8 Consolidate indicators by difficulty and relevance
Programmes commonly overburden staff with indicators. To consolidate, it can be helpful to chart indicators against the relevance to the programme and how difficult they are to measure. This can be completed at the beginning of a programme or used to review indicators after some experience in measuring them. Figure 9 presents the results of an exercise conducted by the author and the ALCP team to review their current indicators according to these two factors. Based on this exercise, they decided not to include sexual health, land tenure or gender-based violence. Although time-use is placed on the hard to collect side, they decided to continue measuring it because it provides useful information.. They also continued measuring indicators that were highly relevant and easier to collect: self-worth, attitudes and gender roles, decision making and mobility.

2.2 Select from a basket of indicators to measure PSD-WEE household-level dynamics

The DCED Standard’s universal indicators focus on the quantity of target enterprises who receive income benefits, additional net income and jobs generated by PSD programming. Programmes seeking to implement WEE as a key objective will want to consider additional indicators to obtain a clearer picture of empowerment. Based on the lessons learned from M4C and ALCP, programmes should select specific indicators based on the eight-step process outlined above. It is suggested that programmes consider:

- Including one or two indicators to measure PSD-WEE household-level dynamics at the outcome or impact level for each intervention, in addition to the DCED Standard universal indicators.

Figure 10 below summarizes indicators that measure PSD-WEE household-level dynamics. Refer to Annex D for a more detailed rationale of use for each indicator category.

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42 Tool adapted from: Fowler, Ben and Kessler, Adam. Measuring Achievements of Private Sector Development in Conflict-affect Environments. DCED. 2013; and mapping of indicators done with ALCP M&E team. 2014.
### Figure 10: Basket of Indicators to Measure PSD-WEE Household-level Dynamics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Indicator (s)</th>
<th>Quant or Qual</th>
<th>Indicator Reference</th>
<th>Rationale for Use</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Access to income.</td>
<td>Additional net income accrued to an individual as a result of the programme per year.</td>
<td>Quant</td>
<td>Revised DCED Standard Universal Indicator (individual unit of analysis).</td>
<td>Measuring access to income is important for measuring the economic impact of PSD programmes in alleviating poverty. In interpreting these indicators, programmes assume that numeric increases of the economic indicators over time are associated with a reduction of people living in poverty. Various studies confirm that as mean income per person rises, the proportion of people living in poverty (or on $1 or less per person per day) decreases.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Perception of increase in income as a result of the programme per year.</td>
<td>Qual</td>
<td>M4C.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Decision making regarding income, productive assets, investments, and expenditures.</td>
<td>% of recent household expenditure decisions in which women have participated over the previous X weeks.</td>
<td>Quant</td>
<td>USAID. Women’s Empowerment Agricultural Index (WEAI); World Bank. Gender in Agriculture; ALCP.</td>
<td>Women's input in financial decision-making strongly correlates with their level of employment, relative to their husband's, and women's ability to maintain control over their income is closely linked to their empowerment. The most frequently used individual and household-level indicators of empowerment to include domestic decision-making, which covers finances, resource allocation, spending, and expenditures; access to or control of resources, such as cash, household income, and assets; and mobility or freedom of movement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ability to make decisions regarding programme-relevant household expenditures.</td>
<td>Qual</td>
<td>CIDA. Gender Sensitive Indicator Guide; ALCP.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ability to make programme-relevant decisions regarding the purchase, sale, or transfer of assets (small and large).</td>
<td>Qual</td>
<td>World Bank. Gender in Agriculture. USAID. Women’s Empowerment Agricultural Index (WEAI); CIDA. Gender Sensitive Indicator Guide; ALCP.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Perception of importance of women’s additional income to household due to intervention.</td>
<td>Qual</td>
<td>SDC. Gender in Household and Community Analysis; M4C Bangladesh; ALCP.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Division of labour, time, responsibilities.</td>
<td>Number of hours per day saved due to intervention.</td>
<td>Quant</td>
<td>Author and ALCP.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number of hours spent on domestic chores per day</td>
<td>Quant</td>
<td>Women’s Empowerment Agricultural Index (WEAI); ALCP.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Satisfaction of available leisure time.</td>
<td>Qual</td>
<td>Women’s Empowerment Agricultural Index (WEAI)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ability to make decisions regarding use of time.</td>
<td>Qual</td>
<td>Author and ALCP.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Freedom/restriction of mobility.</td>
<td>Access to programme-relevant services, within and outside their residential locality, as compared to community norms.</td>
<td>Quant or Qual</td>
<td>CIDA. Gender Sensitive Indicator Guide; author; ALCP; M4C.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Freedom of movement or mobility is particularly useful in areas where women’s presence in public spheres is constrained. At the household level, a woman may or may not have freedom of movement due to her agency or lack thereof within her home.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Changes in attitudes towards women and their mobility.</td>
<td>Qual</td>
<td>ICRW.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Changes in domestic violence and household conflict/tension.</td>
<td>Number of known incidences of domestic violence in the community.</td>
<td>Qual</td>
<td>World Health Organization (WHO).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Changes in attitudes towards violence against women.</td>
<td>Qual</td>
<td>WHO; ICRW.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Gender-based violence (GBV) disproportionately affects women. Studies find GBV and threats of abandonment to be central elements in processes that shape women’s disempowerment. Other studies show that household violence can be the unintended consequence of a woman’s increased access to income or</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Therefore, if a programme is focused on increasing a woman’s financial status it can be helpful to track potential unintended consequences to ensure that, at the very least, initiatives respect a Do No Harm approach.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>6</th>
<th>Gender norms, and men’s and women’s attitudes toward gender roles.</th>
<th>Changes in attitudes towards women and programme-relevant work.</th>
<th>Quant or Qual</th>
<th>ICRW; ALCP.</th>
<th>Gender roles refer to the social and behavioral norms that shape the beliefs, relationships, and practices of men and women. A strong understanding of these roles is critical for the success of PSD programmes. Gender norms drive economic participation and shape individuals’ expenditure patterns, as well as business conduct and relationships. Positive changes in norms and behaviours can bring about long-term changes in women’s economic empowerment.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Women’s and men’s sense of self-worth or confidence.</td>
<td>Perceptions of self-worth, and/or confidence.</td>
<td>Qual</td>
<td>CARE International; Oxfam International; M4C; ALCP.</td>
<td>Economic success – job performance and economic opportunities – correlates closely with women’s confidence levels. While challenging to measure, understanding self-worth and confidence can help a programme to pin-point the often hard to discover - ‘invisible’ or psychological barriers to a woman’s economic empowerment.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


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**Which commonly-used household WEE indicators are not included in the list above?**

Firstly, various indicators are missing from the list above because they are not considered -- for the purposes of this paper -- to be household-level indicators. For example, issues around work environment and business practices are intentionally left out yet should be considered when designing enterprise or service provider indicators. Secondly, a few commonly used indicators in WEE programming were not included. These are:

- Land tenure, and
- Sexual and reproductive decision making

Both of these issues are important factors in women’s economic empowerment and should be measured if a programme is addressing these issues directly. If a programme is not working on these issues, it is not recommended to use them because it is more difficult than others to attribute changes in these areas to the programme due to the multitude of external influences. Moreover, detecting changes to these indicators can take a very long time and may not be possible to capture within the lifetime of a programme.

**2.3 Gender-responsive management of indicators**

M4C and ALCP stress that updating indicators is critical to collecting useful information on WEE. For example M4C’s experience suggests that indicators should be updated as the programme and WEE contexts evolve. M4C found when working in the maize sub-sector that the introduction of new machines for maize husking was displacing some of the most vulnerable women who worked as labourers. The programme has added an additional set of questions into their qualitative women’s economic empowerment assessment on job displacement and the effect on women’s income. They will update this change to be reflected in their results measurement system.

**2.4 Women’s participation projections and targets**

“In this case, having targets (for activities where knowledge is disseminated e.g. % of women participating in field meetings) at the time of deal-making with partners may be a means to test the business case of involving women in such activities.” - Fouzia Nasreen, General Manager, M4C Bangladesh

Projections are what a programme expects to happen based on careful and documented research and assumptions. Targets are what the programme wants to happen and often will be less clear. Setting projections and targets is never an easy task. Setting gender projections and targets can be even more challenging. It is difficult to project how many women will participate in interventions, which may be influenced by social and community norms. For this reason, it is important to update projections as the programme evolves.

