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Unpaid care work: A feminist analysis of time diaries from Ghana, Bangladesh and Rwanda

2021

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1. Introduction

This report analyses women's time diary data from Ghana, Rwanda, and Bangladesh, using a feminist lens to understand patterns of time use and the potential effects of time-saving interventions that were implemented in specific locations.

The time diary data sets have been collected as part of ActionAid International's (AAI) **Promoting Opportunities for Women's Empowerment and Rights (POWER)**¹ project over 2018-2019. This report is based on three rounds of quantitative data (one in 2018 and two rounds in 2019 – 2019a and 2019b), thereby providing analysis over time. In addition, qualitative interviews were conducted between July and August 2020. The analysis aims to present evidence on patterns and processes through which women's lives may have been affected, directly or indirectly, and over time, in relation to the AAI POWER project.

Evidence suggests that women's economic empowerment cannot be achieved without first addressing women's unequal workload (Chopra and Zambelli 2017; Kabeer, Mahmud and Tasneem 2011). Women across the world undertake a disproportionately large share of care activities, which reinforces gender inequalities by impinging upon education, restricting opportunities for paid work, putting women at greater risk of gender-based violence (GBV), and limiting women's political and economic participation (Elson 1995; Maestre and Thorpe 2016; Zambelli et al. 2017; Chopra and Zambelli, 2017; Chopra, Saha, Nazneen and Krishnan, 2019). Currently, women's economic empowerment approaches tend to neglect the unpaid labour needed to care for the families, and so risk disempowering women and girls onto whom the care burden is delegated, sacrificing both their rights and the human development prospects of the next generation. For women to fully enjoy their economic rights in an optimised, shared, and sustained way, these issues need to be understood and addressed. A balance between paid work and unpaid care work would enable women to have the time, opportunity, and choice to participate equally in society and the economy.

Lack of time is a critical limitation for women. Time poverty limits women's opportunities to know their rights and how to claim them, to participate in decision-making which affects their access to and control over resources, and, in the case of small-scale farmers, producers and traders, to learn how to increase sustainable productivity and how to better access markets. To explore these

intersections, ActionAid, in collaboration with local partners, collected evidence through time diaries in Ghana, Rwanda and Bangladesh, as part of the POWER project between 2016-2020. This project is aimed at supporting women to become economically empowered. It worked with rural women in these three countries to raise awareness of their rights as farmers and carers and support them to organise and mobilise in this regard. Project interventions included supporting rural women to increase their income and ability to control it through practicing climate resilient sustainable agriculture; increasing access to markets; initiatives and advocacy aimed at recognising, reducing, and redistributing their unpaid care work; and ending gender-based violence.

ActionAid and local partners worked with project participants to complete time diaries in each country a number of times a year. The time diary tool is used in two different ways. Firstly, as a sensitisation tool, where time diaries are used at least once by all women and men directly involved in the project through women's groups and/or Reflect circles.² Secondly, time diaries are also used as a data collection tool. A smaller but statistically significant sample of the same women and men in each country have completed detailed time diaries – as far as possible, which was twice a year for the duration of the project.

This study uses a mixed methods approach combining quantitative and qualitative research methods to analyse the time diary data sets from three rounds over 2018-2019. The findings aim to provide a robust evidence base for policy and advocacy work at local, national and regional levels. The findings generated by this study will further be used to develop policy briefs at national, regional, and international level in order to advocate for policy makers and duty bearers to address the unpaid care work issues that were identified.

We begin by stating the overall research objective and research questions in the following sub-sections of this section. Then, **section 2** provides the background and context for the three countries. The datasets and methodology are discussed at length in **section 3**. The results are discussed across four sections of the report and **section 4** presents the descriptive analysis for the

1. POWER Project | Promoting Opportunities for Women's Empowerment and Rights (actionaid.org)

2. Reflect circles are spaces designed for creating a supportive environment to collectively question, reflect, re-think and respond in new ways to any challenges and opportunities

samples; **section 5** outlines patterns of women's time use; **section 6** focuses on gender differences by country, comparing women and men's time, and also highlights insights across districts; **section 7** presents results to inform the core focus of this research on implications of the access to POWER time-saving interventions – both, as patterns for all years and changes across the years. In **section 8**, we discuss the detailed findings from this study. **section 9** then focuses on key recommendations, and finally, section 10 provides conclusions and directions for future research.

1.1. Research objective

The overall objective of the study is to understand the situation for POWER project participants with regards to unpaid care and its impact on their lives, the nature and process of change throughout the project, including

its impact on project participants, and measure overall project progress. It does this through quantitative and qualitative analysis of the time diary data sets collected by AAI and partners as part of the POWER project. In addition, this study uses supporting documents such as reports, case studies, and discussions with project staff and community leaders for all three countries to further inform and support the analysis. An important aim of this study is to produce evidence to inform ActionAid's policy and advocacy work on unpaid care and women's economic justice and rights at local, national, regional and international levels.

1.2. Research questions

This research was driven by a set of pre-defined research questions as outlined below.

- i. To what extent do **POWER project time-saving interventions** (e.g., water harvesting, energy efficient cook stoves, early childcare centres) reduce the time women spend on unpaid care work activities? How is this time being re-allocated and what are the implications / potential outcomes of this reallocation for the women (e.g., in terms of accessing decent work / income, voice and participation, rest and leisure)?

To what extent and how are **women becoming empowered** through the time diary process (including through discussions, advocacy and mobilisations undertaken through the women's groups set up through the POWER project, at community level and beyond) to make meaningful choices about how they spend their time? What are the major limitations of this approach?

- ii. What are the emerging trends in terms of **how women and men spend their time**, how are these patterns changing over time, and what are the drivers of these changes (e.g., social norms or other external factors)? What implications do these have for the project objectives, policy and wider programming, particularly in terms of ensuring sustainability of positive outcomes?

- iii. What are the **different attitudes and perceptions of the communities** including duty bearers, such as community leaders, boys, girls, men and women, around how men and women spend their time, and what are the (context/locality-specific) social norms underpinning these?
- iv. How do any of the findings from the questions above **vary between different groups of women** according to discrimination and marginalisation they may face based on their gender as well as factors such as age, number of children, geographical location, marital status, and disability?
- v. What **key barriers and challenges are emerging from project data** that must be addressed in order to promote women's economic justice and rights, including any evidence around resistance and backlash?
- vi. What are the **observed key successes and best practices** on recognising, reducing and redistributing unpaid care work for women's economic justice and rights, if any?
- vii. What **policy lessons** can be learned from the implementation of the time diary work?

2. Background

ActionAid's POWER project is a five-year initiative (2016-2020) working with partners in Ghana, Rwanda and Bangladesh to raise awareness amongst rural women of their rights as farmers and carers, and support them to mobilise and organise in order to claim them. The project's objective is to increase the income and the ability to control it for 19,500 rural women,³. It is doing this by addressing rural women's vastly unequal share of unpaid care work by increasing productivity and access to markets through the agroecological practice of Climate Resilient Sustainable Agriculture and addressing violence against women as a cross-cutting issue. The POWER project is also working with policymakers and duty-bearers at local, national, regional and international levels to help cultivate an environment that ensures, protects and promotes women's economic rights.

The problem definition within the POWER theory of change states that the limited time rural women have available for activities and time poverty from unpaid care work goes hand-in-hand with their lack of voice at the household and at the community level. Unpaid care confines most women to the private sphere, thus limiting their economic rights. Other key contributors to the persistence of gender inequality and challenges to women's economic empowerment include, women's limited knowledge and mobilisation around their rights, women's limited representation in decision making spaces, and violence against women.

In all three countries, women's economic participation in paid work is low and time spent on unpaid care is disproportionately higher compared to men. Ghana ranks particularly poorly on the Global Gender Gap Index Report (107th of 153 countries) (WEF 2020).

In Bangladesh, women spend an average of 6.3 hours per day confined to their home undertaking care work (Raghavan 2017). In Ghana and Rwanda, ActionAid's POWER project baseline study showed rural women spent three to four hours per day collecting water and firewood for household use (Coffey and Staszewska 2017).

In Ghana, FAO reports that very few rural women engage in paid labour and when opportunities exist, they are at a disadvantage because they are more likely to be engaged in unpaid family work (FAO 2012). In Rwanda, 85% of people live in rural areas with agriculture

comprising the backbone of the country's economy, yet women have lower earnings and economic opportunities than men (IFAD n.d.). In Bangladesh, where three quarters of the population live in rural areas, rural women are said to be 'silent workers' with low labour force participation particularly for women who are married and have children (ActionAid n.d.).

In addition, in Ghana, Rwanda and Bangladesh, women are underrepresented in decision-making spaces both in the public and private sphere. Furthermore, women's unpaid reproductive, household and caring responsibilities can compound discriminatory social norms and vastly increase vulnerability to violence (ActionAid n.d.).

AAI's POWER project recognises that women have multiple identities (as individuals, mothers, wives, workers and as community members) and do not live single issue lives. The aim is to tackle all of the above issues simultaneously, since a lack of income and control over income, barriers to economic participation, an unequal burden of unpaid care work, and widespread GBV are all results of and drivers of gender inequality.

POWER is working on sensitising the families with time diaries on the extent of unpaid care work undertaken by women. The aim is to promote greater recognition of such work within households and communities, and for this to lead to redistribution. The project also used the evidence produced through the time diaries to engage with local level stakeholders, advocating to work with local officials to reduce and redistribute women's unpaid care work through improved access to water collection and setting up childcare facilities. They also work with role models from the community, such as men taking on a greater and more equal share of unpaid care work within their households, as well as using the media to increase awareness, capacity training, etc.

There are specific time-saving interventions that have been implemented as part of the POWER project. The project expects that by reducing the time spent on collecting water and fuel and childcare, women will have more time to work on income-generating activities. Implementation of these interventions has been targeted

3. Originally, the project aimed to benefit 21,000 rural women, but the closure of the programme in Pakistan in 2019 reduced this figure to 19,500: 6,000 women in Ghana, 7,350 women in Rwanda and 6,150 in Bangladesh (ActionAid 2020a).

to locations based on various sets of criteria (see p.25), such that not all women in a country or in a district have accessed all interventions – this applies to all countries.

2.1. Ghana

Ghana sits on the Atlantic Ocean and borders Togo, Cote d'Ivoire, and Burkina Faso. It has a population of about 30.2 million (Ghana Statistical Service 2019). In the past two decades, it has taken major strides toward democracy under a multi-party system and with its independent judiciary winning public trust. Ghana consistently ranks in the top three countries in Africa for freedom of speech and press freedom, with strong broadcast media in particular and radio the medium with the greatest reach. Ghana's economic performance improved significantly in 2017, following a difficult year in 2016.

However, women in Ghana do approximately ten times the amount of care work than men and have significantly longer workdays overall (ISG and Ayamga 2017). Ghanaian women in communities that the POWER project targets report considerably lower decision-making power than men over social and economic assets, less access to labour-saving equipment, and little or no access to basic facilities and utilities. Women perform the vast majority of unpaid care, that is, everything from laundry to cooking, shopping, cleaning, and caring for children and the elderly, whilst also participating in agriculture and non-farm economic activities. Ghanaian men enjoy much more leisure time than women, who consequently have little opportunity to participate in public life, pursue education, participate in political activities or engage in their own betterment (ISG and Ayamga 2017).

The POWER project in Ghana is active in the regions of Brong-Asafo (Astutifi South and Tain districts), Upper West (Jirapa district), Northern region (Nanumba North and Nanumaba South districts) and the Upper East (Talensi district). It is implemented together with SONGTABA, BONATADU, Widows and Orphans Movement (WOM), Global Action for Women Empowerment (GLOWA) and Social Development and Improvement Agency (SODIA).⁴ The rural communities where the project was implemented lack water, energy, basic sanitation and health services.

The project was implemented in eight districts and was working with 6,400 women, organised as 219 women farmers and processor cooperatives. Three time-saving interventions were implemented: **(Table 1)** childcare centres (18 centres across eight districts), water harvesting tanks, and improved cooking stoves (requiring manure from cows). For instance, in the Talensi and Jirapa District, the provision of energy-saving cooking stoves saved women three hours in their day, as well as reducing the money they spent on charcoal and firewood (ActionAid 2020).

It appears that the districts in the north are similar in terms of gender norms and weather conditions.⁵ In terms of access to resources, women lack stable access to land, some of the crops are male dominated and access to markets and credits remains a challenge.⁶ Women tend to grow groundnuts and soybean though income-generating opportunities are quite limited as well. Some women engage in petty trading or shea butter processing but most of them farm for subsistence.

Table 1. Time-saving interventions implemented in Ghana by the power project

Districts	Energy-saving cooking stoves	Water harvesting tanks	Boreholes	Childcare centres
Nanumba North (N)	X	X		X
Nanumba South (N)	X	X		X
Talensi (N)	X	X		X
Jirapa (N)	X	X		X
Nabdum (N)	X	X	X	X
Asutifi (S)		X		X
Adaklu (S)	X	X		X
Tain (S)		X		X

4. Community Aid for Rural Development (CARD) was one of the initial implementing partners in Ghana, but in 2017 ActionAid Ghana decided to terminate the relationship with this organisation, following an assessment of their capacity and commitment (ActionAid 2018).

5. Northern Ghana has a higher prevalence of FGM than the rest of the country (28 Too Many 2018). "While the overall prevalence of FGM in Ghana is 4%, studies have shown that the overall prevalence in the Upper East Region is 38%" (Sakeah et al. 2018). Also, according to the mid-term evaluation, traditional practices such as the exchanging sisters for marriage

was practiced among some communities in northern Ghana prior to the intervention (AIMS 2019). Weather conditions have to do with the fact that in Northern Ghana, there is only one season farming, which is not fertile enough to provide food for the whole year (information from the interviews with AA Ghana, explained on page 24).

6. We do not have information from the background reports, or from the interviews, about differences in women's ownership, access to and control over land in different districts.

2.2. Rwanda

Rwanda is Africa's least urbanised but also the most densely populated country, where the agriculture sector is essentially small-scale. Rwanda was first to sign the Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP)⁷ and has one of the strongest track records in meeting the 10% Maputo agriculture spending target,⁸ whilst showing a 5.3% agricultural productivity growth rate over the 2005 to 2014 period. In Rwanda, 61.3% of parliamentarians are women (UN Women and IPU 2020). The economic benefits from this progress are seen in the falling share of the population living below the national poverty line, which is now 39.1% (2013/2014) and fell from 56.7% (2005-06) (NISR 2016).

Rwanda's National Agriculture Investment Plan stands out because it recognises women's majority role in food production, their inequitable access to land, training and rural credit, and the importance of supporting women's rural organisations and women extension officers. Although there is more to be done, Rwanda's ambition to support women farmers is coming to life through government initiatives such as 'One cow per poor family', which has demonstrated impacts of reducing malnutrition, increasing access to organic fertiliser and increasing incomes. However, 19% of Rwandan households remain food insecure and in some provinces that figure is above 40% (Coffey and Staszewska 2017). As of today, the economic opportunities in the country remain limited, with farming being the only livelihood opportunity in rural areas.

Women in Rwanda bear a heavy workload. They assume the bulk of responsibility for unpaid care essential to the functioning of their families and communities, that is everything from collecting fuel and water from afar in the face of a lack of infrastructure (especially in rural areas) to cooking meals, doing laundry, and tending to children, elderly, the sick and disabled while also performing tasks related to agriculture or that otherwise contribute to their household's income (which is, paid work and productive work). This double obligation denies Rwandan women the opportunity to realise their full rights to a sustainable livelihood, including earning a decent income. Because women's time is so fully occupied, and because their unremunerated activities are not even perceived as "work" in their families and in society, they are left with little time to participate in public life, pursue education, participate in political activities, or engage in their own betterment (ISG 2017).

In Rwanda, the POWER project team conducted research to assess the status of unpaid care and domestic work in the country and its effects on women's economic empowerment within households. The research found that domestic work is unevenly shared, as women in rural areas spend six hours per day in unpaid care work versus the two hours per day spent by men; women in semi-urban spend five hours per day versus the one hour per day spent by men, and those living in cities spend two hours per day versus the one hour per day spent by men. In cities, most household chores are done by domestic workers, which explains the smaller amount of time allocated to unpaid care and domestic work. The research revealed that a woman engaged in unpaid care work contributes, on average, at least 1,800,000 RWF (EUR 18,000) to the economy annually (ActionAid 2020b).

In Rwanda, the POWER project works with the following partners: DUHOZANYE Organization, Faith Victory Association (FVA) and TUBUBE AMAHORO, in 11 communities of Nyanza, Karongi, Musanze, Nyaruguru, and Gisagara districts. The communities lack water, energy, basic sanitation and health services. The POWER project benefits 7,350 women in this country (ActionAid 2020) and works with 245 women's groups. **Table 2** (page 10) outlines the time-saving interventions implemented in Rwanda. Communities in Gisagara and Karongi are closer to the urban areas, while in Nyanza, the POWER project is implemented in the city.

In Rwanda, gender norms are very patriarchal, and women are expected to carry out all unpaid care, which constrains their time and energy to do other things. In some villages, AAI observed small changes as a result of the awareness raised by the project. The communities are mostly patriarchal; households are composed of the nuclear family only, where the majority are Christians and the main livelihood is farming.

The POWER project raises awareness on unpaid care distribution, supports income-generating activities for the women such as livestock raising and agroecology practices, and is working towards the reduction of unpaid care work by setting up 11 childcare centres, water harvesting structures and energy-saving cooking stoves. In 2019, 2,085 women reduced firewood use by 80% and the time spent on firewood collection. Families connected to clean tap water also reduced time spent on fetching water by approximately four hours a day (ActionAid 2020). In addition, the presence of water

7. The Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP) is Africa's policy framework for agricultural transformation, wealth creation, food security and nutrition, economic growth and prosperity for all (OSAA n.d.).

8. The "Maputo Declaration on Agriculture and Food Security in Africa" (Assembly/AU/Decl. 7(II)) in 2003 included the "commitment to the allocation of at least 10 percent of national budgetary resources to agriculture and rural development policy implementation within five years" (NEPAD 2003).

Table 2: Time-saving interventions implemented in Rwanda by the POWER project

Districts	Energy-saving cooking stoves	Biogas cooking stove	Gas cooking stove	Water harvesting tanks	Water kiosks	Borehole	Home tap water	Childcare centres
Gisagara	X			X			X	X
Nyanza	X	X	X	X				X
Musanze	X				X			X
Karongi	X			X		X	X	X
Nyaruguru	X				X		X	X

Source: Author's own based on conversations with project officers.

Note: **Table 2** reports the types of POWER time-saving interventions in Rwanda, by district

harvesting tanks at the participants homes has enabled them to allocate only 20 minutes per day to this task (ActionAid 2019). This has worked well during the rainy season but proved to be difficult during the dry season.

2.3. Bangladesh

Bangladesh has made remarkable progress in reducing poverty, supported by sustained economic growth. Based on the international poverty line of \$1.90 per person per day, it reduced poverty from 44.2% in 1991 to 13.8% in 2016/17 (World Bank 2018). In parallel, life expectancy, literacy rates and per capita food production have increased significantly. Progress was underpinned by 6% plus growth over the decade and reached 7.3% in 2016/2017, according to official estimates (World Bank 2018). Rapid growth enabled Bangladesh to reach the lower middle-income country status in 2015. In 2018, Bangladesh fulfilled all three eligibility criteria for graduation from the UN's Least Developed Countries (LDC) list for the first time and is on track for graduation in 2024 (UN DESA 2018).

Sustained economic growth has rapidly increased the demand for energy, transport, and urbanisation. Insufficient planning and investment have resulted in increasingly severe infrastructure bottlenecks. The main income-generating activities in Bangladesh include agriculture – specifically growing rice and maize. In Bangladesh, where three quarters of the population live in rural areas, rural women have a low level of labour force participation, particularly in the case of women who are married and have children (Raghavan 2017). Women in Bangladesh⁹ are both isolated and under great strain caused by the dual burden of performing long hours of unpaid care essential to the functioning of their families and undertaking tasks that contribute to the household economy, such as raising livestock/poultry and making quilts and cigarettes. Unpaid care - which includes everything from collecting fuel and water to cooking meals, doing laundry and tending to children, elderly, the

sick and disabled - is commonly viewed as low-status and accepted as a woman's 'duty'. In Bangladesh, women engage in 6.3 hours of unpaid care work per day, while men engage in 1.1 hours per day (Raghavan 2017).

Cultural norms that severely restrict women's mobility outside the home, combined with a lack of free time caused by a long workday (on average 39 minutes longer than men's), prevent women from participating in community groups, markets, accessing a full range of economic activities and otherwise engaging in public and political life, education, and other means of advancing their wellbeing. Their situation denies Bangladeshi women the opportunity to realise their full potential as citizens and humans (ISG and GI 2017).

In Bangladesh, the POWER project is active in the districts of Gaibandha, Lalmonirhat and Dinajpur in the north part of the country. These districts are prone to floods and communications are weak. Dinajpur was incorporated into the project in 2019, following the closure of the POWER project in Pakistan. It is a rural area where many men migrate to urban areas for the improvement of livelihoods, which may help explain the social acceptance of women working in agriculture in this area:

“In our area... women are involved in agriculture activities... but in other areas... the community do not accept that women work in harvesting... Job opportunities are limited... That is why men are shifting to urban areas. And women are staying home and working in agriculture.”

(Project officer, Bangladesh)

9. We do not have information from the baseline reports or from interviews about differences between communities, and hence cannot explain differences in time use from one location to another within the same country context.

AAI's local partner in Gaibandha and Lalmonirhat is SKS Foundation and in Dinajpur, ActionAid Bangladesh directly implements the project activities. The POWER project works with a total of 6,150 women in Bangladesh, organised in 238 groups. The households are, on average, formed by four to five people, sometimes also including the husband's extended family members. The majority of the families are Muslim, and it is a patriarchal society with traditional gender norms. However, women are not yet recognised as farmers and often work on the farm with their husbands. Another source of livelihood is livestock raising, which is the women's responsibility. Internal seasonal migration is common for the men in the area, increasing the

burden of unpaid care for the women. The main income generation activities are as labourers on farms. The communities lack water, energy, basic sanitation and health services.

Three types of interventions have been implemented in Bangladesh (**Table 3**): 17 childcare centres energy-saving cooking stoves and biogas plants. In the case of the biogas plants, only three women seem to have accessed them due to the high cost of this technology for participants. In Bangladesh, households have financially contributed to the implementation of the energy-saving cooking stoves at a subsidised price.

Table 3: Time-saving interventions implemented in Bangladesh by the power project

Districts	Energy-saving cooking stoves	Biogas plants	Childcare centres
Lalmonirhat	X	X	X
Gaibandha	X		X
Dinajpur	X		X

Source: Author's own based on conversations with project officers.

Note: **Table 3** reports the types of POWER time-saving interventions in Bangladesh, by district

3. Data and methodology

The quantitative analysis was carried out iteratively, with the qualitative analysis helping clarify and complement some of the quantitative findings. Below we outline the survey, sampling and methodology for the quantitative and qualitative analysis.

3.1. Survey and sampling

Three quantitative datasets were made available for this analysis, **2018-round 2, 2019-round 1 and round 2**. The time-use survey data were collected by AAI country offices through time diaries. Each round of the AAI survey contains data on individuals' activities for three different days, where they recorded their daily activities in 10 minutes intervals for 24 hours. Respondents complete the same time diary card once in each week over three weeks in each turn of the year. Data from the three days are then averaged to be a good representation of individuals' workload due to the fact that a person has varying activity patterns during a week. For example, one day he/she could be very busy, while another day in the same week, he/she is less busy. Hence, data collected in a given day may not be an accurate representation of their typical day.

The qualitative analysis was based on primary data collected as part of this research process and secondary data available from the POWER project itself. In relation to the latter, IDS analysed the initial project documents and the theory of change, the baseline study, the mid-term review, the quarterly and annual progress reports, and various case studies and policy briefs elaborated by AAI for national and international advocacy. For primary data collection, IDS conducted semi-structured interviews with 37 people from ActionAid country teams, partner organisations and women's participants in Rwanda, Ghana and Bangladesh. These interviews were carried out using videoconference platforms (MS Teams and Zoom) and phone calls. The interviews took place during July 2020 and the first days of August 2020.¹⁰ IDS created interview guides for each category of respondents and coordinated directly with ActionAid staff in the countries the link with partners' project officers and women participants. Following quantitative preliminary findings and initial conversations with ActionAid country teams, IDS and AAI decided to interview two women (who were also group facilitators) in two districts per country: one of them accessing POWER project time-saving interventions and the other one not accessing

POWER project time-saving interventions.¹¹ In total, IDS conducted 36 qualitative interviews:

- **7 ActionAid POWER project staff (4 women and 3 men)¹²**
- **14 partners' project officers (4 women and 12 men)¹³**
- **14 women group community facilitators.¹⁴**

3.2. Data description

The quantitative datasets contain individual characteristics and time-diary data for a sample of women and men in 2018, and two rounds in 2019 – 2019a and 2019b. The qualitative dataset contains 36 semi-structured interviews with ActionAid country teams, partner's project officers and women group community facilitators.

3.2.1. Data coding

Quantitative

Following data reporting, several errors were identified and AAI and IDS worked together to seek clarifications. The data was re-coded and cleaned accordingly to make sure that it was error-free and consistent. Particularly, we made sure that:

- **There were no duplicate entries across time slots for each country.**
- **All reported values were within expected ranges within time slots, but also across times of the day.**
- **Response codes matched the expected categories within each sub-category.**

10. Three fieldtrips to Rwanda, Ghana and Bangladesh were planned to be carried out in March and April 2020. Due to Covid-19 related restrictions, AAI and IDS decided to suspend all fieldwork while maintaining the data collection process using phone and online tools to interview partners, ActionAid staff and women participants. These interviews were carried out in three different periods: 2 – 10 July; 21 – 24 July; and 3 – 4 August.

11. Districts selected were Nyanza and Gisagara in Rwanda; Lalmonirhat and Gaibandha in Bangladesh; and Talensi and Asutifi South in Ghana.

12. 2 women in Ghana; 2 men and 1 woman in Rwanda; and 1 woman and 1 man in Bangladesh.

13. Each project officer is in charge of the implementation and monitoring of the activities in one district. They were 1 woman and 7 men in Ghana; 2 women and 3 men in Rwanda; and 1 woman and 2 men in Bangladesh.

14. Two more women (one from Nyanza and one from Gisagara in Rwanda) were incorporated to the sample because two respondents in those districts did not meet the required criteria to participate in the research.

- **Missing responses were not made in error across all time slots.**
- **Verification of time use data matched reported codes and time slots.**

Data cleaning was done with Excel workbooks received from AAI and Stata coding done by IDS. Once the data was clean, we carried out final consistency checks and converted the clean survey data into Stata-compatible files for further analysis. All raw data and corrected data are available with key changes documented in Stata do-files. Changes are comparable across Excel workbooks sent by AAI and those created by IDS. All intermediate files are also stored to ensure consistency and transparency in data cleaning and tabulation.

Qualitative

All interviews were conducted in English by the same interviewer at IDS to ensure methodological rigor during the data collection process.¹⁵ Interviews were recorded, anonymised and stored in compliance with General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR) law. Transcripts were also made by the interviewer, which allowed the team to become more familiarised with the

content. This content was coded using nVivo as the qualitative data analysis software and processed in four main categories and sixteen sub-categories to respond to the research questions.

3.2.2. Sample

Table 4 reports the number of men and women by round of time diary data observations, while **Table 5** outlines the female sample by access to POWER time-saving interventions – *Access and Non-Access*¹⁶ (**Table A 1** and **Table A 2** in the Appendix report the number of observations, by district).

3.2.3. Data classification

Consistent with the definitions provided in the literature and in collaboration with ActionAid International, we initially defined a set of detailed activities for the time diary data collection. We began our analysis with these 23 activities undertaken by the individuals over the day. We then categorised them in five macro categories (plus a category for other activities), namely **unpaid care, unpaid work, paid work, personal** and **social** activities. The macro categories allow us to investigate to

Table 4: Number of observations, by gender, country and round

	2018			2019a			2019b		
	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All
Bangladesh	100	500	600	140	579	719	140	579	719
Rwanda	72	429	501	69	431	500	65	384	449
Ghana	103	244	347	127	296	423	117	394	511

Source: Author's own using AAI data for three rounds – 2018 round 2, 2019 round 1, 2019 round 2.

Note: **Table 4** reports the number of men and women in the sample, by country and round of interview.

Table 5: Number of observations, by gender, district, country and round – women only

	2018			2019a			2019b		
	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All
Bangladesh	418	82	500	496	83	579	496	83	579
Rwanda	202	227	429	55	376	431	40	344	384
Ghana	87	157	244	188	108	296	218	176	394

Source: Author's own using AAI data for three rounds – 2018 round 2, 2019 round 1, 2019 round 2.

Note: **Table 5** reports the number of women in the sample, by participation in the POWER time-saving project, country and round of interview.

15. English was the language used in these interactions, although 12 interviews needed live translation. This was primarily provided by project officers and partner's staff, except in the case of Rwanda, where a professional translator assisted in the data collection process. This professional support contributed significantly to improve the quality of the interviews, something that was not achieved in other cases.

16. This classification is used throughout the report.

what extent women and men share responsibilities; the activities give us in-depth knowledge of specific trade-offs. **Table 6** lists all activities, by macro and detailed categories of these activities.

3.3. Method for quantitative analysis

Time diary data from Bangladesh, Ghana and Rwanda were used to explore how individuals in these countries allocate their time to specific activities over 24 hours of a day. In particular, we focused on women's time use; gender differences in time use by type of activity; specific findings on unpaid care work; and the extent of 'multitasking' i.e., completing tasks intermittently but continuously doing more than one activity. In examining gender differences in time use, the literature shows stark differences between men and women (Budlender 2008; 2007; 2004). However, comparative evidence for developing countries remains scarce – and this was the

objective of this research project. Making use of time diary data, we examined the current patterns of time use for women, differences between women and men and likely patterns in relation to time-saving interventions.

We draw a comprehensive description of respondents and their time use for all activities previously presented. We then analyse time use by looking at how a 24-hour day is divided for women and men across the six main activity groups outlined above. This provides a sense of how each activity fits into the overall time budget for individuals surveyed across the three countries. We also examine the primary types of sub-activities under the broad categories. This includes a disaggregated analysis for unpaid care work, paid work, productive and non-productive work for women and men. Additionally, we look at time use on unpaid care by gender and district/community. This enables us to examine links with certain community norms that may imply higher time use for unpaid care for women as compared to men.

Table 6: List of macro categories and activities

Macro category	Detailed activities
Unpaid care	Domestic work Care for children Care for adults Care for elderly Cooking
Unpaid work	Collecting water Subsistence farming Shopping or getting services Collecting fuel/wood Weaving, sewing, handicraft Animal rearing
Paid work	Employed/Self-employed Agricultural work Commuting and travelling
Personal activities	Learning Sleeping and resting Eating Personal care Religion
Social activities	Social and cultural Mass media Practicing hobbies
Other activities	Other

Source: Author's own using AAI data for three rounds – 2018 round 2, 2019 round 1, 2019 round 2.

Note: **Table 6** reports the list of macro activities and related sub-activities.

The quantitative analysis was undertaken with the following key objectives in mind:

- **Patterns of time-allocation for women:** To examine the broad patterns of time-allocation and changes over the specified time period by type of activity: unpaid care, unpaid work, paid work and personal, social and other activities. To investigate the patterns of time spent on unpaid work and various categories of unpaid care work. To understand how access to unpaid work interacts (reduces or increases) with time spent on unpaid care.
- **Multiplicity of tasks:** An important insight from time use data is on ‘multitasking’ i.e. completing tasks intermittently but continuously doing more than one activity, particularly relevant in the case of household work activities that can be completed simultaneously with other tasks (Budlender 2007). For instance, if women looked after children at the same time as washing clothes or cooking, in between moments of paid work.
- **Gender differences:** To identify the emerging trends in terms of how women and men spend their time, and how these patterns are changing over time.
- **POWER time-saving interventions:** To analyse the extent to which the POWER project time-saving interventions (e.g., water harvesting, energy efficient cook stoves and early childcare centres) may have affected the time women spent on unpaid care work activities, if time has been re-allocated, and the implications of such reallocation for the women.

Following the guidelines of the “Centre for Time Use Research” at UCL17, we make use of the following main tools:

- **Time use:** The average time spent for the sample.
- **Participation rates:** To ascertain an aggregated idea of time use by activity, we report the share of individuals that performed the activity.¹⁸
- **Tempograms:** To compare participation rates across different times of a day. A tempogram is a conventional ‘timing graph’ that will provide aggregated information on the timing of work that can be compared across countries and between females and males in later rounds. Participation rates (for unpaid care work, paid work, etc.) are on the Y-axis and the timing of the day is on the X-axis. Using such a tool, we can identify, for instance, ‘if more women in Bangladesh do most of the productive work mid-afternoon, when compared with women in Ghana who tend to do this later on in the evening’.

3.4. Method for qualitative analysis

The interviews with ActionAid country teams, partner’s project officers and women group community facilitators explored participant’s perceptions around women’s use of time; the time-saving interventions and their impact on women’s time use; the time diaries process; the social norms around paid work and care arrangements; as well as possible solutions to ensure women’s economic empowerment. Interviews with women participants also focused on their tasks throughout the day, the arrangements around the unpaid care work, the paid work, the interaction between the paid and the unpaid care work and the women’s sense of empowerment from POWER project interventions.

