

EAST ASIA AND PACIFIC REGION  
Social Development Reports

# Gender Dimensions of Community-Driven Development Operations

*A Toolkit for Practitioners*



GAP funded



THE WORLD BANK

# **Gender Dimensions of Community-Driven Development Operations**

*A Toolkit for Practitioners*

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November 2011

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# Acronyms and Abbreviations

BPD	Badan Perwakilan Desa (Democratically elected village representative council)
CAS/CPS	Country Assistance/Partnership Strategy
CDD	Community-driven development
CDF	Community Development Fund
EAP	East Asia and Pacific
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
FGD	Focus group discussion
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
GAP	Gender action plan
GPI	Gender parity index
KDP	Kecamatan Development Program (Indonesia)
LAO PDR	LAO Peoples Democratic Republic
LKMD	Lembaga Ketahanan Masyarakat Desa (Village Community Resilience Board)
M&E	Monitoring and evaluation
MIS	Management information system
NGO	Nongovernmental organization
NSP	National Solidarity Programme (Afghanistan)
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OECD-DAC	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development Development Assistance Committee
O&M	Operation and maintenance
PAD	Project appraisal document (World Bank)
PCR	Primary completion rate
PDO	Project development objective
PNPM	Program Nasional Pemberdayaan Masyarakat
PRF	Poverty Reduction Fund
RF	Results framework
SHG	Self-help groups
SMART	Specific, measurable, achievable, relevant, and time-bound
TQQ	Time, quality, and quantity
TTL	Task team Leader
UNIFEM	United Nations Development Fund for Women



# Background and Acknowledgments

The World Bank recognizes that community-driven development (CDD) approaches and actions are important elements of an effective poverty reduction and sustainable development strategy, which is why CDD is becoming an increasingly important approach in the fight against poverty. In 2006, CDD projects comprised nearly 15 percent of the World Bank's lending portfolio in the East Asia and Pacific (EAP) region, including forty-two active projects in eight countries that were either classified or had a CDD component.

Evaluations and research findings indicate that CDD projects—by working to give control over planning decisions and investment resources for local development projects to community groups—can be excellent vehicles for empowering women and promoting gender equality. Findings also indicate that women and men can often have different priorities for CDD, and that the involvement of females in decision-making about public services can improve service delivery at the community level.<sup>1</sup>

Yet, in the *Gender in Agriculture Sourcebook* (2009), the World Bank, IFAD, and FAO point to evidence that untargeted CDD projects often bypass women. They also conclude that to date the documentation and evaluation of CDD on building accountability to rural women and transforming gender relations are extremely limited, and that increased attention to gender in the M&E of CDD projects is especially critical to ensure that CDD projects have the intended impact for inclusive poverty reduction.

<sup>1</sup> See, for example: (a) McLaughlin, Karrie, Adam Satu, and Michael Hoppe. 2007. "Kecamatan Development Program Qualitative Impact Evaluation." Jakarta: World Bank, Indonesia; (b) World Bank. 2008. *Community-Driven Approaches in Lao PDR. Moving Beyond Service Delivery*. Human Development Sector Unit EAP. Washington DC: World Bank; (c) World Bank, FAO, and IFAD. 2009. *Gender in Agriculture Sourcebook*. Washington, DC: World Bank; and (d) Chattopadhyay, R., and E. Duflos. 2004. "Women as Policy Makers: Evidence from a Randomized Policy Experiment in India." *Econometrica* 72 (5): 1409–1443.

In this context, the EAP Sustainable Development Department has developed this toolkit to promote the wider use of gender indicators in the region's CDD projects. It provides practical guidance to World Bank EAP operational task teams and other CDD practitioners (i.e. government/NGO staff) on how to measure the gendered impact of CDD operations. The toolkit is a result of a regional pilot M&E initiative and is complemented by two additional publications from the EAP Sustainable Development Department that address gender monitoring within specific CDD operations in Lao PDR and the Philippines.<sup>2</sup>

The toolkit improves our understanding of why gender matters to the monitoring and evaluation of CDD projects. It introduces M&E topics that the non-specialist can find useful when constructing gender indicators. Furthermore, the toolkit presents a generic CDD results framework that provides convenient categories for incorporating gender M&E indicators, tangible examples of gender indicators, and illustrates how gender M&E can be added to CDD program results frameworks.

This toolkit was prepared in close consultation with community-driven development practitioners, as well as gender and social development experts within the World Bank.

The Bank's Task Team included Nina Bhatt (Task Team Leader) and Helle Buchhave. Gil Yaron was the main author. The team received technical comments and/or guidance from Sean Bradley, Markus Kostner, Anne Kuriakose, Julien Labonne, Ian Parker, Helene Carlsson Rex, and Susan Wong. Moreover, the report benefitted from the guidance of the peer-reviewers, which included Kathleen G. Beegle, Nora Dudwick, and Janmejay Singh. Specific inputs were provided by Bob Livernash (editing) and Nina Queen and Florian Kitt, who coordinated the report production. The report was made possible with the financial support of the World Bank Gender Action Plan.

<sup>2</sup> Find them here: [www.worldbank.org/eapsocial](http://www.worldbank.org/eapsocial)





There is evidence that untargeted community-driven development projects can bypass women. Gender indicators within the program results framework can enable practitioners to identify better ways of delivering their poverty reduction objectives, yet gender indicators are not widely used. Photo: © Curt Carnemark / World Bank

# Executive Summary

**C**ommunity-driven development (CDD) programs require monitoring and evaluation (M&E) to tell those implementing and funding the programs whether they are on track to deliver, or have delivered, desired outcomes such as improved services, economic activity, and empowerment. Monitoring information—including an early warning system to identify problems that can still be put right—is essential for project managers to manage effectively. Impact evaluation measures results and enables us to learn what has worked and why. M&E thus plays a crucial role in enabling programs to deliver poverty reduction.

In CDD programs, local communities decide which projects are priorities, whether the broad areas of focus are improved services, economic activity, or empowerment. As communities reflect the interests of their constituent groups, monitoring and evaluation of CDD programs must take socioeconomic and gender differences into account in order for programs to effectively support poverty reduction across the whole community.

Put slightly differently, if the program objective is to reduce poverty, it is important to know that CDD projects reflect the needs of the poor. If local elites decide on project priorities, the program will fail to meet this objective. Likewise, poor men and women can have different priorities; CDD projects have to reflect the needs of both. Ignoring the priorities of up to half the poor will seriously weaken the program. In the same way, it is exceptionally important to identify whether and how both men and women gain from the program. If up to half the target group is missing out, the program is failing to deliver.

This is not merely a theoretical concern. Based on an extensive review of CDD projects, the World Bank, FAO, and IFAD (2009) conclude that “. . . there is abun-

dant evidence that untargeted CDD can bypass women and the poor . . . Women’s marginalized status within the community renders their voices less significant than those of men; they have less access to decision making and to the resources for development, and limited time and mobility to attend meetings that determine women’s needs and priorities.” It is also relevant to note that men and boys can also be negatively affected by the failure to consider gender. A World Bank (2011b) pilot of CDD gender indicators in the Philippines highlights the increasing problem of higher school dropout rates for boys than girls; in 2006, only 69 percent of boys compared to 78 percent of girls persisted to the last year of primary school.

The objective of this toolkit is to provide practical guidance to World Bank EAP operational task teams and other CDD practitioners (i.e. government/NGO staff) on how to measure the gendered impact of CDD operations. First, this is necessary because CDD program reviews have found that gender indicators are not widely used. Second, several governments in the EAP Region have identified gender as an important pillar in poverty alleviation strategies, in the light of evidence suggesting that societies promoting more equal opportunities for men and women have higher growth, lower poverty, and better development outcomes. Third, gender mainstreaming is a critical facet of World Bank policy and programs. Fourth, as this toolkit demonstrates, it is straightforward to add gender indicators to a results framework. It involves disaggregating some of the indicators that will already be in the results framework by gender, as well as adding a limited number of specific gender indicators.

This toolkit takes CDD practitioners and other interested readers through the necessary steps to identify where to track gender in the results framework, as well



as suggesting possible indicators. This toolkit is organized in three sections:

- Section 1 sets out why gender matters for CDD M&E.
- Section 2 provides an introduction (and pointers to further reading) on M&E topics that the nonspecialist will find useful when constructing gender indicators. This includes a generic CDD results framework structure that provides convenient categories for incorporating gender M&E indicators.
- Section 3 uses these categories to provide examples of indicators (and other evidence) from the EAP region and illustrates how gender M&E can be added to CDD program results frameworks.

CDD programs tend to face similar issues of whether priority projects are, in fact, priorities for both men and women. This applies if the sector focus is improved services, economic activities, or empowerment. Hence process indicators are likely to be common across sectors (although the wording will need to reflect local institutional and political context).

In contrast, program output and outcome indicators are more sector-specific. The intention is to illustrate the types of indicators that can be used. In some cases, program teams will be able to use example indicators directly in their results frameworks; in others, indicators will need to be modified for the specific sector as well as local context.

The table below sets out examples of gender indicators by type of indicator (process, output, and outcome) and sector. Indicators in the “additional indicators” section may be very important for some programs and are given this title simply because other indicators can provide related information.

Qualitative research (often associated with focus group discussions) plays an important role in measuring the gendered impact of CDD operations. Rather than producing indicators, its value lies in providing the essential context required to interpret numerical indicators: to explain *why* values are high or low and *how* changes have occurred. The combination of quantitative indicators and qualitative, contextual research will produce the most reliable findings.

**Gender indicator examples (as numbered in the document text)****Process indicators**

1. Percent of village development committee members who are women
2. Are there single-sex groups in the planning process that identify priority projects?
3. If so, what proportion of projects implemented were proposed by (a) women-only groups, (b) by men-only groups, or (c) were priorities for both groups?