M4C and ALCP found it useful to set gender participation targets for each intervention. Not only did it help them understand whether they were reaching the target number of women, but it also became a tool for negotiating with service providers. The teams use the set percentage of women’s participation to discuss with service providers and test their business case for including women. They do this by presenting a business case for including women, and agreeing to what is a realistic level of involvement

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44 Miehlbradt, Aly. Interview. 2014.
by women and men. Both teams find that service providers tend to underestimate the number of women they can reach, but revise the numbers as they see results.

**Beneficiary Quote**

*First of all, I would like to express my gratitude to M4C for not only helping us to touch the Char belt customers, but also for advising us to target women in our promotional activities. The suggestion from M4C to include 20% women in farmer meetings has been very successful. It has given us immediate results. By involving women in farmer meetings we found that women are more attentive than men and can recall the names of our products. Moreover, during the season, male farmers become so busy that they find it difficult to participate in our field meetings. But those women who attended instead, disseminated the information effectively to their male family members.*

- Hemonta Sarkar, Senior Marketing Officer Bogra, Auto Crop Care Ltd. (an agro-input company in Bangladesh and service provider under M4C intervention)

**Component 3: Measuring Changes in Women’s Economic Empowerment**

Once you have defined your indicators, the next step is to select your method(s) for measurement. There are various methods available, varying in cost, required expertise and the type of empowerment indicators they measure. Each method has a unique set of good practices and challenges -- discussed in detail below.

There are several key elements to measuring changes in gender-responsive indicators.

These include:

- **3.1: Find innovative ways to integrate WEE into commonly used PSD research tools**
- **3.2: Establish a process for collecting information and highlight where WEE fits in**
- **3.3: Understand good gender-responsive research practices**
- **3.4 Collect reliable household-level data on WEE**

**3.1 Find innovative ways to integrate WEE into commonly used PSD research tools**

There are many ways to collect data on WEE indicators. In order to simplify and cut back costs, it can be helpful to integrate WEE measurements into commonly applied PSD surveys and studies. This can be particularly important for collecting quantitative WEE data. Figure 11 provides tips based on the experiences of M4C and ALCP on common survey methods used in PSD programming.
**Figure 11: Integration tips for quantitative and qualitative methods from M4C and ALCP**

### Quantitative

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Common PSD Method</th>
<th>HH level data</th>
<th>Strategies for Integrating WEE</th>
<th>Additional Resources Required</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Enterprise surveys| No            | a) Ask about sex-disaggregated participation numbers in trainings offered  
b) Include questions about the gender-responsiveness of training content. 
c) Enquire about whether the enterprise is male- or female-run or owned.  | Can be included without much additional time or resources. |
| Enterprise records| No            | a) Ask enterprises to track how they engage with both women and men (customers, suppliers, training).  
b) Determine the number of male and female employees and their roles or positions  | Can be included without much additional time or resources. |
| Household survey  | Yes           | a) Ensure an individual unit of analysis.  
b) Include questions on household dynamics and women’s and men’s perspectives on gender issues.  
c) If including women in the sample, apply sub-modules to women within the household on decision making regarding income, productive assets, investments and expenditures, and division of labour, time, and responsibilities.  
d) Analysis of attitudes between men and women to different service providers can be added into household surveys.  | Can add time to interviews.  
Requires additional expertise to enumerate the survey with women.  
Time-use questions need qualitative follow up. |

### Qualitative

| Focus group discussions| Yes | a) Conduct separately with women and men.  
b) Be aware of socio-cultural norms for sharing information in groups. Many of the household-level indicators are sensitive topics.  | Adds time to group discussions. |
| Key informant interviews| Yes | a) Aim to speak with a woman alone. If not possible, ensure that people within earshot understand that she is to answer first and others can answer if the facilitator asks them to do so.  
b) Include questions on all household-level indicators.  | None. Includes discussions with women where otherwise men would have been interviewed. |
| Validation workshops  | Yes | a) Helpful to use after conducting smaller sample size qualitative research. Conduct with men and women separately if discussing household-level issues.  | Can add time to group discussions, yet helps to reduce sample sizes of quantitative and qualitative research, thus, will end up reducing resources. |
Quick Tip! Gender-Based Violence
The WHO guidelines note that integrating violence questions into other studies makes sense only when the research team is willing to address the basic ethical and methodological requirements.

Where this is not feasible, it is suggested that teams avoid asking direct questions about violence and instead ask less personal questions regarding attitudes towards violence and/or the respondent’s knowledge of others who have experienced violence. This can help a programme obtain information about trends in violence without risking a woman’s safety.

3.2 Establish a process for collecting information and highlight where WEE fits in
M4C and ALCP collect data on women’s economic empowerment in multiple ways. Their market research and baseline surveys mainstream gender issues throughout. They conduct annual qualitative WEE focus group discussions and/or interviews, quantitative early impact assessments midway through an intervention that include questions directed to women and understanding gender issues, and a quantitative final impact assessment that follows up on the baseline and midpoint assessments.

Having a documented process and visual tool can be helpful for staff. Both M4C and ALCP visually map out their process and make this widely available for staff. Interestingly, both programmes follow a similar process, shown below.

Figure 12: WEE Sample Data Collection Process from M4C and ALCP

3.3 Understand good gender-responsive research practices
General research practices are outlined in the DCED’s Guide to Conducting Research. All of these practices apply when measuring women’s economic empowerment, yet there are additional

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45 Watts, Charlotte; Heise, Lori; Ellsberg, Mary; and Moreno, Claudia Garcia. Putting Women First. Ethical and Safety Recommendations for Research on Domestic Violence against Women. WHO. 2001.
considerations specific to WEE. General tips learned from the M4C and ALCP teams for conducting good gender-responsive research include:

- **Regional variations of empowerment.** Different indicators may be required in different programme areas to match the local context and experiences of empowerment. Therefore, indicators may require tailored methods of measurement and research questions for different locations. This can be more time consuming and make it difficult to aggregate results. To address this, M4C suggests including a mix of locally developed indicators and some more universal indicators.

- **Women’s education.** Speaking directly to women is an important aspect of measuring changes in women’s economic empowerment. Research instruments must be tailored to match women’s education or literacy levels, as in many contexts it can be different from men’s levels of education or literacy. Administering one uniform survey to men and women may lead to data inaccuracies. To address this, programmes should test the survey with both women and men during the pilot phase of the survey and make any necessary adjustments.

- **Identifying “work”.** In contexts where women are mainly engaged in family work as unpaid labour, they may not see themselves as workers or farmers. This can pose challenges for the research team trying to identify the types of work women may be engaged in and whether or not they are beneficiaries of the programme. Therefore, researchers must be taught to look for this issue and be trained in asking additional probing questions to reveal the most accurate information.

- **Involving both women and men.** It is important to speak directly to women about their empowerment. That said, it is also helpful to speak to men about women’s empowerment. Including questions to gauge men’s perceptions of women’s economic empowerment helps to understand household and workplace gender norms from a man’s perspective. Men are important influencers of a woman’s empowerment. Collecting their perspectives provides information on how to best engage women and men. It can help teams understand how to create buy-in for women’s participation from family members and colleagues, and create male champions of change.

- **Validation workshops.** Given the smaller sample size of most qualitative work, M4C felt that their eventual findings may not fully represent women in each area. Thus, M4C now conducts validation workshops where they present their findings to groups of women in different geographical areas and gather feedback. Once the findings are validated, the information is fed back into intervention design and implementation processes.

- **Gender-sensitive enumerators.** Staff should be trained in gender-sensitive research practices such as women surveying women in certain contexts. If you decide to outsource your data collection, be aware that many firms are not accustomed to directly surveying women and may lack an understanding of gender-responsive research practices. Either hiring firms with this type of expertise or holding a training for them will enhance data accuracy.

- **Timeframes.** Understanding how often to collect the data is critical. Transforming gender relations and enhancing empowerment is a pathway and long-term process. Measuring household-level impacts of women’s economic empowerment for PSD programmes should be
measured only two or three times throughout the life of a programme. Significant time (one to two years) is needed in between research to show change. Other changes (i.e. not at the household-level) along the empowerment pathway can be measured more regularly.

- **Gender stereotypes.** It is important that the types of activities included in questionnaires not be based on established gender stereotypes. Questions should be tailored based on market research or left open ended in qualitative work.

- **Finding ‘empowerment trigger points’**.\(^{47}\) When piloting research instruments it is important to find the ‘empowerment trigger point’, or the right question that can help determine empowerment. What you choose to ask is extremely important, whether applying a qualitative or quantitative method. The experiences of M4C and ALCP suggest that framing questions using context-specific examples can help researchers identify these trigger points and better understand changes in results over time.