Qualitative content analysis was used to find patterns and trends that enable us to understand the nature, process and drivers of changes in women’s time-use, the associated social norms, and the impacts of the POWER project. Particularly, we explore how the time-saving interventions have affected women’s time use; the impact of time diaries process in women’s empowerment; the social norms and changes in perceptions around women’s time use; and the extent of women’s multitasking activity. We aim to understand the drivers of changes but also the resistance and challenges, both individual and social, that emerge in the process of women’s economic empowerment.

From the qualitative analysis of the data, we also aim to inform what are the observed key successes and best practices on recognising, reducing and redistributing unpaid care work for women’s economic empowerment and what policy lessons can be learned from the implementation of the time diary work.

17. <https://www.timeuse.org/>

18. The rationale behind this decision has to be attributed to the scope of this analysis, looking primarily at differences in time spent across gender and time-saving interventions. Information about individuals reporting zero minutes in a particular activity are of vital importance for assessing these differences.

4. Descriptive analysis

We begin by presenting the main individual characteristics of our sample for 2019, first by gender and then by participation in the POWER project time-saving interventions (only for women).

4.1. By gender

4.1.1. Characteristics – women and men

Table 7 presents individual characteristics by gender across the three countries. In Bangladesh, women are younger than men. On average, there is a very **high percentage (95%) of individuals categorised as poor**. Almost all individuals, with the exclusion of roughly 30 women, are married, while 90% of the women and

63% of the men have at least one child. A minority of individuals in Bangladesh report having elderly people in their household. Only about 15% of the women report to have been accessing POWER project time-saving interventions in 2019, while 13% of the men reported being in a household with a woman accessing the POWER project time-saving interventions. Access to any other non-POWER time-saving interventions is fairly minor.

In Rwanda, among the few individual characteristics collected for men, we do not observe differences among women and men in terms of age. All women and about 90% of the men report being poor. **A majority of women are married and almost all women report having at least one child**, while only a minority report having elder people in their household. Finally, most

Table 7: Individual characteristics by gender and country

Activity	Bangladesh			Rwanda			Ghana		
	Men	Women	All	Men ¹⁹	Women	All	Men	Women	All
Age	40.5 (6.7)	34.3 (7.0)	35.5 (7.3)	44.2 (9.9)	43.7 (10.5)	43.8 (10.4)	45.4 (14.5)	43.8 (10.9)	44.2 (11.8)
% Non-Poor	5.0%	6.2%	6.0%	10.0%	0%	0.2%	35.8%	33.8%	34.2%
Married	100%	98.6%	98.9%	- %	61.3%	61.3%	87.2%	83.8%	84.5%
Children (YES/NO)	62.9%	91.4%	85.8%	- %	98.1%	98.1%	94.0%	96.9%	96.3%
Number of children (if >0)	2.2 (0.8)	2.2 (0.8)	2.2 (0.8)	- (-)	3.6 (1.7)	3.6 (1.7)	5.6 (3.7)	5.1 (2.0)	5.2 (2.5)
Elderly (YES/NO)	15.7%	19.0%	18.4%	-%	7.4%	7.4%	25.2%	27.0%	26.5%
Number of elder (if >0)	1.4 (0.5)	1.4 (0.5)	1.4 (0.5)		1.1 (0.3)	1.1 (0.3)	1.0 (0.2)	1.1 (0.4)	1.1 (0.3)
Help with household chores (YES/NO)	76.9%	94.9%	91.5%	-%	86.0%	86.0%	81.8%	88.2%	86.7%
Accessing POWER project time-saving interventions	12.9%	14.3%	14.0%	-%	87.7%	87.7%	35.5%	46.0%	43.6%
Accessing any non-POWER project time-saving intervention	2.9%	3.8%	3.6%	-%	14.1%	14.1%	39.6%	49.9%	47.6%

Source: Author's own using AAI data for three rounds – 2018 round 2, 2019 round 1, 2019 round 2.

Note: **Table 7** reports the main characteristics of the individuals, by gender and country. The share of men accessing POWER time-saving interventions refers to the household with a woman participant in the POWER project.

Standard Deviation in parenthesis

19. The data collection tool limit male individuals' characteristics to only eight features, namely: 1) Age, 2) Gender, 3) Location by district, sector and cell, and 4) Occupation.

women, roughly 85%, have reported access to POWER project time-saving intervention, while 15% have access to an other time-saving program not related to the POWER project.

In Ghana, there are no substantial differences across genders in terms of any of the categories. The exception is a **greater share of women with access to POWER time-saving interventions (46%) and other non-POWER project time-saving interventions (50%)** – fewer men in the sample are in households where women have access to either.

4.1.2. Participation rates – across women and men

Next, we examine the participation rates and distribution patterns for unpaid care, unpaid and paid work and other activities across the three countries for women and men.

Unpaid care: The participation rates for unpaid care (Table A3 in the Appendix) reveal important stylised findings. First, we find that all Bangladeshi women (except one in the 2019 round 1) report to have done unpaid care activities, with domestic work and cooking done by almost all women, while men appear to be taking up some house care responsibilities, particularly domestic work and care for children. Second, in Rwanda, almost all women are doing unpaid care, and again, domestic work and cooking is done by almost all women; and, while initially (2018 round 2), the majority of men were reporting some participation in unpaid care activities – interestingly, that halved in the two subsequent waves. Finally, in Ghana, almost all women have done unpaid care, and again, cooking and domestic work are the main activities; and, interestingly here too, men report to taking up care responsibilities over time, particularly domestic work, care for children and cooking.

Unpaid work: The participation rates for unpaid work sub-activities by gender and round of interview (Table A4 in the Appendix) reveal very high participation in unpaid work activities, both by men and women. First, we observe substantial differences for the Bangladeshi sample across gender in terms of participation rates for all unpaid work activities. Collecting water and fuel, and weaving is mostly done by women and shopping is generally done by men. Second, in Rwanda, almost all individuals have done unpaid work activities, with subsistence farming and animal rearing as the most practiced activities; and shopping is the only activity where we observe substantial differences in the participation rates across gender, which remains fairly similar across all other categories. Finally, Ghanaian men and women have done some unpaid work activities – collecting water and fuel are activities mainly performed by women, and animal rearing is mainly practiced by men in the household.

Paid work: Examining the participation rates for paid work sub-activities by gender and round of interview (Table A5 in the Appendix) suggest high participation of men in Bangladesh, as almost all men have performed paid work activities, with the majority being employed or self-employed. Only half of the women in the sample have performed paid work, with agricultural work being the most common activity. In Rwanda, except for men reporting in 2018 round 2, the majority of individuals have not performed any paid work. If we then exclude 2019 round 1, there is not much difference in participation rates among employed/self-employed and agricultural work. For Ghana, more than two third of the individuals have performed a paid work activity, and interestingly, excluding 2018 round 1, women have reported higher participation rates in paid work compared to men.

Social, cultural and leisure activities: Moving to social, cultural and leisure activities (Table A6 in the Appendix), both men and women across all countries report that they participate in social, cultural and leisure activities. In Bangladesh, although men consistently report higher shares of participation, the gap with women's participation is very narrow; and, social and cultural events see the highest participation for both men and women. Rwandan women report a much lower participation rate in practising hobbies, while both women and men participate the most in mass-media-related activities such as television, radio, etc. For Ghana, we note that there are quite substantial differences between women and men reporting participation in social and cultural events and practicing hobbies.

Personal activities: Looking at participation rates for personal activities (Table A7 in the Appendix), very few men and women report to have been involved in any learning activity in Bangladesh and Rwanda, but in Ghana, almost one-third of the individuals have practised learning activities. In terms of religious activities, fewer men report to participate than women in Bangladesh, while most women and men participate in Rwanda and Ghana.

4.2. By access to power time-saving interventions

4.2.1. Characteristics – access and non-access

ActionAid and partners identified the three most time-consuming activities for rural women: taking care of children, fetching water, and collecting firewood. The identification process was developed with women's groups and community members, who have also provided feedback during the implementation phase to modify some of the interventions. Local authorities and traditional leaders have also been part of the consultation processes to ensure the sustainability of the project.

With limited available interventions, different strategies were used to select women across the three countries and districts.

Various criteria were applied, such as:

- Vulnerability e.g. women with disabilities, widows, female-headed households, and women from the lowest income brackets.
- The distance of women's households to the water and firewood collection points.
- Creating a rotation system and, in some cases, a raffle.
- Women's engagement in income-generating activities (particularly in Bangladesh).
- The capacity of women and households to afford the cost of the materials needed to implement the cooking stoves and biogas plants, as well as possibilities to undertake paid work outside the house where support from childcare centres was provided (particularly in Bangladesh).

The above criteria reflects the targeting of interventions for women who needed these or are most likely to benefit. And in most of the cases, women's groups have had the autonomy to apply these criteria and select those members who would benefit from the interventions. With the women's sample, we compare the groups with access (Access) and those without access (Non-Access) to POWER project time-saving interventions in **Table 8**.

BANGLADESH

In Bangladesh, **three types of interventions have been implemented**: childcare centres, improved cooking stoves and biogas plants. However, in the case of the biogas plants, only three women have accessed them due to their cost, as households need to financially contribute to get a cooking stove at a subsidised price. This, in part, may explain the limited reach of the interventions – as noted earlier, only about 14% of women in our sample report are accessing interventions. And, for instance, in Lalmonirhat, only 120 women out of 2,500 have accessed energy-saving cooking stoves.

While we do not observe differences in terms of age and marital status among women with access and those without (**Table 8**), we observe that those with access report a higher share of women categorised as poor and women having children – reflecting the targeting of interventions.

Criteria for selecting women beneficiaries of the time-saving interventions in Bangladesh are diverse and include the following: poverty and vulnerability; availability of an open space for installing the cooking stoves; additional availability of resources (such as cows and water) for installing the biogas plants; and the engagement in any form of income-generating activity for accessing childcare centres. Likewise, the distance from homes to childcare centres influences the decision

Table 8: Individual characteristics of women by access to power project time-saving intervention

Activity	Bangladesh			Rwanda			Ghana		
	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All
Age	34.3 (6.9)	34.3 (7.1)	34.3 (7.0)	45.0 (9.6)	43.6 (10.6)	43.7 (10.5)	44.6 (10.5)	42.8 (11.3)	43.8 (10.9)
% Non-Poor	6.9%	2.4%	6.2%	0%	0%	0%	41.4%	24.7%	33.8%
Married	98.6%	98.8%	98.6%	52.7%	62.5%	61.3%	83.0%	84.7%	83.8%
Children (YES/NO)	90.5%	96.4%	91.4%	100%	97.9%	98.1%	94.9%	99.4%	96.9%
Number of children (if >0)	2.2 (0.8)	2.2 (0.8)	2.2 (0.8)	3.2 (1.4)	3.6 (1.7)	3.6 (1.7)	5.0 (1.7)	5.1 (2.2)	5.1 (2.0)
Elderly (YES/NO)	19.2%	18.1%	19.0%	17.0%	6.0%	7.4%	20.2%	34.0%	27.0%
Number of elder (if >0)	1.4 (0.5)	1.2 (0.4)	1.4 (0.5)	1.0 (0.0)	1.1 (0.4)	1.1 (0.3)	1.2 (0.4)	1.1 (0.4)	1.1 (0.4)
Help with household chores (YES/NO)	94.4%	97.6%	94.9%	80.8%	86.8%	86.0%	88.3%	88.0%	88.2%
Accessing any non-POWER project time-saving intervention	3.6%	4.8%	3.8%	7.7%	14.9%	14.1%	59.0%	38.7%	49.9%

Source: Author's own using AAI data for three rounds – 2018 round 2, 2019 round 1, 2019 round 2. Standard Deviation in parenthesis. Note: **Table 8** reports the main characteristics of women, by country and participation in the POWER project.

about which women were likely to most benefit from the childcare service, with only those who live close to these centres having access. The implementation of the time-saving interventions presents some challenges related to the natural and environmental conditions of the country. Each year, heavy rains cause severe floods that destroy crops and drive people from their homes, particularly in several impoverished regions. The floodwater causes permanent damage in houses but also in childcare centres and cooking stoves that women are not able to repair. Other testimonies point out the challenge posed by the new concept of 'childcare centre' in communities, where this traditional women's responsibility is now being performed by other women outside the household, and therefore trust and uptake levels were low.

“At the beginning, the community thought that children wouldn't stay at the centres. They were not interested in giving help for the centres. But gradually, they realised that children had an enjoyable time, and the interaction with other students, different types of norms, attitudes, they are learning from the centres. After that, they decided that they will support the management of the childcare centres and even providing material to them.”

(Project officer, Bangladesh)

RWANDA

In Rwanda, the decision about the type of interventions to be implemented depended on the **viability of each solution and the feedback received by the women's groups**. For instance, due to its cost, the implementation of home tap water is only possible if households are near an existing public pipeline:

“Right holders who are closer to the pipeline automatically get home tap water. Those who are not close to the pipeline, we establish water kiosks. Water kiosks benefit not only to our right holders, but to the whole community.”

(ActionAid staff, Rwanda)

The biogas cooking stoves require manure from cows, which the project has provided in some, but not all, cases. In addition, this is not necessarily the preferred solution, even having the possibility of obtaining one. For example, in Gisagara, the government was promoting the implementation of biogas cooking stoves before the project started, but women expressed their discomfort with this type of stoves to ActionAid. The POWER project then decided to implement energy-saving cooking stoves, which reduces the amount of firewood needed to cook. In other cases, women have been able to put together savings and get access to gas cooking stoves, such as in Nyanza, where communities are closer to the

urban area. In the case of childcare centres, only women with children under 5 who live near the centre have been able to access these.

In spite of these factors, 88% of women in our sample report access to time-saving interventions. Looking at differences between groups with and without access (**Table 8**), we find that **all women are categorised as poor** and we do not observe significant differences in terms of age, marital status and maternal status between participants and non-participants. More women who have access get help with household chores, and more of the women who have access through the POWER project also access other non-POWER related time-saving interventions.

In Rwanda, the POWER project implemented a common procedure to select women accessing time-saving interventions. Women's groups were autonomous to select those members who would receive a particular intervention. In general, criteria were applied in this order: firstly, women who need them most (those in greater vulnerability; widows; women who live further from the water or firewood collection point); secondly, those who could not afford the intervention by their own means; and thirdly, a random selection among those who meet the two previous criteria. Once the decision was made, the project officer checked that all were POWER project participants and waited for the approval of local authorities in cases where this was required (such as to ensure local government buy in; or for them to sanction materials for childcare centres and connection of home taps with mainline water connections). In Rwanda, all respondents agree that the limited number of time-saving interventions available was an important challenge for the implementation.

GHANA

In Ghana, we observe a greater share of poor women among those with access; almost all women with access have children, and only a minority of them are accessing other non-POWER project time-saving interventions (**Table 8**).

One of the differences between the eight districts where the POWER project has been implemented is their geographical location in the country, which may influence the type of work they do throughout the year as well as the migration patterns. In Northern Ghana, there is only one season for farming, which is not fertile enough to provide food for the whole year, so women need to get income from other sources when they are not farming or migrating to the South. This may explain why in Northern districts, women are doing more paid work, as farming is commonly located under unpaid work. It may also explain why they are dropping out of some interventions.

“In the North, we don’t have two seasons, we farm once in a year and our lands are not that fertile to give enough food. So, women go back to business when they finish farming... so you see paid work going up.”

(ActionAid staff, Ghana)

In Ghana, there was no common pattern to select women beneficiaries of the time-saving interventions, but some criteria used by women are: those considered more vulnerable (widows, female-headed households or women with disabilities); women who walk a further distance to collect firewood or to fetch water; women who are actively participating in the project activities; and women who need the intervention for business. Also, interviewees point out that women’s groups may also install a rotation or voting system among members.

Challenges in Ghana related to the implementation of the time-saving interventions include: the limited number of these interventions to meet the demand from women and communities; the lack of support from some local authorities to ensure the sustainability of the interventions; and the cultural norms around menstruation, which prevent women from sharing items and spaces during their periods.

4.2.2. Participation rates – across access to time-saving intervention

This section presents broad distribution patterns for work activities across the three countries to then link with possible influence of cultural or demographic factors on those differences.²⁰

Unpaid care: First, in Bangladesh, participation rates do not differ substantially among those with access and those without, except in the case of caring for adults and cooking in the last two rounds (**Table A8** in the Appendix). In terms of the latter, it is also interesting to notice that women accessing POWER project interventions report a lower share of them being engaged in unpaid care. Second, for Rwanda, participation rates are similar with the exclusion of taking care of the children, where women without access report greater participation in the first round and a lower participation rate in the last two rounds; interestingly, the share of participants across care of adults and of elderly drastically decreases over time. Finally, Ghanaian women with access report lower participation in unpaid care, except for 2019, Round 1. Domestic work and cooking are the most practiced activities among women, irrespective of access.

Unpaid work: Focusing on the unpaid work and its sub-activities (**Table A9** in the Appendix), first, we find higher participation rates for Bangladeshi women with access, particularly in the last two rounds, and only a minority of women, regardless of the participation rates, take part in shopping or similar activities. Second, generally, Rwandan women with access report consistently lower or similar participation rates, with the exclusion of subsistence farming in the last round. The main difference in participation rates is for collecting water, with women with access in Rwanda doing less than those without. Finally, in Ghana, we do not observe differences in time spent on unpaid work activities across the two groups; while, for subsistence farming and shopping, we observe that women with access report a lower share compared to those without access.

Paid work: Looking at the participation in paid work activities of women (**Table A10** in the Appendix), we present the participation rates by POWER project status and round of interviews? First, we find that in Bangladesh, those with access report greater involvement in agricultural activities compared to women without access; and employed/self-employed activity is the second most recurrent paid activity. In Rwanda, with the exception of the second round, women with access report higher participation rates in paid work compared to their counterparts. Finally, Ghanaian women with access consistently report higher participation rates in paid work activities, with employed/self-employed activities being the most recurrent.

Social, cultural and leisure activities: Moving the focus towards social, cultural and leisure activities (**Table A11** in the Appendix), we find that in Bangladesh, women participants with access report generally higher participation in social cultural and leisure activities compared to those without access. For Rwanda, there are no clear differences across women with access and those without, with the exception of mass-media activity. In Ghana, women with access report greater participation in practising hobbies.

Personal activities: Finally, participation rates for personal activities and its sub-activities (**Table A12** in the Appendix) reveal that there are no clear differences in participation rates across the groups with and without access to POWER time-saving interventions in Bangladesh and Rwanda, while Ghanaian women report a lower share performing learning activities.

20. Note that women who do not access POWER project time-saving interventions may be accessing governmental ones or may be replicating these types of interventions with their own investment, such as in the case of Bangladesh and the childcare centres implemented, or the cooking stoves in Ghana. Also, it is important to consider that women not accessing POWER project time-saving interventions may not need them, as explained in the previous section.

5. Women's time use

5.1. Trends

Focusing on the sample of women across the three countries, this section looks at time use across the macro categories, as defined in Section 3.

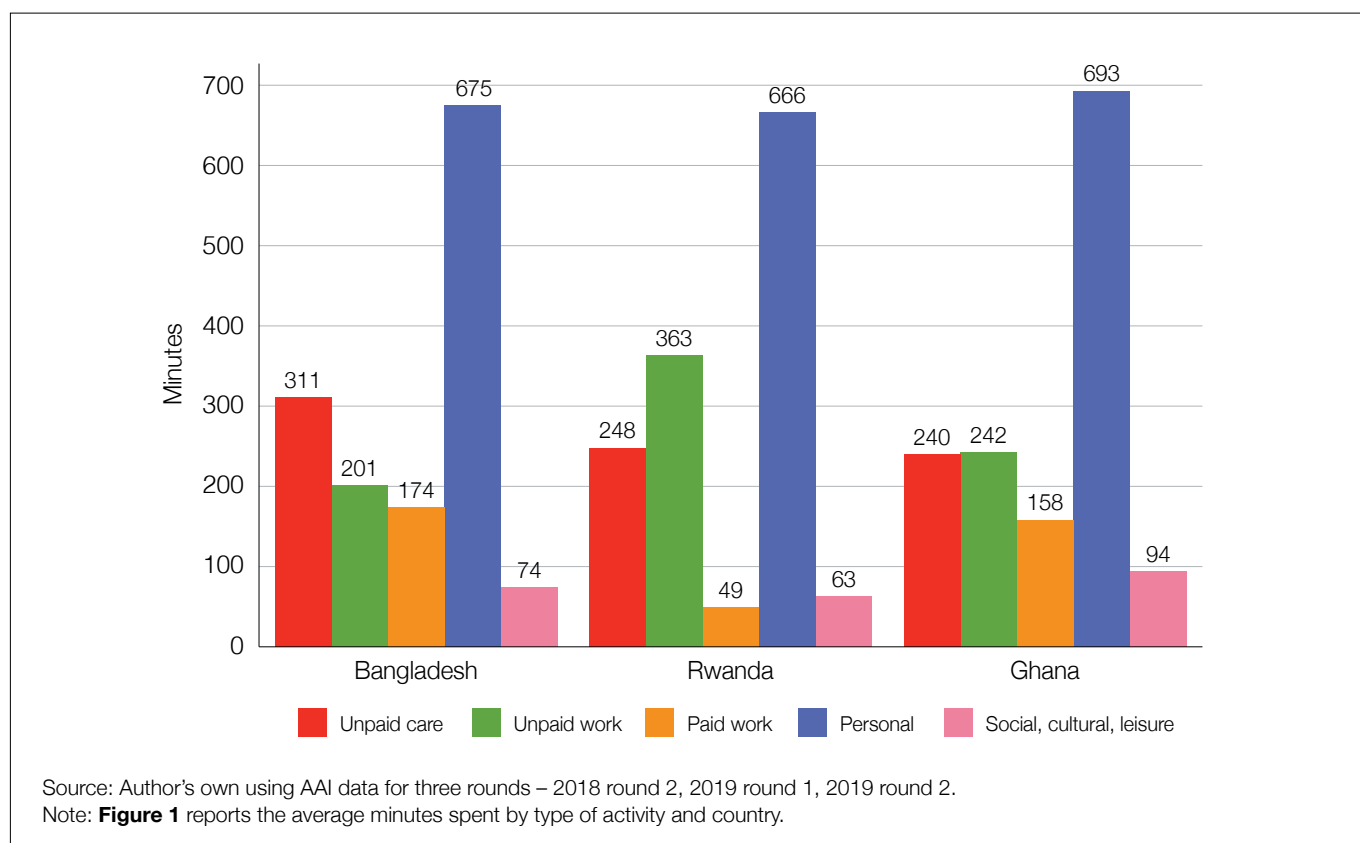
Figure 1 presents an aggregated picture – reporting the average time spent by women, by country and across all the three rounds.²¹ It is immediately clear that **women spend about five hours on average per day doing unpaid care and approximately the same time doing unpaid work**. In Ghana, time spent on unpaid care and unpaid work is comparable; in Rwanda, women appear to be doing much more unpaid work; while in Bangladesh, women report spending greater time on unpaid care.

We find that **women in Bangladesh spend, on average, five to six hours per day on unpaid care**; two to three hours per day on paid and unpaid work activities; and roughly one hour per day on social

activities. Interestingly, as the three rounds progress across the years, these women report to be spending about an hour less doing unpaid care and approximately 0.5 hours more on unpaid work and paid work. These patterns suggest an overall re-allocation of women's time across activities. We explore these overall patterns with disaggregated patterns of time use to identify potential drivers and implications in the next sections.

Next, we see that **Rwandan women on average, spend six to seven hours on unpaid work**, four hours doing unpaid care activities and only one hour on paid work and social activities. Similar to the sample of Bangladeshi women, we also detect an overall decline in time doing unpaid care (about 0.5 hours) across the years – but time on unpaid work also reduced by about 0.8 hours, while time doing paid work appears to have increased by 0.3 hours with a marginal decline between the first two rounds.

Figure 1: Average time per activity per day – only women, across Bangladesh, Rwanda and Ghana



21. **Table A 3** in the appendix provides the time spent by each round of the survey.

In **Ghana**, women spend, on average, three to four hours per day doing unpaid work and unpaid care, and roughly half of that time on paid work²² and one to two hours per day on social activities. However, at this aggregate level, the average time on unpaid care appears to have increased by about 0.5 hours. What stands out, however, is an across-the-board increase in time doing unpaid work by about 1.5 hours— while the time doing paid work declined by the same amount.

5.2. Tempograms – by activities and rounds

Next, we make use of ‘Tempograms’ to compare overall participation rates of women across different times of the day. **Figure 2** (page 23-25) reports the tempograms for Bangladesh, Rwanda and Ghana, respectively.

In **Bangladesh**, we note a bimodal distribution for women doing unpaid care activities, with very clear peaks in the morning hours from 07:30-08:00, and in the evening, 19:30-20:00. Most women are doing unpaid work activities early morning, after the peak in unpaid care from 10:00 onwards, and in the late afternoon until evening 16:00 to 20:00. The majority of women report doing paid work in the morning from 10:00-14:00, possibly reflecting part-time paid work, and very few women do paid work after 14:00. When we look across 2018-2019, some interesting patterns emerge – there is a shift in the peaks for unpaid care work, such that the proportion of women reporting to do most unpaid care has declined, and at the same time the proportion of women reporting doing paid work has increased. The patterns for unpaid work are also more evenly distributed by 2019 round 2. These patterns are corroborated by our qualitative interviews.

“I wake up around 4:30 am. Then I pray and clean my yard, care (for) livestock. Then I prepare breakfast for my family members. After taking breakfast, I start cooking for lunch. Then, I take care of children, going to school, helping them. Then, collecting firewood, rearing livestock, cleaning, washing dishes, bathing. Sometimes I take a rest in the mid-day. Then I go outside for tuition, it is 2 hours, helping students. Then, after finishing my tuition, I come back home and take care of livestock. Then I start cooking for dinner, care of poultry. A few times, I watch TV and finally, I pray and sleep at 10:30 pm. That is my daily work.”

(Woman facilitator, Bangladesh)

Interestingly, in **Rwanda**, we identify a trimodal distribution for women doing unpaid care activities, with the peaks early in the morning (06:00), lunchtime (13:00) and also in the evening (18:00). Several women are doing unpaid work activities, usually in the morning

(08:00) and in the afternoon (16:00), and social activities are concentrated in the evening. Also, we note no clear changes in participation rates for paid work, with very few women reporting to be doing paid work activities. Finally, across the three years, we do not observe significant changes in the patterns of activities throughout the day. The continuity of tasks throughout the day is reflected by our interviews:

I wake up by 5 am and go to fetch water very early in the morning because we don't have water nearby. And we go to fetch water very far away from where we live, we go by 5 and return by 9. After returning from fetching water, I can sweep the compound. After sweeping, I go to cultivate and I'm reaching by 10. After cultivating, I reach my home by 1:30 in the afternoon and then start cooking lunch. And along with cooking, there are other activities to be done. So, briefly, there is no time to rest. After cooking, I continue to look for livestock feeds. I can go to collect herbs to feed livestock, as well as collecting firewood.

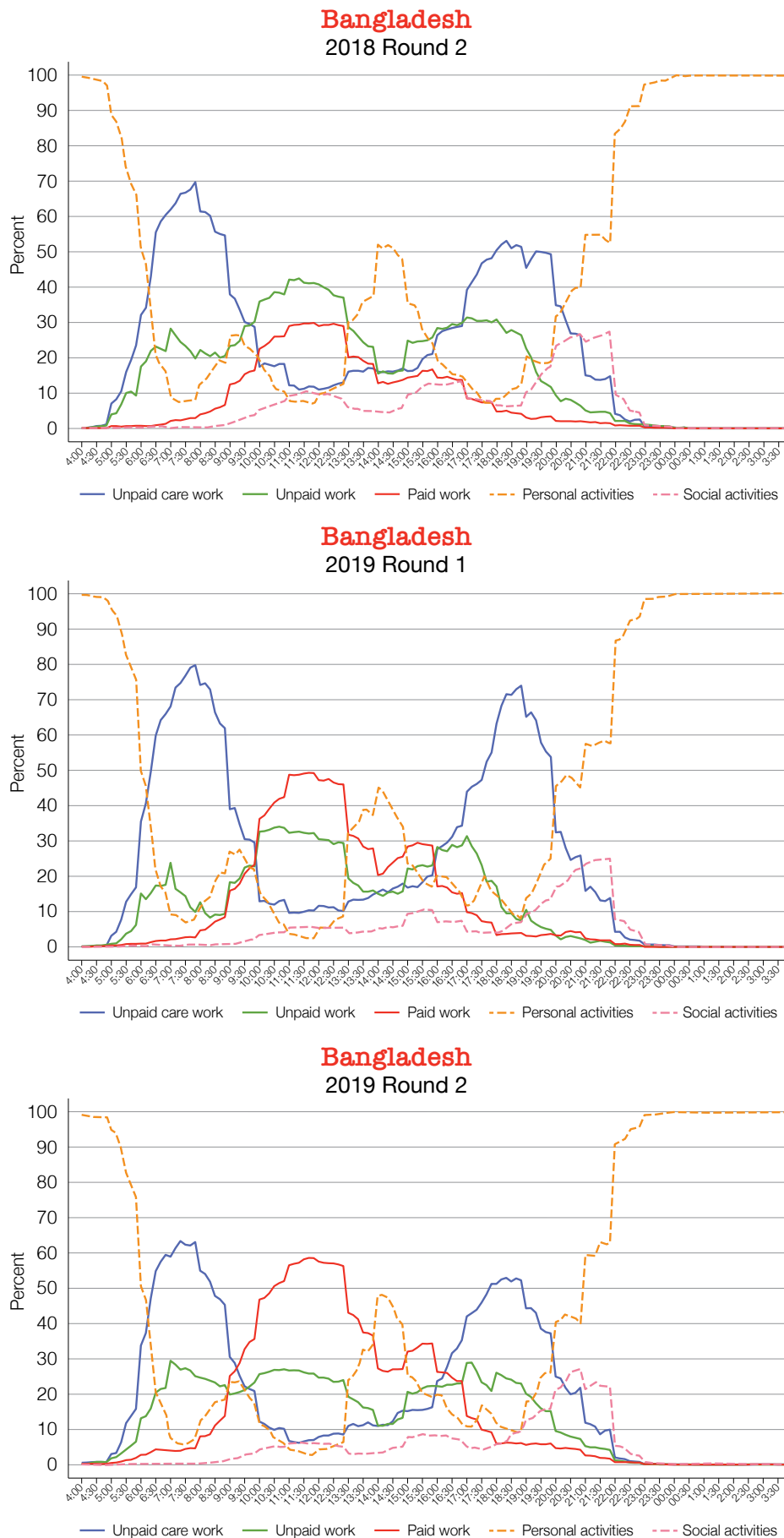
(Woman facilitator, Rwanda)

In **Ghana**, again, we find a bimodal distribution for women doing unpaid care activities, with peaks in the morning (06:00) and in the evening (18:00). Unpaid work activities are instead concentrated in the late morning (10:00) and in the afternoon (15:00). Most women are doing paid work activities starting in the morning (08:00) and finishing in the afternoon (15:00). Finally, most of the social activities are usually practiced in the evening (20:00). When we look across the three rounds, we observe a decrease in the amount of time spent on paid works and an increase in the time spent on unpaid work activities, particularly from 2018 Round 2 to 2019 Round 1. Again, the persistent nature of women's activities was a common feature across all the countries, including amongst Ghanaian women:

“I get up at 5. First, I need to pray and then I go for water. Then, I come and make fire. I take care of the children with the help of my husband, so the children can go to the school. Then, by 7:00 or 7:30, I leave (for) school. Then, through the school, we close at 2 pm. So when I come back, I go for water again, pick the children from school, come and cook. And if it is farming season, we do so, we farm. And if it is dry season, we do dry season garden. So, from the school you have to go to the garden. And when it is 4 – 5, then you go to cook again.”