**Output & Outcome indicators—Improved services (education)**

10. Percent change in female enrollment in primary schools
11. Percent change in male enrollment in primary schools
12. Percent change in female enrollment in secondary schools
13. Percent change in male enrollment in secondary schools
14. Percent change in female completion of primary school
15. Percent change in male completion of primary school

**Output & Outcome indicators—Improved services (health & water & sanitation)**

16. Percent change in access to health services for men
17. Percent change in access to health services for women
18. Percent change in access to water and sanitation facilities for men
19. Percent change in access to water and sanitation facilities for women
20. Percent increase of girls and women receiving health benefits (full immunization, anti-natal, and prenatal and postnatal care, maternal health care)

**Output & Outcome indicators—Increased incomes**

21. The percent change in working-age women engaged in paid work as a result of the project
22. The percent change in working-age men engaged in paid work as a result of the project

**Outcome indicators—Improved services (time-saving)**

23. Percent of women reporting a reduction of time spent on daily household tasks as a result of the program
24. The proportion of women who use the new asset or service
25. Average time saved per day for each woman using the new asset or service

**Outcome indicators (empowerment)**

26. The percent change in local female elected officials (village and municipal offices) as a result of the project
27. The percentage of women who report having no power to make decisions regarding (a) what to buy at the market; (b) asset purchases; (c) number of children; (d) schooling of children; and (e) use of family planning
28. Percentage of women who know how much income and expenditure there is in the household
29. Percentage of women who can travel outside the village to visit relatives without permission
30. Frequency of domestic violence experienced by women in the past year\*

**Additional gender indicators****Process indicators**

4. Number of men gaining voluntary employment on program activities in the past year and over the life of the program
5. Number of women gaining voluntary employment on program activities in the past year and over the life of the program
6. Number of men gaining paid employment on program activities in the past year and over the life of the program
7. Number of women gaining paid employment on program activities in the past year and over the life of the program
8. Proportion of men who believe their views influence projects selected at the village level
9. Proportion of women who believe their views influence projects selected at the village level

\*Based on four categories: (a) Zero, (b) 1-2/year, (c) 3-5/year, and (d) 6+/year.





The process by which a community decides what to invest in will influence who benefits and how.  
Photo: Indonesia. © Ray Witlin / World Bank



# Introduction

Community-driven development (CDD) is an approach to poverty reduction that gives control of decisions and resources to community groups. As noted by Dongier et al. (2002):

“These groups often work in partnership with demand-responsive support organizations and service providers, including elected local governments, the private sector, NGOs, and central government agencies. CDD is a way to provide social and infrastructure services, organize economic activity and resource management, empower poor people, improve governance, and enhance security of the poorest.”

As with other interventions to reduce poverty, CDD programs and projects require monitoring and evaluation (M&E). This tells those implementing and funding the programs whether they are on track to deliver or have delivered the desired outcomes of improved services, economic activity, and empowerment.

Yet CDD monitoring and evaluation needs to do more than simply look at program and project outcomes. The process by which the community decides where to invest will influence who benefits and how.<sup>3</sup> As a consequence, M&E should involve looking at project processes as well as outcomes that result from projects. Moreover, as communities reflect the interests of their constituent groups, M&E must take socioeconomic and gender differences into account in order for programs to effectively support poverty reduction across the whole community.

The objective of this toolkit is to provide practical guidance to World Bank EAP operational task teams and

other CDD practitioners (i.e. government/NGO staff) on how to measure the gendered impact of CDD operations. There are a number of powerful reasons why this toolkit focuses on gender aspects of CDD monitoring and evaluation.

First, CDD programs need to ensure the development needs of *both* men and women are met in order to efficiently and effectively deliver poverty reduction; that is, gender matters in the context of CDD. Evidence to support this can be found at all stages of the CDD project cycle:

- Women and men can often have different priorities for CDD. Chattopadhyay and Duflo (2001) compared decisions made in villages with and without women’s representation in village-level councils (panchayats). In the two Indian states included in the study, panchayats with women members invested more in goods that were relevant to the needs of local women.
- Where priorities differ, the process of deciding which needs to prioritize for investment directly affects who ultimately benefits. This process should be monitored and corrective action taken where investments are skewed toward either men’s or women’s interests.<sup>4</sup> Failure to identify and correct this bias can seriously reduce the ability of a project to reach the poor. Reviews of IFAD CDD projects (IFAD 2004, 2006) underline these concerns and led the World Bank, FAO, and IFAD (2009) to conclude that “. . . there is abundant evidence that untargeted CDD can

<sup>3</sup>For example, where customary traditions deny rights and privileges to women, relying on customary community institutions for project implementation can deepen gender inequality (Beall 2005, cited in World Bank, FAO & IFAD 2009).

<sup>4</sup>Experienced project staff may find that provisions that worked in one area at a given time fail to curb excessive traditional authority influence in another. By monitoring the process used to select CDD projects at each phase in the program, the Lao PDR PRF identified that the original process for project selection was disadvantaging women and introduced new processes to address this (World Bank 2011a).



“Sometimes men look down on us women. Sometimes they don’t accept our point of view. That discourages us.” Woman from Solomon Islands. Photo © thinkEQUAL / World Bank

bypass women and the poor . . . Women’s marginalized status within the community renders their voices less significant than those of men; they have less access to decision making and to the resources for development, and limited time and mobility to attend meetings that determine women’s needs and priorities.”

- CDD project outputs, outcomes, and impacts clearly determine who within the community benefits. Gender indicators provide both critical information on delivery of poverty reduction and, if used skillfully, an opportunity for course correction. It is important to note that men and boys can also be negatively affected by the failure to consider gender. A World Bank (2011b) pilot of CDD gender indicators in the Philippines highlights the increasing problem of higher school dropout rates for boys than girls; in 2006, only 69 percent of boys compared to 78 percent of girls persisted to the last year of primary school.

**Gender indicators within the program results (M&E) framework therefore enable practitioners to identify better ways of delivering their poverty reduction objectives. Yet gender indicators are not widely used.** The evidence from a wide-ranging review of CDD and Community Development Fund (CDF) projects by the World Bank, FAO, and IFAD (2009) suggests that the experience of IFAD is typical in that “current information on gender aspects and impacts in the CDFs is superficial; assessments of CDD and CDFs have not measured gender impacts or participation of women in the capacity-building activities.”

Second, several governments in the EAP Region have identified gender as an important pillar in poverty alleviation strategies in the light of evidence suggesting that societies promoting more equal opportunities for men and women have higher growth, lower poverty, and better development outcomes (World Bank 2010b). **If you cannot measure the gender outcomes of a CDD program, you are losing the opportunity**

**to demonstrate how your work fits into this bigger picture.**

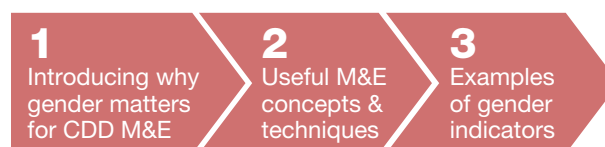
Third, **gender mainstreaming is a critical facet of World Bank policy and programs.** The EAP Region has a Regional Gender Action Plan, endorsed by senior management, which has the development of country gender action plans at its core (World Bank 2010b). These will cover the same period covered by the Country Assistance/Partnership Strategy (CAS/CPS) and will include impact, outcome, and output gender indicators.

Finally, as this toolkit demonstrates, **it is straightforward to add gender indicators to a results framework.** It involves disaggregating by gender some of the output and outcome indicators that will already be in a results framework, as well as adding a limited number of specific gender indicators. This toolkit describes the necessary steps to identify where you should be tracking gender in the results framework, as well as suggesting possible indicators. It is important to note that not all the indicators in this toolkit will apply to a specific program or project: if there are no CDD interventions in the education sector, then there is no need to select the suggested education indicators. Conversely, a project may have outputs outside the sectors that are mentioned. The examples given from a range of sectors are

intended to enable CDD practitioners to construct a similar indicator for a new sector.

It is also worth noting that most of the indicators in this toolkit have been piloted within the EAP Region and draw on the valuable experience gained from piloting gender indicators in CDD programs in Lao PDR, the Philippines, and in Indonesia.

This toolkit is based on three steps:



The remainder of this document elaborates steps 2 and 3. Section 2 provides an introduction (and pointers to further reading) on M&E topics that the nonspecialist will find useful when constructing gender indicators. Having set out the reasons for using a logical framework approach, we consider a generic CDD results framework that provides a convenient structure for incorporating gender M&E. Section 3 provides examples of indicators (and other evidence) that will help practitioners add gender M&E to their CDD program results framework.





In 2006, CDD projects comprised nearly 15 percent of the World Bank's lending portfolio in the East Asia and Pacific (EAP) region, including forty-two active projects in eight countries that were either classified or had a CDD component. Photo: Laos. © Helle Buchhave / World Bank

## 2

# Some Useful M&E Concepts for Including Gender in CDD

## The Role of M&E in CDD

### The objectives of M&E in CDD projects

Monitoring and evaluation (M&E) enables managers to track progress and get better results by learning what works, what doesn't, and why this is the case. The importance of doing this is summed up in Box 1 below.

The role played by monitoring differs from that of evaluation. Specifically:

#### Monitoring

- Measures progress against work plans and budgets.
- Gives an early indication to project managers of what is working and what isn't. It flags areas where more detailed investigation is needed to understand why this is the case. For example: Are you reaching your target beneficiaries as planned, and if not why not? This requires you to know whether the project is systematically failing to reach poor women or poor men—an issue we return to in Section 3.
- Provides rapid feedback for decision making and course correction if necessary. In the

example above, it is evidence from project monitoring that allows previously unforeseen constraints to be addressed—to get the project back on track.

- Provides opportunities for beneficiaries to get feedback on progress and raise concerns if necessary.

#### Evaluation

- Helps us to measure the impact of the project or program and understand the major drivers of this impact. Given the investment in the project, it is important to identify which groups have benefited and by how much. Capturing the gender dimension to this story is critical to understanding the impact on poverty—an issue taken up in the following section.
- Tells us whether the project approach has delivered or is likely to deliver the project goals.
- Enables changes in the well-being of CDD project beneficiaries to be attributed to a particular project or program.
- Is required to test (pilot) innovative approaches to poverty reduction before these can be replicated at a larger scale.