*Figure 13: M4C Lesson - ‘Empowerment Trigger Points’ in Designing Questions on Decision Making*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Question</th>
<th>Actual Question</th>
<th>Analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>General</strong></td>
<td>“How do you contribute to household decisions on family spending? Jointly, on your own or not at all.”</td>
<td>Too general. The level of involvement in decision making may change subject to the decision, and most households fall somewhere in between joint and independent, depending on the decision. Therefore, answers may not provide insight into a woman’s level of empowerment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Specific, off-topic</strong></td>
<td>“When buying children’s clothes do you need to ask your husband for permission?” or “Are you involved in the household decision-making process when buying children’s clothes?”</td>
<td>The questions here are more helpful because they are specific and use an example for a respondent to draw from. Yet, in many places in the world women tend to control the decisions over spending on children’s clothes. Thus, you may find high levels of participation in decision making – such as 95% of women report independent decision-making abilities, and thus you will see small amounts of change over time. Moreover, this is promoting a common gender stereotype and you may miss out on other more interesting situations where a woman might make changes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Specific, on-topic</strong></td>
<td>“If your family wants to lease land, would you be able to take this decision yourself? Would your husband take this decision himself or would he consult you?”(^{48})</td>
<td>The question here is specific and uses a context-specific example. This question was chosen by M4C because it was tested over time and identified as the ‘empowerment trigger point’ or the question that best exposed whether or not a woman was involved in decision-making. With this type of question, researchers will find enough variation in answers to see changes over time if they occur.</td>
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Interview with Nona Samkharadze, Information Officer for the ALCP Georgia team.

Nona is an experienced gender researcher. Her thoughts on how to best engage your interviewee throughout the survey process are presented below:

It is critical to **make the survey or interview process itself empowering**. To do this there is a mental check-list I go through each time before I go to communities to do research. My steps include:

1. **Establishing trust.**
   - I make sure that I bring a local staff member with me who speaks the local language. It is important that she is also of the same ethnicity of the people I will be interviewing.
   - I speak with a community leader ahead of time about your trip and objectives. If certain community leaders buy in to your research, interviewees will generally be more open to speaking freely. This relates to a community’s gender norms and a woman’s comfort in being supported by her community to take part in the research process.

2. **Showing respect.**
   - How you present yourself is very important. I always wear clothes that are locally appropriate. Never wear fancy clothes, high heels or a revealing shirt! This sounds simple, but it is a good rule. The last thing you want is for someone to feel intimidated or very different from you. You should always be trying to put yourself in the other person’s shoes and find ways to relate to them.
   - Make sure that you know the culturally-appropriate greetings upon arriving. A good start can go a long way.
   - Be a good listener. Never interrupt someone.
   - Leave them with their opinions. Do not try to influence them. Show them that you relate and are listening, but do not show judgment, either positive or negative.

3. **Show her your confidence.**
   - This may sound counterintuitive, but the more confident you are in question asking and following up, the more confident she will feel as well. Do not be afraid to show confidence. Practicing your questions and feeling prepared before an actual interview can help.

4. **Help her to analyse.**
   - When a woman responds, help her to go into more depth with her response. Asking probing questions can be very helpful to the researcher and empowering for the interviewee. Access to knowledge and awareness of your knowledge is powerful. If the research can help the interviewee to self-assess and realize new aspects of her or their life, this can be very important. Going into more detail (in a sensitive way) will help to bring out her experiences and she will become more self-aware in the process. A woman once said to me: “when you asked me this question, I realized my situation and what I could do.” Again, it is important to be non-judgmental, but stay positive about what is possible for them.
3.4 Collect reliable household-level data on WEE

The section below provides a summary table with specific considerations and tips for collecting gender-responsive data for each suggested indicator category. A detailed version of the table with examples of research questions and analysis from M4C and ALCP are provided in Annex C.

“In measuring decision making over income, looking at household expenditures gives us a clearer view and simpler method of determining household dynamics of empowerment rather than trying to determine more abstract notions of ‘control’ over household income.” - Helen Bradbury, Team Leader, Alliances Lesser Caucasus Programme, Georgia

Figure 14: Summary Chart of Measurement Practices for WEE Household-level Indicators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Household Indicator Category</th>
<th>Most Applicable To</th>
<th>Potential Challenges</th>
<th>Tips</th>
<th>Difficulty of Application</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Access to income.</td>
<td>When measuring changes in access to resources.</td>
<td>Mistrust of the interviewer leads to deliberate misreporting. Establishing trust with women can be more difficult than with men in certain conservative contexts.</td>
<td>Bring a staff member who speaks the local language. Contact and receive buy-in ahead of time from community leaders, so the woman knows the community supports her.</td>
<td>Medium: can be undertaken using quantitative and/or qualitative methods. If done quantitatively, will need qualitative follow up to understand impact on women. Must be designed and enumerated by qualified staff or professional given significant room for data inaccuracies.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Disaggregating between a woman’s and man’s household income due to family-run businesses and joint responsibilities.</td>
<td>Do not disaggregate household income by sex in quantitative surveys. Instead, use the household as the unit of analysis and follow up with qualitative studies to understand contribution of income by individuals.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Decision making regarding income, productive assets, investments and</td>
<td>When measuring changes in agency.</td>
<td>Many surveys reinforce gender stereotypes in terms of how households use money.</td>
<td>Ask questions that are directly linked to your programme’s interventions. Avoid asking general decision-making questions or questions about commonly purchased item by women such as clothing or food.</td>
<td>Medium to low: can be undertaken using quantitative and/or qualitative methods. Must be designed and enumerated by qualified staff or professional given significant room for data inaccuracies.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Questions around who controls income can be challenging to collect and analyse because many households rationally choose to pool their income.</td>
<td>Experience shows that asking about programme-relevant expenditures may be easier to collect, more accurate and more directly linked to a woman’s agency than data on controlling income.</td>
<td>Difficulty depends on the type of questions (i.e. income-productive assets, investments or expenditures).</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Division of labour, time and responsibilities.</strong></td>
<td>When measuring changes in agency. Defining what is empowering and disempowering in terms of time-use is difficult, which leads to problems during data analysis.</td>
<td>Be sure to define upfront what your team thinks is empowering or disempowering and test your assumptions. For example, if a woman decides to drop out of the workforce to raise her children, is she less empowered because she is working fewer hours?</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Women may not consider their unpaid activities at home as actual work. This can lead to a downward bias in data around the intensity of a woman’s work.</strong></td>
<td>Invest in training enumerators to be able to ask insightful follow-up questions. Conduct follow-up qualitative studies to triangulate information.</td>
<td>Recommended only for advanced WEE programmes.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Freedom/restriction of mobility.</strong></td>
<td>When measuring changes in agency. In a context where you expect to see changes in mobility from your intervention. Including concepts of whether or not a woman needs to ask permission to leave the home can lead to data inaccuracies.</td>
<td>Instead of asking questions about whether or not a woman needs to ask permission to leave the home for certain activities, consider questions that are directly relevant to the intervention such as women’s access to business or public services and how often they attend or visit.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Changes in domestic violence and household conflict/tension.</strong></td>
<td>When measuring unintended negative results. Examining Do No Harm. Due to the sensitive nature of the topic, the validity of information is based on the trust established between interviewer and interviewee.</td>
<td>Follow WHO 2001 guidelines for gender based violence sensitive research.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>High:</strong> expensive and time intensive. Needs a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods. Must be designed and enumerated by a highly-qualified staff or professional given significant room for data inaccuracies.</td>
<td><strong>Low:</strong> inexpensive and less time intensive. Can be done qualitatively or quantitatively. Needs minimal follow up. Easier to analyse than other agency indicators. It can be undertaken by staff and alongside other market research.</td>
<td><strong>Medium:</strong> may require a separate study and trained interviewer. Must be done using the qualitative method of key informant interviews. Not to be conducted in groups.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Component 4: Estimating Attributable Changes in WEE</td>
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<td>The DCED Standard uses the DAC Network on Development Evaluation’s definition of attribution: “the ascription of a causal link between observed (or expected to be observed) changes and a specific intervention.” Attribution therefore refers to the degree of change that can be credited to a programme/intervention out of the total amount of change that takes place. (^{49}) Results chains can assist in validating a programme’s attribution to measured changes; if one or several of the changes outlined in results chains have not occurred, then ultimate impacts cannot be attributed to the programme. To learn more, please consult the Guidelines to the DCED Standard for Results Measurement: Estimating Attributable Changes. (^{50})</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>4.1 Understand interventions’ links to empowerment and household-level changes</th>
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<tr>
<td>Measured results are less attributable to a programme’s efforts when external influences are stronger and/or results depend upon change by one or several intermediaries. The figure below depicts how the ability of an initiative to attribute changes to its efforts weakens as the changes are further from the original intervention, for both private sector development and women’s economic empowerment efforts.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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\(^{50}\) Ibid.
This factor is an important consideration when trying to attribute changes in women’s economic empowerment to a programme, particularly at the household level. Most PSD programmes do not implement interventions that directly intervene at the household level. Rather, they intervene at the enterprise, service provider or policy levels. Therefore, it is important to clearly outline your change logic in your results chains, and assess the changes on which the programme is most likely to have a significant influence. For example, when measuring women’s decision-making capabilities developing a programme-specific indicator like: women’s decision making on handicrafts production and marketing and/or women’s decision making on the use of income from handicraft production, could be more helpful than more general indicators.