(Woman facilitator, Ghana)

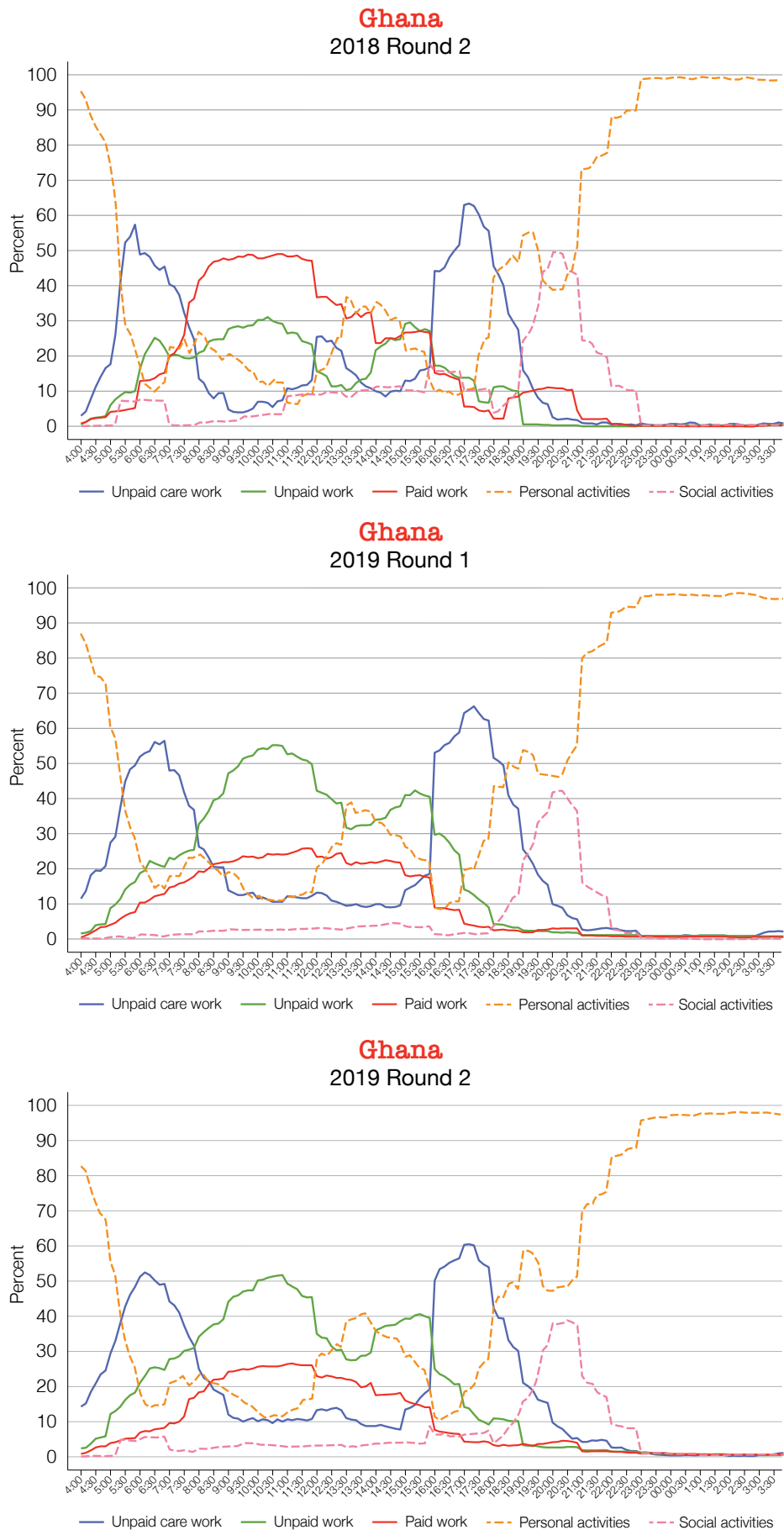
22. Except for the first round, where women reported slightly greater time on paid work.

Figure 2: Tempograms- Bangladesh

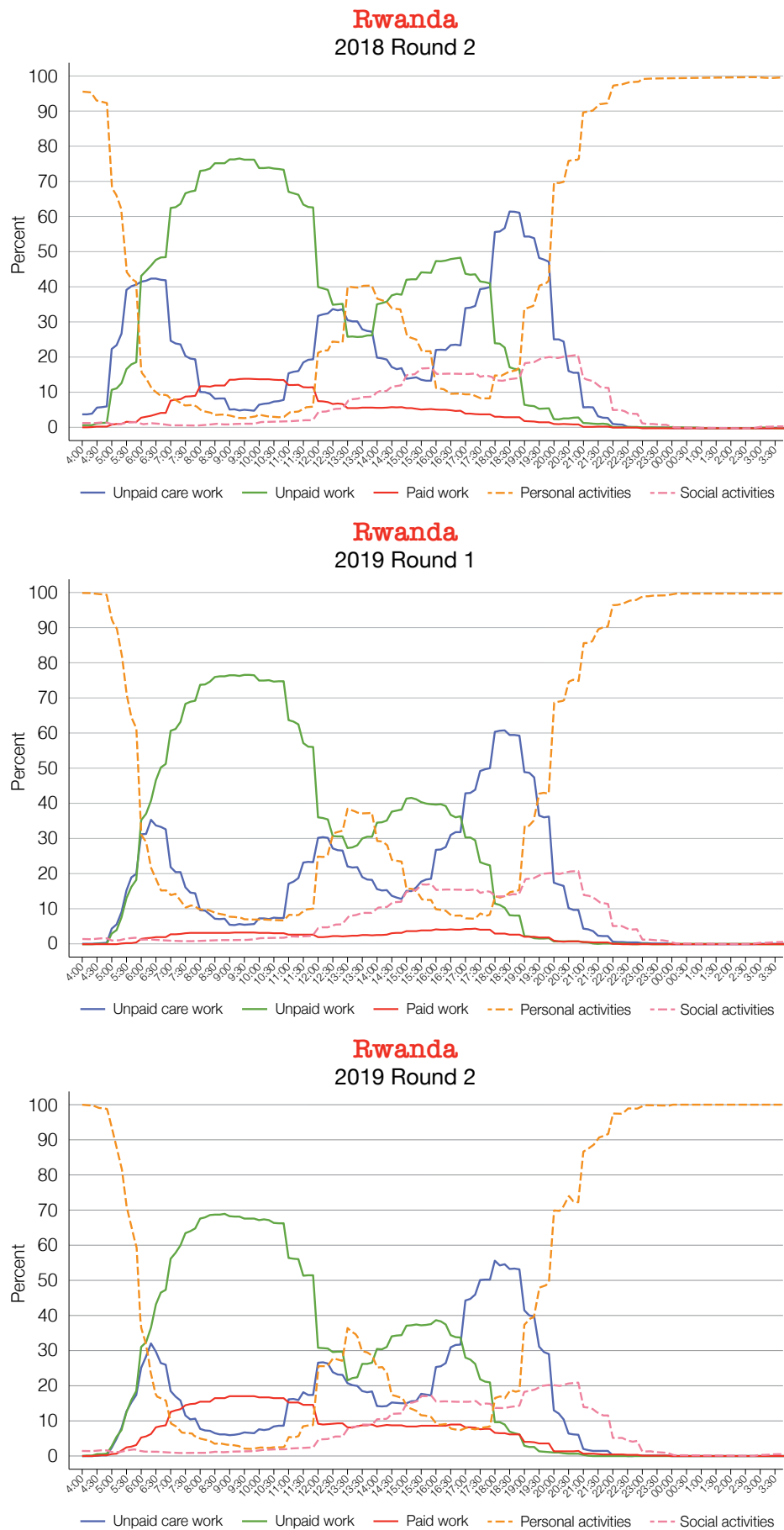
Source: Author's own using AAI data for three rounds – 2018 round 2, 2019 round 1, 2019 round 2.

Note: **Figure 2** reports the share of women performing activities throughout the day

Figure 2: Tempograms- Ghana



Source: Author's own using AAI data for three rounds – 2018 round 2, 2019 round 1, 2019 round 2.
 Note: **Figure 2** reports the share of women performing activities throughout the day

Figure 2: Tempograms- Rwanda

Source: Author's own using AAI data for three rounds – 2018 round 2, 2019 round 1, 2019 round 2.

Note: **Figure 2** reports the share of women performing activities throughout the day

5.3. Multitasking

We examined the extent of multitasking being done by **women across the countries. Overall, we find that women generally multitask throughout the day**, with peaks at different times in the morning, afternoon and evening showing how women’s multitasking is even more intense during these times. Using the sample of women respondents, we examined the number of distinct sub-activities reported by women across all countries and across the three rounds. We identified women that reported more than one sub-activity in any given time slot (1 hour) as multitasking. **Figure 3** below maps the share of women that multitask throughout the day.

BANGLADESH

In Bangladesh, a large majority of women were **multitasking in the early morning** (from 06:00 up to 10:00), and from the afternoon (14:00) **up to late evening** (22:00).

Sometimes I finish work in midnight, like washing dishes, cutting vegetables, and sometimes, cooking curry at night. So, next day in the morning, my work is low, and I can really do income-generating activities.

(Woman facilitator, Bangladesh)

Women are not worried about multitasking, especially when this is due to undertaking paid work. Throughout the years, we observe **a constant share of women multitasking** for the 2018 Round 2 and 2019 Round 2, with a marginal decrease in the share observed in 2019 Round 1 only (**Figure 3**).

It is good for me because being involved in multipurpose paid work, we earn money for families... so we don't worry about the multitasking... We want to be involved in other income-generating activities and more paid work for a bright future.

(Woman facilitator, Bangladesh)

Figure 3: Share of women that multitask – across countries

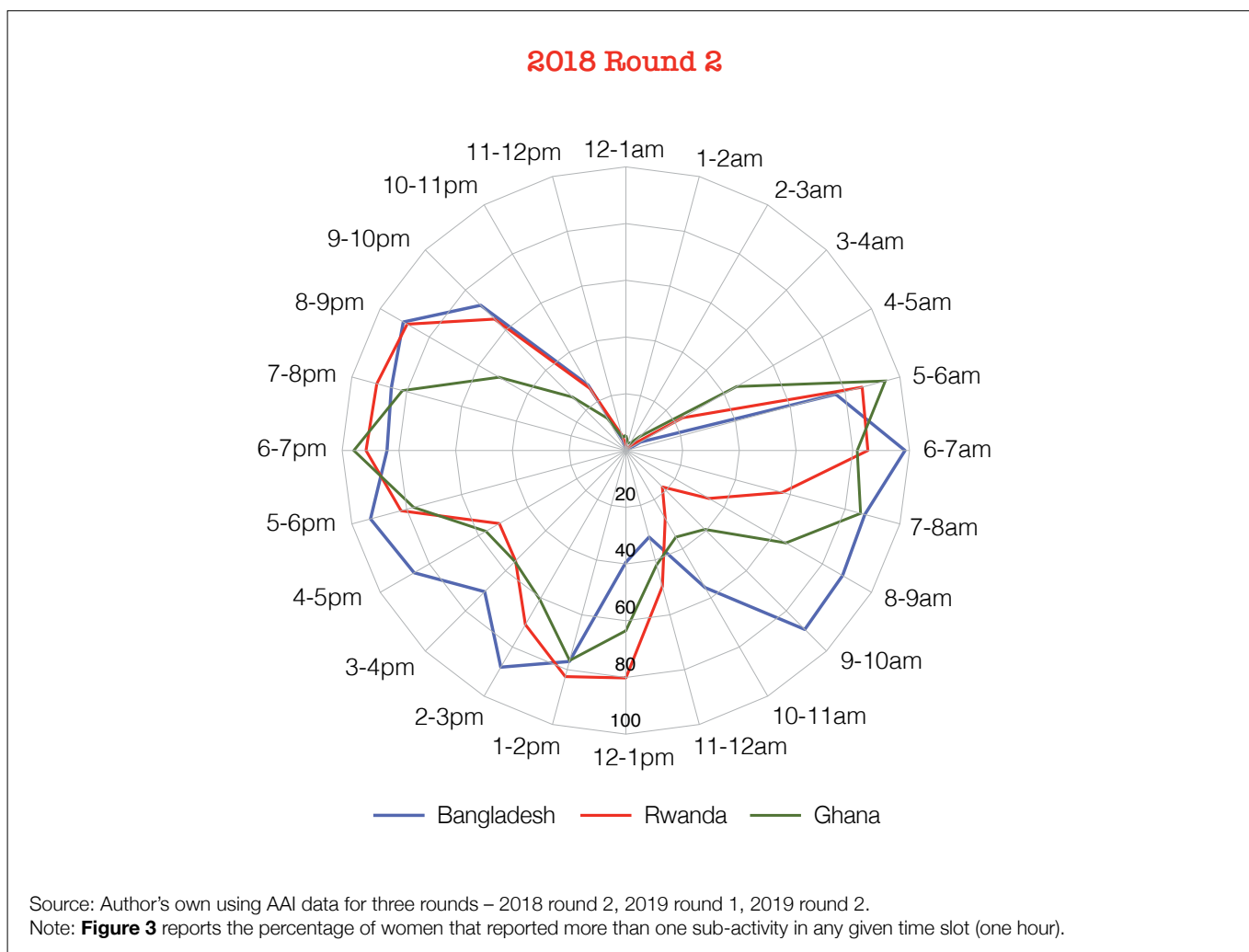
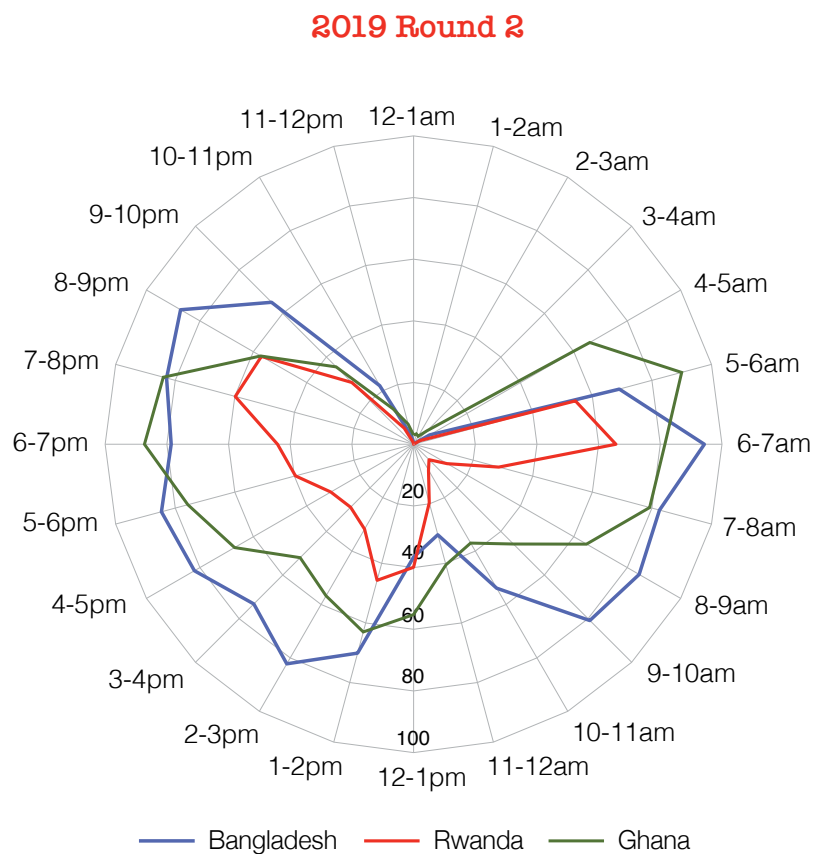
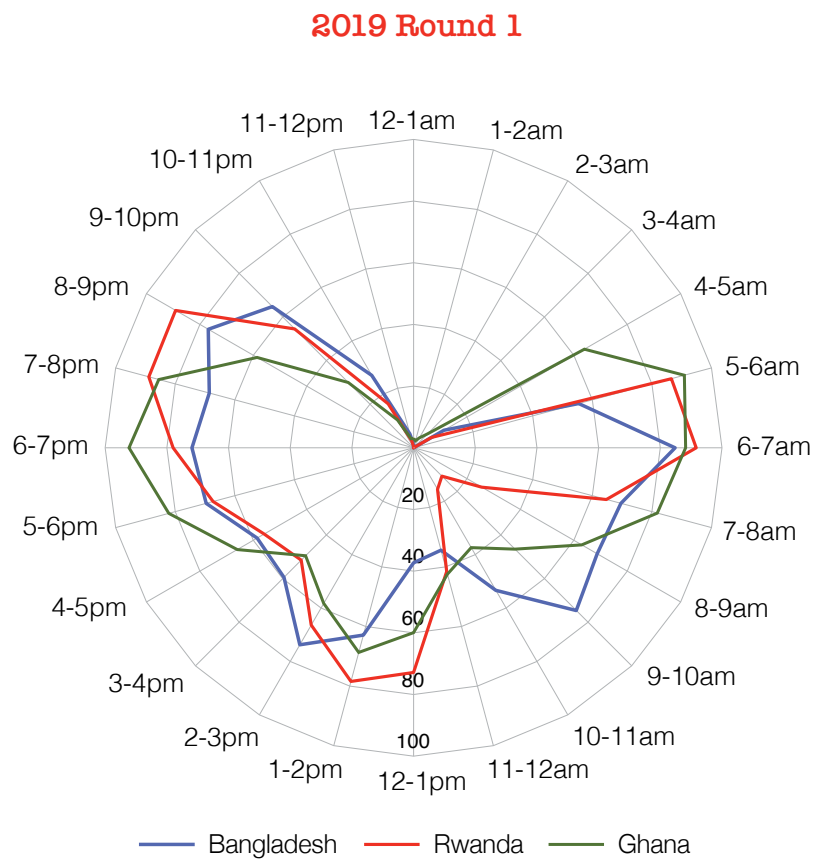


Figure 3: Share of women that multitask – across countries

Source: Author's own using AAI data for three rounds – 2018 round 2, 2019 round 1, 2019 round 2.

Note: **Figure 3** reports the percentage of women that reported more than one sub-activity in any given time slot (one hour).

It is difficult to make time for the leisure activities. It is difficult for them (women). But they realise that in order to improve their conditions, they have to take care of themselves and refresh, spending more time with neighbors and family.

(Project officer, Bangladesh)

Childcare is frequently done alongside various household chores, such as cooking, sweeping, washing clothes or going to fetch water. Women also look after children while doing unpaid work, like rearing livestock or doing subsistence farming, and paid work, particularly in their own small businesses, like provision stalls in their houses or processing food.

I take care of my children at the same time of other activities. I do multiple work with taking care of children. Like caring for children and cooking at the same time.

(Woman facilitator, Bangladesh)

Women take care of children alongside other activities, especially **if there are no other family members**, like mothers-in-law or husbands, who can help them in this task.

I get help to take care of children from mother-in-law or father in law, when I cook, but those who have no other family member or male member, they need to do other activities at the same time.

(Woman facilitator, Bangladesh)

RWANDA

In Rwanda, we observe that most of the women **multitask in the early morning** (from 05:00 until 07:00), during/around lunch time (from 12:00 until 14:00) **and a bit later in the evening** (from 19:00 to 21:00).

After lunch, I take care of my livestock, and my granddaughter helps me in the animal rearing. When you do something, your grandchild is learning from your feet, so by the time I am feeding my livestock, my granddaughter is also like, 'oh, grandma, let me help you'.

(Woman facilitator, Rwanda)

Although we observe a steep decrease in the share of women multitasking throughout the day across the three rounds, women still explain **multitasking as an important strategy to make everything fit in**, even if they get tired or mentally stressed. They also recognise that this is not good for their health or their children's health, or for ensuring the quality and productivity of their work, but this is the only way they find to manage multiple tasks. Interestingly, we also observe a constant

decrease in the share of women multitasking throughout the years (**Figure 3**).

Some women decide to carry their babies in their back and go to cultivate because there is no other option... And when it is time to breastfeed them, they stop cultivating and do it.

(Woman facilitator, Rwanda)

Childcare is very difficult because you just need to be in charge... You need to give her or him quality time, to make sure you are very close to him or her, and to make sure she or he is safe.

(Woman facilitator, Rwanda)

"Women are worried because we don't have enough time for our families. So, if you decide to go to do the paid work and you don't have enough time to clean your household, you don't have enough time to feed your children on time, they may end up having these diseases because you can't take care of them properly."

(Woman facilitator, Rwanda)

Across the districts, **women report different strategies for multitasking:**

"I combine different activities and do them at the same time. I go to fetch water and at the same time, I cook and clean. When I come back from fetching water, while I am cooking, I can sweep the floor. I try to do these activities and finish them at the same time. That is how I manage."

(Woman facilitator, Rwanda)

"I don't do everything as I am supposed to do. Because when combining so many activities, the production is lower. For instance, if the livestock is supposed to eat maybe two or three times a day, they can eat once a day or two times a day. So, I don't do everything in a proper way."

(Woman facilitator, Rwanda)

"What I basically find easy is sweeping and cleaning, because you can do those as well as doing other activities."

(Woman facilitator, Rwanda)

However, women stress that **childcare is a priority and highlight how difficult it is to combine childcare** with other types of work to maintain the quality of caring.

“They worry about health of the child because they do not grow in the way they need to grow. That’s why in some cases, children may end up having these diseases or lacking protein... When she wants to be breastfed, you have to immediately breastfeed her. When you are combining, it’s really hard to do everything on time.”

(Woman facilitator, Rwanda)

GHANA

In Ghana, we observe that **most of the women begin multitasking in the early morning** (from 05:00 until 07:00), in the afternoon (13:00) **and in the early evening** (from 18:00 to 20:00).

“One woman in my group, she gets up at 3:30 to start weaving her baskets. While she is weaving the baskets, she is cooking. Before she would finish the cooking, it is 6 or 7 o’clock in the morning. She does other activities before she gets to her farm. And she will come back and prepare dinner, she will finish to do other activities, and she will start the basket weaving again. She will go to bed at midnight because she has to make sure she will meet the market with her baskets.”

(Woman facilitator, Ghana)

“After waking up, they go to the farm, do the farming, and then cook. They are also tired. They will go to the farm, they will come, collect firewood and maybe they come and go to fetch water again to do the cooking. After the cooking, come and bath the children until everybody go to bed. They normally say the whole body is hurting them, they have body pains. And (the) farm is not very easy, it is very far from their house. Almost maybe 3 kms, 2 hours before you get to the farm. By the time you get to the house, you are very tired.”

(Woman facilitator, Ghana)

Almost all respondents during qualitative interviews **reported facing depletion risks** because of doing multiple paid, unpaid and unpaid care work, as well as not having enough time to sleep or nurturing themselves.

“I have to finish all the activities doing them late at night. That is why I am facing the challenge in the sleeping aspect.”

(Woman facilitator, Ghana)

Throughout the three rounds of the survey, we observe a constant decrease in the share of women multitasking (**Figure 3**). Although multitasking is difficult and exhausting, **there are some activities that Ghanaian women find easier to combine**, such as household

chores or care tasks with small businesses at home, like selling in their stalls or processing products. Across the districts, **women report different combinations of activities that they combine:**

“Maybe when you are cooking, enter inside the stall for selling, and then maybe I wash my clothes. Doing things at the same time is not easy for me.”

(Woman facilitator, Ghana)

“While some cooking, somebody would come in to buy. I have to sell for the person, I can’t say, ‘You come back, I’m cooking.’ When I finish, I come back to my customers. So, I arrange time to meet everything that I am supposed to do. Even if I’m using one minute, I can use one minute to do about two, three activities. Not one activity at a time.”

(Woman facilitator, Ghana)

Overall, we can observe the following patterns:

- Although multitasking is difficult and exhausting, **there are some activities that women find easier to combine**, such as the household chores or care tasks with small businesses at home like selling at a stall or processing products.
- In general, **women report that childcare is difficult and time-consuming work**. Childcare is frequently done alongside various household chores, such as cooking, sweeping, washing clothes or going to fetch water. But women also take care of children while doing unpaid work, like rearing livestock or doing subsistence farming, as well as paid work, particularly running own small businesses, like provision stalls in their houses or processing food.
- Women **take care of children along with other activities**, especially if there are no other family members, like mothers-in-law or husbands, who can help them in this task. However, women refer to childcare as a priority and highlight how difficult it is to combine it with other types of work, while maintaining a good quality of care.
- Women **manage to do all different tasks by getting up early and finishing all tasks very late**, resting after 11 pm. Almost all respondents refer to being exhausted because of doing multiple paid, unpaid and unpaid care work, as well as not having enough time to sleep or to nurture themselves.

6. Time use – women and men

This section examines differences in time-use across gender. We begin by presenting the average time spent across the macro activities, then we examine differences in time use based on statistical tests. **Figure 4** presents average time use for women and men across the three rounds. **Table A 14** in the Appendix presents the average time spent by women and men by country and across the three rounds. With the time use data, we also examine statistically significant differences between men and women in terms of time spent on each macro activity and related sub-activities (**Table A 15, Table A 16 and Table A 17** in the Appendix presents the time spent by sub-activities and round of interview).

As expected, we find **statistically significant differences in time use for unpaid care** activities across all countries in all rounds (99% confidence) i.e., there are statistically discernible differences in the time that women and men spend doing unpaid care activities. Among unpaid care activities, domestic work and cooking are the sub-activities in which the difference in time spent across gender is more pronounced. **Table 9** (page 31) presents the average time spent by males and females in unpaid care activities by round of interview and district.

Figure 4: Average time per activity – women and men, across Bangladesh, Rwanda and Ghana

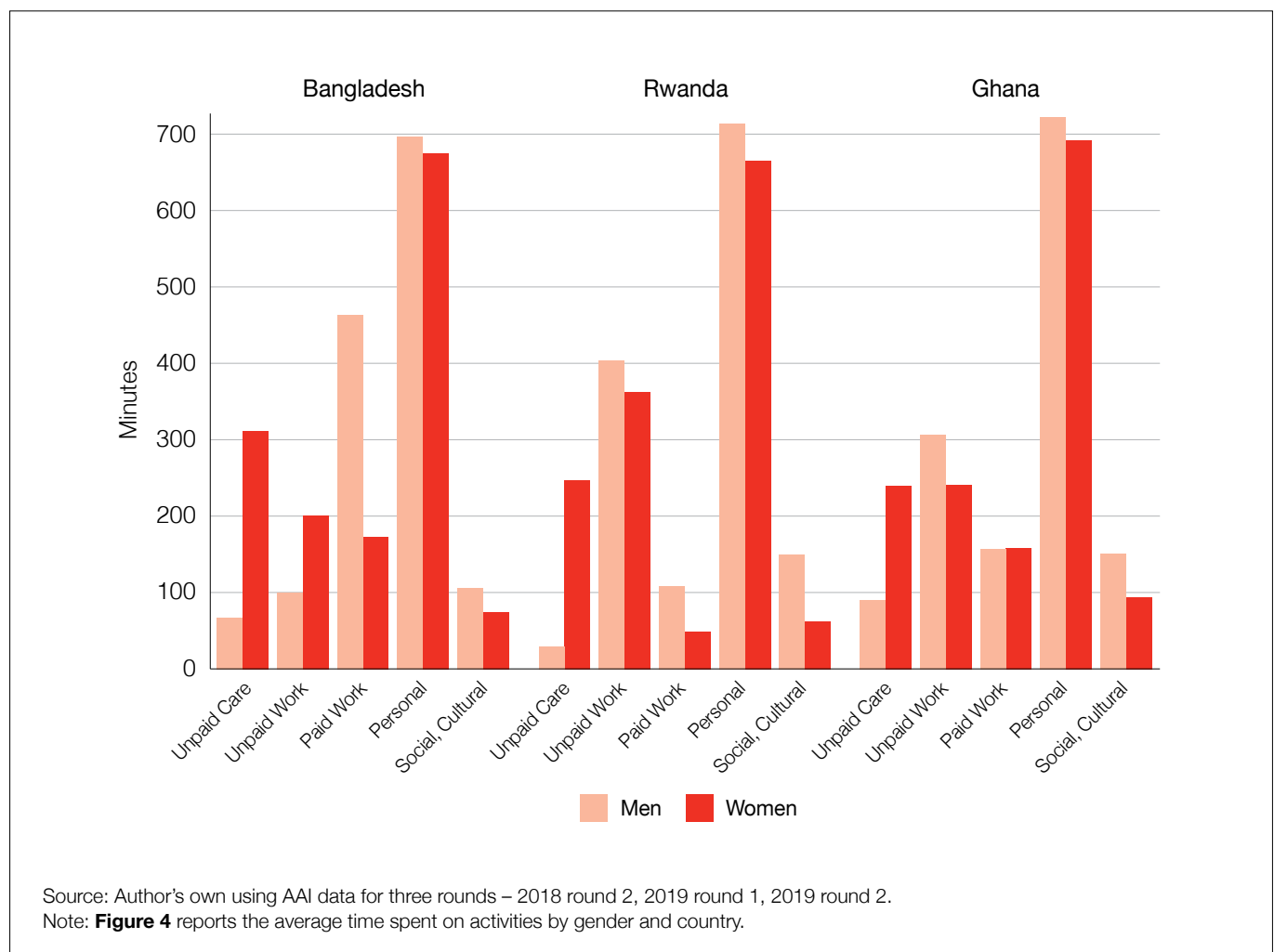


Table 9: Time on unpaid care by districts – women and men, by rounds and across countries (minutes)

Bangladesh									
	2018			2019a			2019b		
District	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All
Dinajpur				41.0 (63.0)	345.4 (125.7)	244.0 (180.4)	29.3 (47.8)	312.9 (118.8)	218.4 (167.8)
Gaibandha	91.3 (91.3)	340.0 (96.2)	298.5 (133.0)	87.9 (95.9)	308.8 (92.8)	272.0 (124.4)	104.2 (81.9)	306.0 (89.8)	272.4 (116.2)
Lalmonirhat	75.5 (65.6)	347.4 (73.3)	302.1 (124.4)	65.4 (79.8)	315.0 (120.0)	273.2 (147.4)	61.6 (61.3)	234.5 (86.3)	205.5 (104.8)
All	83.4 (79.5)	343.7 (85.5)	300.3 (128.7)	66.5 (83.4)	316.5 (110.4)	267.8 (144.8)	67.6 (72.5)	276.2 (99.6)	235.6 (125.9)
Rwanda									
	2018			2019a			2019b		
District	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All
Gisagara	47.6 (53.3)	268.8 (71.4)	234.6 (105.6)	21.8 (28.7)	226.0 (87.5)	198.7 (107.6)	21.6 (39.8)	204.9 (96.5)	177.0 (111.7)
Karongi	33.2 (23.0)	255.6 (73.3)	223.5 (104.1)	7.3 (11.5)	282.1 (88.1)	242.4 (126.8)	25.8 (52.5)	235.6 (108.4)	203.9 (126.7)
Musanze	63.6 (34.7)	252.2 (65.2)	224.9 (90.8)	25.8 (36.2)	258.5 (84.1)	224.9 (114.0)	35.4 (61.8)	228.7 (82.1)	198.1 (106.2)
Nyanza	24.6 (31.0)	257.4 (98.8)	224.6 (122.9)	12.6 (24.9)	270.3 (89.9)	234.1 (122.9)	16.7 (30.3)	248.0 (109.7)	217.4 (129.4)
Nyaruguru	15.8 (23.3)	262.3 (75.7)	232.8 (107.9)	51.7 (81.4)	228.4 (103.2)	207.2 (115.7)	20.0 (40.0)	214.8 (67.4)	192.6 (90.0)
All	39.2 (40.2)	259.7 (79.4)	228.0 (107.8)	19.9 (35.4)	254.0 (91.7)	221.7 (118.1)	23.9 (44.8)	227.6 (99.3)	198.1 (117.8)
Ghana									
	2018			2019a			2019b		
District	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All
Adaklu	32.0 (41.0)	178.3 (52.6)	135.3 (84.0)						
Asutifi South				33.3 (11.5)	248.0 (97.2)	236.7 (106.2)	60.0 (52.9)	270.9 (112.3)	259.8 (119.5)
Jirapa				92.5 (77.2)	221.0 (83.3)	167.1 (102.6)	50.0 (132.3)	224.8 (58.1)	209.3 (83.2)
Nabdam	93.5 (68.6)	246.3 (75.7)	192.4 (103.5)	11.3 (25.0)	228.9 (84.7)	154.2 (125.2)			
Nanumba North		110.0	110.0	178.2 (88.4)	225.0 (84.8)	207.2 (88.1)	134.7 (119.1)	251.8 (97.9)	228.1 (112.2)
Nanumba South	222.5 (144.8)	268.6 (145.9)	250.2 (139.2)	109.7 (57.6)	370.7 (187.4)	263.9 (196.4)	122.9 (165.1)	338.8 (131.8)	274.8 (172.7)
Tain	109.5 (36.1)	272.3 (74.6)	241.0 (94.3)	123.2 (53.6)	254.1 (80.3)	230.1 (91.3)	124.0 (95.3)	235.9 (103.4)	200.4 (113.4)
Talensi	47.3 (71.0)	160.8 (126.2)	125.7 (123.6)				54.9 (91.4)	153.0 (136.1)	122.1 (131.4)
All	78.6 (78.1)	216.1 (110.5)	175.2 (119.7)	86.8 (80.7)	255.3 (114.2)	204.7 (130.5)	106.2 (119.1)	246.1 (117.2)	213.8 (131.5)

Source: Author's own using AAI data for three rounds – 2018 round 2, 2019 round 1, 2019 round 2.

Note: **Table 9** reports the average time spent on unpaid care activities, by gender, country and district. Standard Deviation in parenthesis.

We find mixed results regarding paid work activities across the study areas. While in Bangladesh and Rwanda, men consistently report more time spent compared to women, with differences always statistically significant. In Ghana, we do not observe significant differences across genders. The findings are discussed by country below.

BANGLADESH

In Bangladesh, **men only spend, on average, one-fifth of the time spent by women on unpaid care work (Table A 14)**. Women spend the most time cooking – and this is significantly different from men. However, interestingly, this difference in time spent is decreasing over time, as also observed for the two most practiced sub-activities, domestic work and cooking, with all differences significant at 99% confidence interval (**Table A 15**). On the contrary, men spend almost three times more time on paid work activities. We do not observe substantial differences in terms of time spent on both personal and social activities.

Looking across various districts, we find constant differences in time use – in Gaibandha, men report the most time on average doing unpaid care work across all districts, and while women do the most unpaid care work in Dinajpur, men are doing the least (**Table 9**).

In Bangladesh, women engage more in unpaid work activities than men, but men are helping

Further, in Bangladesh, women engage in unpaid work activities more than men, with differences statistically significant at 99% confidence interval. In Bangladesh, we observe that women report more time than men on all activities but shopping, with all differences, except one, statistically significant at 99% confidence interval (**Table A 16**).

Men are perceived to be helping more (than at the very start of the project), as also reported by most of the women (95%) declaring receiving help with household chores (**Table 7**), although the decision about unpaid care remains with women.

“Husband supports collecting water, firewood, and children support the cooking and the sewing machine... Most of the decisions are taken together, but regular household work, I make the decision.”