### BOX 1 The Power of Measuring Results

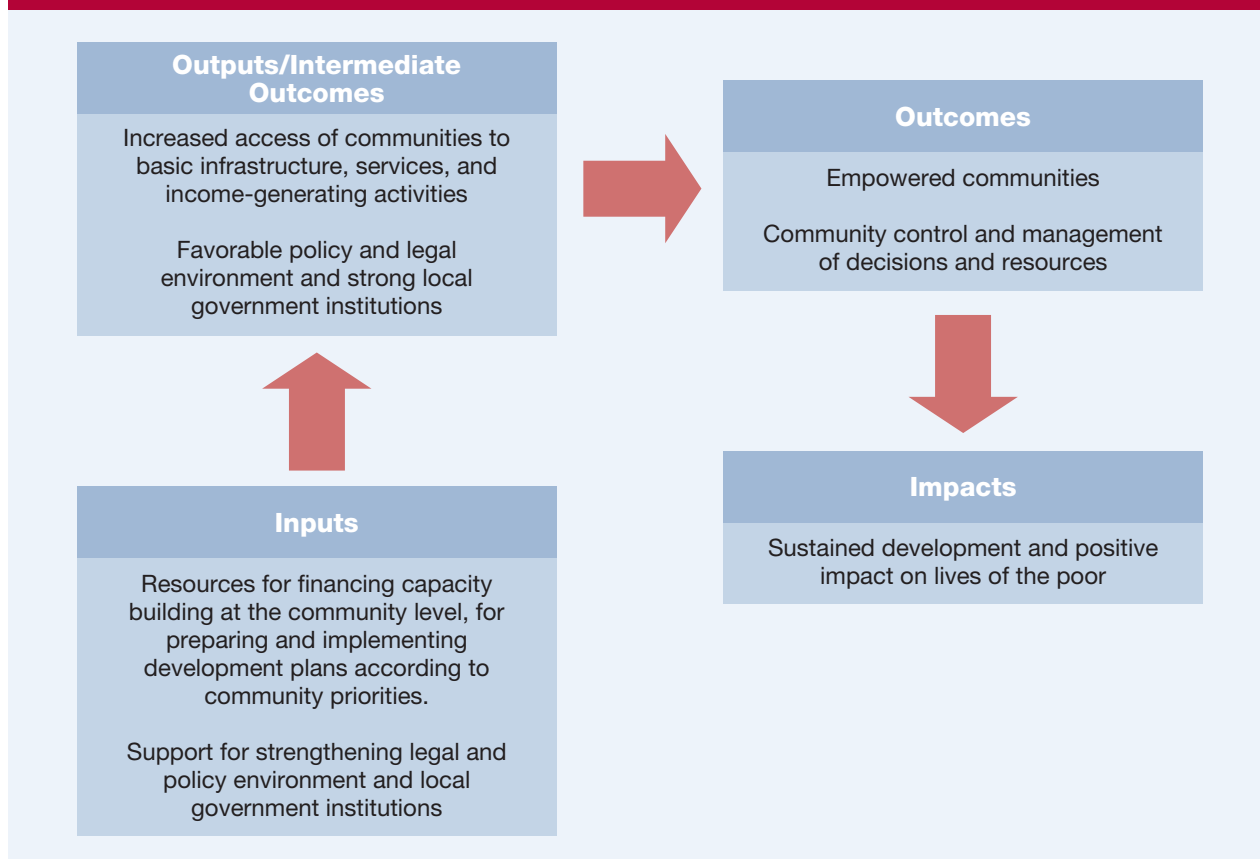
- If you do not measure results, you cannot tell success from failure.
- If you cannot see success, you cannot reward it.
- If you cannot reward success, you are probably rewarding failure.
- If you cannot see success, you cannot learn from it.
- If you cannot recognize failure, you cannot correct it.
- If you can demonstrate results, you can win public support.

Source: Osborne and Gaebler 1992, quoted in Kusek and Rist 2004.

### FOR FURTHER INFORMATION

S. Wong. 2009. *Monitoring & Evaluation For CDD Operations: Lessons Learned*. Washington, DC: World Bank. Available at: <http://www.adb.org/Documents/Events/2009/CDD-Rural-Poverty-Alleviation/S361-Susan-Wong.pdf>.

J. Kusek and R. Rist. 2004. *Ten Steps to a Results-Based Monitoring and Evaluation System: a handbook for development practitioners*. Washington, DC: World Bank. Available at: <http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/23/27/35281194.pdf>.

**FIGURE 1** An example of a results chain for a CDD project

Source: Adapted from World Bank 2005b.

### The results chain

Each CDD project has a theory of how it will reduce poverty.<sup>5</sup> This can be represented as a results chain (see figure 1 for an example) that sets out a logical sequence of how the project will turn inputs (resources allocated to project activities) into outputs and intermediate outcomes (more assets and more responsive institutions) that will deliver outcomes by fulfilling project objectives, such as increased access to services and better livelihood options for the poor. A successful project will then ultimately have an impact in terms of poverty reduction.

#### FOR FURTHER INFORMATION

W.K. Kellogg Foundation. 2004. *W.K. Kellogg Foundation Logic Model Development Guide*.

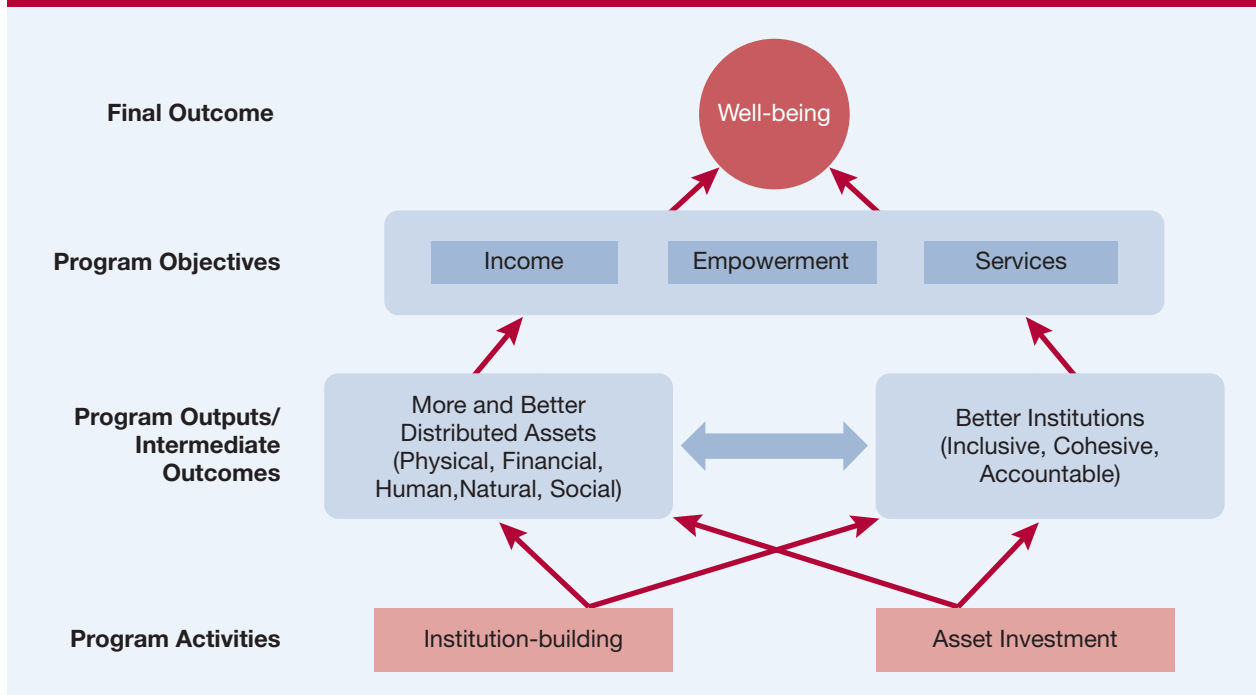
<sup>5</sup> This “theory of change” is also very helpful in identifying areas to focus in the course of developing monitoring and evaluation plans; see Leeuw and Vaessen (2009).

### A Generic Results Framework for CDD

Different organizations have different approaches to monitoring and evaluating progress along the results chain. The World Bank uses a results framework (RF)—one type of logical framework (logframe)—to summarize what the project is trying to achieve and to set out how results are measured, monitored, and evaluated.

Although each results framework is (or should be) tailored to a specific project or program, CDD interventions do have common generic characteristics. By focusing on a generic logical framework, it is possible to consider M&E in a way that should be meaningful for a wide variety of CDD projects. Based on a review of World Bank CDD projects, Jorgensen (2005) proposed a generic logical framework for CDD operations that was subsequently taken up by the World Bank (World Bank 2007a). This is represented in figure 2 below.



**FIGURE 2 CDD programs in a logframe structure**

Source: Adapted from Jorgensen (2005)/World Bank (2007a).

While there is likely to be a common understanding of income generation and service improvement as project development objectives (PDOs) in CDD projects, there are various definitions of empowerment in current use. In this toolkit we highlight two separate aspects of empowerment: agency and collective action. This “unpacking” of empowerment is important for M&E and, in particular, for monitoring and evaluation of gender in CDD. In the social sciences, agency refers to the capacity of individuals to act independently and to make their own free choices; it can be exercised in the individual, household, or public sphere (Barker 2005). Following Jorgensen (2005), collective action refers to the ability of people to work collectively.

There are unresolved debates over the determinants of agency and there is no unique model that explains female agency in development. The generic logframe simply suggests that for CDD projects, increased agency is likely to reflect increased access to assets (sometimes described as endowments) and better institutions that influence how these assets can be used. The logframe is a convenient way of presenting the logic of CDD interventions. It suggests where to focus our M&E efforts, but does not describe the full story of how outcomes are

achieved.<sup>6</sup> As a practical example of how this works, the logframe suggests we look for impact of a CDD micro-finance project on female agency as a result of increasing assets (such as microfinance) and from the potential influence of the project on institutions—such as supporting the establishment of self-help groups.

With this in mind, table 1 considers likely areas of focus for M&E within the hierarchy of generic CDD objectives. It is based on a review of the World Bank CDD portfolio and reflects the three main project development objectives (PDO): (1) income generation, (2) empowerment, and (3) service improvement. Any particular CDD program or project is likely to focus on just one of these areas and is likely to cover just a subset of the program activities in table 1; for example, a project to improve district health and education may not change natural capital.

It is worth noting that there is almost always an institution-building dimension to CDD projects even if asset creation or service delivery is the most visible interven-

<sup>6</sup> There are also likely to be interactions between program objectives; for example, the choices available to working women are likely to increase if they have to spend less time collecting water. As we will see, qualitative research is required to understand these interactions.