For example, M4C works with purchasers to upgrade women’s skills and production within the handicraft value chain. The programme facilitates introductions between the two and supports the design of quality training packages and the development of a business model to reach women in rural areas. The expectation is that this will increase the incomes of the women and decision making at the household level. In this example, M4C can be relatively confident that its efforts were responsible for the new linkages between the producers and purchasers, and that resulting increases in quality were due to the new training. Impact level changes, such as household income levels and decision-making dynamics, are subject to a greater number of influences. Attributing the expected results at the household level to the programme will therefore require additional exploration to validate.

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52 Miehlbradt, Aly. Interview. 2014.
Below are a few other strategies that M4C incorporates to measure attribution at various levels:

- First, M4C designed its results statements and indicators to be closely linked to the programme and likely to have a significant influence. They assess the programme logic and check to see if changes occur at each level. If one or several of the changes outlined in their results chains have not occurred, then the ultimate impacts of increased household income and decision making will not be attributed to the programme.

- Second, M4C compares beneficiary performance before the handicraft intervention and after the handicraft intervention. This is done by comparing their quantitative baseline data to the impact assessment data.

- Last, the programme assesses attribution to household-level changes through their qualitative WEE assessments. Here, this qualitative process can include questions to beneficiaries about their perception of why the changes have occurred and whether it is due to the programme intervention or not.

Similarly, ALCP tracks programme attribution to changes in women’s economic empowerment at the household level by assessing changes in the logic of their results chains. They also compare beneficiary performance before interventions and after interventions through their quantitative and qualitative assessments. Lastly, ALCP also measures women’s economic empowerment impacts at the household level, such as division of labour, time, responsibilities and decision making regarding income, productive assets, investments, and expenditures in its quantitative impact assessments and compares between an intervention group and a control group. This allows them to see the difference between beneficiaries and women unaffected by the programme.

**Component 5: Capturing Systemic Change**

The DCED Standard recommends that programmes measure systemic change as part of their results measurement system. As the DCED notes, a focus on systemic change has a greater likelihood of creating sustainable outcomes by influencing the behaviours of multiple system actors, not single firms.\(^{53}\) Regarding gender, it is increasingly recognized that households and firms are part of systems. These systems shape their behaviours and their capacity to benefit from economic change. Development programming that does not understand the role of systems in perpetuating the status quo risks having limited long-term impacts.

**5.1 Explore measuring systemic change**

Most proposed indicators and frameworks for measuring systemic change\(^{54}\) assess changes among service providers or market actors rather than target beneficiaries. No PSD programmes to date have viewed household-level changes as types of systemic change, but rather the *results* of systemic changes. However, there is increasing interest in the household as a system or sub-system itself.\(^{55}\) This has been less explored, yet in this new light, household-level changes may be more aligned with system-level change.

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For example, to what extent are behaviour changes resulting from programmatic interventions spilling over into other aspects of household life? Taking ALCP as an example, if women’s and men’s roles are changing in livestock production as a result of programme activities, are their roles in other economic or non-economic activities changing as well? Similar questions could be asked about changes in decision making or other areas outlined above. These types of studies would need to be carefully planned and only occur once or twice in the life of a programme. Some of these changes will take a long time to occur. Yet, programmes could hypothesize a pathway towards these types of changes and then look for evidence of their progress along the pathway. Given that systemic change has never been measured in this way by PSD programmes, these ideas are mentioned to spur creativity, rather than to make recommendations.

Component 6: Programme Costs for WEE

“One day gender mainstreaming and the mechanisms for embedding it in every aspect of programming will be a matter of course. The expense of (and budgeting for) gender mainstreaming will then also cease to be a matter for discussion.” - Helen Bradbury, Team Leader, ALCP Georgia

6.1 Effective budgeting

Tracking costs helps a programme improve efficiency. Specifically, programmes that are mainstreaming gender issues into PSD programmes will need to decide if they will budget for activities related to gender separately or as part of the overall programme. Helen Bradbury, Team Leader at ALCP notes that there are benefits to applying a mix of both methods. She states that integrating gender activities throughout the overall programme budget helps to ensure gender is not swept aside. This will ensure management’s ownership of gender activities within their budgets. Yet, having some money set aside specifically for Women Targeted activities allows her and her management team to use this money to catalyse specific changes for women.

6.2 Potential additional costs

The amount of additional costs will greatly vary by context and programme objectives. Drawing from the M4C and ALCP programmes’ experience, additional costs are mainly in staff time and backstopping to integrate WEE into the overall programme and its processes.

For instance, M4C incurred minimal additional costs when integrating WEE into their quantitative impact assessments; only minor amounts of staff time to develop WEE-related questions and conduct analysis post-assessment. Moreover, they only spend about 35 staff days per year preparing and conducting their annual WEE qualitative assessments. They use a smaller sample size and conduct validation workshops to confirm findings to save time and costs. The most expensive cost has been the short-term backstopping from an international expert to support the development of the gender strategy and WEE qualitative assessment. Other costs include staff workshops and trainings on gender, yet all of these have either been internally led or outsourced to local consultants.

ACLP has a similar experience to M4C, whereby staff time and backstopping are the most significant additional costs. They also conduct an annual WEE qualitative assessment. In addition to this the ALCP team also conducts a WEE-specific quantitative assessment three times throughout the life of the programme. This raises their additional costs of integrating WEE to higher than M4C’s, but provides

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56 Miehlbradt, Aly. Interview. 2014.
them with a noteworthy amount of statistically-significant WEE-specific data. The cost of the assessment is commensurate with other quantitative impact assessments in their area. They have also included additional costs for staff training on gender and women’s empowerment.

Component 7: Reporting on WEE Results
Programmes tend to report on results for donors, yet the consolidation and publication of results can support a programme’s own understanding and implementation. Translating data and information into a report can help a programme to review its progress and receive feedback and support from senior management.

7.1 Ensure anonymity or design a set of procedures that protects data and the identities of beneficiaries
If your programme decides to measure and report on sensitive issues such as household decision-making abilities or gender based violence, you will need to take necessary precautions to protect data including having data passwords protected and supervised. It is also important to train staff so they understand which information can and cannot be shared.

7.2 Endorse strong gender analysis
Many programmes struggle to effectively analyse and report on women’s economic empowerment. It is very common for good research to be misunderstood because the person writing the report had a limited understanding of gender issues. To address this, programmes like M4C and ALCP have set up quality control procedures where the Gender Lead and/or Team Leader for the programme complete a gender-sensitivity review prior to submission.

For examples of how M4C and ALCP analyse their data, please see Annex C, where sample analysis is included under each indicator category.

Component 8: Managing a Gender-responsive System for Results Measurement
Successful programmes regularly collect and use monitoring data to update their approach as they implement. The DCED Standard requires results measurement to be integrated into all aspects of programme management, from design through implementation. To read more visit the DCED Standard’s guidance on Managing the System for Results Measurement.57

8.1 Establishing a gender-responsive system for results measurement
There are two main considerations in establishing a gender-responsive system:

Establish good MRM practices that adequately address gender and WEE. Establishing an effective process for incorporating findings from monitoring back into programme interventions is critical. The ALCP team holds participatory meetings after data is analysed to discuss findings and to decide what is important to build into their intervention. Each meeting includes a discussion on the gender implication of the new information.

For example, when ALCP first started, the team thought that men were responsible for decisions about what to feed cattle and the type and amount of feed to buy. Therefore, the initial interventions around cattle feed could have targeted men. However, an in-depth baseline data collection process, which included questions around men’s and women’s decision-making roles and responsibilities with livestock, showed that this was not the case. The team found that women were the main decision makers around feed. Therefore, they designed the GSI intervention to match the new finding. The local service provider, Ednari Antadze in Tsinskaro village (a grain merchant) was advertising his feed at the local men’s gathering place, called a ‘birja’ in Georgian. The team showed him the data and worked with him to shift his advertising strategy. Now, in addition to the birja, he does door-to-door sales and advertises at the local schools. This way, he is able to reach potential women clients. His number of female clients has increased from 25 to 125.