(Woman facilitator, Bangladesh)

“When I work out of my house, my husband or my elder son take the decisions. If they have some problems, they contact me, and I take the decision. And I say to them, ‘You have to do this.’ I give instructions to them, but only if they have some problems.”

(Woman facilitator, Bangladesh)

Unpaid care is seen as the main responsibility of women and girls, but there are changes

Testimonies among participants in Bangladesh support the findings from the quantitative analysis. Unpaid care is seen as the main responsibility of women and girls, including those females that are part of the extended family, and men are forbidden or discouraged from this type of work.

“Woman is the responsible of the housework, and it is difficult in our social aspect that my husband and sons are helping with the cattle management, cooking, washing clothes.”

(Woman facilitator, Bangladesh)

“The outdoor activities, like straw collection or grass collection from community or from local market, are performed by men. But in the household level, this is performed by women.”

(Project officer, Bangladesh)

However, women in Bangladesh refer to how there has been a change in how family members and the community value unpaid care work and women’s role in society. Sensitisation meetings with spouses and the engagement with local and religious leaders explain this change.

“Now, with spouse meetings and other sensitisation meetings in these areas, community leaders and elite persons have joined these activities and are practicing household work. Now they accept to do this kind of support.”

(Woman facilitator, Bangladesh)

“When discussed with the community and explained the unpaid care work, men are coming to these discussions. It is not the perceptions of other, it is seen by them. Women perform all activities.”

(Project officer, Bangladesh)

Others explain the increased time of men doing unpaid care because of the necessity of women to get involved in paid work to generate additional income to the household.

“They (women) will prioritize the paid work now. And men also support them to get more income because school expenses are more expensive... So, they (women) do less unpaid care work and men are helping them.”

(Project officer, Bangladesh)

“My husband and sons are helping with the cattle management, cooking, washing clothes. That’s why I am able to do outside work. Both are hard for me. If my husband and boys wouldn’t help me, I wouldn’t manage to do the paid work.”

(Woman facilitator, Bangladesh)

Social norms still present challenges

Even with the increased awareness of the importance of women getting involved in the paid work, social norms around women’s role are still prevalent in Bangladeshi society and the communities where the POWER project works. These norms determine not only where women work, but also structure the returns that they get from this paid work.

“This was not very easy for me at the beginning as my family was not very much eager with me going outside and they having to participate in the housework.”

(Woman facilitator, Bangladesh)

“Women don’t always get the right wages, because... society thinks that women do not work hard, so they have different wages, not same of men.”

(Woman facilitator, Bangladesh)

Men engage the most in paid work activities but women face challenges

Men spend more than twice the amount of time on paid work activities compared to women, with differences that are statistically significant at 99% confidence interval. Looking at the sub-activities, men always report more time on all types of paid work activities, with only few differences that are not or are weakly statistically significant (**Table A 17**). Bangladeshi women also pointed out the various challenges because of social norms that they face in their paid work.

“In local market, there is not a separate part where women can put their things or sell things there. And it is very difficult to access to market for women... If you think in our local market, there is no separate toilet system, or washrooms separate for women... Also, we are not getting the real price of products in the market.”

(Woman facilitator, Bangladesh)

“Many people believe that women are not physically strong, so they receive less money compared with men. It is a challenge.”

(Project officer, Bangladesh)

The differences found in men’s roles in unpaid care work might be explained by the longevity of the project in each district. In Dinajpur, where men were doing the least amount of unpaid care, the project had been operating for only a short period of time. In Gaibandha, where the project had been operating for much longer, men report greater time doing unpaid care work as compared to other districts.

“They (men) also understand that when female members are involved in different income -generating activities, the family income also will increase. In this region, male members help in the unpaid care work.”

(Woman facilitator, Bangladesh)

RWANDA

In Rwanda, the **difference in time spent on unpaid work activities across genders is strongly statistically significant in 2019 Round 1 only**, and men spend more time than women on those activities (**Table A 16**). Looking at the sub-activities, we consistently observe statistically significant differences in terms of time spent on shopping, with women reporting more time than men, and animal rearing, an activity that is predominantly performed by men. Furthermore, men report a higher amount of time spent on personal activities and on social, cultural and leisure activities compared to women (**Figure A 1**).

Rwandan men reported little amount of time spent on unpaid care activities, but women report changes

Men report very little amount of time spent on unpaid care activities, with women reporting, on average, more than four hours per day (**Table A 15**). Across all districts, the difference between time spent by men and women is fairly similar, and no specific district stands out, with women reporting up to 15 times more minutes dedicated to unpaid care activities compared to men in Karongi and Nyanza (**Table 9**). Furthermore, the significance and the magnitude of the differences in time spent on domestic work and cooking indicate that those sub-activities as predominantly performed by women.

Interestingly, over time, Rwandan women report that men have started helping with tasks:

“Men have started helping their wives as doing some household activities has become easier for the family. Now men can fetch water because the water is near to the house. Now men can help their wives to cook as cooking has become easy. The redistribution has started in the communities because of those interventions.”

(Project officer, Rwanda)

“I have discussed with my husband by showing him the way our family is affected by the unpaid care work, so we decided together what we could do to address such challenge. He started to take his time and seriously helped me in home care works and, step by step, we realised the home income increased.”

(Woman, Rwanda, case study)

Unpaid care has not been perceived as ‘work’ – but this is changing

Also, in the case of Rwanda, qualitative findings support data from the quantitative analysis and explain drivers of change. Unpaid care is not perceived as ‘work’ and it remains the responsibility of women and girls.

“A husband and wife can go and cultivate together. And when they return from cultivating, a man come and just sit down and relax. Then the woman does everything at home just by herself, and the man is just waiting for food to be ready and then to eat.”

(Woman facilitator, Rwanda)

“As a woman I do domestic work. And it’s quite hard for me. If someone comes and asks you ‘what have you been doing the whole day?’ You can’t even be sure of what you did, but you have done so many things, domestic work. So, that is why they call it unpaid care work.”

(Woman facilitator, Rwanda)

Traditionally, men are not allowed to do this type of work, particularly taking care of children.

“It is a common saying, in Rwanda, when you have a child, she poos some way, if you go very far away, your husband waits for you to clean the poo. So, cleaning the children, preparing the cooking, those are considered just women’s work.”

(Woman facilitator, Rwanda)

“Generally, they can pay someone, either male or female, to do this care work. It doesn’t matter they are male or female... But childcare is another case. Just female would take care of the kids. “

(Woman facilitator, Rwanda)

The project has also promoted recognition of unpaid care, affected changes in social norms around women’s paid work and attempted to tackle gender discrimination in places such as markets. As a result of the project

interventions, households and communities reported that they are now more likely to include women in their decision-making processes, and women themselves feel more confident.

“There were communities where women menstruating cannot go to the markets, which is going to affect the level of sells they would have, as an income-earning activity. But with advocacy, we were able to abolish all these practices to ensure that women, their mobility has improved.”

(ActionAid staff, Rwanda)

“Because of this project in ActionAid, we are now capable and able. Before we weren’t confident, we grow up thinking, ‘Ladies are just for cooking, for homework, domestic activities.’ But with this project, we do something now. And we’ve been changing our mindsets. And our mentalities have changed due to this project.”

(Woman facilitator, Rwanda)

Women are responsible for all decisions in relation to unpaid care work

However, as in the case of Bangladesh, women in Rwanda are the ones responsible for providing unpaid care, deciding in advance how to manage and distribute the work.

“If I get any job opportunity, I make sure that I organise everything the previous day. So, it can be one of my children that continues with the rest of the care work.”

(Woman facilitator, Rwanda)

“If you live with your partner and you don’t have any argument, your partner can help as long as you are not around, and when you come back, you can do those activities that haven’t been finished yet. Also, it depends on how old your children are. If you have your children, they are cooking, cleaning and sharing your unpaid care work.”

(Woman facilitator, Rwanda)

Some women explain how they need to pay someone to collect firewood, grasses for the livestock or to fetch water. This happens in the case of women who do not get support from their family members and also in the case of widows. In Rwanda, the collection of firewood is particularly difficult because it is restricted in some areas to protect natural resources, so women pay to get what they need.

“Sometimes I pay someone who collects these grasses for the livestock. Especially in the summer because finding grass is very challenging.”

(Woman facilitator, Rwanda)

“We do not collect firewood because it is restricted, it is prohibited. So other people just collect this firewood. Then, I can buy firewood from these people who sell firewood in my community.”

(Woman facilitator, Rwanda)

Paying for domestic work is also common in Nyanza, where the project is implemented near the urban area.

“Frankly speaking, I find difficult this unpaid care work and what I find easy is the paid work, because when you earn money, you can employ someone to do the unpaid care work.”

(Woman facilitator, Rwanda)

“The majority are helped by their children and sometimes by their husband, but mostly children. But in the cities, you can have a maid because it is not a big deal here in Rwanda.”

(ActionAid staff, Rwanda)

Women mention they are NOW starting to receive help for doing unpaid care work

Most women mention that now they are starting to receive help for doing unpaid care work, mainly from their husbands and children who are more than ten years old. This happens mostly when women are not able to cope with every task or when women are out of the house for paid work or social visits.

“Others live with their husbands and due to this project and due to the filling of the time diary, they (husbands) come to understand the role of redistributing the care work. So, those husbands can help some of the women. Also, some who have grown-up children can redistribute the care work as well.”

“For other members of the group, if their children are young, above 10 or something, they can stay at home and replace them, so they (children) can do the unpaid care work you are supposed to do, and you can sell in markets. My youngest is 10 years old. With 10 years old, you can go to fetch water, you can do some home or domestic work.”

(Woman facilitator, Rwanda)

The help women are receiving from husbands and boys in unpaid care tasks can be explained by the training they received from the project staff and the work that the women’s group themselves have developed to sensitise the community leaders.

“Even in my community, they learn from our household, because my husband, he doesn’t mind. But this is from the training we have been receiving from this project. Because in this project, they took time to take the men and train them on how to share and redistribute this unpaid care work.”

(Woman facilitator, Rwanda)

“Because of this training from ActionAid, our spouses or our husbands, some understand the redistribution of the unpaid care work, so some husbands can help.”

(Woman facilitator, Rwanda)

Men in Rwanda spent more time than women on paid activities, but now women are able to engage

Men spend more time than women on paid activities – including employed or self-employed activities – across all rounds of interviews, with differences that are statistically significant at 99% confidence interval. However, we observe limited differences across genders regarding agricultural work and commuting activities.

Women refer that they are doing more paid work as a result of men being involved in the unpaid care work, although this seems to be restricted to the communities where the project has been implemented.

“Apart from those who can just hear from them or just people who are participants or members of this projects, others do not understand, or they do not recognise.”

(Woman facilitator, Rwanda)

“In my community, people really do not recognise this unpaid care work apart from the members of my group. Even before joining ActionAid, we wouldn’t value or recognise this. Because you can stay at work doing everything, then someone who goes to cultivate and comes back, can ask you, ‘What have you been doing the whole day? I can’t see anything that you’ve been doing.’ And you feel so tired and exhausted. Many people do not really value or recognise in my community.”

(Woman facilitator, Rwanda)

GHANA

In Ghana, women spend more than double the time on unpaid care activities compared to men and report, on average, nearly four hours per day (**Table A 14**). Ghanaian women report, on average, two hours more than men on unpaid care activities, with the results significant at 99% confidence interval (**Table A 15**). This reflects existing norms:

“The men are saying due to culture, they are not supposed to help their women, so when they are found doing it, it is a crime, it is a taboo at the community level. They used to tell us that they can’t do our work. If they would do it, they would become ladies. “

(Woman facilitator, Ghana).

Men report a higher amount of time spent on unpaid work activities (**Table A 14**), with differences strongly statistically significant throughout all rounds (**Table A 16**). Among the statistically significant differences among the sub-activities, we also observe that women take care of collecting water while men usually spend time on animal rearing. Over time, there has been a marginal increase in men doing unpaid care work in the districts of Tain and Talensi (**Table 9**), which can be explained by sensitisation based on POWER project activities:

“Through POWER project my husband has come in to help me with the household activities. That has reduced drastically so I also get chance to do other activities to get income for us... It is through the trainings that we have, we go back to sensitise and sometimes we did drama for the men to come and see...”

(Woman facilitator, Ghana)

Among the sub-activities, the difference across genders in time on domestic work, although statistically significant, is well below one hour, contrary to the difference on time spent on cooking, where the difference across genders is above one hour. Finally, men spend, on average, almost the same time as women on personal activities and more time on social cultural, and leisure activities (**Figure A 1**).

Women spend more time on unpaid care, but men have started contributing in some districts

Women spend more time on unpaid care than men across all districts (Table 9). But there are substantial geographical differences, with some districts (Asutifi South and Nabdam) reporting larger differences in time spent across gender. The qualitative findings also support the quantitative analysis:

‘Their work is not a work’. So, if they went somewhere and were asked, ‘Is your wife working?’ they’d say, ‘No, she is just in the house’.

(Woman facilitator, Ghana)

“When you pay for the bride price, [the commonly held view is that] this woman is supposed to do all the household work because you have paid.”

(ActionAid staff, Ghana)

“Following ActionAid’s campaign on unpaid care work, my husband has also become more supportive and helpful at home, engaging in the house chores by washing dishes and taking care of our children when I am on the farm.”

(Woman, Ghana, case study)

Traditionally, men are not allowed to do this type of work, particularly taking care of children. In Ghana, for instance, men doing household chores is perceived as a taboo or even as a crime.

(Woman facilitator, Ghana)

“Previously, it was assumed that to be called a man, you should be separated from what is described as women’s work. So, if you want to be known as a man, a strong man or a real man, you shouldn’t be seen in the kitchen, like you have no business in the kitchen.”

(ActionAid staff, Ghana)

Men have also started helping with those unpaid care work tasks that are mainly done outside the house, like collecting firewood, fetching water or collecting feed for animals. If the women are not physically present in the household, they can sometimes cook or take care of the children, as also observed in the increase in time spent by men in cooking overtime (**Table A 15**).

“When husband comes from farm, he brings the firewood for cooking. When I am busy or when I am taking care of the small girl, my husband will cook. The husband goes to the farm, and when he is coming back, he brings the feed for the animals.”

(Woman facilitator, Ghana)

In general, women shared that husbands and children replace them if they feel unwell or are out of the house for paid work or social activities. Although still, women are the ones who decide in advance how to manage and distribute these care tasks.

“When I know I am not going to be around for this week, we have to decide all the activities throughout the day or the week before I leave. They take care of that while are waiting for me to come. Sometimes when I travel, I leave them (the children) with my mother-in-law and my husband. In fact, they will be calling about this child, this, that...”

(Woman facilitator, Ghana)

Children, mainly girls, also help with domestic chores. Some boys help with unpaid work such as farming. Children taking part in unpaid work results in problems regarding their learning and right to education.

“When they (children) are overworked and they come to school, they are tired... especially those who don't sleep early... especially during the farming time. The boys, you know, they farm. They farm a lot more than the women. Sometimes, they get tired. When the girls are allowed to work too much, it affects them, especially in the classroom. Some of them would be sitting restless... because they are tired. They have done a lot before coming to school.”

(Woman facilitator, Ghana)

Women report changes in how unpaid care is being valued

However, women refer to how there has been a change in how family members and the community value the unpaid care work and women's role in society.

“Now that we are educated, it is not affecting them (women and men). But previously, it was like that, because they (men) thought they bought you with the dowry, so you must do everything.”

(Woman facilitator, Ghana)

Most women mention that now they receive help for doing unpaid care tasks, mainly from their husbands, children and mother-in-laws in taking care of children. This happens mostly when they are not able to cope with everything or when they are going to be out for paid work or social visits.

“We live with our extended family, so those you can't do, you can assign to some of the members to come in and help you in those activities for you. If I am doing something in the house and there is no firewood, the children need to go for firewood because it is not in the house.”

(Woman facilitator, Ghana)

The help from husbands and boys is explained by the trainings they received from the POWER project and the work that the women's group themselves have done to sensitise the community leaders. Change is also explained by the project's alliance with some important male characters in the community, like the chief or traditional religious leaders.

“The community has changed. Now if you come to my community, you see men carrying water, unlike first. So, the whole community has changed.”

(Woman facilitator, Ghana)

“We have even given them a chart. There is a chart where a woman is backing a baby. Then all the arrows were saying where the woman was going. Going for water, bathing children, taking children to school. So, we asked them to select one thing that at the end of the day the woman hasn't done. They couldn't! ... So now they are helping a lot, unlike first.”

(Woman facilitator, Ghana)

Differences in engagement in paid work for women and men

In Ghana, we do not find any statistically significant differences across gender in terms of overall time of paid work activities (**Table A 14**). Among the few statistically significant differences, we observe in 2018, round 1 and 2019, round 1 that women spend more time in an employed type of paid activities while men spend more time in agricultural activities (**Table A 17**). Women's engagement in social activities, decision making or paid work, is restricted because of social norms. The perception is that women doing these types of activities are challenging the social order.

“Meetings, they wouldn't allow you to go. They always said that we were trying to overcome them... They thought, when you go out and earn some money, you overcome them. When there was something going on in the house, me, being a lady, I would not be allowed to sit and listen to what is happening.”

(Woman facilitator, Ghana)

All respondents recognise that the project has contributed to changing social norms. Now, households and communities report that they are more likely to include women in their decision-making processes, and women themselves feel more confident.

“Anytime that they (extended family) are doing something, they would say, the women. Any time we contribute to deciding anything in the house, they see it goes better than if they are deciding alone. So now, they involve us in decision-making.”

“They are helping us. The community helps us. Any time women are talking, they listen. And we are able to talk to them... Even in the chief palace, women didn't use to go, but now the chief would invite the delegates of the group to take part.”

(Woman facilitator, Ghana)

Women refer that they are doing more paid work as the result of men being involved in the unpaid care work, although this seems to be something restricted to the communities where the project has been implemented.

“It is not common. Even my own village is not common. Only my community that has been sensitized about this... Our women are having access to other activities, especially the paid work, because their husbands have come into help them.”

(Women facilitator, Ghana)

7. Access to power time-saving interventions

We continue our analysis by restricting the sample to women only and considering whether access to POWER project time-saving interventions has made a difference to their time distribution. **Table A 18** in the Appendix presents the average time spent on unpaid care by access and non-access in specific unpaid care activities, by round of interview and district.

Figure 5 presents time use for women with and without access to time-saving POWER project interventions, by country and across the three rounds (details in **Table A 19**,²³ **Figure A 1** in the Appendix presents differences in average time spent across activities, by rounds and access; **Table A 20**, **Table A 21** and **Table A 23** in the Appendix report time use by sub-activities and by round of interview).

Across the three countries, women report how the interventions have **saved time used in certain activities** such as fetching water, collecting firewood

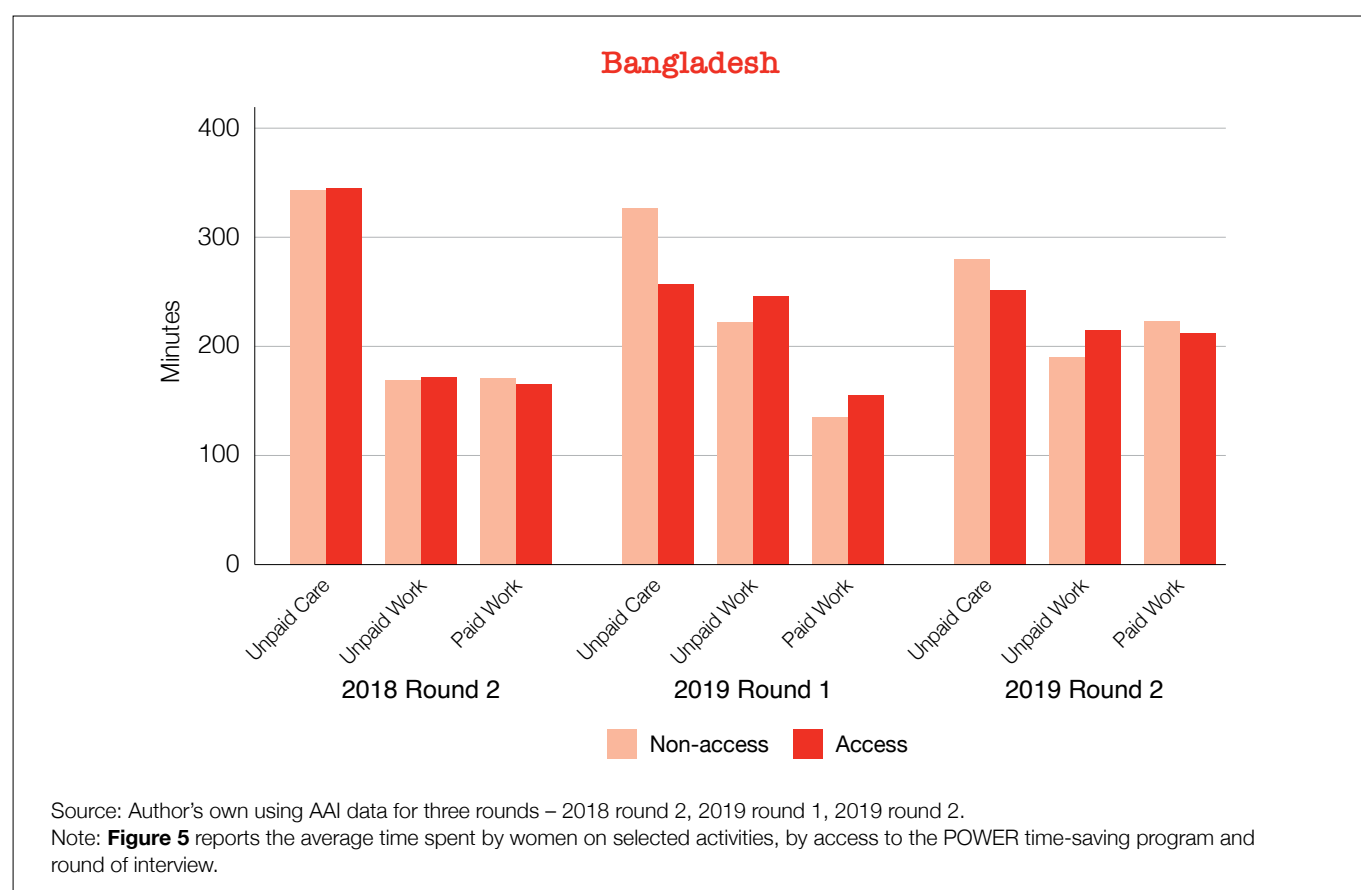
and cooking. In addition, there have been positive effects beyond time use, such as reduced amount of firewood used to cook and, as a result, reduced smoke inhalation.

With women's time use data, we examine statistically significant differences in terms of time spent on each macro category and related activities for those with access and those without access to POWER time-saving interventions. **Figure 6** reports the differences as an average across all rounds and by work type. The results are discussed by country in the sections below.

7.1. Bangladesh

In Bangladesh, across all rounds, we find that women with access to POWER time-saving interventions report, on average, less time doing unpaid care activities compared to those with no access, with an observed difference (30 minutes) that is statistically significant.

Figure 5: Women's time use – by access and non-access to power time-saving interventions



23. Women with access or no access to POWER time-saving interventions may have access to other similar interventions.

Figure 5: Women's time use – by access and non-access to power time-saving interventions

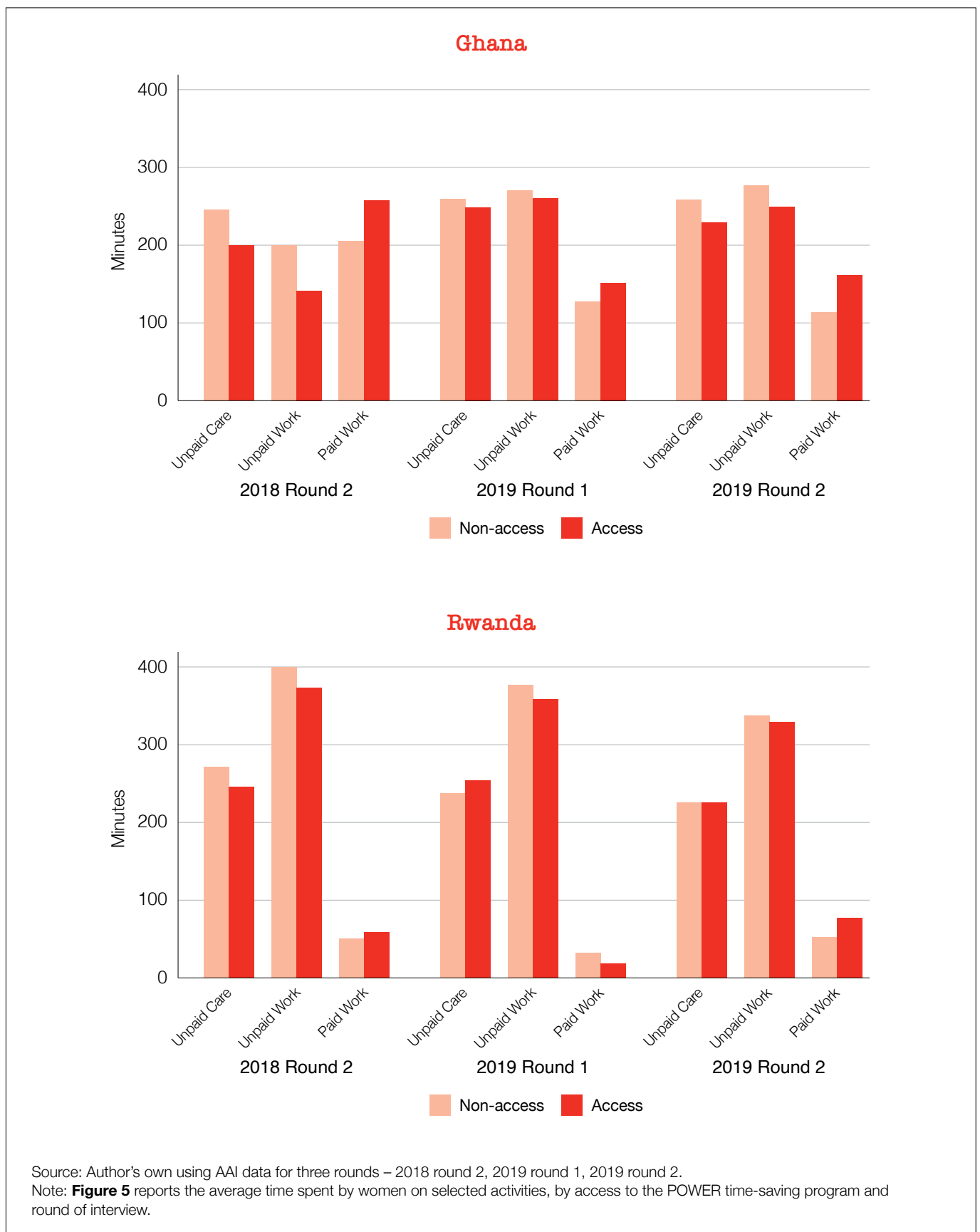
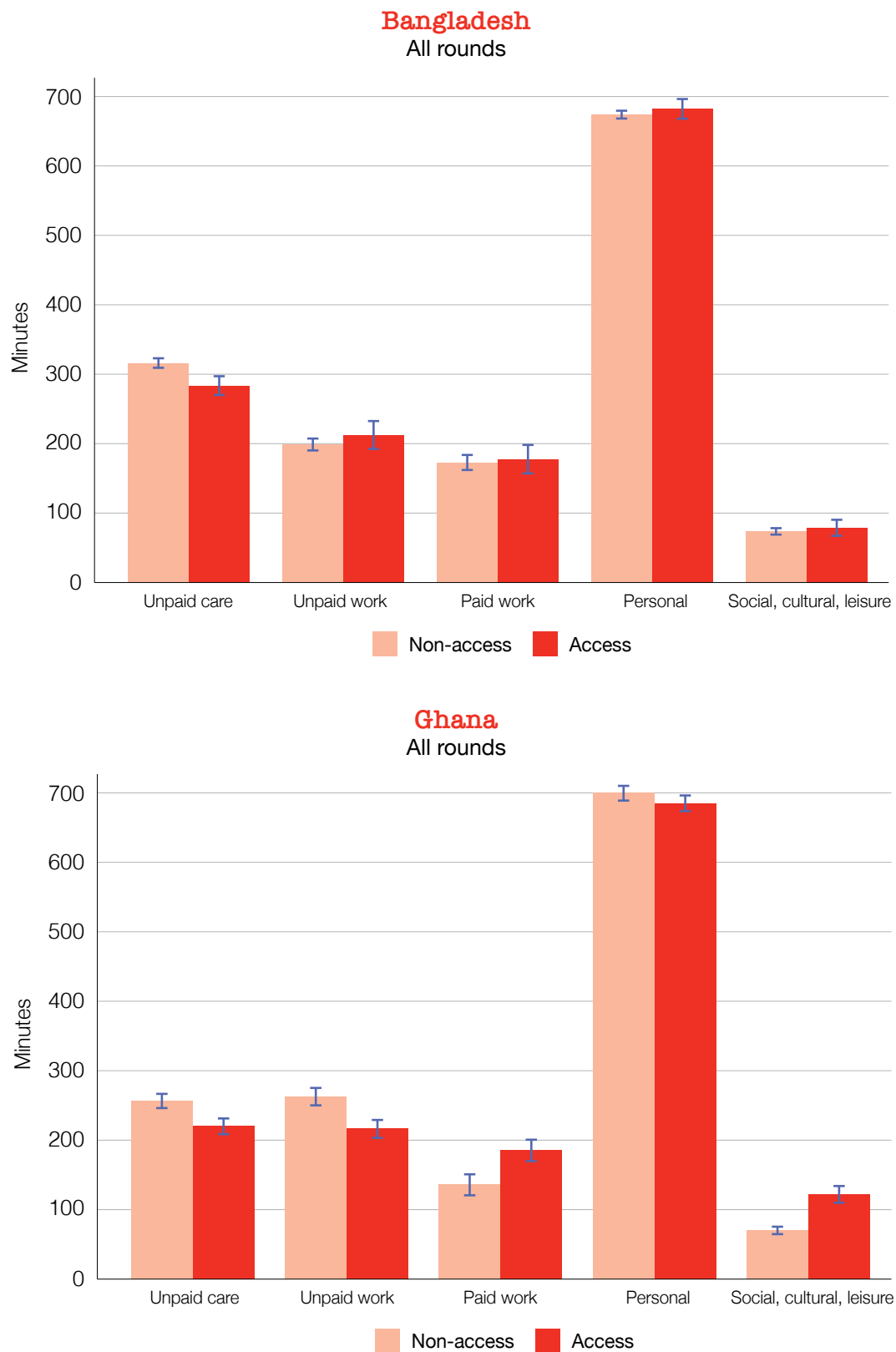


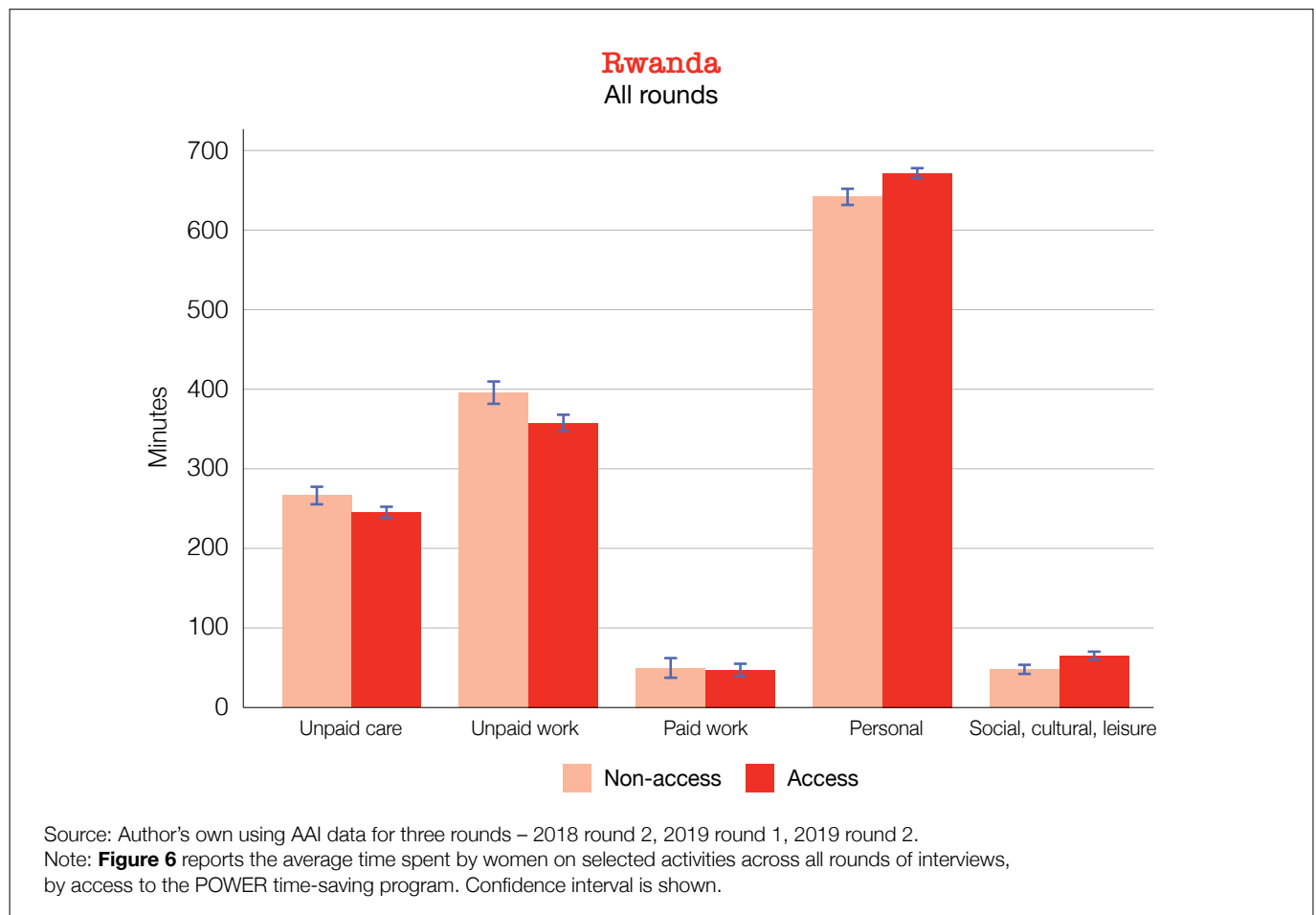
Figure 6: Differences in average time spent across activities, all rounds by access and non-access



Source: Author's own using AAI data for three rounds – 2018 round 2, 2019 round 1, 2019 round 2.