**TABLE 1 Generic logframe for CDD operations: where to focus M&E**

Hierarchy of Objectives	Possible areas of emphasis for M&E
<b>Final Outcome</b>	Improved well-being for target group
<b>Program Objectives: Desired outcomes</b>	Sustained, higher and less volatile income
	Better services that directly affect well-being (including time saving)
	Increased empowerment (agency and collective action)
<b>Program Outputs &amp; Intermediate Outcomes: Assets and institutions</b>	Individual/household/community control over more and better-allocated assets (endowments) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Physical, financial, human, natural, and social capital</li> <li>• Better functioning and more equitable institutions</li> </ul>
<b>Program Activities: What is done?</b>	Institution-building (organisations, markets, legal rights & social norms)
	Asset creation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Investments in human, financial, physical, natural and social capital</li> </ul>
<b>Program Processes: How is the program implemented? Who is involved?</b>	Targeting <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• By geography/community characteristics</li> <li>• By personal household characteristics</li> </ul>
	Who does what: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Identification, planning of project activities</li> <li>• Implementation</li> <li>• Channeling or management of funds</li> <li>• Monitoring and evaluation</li> </ul>

Source: Adapted from Jorgensen 2005.

tion. This reflects the fact that CDD investments are decided by local institutions and their performance is likely to have a major impact on the subprojects selected for investment.

In Table 1, program processes are treated as separate from activities or outputs. This helps to focus attention on monitoring who decides on project activities and how marginalized target groups make their views heard. These decisions are likely to have a profound impact on program outcomes and therefore it is very important to identify process indicators. However, once this has been done, process indicators are typically placed alongside activity or outcome indicators in the results framework (RF). This can be seen in the extract from the PNPM RF (Table 2).

### Gender in the Generic Results Framework for CDD

The areas within the logframe where gender is particularly relevant are:

**Program processes.** Process indicators tell you how the program is implemented and who is involved. Monitoring and acting on gender process indicators is critical to ensure that CDD projects meet the needs of both men and women.

**Program Outputs and Outcomes.** Program interventions have impacts on individual endowments or assets (such as education, health, land, and financial

**TABLE 2 Extract from the PNPM Indonesia results framework**

Intermediate Results	Results Indicators for Each Component	Use of Results Monitoring
<b>Component One: Block Grants</b> Villagers participate in a process to plan, select, and manage basic social and economic infrastructure provided through block grants	<b>Component One:</b> Min. 40% participation rate of women and poorest community members in planning and decision-making meetings 85% of agreed work plans completed each year #/type of infrastructure works, economic, and education and health subprojects/ activities completed in 4,000 subdistricts by 2009 >70% of infrastructure works are evaluated as of high quality O&M arrangements are in place and functioning for >70% of infrastructure works	<b>Component One:</b> Assess if planning and inclusion procedures and policies need adjustment to encourage greater participation Assess if subdistrict sites are benefiting from KDP financing and assistance Determine if program needs to increase its inspection and supervision of technical works and O&M arrangements

Source: Annex 3: Results Framework, INDONESIA: PNPM, PAD 2008 prepared by S. Wong

resources) and institutions that determine the opportunity individuals have to use their endowments (such as social norms, civil society, markets, and public sector institutions). Gender indicators, just like other program indicators, may reflect program outputs related to assets and institutions and the outcomes that result. These program outcomes will be various aspects of well-being, such as higher incomes, better access to services, or increased agency (an aspect of empowerment).

Two types of gender indicators are required to monitor and evaluate project interventions in these areas. First, there is the simple step of disaggregating key existing indicators by gender to capture how program investment affects access to services, acquisition of assets, and new sources of incomes or improved incomes. Second, a limited number of new gender indicators are needed to capture impacts on time saving and empowerment (particularly the agency aspect of empowerment, such as control over assets, income, and travel and the incidence of gender-based violence).

## Defining Indicators

The distinction made by Hentschel (1999) between data and the methods used to collect it is relevant to how we define indicators in this toolkit. As stated by Garabino and Holland (2009), “Quantitative research produces data in the form of numbers, while qualitative research tends to produce data that are stated in prose or textual forms.”

Numerical indicators are used in this toolkit in order to have values that can be reliably compared across project sites and over time. When it comes to setting targets for these indicators, they should be SMART; that is, specific, measurable, achievable, relevant, and time-bound.

A good way of ensuring your indicators are SMART is to make sure each one talks about time, quality, and quantity (TQQ); for example, “85 percent of agreed work plans completed each year.”

Qualitative research (most often associated with focus group discussion) should not be used to produce indicators. Rather, its value lies in providing the essential context required to interpret numerical indicators: to explain why values are high or low and how changes have occurred. The combination of quantitative indicators and qualitative, contextual research on these issues from representative locations will produce the most reliable findings.

## FOR FURTHER INFORMATION

F. Leeuw and J. Vaessen. 2009. *Impact Evaluations and Development: Nonie Guidance on Impact Evaluation*. Washington, DC: World Bank, Independent Evaluation Group. Available at: <http://www.worldbank.org/ieg/nonie/guidance.html>.

## An Overview of Monitoring and Evaluation Techniques

The aim of this subsection is to provide an overview of key M&E techniques and some pointers to further reading for those who are interested. Things we identify as good practice at each stage of CDD program M&E apply to gender M&E and CDD M&E in general.

### Monitoring Techniques

Basic program monitoring requirements are to track:

- Progress against the work plan (inputs and activities)
- Whether the budget is being used as planned.

Internal project monitoring information systems are typically used to do this. Staff need to be trained to collect and use valid, reliable, and timely information and



Ethnic Hmong women in Ban Khan Khao Village, Hua Meuang District, Lao PDR, are being interviewed in pairs to provide support for each other and help with Lao language comprehension during an initiative to review gender indicators for the PRF CDD projects. Photo © Anders Engvall/World Bank

there can be a gender issue of who gets training.<sup>7</sup> Capacity building for M&E is discussed further below.

In addition, process indicators often play a valuable role in routine monitoring, providing essential early warning if target groups are being excluded. An example from the PNPM results framework (see Table 3 above) is the requirement to track whether there has been a:

“Minimum 40 percent participation rate of women and poorest community members in planning and decision-making meetings.”

If monitoring against indicator targets suggests things are not going according to plan, you need to know why. Qualitative investigation—often using case studies—is a powerful way of finding this out. The program should lead this process, but may need to bring in outside expertise.

There are important aspects of CDD program monitoring that are external to the program, such as (a) independent monitoring by civil society groups and village committees; and (b) formal grievance and complaint resolution mechanisms. Perhaps the most important is participatory

<sup>7</sup> For example, if more female staff work part-time, it would be a mistake to only offer M&E training to full-time staff.

monitoring by the community themselves—encouraging local people to hold those delivering improved services or infrastructure to account. Participatory monitoring is described for the Indonesia Kecamatan Development Program (KDP) in box 2 below.

Important messages for monitoring are to:

1. Make sure data is valid, reliable and timely (Kusak and Rist 2004).
2. Make sure data gets used to improve project delivery (Wong 2003).

#### FOR FURTHER INFORMATION

J. Kusak and R. Rist. 2004. *Ten Steps to a Results-Based Monitoring and Evaluation System: a handbook for development practitioners*. Washington, DC: World Bank. Available at: <http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/23/27/35281194.pdf>.

S. Wong. 2003. “Indonesia Kecamatan Development Program: Building a Monitoring and Evaluation System for a Large-Scale Community-Driven Development Program.” EASES Discussion Paper. Washington, DC: World Bank. Available at: <http://siteresources.worldbank.org/INTINDONESIA/Resources/Social/KDPM&Epaper.pdf>.

### BOX 2 Participatory monitoring in the Indonesia Kecamatan Development Program (KDP)

**Over the years, KDP encouraged different kinds of community participatory monitoring:**

- *Monitoring by village councils (BPDs).* Laws for the election of village councils were passed in 1999. Prior to this, village chiefs generally appointed the village assemblies (LMDs) and village community resilience boards (LKMDs) from village elites. By the middle of KDP however, villagers were democratically electing their representative councils in many Indonesian villages. BPDs have responsibility for monitoring KDP activities at all stages: socialization, planning, implementation, and maintenance. The BPDs select members to monitor each phase. Results of this monitoring are then discussed at council meetings or fed into larger village meetings.
- *Monitoring by special community groups or teams.* KDP encouraged community monitoring groups in each village during years 2 and 3. Communities were encouraged to form special teams or groups at the community level during the village meetings to monitor KDP. These community monitoring groups were independent of the village implementation teams. The community team members shared responsibilities for checking financial accounts, monitoring bank transactions and material purchases or rentals, visiting suppliers to confirm the costs of goods, and monitoring subproject activities, including infrastructure construction.
- *Community participatory monitoring facilitated by NGOs.* In several provinces, including Aceh and East Java, NGOs involved in province-based monitoring helped a number of villages, special groups, and teams conduct community participatory monitoring. They helped villagers decide what questions were important to them about KDP, how to collect data to answer those questions, and helped villagers analyze community findings. NGO facilitation has been a success story in several locations, and the activity will be expanded to every province under KDP2.

Source: Wong 2003.



## Impact evaluation techniques

Impact evaluation asks: “What has been the impact of our CDD program?”<sup>8</sup>

The generic CDD logical framework presented earlier in Figure 2 and Table 1 suggest the kinds of impacts we are likely to be looking for. This is brought together with examples of evaluation questions in Figure 3 below.

Most CDD programs will have one or possibly two of these objectives and so the impact evaluation will focus on these areas.

Impact evaluation is not just about whether project objectives have been achieved, but also whether the interventions in a CDD that are stated to reduce poverty (as set out in a results framework) have been or are being realized. Hence there is a need to consider progress against program output and intermediate outcome indicators—particularly if the program has not been running long enough to achieve the full program objective. As with outcome indicators, incorporating a gender perspective involves disaggregating existing indicators by gender and adding a small number of new gender-specific indicators. Examples of these indicators are given in the following section. Qualitative research is also important to understand why progress has or has not been made at each stage—from inputs to outputs/intermediate outcomes and through to impact.

At this point it is important to mention attribution; that is, how you can be sure that the impact identified is actually due to the CDD program. There are a number of techniques available and interested readers are referred to Leeuw and Vaessen (2009) for detail. Here we note:

1. Where control as well as project (intervention) sites are used, it is much easier to separate out program impacts from broader changes in society or NGO activities. Program-specific impacts can simply be identified by comparing changes in indicator values for project and control sites over the same period of time.<sup>9</sup> This applies to gender as well as other outcome and impact indicators.

<sup>8</sup> This means both intentional and unintentional impact. The Development Assistance Committee of the OECD defines impact as “the positive and negative, primary and secondary long-term effects produced by a development intervention, directly or indirectly, intended or unintended” (OECD-DAC 2002).

<sup>9</sup> Assuming control sites have been correctly identified. There are also ethical issues to consider when using this methodology—see Leeuw and Vaessen (2009), Chapter 4.