**Ensure processes are gender-sensitive.** M4C and ALCP suggest that all relevant staff (e.g., operational, M&E and gender staff) is included in review meetings. To ensure gender-sensitivity, M4C recommends that the meeting facilitator should be aware of who is presenting and participating, and promote diverse participation. The facilitator should also review presentations ahead of time to make sure that gender issues have been addressed and that, where relevant, all materials are inclusive of women and men.

### 8.2 Human resources and integration

As stated by the DCED Standard: “The results measurement system must be integrated with the management structure of the organisation.” Programmes should encourage the integration of the results measurement team and the implementing team. This is also true of team members working on gender. Strategies to ensure gender-responsive management practices include:

**Promote diversity - hire women.** It is well known that diversity and particularly gender diversity in the workplace can further innovation and business performance. Yet, recruiting female staff in certain contexts can be challenging. Particularly in conservative areas, it is helpful to have a recruitment plan targeting women. Some programmes report recruiting twice as many female staff to make up for their high turnover rates. Another strategy is to post job notices in locations that are frequented by women and to share announcements through channels that reach women such as women’s groups or school associations.

Are women in leadership positions in your organisation? It is good to examine the gender composition of your team and encourage women to take on management positions.

**Training.** Many teams are expected to incorporate a gender approach without the tools and knowledge to do so. ALCP believes that “formal gender training is a prerequisite for bringing both male and female staff members on board and equips staff with the tools and knowledge to operate.”

Similar to most types of trainings, regular updates and refreshers help to enhance skills and use.

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60 Bradbury, Helen. Interview. Alliances Lesser Caucasus Programme. 2014.
**ALCP Staff Quote**

“Since the programme began in 2011, we’ve done three annual gender workshops and a gender training which was carried out half way through the programme. The annual gender workshops are very useful and give us a good overview of our strengths and weaknesses and help us plan for gender and WEE for the next year, but their usefulness improved for me after the gender training. The gender training was very practical and made gender understandable for me; helping me think about how to mainstream gender and it gave me tools such as terminology, concepts, resources and international examples which made me think more about the situation here in Georgia. Without it we couldn’t really do good planning for gender sensitized interventions. I’ve noticed now that staff on other programmes who haven’t had this training are not able to see and understand the gender problems around them.”

- Giorgi Sadunishvili, Programme Manager, Alliances KK, Georgia

**Gender focal point – not just a gender expert.** When hiring a gender focal point or gender expert, M4C, ALCP and other programmes have found that these individuals can be more effective when they bring additional value to the team. Hiring a gender expert with either operational knowledge, skills in monitoring, etc. can help strengthen his or her position within the team.61

**Gender-sensitive terms of references.** Explicitly requiring experience in women’s economic empowerment as a criteria for selecting staff or hiring staff (men or women) with a good attitude towards women’s empowerment and gender equality ensures buy-in and quick learning. For example, M4C included a question related to women’s economic empowerment on the written exam when hiring staff. It was given similar weight to other questions in evaluating a candidate’s suitability for the job. This practice ensured that the programme hired individuals with knowledge of WEE so less time and fewer resources were spent on training new staff.62

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Annexes

Annex A: Overview of Case Studies

Making Markets Work for the Chars
Making Markets Work for the Jamuna, Padma and Teesta Chars (M4C) is a five-year programme funded by the Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation (SDC), implemented by Swisscontact, the lead agency, and Practical Action, in collaboration with Rural Development Academy under the Ministry of Local Government, Rural Development and Cooperatives of the Government of Bangladesh. The programme started in December 2011 with an inception phase of six months. M4C aims to reduce poverty and vulnerability of char households in ten districts of Northern Bangladesh by facilitating market systems that enhance opportunities for employment and income generation. Ensuring that both women and men benefit and promoting women’s economic empowerment is a key objective of the programme.

Regional Context
Over 1.5 million people live on Chars, small islands on the Jamuna, Teesta and Padma rivers in northern Bangladesh – around 5% of the total population of the country. These island communities live in extreme poverty. Basic services and economic opportunities are sparse. Char dwellers livelihoods mainly depend on agricultural activities; there are few off-farm opportunities. The combination of high food insecurity and limited income earning potential forces most men to migrate. Women in the region are often responsible for the bulk of with all household responsibilities, crop production and other income-generating activities.

Life for women in the Chars is not significantly different from other rural areas in Bangladesh. Although there are some regional variations among Char populations, in general women have “unequal access, unequal power relations, limited services for health and transport and lack of access to education and skill services.” That said, they play an essential role: running households, including caring for children and the elderly; working as unpaid labour in the agriculture sector to support the family, as well as engaging in paid labour in certain crop sectors.

Approach
M4C is guided by Making Markets Work for the Poor (M4P) approach. The programme seeks to have a large-scale, sustainable impact by improving market systems in Char regions. M4C intervenes in key growth sectors including maize, chili, rice and handicrafts, as well as in cross-cutting markets such as transportation and access to finance. The programme focuses on enhancing gender equality and women’s economic empowerment, as well as disaster risk reduction.

63 Chars are islands formed through silt deposition and erosion.
Gender strategy
Promoting women’s economic empowerment is a core objective of M4C. Aligning itself with the recommendations of an SDC working paper and discussion series on WEE, M4C’s Gender Strategy defines WEE as promoting:

1. Economic advancement: increased income and return on labour
2. Access to opportunities and life chances: skills development or job openings
3. Access to assets, services and needed support to advance economically
4. Decision-making authority in different spheres, including household finances
5. Balanced workloads for women

M4C uses a Combined approach. This includes: an integrated approach, which they see as women and men are involved in the same sector and require similar support; a targeted approach, which brings women into new roles in economic sectors; and an area which they call ‘dialogue,’ whereby some interventions include activities to sensitize the public and private sectors to the importance of women’s participation in economic sectors.

M4C seeks to integrate gender issues throughout the entire programme life cycle, including the implementation of a gender-responsive monitoring and results measurement system. The programme has developed a specific theory of change for economically empowering women that links the types of work women do to their level of empowerment.

Alliances Lesser Caucasus Programme (ALCP)
The Alliances Lesser Caucasus Programme (ALCP) is a market development programme and builds on existing initiatives to improve the productivity, incomes and resilience of small-scale livestock producers in three regions of Georgia lying along the Lesser Caucasus mountain chain from eastern Georgia to the Black sea. Ensuring that both women and men benefit and promoting women’s economic empowerment is a key objective of the programme. In 2008, the Alliances programme began operations in the southern region of Samstkhie Javakheti (SJ) and was followed by Alliances Kvemo Kartli in the south eastern region of Kvemo Kartli (KK) in 2011. From March 1st 2014, the two programmes were amalgamated and expanded into the Alliances Lesser Caucasus Programme (ALCP), which secured an additional five-year extension to scale up the interventions in the two existing regions and expand into the Adjara Autonomous Republic. The programme is funded by the Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation (SDC), implemented by Mercy Corp Georgia and local partners the International Association of Agricultural Development (IAAD).

Regional Context
In Georgia, over 90 percent of the rural population is involved in small-scale subsistence agriculture. The average rural household is extremely poor, whereby average income is about 350GEL or $200 USD. Cash is rare; in rural areas, cheese is a common currency and is often traded for goods or other commodities and labour. Approximately 83,000 people live in the programme area. The regions are ethnically diverse including populations who identify themselves as ethnic Georgians, Ajarans, Armenians, Azeris and

The programme works with communities in four distinct climatic areas: the drier eastern lowlands, the mountainous treeless plateaus, alpine highlands and lower lying subtropical areas near the Black Sea. Highland communities depend on dairy farming, and the cultivation of potatoes, hay and maize. The larger cheese processing factories tend to be located in or near the highland plateaus where pasture is plentiful. The low-lying areas have a milder climate and higher agricultural production than the highlands, yet dairy remains the main livelihood of all areas.69

Women have clearly defined roles and responsibilities in livestock husbandry and agriculture as well as being responsible for domestic and childcare responsibilities. When a family has less than ten cows, women are responsible for milk production, and the processing and selling of dairy products. Women process cheese for home consumption and for sale, and they tend to control the money made from selling cheese.70 Once a family has more than ten cows, male heads of households tend to control production, processing, sales and the income from sales. Women in these regions have limited access to economic opportunities, education and public life. Ethnicity strongly influences discriminatory gender norms, and factors such as forced and early marriage which constrain women’s economic independence and household decision-making abilities.71

**Approach**

The ALCP approach is based on Making Markets Work for the Poor (M4P), which engages a spectrum of market players across the private and public sector. The ALCP programme addresses systemic constraints in the dairy and beef markets, as well as sheep, wool and dairy markets in the KK region.