Note: **Figure 6** reports the average time spent by women on selected activities across all rounds of interviews, by access to the POWER time-saving program. Confidence interval is shown.

Figure 6: Differences in average time spent across activities, all rounds by access and non-access



At the same time, women with access report spending more time on unpaid work activities, with lower statistical significance of this difference (10%), and report the same time spent on paid work, personal and social, cultural and leisure activities (**Table A 20**). Specific insights are outlined below.

Bangladeshi women with access to interventions spent less time doing unpaid care work

First, in Bangladesh, we find that initially (2018, Round 1), women with and without access were spending comparable time doing unpaid care work. Interestingly, over the three rounds, while time doing unpaid care work reduced for both groups (those with and without access) – possibly with community-level interventions and other non-POWER time-saving interventions – over time, we note that those with access spent less time on unpaid care (**Table A 21** in the Appendix). In Bangladesh, we observe that in all rounds and in all districts (except for Gaibandha in 2018 Round 2), women with access to the POWER time-saving intervention report a lower average time spent on unpaid care activities compared to women with no access (**Table A 19** in the Appendix).

Cooking stoves have contributed to time-savings

Second, it also appears that cooking stoves have likely contributed to time-savings for unpaid care. In the quantitative analysis, we observe that, in 2018 Round 2 and 2019 Round 1, women with access have spent significantly less time cooking compared to women with no access (respectively 9 and 25 minutes). In 2019 Round 2, we observe the same evidence, though the difference is no longer statistically significant (**Table A 21**). The same has been reported by women during qualitative interviews, for example:

“Cooking stove is very good, and it is environment friendly. It has no smoke, no carbon, and when I am cooking, I can combinedly do other work, like collecting water, taking care of children. It is cheap, time-saving, and low fuel cost. I recommend that everybody should use improved cooking stoves. Those who do not use them, they are affected by eye diseases and respiratory diseases.”

(Woman facilitator, Bangladesh)

Women with access to interventions spend more time doing unpaid work

Third, those with access are spending more time doing unpaid work. Evidence from the quantitative analysis shows that women with access spent more time on unpaid work activities compared to women without access in all rounds of the surveys, with the difference in time spent going from less than three minutes in 2018 Round 2, to 25 minutes in 2019 Round 2 (**Table A 22**). The same is echoed by respondents in the qualitative interviews as they report allocating the time-savings to subsistence farming and sewing:

“Now I have the time so I can spend it with my sewing machine and sewing clothes, but earn with that also... I spend (the time I am saving) in my garden doing vegetable and doing sewing work for my children and others. I have some orders, so I can earn something.”

(Woman facilitator, Bangladesh)

Women with and without access to interventions spend similar time doing paid work

Finally, Bangladeshi women with and without access are spending comparable time on paid work, personal and social activities in each of the three rounds (**Table A 23** and **Figure A 1** in the Appendix). This is unsurprising as the interventions have not directly targeted or facilitated women's employment or even off-farm agricultural work. While women appear to be reporting doing more paid work in the last round – both groups with and without access appear to have been able to engage equally. Overall, women in Bangladesh are re-allocating time-savings to do more income-generating activities such as work in kitchen gardens.

“Income-generating activities are our priority and then unpaid care work, as second priority.”

(Woman facilitator, Bangladesh)

7.2. Rwanda

For Rwanda, the evidence is mixed across the years. While in 2018, Round 1, participants report spending less time on unpaid care activities, in 2019 Round 1, the situation is the opposite, and in 2019 Round 2, the amount of time spent is similar. Women with access spend less time on unpaid care and unpaid work activities, with both these differences statistically significant. We do not observe any difference in the amount of time on paid activities, while we observe that women with access report more time spent on personal and social, cultural and leisure activities, with both differences being significant (**Table A 20**).

Rwandan women accessing interventions spent less time doing unpaid care work and unpaid work, but there are exceptions

Overall, women with access spent less time doing unpaid care activities (**Table A 21** in the Appendix). For Rwanda, while in 2018 Round 2 and 2019 Round 2, women with access were generally reporting a lower amount of time spent compared to women with no access across all districts (with few exceptions), in 2019 Round 1, the same is true for only two districts out of five.

Interventions targeting water availability and firewood made a difference

The quantitative analysis suggests that women with access consistently report less time spent in collecting water and fuel/wood across all rounds of the survey (**Table A 22**). In fact, during qualitative interviews, women identified that the interventions in relation to water availability and firewood made a difference:

“Before, we used to spend ages fetching water, but nowadays we just save time because we have the water by our homes. There is a very big difference because, for instance, I can use two hours going to fetch water while others who have the home tap water or the water harvesting use just (a) few seconds in collecting water.”

“Those who have the cooking stoves, we are now okay; we can cook as well and do the other activities. And then we even keep the food warm. It has been really helpful. Also, for firewood collecting, I may use so many firewood while others who have these energy-saving cooking stoves can just use the firewood for seven days.”

“For the other members of the group that received the stoves, when they get the firewood, they cut into pieces, and they only use two pieces for the food to be ready. Before, they were using all firewood at once. So now they are saving the firewood as well as saving time.”

(Woman facilitator, Rwanda)

Rwandan women in both groups spent similar time on paid work

Women in the two groups generally spend a similar amount of time doing paid work activities, with the exception of the last round, where women with access report 50% more time spent compared to those that had no access (**Table A 23**). However the difference is not statistically significant. The qualitative interviews and case studies revealed specific insights from women who have been able to allocate their time to income-generating activities – and those with access linked with water tanks as a specific intervention.

“In the summer, we weren’t able to water because we had to fetch water far away. But nowadays, because we have the water tanks near, we grow the vegetables in any season.”

(Woman facilitator, Rwanda)

“Now I can do it on my own, I don’t have to ask him. I can get a loan from the group. If my child has to have a haircut, I don’t need to ask my husband. Before there was quarrelling at home and neighbors could hear.”

(Woman, Rwanda, case study)

7.3. Ghana

In Ghana, across all rounds, women with access spend less time on unpaid care, unpaid work and personal activities, with all differences being statistically significant. At the same time, women with access spend more time on paid work and social, cultural and leisure activities, with, again, all differences being statistically significant (**Table A 20**).

Ghanaian women accessing interventions spent less time doing unpaid care work and unpaid work

In Ghana, women with access report spending less time in unpaid care and unpaid work activities in all rounds of the survey; in 2018 Round 2, women with access reported respectively 46 and 57 less minutes per day [?] in those activities compared to women with no access. The difference that decreases over time but remains significant in 2019 Round 2 (**Table A 21** and **Table A 22**).

Women with access are spending more time on paid activities

Women with access appear to be spending more time on paid activities (on average, 50 minutes more per day compared to those with no access) and social activities, with the exception of 2019, Round 1 (**Table A 23** and **Figure A 1** in the Appendix). In Ghana, results are mixed across districts and rounds of interviews, with some districts showing the opposite.

Interventions targeting water availability helped all women in the communities

The quantitative analysis suggests that the time spent by Ghanaian women on water collection has stayed constant (**Table A 22**). However, women facilitators, as well as case studies in Ghana, reported that women generally report benefits from the interventions that targeted water availability:

“While we are doing the group production of shea butter, we use that water. We don’t need to go to fetch water and waste time again. And those who are around my house who are not far, they always come and take water. So, I’m not the only one who uses it. Some of the group members are also benefiting.”

(Woman facilitator, Ghana)

“Prior to the construction of the water harvesting structure, I used to spend long one hour queuing at the borehole fetching water. Now I spend few minutes to access water from the tank at the comfort of my home for domestic purposes such as washing, cooking utensils, bathing and other things.”

(Woman, Ghana, case study)

Ghanaian women report doing more income-generating activities

Ghanaian women report doing more income-generating activities, such as farming, petty trading and small businesses, not just because of the time saved but because of the awareness process on women’s economic rights and other training activities implemented by the project:

“Sometimes I use that time in farming because when I farm, I get income from the farming, so it increases the income.”

(Woman facilitator, Ghana)

“Almost all women directed the saved time to production because when they have time for leisure, they realise that leisure is good, but they also need time for increasing capacities in terms of production, earning income, which is more pressing for them, not for ActionAid. We are thinking they should have time for leisure. And yes, they have time for leisure, and they participate in other political activities, but actually they use time for more production.”

(ActionAid staff, Ghana)

8. Findings

8.1. Impact of time-saving interventions²⁴

Cooking stoves contributed to time-savings for Bangladeshi women with access to time-saving interventions

Cooking stoves have contributed to time-savings from unpaid care in Bangladesh as women report using the free time doing income-generating activities, though this is not formal paid work where time-saving interventions do not appear to make a clear difference. Women with access to time-saving interventions have reported, on average, less time spent on cooking (14 minutes) and, at the same time, have reported more time spent on unpaid work (15 minutes) and similar time spent on paid work (Table A 20). However, it appears that while the improved cooking stoves save energy and women's time in cooking and collecting firewood, it does not eliminate completely the need of collecting firewood.

Water tanks and childcare centres have brought collective benefits for women in communities in Rwanda and Ghana – but there are limitations

Childcare centres and water kiosks appear to work better as these involve women and local leaders in the planning and implementation. Even mothers can be involved in all activities in relation to the intervention. In Rwanda, where not all districts have received water tanks, we observe that women with access spend less time (25 minutes) collecting water compared to women without access, indicating the benefit of such program intervention (Table A 20). However, in Rwanda and Ghana, one of the limitations emerging from the interviews is related to the water tanks in the dry season, when women cannot harvest water.

A combination of interventions can have greater impact

It appears that the impact of access to time-saving interventions may be greater when women receive a combination of interventions. In the districts of Ghana and Rwanda with fewer time-saving interventions (Asutifi South and Tain in Ghana; Musanze and Gisagara in

Rwanda), we notice that women with access spend more or similar time on unpaid care activities compared to women without access. In Bangladesh, we also notice that women in Lalmonirhat, the district receiving all time-saving interventions, report the lowest average time on unpaid care activities compared to women in the other districts (Table A 19). This greater impact of a combination of interventions is likely true as each intervention tackles time spent on specific activities.

“It is not easy to have a household with access to all these interventions. When you have a cooking stove, but you still have the burden of water or the burden of the kids, you still have all the unpaid care.”

(Project officer, Rwanda)

“Women who receive the combination of intervention are very, very improved. They are able to do the small business themselves because they have the selling points. The POWER project helped them to have the selling points. They are not many. These women participate in decision making and improve the rights in their house. You can see that the impacts of the interventions are very clear. You observe the change in the house. Also, the man changes his mindset and helps their wife in the household activities. These women who received the interventions are contributing to the meetings, to the activities of the community; they are self-confident. The impact is very, very clear.”

(Project officer)

8.2. Redistribution and help for unpaid care

Women are reporting that they receive help

Most women mention that as the project has progressed, they have started to receive help for doing unpaid care work, primarily from their husbands, children and mother-in-laws, mainly in taking care of children. However, this happens mostly when they are not able to cope with everything or when they are going to be out for

24. An impact evaluation exercise for attributing any causal effects of the time-saving interventions may explore the application of quasi experimental evaluation methods. However, an impact evaluation was not the aim of this research.

paid work or social visits. Also, community members sometimes help with animal rearing or with childcare centres. Children (mainly girls) help with domestic chores, while boys help with unpaid work such as farming. This is confirmed by the quantitative results in Bangladesh, Rwanda and Ghana, where 95%, 86% and 88% of the women, respectively, have reported that they receive help with household chores (**Table 7**).

“Sometimes, when I am not around, she [mother-in-law] helps to take care of the children. Me, as a teacher, if I’m going to school, sometimes I have to leave daughter in the house with my mother-in-law and come back during break time for help to suck, and then go back, that is if the distance is not far. The challenge that I have is when the children are not in the house. There will be more work. The work I normally do in the house is too much for me.”

(Women facilitator, Ghana)

Differences in re-distribution by family structure

Although we observe that only a minority of married women do not live with their husbands (5% in Ghana, 4% in Rwanda and 7% in Bangladesh), evidence from the qualitative analysis remarks on a different burden and different responsibilities between these two groups of married women.

“Some do not live with their husbands, so everything is on their heads. But others live with their husbands and their husbands, due to this project and due to the filling of the time diary, they come to understand the role of redistributing the care work. So, those husbands can help some of the women. Also, some who have the grown-up children can redistribute the care work as well.”

(Women facilitator, Rwanda)

Women with young children engage in direct and indirect childcare

Multitasking and helping with household chores are strictly related. We previously observed that most of the women declared receiving help with household chores. Nevertheless, most of the women are also used to performing more than one activity at the same time. This is because activities such as caring for children are usually combined by women when it is not possible to receive support from the household.

“For some of the other members of the group, your children are young, maybe above 10 or something, they can stay at home and replace you, so they can do the unpaid care work you are supposed to do, so you can sell in markets. But if they are like babies or very young, they can take them to the market or to the farm to cultivate.”

(Woman facilitator, Rwanda)

“Those who have little children, sometimes, their husband takes care of children. When she finishes her cooking and children are sleeping, they do some work in this time. Other families have big children, and sometimes, they can take care of their younger children.”

(Woman facilitator, Bangladesh)

8.3. Key trends and changes

Women are expanding engagement with income-generating activities

Women report to be doing **more income-generating activities**, such as farming, petty trading and small businesses, not just because of the time saved but because of the awareness process on women’s economic rights and other training activities implemented by the project.

In **Ghana, women are working on their farms and running small businesses** with the time they’re saving:

“There is one woman in my group. She is using spare time to cook and prepare doughnuts to sell. She is getting profits; the cooking stove has come to help her. The way she used to buy charcoal has reduced and it also makes it fast for her.”

(Woman facilitator, Ghana)

“When they provided the interventions, we were awakening our minds and we saw what we hadn’t achieved yet, so we should just get there. So I am getting engaged in other income-generating activities.”

(Woman facilitator, Rwanda)

Rwandan women are engaging in home gardens:

“In the summer, we weren’t able to water because we had to fetch water far away. But nowadays, because we have the water tanks near, we grow the vegetables in any season.”

(Woman facilitator, Rwanda)

Bangladeshi women are making use of time-savings to run small businesses and work in home gardens.

“Those who use improved cooking stoves are saving time and these stoves are smoke-less and use less firewood. They use the saved time in income-generating activities.”

(Woman facilitator, Bangladesh)

“In some cases, we advise mothers what to do in this leisure time. We encourage them to be involved in the selling activities or garden activities. Then we will communicate with the other group training activities, and women will leave children in the childcare center and be involved in different income-generating activities.”

(Project officer, Bangladesh)

Priority of paid work versus unpaid care

Overall, women prioritise doing paid work instead of other activities. But the project has also emphasised women’s involvement in various income-generating activities through the improvement of agricultural productivity; the promotion of saving groups and women’s cooperatives; the provision of livestock; or the promotion of kitchen gardens to sell products in the markets, among others. An additional reason for women choosing to undertake more paid work than rest is that it might be less likely that men would ‘help’ in household chores if women chose to rest with the time saved. From the interviews, it is clear that unpaid care is being recognised and redistributed among members of the household. However, unpaid care is still seen as a women’s responsibility, and in some cases, men are ‘helping’ women so that they, women, get involved in paid work. In this sense, unpaid care might still be not valued as a major contribution to the family and wider economy, but as a burden that needs to be shared in order to generate additional income.

Women still combine unpaid care and unpaid work

As observed in Section 5.3, in all countries, it is common to observe women performing more than one activity at a time. In all three countries, we observed moments during the day, particularly early morning, lunchtime, and supertime, in which more than 80% of women perform more than one activity simultaneously (**Figure 3**). Traditionally, men are not allowed to do this type of work, particularly taking care of children. In Ghana, for instance, men doing household chores may be perceived as taboo or even as a crime. This has also emerged from the qualitative interviews, as reported in the quote below:

“As a woman, I do domestic work. I’d say it’s quite hard for me because I’d say it is workload. If there is someone who comes in and asks you ‘What have you been doing the whole day?’ And you can’t even be sure of what you did, but yet you have done so many things, domestic work, so that is why they call it unpaid care work.”

(Woman facilitator, Rwanda)

Women still manage the distribution of unpaid care

Women report that husbands and children replace them if they feel unwell or are out of the house for paid work or social activities. In general, women are the ones who **decide in advance how to manage and distribute unpaid care**.

“When I am unwell, most of the care work goes wrong because maybe one of my children can come and look after me, but they can’t cultivate, do the outside work. When I am unwell everything goes wrong.”

(Woman facilitator, Rwanda)

Women are paying for unpaid work

Some women explain how **sometimes they need to pay someone** to collect firewood, grasses for the livestock or to fetch water. This happens in the case of women who don’t get support from their family members and in the case of widows. Also, in Rwanda, the collection of firewood is restricted in some areas to protect natural resources, so women pay to get what they need.

“Sometimes I have to tell somebody to look for firewood and then I pay. Sometimes, somebody goes and fetches the water for me. For the cooking, I do it myself. The washing, I do it.”

(Woman facilitator, Ghana)

This is also common in Nyanza (Rwanda), where the project is implemented near an urban area. One woman who has four children and does not live with her extended family explained how paid work may help to pay someone else to do other work.

However, another woman explained the **challenges in paying someone to do unpaid care or unpaid work** in terms of cost and the quality of the work.

“I can earn money, but that money should be used to pay someone else to replace her in the care work. In other words, I use the whole money I earn to pay the other person. And if you don’t do something yourself, you don’t know when that is done very well as you should. For instance, in cultivating, some people can cultivate badly, and yet, you pay them. So, that is why I am not combining the paid and the unpaid care.”

(Woman facilitator, Rwanda)

Men help with outside activities

From quantitative evidence, it is clear that women outperform men in most of the unpaid care and unpaid work activities (**Table A 14 and Table A 15**). However, men help with unpaid care work and unpaid work that is mainly done outside the house, like collecting firewood or collecting feed for animals. If the women are not physically present in the household, the men can cook or take care of the children.

“Mainly, men are involved in collecting wood, carrying water, taking care of childcare. In some cases, they are involved in cooking. They are supporting cooking activities, but they are not cooking daily... The outdoor activities, like straw collection or grass collection from community or from local market, are performed by men. But at the household level, this is performed by women.”

(Project officer, Bangladesh)

8.4. Unpaid care and norms

Women report that childcare is difficult and time-consuming work

Women, on average, spend 40 minutes per day on direct childcare (**Table A 20**). The interviews illustrate the burden felt by women while looking after children,²⁵ but indirect childcare is their responsibility throughout the day.

“I feel that looking directly after the children is the most difficult.”

(Woman facilitator, Bangladesh)

“It is a very difficult task taking care of children; an eye needs to be on them. Something can happen if you are not careful. And you need to make sure that, when they come, they do their homework, and you need also to help them to do it... It is actually a difficult work.”

(Woman facilitator, Rwanda)

Unpaid care is seen as the responsibility of women and girls

Although this is not recognised or perceived as work, unpaid care work represents one of the most time-consuming activities throughout the day, and it is mainly undertaken by women. As observed in the quantitative analysis, in Bangladesh, women spend five times more time on unpaid care activities compared to men; or in Rwanda, up to 10 times and in Ghana, three times more (**Table A 15**).

“I do everything! Because it is a must for me to do it. And it is something that is helping the family too, to live in a good environment. The men are always thinking that doing the housework or taking care of children is not a work for us, it is not a work at all.”

(Woman facilitator, Ghana)

“Those who don’t value or don’t recognise the unpaid care work, they kind of categorize this is for men, this is for women. And unfortunately, women end up doing everything because you end up doing those that are for women and also those that are for men. That is why they struggle a lot.”

(Woman facilitator, Rwanda)

8.5. Drivers of changes and empowerment

Time-saving interventions have started changing mindsets

Women report there has been a change in how family members and the community value unpaid care and women’s role in society.

“Before the POWER project, traditionally, there is belief that woman uses broom to sweep, and the broom touches him, he becomes impotent. That was the mindset, that the man is not supposed to sweep because if the broom touches him, he becomes impotent. That was their perception.”

(Project officer, Ghana)

24. This may not fully reflect the burden of indirect childcare on women.

“Before they used to say that they can’t share the unpaid care work, the wife has the responsibility. But now they don’t say that.”

(Woman facilitator, Rwanda)

Improvements in women’s confidence and awareness

Access to a POWER time-saving intervention **includes being a member of a women’s group that provides an opportunity for women to improve their confidence and awareness of their rights**, as well as to find the motivation to start income-generating activities. Some women report this explicitly:

“It has really helped me because I didn’t even know my rights. But because of the participation in the women’s group, I know my rights. I can even know these leaders... Before I didn’t know any of them, but now I know them. Before I wasn’t confident of myself, but because of being a member of the group I am confident of myself.

It is all about motivation and encouragement because now, in the group, in the cooperative, we are encouraging and motivating each other. For me, before joining the project, I wasn’t doing anything. But joining the project, I came up with this idea of doing small trade because I have been motivated and encouraged by other members of the group. When we are in the groups, we have small talks to encourage us and motivate each other. We talk about our households and how we manage the unpaid care.”

(Woman facilitator, Rwanda)

Visibility of unpaid care

All women interviewed reported that the project helped to make unpaid care more visible and led to some redistribution of tasks, mainly outdoor activities like fetching water or collecting firewood, but also cooking. **This has allowed them to have more time to get engaged in the paid work.**

“Through the sensitisation, they realise we are not the only people that are supposed to do all that.”

(Woman facilitator, Ghana)

“At first, I did it alone. And by the end of the day, you’d be always stressed and tired, feeling like you are sick and all that. But now that we have explained to men and they have got to understand, I think it’s now okay... Now that the men are helping, when I get up at 5 and I am cooking, the man would be bathing the children.”

“At first, the boy wasn’t doing it. When the POWER project came in, they taught us how to manage the house with your boys. So, from my experience, I also added the boy to the household work. And my husband is also helping. I redistributed the work for all of them. Sometimes he fetches water for me, sometimes he helps me to do the washing, sometimes he even does the cooking.”

(Woman facilitator, Ghana)

“My husband and sons are helping me, and I am trying to motivate other people, other families, to do that kind of work also. I think that if everyone, every family, do the same thing, then the women from the rural areas can find more time in earning activities, can be involved in earning activities more.”

(Woman facilitator, Bangladesh)

Community-level changes

Change is explained by **an alliance with some important male characters in the community, such as the chief or traditional religious leaders**. The rationale given to gain this support is that if unpaid care is redistributed within families (males doing more care tasks), women would have more opportunities to get engaged in various income-generating activities and tackle poverty within the community.

“Our community chief is now a friend to our group. At the beginning, the tradition was ruling him. He used to play a role by inviting his opinion leaders to come in and help their women. And through that, he went to the various levels of the clan heads and talked to them about how it is good to help their women in order to boost their economic activities.”

(Woman facilitator, Ghana)

“Some families that are not participating in the project also help women because the project has had an impact outside the participants after these four years. Many elite persons and religious leaders participated in our sensitisation meetings and disseminated the messages to the whole community. They realise that unpaid care is a burden for women.”

(Project officer, Bangladesh)

Sensitisation

“The help from husbands and boys is explained by the training they received from the project and the work that women’s groups themselves have done to sensitise the community leaders.”

“They also help them because now they understand the importance of the project. So, they get involved, including the men. In the meetings, apart from women, they add men too. So, they also get to know how far the project is going.”

“They have organised a cooking competition for them, for the men, to see who can cook, and it was very successful. So, they organised it for them to cook and see how difficult it is while taking care of children.”

(Woman facilitator, Ghana)

“I’m very lucky because I’ve started with the project and my husband understands everything, and he is doing the unpaid care. So, I can just ask for help, and he is very happy to help. Even in my community, they learn from us, from our household, because my husband, he doesn’t care, he doesn’t mind. But this is from the training we have been receiving from this project. Because in this project, they took time to take the men and train them on how to share and redistribute this unpaid care work. He is luckily helping me in the unpaid care.”

(Woman facilitator, Rwanda)

“The project connected me with different types of interventions, like house meetings. My husband attended spouse meetings and different types of awareness meetings. Attending this type of meetings, they are willing to helping me. And not only that, we are doing all housework together. Outside my family, other families, they are also doing the same thing watching me. Other husbands and sons are also helping their wives because they are watching how my husband is helping me, how I become happy and how my housework becomes very easy.”

(Woman facilitator, Bangladesh)

“By implementing project activities, unpaid care work is a burden for women, so male members are helping them in the unpaid care work. Everybody understands that. It is a way to reduce unpaid care of women and to involve them in income-generating activities. So, every member (of the community) is included and not only group members. Also, outside from this project, male members are helping in unpaid care.”

(Woman facilitator, Bangladesh)

8.6. Key barriers and challenges

Exhaustion and depletion are major risks

Few women mention that they have gained time to rest because of time-saving interventions and most women still express how they suffer from depletion and sleep deprivation. Lack of time, taking care of small children and depletion create roadblocks to engaging in paid work and, in some cases, to be able to perform the most time and energy-consuming care tasks, such as fetching water or collecting firewood.

“We have saved our time and energy, but this hasn’t allowed us to go and sleep because we want to achieve more and more. We keep struggling to achieve what we want. Maybe, before it was collecting firewood, now we have a gas or firewood energy-saving stove, but we never get time to rest or relax. We don’t have this yet.”

(Woman facilitator, Rwanda)

“For me, fetching water, sometimes I just find myself not managing to do it... Also collecting firewood. Sometimes I feel weak, I don’t feel like going to collect firewood. And sometimes, I spend the night without eating because we don’t have firewood at home... When I run out of water, sometimes my husband can just go with me and both of us collect water, but if he doesn’t, we just leave it there.”

(Woman facilitator, Rwanda)

Resistance remains

Despite changes, women mention that there is still some type of resistance which can be explained by cultural factors and patriarchal norms.

“Those who are coming from the rural families. It is not easy to change the religious level in those areas. We are still trying our best. Change has come. It is not like the other years. Some of them are helping. You don’t get all of them to be the same. Some are helping, others not and you have to talk to them for help.”

(Woman facilitator, Ghana)

“They keep trying to train their husbands because some are saying no, this is for women, this is for men. They are pushing slowly, slowly to change their mentalities.”

(Woman facilitator, Rwanda)

“My family members, they do housework now, but before, they didn’t understand that this was a very important and significant work, for our family. They said that this was for me, that ‘You had to do this, what else are you asking to us? What do you want?’ But now they understand and appreciate both the outside work and the inside work. Male member helps their wife in unpaid care work but not all. Some families spend more time in unpaid care work, some members do not spend more time.”

(Women facilitator, Bangladesh)

“Normally, I’m not sure if I’m using the proper term with ‘normally,’ in Rwanda, after 4 pm until maybe 9 pm, men come together taking beer or discussing or just watching a football match... We have this backlash on men. If you miss two days or three days, then in the community, they will say, “It’s like that.”

(ActionAid staff, Rwanda)

In summary, unpaid care work is organised and carried out by women (women themselves, mothers in law and daughters), although women are now getting some help from husbands and boys as a result of the project activities and the alliance with male leaders in the community. They all mention changes in how unpaid care is seen and how the redistribution of the unpaid care allows them to engage in paid work. However, there are some care activities that men are more likely to do, such as those performed outside the house as opposed to activities such as cleaning, cooking and looking after children.

8.7. Limitations of time-saving interventions

In Rwanda, all project officers and ActionAid staff mention the **limitation of resources and budget** as a major constraint to responding to the high demand of these types of interventions.

“We took some groups as piloting because of financial limitation. It requires more efforts in the future programming. We have not been financially able to reach a significant number. That was a kind of piloting. Even the project right holders are not gaining whatever can support them to reach the full potential we expect.”

(Project officer, Rwanda)

Some of the project officers mention the limited impact of the time-saving interventions implemented because it is rare for a single woman and household to access all the interventions at the same time.

The improved cooking stoves save energy and women’s time in cooking and collecting firewood, but it does not eliminate the need to collect firewood.

“And, at the same time, I understand these cooking stoves use little firewood, though not completely no firewood...”

(ActionAid, Rwanda)

In general, home tap water is viewed to be a successful solution, however this type of intervention is more expensive and only viable when a general pipeline is close to homes.

“For the water tank, we just collect water in the raining season. But with the tap water, we have water every second... If everyone had specifically the tap water, that would be perfect because when we run out of water, we have to fetch water and it is something that takes our time.”

(Woman facilitator, Rwanda)

Social norms may prevent women using the same items as other members of the household. Social norms around childcare are also mentioned as a challenge for women accessing childcare centres in Rwanda and Bangladesh, where this type of intervention represents a new concept.

“If the woman is menstruating, she is not supposed to use the same items of the household. So, the cooking stove would be there, but the woman may not have access to it because that is the belief system, so there are always constant community-level sensitisation.”

(Project officer, Ghana)

“At the beginning, the community thought that children wouldn’t stay at the centers. They were not interested in giving help for the centers. But gradually, they realised that children had enjoyable time, and the interaction with other students, different types of norms, attitudes, they are learning from the centers. After that, they decided that they will support the management of the childcare centers and even providing material to them.”

(Project officer, Bangladesh)

One of the **limitations of the water tanks is their seasonal dependence**, especially in Ghana and Rwanda, where women cannot harvest water in the dry season. Some of them can pay for water and fill the tank, but others struggle to fetch water in the same way as before having this solution.

“In the raining season, I don’t go for water because of the water harvesting structure they gave me... There is a lot of water in the tank... even in the dry season, I buy water with the water tanks to come and fill it. I don’t have a problem for water. When there is no rain, you can’t get water from the water tank, so we have to move back where we used to go for water and that takes a lot of time. I spend a lot of time, so we only get water when we are in the raining season. When it comes the dry season, no water.”

(Woman facilitator, Ghana)

“We have water near our community, but in the dry season, we keep facing this lack of water. So if I lack water, I go to fetch water very far from my home. But in other seasons, we have these water taps in the community.”

(Woman facilitator, Rwanda)

Another challenge related to this intervention is the cost of maintenance, which may put into question the sustainability of such infrastructure. This has also happened with cooking stoves in Bangladesh, where women cannot afford the cost of the repair.

“In improved cooking stoves, after some months or one year, some parts of these ovens have been damaged. So, they cannot repair them.”

(Project officer, Bangladesh)

In **Bangladesh, limitations of time-saving interventions are again related to seasonality - when childcare centres need to be closed in the rainy season due to safety reasons and when the use of biogas systems is limited because they need to be located outside the house. This also happens with improved cooking stoves.**

“Childcare centers and cooking stoves sometimes have been damaged by flood water and river erosion. Every year some of our participants get their households harmed in this season, so improved cooking stoves are damaged.”

“Women must be our group members. Then, we see who is interested to use cooking stoves and who has some small space to install the stove. Most participants are very poor, and many have no space to install the stove.”

(Project officer, Bangladesh)

Some ActionAid staff and project officers highlight the challenges that individual interventions represent for the community and how the **interventions that benefit the collective community are more successful than those targeting individual women.**

“The only challenge was with regard to water harvesting structure. It was meant to benefit a single household. Eventhough we have explained to them that it was just to pilot for us and then advocate for more to come, they did not understand why it was just for a single household. It should have been for the entire community, like the childcare centre that was for the entire community. That was our initial challenge, but we managed to overcome that. We explained to them that we wanted to pilot them and do research, come out with findings and advocate for more of those things to be provided in the communities.”

(Project officer, Ghana)

Reasons for dropping out of the interventions are identified by project officers as: changes in location, internal problems among women in groups, higher expectations towards the benefits of the project and death.

“We are facing some small challenges in this process (time diary). These participants were selected in, 2017 but when we tried to reach them again in 2018, we saw that some participants were no longer there. In 2019, we also found out that some of them had migrated.”

(ActionAid staff, Bangladesh)

Overall, there are some limitations on the implementation side of using the time diaries tool that emerged from this project and communicating a summary of the results to the participants immediately after data collection would make participants more engaged in future rounds. Furthermore, the collection of time diaries data is a time-consuming activity involving several actors where budget issues or size of the communities can represent an obstacle for the data collection. For example, only one enumerator collected data for all districts in Rwanda, while the size of the communities in Bangladesh represented an issue while trying to obtain more in-depth information.