**FIGURE 3 CDD impact evaluation areas**

CDD program objective	Evaluation question examples
Higher income	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Has CDD reduced poverty?</li> <li>• Have female-headed households gained more or less from CDD than other groups?</li> </ul>
Better services	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Has CDD increased access to education for boys &amp; girls?</li> <li>• Has CDD improved health outcomes for men and women?</li> <li>• Have CDD projects in water &amp; energy produced time-savings for women?</li> </ul>
Empowerment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Has CDD increased the % of men &amp; women who believe their views influence local government?</li> <li>• Has CDD reduced the incidence of gender-based violence?</li> </ul>

2. In order to make this comparison, baseline data must be collected at the start of the project. Baseline data also play a crucial role in monitoring progress over time, and reliable data need to be put in place at the start of the program.
3. In programs where control sites are not available, the same indicators can be used to reliably identify impact if outside influences (ranging from government policy to other project activities) are unlikely to have influenced these indicators. However, this is only plausible if there are minimal project interventions from government or NGOs on these issues in your project sites. Where such interventions do occur, a second-best means of identifying your program or project-specific impact is to ask respondents directly how much difference the project has made to a particular indicator.<sup>10</sup>
4. As a general rule (which applies to interpreting gender and other impact indicators), a

<sup>10</sup> The questions needed in this case are slightly different, as respondents typically find it difficult to calculate precise changes (in time or money); that is, the questions need to cover broad categories of impact.





Has CDD increased access to education for boys & girls? Photo © World Bank

combination of quantitative and qualitative research methods will produce more reliable results. There is a particular need for mixed methods when carefully chosen control groups are not available.

5. Whereas routine monitoring relies on program staff and systems (and is complemented by external monitoring), impact evaluation is much more likely to require outside specialists. This is because of the techniques required to collect accurate data (household surveys and in-depth studies on particular topics) and to undertake credible independent analysis.

#### FOR FURTHER INFORMATION

F. Leeuw and J. Vaessen. 2009. *Impact Evaluations and Development: Nonie Guidance on Impact Evaluation*. Washington, DC: World Bank, Independent Evaluation Group. Available at: <http://www.worldbank.org/ieg/nonie/guidance.html>.

#### Capacity building for M&E

In addition to having a sound M&E framework, task team leaders (TTLs) need to ensure their program has the capacity to deliver sound M&E. This requires:

1. *Building the right capacity* through:
  - Hiring some trained staff
  - Training, both on-the-job and course-based
  - Bringing in outside expertise where needed (e.g. to help with impact evaluation)
  - Supporting participatory and other external local monitoring systems.
2. *Providing incentives to deliver good M&E* through:
  - Valuing and using the evidence generated
  - Establishing systems for quality assurance.

#### FOR FURTHER INFORMATION

IFAD. 2007. *Managing for Impact in Rural Development: A Guide for Project M&E*. Rome: IFAD. Available at: <http://www.ifad.org/evaluation/guide/index.htm>.

### Collecting and using the information

Routine monitoring data should be collected by the program management information system (MIS). Indicators in the MIS should be disaggregated by gender wherever possible. A small number of new, “early warning” gender indicators—for example, on whether program processes are excluding poor women—should also be part of the MIS. However, the MIS should be relatively simple to work efficiently and so the number of new gender indicators (i.e. not monitoring indicators disaggregated by gender) in the MIS will be limited.

Gender indicators outside the MIS can be collected by project staff as part of specific studies; for example, looking at who is benefiting from service improvements. In general, data collected by program M&E staff should be subject to external quality assurance. This can simply involve independent annual reviews verifying the figures reported for a sample of program sites.

Many aspects of agency or empowerment (domestic violence or even whether women and men make decisions jointly on children’s education, for example) are highly sensitive and data are best gathered in private face-to-face survey interviews by trained female enumerators. This should be supplemented by qualitative evidence gathered from focus groups or more specialized techniques such as peer ethnographic review (Price and Hawkins 2005).

General messages on collecting and using M&E evidence are:

- Think through how the data will be used before collecting it. This includes the evidence needs of the program (set out in the RF) and local stakeholders; for example, feeding information on changes in service delivery into local decision-making structures.
- Only collect data that will be used. This is especially important where participatory methods are involved, as there are considerable time costs for local people.
- M&E takes an enormous amount of time and different levels of expertise. Hire specialized assistance for certain areas such as impact surveys (Wong 2009).
- Use trained personnel to moderate and interpret focus groups. As Luntz (1994) makes clear, “The results are dependent upon the interaction between the respondents and the moderator, and unprofessional moderating can lead to inaccurate conclusions.”

### FOR FURTHER INFORMATION

IFAD. 2007. *Managing for Impact in Rural Development: A Guide for Project M&E*. (Section 6) Rome: IFAD. Available at: <http://www.ifad.org/evaluation/guide/index.htm>.

F. Leeuw and J. Vaessen. 2009. *Impact Evaluations and Development: Nonie Guidance on Impact Evaluation*. (Part II) Washington, DC: World Bank, Independent Evaluation Group. Available at: <http://www.worldbank.org/ieg/nonie/guidance.html>.





Why do gender process indicators matter? If the program objective is to reduce poverty, there is a need to know that CDD projects reflect the needs of the poor. If local elites decide on project priorities, the program will fail. Likewise, poor men and women may have different priorities and the project need to know that it reflect the needs of both. Photo: Indonesia. © Curt Carnemark /World Bank



# Examples of Gender Indicators for CDD Programs

## 3

**T**he structure of this section follows the generic CDD logical framework presented in Figure 2 and 1 (Section 2.2 above). We begin with process indicators and then consider output and outcome indicators. In practice, process indicators are typically placed alongside activity or output indicators in the results framework (RF).

Whatever sector they are in, CDD programs tend to face similar process issues. The process indicators discussed here are likewise broadly applicable. Output and outcome indicators are more sector-specific, and although we present examples from programs with a wide range of objectives, they are examples. In some cases, program teams will be able to use example indicators directly in their RF, but in others, indicators will need to be modified for the specific sector and local context.

Many of the examples presented here reflect indicators that are already in RF but disaggregated by gender. In addition, there are examples of specific gender indicators that will add a significant amount of value for both monitoring and evaluation.

### Program processes

These indicators tell you how the program is implemented and who is involved. Monitoring and acting on gender process indicators is critical to ensure that CDD projects meet the needs of both men and women. If biases are not fixed at this stage, it is very difficult if not impossible to overcome their effects later on. As discussed in Section 2.1, these monitoring indicators provide essential early warning for managers when there is an opportunity to change practice.

Fortunately, there are a number of straightforward process indicators that are based on data that can be collected by project field staff.

### Process indicators from program reporting/management information systems

1. Percent of village development committee members who are women
2. Are there single-sex groups in the planning process that identify priority projects?
3. If so, what proportion of projects implemented were proposed by (a) women-only groups, (b) by men-only groups, or (c) were priorities for both groups?

The Lao PDR PRF pilot provides an example where projects are proposed at the village level, but decisions on which projects to implement are taken at a higher local level (i.e. the district). In such cases, it is important to monitor whether the reason that male or female-favored projects get implemented is due to gender bias at the village or at the district level. Where project iden-



Women from the White Hmong ethnic minority group during a focus group discussion about the PRF, Lao PDR. Photo © Andres Engvall / World Bank

### BOX 3 How gender indicators on program process have changed practice

The Poverty Reduction Fund (PRF) CDD program in Lao PDR uses single-sex subgroups to generate infrastructure project proposals. Program monitoring identified weaknesses in the original process used to select CDD projects, and since 2008/9 the PRF has required that at least two of three infrastructure proposals put forward from the combined village meeting come from the women's list.

*Source:* Measuring Impact of Community-Driven Development Projects on Gender—Toolkit for the Poverty Reduction Fund, Lao PDR. World Bank, 2011a.

tification and implementation is separated in this way, indicator 3 should be replaced by:

- 3a. If so, what proportion of projects put forward to the district were proposed by (a) women-only groups, (b) by men-only groups, or (c) were priorities for both groups?
- 3b. If so, what proportion of projects implemented were proposed by (a) women-only groups, (b) by men-only groups, or (c) were priorities for both groups?

The Indonesian PNPM program illustrates the value of monitoring the gender balance in paid and voluntary

project employment to try and minimize the risk of paid jobs only going to men<sup>11</sup> (see Box 4). This illustrates the importance of disaggregating voluntary and paid employment indicators by gender, but also highlights the value of qualitative investigations regarding processes and local norms, which would give the team an idea of how social mobilization and recruitment need to be changed.

For CDD programs that provide direct employment, relevant indicators to consider are:

4. The number of men gaining voluntary employment on program activities in the past year and over the life of the program.
5. The number of women gaining voluntary employment on program activities in the past year and over the life of the program.
6. The number of men gaining paid employment on program activities in the past year and over the life of the program.

<sup>11</sup> These are treated as process indicators because they will tell us whether the process used by the program to allocate paid versus voluntary employment disadvantages women. Indicators to monitor total employment generation by CDD programs are discussed under output indicators below.

Evaluations of major CDD projects in Indonesia and the Philippines have asked: Are paid jobs within the CDD being equally distributed between men and women? Photo: Men carrying bamboo for construction in Indonesia. © Curt Carnemark / World Bank





7. The number of women gaining paid employment on program activities in the past year and over the life of the program.

### Indicators from individual interviews

Indicators 1, 2, and 3 provide essential information from project staff on whether the preferred projects of men and women are the ones actually implemented. The following indicators in this subsection provide additional information that is worth collecting if you are using a household survey at baseline, mid-term, or end of project. The advantages of these data are that you get:

- Evidence from (what should be) a statistically representative sample of beneficiaries
- The opportunity to disaggregate this aspect of governance by socioeconomic group as well as gender; for example, any marginalized group.

8. Proportion of men who believe their views influence projects selected at the village level.
9. Proportion of women who believe their views influence projects selected at the village level.

Where projects are proposed at the village level but are implemented at a higher local level (e.g. district), additional indicators are required:

- 8a. Proportion of men who believe their views influence projects approved for funding at the district level.
- 9a. Proportion of women who believe their views influence projects approved for funding at the district level.