The programme seeks to enhance local livestock sector support services. This includes veterinary services, breeding, nutrition; access to finance and information; market access and terms of trade with a strong emphasis on Food Safety and Hygiene and business and environmental support services; and facilitating a conducive enabling environment in the livestock sector through interventions linked to livestock disease notification and control and local governance.

**Gender strategy**

Promoting women’s economic empowerment is a core objective of the ALCP. In early 2012 the programme was one of the two case studies of the M4P Hub Phase 2: Guidelines for Incorporating WEE into M4P Programmes.72 The ALCP’s strategy document states that “gender is integral to every programme activity and is included from the first and every step of the programme cycle.”73 Aligning itself with Mercy Corp Gender Procedures74 and SDC’s gender toolkits,75 ALCP integrates in-depth

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72 In 2011, a multi donor effort coordinated by the M4P Hub initiated a set of activities aimed at improving the incorporation of WEE into M4P around how to prioritise and operationalise WEE in M4P programmes. The three main outputs were: the preliminary discussion paper Jones, L. (2012) Discussion Paper for an M4P WEE Framework: How can the Making Markets Work for the Poor Framework work for poor women and for poor men?; the development of the M4P Hub Guidelines for the Integration of WEE into M4P Programmes, and a synthesis of general conclusions in SDC’s E+i Network Synthesis Report on WEE & M4P August 2012 published through the SDC’s Employment and Income Network in August 2012.


75 SDC. Gender Toolkit: Instruments for Mainstreaming Gender. SDC. 2014.
gender analyses into all market research. The subsector-specific, gendered market information is used to identify gender-responsive activities from the very start of each intervention.

The programme’s strategy includes gender as a matter of course in every intervention and is two-fold. All interventions are either Gender Mainstreamed interventions or Women Targeted interventions,\(^{76}\) which they call:

3. Gender Sensitized Interventions (GSIs); and
4. Gender Overt Interventions (GOIs).

GSIs are interventions with activities and expected results that specifically address women’s needs within an intervention that targets both men and women. The calibration required for developing the GSIs is identified during the market research process and integrated into plans and results measurement systems. For example, GSIs can include women-targeted advertising or identifying entry points to enhance women’s participation in interventions. GOIs are interventions that focus entirely on women as a target group. ALCP’s main GOI addresses women’s limited public decision-making opportunities. Each and every activity and expected result within this intervention focuses on women.

Annex B: Results Chains: Do No Harm & Gender Aware

**Do No Harm**

This section demonstrates how to incorporate elements of Do No Harm into results chains. Here, it is not necessary to develop an integrated PSD-WEE strategic results framework. Instead, Do No Harm programmes should focus on identifying potential programme risks and their effects on both women and men.

In order to build WEE risk mitigation strategies into results chains, programmes should identify risks to women at each level in the results chain. Please see the figure below, which takes results statements and pairs each statement with a sample Do No Harm risk assessment box on women.

**Figure 16: Do No Harm: Sample Outcome Result Statements Linked to Risks**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Result Statements</th>
<th>Risks to Women</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female and male farmers and small-scale entrepreneurs increase income (X% of women)</td>
<td>• Increased revenues of female-run businesses and related income cause men in family to assume control of business and/or its finances.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Failure of targeted women’s businesses to increase revenues and related income causes tension (or violence) within the household due to raised expectations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female and male farmers and small-scale entrepreneurs increase sales revenue (X% of women)</td>
<td>• Increased revenues of female-run businesses and related income cause tension (or violence) within the household.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Women report tension with local community members from their increased financial independence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Increased financial independence of mothers and/or younger</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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\(^{76}\) Further detailed in Phase 1 below.
women creates tension around marriage, education and career aspirations.
• Women’s work burden increases.

Be clear about what level of result the risk applies. For example, the above focuses on risks at the outcome level. After examining the risks, make a note within the results chains to reflect the risks within the results measurement system. When you develop your indicators, you should design a few select indicators that can help you to monitor these risks, and develop mitigation activities if needed.

**Gender Aware**

Programmes that apply a Gender Aware lens focus on incorporating language into results chains that disaggregate by women and men where relevant, and incorporate gender participation targets. For example, result statements may look like this:

*Figure 17: Gender Aware: Examples of Output Level Results Statements*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Result Statement (gender neutral)</th>
<th>Results Statement (gender aware)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Farmers purchase equipment</td>
<td>Female and male farmers purchase equipment (X% of women)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MFIs provide finance to farmers for equipment</td>
<td>MFIs provide finance to female and male farmers for equipment (X% of women)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Annex C: Collecting reliable gender-responsive information by indicator category**

1. **Access to income and assets**

When measuring increases in household income, assets and investments, some specific gender suggestions include:

**Establish trust.** Similar to all surveys, mistrust of interviewers can result in deliberate misreporting. This is particularly true when collecting data on household income and assets. Collecting accurate data can be an even greater challenge when surveying women directly because in certain contexts it can be more difficult to establish trust with local women.77 Staff at ALCP recommend to bring a local staff member along who can speak the local language, as well as to speak with a community leader ahead of time about your trip and research objectives. If the right community leaders buy into your research, women interviewees will generally be more open to speaking freely as they will feel support from the community.

**Disaggregation and contribution to household income.**78 Attempting to disaggregate between a man’s and a woman’s contribution to household income is challenging. In reality, many families work together to generate an income, especially in agriculture and family-run businesses. For example, if a crop is

grown on land owned by the man, ploughed by a man, planted by a woman and harvested collectively, what share of the income earned from the agricultural output can be attributed to the woman? This collective process is typical in many contexts and asking a man or woman to disaggregate their contributions can lead to inaccurate reporting.

Given the challenges above, M4C recommends not to disaggregate the numeric contribution of household income between men and women. Instead, programme teams should collect quantitative data on overall household income and/or assets from the person in the household who is most financially knowledgeable and has the best overall picture of household income or wealth. This tends to be the head of the household, whether male or female. Then, information around contribution of income (and/or household task valuation) and/or perceptions of importance around women’s contribution to the household work (paid and/or unpaid) should be studied qualitatively.

2. Decision-making regarding income, productive assets, investments and expenditures

Positive increases in financial and wealth status do not necessarily equate to empowerment. Therefore, it is important to include measures around decision-making, an indicator that captures information about a women’s agency or her ability to make and act on decisions and control resources and profits. Additional suggestions from ALCP and M4C include:

**Stereotypes and expenditures.** Many surveys reinforce gender stereotypes: women are asked about household items or child-related expenditures, whereas men are asked about recreation and larger household purchases. This can limit accurate data collection. ALCP recommends directly linking the decision-making questions on expenditures to assets the programme is likely to directly affect such as cattle expenditures for a livestock development programme.

**Control of income.** Information around who controls the income in the household can be difficult to capture accurately. There are various dimensions to how a household manages the pooling and distribution of income. ALCP staff note that often women choose to share their income with the household for rationale reasons; however, determining whether she shares her income with family members by choice or not is challenging. Both M4C and ALCP report that they can collect more accurate data when collecting disaggregated information on decision making around expenditures, than control over income.

*What does this mean practically?*

ALCP suggests for survey questions to include:

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81 Taylor, Georgia; and Paola Pereznieto. Review of evaluations approaches and methods used by intervention on women and girls’ economic empowerment. Overseas Development Institute. 2014.
82 Ibid.
• A list of expenditures (a mix of small and large) and decipher who is responsible for two aspects: the decision of what to purchase and completing the actual purchase. They report that in some cases you will see a difference between the decision maker and purchaser. For instance, if you see that a woman is the decision maker, but does not do any of the purchasing, you might come to the conclusion that she is more empowered within the household, yet lacks mobility within the community. ALCP recommends following up all quantitative decision-making data with qualitative studies.

• A column for joint decision-making. Framing research questions as either/or (for example, are household decisions made by men or women) is less helpful, as many decisions within a household are made together. Joint decision-making may suggest that a woman has a good position in the household.84 For example in the livestock sector women tend to make the decision around what type of medicine should be purchased, but men often conduct the purchase.85 Here the team’s analysis shows that these women are empowered to make livestock-related decisions, but community norms prevent them from making the actual purchase. In another situation, women and men may jointly make decisions such as when to purchase or inseminate new cows or decide on the type of feed to buy.

The figure below is an example of measuring decision making around livestock expenditures from ALCP. The questionnaire this question is taken from is conducted with women and men separately.