9. Key recommendations

This section outlines key implications, drawing from the analysis above. This includes findings and implications from POWER time-saving interventions in terms of reallocation of women's time; and observed key successes and best practices on recognising, reducing and redistributing unpaid care work for women's economic empowerment. The latter half of this section outlines recommendations for the project objectives, policy and wider programming, particularly in terms of ensuring sustainability of positive outcomes, and overcoming limitations of the time diary approach..

9.1. Key findings and implications

Women report that the time saving interventions have helped save time used in specific activities and have wider positive impacts. These activities include fetching water, collecting firewood and cooking – all directly related with the nature of specific interventions. Interventions targeting fetching water and firewood, and provision of childcare centres also have community-level effects – i.e., these appear to have created wider benefits beyond those accessing POWER time saving interventions. The reported benefits include reduced amount of firewood used to cook, and as a result, reduction in inhalation of smoke, as well as increased trust in childcare centres over time. This would, over time, have positive effects on women's health and well-being.

Women continue to combine unpaid care and unpaid work, with unpaid care work still being seen as primarily being women's responsibility: Women across the three countries continue to hold the primary responsibility for unpaid care work. Women also continue to multitask, especially combining unpaid care and unpaid work. There are instances of men starting to 'help' with unpaid care work tasks. This redistribution of activities is more prominent in unpaid tasks that are outside the home, such as collection of firewood or fodder. Men also contribute to cooking or taking care of the children if women are not physically present in the household. However, in general, women decide in advance how to manage and distribute the unpaid care work.

Unpaid care is valued, but only by some. The redistribution of some activities to men has supported

women to engage in paid work and income generating activities. Time savings are prioritised towards paid work as the perception is that if women would be choosing to rest with the time saved, men might not help. In this sense, unpaid care might still be not valued as a major contribution to the family or wider economy, but as a burden that needs to be shared in order to generate additional income. On the other hand, some women report changes in how family members value unpaid care and women's role in society.

Women prioritise spending time saved on income generating work. Time saving interventions have not directly targeted or facilitated women's employment or agricultural work. It appears that generally, where there are time-savings, women prefer to use the extra time to engage in production that can generate income (in the absence of sufficient paid work opportunities). This observation is also irrespective of access to time saving interventions to a certain extent as both groups, with and without access, have been able to engage equally with more income generating activities such as work in kitchen gardens, farming, petty trading, and running small businesses.

A combination of interventions can have greater impact. Each type of time-saving intervention is linked with time spent on specific activities. Cooking stoves help women save time on cooking and collecting firewood; water tanks, kiosks and taps mean women can save time spent in fetching water from far away locations; and childcare centres result in less time spent on looking after children. While it is not easy to facilitate access to all these interventions – especially due to budget constraints – benefits from having a cooking stove may be subsumed by the burden of water collection if there is no water facility nearby. This especially holds true as majority of women multitask throughout the day to get everything done. Hence, a combination of interventions works better, targeting the multiplicity of tasks that women need to complete every day.

Improvements in women's confidence and awareness is a key outcome from the interventions and the POWER project generally. Access to a time saving intervention included being a member of a women's group that represented an important opportunity for women to gain confidence and awareness of their rights, as well as find the motivation to engage in or expand income generating activities.

Visibility of care work through the time diary tool

is an important outcome linked to the time saving intervention process. This has translated to women understanding their own time use, planning, and managing their days. It has also led to redistribution of time savings to other activities – with savings made on activities that happen outside the house and cooking. This has directly contributed to women spending more time on income generating activities.

The sensitisation work has been an important instrument of change. Training for husbands and boys, and the work that the women's groups have done to sensitise community leaders, has been successful in sensitising household members and community members to reevaluated the importance of unpaid work and care and prompting the redistribution of work.

Community-level interventions have wider benefits.

Childcare centres and water kiosks seem to work best of all, as they involve women and local leaders. The benefits from such interventions are not always tangible as these also contribute to sensitisation, community-level recognition of women's engagement with unpaid care work, advocacy and facilitating relationships with local authorities and community leaders such as religious leaders.

9.2. Recommendations

The findings and lessons outlined above have important implications for objectives of similar future projects, policy and wider programming, particularly in terms of ensuring sustainability of positive outcomes. These are discussed below.

Some specific interventions need to be adjusted in order for them to work well:

- Ensuring Consistency- Water harvesting tanks do not work in the dry season, forcing people to either pay or walk to collect the water for the household. Seasonality for such interventions is a vital consideration.
- Generating Awareness- Coupling interventions with awareness generation is necessary. This awareness generation needs to be focused on the importance of leisure and rest time for women to recuperate. At the moment, most of the time savings generated are being used by women to do more income generating work – this risks instrumentalising their time and reducing the value of unpaid care tasks.
- Maintaining Financial Feasibility-There is also the need to account for and find the financial resources needed to maintain things like childcare facilities and implemented by the state. Maintaining such costs represents an insurmountable burden for the

communities that they might not be able to keep all interventions active after project ends.

Sustainability of positive outcomes of interventions will depend on:

- Enhancing the visibility of care work: Time diaries can be a tool to empower women and to better understand the division of labour and activities within the household. Men can also benefit from the time diaries, especially for a better understanding of the daily routine of the household and to see where they can take on some of the tasks. The time diary process needs to be embedded within the groups more strongly in order to ensure continued analysis by the community, which will enhance the visibility of care work as the first step towards its redistribution and used systematically in programming.
- Finetuning interventions to maximise impact on reduction of time and drudgery: This may involve finetuning the design of cooking gas stoves in order to increase their sustained use, adjusting the water tanks intervention to incorporate seasonal fluctuations in water availability, or combining a range of interventions to ensure maximum impact. These time-saving interventions will thereby have a greater chance of reducing the time required, as well as the drudgery, to undertake difficult care tasks.
- Strengthening relationships with local authorities and collaborations: Strong relationships with local government and authorities will help ensure the long-term sustainability of the intervention. Collaboration between different stakeholders achieved through multi-level advocacy can lead to policy change at local and national levels, that need to be planned during programme design and adapted over time.
- Countering resistance to changing social norms: Social norms around the distribution of unpaid care work are difficult to shift. In the project sites, there is still some resistance against men doing unpaid care work and women doing paid work. Attitudes are shifting, but men may feel threatened by women's participation. This can cause issues, such as women not getting the space or the right price in markets when they sell their produce. More initiatives and community-informed and led programs are needed to countering such social norms through awareness generation, collaborating with influential community and religious leaders and with women's groups to sustain change in attitudes towards unpaid care work.

10. Conclusions

This report presented the feminist analysis of time use from three rounds of time diary data from the POWER project across three countries: Bangladesh, Ghana and Rwanda. Combining quantitative and qualitative evidence, the report looked at the distribution of activities across men and women within the household, women's access to POWER project time-saving interventions and across districts and countries.

For the quantitative analysis, we analysed individual characteristics and time diaries for women to understand time use across different activities. The qualitative work complemented this analysis and helped validate key insights, using information from background reports and other project documents, as well as interviews with some project managers and woman facilitators.

Overall, the report presents evidence about how women and men spend their time and any inherent trade-offs that characterise these. It is unsurprising that women do most unpaid care work and spend a substantial amount of time on these activities, though this is changing in some contexts. In sum, responsibilities for unpaid care work activities are still allocated and primarily carried out by women (women themselves, mothers-in-law and daughters), although they are starting to receive some help from husbands and boys – and this is often linked to project activities and alliances with male leaders in the community. All women mention changes in how unpaid care is seen and valued and how the redistribution of unpaid care tasks is allowing them to engage in income-generating activities. However, it seems that there are some care activities that men are more likely to do, such as those performed outside the house such as cleaning, cooking and looking after children. Women also report high levels of multitasking, simultaneously combining activities across their day that creates risks of depletion.

Looking at differences in time spent by women according to their access to POWER time-saving interventions, key trends are:

- (i) Generally, women with access have spent less time on unpaid care activities and on unpaid work.**
- (ii) Time-savings are redistributed differently across countries.**
- (iii) Men have become more aware of the value of unpaid care and are starting to take on more responsibility as a result of training courses and community-level meetings.**

Overall, we also observe some limitations, especially around more embedded social norms that may prevent women's participation in certain activities and resistance to change, the general costs and sustainability of the benefits from interventions. Finally, while the time diary process has started contributing to real changes, the process can be improved to engage and involve women more widely and use learnings from the experience thus far to improve the project.

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Appendix

1. Sample

Table A 1: Number of observations, by gender, district, country and round

Bangladesh									
	2018			2019a			2019b		
District	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All
Dinajpur				40	80	120	40	80	120
Gaibandha	50	250	300	50	250	300	50	250	300
Lalmonirhat	50	250	300	50	249	299	50	249	299
All	100	500	600	140	579	719	140	579	719
Rwanda									
	2018			2019a			2019b		
District	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All
Gisagara	21	115	136	18	117	135	19	106	125
Karongi	13	77	90	13	77	90	13	73	86
Musanze	13	77	90	13	77	90	13	69	82
Nyanza	19	116	135	19	116	135	16	105	121
Nyaruguru	6	44	50	6	44	50	4	31	35
All	72	429	501	69	431	500	65	384	449
Ghana									
	2018			2019a			2019b		
District	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All
Adaklu	5	12	17						
Asutifi South				3	54	57	3	54	57
Jirapa				31	43	74	7	72	79
Nabdam	36	66	102	35	67	102			
Nanumba North	0	1	1	16	26		16	64	80
Nanumba South	4	6	10	27	39	42	24	57	81
Tain	15	63	78	15	67	66	45	99	144
Talensi	43	96	139			82	22	48	70
All	103	244	347	127	296	423	117	394	511

Source: Author's own using AAI data for three rounds – 2018 round 2, 2019 round 1, 2019 round 2.

Note: **Table A 1** reports the number of observations, by gender, district and round of interview.

Table A 2: Number of observations, by access and non-access, district, country and round

Bangladesh									
	2018			2019a			2019b		
District	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All
Dinajpur				79	1	80	79	1	80
Gaibandha	196	54	250	196	54	250	196	54	250
Lalmonirhat	222	28	250	221	28	249	221	28	249
All	418	82	500	496	83	579	496	83	579
Rwanda									
	2018			2019a			2019b		
District	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All
Gisagara	52	63	115	17	100	117	15	91	106
Karongi	36	41	77	5	72	77	3	70	73
Musanze	34	43	77	15	62	77	13	56	69
Nyanza	54	62	116	10	106	116	4	101	105
Nyaruguru	26	18	44	8	36	44	5	26	31
All	202	227	429	55	376	431	40	344	384
Ghana									
	2018			2019a			2019b		
District	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All
Adaklu	8	4	12						
Asutifi South				39	15	54	39	15	54
Jirapa				24	19	43	18	54	72
Nabdam	29	37	66	26	41	67			
Nanumba North	1	0	1	19	7	26	40	24	64
Nanumba South	1	5	6	29	10	39	37	20	57
Tain	44	19	63	51	16	67	83	16	99
Talensi	4	92	96				1	47	48
All	87	157	244	188	108	296	218	176	394

Source: Author's own using AAI data for three rounds – 2018 round 2, 2019 round 1, 2019 round 2. Note: Table A 2 reports the number of women, by access to POWER time-saving intervention, district and round of interview.

2. Descriptive analysis

2.1. Summary statistics

Participation rates – women and men

Table A 3: Participation rates of unpaid care activities

Bangladesh									
Activity	2018			2019a			2019b		
	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All
Unpaid Care Activities	87.0%	100%	97.8%	72.1%	99.7%	94.3%	79.3%	100%	96.0%
<i>Domestic work</i>	76.0%	99.8%	95.8%	53.6%	98.8%	90.0%	60.0%	99.7%	91.9%
<i>Care for children</i>	57.0%	87.4%	82.3%	43.6%	77.5%	70.9%	50.0%	80.3%	74.4%
<i>Care for adults</i>	19.0%	52.0%	46.5%	2.1%	35.2%	28.8%	5.0%	35.6%	29.6%
<i>Care for elderly</i>	9.0%	22.6%	20.3%	3.6%	8.8%	7.8%	6.4%	9.0%	8.5%
<i>Cooking</i>	55.0%	99.2%	91.8%	22.9%	87.2%	74.7%	35.7%	85.5%	75.8%
Rwanda									
Activity	2018			2019a			2019b		
	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All
Unpaid Care Activities	79.2%	99.8%	96.8%	43.5%	99.8%	92.0%	33.8%	98.4%	89.1%
<i>Domestic work</i>	55.6%	98.8%	92.6%	17.4%	91.6%	81.4%	23.1%	91.1%	81.3%
<i>Care for children</i>	48.6%	88.6%	82.8%	15.9%	72.6%	64.8%	15.4%	59.4%	53.0%
<i>Care for adults</i>	18.1%	58.5%	52.7%	0%	7.0%	6.0%	1.5%	6.0%	5.3%
<i>Care for elderly</i>	12.5%	18.4%	17.6%	1.4%	3.2%	3.0%	1.5%	2.6%	2.4%
<i>Cooking</i>	36.1%	99.8%	90.6%	21.7%	99.3%	88.6%	10.8%	97.1%	84.6%
Ghana									
Activity	2018			2019a			2019b		
	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All
Unpaid Care Activities	84.5%	94.3%	91.4%	80.3%	100%	94.1%	86.3%	96.7%	94.3%
<i>Domestic work</i>	63.1%	93.0%	84.1%	58.3%	99.0%	86.8%	60.7%	94.7%	86.9%
<i>Care for children</i>	62.1%	71.3%	68.6%	69.3%	81.4%	77.8%	77.8%	83.8%	82.4%
<i>Care for adults</i>	20.4%	9.8%	13.0%	6.3%	12.8%	10.9%	18.8%	21.6%	20.9%
<i>Care for elderly</i>	15.5%	21.7%	19.9%	7.9%	13.9%	12.1%	19.7%	25.4%	24.1%
<i>Cooking</i>	32.0%	88.5%	71.8%	52.8%	97.6%	84.2%	61.5%	94.4%	86.9%

Source: Author's own using AAI data for three rounds – 2018 round 2, 2019 round 1, 2019 round 2.

Note: **Table A3** reports the participation rate i.e., the proportion of women and men who devote any time doing each of the categories of unpaid care work.

Table A 4: Participation rates of unpaid work

Bangladesh									
	2018			2019a			2019b		
Activity	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All
Unpaid Work	96.0%	99.8%	99.2%	89.3%	97.1%	95.5%	91.4%	96.9%	95.8%
<i>Collecting water</i>	49.0%	88.4%	81.8%	27.9%	78.1%	68.3%	37.9%	80.8%	72.5%
<i>Subsistence farming</i>	37.0%	52.8%	50.2%	25.0%	27.3%	26.8%	32.1%	33.3%	33.1%
<i>Shopping or getting services</i>	59.0%	20.6%	27.0%	48.6%	13.3%	20.2%	46.4%	16.1%	22.0%
<i>Collecting fuel/wood</i>	24.0%	80.2%	70.8%	15.7%	62.2%	53.1%	19.3%	62.0%	53.7%
<i>Weaving, sewing, handicraft</i>	6.0%	40.0%	34.3%	5.0%	34.4%	28.7%	4.3%	31.4%	26.1%
<i>Animal rearing</i>	79.0%	89.2%	87.5%	67.1%	82.2%	79.3%	72.9%	85.8%	83.3%
Rwanda									
	2018			2019a			2019b		
Activity	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All
Unpaid Work	100%	100%	100%	97.1%	99.5%	99.2%	98.5%	97.4%	97.6%
<i>Collecting water</i>	52.8%	72.7%	69.9%	30.4%	41.1%	39.6%	32.3%	29.9%	30.3%
<i>Subsistence farming</i>	94.4%	97.0%	96.6%	95.7%	92.6%	93.0%	73.8%	87.2%	85.3%
<i>Shopping or getting services</i>	33.3%	79.3%	72.7%	10.1%	47.6%	42.4%	16.9%	42.2%	38.5%
<i>Collecting fuel/wood</i>	73.6%	86.2%	84.4%	63.8%	42.0%	45.0%	49.2%	33.1%	35.4%
<i>Weaving, sewing, handicraft</i>	34.7%	27.5%	28.5%	0%	3.2%	2.8%	0%	1.8%	1.6%
<i>Animal rearing</i>	98.6%	92.5%	93.4%	95.7%	78.2%	80.6%	90.8%	72.9%	75.5%
Ghana									
	2018			2019a			2019b		
Activity	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All
Unpaid Work	99.0%	95.9%	96.8%	97.6%	99.0%	98.6%	99.1%	98.2%	98.4%
<i>Collecting water</i>	78.6%	89.8%	86.5%	46.5%	87.2%	74.9%	47.0%	88.6%	79.1%
<i>Subsistence farming</i>	48.5%	51.2%	50.4%	89.0%	84.1%	85.6%	83.8%	85.5%	85.1%
<i>Shopping or getting services</i>	10.7%	13.9%	13.0%	11.8%	13.2%	12.8%	6.8%	16.5%	14.3%
<i>Collecting fuel/wood</i>	41.7%	49.2%	47.0%	42.5%	59.5%	54.4%	44.4%	67.3%	62.0%
<i>Weaving, sewing, handicraft</i>	7.8%	4.1%	5.2%	8.7%	3.0%	4.7%	9.4%	6.9%	7.4%
<i>Animal rearing</i>	91.3%	38.9%	54.5%	86.6%	27.0%	44.9%	87.2%	42.9%	53.0%

Source: Author's own using AAI data for three rounds – 2018 round 2, 2019 round 1, 2019 round 2.

Note: **Table A 4** reports the participation rate i.e., the proportion of women and men who devote any time doing each of the categories of unpaid work.

Table A 5: Participation rates of paid work

Bangladesh									
	2018			2019a			2019b		
Activity	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All
Paid Work	100%	89.0%	90.8%	100%	68.0%	74.3%	99.3%	88.6%	90.7%
<i>Employed/Self-employed</i>	83.0%	47.2%	53.2%	81.4%	35.6%	44.5%	82.9%	44.6%	52.0%
<i>Agricultural Work</i>	70.0%	64.2%	65.2%	50.7%	31.6%	35.3%	68.6%	64.4%	65.2%
<i>Commuting and travelling</i>	32.0%	23.0%	24.5%	35.0%	20.9%	23.6%	40.0%	23.0%	26.3%
Rwanda									
	2018			2019a			2019b		
Activity	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All
<i>Paid Work</i>	61.1%	40.3%	43.3%	18.8%	11.4%	12.4%	50.8%	31.5%	34.3%
<i>Employed/Self-employed</i>	31.9%	17.7%	19.8%	18.8%	10.7%	11.8%	29.2%	17.4%	19.2%
<i>Agricultural Work</i>	30.6%	24.9%	25.7%	1.4%	0.5%	0.6%	26.2%	15.9%	17.4%
<i>Commuting and travelling</i>	41.7%	21.4%	24.4%	1.4%	1.6%	1.6%	15.4%	5.5%	6.9%
Ghana									
	2018			2019a			2019b		
Activity	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All
<i>Paid Work</i>	81.6%	77.5%	78.7%	65.4%	67.6%	66.9%	51.3%	67.8%	64.0%
<i>Employed/Self-employed</i>	58.3%	68.0%	65.1%	22.0%	37.2%	32.6%	29.1%	44.2%	40.7%
<i>Agricultural Work</i>	42.7%	22.5%	28.5%	50.4%	36.1%	40.4%	21.4%	29.2%	27.4%
<i>Commuting and travelling</i>	14.6%	12.7%	13.3%	25.2%	23.3%	23.9%	17.9%	25.1%	23.5%

Source: Author's own using AAI data for three rounds – 2018 round 2, 2019 round 1, 2019 round 2.

Note: **Table A 5** reports the participation rate i.e., the proportion of women and men who devote any time doing each of the categories of paid work.

Table A 6: Participation rates of personal activities

Bangladesh									
	2018			2019a			2019b		
<i>Activity</i>	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All
<i>Social & cultural Activities</i>	92.0%	84.2%	85.5%	85.0%	79.1%	80.3%	87.9%	85.5%	86.0%
<i>Social and cultural</i>	88.0%	73.2%	75.7%	82.1%	73.4%	75.1%	87.1%	80.0%	81.4%
<i>Mass Media</i>	40.0%	35.6%	36.3%	19.3%	24.2%	23.2%	28.6%	29.2%	29.1%
<i>Practicing hobbies</i>	32.0%	21.0%	22.8%	7.9%	7.8%	7.8%	10.7%	8.3%	8.8%
Rwanda									
	2018			2019a			2019b		
<i>Activity</i>	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All
<i>Social & cultural Activities</i>	98.6%	87.6%	89.2%	100%	82.4%	84.8%	96.9%	87.0%	88.4%
<i>Social and cultural</i>	66.7%	52.2%	54.3%	63.8%	52.2%	53.8%	49.2%	54.2%	53.5%
<i>Mass Media</i>	97.2%	71.6%	75.2%	88.4%	58.7%	62.8%	90.8%	71.1%	73.9%
<i>Practicing hobbies</i>	88.9%	26.3%	35.3%	79.7%	19.0%	27.4%	64.6%	6.8%	15.1%
Ghana									
	2018			2019a			2019b		
<i>Activity</i>	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All
<i>Social & cultural Activities</i>	98.1%	92.2%	93.9%	91.3%	88.9%	89.6%	88.9%	85.8%	86.5%
<i>Social and cultural</i>	61.2%	37.3%	44.4%	33.9%	29.4%	30.7%	47.9%	43.1%	44.2%
<i>Mass Media</i>	73.8%	71.3%	72.0%	79.5%	78.0%	78.5%	71.8%	67.5%	68.5%
<i>Practicing hobbies</i>	51.5%	31.6%	37.5%	40.9%	11.1%	20.1%	46.2%	14.2%	21.5%

Source: Author's own using AAI data for three rounds – 2018 round 2, 2019 round 1, 2019 round 2.

Note: **Table A 6** reports the participation rate i.e., the proportion of women and men who devote any time doing each of the categories of social, cultural & leisure activities.

Table A 7: Participation rates of unpaid care activities

Bangladesh									
	2018			2019a			2019b		
Activity	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All
Personal Activities	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
<i>Learning</i>	11.0%	16.0%	15.2%	4.3%	10.9%	9.6%	7.1%	13.3%	12.1%
<i>Sleeping and resting</i>	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
<i>Eating</i>	100%	99.8%	99.8%	97.9%	93.6%	94.4%	97.1%	96.0%	96.2%
<i>Personal care</i>	100%	100%	100%	100%	99.5%	99.6%	100%	100%	100%
<i>Religion</i>	45.0%	69.0%	65.0%	25.7%	47.8%	43.5%	33.6%	56.5%	52.0%
Rwanda									
	2018			2019a			2019b		
Activity	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All
Personal Activities	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
<i>Learning</i>	48.6%	32.6%	34.9%	7.2%	3.2%	3.8%	7.7%	3.9%	4.5%
<i>Sleeping and resting</i>	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
<i>Eating</i>	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
<i>Personal care</i>	100%	98.1%	98.4%	98.6%	95.6%	96.0%	98.5%	93.5%	94.2%
<i>Religion</i>	84.7%	93.0%	91.8%	81.2%	89.3%	88.2%	83.1%	82.0%	82.2%
Ghana									
	2018			2019a			2019b		
Activity	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All
Personal Activities	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
<i>Learning</i>	20.4%	28.3%	25.9%	22.8%	31.4%	28.8%	32.5%	29.7%	30.3%
<i>Sleeping and resting</i>	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
<i>Eating</i>	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
<i>Personal care</i>	100%	100%	100%	99.2%	99.3%	99.3%	100%	100%	100%
<i>Religion</i>	61.2%	72.1%	68.9%	51.2%	68.2%	63.1%	72.6%	79.7%	78.1%

Source: Author's own using AAI data for three rounds – 2018 round 2, 2019 round 1, 2019 round 2.

Note: **Table A 7** reports the participation rate i.e., the proportion of women and men who devote any time doing each of the categories of personal activities.

Table A 8: Participation rates of unpaid care activities

Bangladesh									
Activity	2018			2019a			2019b		
	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All
Unpaid Care Activities	100%	100%	100%	99.8%	98.8%	99.7%	100%	100%	100%
Domestic work	99.8%	100%	99.8%	99.0%	97.6%	98.8%	99.6%	100%	99.7%
Care for children	87.3%	87.8%	87.4%	78.6%	71.1%	77.5%	80.6%	78.3%	80.3%
Care for adults	53.8%	42.7%	52.0%	38.3%	16.9%	35.2%	36.5%	30.1%	35.6%
Care for elderly	22.2%	24.4%	22.6%	8.9%	8.4%	8.8%	9.1%	8.4%	9.0%
Cooking	99.3%	98.8%	99.2%	88.7%	78.3%	87.2%	86.3%	80.7%	85.5%
Rwanda									
Activity	2018			2019a			2019b		
	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All
Unpaid Care Activities	99.5%	100%	99.8%	100%	99.7%	99.8%	100%	98.3%	98.4%
Domestic work	99.0%	98.7%	98.8%	87.3%	92.3%	91.6%	92.5%	91.0%	91.1%
Care for children	92.1%	85.5%	88.6%	65.5%	73.7%	72.6%	50.0%	60.5%	59.4%
Care for adults	59.9%	57.3%	58.5%	9.1%	6.6%	7.0%	7.5%	5.8%	6.0%
Care for elderly	19.3%	17.6%	18.4%	1.8%	3.5%	3.2%	0%	2.9%	2.6%
Cooking	99.5%	100%	99.8%	98.2%	99.5%	99.3%	100%	96.8%	97.1%
Ghana									
Activity	2018			2019a			2019b		
	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All
Unpaid Care Activities	100%	91.1%	94.3%	100%	100%	100%	100%	92.6%	96.7%
Domestic work	100%	89.2%	93.0%	98.9%	99.1%	99.0%	97.2%	91.5%	94.7%
Care for children	80.5%	66.2%	71.3%	80.9%	82.4%	81.4%	89.0%	77.3%	83.8%
Care for adults	8.0%	10.8%	9.8%	13.3%	12.0%	12.8%	24.8%	17.6%	21.6%
Care for elderly	14.9%	25.5%	21.7%	15.4%	11.1%	13.9%	23.4%	27.8%	25.4%
Cooking	100%	82.2%	88.5%	97.9%	97.2%	97.6%	97.2%	90.9%	94.4%

Source: Author's own using AAI data for three rounds – 2018 round 2, 2019 round 1, 2019 round 2.

Note: **Table A 8** reports the participation rate i.e., the proportion of women and men who devote any time doing each of the categories of unpaid care work.

Table A 9: Participation rates of unpaid work

Bangladesh									
Activity	2018			2019a			2019b		
	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All
Unpaid Work	99.8%	100%	99.8%	97.0%	97.6%	97.1%	96.6%	98.8%	96.9%
Collecting water	100%	100%	100%	100%	99.5%	99.5%	100%	97.1%	97.4%
Subsistence farming	88.6%	58.6%	72.7%	56.4%	38.8%	41.1%	47.5%	27.9%	29.9%
Shopping or getting services	97.0%	96.9%	97.0%	94.5%	92.3%	92.6%	82.5%	87.8%	87.2%
Collecting fuel/wood	82.2%	76.7%	79.3%	50.9%	47.1%	47.6%	50.0%	41.3%	42.2%
Weaving, sewing, handicraft	86.6%	85.9%	86.2%	52.7%	40.4%	42.0%	47.5%	31.4%	33.1%
Animal rearing	25.7%	29.1%	27.5%	0%	3.7%	3.2%	2.5%	1.7%	1.8%
Rwanda									
Activity	2018			2019a			2019b		
	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All
Unpaid Work	100%	100%	100%	100%	99.5%	99.5%	100%	97.1%	97.4%
Collecting water	88.6%	58.6%	72.7%	56.4%	38.8%	41.1%	47.5%	27.9%	29.9%
Subsistence farming	97.0%	96.9%	97.0%	94.5%	92.3%	92.6%	82.5%	87.8%	87.2%
Shopping or getting services	82.2%	76.7%	79.3%	50.9%	47.1%	47.6%	50.0%	41.3%	42.2%
Collecting fuel/wood	86.6%	85.9%	86.2%	52.7%	40.4%	42.0%	47.5%	31.4%	33.1%
Weaving, sewing, handicraft	25.7%	29.1%	27.5%	0%	3.7%	3.2%	2.5%	1.7%	1.8%
Animal rearing	94.1%	91.2%	92.5%	80.0%	77.9%	78.2%	82.5%	71.8%	72.9%
Ghana									
Activity	2018			2019a			2019b		
	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All
Unpaid Work	95.4%	96.2%	95.9%	99.5%	98.1%	99.0%	98.6%	97.7%	98.2%
Collecting water	92.0%	88.5%	89.8%	88.8%	84.3%	87.2%	83.5%	94.9%	88.6%
Subsistence farming	60.9%	45.9%	51.2%	83.5%	85.2%	84.1%	91.3%	78.4%	85.5%
Shopping or getting services	18.4%	11.5%	13.9%	16.5%	7.4%	13.2%	17.4%	15.3%	16.5%
Collecting fuel/wood	73.6%	35.7%	49.2%	63.8%	51.9%	59.5%	68.3%	65.9%	67.3%
Weaving, sewing, handicraft	3.4%	4.5%	4.1%	3.2%	2.8%	3.0%	8.7%	4.5%	6.9%
Animal rearing	33.3%	42.0%	38.9%	34.0%	14.8%	27.0%	49.5%	34.7%	42.9%

Source: Author's own using AAI data for three rounds – 2018 round 2, 2019 round 1, 2019 round 2.

Note: **Table A 9** reports the participation rate i.e., the proportion of women and men who devote any time doing each of the categories of unpaid work.

Table A 10: Participation rates of paid work

Bangladesh									
	2018			2019a			2019b		
Activity	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All
Paid Work	87.6%	96.3%	89.0%	66.9%	74.7%	68.0%	88.9%	86.7%	88.6%
<i>Employed/Self-employed</i>	49.0%	37.8%	47.2%	36.3%	31.3%	35.6%	44.2%	47.0%	44.6%
<i>Agricultural Work</i>	61.7%	76.8%	64.2%	28.2%	51.8%	31.6%	63.9%	67.5%	64.4%
<i>Commuting and travelling</i>	21.1%	32.9%	23.0%	21.8%	15.7%	20.9%	23.4%	20.5%	23.0%
Rwanda									
	2018			2019a			2019b		
Activity	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All
Paid Work	35.1%	44.9%	40.3%	12.7%	11.2%	11.4%	20.0%	32.8%	31.5%
<i>Employed/Self-employed</i>	16.8%	18.5%	17.7%	12.7%	10.4%	10.7%	12.5%	18.0%	17.4%
<i>Agricultural Work</i>	18.8%	30.4%	24.9%	0%	0.5%	0.5%	7.5%	16.9%	15.9%
<i>Commuting and travelling</i>	18.8%	23.8%	21.4%	3.6%	1.3%	1.6%	7.5%	5.2%	5.5%
Ghana									
	2018			2019a			2019b		
Activity	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All
Paid Work	64.4%	84.7%	77.5%	64.9%	72.2%	67.6%	63.3%	73.3%	67.8%
<i>Employed/Self-employed</i>	56.3%	74.5%	68.0%	34.6%	41.7%	37.2%	35.3%	55.1%	44.2%
<i>Agricultural Work</i>	16.1%	26.1%	22.5%	33.5%	40.7%	36.1%	31.7%	26.1%	29.2%
<i>Commuting and travelling</i>	10.3%	14.0%	12.7%	25.5%	19.4%	23.3%	28.4%	21.0%	25.1%

Source: Author's own using AAI data for three rounds – 2018 round 2, 2019 round 1, 2019 round 2.

Note: **Table A 10** reports the participation rate i.e., the proportion of women and men who devote any time doing each of the categories of paid work.

Table A 11: Participation rates of social, cultural and leisure activities

Bangladesh									
Activity	2018			2019a			2019b		
	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All
Social & cultural Activities	82.8%	91.5%	84.2%	79.0%	79.5%	79.1%	85.1%	88.0%	85.5%
<i>Social and cultural</i>	71.3%	82.9%	73.2%	73.8%	71.1%	73.4%	79.6%	81.9%	80.0%
<i>Mass Media</i>	32.3%	52.4%	35.6%	20.8%	44.6%	24.2%	28.2%	34.9%	29.2%
<i>Practicing hobbies</i>	20.3%	24.4%	21.0%	8.7%	2.4%	7.8%	8.9%	4.8%	8.3%
Rwanda									
Activity	2018			2019a			2019b		
	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All
Social & cultural Activities	86.1%	89.0%	87.6%	83.6%	82.2%	82.4%	87.5%	86.9%	87.0%
<i>Social and cultural</i>	45.0%	58.6%	52.2%	54.5%	51.9%	52.2%	62.5%	53.2%	54.2%
<i>Mass Media</i>	68.8%	74.0%	71.6%	47.3%	60.4%	58.7%	55.0%	73.0%	71.1%
<i>Practicing hobbies</i>	28.2%	24.7%	26.3%	27.3%	17.8%	19.0%	2.5%	7.3%	6.8%
Ghana									
Activity	2018			2019a			2019b		
	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All
Social & cultural Activities	85.1%	96.2%	92.2%	88.3%	89.8%	88.9%	85.8%	85.8%	85.8%
<i>Social and cultural</i>	16.1%	49.0%	37.3%	31.9%	25.0%	29.4%	32.1%	56.8%	43.1%
<i>Mass Media</i>	78.2%	67.5%	71.3%	76.6%	80.6%	78.0%	76.1%	56.8%	67.5%
<i>Practicing hobbies</i>	9.2%	43.9%	31.6%	9.6%	13.9%	11.1%	7.8%	22.2%	14.2%

Source: Author's own using AAI data for three rounds – 2018 round 2, 2019 round 1, 2019 round 2.