The following type of question can be used to generate data for these indicators:

### Qualitative evidence— typically from focus groups

Qualitative research is very helpful in understanding *what* is driving changes in the proportion of men and women who believe they can influence projects selected for funding. It can be difficult to interpret changes in indicator values without it. If external M&E specialists are brought in for baseline, mid-point and end of project assessments it is worth using rigorous qualitative research to ask:

*What do women believe are the main factors limiting their influence on which projects are actually implemented?*

### BOX 4 Evidence from gender indicators on project employment

In Indonesia, evaluation of the Program Nasional Pemberdayaan Masyarakat (PNPM) found that traditional attitudes led to women taking voluntary project posts, with paid jobs going to men. To address this, the evaluators argued for changing program recruitment and employment procedures. This also illustrates the value of reporting on type of project employment by gender.

*Source:* Gender in Community Driven Development Project: Implications for PNPM Strategy, Working Paper on the Findings of Joint Donor and Government Mission p. 23.

## Program Outputs and Outcomes

### Overview

For convenience, we have grouped CDD interventions into key areas that contribute to well-being:

- Access to and quality of services (education, health, water & sanitation, credit etc)
- Work and income
- Time saving (where the direct impact is on women but the whole household is affected (Blackden and Wodon 2006)
- Increased agency or empowerment.

Two types of gender indicators are required to monitor and evaluate project interventions in these areas. First, there is the simple step of disaggregating key existing indicators by gender to capture how program invest-

**TABLE 3 Asking how much influence your views had on the projects selected for funding**

	I am certain my views were taken into account	My views were probably taken into account	I don't think my views were taken into account	Don't know
Thinking about the projects in your (village/district) funded by (CDD program name), which of the following best describes how much influence your views had on the projects that were selected for funding?	4	3	2	1

ment affects access to services, acquisition of assets, and new sources of incomes or improved incomes. The step of disaggregating existing indicators by gender is illustrated in detail for education in the subsection below. We then show how the same idea can be applied in other service sectors.

Second, some new gender indicators are required to capture impacts on time saving and empowerment. These are set out—together with the methods of collecting this information—in the following subsections.

### Access to services— the example of education

The general principle of disaggregating outcome indicators by gender is illustrated for education below. In this example, the evidence would be used to evaluate

program impact. Recommended quantitative indicators<sup>12</sup> are:

10. Percent change in female enrollment in primary schools
11. Percent change in male enrollment in primary schools
12. Percent change in female enrollment in secondary schools
13. Percent change in male enrollment in secondary schools
14. Percent change in female completion of primary school
15. Percent change in male completion of primary school

<sup>12</sup> These allow calculation of two World Bank core Indicators at a national level: (1) primary completion rate (PCR) (MDG2) (Tier 1); and (2) Gender parity index (GPI) (MDG3) (Tier 1).

Why do gender output and outcome indicators matter? As CDD programs aim to enable communities to improve their well-being, it is important to identify whether and how men and women gain from the program. If up to half of the target group is missing out, the program is failing to deliver.  
Photo: Indonesia. © Ray Witlin / World Bank



These indicators capture gender differences in access to the service (via enrollment) but also an aspect of whether service improvements affect boys and girls equally (via completion rates). Where possible, gender differences in both access to services and improvement in services should be captured. For example, program activities may lead to increased female primary enrollment, but when there is a need to ration school fees, girls do not take end-of-year exams and hence completion rates fail to rise.

In order to produce these indicators, you will need data just before the project intervention (baseline data), and then if possible at annual, mid-term, and end of project on:

- The number of primary and secondary school age girls and boys in the project area.
- The number of primary and secondary school age girls and boys in any control sites.
- The number of boys and girls enrolled in primary and secondary schools in the project area.
- The number of boys and girls enrolled in primary and secondary schools in any control sites.
- The number of boys and girls completing primary schooling in the project area and in any control sites.

Data collection issues are discussed in Section 2.5.4. Here we note that this type of data is unlikely to be captured by the program MIS, may possibly be recorded during specific studies, but is most likely to be collected as part of an evaluation. Household (sample) surveys are often used to produce data for these indicators, with questions on the age of children in the household and whether they attend or have completed primary or secondary school.

Contextual methods (such as focus groups) can add a great deal of value to the quantitative education indicators by explaining why indicators are at a relatively high or low level. Focus group findings on whether the project has affected primary and secondary school education of boys and girls differently can often help explain changes in the indicator values, even where these appear counterintuitive. This is well-illustrated by the experience of the Lao PRF program (for indicators on time-saving) in Box 6 below. Qualitative findings should be brought out in program reporting alongside the quantitative indicator values.

### Access to services—generalising the approach to other service sectors

As with education, other service sectors should have outcome indicators by gender. In terms of access, this should include:

16. Percent change in access to health services for men
17. Percent change in access to health services for women
18. Percent change in access to water and sanitation facilities for men
19. Percent change in access to water and sanitation facilities for women.

The Indonesian PNPM results framework<sup>13</sup> illustrates how a mixture of government and project annual household surveys can capture these indicators, but also identify that there are certain aspects of health that are particularly relevant for women. These require one or more female-specific indicators such as:

20. Percent increase of girls and women receiving health benefits (full immunization; anti-natal, pre-natal; and postnatal care; maternal health care)

This indicator<sup>14</sup> indirectly captures whether the quality of services have changed, as well as access for women. Disaggregating quality of service indicators by gender is particularly useful in the health sector, as men and women can value CDD support for local health centers quite differently depending on what kind of services are improved.

Some programs are able to capture this information from health management information systems (MIS) or via local project staff. More generally (and in the case of PNPM), this information is drawn from household surveys (relying on women interviewed).

Perception questions in household surveys also provide the opportunity to directly identify whether beneficiaries believe that both access to services and quality of services have changed. If used, these should be disaggregated by gender. As with education indicators in the subsection above, qualitative evidence is very useful in understanding what has driven the change in indicator values and why these impacts may be different for men and women.

<sup>13</sup> For 2010 onwards.

<sup>14</sup> Which could be expressed as separate indicators on immunization etc.





Impact evaluation results from the KALAH-CIDSS project indicate that the project led to a 5 percent increase in women's labor force participation compared to what would have happened without the project. The project also had a positive but lower impact on men's labor force participation. Photo: A day-care center funded by the KALAH-CIDSS project in Municipality La Castellana, Visayas region, Philippines. © Sean Bradley / World Bank

The same approach applies to other service sectors not mentioned above, such as credit.

### Work and income

When tracking project economic impact, pilot test experience supports the use of straightforward measures by program M&E teams. Although the Lao PDR pilot found that it was possible to identify if female beneficiaries believed their income had risen as a result of the project, enumerators nevertheless faced the challenge of identifying non-monetary income. Calculating how much income has increased is considerably more difficult, and the Philippines KALAH-CIDSS project experience confirms this is unlikely to be an appropriate indicator (Box 5). In both cases, it proved difficult to link changes in income to specific projects. For these reasons it is preferable to measure the intermediate outcome gender indicators:

21. The percent change in working-age women engaged in paid work as a result of the project.

22. The percent change in working-age men engaged in paid work as a result of the project.

Program staff can collect data on the proportion of working-age men and women in paid work as part of a monitoring program, although it is also desirable to have independent sample survey data at the start, mid-point, and end of the project.

The ability to attribute changes in economic indicator values to the project will depend on the M&E techniques used by a program; this also has implications for how questions will need to be worded. Some of the major issues are highlighted in Section 2.5.2, together with sources of further information. Here we note that where a control—as well as project (intervention) sites—is used, it is much easier to separate out program impacts from broader changes in society or NGO activities that affect whether women gain paid work. In this case, the data required over the project life are simply:

- The percentage of working-age men and women engaged in paid work.<sup>15</sup>

Where there are only project sites the same data can be used if outside influences (ranging from government policy to other project activities) are unlikely to have influenced these indicators. This is only plausible if there are minimal project interventions from government or NGOs that affect opportunities for female paid work in a project area.

Where such interventions do occur, a second-best option is to use a household survey (with a sufficient sample of working-age respondents) at the project mid- and end-points to ask respondents directly how much difference the project has made to the amount of paid work received. An example of this type of question and associated indicator is given in Annex 2.

No matter which approach is used, qualitative assessment—such as using focus groups—in a sample of sites where the indicator shows significant change is important to understand how the project has (or has not) succeeded.

<sup>15</sup> This has to be measured consistently and can be defined as “any paid work in the past week” (to capture part-time or informal work) through to “At least X days of paid work in the past week”

BOX 5 Measuring economic impact, pilot test evidence

Feedback from the pilot test of household survey and FGD instruments underscored the difficulty in generating information for assessing the contribution of KALAH-CIDSS to the economic empowerment of women. Perhaps some of the problems encountered in generating the desired information stemmed from an inability of the respondents to give exact figures about income derived from productive work. Since many project areas are among the poorest in the country, its residents—both women and men—are not fully employed. Many had difficulty computing and recalling income they received from various sources. To address these problems, the team adjusted the questionnaire to enable the respondents to identify all possible sources of income and to provide units of computation (e.g. income earned in a day or in a week) that are more accessible. Some of the variables on productive assets (such as ownership of farm lands or household electrical appliances) were not applicable, again given the low level of economic and educational status of many households in the project areas.

Source: Making everyone Count. Gender-sensitive Monitoring and Evaluation in a Community-Driven Development Program: The Case of the Philippines' KALAH-CIDSS. World Bank, 2011b.

Time saving services

Where CDD projects produce improved access to assets—such as drinking water, fuel efficient stoves, threshing machines, new bridges, or local roads—an outcome can be time-saving for women in the household. Freeing up time from domestic chores can lead to increased economic activity and subsequent poverty reduction (Francisco 2007), as well as making it easier for women to take an active part in community life (UNIFEM 2008). This can be captured using a small number of specific indicators targeted at women and girls.

It is important to interpret time-saving indicators alongside indicators in changes in access to service and service quality. For example, measures of success include both the amount of clean water available and time spent collecting water.

The Lao PDR RPF pilot found it was possible to ask women directly whether a range of project interven-

tions had saved them time (Box 6). This perception indicator can be written as:

- 23. % of women reporting a reduction of time spent on daily household tasks as a result of the program.

It can be obtained from the type of question in Table 4.

The advantage of asking community members whether the CDD project had reduced time spent is that they are being asked to think about project-specific impacts. However, to be reliable, respondents need to be reminded of all the relevant infrastructure investments and have the opportunity to reflect on how these have impacted on how time is spent. The example in Box 6 suggests that qualitative research will often be necessary to explain what this indicator really means.