Figure 18: Decision making and expenditures: Quantitative Impact Assessment Questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>Services and animals</th>
<th>Amount earned (currency)</th>
<th>Number of times/year</th>
<th>Who decided?</th>
<th>Who purchased?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Woman  Man  Both</td>
<td>Woman  Man  Both</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Milking cow</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Bull</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Young, large cattle</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Goat, sheep</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Land</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Machinery</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Livestock nutrition</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Expenses from land cultivation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Vet services</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Insemination services</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Other</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

84 Taylor, Georgia; and Paola Perezniestro. Review of evaluations approaches and methods used by intervention on women and girls’ economic empowerment. Overseas Development Institute. 2014.
Note that an increase in women keeping the money after the sale or the number of actual decisions made and on certain larger assets are considered positive change in women’s household economic empowerment.

3. Division of labour, time, responsibilities

When tracking changes in use of time, ALCP reminds us that programmes should be careful not to assume that more time spent on market-oriented work and/or less time spent on domestic or caretaking work means a woman is more empowered. For instance, if a woman decides to drop out of the workforce to raise her children, is she less empowered? The answer would depend on whether it was her decision or not to undertake this activity, and how it has affected her burden of competing claims, not that she now works or earns more or less. This can be addressed by focusing research questions on the amount of time saved per programme-relevant task, rather than tracking time-use more generally.

ALCP focuses on reducing women’s time burden as part of a general increase in efficiency in production, access to inputs and reduction in transaction costs, which includes time expenditure. The team tracks whether the programme is reducing the level of drudgery and the time spent on everyday tasks that women tend to prefer reducing. They also measure how the time is spent and whether women have the ability to choose how they spend this saved time. A key aspect for the programme is to establish whether the women ‘would like’ more free time i.e. time that is not prescribed. Then understand whether or not women have the choice over what to do with it.

Depending on how they are implemented, time-use studies can be time consuming because they require a quantitative survey with qualitative follow up. They also require skilled analysis. Therefore, this paper recommends time-use studies for more sophisticated results measurement systems.

Additional considerations include:

Concept of time. In many contexts, respondents may not have a Western concept of time. They may express time according to different timetables or relate their activities to natural phenomenon such as the seasons rather than months. To overcome differences in the concept of time between surveyors and interviewees, research tools can be developed that use a local perception of time. Then, a locally knowledgeable person or expert should translate the data and/or analysis, particularly if it needs to be submitted to donors or to national-level authorities of reporting.

Defining what is empowering and disempowering. The example mentioned in the introduction above about a woman deciding to drop out of the workforce to raise her children is a helpful example. It is difficult to define which types of time allocation are empowering for a woman and which ones are disempowering. Thus, it is useful to define the direction of change and then validate your assumption over time.

Recall and omission of activities. Many times women do not consider their activities done at home as actual work. Also, they may have difficulty accurately recalling the time they have spent on various activities. The omission of, or problems recalling, activities may in turn cause a downward bias in the measurement of the intensity of a woman’s work. ALCP suggests that the programme invest in training enumerators. Enumerators will need to judge whether or not the information is accurate and ask follow up questions to ensure accuracy. It is important to conduct follow-up qualitative studies to provide in-depth information and allow teams to triangulate information.

Figure 19: Qualitative questions related to time-use

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The questions below are taken from ALCP programme’s qualitative Community Farmer-Level Focus Group Questionnaire.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Who transports products to markets (e.g. local market, local shops, processing factory)?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. How do most people transport produce to market (e.g. foot, car, truck, hired truck, public transit, other)?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Distance (in km) of following markets from village (e.g. local market, local shops, processing factory, other)?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Time spent transporting and selling each type of produce (e.g. sell in local market, local shops, processing factory, other)?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Out of ten visits to a market how many times do you bring your product back unsold?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The team follows up with key informant interviews and asks another series of questions around decisions about how women spend their time. These include:

1. What types of work are you engaged in around livestock?
2. Why do you complete these tasks (e.g. income, women’s responsibility, you enjoy)?
3. What do you consider the most difficult tasks in caring for livestock?
4. How much time did you spend on these difficult tasks last week? Was this a typical week of work? If not, what is?
5. If you had more free time, what would you spend it on?
6. What would happen to you if you did not do this work one day?

4. Freedom and/or restriction of mobility
Specific research questions about mobility should be tailored to be as specific as possible for each community. Moreover, to use mobility to measure empowerment, it can be helpful to measure an individual woman’s mobility against the community norms of mobility. This can also help to examine shifting community norms. Measuring mobility may not be relevant in all contexts and the utility of this data may change as the normative context changes. In areas where norms around women’s mobility are in the midst of a shift, it is most helpful to compare individual mobility to community norms.

Common indicators look at a women’s ability to leave the home or visit a service without getting permission. The team in Bangladesh points out that defining the concept of permission can be challenging. Even when worded carefully, individual women may interpret permission differently or for cultural reasons may skew results. M4C and ALCP suggest that instead of examining notions of permission to be mobile outside the home, programmes should focus on women’s access to business and public services as a proxy for freedom of movement. This reduces the complexity of the research, and generates similar information. For example, in Georgia the team asks:

- Where and how often do you access the following services (list of programme relevant services and timetables)? How do you travel to each service point (alone, with a friend or neighbor, with a family member, other)?
- How frequently do you visit the municipality building (list of timetables)?
- Do you attend community meetings? How many have you attended during the last year?

Changes to the frequency of visits and visits to the services located father away are analyzed as positive changes in empowerment.

Moreover, a woman who can leave her home can be considered empowered in one place, whereas a woman who can travel the world is empowered in another. In this way, when examining mobility, the meaning of empowerment is relative. Therefore, programmes must define what mobility characteristics show changes in empowerment in their specific context.

5. Changes in domestic violence and household conflict and/or tension

World Health Organization (WHO) studies show that it is possible to conduct ethical and safe research on domestic violence against women. The WHO and the Center for Health and Gender Equity also point out that when interviewed appropriately, many women actually find participating in violence research beneficial. To aid appropriate research techniques, in 2001 the WHO developed ethical and safety guidelines for researching domestic violence against women. The guidelines are still used by their research teams today. The WHO guidelines recommend a set of eight research principles, which include:

1. Safety should guide all programme decisions;
2. Methodologies should be built on sound research practices;
3. Confidentiality protects both a woman’s safety and data quality;
4. Researchers need specialized training;
5. Study design should include actions to reduce possible distress;
6. Researchers should be trained to refer women to local services if needed;
7. Ethical obligation to ensure proper analysis of data;
8. Questions on violence should only be incorporated into surveys when all ethical and methodological requirements can be met.

6. Gender norms and men’s and women’s attitudes toward gender roles

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When measuring changes in gender norms, defining what change is positive and what is considered negative is highly context dependent. Literature suggests that teams look at the attitudes around three subjects: women and work, mobility and violence. These topics have clearer definitions of positive change. For instance, does an intervention increase the acceptance of women taking on additional working roles, nurture openness to women being more mobile, and increase awareness about the problem of violence in the home?

M4C recommends that teams conduct this research using qualitative methods. Many responses will need further probing to obtain accurate information. To address the issue of small sample sizes in qualitative research, M4C suggests using a focus group discussion methodology or conduct validation workshops of findings from key informant interviews. This will allow the researcher to ask probing questions while understanding wider trends.

The team in Bangladesh is measuring changes related to gender norms and men’s and women’s roles. They focus on understanding gender roles in each sector in which the programme works. The table below is an excerpt from their Annual WEE Assessment, conducted using key informant interviews:

**Figure 20: Changes related to men’s and women’s roles**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sector/task</th>
<th>% of role</th>
<th>Have you learned anything new for better practice?</th>
<th>If yes,</th>
<th>How did you learn?</th>
<th>Have you changed your practice (Y/N)?</th>
<th>Why/why Not?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Maize</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Land preparation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seed sowing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irrigation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weeding</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fertilizer application</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harvesting</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-harvesting activities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7. **Women’s and men’s sense of self-worth or confidence**

Neither M4C nor ALCP currently measure this category of indicators. Oxfam and Care International provide ideas for researching self-worth and confidence. Oxfam is currently exploring the use of an observational method. They are piloting ideas around women’s willingness to give their opinion, how women present themselves (in terms of dress), body language and women’s ability to interact with people they are unfamiliar with. CARE suggests programmes use a key informant interview questionnaire or sorting method. They give the questionnaire to participants and ask them to mark “yes”

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or “no” next to each question. The researchers then score points for each answer: a high total score indicates high self-esteem, and a low score indicates lower self-esteem. Questions included a mix of items, such as: 98

- Personal self-esteem: Do you worry a lot?
- Global self-esteem: Can you do things as well as others?
- Academic self-esteem: At school/work, are you satisfied with your work?
- Life items: Have you ever taken anything that doesn’t belong to you? (The rationale being, the more someone is willing to admit socially undesirable traits, the more comfortable he/she is with him/herself).