Note: **Table A11** reports the participation rate i.e., the proportion of women and men who devote any time doing each of the categories of social, cultural & leisure activities.

Table A 12: Participation rates of personal activities

Bangladesh									
Activity	2018			2019a			2019b		
	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All
Personal Activities	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
<i>Learning</i>	17.0%	11.0%	16.0%	10.5%	13.3%	10.9%	13.5%	12.0%	13.3%
<i>Sleeping and resting</i>	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
<i>Eating</i>	99.8%	100%	99.8%	93.3%	95.2%	93.6%	96.2%	95.2%	96.0%
<i>Personal care</i>	100%	100%	100%	99.6%	98.8%	99.5%	100%	100%	100%
<i>Religion</i>	68.7%	70.7%	69.0%	49.6%	37.3%	47.8%	58.9%	42.2%	56.5%
Rwanda									
Activity	2018			2019a			2019b		
	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All
Personal Activities	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
<i>Learning</i>	34.2%	31.3%	32.6%	3.6%	3.2%	3.2%	0%	4.4%	3.9%
<i>Sleeping and resting</i>	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
<i>Eating</i>	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
<i>Personal care</i>	98.0%	98.2%	98.1%	94.5%	95.7%	95.6%	92.5%	93.6%	93.5%
<i>Religion</i>	91.6%	94.3%	93.0%	92.7%	88.8%	89.3%	87.5%	81.4%	82.0%
Ghana									
Activity	2018			2019a			2019b		
	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All
Personal Activities	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
<i>Learning</i>	44.8%	19.1%	28.3%	33.5%	27.8%	31.4%	38.5%	18.8%	29.7%
<i>Sleeping and resting</i>	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
<i>Eating</i>	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
<i>Personal care</i>	100%	100%	100%	99.5%	99.1%	99.3%	100%	100%	100%
<i>Religion</i>	74.7%	70.7%	72.1%	73.9%	58.3%	68.2%	78.0%	81.8%	79.7%

Source: Author's own using AAI data for three rounds – 2018 round 2, 2019 round 1, 2019 round 2.

Note: **Table A 12** reports the participation rate i.e., the proportion of women and men who devote any time doing each of the categories of personal activities.

2.2. Women's time use

Table A 13: Average time per activity and across rounds – only women sample

Bangladesh			
Activity	2018	2019a	2019b
<i>Unpaid Care</i>	343.7 (85.5)	316.5 (110.4)	276.2 (99.6)
<i>Unpaid Work</i>	169.5 (90.0)	225.8 (130.9)	193.5 (122.6)
<i>Paid Work</i>	170.4 (128.4)	137.8 (156.1)	221.2 (153.5)
<i>Personal Activities</i>	678.4 (67.6)	676.5 (97.7)	674.8 (80.0)
<i>Social Activities</i>	68.9 (63.0)	80.4 (72.8)	72.2 (65.3)
<i>Other Activities</i>	4.2 (15.5)	0.5 (6.4)	0.6 (5.8)
N	500	579	579
Rwanda			
Activity	2018	2019a	2019b
<i>Unpaid Care</i>	259.7 (79.4)	254.0 (91.7)	227.6 (99.3)
<i>Unpaid Work</i>	388.4 (110.4)	363.1 (133.8)	332.4 (151.7)
<i>Paid Work</i>	55.5 (90.7)	20.5 (78.3)	75.3 (144.2)
<i>Personal Activities</i>	640.5 (67.6)	683.7 (99.0)	673.8 (83.6)
<i>Social Activities</i>	53.2 (43.8)	50.1 (57.4)	88.8 (96.3)
<i>Other Activities</i>	12.6 (30.0)	60.1 (89.6)	32.0 (60.9)
N	429	431	384
Ghana			
Activity	2018	2019a	2019b
<i>Unpaid Care</i>	216.1 (110.5)	255.3 (114.2)	245.2 (117.3)
<i>Unpaid Work</i>	162.2 (116.9)	266.9 (136.4)	264.5 (137.3)
<i>Paid Work</i>	238.7 (185.2)	136.5 (155.8)	135.1 (154.6)
<i>Personal Activities</i>	681.1 (107.0)	694.1 (115.0)	693.9 (124.9)
<i>Social Activities</i>	127.5 (116.3)	71.2 (62.6)	89.3 (97.5)
<i>Other Activities</i>	2.4 (12.2)	0.9 (4.6)	1.3 (7.4)
N	244	296	394

Source: Author's own using AAI data for three rounds – 2018 round 2, 2019 round 1, 2019 round 2.

Note: **Table A 13** reports the average time spent by women across macro categories of activities, by country and round of interview. Standard Deviation in parenthesis.

3. Comparison between women and men

3.1. Time use – comparison for women and men

Table A 14: Average time spent by women & men by country and activity

Bangladesh									
	2018			2019a			2019b		
Activity	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All
Unpaid Care	83.4 (79.5)	343.7 (85.5)	300.3 (128.7)	66.5 (83.4)	316.5 (110.4)	267.8 (144.8)	67.6 (72.5)	276.2 (99.6)	235.6 (125.9)
Unpaid Work	97.7 (76.6)	169.5 (90.0)	157.5 (91.8)	112.2 (91.0)	225.8 (130.9)	203.7 (132.0)	91.0 (78.1)	193.5 (122.6)	173.5 (122.2)
Paid Work	458.6 (170.6)	170.4 (128.4)	218.4 (173.5)	444.3 (182.3)	137.8 (156.1)	197.4 (202.0)	480.7 (167.0)	221.2 (153.5)	271.7 (186.9)
Personal Activities	680.0 (68.2)	678.4 (67.6)	678.7 (67.6)	706.9 (93.7)	676.5 (97.7)	682.4 (97.6)	698.0 (86.8)	674.8 (80.0)	679.3 (81.9)
Social Activities	113.3 (92.1)	68.9 (63.0)	76.3 (70.6)	108.6 (95.1)	80.4 (72.8)	85.9 (78.4)	99.5 (77.7)	72.2 (65.3)	77.6 (68.7)
Other Activities	5.0 (16.0)	4.2 (15.5)	4.4 (15.6)	0.5 (3.2)	0.5 (6.4)	0.5 (5.9)	2.3 (22.8)	0.6 (5.8)	1.0 (11.3)
Rwanda									
	2018			2019a			2019b		
Activity	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All
Unpaid Care	39.2 (40.2)	259.7 (79.4)	228.0 (107.8)	19.9 (35.4)	254.0 (91.7)	221.7 (118.1)	23.9 (44.8)	227.6 (99.3)	198.1 (117.8)
Unpaid Work	415.1 (115.0)	388.4 (110.4)	392.3 (111.3)	435.3 (137.3)	363.1 (133.8)	373.1 (136.5)	354.7 (179.5)	332.4 (151.7)	335.6 (156.0)
Paid Work	107.6 (135.9)	55.5 (90.7)	63.0 (100.0)	59.6 (155.5)	20.5 (78.3)	25.9 (93.6)	170.1 (219.3)	75.3 (144.2)	89.0 (160.5)
Personal Activities	699.7 (71.1)	640.5 (67.6)	649.0 (71.1)	735.7 (85.8)	683.7 (99.0)	690.9 (98.9)	707.5 (93.8)	673.8 (83.6)	678.7 (85.9)
Social Activities	140.7 (56.1)	53.2 (43.8)	65.8 (55.0)	151.8 (76.6)	50.1 (57.4)	64.1 (69.8)	160.2 (90.2)	88.8 (96.3)	99.2 (98.6)
Other Activities	10.0 (24.0)	12.6 (30.0)	12.2 (29.2)	33.7 (66.0)	60.1 (89.6)	56.5 (87.2)	8.9 (36.1)	32.0 (60.9)	28.7 (58.5)
Ghana									
	2018			2019a			2019b		
Activity	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All
Unpaid Care	78.6 (78.1)	216.1 (110.5)	175.2 (119.7)	86.8 (80.7)	255.3 (114.2)	204.7 (130.5)	106.2 (119.1)	245.2 (117.3)	213.4 (131.3)
Unpaid Work	234.6 (145.7)	162.2 (116.9)	183.7 (130.2)	382.1 (176.5)	266.9 (136.4)	301.5 (158.4)	299.0 (147.8)	264.5 (137.3)	272.4 (140.4)
Paid Work	240.0 (184.2)	238.7 (185.2)	239.1 (184.6)	130.5 (166.1)	136.5 (155.8)	134.7 (158.8)	117.1 (159.2)	135.1 (154.6)	131.0 (155.7)
Personal Activities	672.2 (139.1)	681.1 (107.0)	678.4 (117.3)	723.8 (146.8)	694.1 (115.0)	703.0 (125.9)	753.7 (139.4)	693.9 (124.9)	707.6 (130.7)
Social Activities	202.1 (115.1)	127.5 (116.3)	149.6 (120.7)	111.8 (77.3)	71.2 (62.6)	83.4 (69.8)	149.7 (119.3)	89.3 (97.5)	103.2 (105.9)
Other Activities	7.5 (27.2)	2.4 (12.2)	3.9 (18.1)	1.2 (7.5)	0.9 (4.6)	1.0 (5.6)	5.3 (20.8)	1.3 (7.4)	2.2 (11.9)

Source: Author's own using AAI data for three rounds – 2018 round 2, 2019 round 1, 2019 round 2.

Note: **Table A 14** reports the average time spent for each activity: unpaid care work, paid work, productive work and non-productive work for men and women in Ghana. Standard Deviation in parenthesis.

3.2. 3.2. Mean differences

Table A 15: Testing for equality of means for time use across gender for all unpaid care sub-activities

Bangladesh									
Activity	2018			2019a			2019b		
	Men	Women	Δ	Men	Women	Δ	Men	Women	Δ
Unpaid Care Activities	83.4 (79.5)	343.7 (85.5)	-260.3***	66.5 (83.4)	316.5 (110.4)	-250.0***	67.6 (72.5)	276.2 (99.6)	-208.6***
Domestic work	30.9 (34.4)	112.4 (52.7)	-81.5***	31.9 (43.1)	107.2 (54.2)	-75.4***	27.3 (38.2)	92.8 (48.5)	-65.5***
Care for children	23.3 (30.3)	53.1 (48.3)	-29.9***	19.4 (32.3)	59.0 (57.9)	-39.6***	18.4 (28.3)	52.7 (54.0)	-34.3***
Care for adults	3.6 (15.3)	10.1 (14.8)	-6.5***	0.9 (7.3)	12.5 (21.6)	-11.6***	1.0 (5.1)	8.8 (16.6)	-7.9***
Care for elderly	0.9 (3.4)	5.8 (14.7)	-4.9***	1.1 (6.2)	4.0 (18.9)	-2.9*	1.0 (5.7)	2.3 (10.6)	-1.3
Cooking	24.4 (38.5)	161.0 (43.9)	-136.6***	13.2 (37.0)	133.1 (73.5)	-119.9***	19.9 (38.2)	118.9 (69.3)	-99.1***
Rwanda									
Activity	2018			2019a			2019b		
	Men	Women	Δ	Men	Women	Δ	Men	Women	Δ
Unpaid Care Activities	39.2 (40.2)	259.7 (79.4)	-220.5***	19.9 (35.4)	254.0 (91.7)	-234.1***	23.9 (44.8)	227.6 (99.3)	-203.7***
Domestic work	16.1 (22.8)	76.7 (36.3)	-60.6***	6.4 (16.3)	61.9 (48.9)	-55.5***	13.9 (32.0)	53.7 (47.2)	-39.8***
Care for children	8.4 (11.3)	44.3 (34.2)	-35.9***	3.5 (8.8)	28.5 (29.7)	-25.1***	5.6 (15.1)	25.0 (32.3)	-19.4***
Care for adults	2.3 (6.5)	9.7 (13.6)	-7.4***	0.0 (0.0)	0.9 (3.8)	-0.9*	0.5 (3.7)	1.3 (5.9)	-0.8
Care for elderly	2.1 (7.1)	4.7 (12.9)	-2.6*	0.4 (3.0)	0.7 (4.5)	-0.3	0.9 (7.4)	1.2 (7.9)	-0.2
Cooking	9.6 (17.0)	101.5 (45.1)	-91.9***	9.6 (29.3)	159.0 (61.6)	-149.4***	2.9 (10.7)	142.2 (70.7)	-139.3***
Ghana									
Activity	2018			2019a			2019b		
	Men	Women	Δ	Men	Women	Δ	Men	Women	Δ
Unpaid Care Activities	78.6 (78.1)	216.1 (110.5)	-137.5***	86.8 (80.7)	255.3 (114.2)	-168.4***	106.2 (119.1)	245.2 (117.3)	-139.0***
Domestic work	18.3 (20.6)	54.6 (34.1)	-36.3***	20.4 (26.4)	64.4 (36.6)	-44.0***	19.0 (28.4)	63.4 (40.8)	-44.4***
Care for children	30.9 (33.1)	42.9 (46.0)	-12.0**	30.4 (34.1)	56.6 (75.3)	-26.2***	36.0 (65.0)	45.4 (52.2)	-9.4
Care for adults	5.2 (14.5)	1.4 (5.3)	3.8***	0.5 (1.9)	2.5 (9.9)	-2.0**	2.3 (7.7)	3.3 (8.6)	-1.1
Care for elderly	6.5 (21.3)	4.3 (11.1)	2.2	1.3 (5.0)	2.3 (7.7)	-1.0	3.0 (8.9)	5.6 (12.6)	-2.6**
Cooking	16.9 (41.9)	109.0 (62.9)	-92.1***	33.9 (47.6)	126.2 (56.1)	-92.3***	44.1 (62.4)	124.0 (61.1)	-79.9***

Source: Author's own using AAI data for three rounds – 2018 round 2, 2019 round 1, 2019 round 2.

Note: **Table A 15** reports average time spend by women and men in unpaid care activities, with associated test in difference. Standard Deviation in parenthesis. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1.

Table A 16: Testing for equality of means for time use across all unpaid work sub-activities

Bangladesh									
	2018			2019a			2019b		
Activity	Men	Women	Δ	Men	Women	Δ	Men	Women	Δ
Unpaid Work	97.7 (76.6)	169.5 (90.0)	-71.8***	112.2 (91.0)	225.8 (130.9)	-113.6***	91.0 (78.1)	193.5 (122.6)	-102.5***
<i>Collecting water</i>	5.5 (10.8)	19.6 (21.2)	-14.1***	7.8 (19.9)	60.6 (65.3)	-52.8***	9.6 (20.3)	65.9 (67.2)	-56.2***
<i>Subsistence Farming</i>	14.7 (30.3)	23.1 (40.0)	-8.4**	9.1 (23.6)	12.6 (33.2)	-3.4***	14.4 (36.4)	11.8 (24.8)	2.6
<i>Shopping or getting services</i>	32.2 (43.9)	5.5 (14.4)	26.8***	39.0 (58.2)	5.7 (19.8)	33.4***	24.7 (33.3)	4.7 (12.8)	20.0***
<i>Collecting fuel/wood</i>	8.2 (20.1)	32.9 (35.0)	-24.6***	4.6 (12.8)	30.4 (37.5)	-25.8***	4.7 (12.0)	26.5 (35.4)	-21.9***
<i>Weaving, sewing and handcrafts</i>	1.0 (4.8)	21.4 (40.8)	-20.3***	4.2 (24.4)	28.0 (56.9)	-23.8***	1.8 (9.7)	21.1 (45.7)	-19.3***
<i>Animal rearing</i>	36.0 (35.0)	67.6 (52.7)	-31.6***	47.4 (52.1)	88.6 (79.0)	-41.2***	35.9 (39.2)	63.5 (60.6)	-27.6***
Rwanda									
	2018			2019a			2019b		
Activity	Men	Women	Δ	Men	Women	Δ	Men	Women	Δ
Unpaid Work	415.1 (115.0)	388.4 (110.4)	26.7*	435.3	363.1 (133.8)	72.2***	354.7 (179.5)	332.4 (151.7)	22.3
<i>Collecting water</i>	16.0 (19.2)	37.3 (39.1)	-21.3***	11.7 (22.4)	16.9 (26.3)	-5.2	12.6 (22.0)	13.0 (27.8)	-0.4
<i>Subsistence Farming</i>	225.3 (107.0)	228.5 (110.8)	-3.2	277.0 (110.6)	248.0 (124.6)	29.0*	184.9 (133.9)	220.2 (135.9)	-35.3*
<i>Shopping or getting services</i>	20.3 (43.1)	31.2 (29.7)	-10.9***	4.6 (15.9)	28.9 (47.6)	-24.3***	10.3 (30.5)	29.9 (56.7)	-19.6***
<i>Collecting fuel/wood</i>	29.1 (30.8)	29.8 (23.2)	-0.7	26.3 (28.7)	13.6 (20.6)	12.7***	24.0 (29.5)	13.8 (25.9)	10.2***
<i>Weaving, sewing and handcrafts</i>	21.6 (47.3)	17.4 (40.9)	4.1	0.0 (0.0)	5.1 (41.0)	-5.1	0.0 (0.0)	1.6 (15.9)	-1.6**
<i>Animal rearing</i>	104.0 (48.3)	46.7 (37.4)	57.2***	115.7 (67.0)	50.7 (47.0)	65.0***	122.8 (80.8)	54.2 (52.6)	68.6***

Table A 16: Testing for equality of means for time use across all unpaid work sub-activities

Ghana									
Activity	2018			2019a			2019b		
	Men	Women	Δ	Men	Women	Δ	Men	Women	Δ
Unpaid Work	234.6 (145.7)	162.2 (116.9)	72.4***	382.1 (176.5)	266.9 (136.4)	115.2***	299.0 (147.8)	264.5 (137.3)	34.5**
<i>Collecting water</i>	31.4 (29.9)	46.2 (31.9)	-14.8***	19.5 (41.2)	42.0 (40.0)	-22.5***	19.8 (28.4)	51.7 (39.0)	-31.9***
<i>Subsistence Farming</i>	95.1 (136.5)	79.4 (103.1)	15.8	253.2 (150.7)	181.6 (123.6)	71.6***	215.0 (150.2)	158.1 (119.3)	56.9***
<i>Shopping or getting services</i>	5.2 (22.1)	5.6 (22.2)	-0.4	4.1 (15.9)	7.0 (25.3)	-2.9	2.2 (15.7)	7.8 (28.5)	-5.5**
<i>Collecting fuel/wood</i>	27.0 (49.2)	17.8 (30.7)	9.3**	20.1 (32.0)	27.2 (37.8)	-7.1**	15.4 (29.2)	34.7 (48.2)	-19.3***
<i>Weaving, sewing and handcrafts</i>	3.9 (17.3)	3.4 (22.1)	0.6	2.7 (10.5)	1.4 (11.8)	1.2	4.5 (20.1)	1.8 (8.7)	2.7**
<i>Animal rearing</i>	71.8 (63.5)	9.9 (21.2)	61.9***	82.7 (72.6)	8.4 (24.6)	74.3***	42.2 (42.3)	10.9 (22.7)	31.3***

Source: Author's own using AAI data for three rounds – 2018 round 2, 2019 round 1, 2019 round 2.

Note: **Table A15** reports average time spend by women and men in unpaid work activities, with associated test in differences. Standard Deviation in parenthesis. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1.

Table A 17: Testing for equality of means for time use across all paid work sub-activities

Bangladesh									
	2018			2019a			2019b		
Activity	Men	Women	Δ	Men	Women	Δ	Men	Women	Δ
Paid Work	458.6 (170.6)	170.4 (128.4)	288.2***	444.3 (182.3)	137.8 (156.1)	306.5***	480.7 (167.0)	221.2 (153.5)	259.5***
<i>Employed/Self-employed</i>	332.5 (230.0)	82.4 (125.6)	250.1***	338.5 (231.9)	89.7 (152.7)	248.8***	335.7 (216.2)	108.5 (158.4)	227.2***
<i>Agricultural Work</i>	112.6 (132.9)	77.1 (92.1)	35.5***	77.4 (122.4)	36.8 (75.6)	40.7***	121.8 (142.5)	101.7 (113.5)	20.1*
<i>Commuting and travelling</i>	13.5 (28.9)	10.9 (33.4)	2.6	28.5 (63.1)	11.2 (32.4)	17.2***	23.2 (42.1)	11.0 (32.7)	12.2***
Rwanda									
	2018			2019a			2019b		
Activity	Men	Women	Δ	Men	Women	Δ	Men	Women	Δ
Paid Work	107.6 (135.9)	55.5 (90.7)	52.1***	59.6 (155.5)	20.5 (78.3)	39.2***	170.1 (219.3)	75.3 (144.2)	94.8***
<i>Employed/Self-employed</i>	51.9 (106.8)	19.2 (55.2)	32.7***	55.3 (149.1)	19.0 (75.8)	36.3***	94.2 (189.9)	40.2 (115.0)	54.0***
<i>Agricultural Work</i>	43.5 (82.6)	30.6 (63.9)	12.9	3.0 (25.3)	0.4 (6.5)	2.6*	63.0 (121.9)	30.3 (77.2)	32.7***
<i>Commuting and travelling</i>	12.3 (18.1)	5.7 (14.6)	6.6***	1.3 (10.8)	1.0 (12.4)	0.3	12.9 (37.2)	4.8 (29.5)	8.2**
Ghana									
	2018			2019a			2019b		
Activity	Men	Women	Δ	Men	Women	Δ	Men	Women	Δ
Paid Work	240.0 (184.2)	238.7 (185.2)	1.4	130.5 (166.1)	136.5 (155.8)	-6.0	117.1 (159.2)	135.1 (154.6)	-18.0
<i>Employed/Self-employed</i>	151.0 (169.2)	192.7 (179.1)	-41.7**	47.4 (131.0)	76.1 (140.1)	-28.7*	76.3 (142.9)	87.1 (141.9)	-10.9
<i>Agricultural Work</i>	80.2 (124.4)	39.3 (87.5)	40.9***	65.6 (101.1)	47.9 (82.6)	17.7*	29.4 (76.1)	34.2 (76.0)	-4.8
<i>Commuting and travelling</i>	8.8 (32.5)	6.8 (24.6)	2.1	17.6 (43.5)	12.6 (34.0)	4.9	11.4 (36.5)	13.8 (37.1)	-2.4

Source: Author's own using AAI data for three rounds – 2018 round 2, 2019 round 1, 2019 round 2.

Note: **Table A 16** reports average time spend by women and men in paid work activities, with associated test in difference. Standard Deviation in parenthesis. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1.

4. Power time-saving interventions: access and non-access

4.1. Time use – comparison by access and non-access

Table A 18: Average time spent by access and non-access to power time-saving intervention-by country and activity

Bangladesh									
	2018			2019a			2019b		
Activity	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All
Unpaid Care	343.3 (86.5)	345.4 (80.7)	343.7 (85.5)	326.5 (110.1)	257.0 (92.8)	316.5 (110.4)	280.2 (102.0)	252.0 (80.0)	276.2 (99.6)
<i>Unpaid Work</i>	169.1 (91.8)	171.5 (80.3)	169.5 (90.0)	222.5 (130.2)	245.7 (134.4)	225.8 (130.9)	189.9 (122.2)	214.9 (123.8)	193.5 (122.6)
<i>Paid Work</i>	171.3 (130.8)	165.6 (115.9)	170.4 (128.4)	134.8 (158.1)	155.7 (143.1)	137.8 (156.1)	222.8 (155.7)	211.8 (140.0)	221.2 (153.5)
<i>Personal Activities</i>	680.7 (70.1)	666.9 (52.0)	678.4 (67.6)	673.0 (91.5)	696.9 (127.2)	676.5 (97.7)	673.2 (79.7)	684.2 (82.2)	674.8 (80.0)
<i>Social Activities</i>	66.5 (63.3)	81.0 (60.4)	68.9 (63.0)	80.2 (72.6)	82.1 (74.2)	80.4 (72.8)	72.0 (65.4)	73.9 (65.0)	72.2 (65.3)
<i>Other Activities</i>	4.4 (15.8)	3.7 (13.9)	4.2 (15.5)	0.5 (6.7)	0.6 (3.9)	0.5 (6.4)	0.4 (3.2)	2.3 (13.3)	0.6 (5.8)
N	418	82	500	496	83	579	496	83	579
Rwanda									
	2018			2019a			2019b		
Activity	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All
Unpaid Care	273.3 (82.7)	247.5 (74.5)	259.7 (79.4)	238.8 (107.8)	256.2 (89.1)	254.0 (91.7)	227.2 (77.4)	227.7 (101.7)	227.6 (99.3)
<i>Unpaid Work</i>	402.7 (105.1)	375.7 (113.6)	388.4 (110.4)	379.3 (131.4)	360.7 (134.2)	363.1 (133.8)	340.1 (151.3)	331.5 (152.0)	332.4 (151.7)
<i>Paid Work</i>	51.2 (91.5)	59.3 (90.0)	55.5 (90.7)	32.8 (106.3)	18.7 (73.3)	20.5 (78.3)	52.5 (129.7)	77.9 (145.8)	75.3 (144.2)
<i>Personal Activities</i>	627.4 (68.6)	652.1 (64.6)	640.5 (67.6)	702.2 (111.8)	681.0 (96.9)	683.7 (99.0)	697.8 (100.1)	671.0 (81.2)	673.8 (83.6)
<i>Social Activities</i>	46.0 (41.0)	59.6 (45.2)	53.2 (43.8)	50.6 (66.9)	50.0 (56.0)	50.1 (57.4)	81.8 (78.4)	89.7 (98.2)	88.8 (96.3)
<i>Other Activities</i>	8.1 (23.9)	16.6 (34.2)	12.6 (30.0)	30.3 (78.3)	64.5 (90.5)	60.1 (89.6)	31.1 (60.5)	32.1 (61.1)	32.0 (60.9)
N	202	227	429	55	376	431	40	344	384

Table A 18: Average time spent by access and non-access to power time-saving intervention-by country and activity

Ghana									
Activity	2018			2019a			2019b		
	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All
<i>Unpaid Care</i>	245.7 (73.5)	199.6 (123.6)	216.1 (110.5)	259.1 (123.9)	248.5 (95.3)	255.3 (114.2)	258.3 (116.4)	229.0 (116.7)	245.2 (117.3)
<i>Unpaid Work</i>	199.9 (129.2)	141.3 (104.2)	162.2 (116.9)	270.9 (138.0)	260.0 (133.9)	266.9 (136.4)	277.0 (137.4)	249.0 (136.0)	264.5 (137.3)
<i>Paid Work</i>	205.0 (210.8)	257.3 (167.1)	238.7 (185.2)	127.8 (153.5)	151.8 (159.2)	136.5 (155.8)	113.7 (151.7)	161.6 (154.5)	135.1 (154.6)
<i>Personal Activities</i>	700.8 (108.9)	670.1 (104.6)	681.1 (107.0)	693.4 (117.2)	695.3 (111.5)	694.1 (115.0)	706.9 (119.9)	677.8 (129.5)	693.9 (124.9)
<i>Social Activities</i>	68.2 (48.8)	160.3 (129.3)	127.5 (116.3)	72.5 (59.3)	68.9 (68.1)	71.2 (62.6)	69.6 (62.4)	113.8 (124.2)	89.3 (97.5)
<i>Other Activities</i>	2.3 (8.1)	2.4 (13.9)	2.4 (12.2)	1.1 (5.1)	0.5 (3.7)	0.9 (4.6)	1.5 (7.9)	1.1 (6.7)	1.3 (7.4)
N	87	157	244	188	108	296	218	176	394

Source: Author's own using AAI data for three rounds – 2018 round 2, 2019 round 1, 2019 round 2.

Note: **Table A 17** reports the average time spent for each activity: unpaid care work, paid work, productive work and non-productive work for women, by participation in the POWER time-saving intervention. Standard Deviation in parenthesis.

Table A 19: Time on unpaid care by districts – women by access and non-access, by rounds and across countries

Bangladesh									
	2018			2019a			2019b		
District	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All
Dinajpur				245.6 (180.2)	43.3	244.0 (180.4)	219.6 (167.9)	70.0	218.4 (167.8)
Gaibandha	296.3 (133.9)	306.7 (130.3)	298.5 (133.0)	282.9 (127.3)	232.5 (104.9)	272.0 (124.4)	278.5 (122.0)	250.4 (89.4)	272.4 (116.2)
Lalmonirhat	304.4 (123.2)	284.6 (133.6)	302.1 (124.4)	279.9 (148.3)	223.1 (132.7)	273.2 (147.4)	208.2 (105.6)	185.7 (98.0)	205.5 (104.8)
All	300.6 (128.3)	299.0 (131.2)	300.3 (128.7)	274.4 (148.1)	227.4 (115.7)	267.8 (144.8)	237.1 (129.9)	226.2 (97.8)	235.6 (125.9)
Rwanda									
	2018			2019a			2019b		
District	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All
Gisagara	276.4 (71.4)	262.5 (71.4)	268.8 (71.4)	192.1 (72.9)	230.4 (89.3)	224.9 (87.9)	214.2 (79.4)	203.4 (99.3)	204.9 (96.5)
Karongi	270.9 (59.9)	242.2 (81.7)	255.6 (73.3)	250.0 (81.7)	284.4 (88.6)	282.1 (88.1)	241.7 (155.0)	235.4 (107.6)	235.6 (108.4)
Musanze	243.3 (73.8)	259.1 (57.5)	252.2 (65.2)	247.2 (75.1)	261.3 (86.5)	258.5 (84.1)	235.2 (73.0)	227.2 (84.7)	228.7 (82.1)
Nyanza	292.2 (104.4)	227.0 (83.3)	257.4 (98.8)	297.3 (145.0)	267.8 (83.5)	270.3 (89.9)	231.3 (73.6)	248.7 (111.1)	248.0 (109.7)
Nyaruguru	270.7 (84.9)	250.3 (60.4)	262.3 (75.7)	242.2 (158.1)	225.3 (89.6)	228.4 (103.2)	233.5 (57.2)	211.3 (69.6)	214.8 (67.4)
All	273.3 (82.7)	247.5 (74.5)	259.7 (79.4)	238.8 (107.8)	255.8 (89.3)	253.7 (91.9)	227.2 (77.4)	227.7 (101.7)	227.6 (99.3)
Ghana									
	2018			2019a			2019b		
District	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All	Non-Access	Access	All
Adaklu	128.7 (90.4)	156.7 (64.2)	135.3 (84.0)						
Asutifi South				220.9 (88.6)	277.0 (137.0)	236.7 (106.2)	256.7 (122.3)	267.6 (115.6)	259.8 (119.5)
Jirapa				178.9 (110.9)	155.4 (93.5)	167.1 (102.6)	178.3 (99.4)	221.3 (73.5)	209.3 (83.2)
Nabdam	176.4 (99.4)	211.8 (106.1)	192.4 (103.5)	125.4 (134.9)	184.3 (107.4)	154.2 (125.2)			
Nanumba North	110.0		110.0	198.2 (88.8)	251.9 (74.8)	207.2 (88.1)	238.9 (115.1)	212.5 (98.9)	228.3 (109.0)
Nanumba South	255.0 (144.9)	245.3 (150.1)	250.2 (139.2)	264.2 (204.4)	263.0 (172.9)	263.9 (196.4)	250.5 (177.4)	348.9 (136.4)	274.8 (172.7)
Tain	224.5 (92.8)	285.9 (85.0)	241.0 (94.3)	227.4 (95.2)	239.3 (78.8)	230.1 (91.3)	203.1 (114.6)	191.9 (104.7)	201.3 (112.8)
Talensi	235.8 (41.0)	123.1 (124.0)	126.3 (123.8)				220.0	120.7 (131.8)	122.1 (131.4)
All	196.1 (100.7)	162.3 (128.9)	175.6 (119.7)	204.1 (136.5)	205.9 (118.5)	204.7 (130.5)	224.4 (132.0)	200.0 (128.7)	214.0 (131.1)

Source: Author's own using AAI data for three rounds – 2018 round 2, 2019 round 1, 2019 round 2.

Note: **Table A 18** reports the average time spent by women for unpaid care work activities, by participation in the POWER time-saving intervention. Standard Deviation in parenthesis.