Respondents may find it easier to describe the time saved from one project investment at a time than try-

TABLE 4 Asking for estimates of project-specific impact on time spent					
	It is much less	It is a little less	There is no difference	It has increased a little	It has increased a lot
Thinking about the projects in your (village/district) funded by (CDD program name), which of the following statements best describes the effect they have had on the amount of time women in this household spend on household tasks (e.g. collecting water, fuelwood, etc)?	5	4	3	2	1

### BOX 6 Using focus group findings to explain changes in indicator values

In the pilot test, women who had confirmed their use of or access to the PRF subproject in their villages were asked whether the subproject had changed the time they spend on daily household tasks. They were also given specific examples, such as cooking or collecting water or firewood. The results are interesting and perhaps even counterintuitive. On the one hand, one-third of the Lao-Tai women and nearly three of five ethnic minority women reported that they spent less time on household chores as a result of the PRF subproject.

On the other hand, about one-third of all women reported that the time spent on household chores had increased despite the PRF subproject. To understand why this situation occurred, the pilot test included several focus group discussions. These discussions indicated that educational subprojects can affect the time devoted to household chores. When older children attend school, the burden on their mothers can increase because they must assume responsibility for taking care of infants, gathering firewood, or other tasks formerly handled by their older children.

*Source:* Measuring Impact of Community-Driven Development Projects on Gender—A Toolkit for the Poverty Reduction Fund, Lao PDR. World Bank, 2011.

ing to estimate the joint impact of all project interventions (e.g. have a question on time saved from improved water access followed by a separate question on time spent collecting fuelwood). In this case, both sector-specific and a composite time-saving indicators can be reported.

Evidence on this aspect of CDD project impact can also be obtained by asking women at a project meeting—during planning before, for example, a water project is implemented, and then approximately a month after it has been in operation—the following question: How many minutes does it take you to go and fetch water and return? It is also important to identify the proportion of women who use the new or improved service; for example, to check whether any time saving is confined to the elite).

The same approach can be used for other projects that aim to save women's time; for example, fuel efficient stoves, threshing machines, or possibly new bridges or roads. This will allow calculation of the following indicators for each project:

24. The proportion of women who use the new asset or service.
25. Average time saved per day for each woman using the new asset or service.

There are pros and cons to this approach. One advantage is that just asking about time taken for accessing a particular service means it is much less likely that a person's positive or negative views toward a CDD project in general will influence the answer of how much time

it saves them. If control sites are used, just asking about time taken will give a very accurate picture of time saved as a result of the project; that is, the change in time spent in the project area compared with the change in time spent in the control area. The disadvantage of this approach is apparent where there are no control sites, as the time taken to access the service may vary significantly by season or due to external factors (for example, government policy changes, other projects), so changes in time spent on this task do not only reflect the project in question.

Note that for both approaches described in this subsection, collecting information on time spent requires training project staff or survey enumerators to use common units of measurement (e.g. nearest half hour or minutes). In the relatively rare instances where communities do not record time spent on household tasks, any indicator of time saved based on recollection will be inaccurate. A solution that has been used in some CDD projects is to have trained personnel (who can be from the local community) monitor the time taken to access a particular service for a representative sample of women in the community.

The following flow chart will help you decide which indicators of time saving to use, together with the appropriate method of data collection.

### Increased agency or empowerment

This subsection focuses on identifying whether a CDD project significantly affects the ability of individuals to make choices and take actions within the household and in the broader community. As women in the EAP

Region currently face major constraints in terms of decision making (World Bank 2010d), the indicators in this subsection focus primarily on attitudes toward female decision making in economic, social, and political arenas.

Many aspects of agency or empowerment—for example, domestic violence or even whether women and men make decisions jointly on children’s education—are highly sensitive and data are best gathered in private face-to-face survey interviews by trained female enumerators. This should be supplemented by qualitative evidence gathered from focus groups or more special-

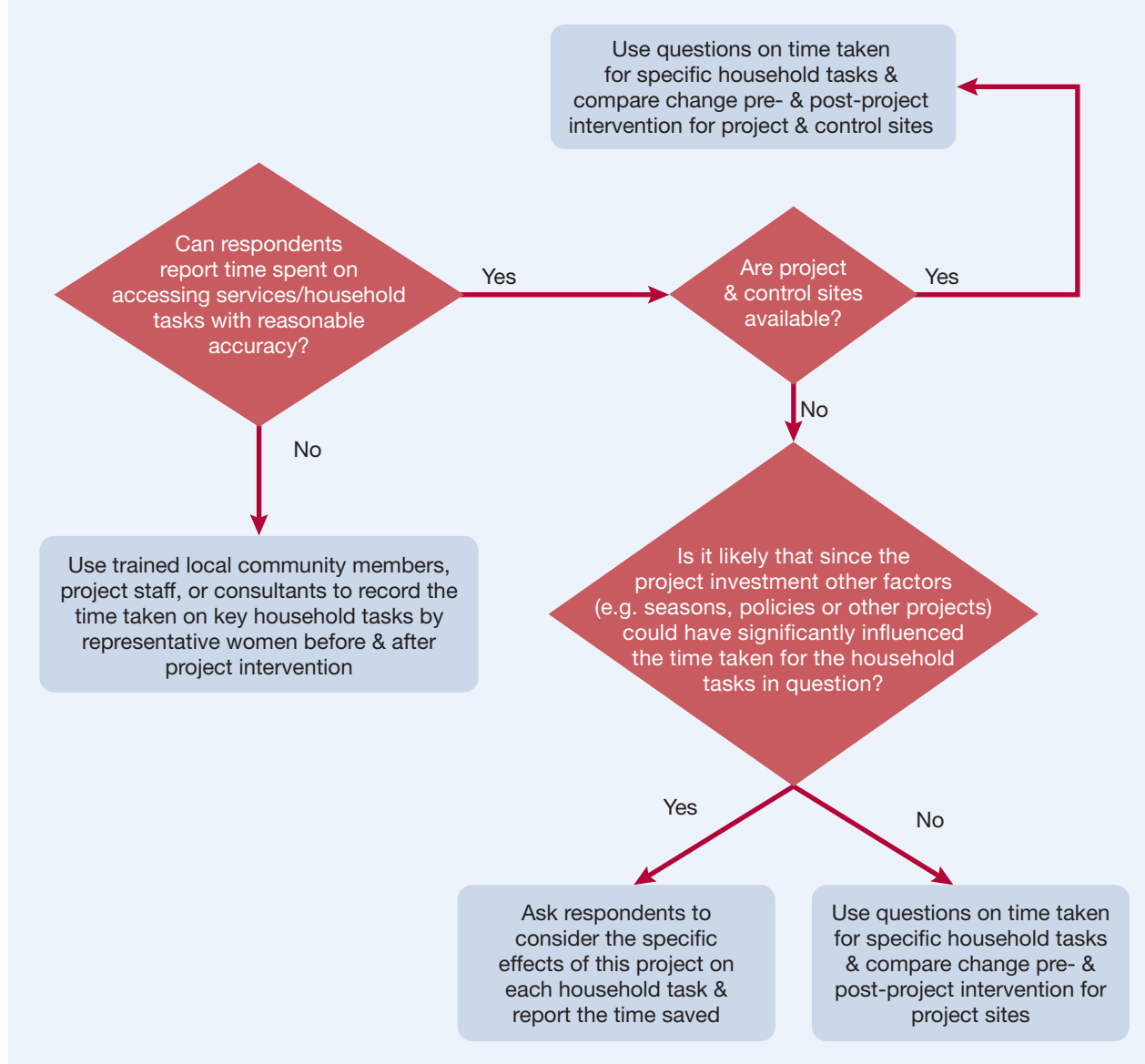
ized techniques such as peer ethnographic review (Price and Hawkins 2005).

#### *Questions to ask both men and women*

The Indonesia PNPM and Lao PRF gender indicator pilots highlight capturing the impact of the program on female empowerment in terms of the:

- Change in attitude of men and women regarding women’s roles in social, political, and economic activities (PNPM).
- Perceptions of women’s roles in decision making (PRF).

**FIGURE 4 Which method to use to generate indicator data**







One major issue that persists throughout the region in countries at all stages of development is that women's voice in formal decision-making remains weak. Photo: China © Curt Carnemark / World Bank

Outcome indicators can either seek to capture changes in attitudes as a result of the program, or look for changes in behavior as a result of the program (reflecting both changes in attitudes and assets).

The evaluation of Afghanistan's National Solidarity Programme (NSP)—see Annex 1—provides examples of capturing male attitudes toward female empowerment with two broad categories of indicators:<sup>16</sup>

1. Attitudes toward female participation in local governance.
2. Attitudes toward female employment and community life.

<sup>16</sup> Some of the specific indicators within the “Female Socialization and Mobility” category reflect the highly conservative nature of society in Afghanistan and are not transferable to other contexts.

Yet the experience of the Philippines KALAHATI-CIDSS pilot was that men were often unable to answer survey questions on what they referred to as “women's affairs” (Box 7). In this type of situation, qualitative investigation—rather than using a survey questionnaire—is likely to be the most effective way of getting men to discuss these issues.

As many CDD M&E teams face capacity constraints, we suggest asking a simple outcome indicator for political empowerment as follows:

26. The percent change in local female elected officials (village and municipal offices) as a result of the project.

It is straightforward for project staff to obtain figures on the proportion of elected local officials who are

female from local government at the start, mid-point, and end of a project. The challenge is to attribute any changes to the project with confidence; this is discussed further below.

The ability to attribute changes in political empowerment indicator values to the project will depend on the M&E techniques used by a program. The techniques available also have implications for how questions will need to be worded.

Where control as well as project (intervention) sites are used, it is much easier to separate out program impacts from broader changes in society or NGO activities that affect whether women stand in local elections. In this case, the data required over the project life is simply:

- The percentage of elected officials (village and municipal offices) that are women.

Where there are only project sites, the same data can be used if outside influences (ranging from government policy to other project activities) are unlikely to have influenced these indicators. This is only plausible if there are minimal project interventions from government or NGOs that affect female empowerment in your project area.

Where such interventions do occur, you will need to use a household survey (with a sufficient sample of working age respondents) at the project mid- and end-points to ask respondents directly how much difference the project has made to the election of women local officials. As respondents typically find it difficult to give precise quantities (for the reasons set out in Box 7), these questions need to cover broad categories of impact. For example:

With this type of question, the indicator has to be slightly modified to reflect the possible responses and might be written as: The percent of women who believe that the

### BOX 7 Identifying male attitudes to female empowerment: evidence from the Philippines

One of the key findings of the field test was the difficulty in getting the male respondents to share information and their opinions about women, including their spouses. While some said they had little knowledge about the activities and opinions of their wives, others were hesitant to respond to the interview questions for the simple reason that they are “not used to talking about women’s affairs.”