Annex D: Rationale for Use

- **Access to income, assets and investments.**

Measuring access to income, productive assets and/or investments is very common in PSD programmes. Typically, PSD programmes measure progress by looking at changes in amounts over time. For example, the increase in access to income, productive assets and/or investments during the project timeframe. One of the DCED Standard universal indicators focuses on the quantity of income. Programmes using these measures assume that the numeric increases are associated with the reduction of people living in poverty. Using data from across fifty countries, various studies confirm that as mean income per person increases, the proportion of people living in poverty (or on $1 or less per person per day) decreases. 99 Yet, as is often noted in empowerment literature, increased wealth does not necessarily equal empowerment, 100 and at times can have disempowering effects. 101 Therefore, to capture a clearer picture of women’s economic empowerment it is recommended that programmes complement access indicators with agency indicators (i.e. decision-making abilities).

- **Decision-making regarding income, productive assets, investments, and/or expenditures.**

Women’s input in financial decision-making strongly correlates with their level of employment, relative to their husband’s. Women’s ability to maintain control over their income is closely linked to their empowerment. 102 Research on women’s empowerment identifies the importance of decision making in: (1) economic activities, (2) decision-making power over productive resources, and (3) control over use of income; all these variables are measured in Feed the Future’s Women’s Empowerment in Agriculture Index. 103 Similarly, a review of empirical studies conducted by Malhotra and Mather identify the most frequently used individual and household-level indicators of empowerment to include domestic decision

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making, which covers finances, resource allocation, spending, and expenditures; and access to or control of resources, such as cash, household income, and assets.\textsuperscript{104} While quantitative methods are useful for collecting data on decision-making, it is equally important to complement this data with qualitative methods, especially since gender norms affecting decision-making responsibilities vary considerably depending on context.\textsuperscript{105}

- **Division of labour, time, workload**

  Time-use surveys examine gendered divisions of labour and potential trade-offs between time spent on market, non-market and leisure activities. Generally, surveys seek to understand an individual’s “time poverty” or “the burden of competing claims on individuals’ time that reduce their ability to make unconstrained choices on how they allocate their time, leading, in many instances, to increased work intensity and to tradeoffs among various tasks.”\textsuperscript{106} Time-use surveys can provide supplementary data on unpaid or family labour that are typically missed in official statistics due to the significant number of market-based activities that take place within the household in most developing economies.\textsuperscript{107}

  Most women’s empowerment studies agree that women’s time poverty affects their ability to partake in economic opportunities. However, studies debate how this links to empowerment. There are few studies\textsuperscript{108} that demonstrate the relationship between time spent in market versus non-market activities, and women’s decision-making power.\textsuperscript{109} These studies begin to make a link between women’s time spent in market activities and their empowerment; however, this link remains largely unproven and difficult to report on (as discussed below). Some studies demonstrate how women’s care-giving roles and the scarcity of time require them to stay near the home and limit their options for wage work.\textsuperscript{110} Other studies show it can be more effective to measure the burden of competing claims on an individual’s time and her ability to choose how to spend her time.\textsuperscript{111} In this instance, it can be surmised that in households where tradeoffs are particularly severe (i.e. poor and/or vulnerable households), these tradeoffs and her lack of choice may directly affect a women’s empowerment.\textsuperscript{112}

- **Freedom and/or restriction of mobility**

  Freedom of movement or mobility is another commonly used indicator in WEE programming at the household level.\textsuperscript{113} The indicator is particularly common in areas where women’s presence in the public sphere is constrained. Mobility issues can transcend the household level. The indicator is sometimes

\textsuperscript{104} Malhorta, Anju; Schuler, Sydney Ruth and Boender, Carol. Measuring Women’s Empowerment as a Variable in International Development. World Bank. 2002.
\textsuperscript{107} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{109} Malhorta, Anju; Schuler, Sydney Ruth, and Boender, Carol. Measuring Women’s Empowerment as a Variable in International Development. World Bank. 2002.
\textsuperscript{112} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{113} Malhorta, Anju, Schuler, Sydney Ruth and Boender, Carol. Measuring Women’s Empowerment as a Variable in International Development. World Bank. 2002.
included at community, workplace and policy levels as well. It is included here to illustrate its link to a women’s agency at the household level: a woman may or may not have freedom of movement due to her agency or lack thereof within her home. Few studies have been able to demonstrate the precise link between freedom of movement and the process of empowerment.\(^{114}\)

- **Changes in domestic violence and household conflict and/or tension**

Gender-based violence (GBV) disproportionately affects women. It is a global phenomenon that reaches across income levels, geographies and cultures. GBV is a deeply rooted form of discrimination that can greatly impact women’s economic advancement and empowerment. CARE International defines GBV as: “...any harm perpetrated against a person’s will on the basis of gender—the socially ascribed differences between males and females. It is based on an unequal power between men, women, boys and girls.”\(^{115}\) The definition goes on to define various forms of violence. For the purposes of this paper, we are focused on GBV as it relates to physical, sexual and psychological abuse of women and girls in the home, community and public spaces, such as the workplace.

Studies\(^{116}\) find “gender-based violence and threats of abandonment to be central elements in processes which shape women’s disempowerment.”\(^{117}\) Studies also show that incidences of violence reduce a woman’s ability to work and provide for her family. A study in Nicaragua showed that women who reported abuse earned 40% less than women who did not.\(^{118}\) There is a clear, demonstrated link between violence in the home and women’s economic disempowerment. Some studies show that increasing economic opportunity for women reduces a woman’s vulnerability to violence.\(^{119}\) Other studies urge caution; household violence can be the unintended consequence of a woman’s increased access to income or education.\(^{120}\) A new study shows that the incidences of violence against women tend to rise when a woman’s increased access to income or education results in a significant change in the socio-economic status between her and her partner.\(^{121}\) Therefore, if a programme is focused on increasing a woman’s financial status is can be helpful to understand gender norms, and to track potential unintended consequences to ensure that, at the very least, initiatives respect the Do No Harm approach. Additional research is needed to better understand the link between PSD programming and GBV.

- **Men’s and women’s perceptions, and attitudes toward gender roles**

Gender roles refer to the social and behavioral norms that shape the beliefs, relationships and practices of men and women. Every society has a set of gender norms that influence how men and women experience life, including their household and working lives. These norms are fluid and constantly

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\(^{114}\) Ibid.

\(^{115}\) CARE USA. Bringing an End to Gender Based Violence. Issue Brief. CARE USA. No date.


\(^{117}\) Besly, Timothy; Burgess, Robin; and Esteve-Volart, Berta. Operationalizing Pro-Poor Growth. India Case Study. World Bank. 2005.


\(^{119}\) Ibid.

\(^{120}\) Ibid.

\(^{121}\) Kåss, Ingrid Wreden. KILDEN - Information Centre for Gender Research in Norway. 2014.
changing. Many PSD programmes tend to make assumptions about household and community gender roles. SDC points out that this lack of knowledge “is a key factor in the failure of programmes and projects.” Furthermore, findings from a recent USAID study show that “there are no universal gendered behaviors.” Gender norms drive economic participation, and shape how individuals “use and invest their income, conduct business and maintain and develop relationships with other economic actors.” Positive changes in these norms and behaviours can bring about long-term change for women. Moreover, SDC points out that a participatory analysis of attitudes and perceptions on gender roles can encourage self-reflection amongst beneficiaries. So, the process itself can build awareness and encourage empowerment.

- **Women’s and men’s sense of self-worth and confidence**

“A growing body of evidence shows just how devastating this lack of confidence can be. Success (economic), it turns out, correlates just as closely with confidence as it does with competence.”

Measuring a woman’s sense of self-worth and confidence is commonly included as an indicator in women’s economic empowerment programmes. In developed country research, including studies from the Institute of Leadership and Management and Manchester Business School in the United Kingdom, and Carnegie Mellon University in the United States, links between a woman’s job performance and economic opportunities, and her confidence (or lack thereof) are now well documented. However, the impact of these factors can be challenging to anticipate, thus it is difficult to develop effective indicators and research tools to measure them. Understanding self-worth and confidence can help a programme to pin-point the often hard to discover ‘invisible’ or physiological barriers to a women’s economic empowerment.

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126 Gender in Household and Community Analysis. Gender Toolkit. SDC.
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