4.2. Time use – comparison by access and non-access

Table A 20: Time use with access and no access – by country and across all rounds

	Bangladesh			Rwanda			Ghana		
Activity	Non-Access	Access	Δ	Non-Access	Access	Δ	Non-Access	Access	Δ
Unpaid Care Activities	315.2 (104.1)	284.6 (94.7)	30.6***	260.7 (88.9)	243.8 (91.5)	16.9***	256.6 (113.0)	223.6 (115.8)	33.0***
<i>Domestic work</i>	103.5 (52.4)	105.2 (52.5)	-1.7	71.8 (45.8)	62.2 (45.0)	9.6***	66.8 (37.5)	55.4 (37.7)	11.4***
<i>Care for children</i>	56.7 (54.9)	45.5 (46.0)	11.2***	39.2 (33.4)	30.9 (32.9)	8.3***	53.1 (68.2)	43.1 (47.0)	10.0**
<i>Care for adults</i>	11.4 (18.9)	5.4 (11.1)	6.0***	7.0 (12.6)	3.1 (8.6)	3.8***	3.0 (9.6)	2.1 (6.7)	0.8
<i>Care for elderly</i>	4.1 (16.0)	2.8 (9.3)	1.4	3.3 (10.5)	1.9 (8.9)	1.4**	3.7 (10.3)	4.7 (11.6)	-1.0
<i>Cooking</i>	138.7 (66.6)	124.6 (65.4)	14.1***	120.7 (54.7)	138.1 (66.7)	-17.4***	126.2 (55.8)	114.9 (64.8)	11.3***
	Bangladesh			Rwanda			Ghana		
Activity	Non-Access	Access	Δ	Non-Access	Access	Δ	Non-Access	Access	Δ
Unpaid Work	195.2 (119.0)	210.9 (118.8)	-15.7*	389.9 (118.9)	353.7 (137.5)	36.3***	260.6 (139.2)	212.8 (136.1)	47.7***
<i>Collecting water</i>	50 (60.2)	50.5 (59.5)	-0.5	41.7 (38.2)	16.9 (29.4)	24.8***	44.5 (40.0)	50.1 (35.0)	-5.6**
<i>Subsistence Farming</i>	15.8 (34.6)	13.9 (24.8)	1.9	227.0 (110.9)	234.5 (128.1)	-7.5	169.3 (121.6)	117.1 (119.7)	52.3***
<i>Shopping or getting services</i>	4.8 (15.5)	8 (18.5)	-3.2***	32.2 (38.6)	29.3 (47.6)	2.9	7.5 (27.8)	6.4 (23.8)	1.1
<i>Collecting fuel/ wood</i>	30.1 (36.4)	28.5 (34.5)	1.6	28.7 (25.1)	16.3 (23.5)	12.4***	27.1 (39.7)	28.7 (43.5)	-1.6
<i>Weaving, sewing and handcrafts</i>	23.7 (49.2)	22.9 (45.8)	0.8	11.5 (36.9)	7.3 (35.4)	4.2*	1.9 (11.2)	2.4 (17.1)	-0.5
<i>Animal rearing</i>	71 (64.8)	87.5 (74.0)	-16.5***	50.6 (46.1)	50.3 (45.9)	0.2	11.0 (23.5)	8.6 (22.3)	2.4
	Bangladesh			Rwanda			Ghana		
Activity	Non-Access	Access	Δ	Non-Access	Access	Δ	Non-Access	Access	Δ
Paid Work	176.6 (154.1)	177.8 (135.3)	-1.2	48.0 (100.1)	49.9 (111.6)	-1.9	134.9 (167.2)	193.0 (166.8)	-58.1***
<i>Employed/Self-employed</i>	95.4 (149.2)	86.2 (137.6)	9.3	24.1 (77.1)	26.1 (87.2)	-2.0	84.1 (150.9)	140.9 (163.3)	-56.8***
<i>Agricultural Work</i>	70.6 (101.4)	77.3 (83.7)	-6.6	20.3 (59.2)	19.9 (58.8)	0.4	37.4 (79.0)	42.7 (83.8)	-5.3
<i>Commuting and travelling</i>	10.5 (31.6)	14.3 (38.8)	-3.8*	3.6 (11.1)	3.8 (22.0)	-0.3	13.4 (37.8)	9.5 (27.3)	3.9*

Source: Author's own using AAI data for three rounds – 2018 round 2, 2019 round 1, 2019 round 2.

Note: **Table A 19** reports average time spend by women in all activities and sub activities, with associated test in difference, by participation in the POWER time-saving intervention. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1.

Table A 20: Time use with access and no access – by country and across all

Activity	Bangladesh			Rwanda			Ghana		
	Non-Access	Access	Δ	Non-Access	Access	Δ	Non-Access	Access	Δ
Social & cultural Activities	73.2 (67.6)	79.0 (66.6)	-5.7	51.7 (54.0)	66.7 (74.4)	-15.0***	70.5 (58.9)	119.1 (120.1)	-48.6***
<i>Social and cultural</i>	52.9 (52.8)	47.6 (41.5)	5.3	23.7 (38.7)	34.1 (62.1)	-10.3***	16.3 (36.9)	48.6 (85.1)	-32.3***
<i>Mass Media</i>	15.9 (38.0)	28.3 (48.1)	-12.3***	19.5 (23.5)	26.4 (30.3)	-6.9***	50.6 (46.9)	52.8 (71.9)	-2.2
<i>Practicing hobbies</i>	4.4 (17.4)	3.0 (10.2)	1.4	9.3 (28.7)	7.8 (26.8)	1.5	3.7 (14.0)	17.8 (37.3)	-14.2***
Activity	Bangladesh			Rwanda			Ghana		
	Non-Access	Access	Δ	Non-Access	Access	Δ	Non-Access	Access	Δ
Personal Activities	675.4 (81.5)	682.7 (93.0)	-7.4	650.7 (89.2)	670.4 (85.1)	-19.7***	701.1 (117.2)	680.1 (117.9)	21.0***
<i>Learning</i>	6.3 (25.8)	6.0 (31.3)	0.3	5.5 (14.3)	3.3 (14.7)	2.3**	17.1 (34.1)	12.5 (37.3)	4.6*
<i>Sleeping and resting</i>	483.6 (65.5)	500.6 (80.4)	-17.0***	514.3 (74.0)	531.4 (71.6)	-17.1***	527.3 (114.4)	516.8 (103.0)	10.5
<i>Eating</i>	72.4 (30.9)	74.5 (29.5)	-2.1	63.2 (31.2)	61.9 (24.5)	1.2	60.6 (24.9)	61.1 (19.8)	-0.5
<i>Personal care</i>	77.6 (34.7)	75.0 (23.5)	2.6	35.9 (18.7)	35.7 (20.7)	0.2	54.1 (21.8)	56.9 (25.5)	-2.8*
<i>Religion</i>	35.4 (43.5)	26.5 (39.4)	8.9***	35.0 (46.2)	39.6 (53.3)	-4.6	40.9 (47.6)	33.3 (39.1)	7.6***

Source: Author's own using AAI data for three rounds – 2018 round 2, 2019 round 1, 2019 round 2.

Note: **Table A 19** reports average time spend by women in all activities and sub activities, with associated test in difference, by participation in the POWER time-saving intervention. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1.

Table A 21: Testing for equality of means for time use across all unpaid care sub-activities

Bangladesh									
	2018			2019a			2019b		
Activity	Non-Access	Access	Δ	Non-Access	Access	Δ	Non-Access	Access	Δ
Unpaid Care Activities	343.3 (86.5)	345.4 (80.7)	-2.1	326.5 (110.1)	257.0 (92.8)	69.5***	280.2 (102.0)	252.0 (80.0)	28.2**
<i>Domestic work</i>	109.4 (52.9)	128.0 (48.9)	-18.7***	109.1 (53.9)	96.0 (54.9)	13.1**	93.0 (48.9)	91.8 (46.2)	1.2
<i>Care for children</i>	53.7 (48.0)	50.1 (49.7)	3.6	61.8 (59.2)	42.1 (46.4)	19.7***	54.1 (55.7)	44.3 (41.7)	9.8*
<i>Care for adults</i>	10.8 (15.3)	6.6 (11.1)	4.2**	13.9 (22.5)	4.4 (11.5)	9.4***	9.4 (17.3)	5.2 (10.7)	4.2**
<i>Care for elderly</i>	6.0 (15.4)	4.8 (10.4)	1.2	4.2 (19.9)	2.9 (11.8)	1.2	2.6 (11.3)	0.6 (2.5)	1.9
<i>Cooking</i>	162.5 (43.9)	153.5 (43.3)	9.0*	136.9 (73.3)	110.9 (71.2)	26.0***	120.5 (69.3)	109.8 (68.7)	10.7
Rwanda									
	2018			2019a			2019b		
Activity	Non-Access	Access	Δ	Non-Access	Access	Δ	Non-Access	Access	Δ
Unpaid Care Activities	273.3 (82.7)	247.5 (74.5)	25.8***	238.8 (107.8)	256.2 (89.1)	-17.5	227.2 (77.4)	227.7 (101.7)	-0.5
<i>Domestic work</i>	80.0 (38.2)	73.8 (34.4)	6.2*	58.6 (64.5)	62.4 (46.2)	-3.8	48.4 (38.9)	54.3 (48.1)	-5.9
<i>Care for children</i>	46.8 (31.0)	42.1 (36.7)	4.7	24.8 (33.7)	29.1 (29.1)	-4.3	20.6 (31.2)	25.5 (32.4)	-4.9
<i>Care for adults</i>	9.5 (13.9)	9.9 (13.5)	-0.4	1.1 (4.6)	0.8 (3.7)	0.3	2.3 (8.7)	1.2 (5.5)	1.1
<i>Care for elderly</i>	4.8 (12.4)	4.7 (13.4)	0.1	0.1 (1.0)	0.8 (4.8)	-0.6**	0.0 (0.0)	1.3 (8.4)	-1.3
<i>Cooking</i>	106.2 (45.7)	97.2 (44.3)	9.0**	151.0 (57.7)	160.2 (62.2)	-9.2	152.4	141.0	11.5
Ghana									
	2018			2019a			2019b		
Activity	Non-Access	Access	Δ	Non-Access	Access	Δ	Non-Access	Access	Δ
Unpaid Care Activities	245.7 (73.5)	199.6 (123.6)	46.0***	259.1 (123.9)	248.5 (95.3)	10.6	258.3 (116.4)	229.0 (116.7)	29.3**
<i>Domestic work</i>	68.9 (32.2)	46.7 (32.7)	22.2***	66.9 (36.9)	60.0 (35.8)	7.0	65.8 (40.1)	60.4 (41.6)	5.4
<i>Care for children</i>	53.0 (50.9)	37.3 (42.2)	15.7**	54.8 (81.2)	59.9 (64.0)	-5.1	51.5 (62.1)	37.9 (35.1)	13.6**
<i>Care for adults</i>	1.5 (5.9)	1.4 (4.9)	0.2	2.7 (10.9)	2.2 (7.7)	0.5	3.8 (9.4)	2.8 (7.4)	1.0
<i>Care for elderly</i>	2.6 (8.4)	5.2 (12.2)	-2.5*	2.5 (7.8)	1.9 (7.6)	0.6	5.2 (12.4)	6.1 (12.9)	-0.8
<i>Cooking</i>	117.0 (37.1)	104.5 (73.2)	12.4	128.7 (58.9)	121.7 (50.8)	7.0	127.7 (59.2)	119.4 (63.1)	8.3

Source: Author's own using AAI data for three rounds – 2018 round 2, 2019 round 1, 2019 round 2.

Note: **Table A 20** reports average time spend by women in unpaid care activities with associated test in difference, by participation in the POWER time-saving intervention. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1. Standard Deviation in parenthesis.

Table A 22: Time use across all unpaid work sub-activities – by rounds and across countries

Bangladesh									
Activity	2018			2019a			2019b		
	Non-Access	Access	Δ	Non-Access	Access	Δ	Non-Access	Access	Δ
Unpaid Work	169.1 (91.8)	171.5 (80.3)	-2.4	222.5 (130.2)	245.7 (134.4)	-23.3	189.9 (122.2)	214.9 (123.7)	-24.9*
<i>Collecting water</i>	20.2 (21.5)	16.3 (19.6)	4.0	59.5 (64.6)	67.4 (69.1)	-8.0	65.6 (68.2)	67.4 (61.4)	-1.7
<i>Subsistence Farming</i>	24.7 (42.5)	15.0 (22.4)	9.7**	12.4 (34.5)	13.4 (24.7)	-0.9	11.5 (24.4)	13.2 (27.3)	-1.7
<i>Shopping or getting services</i>	4.4 (11.7)	11.1 (23.0)	-6.7***	5.8 (20.6)	4.8 (14.4)	1.0	4.1 (11.9)	8.3 (16.8)	-4.2***
<i>Collecting fuel/ wood</i>	32.8 (34.9)	33.1 (35.5)	-0.3	31.7 (39.0)	23.0 (25.8)	8.7*	26.1 (34.5)	29.3 (40.2)	-3.2
<i>Weaving, sewing and handcrafts</i>	21.8 (41.2)	19.2 (39.3)	2.6	27.6 (57.8)	30.3 (51.0)	-2.7	21.4 (45.7)	19.2 (45.9)	2.2
<i>Animal rearing</i>	65.5 (53.2)	78.3 (49.3)	-12.7***	85.6 (76.3)	106.7 (92.1)	-21.1**	61.1 (58.4)	77.4 (71.2)	-16.3**
Rwanda									
Activity	2018			2019a			2019b		
	Non-Access	Access	Δ	Non-Access	Access	Δ	Non-Access	Access	Δ
Unpaid Work	402.7 (105.1)	375.7 (113.6)	27.0**	379.3 (131.4)	360.7 (134.2)	18.6	340.1 (151.3)	331.5 (152.0)	8.6
<i>Collecting water</i>	50.2 (38.9)	25.9 (35.7)	24.2***	24.5 (26.8)	15.8 (26.1)	8.7**	22.3 (33.1)	12.0 (26.9)	10.3**
<i>Subsistence Farming</i>	225.9 (101.3)	230.8 (118.8)	-4.9	251.5 (118.7)	247.5 (125.6)	4.0	199.2 (138.6)	222.7 (135.6)	-23.5
<i>Shopping or getting services</i>	31.9 (28.9)	30.5 (30.4)	1.5	31.9 (48.3)	28.4 (47.5)	3.5	33.8 (61.2)	29.4 (56.3)	4.3
<i>Collecting fuel/ wood</i>	33.2 (24.1)	26.8 (21.9)	6.4***	18.4 (22.9)	12.9 (20.2)	5.5*	20.1 (27.0)	13.1 (25.7)	7.0
<i>Weaving, sewing and handcrafts</i>	16.5 (43.5)	18.3 (38.6)	-1.8	0.0 (0.0)	5.9 (43.8)	-5.9	2.3 (14.2)	1.5 (16.1)	0.7
<i>Animal rearing</i>	47.3 (40.5)	46.3 (34.4)	1.0	53.4 (49.9)	50.3 (46.6)	3.1	63.6 (63.1)	53.1 (51.2)	10.5

Source: Author's own using AAI data for three rounds – 2018 round 2, 2019 round 1, 2019 round 2.

Note: **Table A 21** reports average time spend by women in unpaid work activities with associated test in difference, by participation in the POWER time-saving intervention. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1. Standard Deviation in parenthesis.

Table A 22: Time use across all unpaid work sub-activities – by rounds and across countries

Ghana									
Activity	2018			2019a			2019b		
	Non-Access	Access	Δ	Non-Access	Access	Δ	Non-Access	Access	Δ
Unpaid Work	199.9 (129.2)	141.3 (104.2)	58.6***	270.9 (138.0)	260.0 (133.9)	10.9	277.0 (137.4)	249.0 (136.0)	28.0**
<i>Collecting water</i>	40.6 (28.0)	49.4 (33.6)	-8.8**	44.3 (42.7)	37.9 (34.7)	6.5	46.2 (41.8)	58.5 (34.1)	-12.2***
<i>Subsistence Farming</i>	123.6 (119.8)	54.9 (83.3)	68.7***	177.0 (121.8)	189.5 (126.8)	-12.5	181.8 (118.1)	128.8 (114.6)	53.0***
<i>Shopping or getting services</i>	5.7 (21.5)	5.6 (22.6)	0.0	9.0 (29.5)	3.4 (15.0)	5.6*	6.8 (28.5)	8.9 (28.6)	-2.1
<i>Collecting fuel/ wood</i>	21.6 (30.4)	15.7 (30.7)	5.9	29.7 (39.4)	22.8 (34.7)	6.9	27.2 (43.0)	44.0 (52.6)	-16.8***
<i>Weaving, sewing and handcrafts</i>	2.0 (12.2)	4.1 (26.0)	-2.1	1.6 (13.3)	1.2 (8.7)	0.3	2.1 (8.5)	1.5 (9.0)	0.6
<i>Animal rearing</i>	6.7 (17.2)	11.7 (23.0)	-5.0*	10.0 (24.4)	5.7 (24.7)	4.3	13.6 (24.6)	7.6 (19.8)	6.0***

Source: Author's own using AAI data for three rounds – 2018 round 2, 2019 round 1, 2019 round 2.

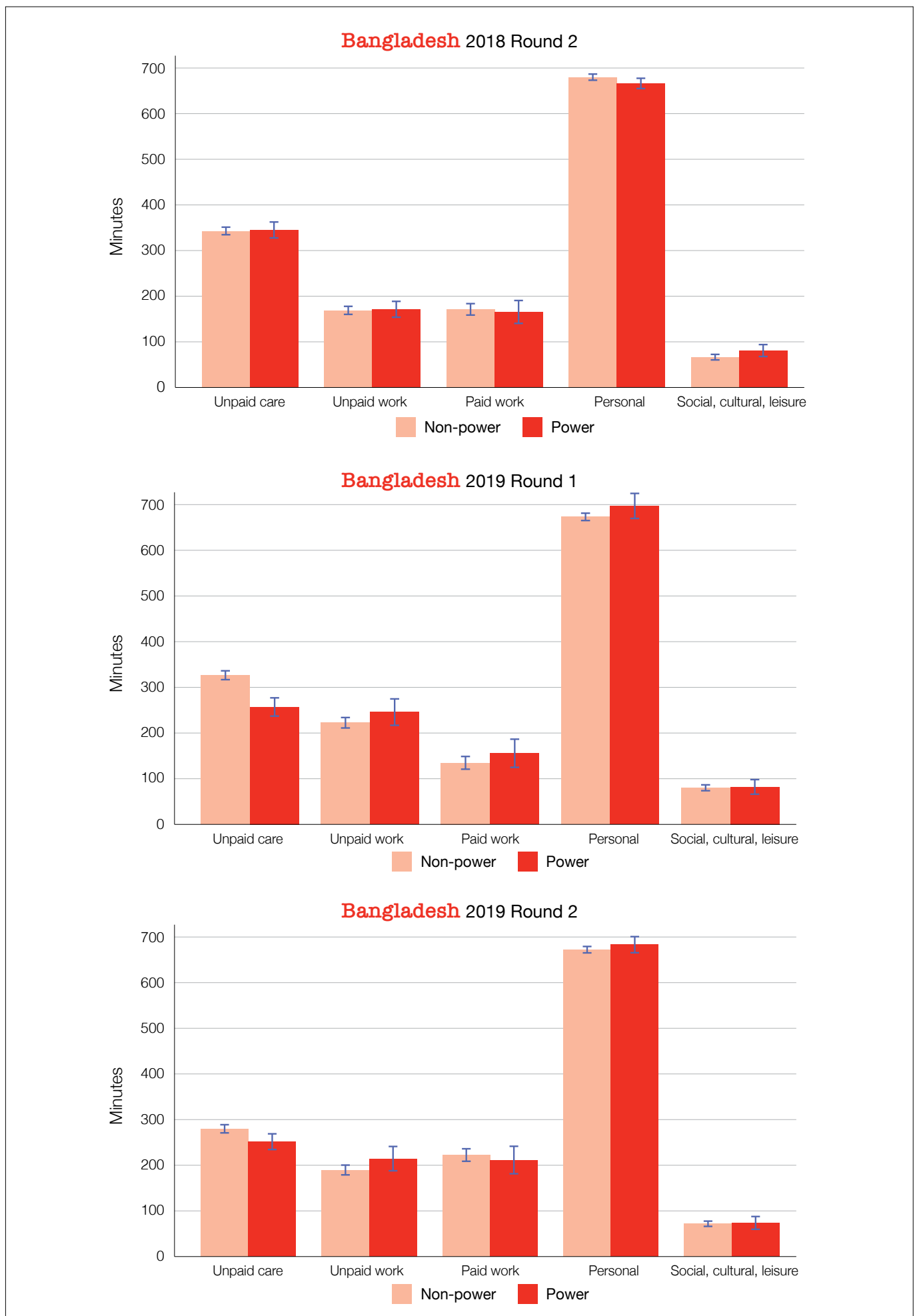
Note: **Table A 21** reports average time spend by women in unpaid work activities with associated test in difference, by participation in the POWER time-saving intervention. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1. Standard Deviation in parenthesis.

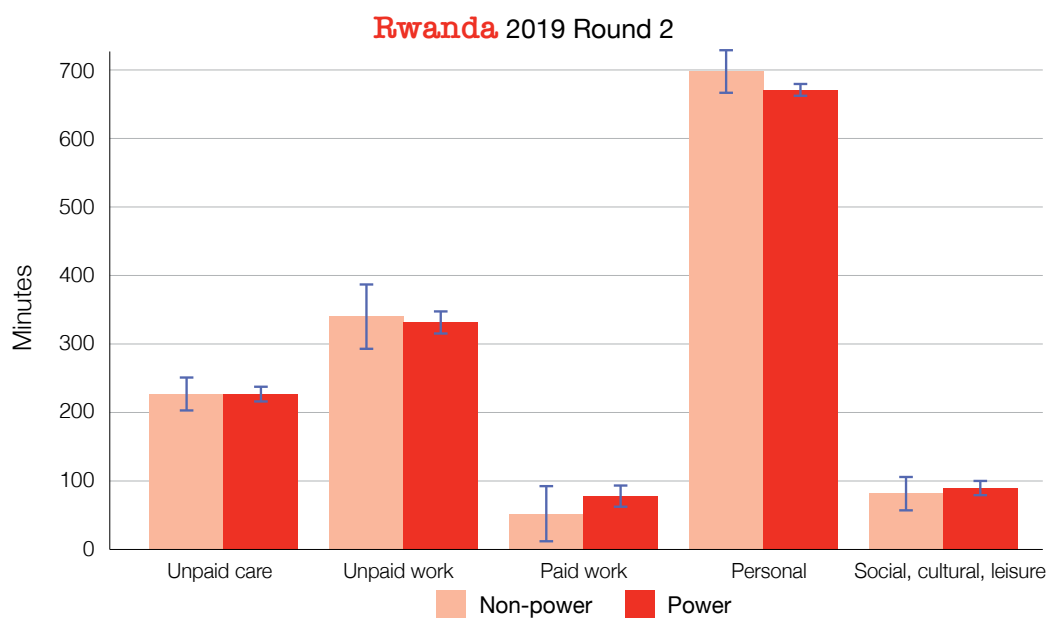
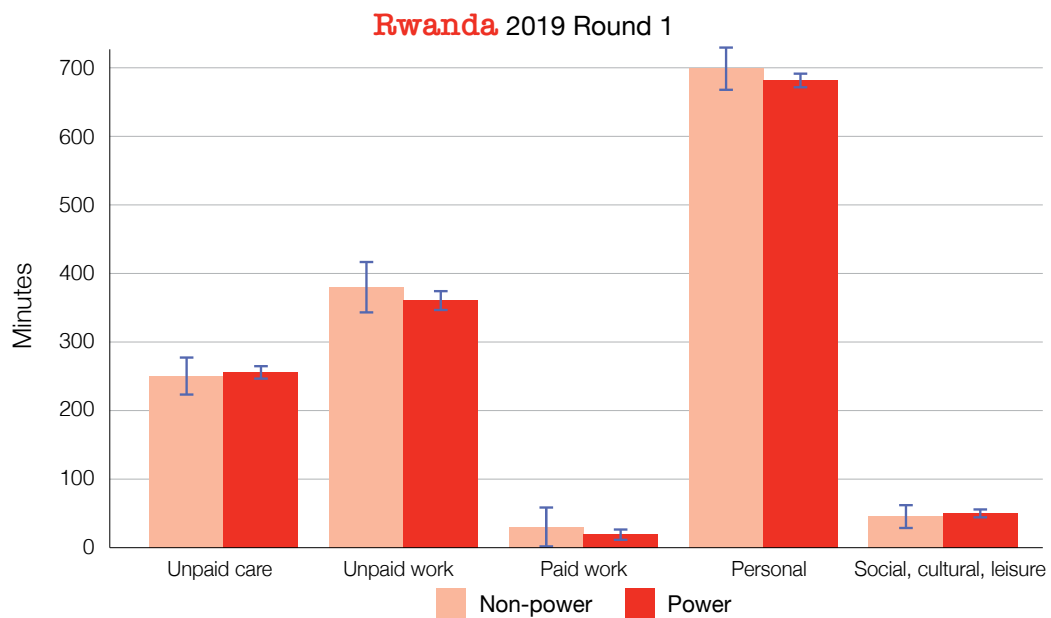
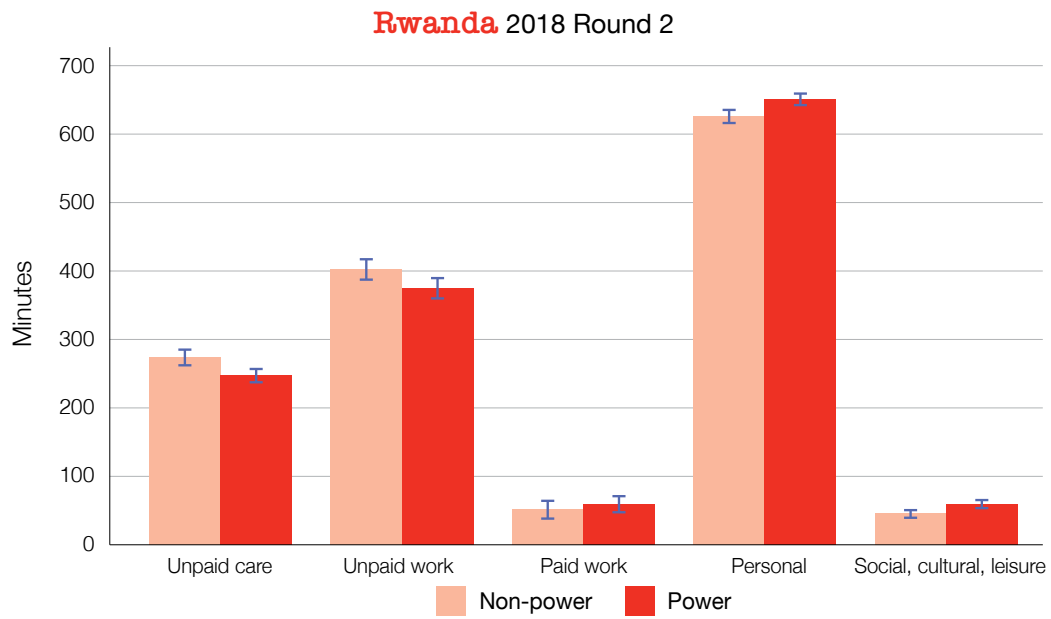
Table A 23: Time use across all paid work sub-activities – by rounds and across countries

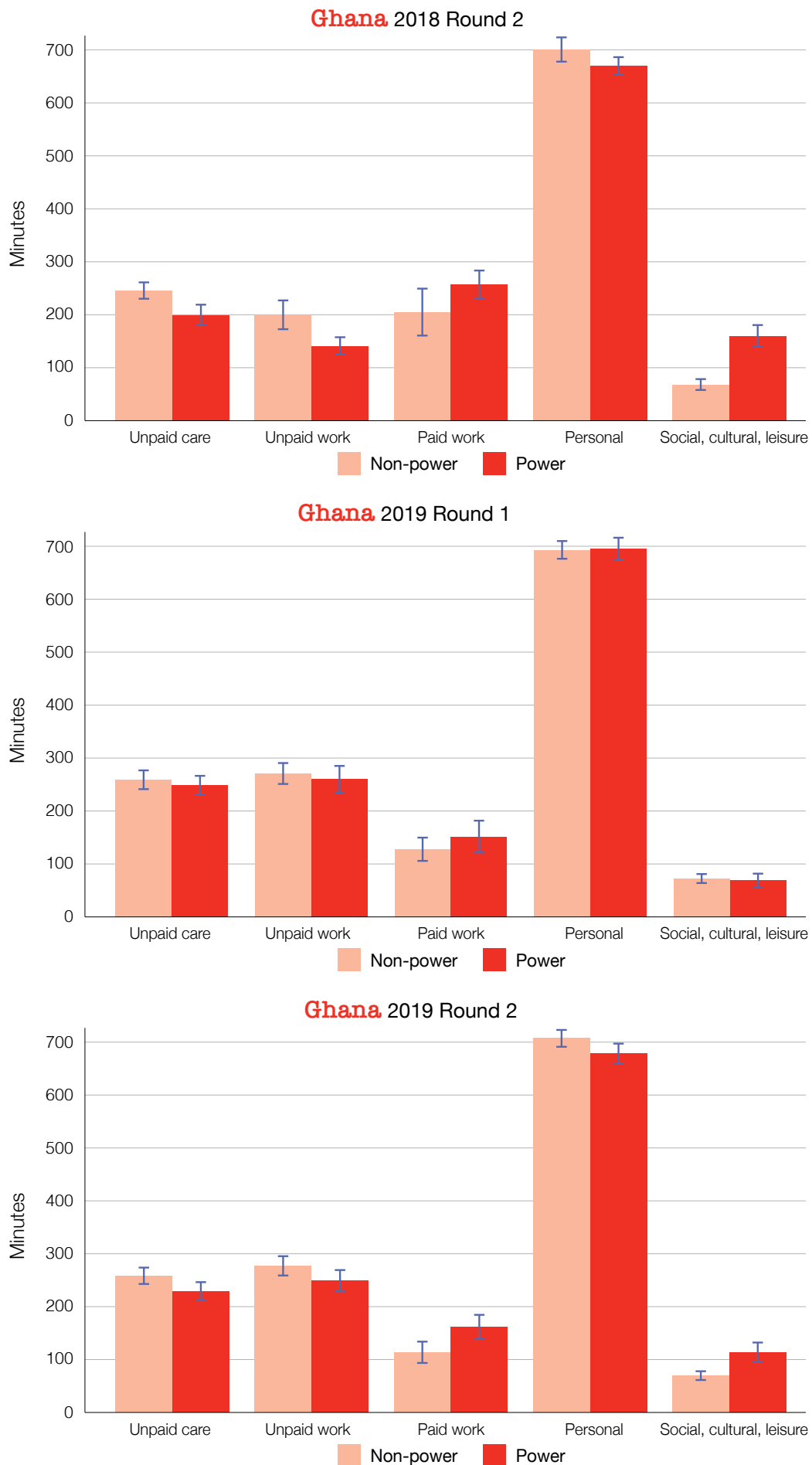
Bangladesh									
	2018			2019a			2019b		
Activity	Non-Access	Access	Δ	Non-Access	Access	Δ	Non-Access	Access	Δ
Paid Work	171.3 (130.8)	165.6 (115.9)	5.7	134.8 (158.1)	155.7 (143.1)	-20.9	222.8 (155.7)	211.8 (140.0)	11.0
<i>Employed/ Self-employed</i>	85.2 (127.2)	67.7 (116.8)	17.5	90.1 (153.7)	87.7 (147.5)	2.4	109.4 (160.5)	102.8 (145.4)	6.6
<i>Agricultural Work</i>	77.0 (95.5)	77.6 (73.1)	-0.6	33.2 (75.4)	58.2 (74.1)	-25.0***	102.6 (116.0)	95.9 (97.9)	6.7
<i>Commuting and travelling</i>	9.1 (28.1)	20.3 (52.0)	-11.2***	11.5 (33.1)	9.8 (27.7)	1.7	10.7 (32.8)	13.0 (32.4)	-2.3
Rwanda									
	2018			2019a			2019b		
Activity	Non-Access	Access	Δ	Non-Access	Access	Δ	Non-Access	Access	Δ
Paid Work	51.2 (91.5)	59.3 (90.0)	-8.1	32.8 (106.3)	18.7 (73.3)	14.2	52.5 (129.7)	77.9 (145.8)	-25.4
<i>Employed/ Self-employed</i>	19.6 (54.8)	18.9 (55.6)	0.8	31.4 (102.7)	17.2 (71.0)	14.1	36.6 (121.0)	40.6 (114.4)	-4.0
<i>Agricultural Work</i>	27.3 (67.4)	33.5 (60.5)	-6.2	0.0 (0.0)	0.5 (6.9)	-0.5	13.0 (47.3)	32.3 (79.8)	-19.3
<i>Commuting and travelling</i>	4.3 (11.5)	6.9 (16.8)	-2.6*	1.5 (8.5)	1.0 (12.9)	0.5	2.9 (12.3)	5.0 (30.9)	-2.1
Ghana									
	2018			2019a			2019b		
Activity	Non-Access	Access	Δ	Non-Access	Access	Δ	Non-Access	Access	Δ
Paid Work	205.0 (210.8)	257.3 (167.1)	-52.3**	127.8 (153.5)	151.8 (159.2)	-24.0	113.7 (151.7)	161.6 (154.5)	-47.9***
<i>Employed/ Self-employed</i>	173.1 (198.2)	203.5 (167.3)	-30.5	71.6 (138.2)	83.9 (143.8)	-12.3	59.9 (125.6)	120.9 (153.5)	-61.1***
<i>Agricultural Work</i>	27.9 (78.5)	45.6 (91.7)	-17.6	42.3 (75.2)	57.6 (93.6)	-15.4	37.1 (82.5)	30.6 (67.2)	6.5
<i>Commuting and travelling</i>	4.0 (17.7)	8.3 (27.6)	-4.3	14.0 (35.8)	10.3 (30.5)	3.7	16.7 (44.3)	10.2 (25.1)	6.5*

Source: Author's own using AAI data for three rounds – 2018 round 2, 2019 round 1, 2019 round 2.

Note: **Table A 22** reports average time spend by women in paid work activities with associated test in difference, by participation in the POWER time-saving intervention. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1. Standard Deviation in parenthesis.

Figure A 1: Differences in average time spent across activities, by rounds and access





Source: Author's own using AAI data for three rounds – 2018 round 2, 2019 round 1, 2019 round 2.

Note: **Figure A 1** reports the average time spent by women on selected activities, by round of interview and by access to the POWER time-saving program. Confidence interval in blue.

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