*Source:* Making everyone Count. Gender-sensitive Monitoring and Evaluation in a Community-Driven Development Program: The Case of the Philippines’ KALAHÍ-CIDSS. World Bank, 2011b.

project has increased the number of elected female local officials (see table 5).

No matter which approach is used, qualitative assessment (e.g. using focus groups) in a sample of sites where the indicator shows significant change is important to understand how the project has succeeded (or not).

#### *Questions specifically directed at women*

There are many examples from the international literature of indicators that capture the ability of women to exercise choice over social, economic, and political dimensions of life. The challenge is to identify indicators that will produce reliable results for program M&E teams under typical field conditions. For example, both the Lao PDR PRF and Philippines KALAHÍ-CIDSS pilots identify the need to capture women’s roles in household decision making. Based on questions used in a randomized control trial of the impact of a personal financial savings account on women (Ashraf et al. 2006), the KALAHÍ-CIDSS specifies:

**TABLE 5 Asking for estimates of project-specific impact on election of female officials**

	It is much less	It is a little less	There is no difference	It has increased a little	It has increased a lot
Thinking about the projects in your (village/district) funded by (CDD program name), which of the following statements best describes the effect they have had on the amount of elected female local officials compared to the situation without the project?	1	2	3	4	5

The percentage of women making decisions regarding:

- a. what to buy at the market
- b. asset purchases
- c. number of children
- d. schooling of children
- e. use of family planning.

The Ashraf et al. (2006) study this question is drawn from is able to define “decision making” by women precisely as it refers to use of funds held in a personal savings account. In general, however, it is difficult to specify exactly what “making decisions” means; that is, it can mean solely or jointly with other household members. Inconsistent responses across areas or over time will produce misleading results. For wider CDD project use, this indicator should be based on a question of the form:

Which statement best describes your power to decide on the following:	It is my decision	We decide jointly	I am not involved
A) What to buy at the market			
B) Asset purchases			
C) Number of children			
D) Schooling of children			
E) Use of family planning			

The indicator can then be defined using any of the three response categories, but the following is perhaps the most powerful:

27. The percentage of women who report having no power to make decisions regarding:
  - a. what to buy at the market
  - b. asset purchases
  - c. number of children
  - d. schooling of children
  - e. use of family planning.

Three other core empowerment indicators have been drawn from the literature (Box 8). These are:

28. The percentage of women who know how much income and expenditure there is in the household.
29. The percentage of women who can travel outside the village to visit relatives without permission.
30. The frequency of domestic violence experienced by women in the past year.

Data for these indicators can potentially be collected by trained local female program staff or female survey enumerators brought in as part of the team administering a baseline, mid-term, and end-of-project survey.

As we have seen in previous sub-sections, it is challenging to attribute changes in indicator values to the project when there are no control sites. One option is to ask respondents directly to consider how the project has changed attitudes or behavior. The other is to argue that any change in attitudes can only realistically reflect the influence of the project. As norms and attitudes in society as a whole tend to change over longer periods

### BOX 8 Choosing key empowerment indicators

Based on a review of empowerment indicators used in Bangladesh and Ethiopia and qualitative research in project sites, three key indicators were chosen to assess the empowerment impact of micro-credit for poor women in India:

- Percent of women who know how much income and expenditure there is in the household.
- Percent of women who can travel outside the village to visit relatives without permission.
- Frequency of domestic violence experienced by women in the past year.

This information was collected by community animators, project-trained individuals who link self-help groups (SHG) to the NGO providing credit. The community animators work closely with the SHG, and women from the community were comfortable discussing these issues with them. The project impact has been evaluated first by asking women to compare the situation for these indicators now and before the SHG was formed. Newly formed SHGs are also being compared with control groups.

An unexpected challenge has been that once project staff had carefully explained the purpose of the survey in control villages, gaining sufficient trust to get sensible replies for these indicators, they faced an almost overwhelming demand to bring the project to the control sites. They have promised to do this within 18 months.

Source: Yaron, Choudhary, and Best 2008.





An outcome indicator related to measuring empowerment could be: Percentage of women who know how much income and expenditure there is in the household. Photo: Vietnam © World Bank

of time<sup>17</sup> than access to assets or services, it is probably safer to attribute observed changes in attitudes to the project than it is to attribute changes in other areas.

Despite this general observation, if it is likely that activities by other projects will affect the answers given by participants in a project, survey managers will need to ask respondents directly how much difference the project has made to each of the indicators. This will require

<sup>17</sup> The evidence for Bangladesh, for example, points to intergenerational change (World Bank 2007b) rather than the one-to-two-year period of involvement with social safety net programs (Yaron and Dudwick 2008).

the indicators to be modified in exactly the same way described in relation to Table 5 above.

### Summary of example indicators

The summary of example indicators below uses the same indicator numbering as used elsewhere in Section 3. It is further divided into the areas of the generic logical framework that we have used to structure this toolkit. Indicators in the “additional indicators” section may be very important for some programs and are given this title simply because other indicators can provide related information.



<b>Gender indicator examples (as numbered in the document text)</b>	
<b>Process indicators</b>	
1.	Percent of village development committee members who are women
2.	Are there single-sex groups in the planning process that identify priority projects?
3.	If so, what proportion of projects implemented were proposed by (a) women-only groups, (b) by men-only groups, or (c) were priorities for both groups?
<b>Output &amp; Outcome indicators—Improved services (education)</b>	
10.	Percent change in female enrollment in primary schools
11.	Percent change in male enrollment in primary schools
12.	Percent change in female enrollment in secondary schools
13.	Percent change in male enrollment in secondary schools
14.	Percent change in female completion of primary school
15.	Percent change in male completion of primary school
<b>Output &amp; Outcome indicators—Improved services (health &amp; water &amp; sanitation)</b>	
16.	Percent change in access to health services for men
17.	Percent change in access to health services for women
18.	Percent change in access to water and sanitation facilities for men
19.	Percent change in access to water and sanitation facilities for women
20.	Percent increase of girls and women receiving health benefits (full immunization, anti-natal, and prenatal and postnatal care, maternal health care)
<b>Output &amp; Outcome indicators—Increased incomes</b>	
21.	The percent change in working-age women engaged in paid work as a result of the project
22.	The percent change in working-age men engaged in paid work as a result of the project
<b>Outcome indicators—Improved services (time-saving)</b>	
23.	Percent of women reporting a reduction of time spent on daily household tasks as a result of the program
24.	The proportion of women who use the new asset or service
25.	Average time saved per day for each woman using the new asset or service
<b>Outcome indicators (empowerment)</b>	
26.	The percent change in local female elected officials (village and municipal offices) as a result of the project
27.	The percentage of women who report having no power to make decisions regarding (a) what to buy at the market; (b) asset purchases; (c) number of children; (d) schooling of children; and (e) use of family planning
28.	Percentage of women who know how much income and expenditure there is in the household
29.	Percentage of women who can travel outside the village to visit relatives without permission
30.	Frequency of domestic violence experienced by women in the past year*
<b>Additional gender indicators</b>	
<b>Process indicators</b>	
4.	Number of men gaining voluntary employment on program activities in the past year and over the life of the program
5.	Number of women gaining voluntary employment on program activities in the past year and over the life of the program
6.	Number of men gaining paid employment on program activities in the past year and over the life of the program
7.	Number of women gaining paid employment on program activities in the past year and over the life of the program
8.	Proportion of men who believe their views influence projects selected at the village level
9.	Proportion of women who believe their views influence projects selected at the village level

\*Based on four categories: (a) Zero, (b) 1-2/year, (c) 3-5/year, and (d) 6+/year.

# Annexes

## Annex 1. Evaluating the NSP in Afghanistan

The National Solidarity Programme (NSP) is the largest development program in Afghanistan and a flagship program of the government. It is structured around two major village-level interventions: (1) the creation of a gender-balanced Community Development Council (CDC) through a secret-ballot, universal suffrage election; and (2) the disbursement of grants to support the implementation of projects selected and managed by village communities. NSP so far has established approximately 22,300 Community Development Councils (CDCs) across 361 districts in all of Afghanistan's 34 provinces. It has financed over 51,000 projects involving water and sanitation, rural roads, electrification, irrigation, and human capital development.

The randomized impact evaluation of the Phase-II of NSP (2007–10) is a multiyear study designed to assess the effects of the program across a broad range of economic, institutional, and social indicators. This report presents interim estimates of these effects obtained using data collected from over 20,000 individuals in 500 sample villages immediately before the introduction of NSP (baseline survey in summer 2007) and again two years later (first follow-up survey in summer-autumn 2009).

The survey tracks outcome indicators in a number of areas, including the following indicators of attitudes toward female participation in local governance, employment, and community life as well as opportunities for socializing and local travel.

Group	Indicator
Attitudes toward Female Participation in Local Governance (asked to both men & women)	Supports Female Participation In Local Government
	Supports Women's Council for Consultation
	Supports Women's Council for Female Affairs
	Does Not Support Any Female Involvement
	Women Should Participate in Elections
	Women Should Help Select Headman
	Women Should Help Select Governor
Attitudes toward Female Employment and Respect Accorded Women (asked to both men & women)	Agrees with Women in Government
	Agrees with Women in NGOs
	Agrees with Girls Attending School
	Male Doctors Should Treat Women
	Respondent Places Equal Value on Female Births
	There are Respected Women in Village
Female Socialization and Mobility (asked only to women)	Meetings with Women from Other Villages
	Meetings with District Government
	Women Have Source for Counseling
	Socializes with Women Outside Family
	Number of Times Outside Compound
	Leaves Compound without Chaperone
	Does Not Always Wear Chadori

Source: Beath, Christia, Enikolopov, and Kabuli 2010.

Annex 2. Asking about perceived impact on paid work

As respondents typically find it difficult to give precise quantities when asking about differences made by a CDD project (for the reasons set out in Box 5 ), these questions need to cover broad categories of impact. For example:

Asking for estimates of project-specific impact on paid work					
	It is much less	It is a little less	There is no difference	It has increased a little	It has increased a lot
Thinking about the projects in your (village/ district) funded by (CDD program name), which of the following statements best describes the effect they have had on the amount of paid work you have received compared to the situation without the project?	1	2	3	4	5

With this type of question the indicator has to be slightly modified to reflect the possible responses and might be written as:

The percentage of working-age women who believe that the project has increased their paid work.



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