

**VIOLENCE
AGAINST
WOMEN
AND GIRLS
HELPDESK**

**DFID Guidance Note
Part A**

**Addressing Violence Against Women and Girls
Through DFID's Economic Development and
Women's Economic Empowerment Programmes**

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About this Guidance Note

This guidance note was produced by the DFID-funded Violence Against Women and Girls (VAWG) Helpdesk on behalf of DFID's VAWG team in the Inclusive Societies Department (Policy Division). The lead author was Georgia Taylor (independent consultant), with research support from Emma Bell, Jessica Jacobson and Paola Perezniето. The note was informed by technical advice from a group of experts: Dr Lyndsay McLean Hilker (Technical Team Leader of VAWG Helpdesk, Social Development Direct), Teresa Durand (independent consultant), Fatimah Kelleher (independent consultant), and Vanessa Farr (independent consultant).

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About the Violence against Women and Girls Helpdesk

The Violence against Women and Girls (VAWG) Helpdesk is a research and advice service for DFID (open across HMG) providing:

- Rapid Desk Research on all aspects of VAWG for advisers and programme managers across all sectors (requests for this service are called “queries”). This service is referred to as the “VAWG Query Service”.
- Short term VAWG expert Country Consultancy support in DFID programme countries including research and advice on programme design, formation of programme documentation, implementation, review and evaluation; referred to as “Short-term Country Assignments”;
- Technical Guidance Material primarily targeted to DFID staff, but also useful across HMG and development partners;
- Strategic Engagement and support to the DFID Inclusive Societies VAWG Team.

The Violence against Women and Girls (VAWG) Helpdesk Service is provided by an Alliance comprising of Social Development Direct, ActionAid, the Institute of Development Studies (IDS), International Rescue Committee (IRC), Womankind and a wider roster of experts. For further information, please contact: enquiries@VAWGHelpdesk.org.uk

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Glossary of terms

Violence against women is defined by the UN Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women, adopted by the General Assembly on 20 December 1993, as “any act of gender-based violence that results in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or in private life”. The term **VAWG** in this note ensures that the concept covers violence against girls. VAWG includes a broad range of different forms of violence, grounded in particular settings or situations, including (but not limited to) intimate partner violence (‘domestic violence’), sexual violence (including sexual violence as a tactic of war), acid throwing, honour killings, sexual trafficking of women, female genital cutting/mutilation (FGC/M) and child, early and forced marriage (CEFM).

Gender-based violence (GBV) is violence that is directed against an individual or group of individuals based on their gender identity. GBV encompasses violence against women and girls as well as against men and boys, people who are lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender and intersex (LGBTI), and other individuals who do not conform to dominant gender ideals.

Sexual and gender-based violence (SGBV) includes GBV and sexual violence. WHO defines sexual violence as “any sexual act, attempt to obtain a sexual act, unwanted sexual comments or advances, or acts to traffic women’s sexuality, using coercion, threats of harm or physical force, by any person regardless of relationship to the survivor, in any setting, including but not limited to home and work”. The term covers forced sex, sexual coercion and rape of adult and adolescent men and women, and child sexual abuse.

Preventing Sexual Violence in Conflict Initiative (PSVI) is a UK Government initiative led by the FCO¹.

Intimate partner violence (IPV) is defined by the WHO as “behaviour by an intimate partner or ex-partner that causes physical, sexual or psychological harm, including physical aggression, sexual coercion, psychological abuse and controlling behaviours.”

The “**World of Work**” is a concept used by the ILO to encompass such activities that are both paid and unpaid. Paid labour is an activity or service for which cash and/or in-kind payment is made. Unpaid labour comprises both “productive work” and “reproductive work”. Gender-based violence can take place in the workplace and in related contexts, for example, on public transportation going to or from work, particularly during a night shift. Finally, the “World of Work” concept recognises the critical role that household outputs, such as feeding and caring for family members, contribute to national economies by reproducing and sustaining the labour supply.

The **informal sector** is defined by the ILO as “*broadly characterised as comprising production units that operate on a small scale and at a low level of organisation, with little or no division between labour and capital as factors of production, and with the primary objective of generating income and employment for the persons concerned*”. However, in practice definitions vary between countries.² Usually, informal sector enterprises are un-registered, non-tax paying and tend to usually (but not always) be smaller enterprises. Such employment is informal and non-tax paying also, and there is a lack of safety or job security. The informal economy is not usually included in the gross national product (GNP), unlike the formal economy.³ The **formal sector**: encompasses all jobs with regular wages, which are recognised as income sources on which income taxes must be paid.⁴

Microenterprises are very small businesses, many of which are sole traders or usually with fewer than 5 employees. Each country has their own definition, which can also include turnover and assets and can differ by industry.⁵ In developing countries many micro-enterprises are in the informal economy.

¹ <https://www.gov.uk/government/policies/preventing-sexual-violence-in-conflict>

² Ogbuabor and Malaolu (2013) - definitions of the ‘informal sector’ in Nigeria include the following features: operating without regulation; not legally independent from the households that own or manage them; having a small number of employees; the production and distribution of illegal goods and services; and the non-reporting of legal economic activities

³ <https://www.princeton.edu>

⁴ <http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/formal-sector.html#ixzz3OueGQ4gu>

⁵ Kushnir, 2011

Overview

An estimated **35% of women** - 818 million women globally - **over the age of 15 have experienced sexual or physical violence**.⁶ The most common form of violence is intimate partner violence (IPV) (30% of women globally) and 7% of women have experienced sexual violence by non-partners.⁷

The **economic cost of violence against women and girls (VAWG) can amount to between 1.2% and 3.7% of GDP**,⁸ though new evidence will be available within the next few years.⁹ Women and girls experience violence in the home, in the workplace, in market places and on the way to work. **This not only prevents women from earning an income but also restricts business productivity and profitability and therefore impacts on economic growth.** An employee may lose income, opportunities for promotion and jobs as a result of violence in the home or in the workplace. The employer faces the cost of sick days; lower productivity, poor concentration and possible disruption by the violent partner at work; and the costs of recruitment and re-training if a person leaves their job.¹⁰

Thus, any programme aiming to improve business performance or to increase women's income would be threatened or diluted by the impact of VAWG. In order to optimise economic development programmes it is therefore essential to address VAWG within these programmes.

Violence against women and girls (VAWG) also limits progress towards the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) by impacting on women's and girls' health, education, and participation in work. It violates women's and girls' human rights and can have a negative impact on long-term peace, stability and economic prosperity. Women's lack of agency, assets and economic opportunities and their unpaid reproductive, household and caring responsibilities can compound discriminatory social norms and vastly increase their vulnerability to violence in many countries. The violence and vulnerability can be carried across generations, repeating cycles of discriminatory practice and abuse.

In line with its international and national commitments, preventing VAWG is a top priority for the UK Government and DFID's Ministerial team. Similarly, DFID gives priority to economic empowerment, in particular for women. DFID's approach to women's and girls' empowerment and to tackling VAWG includes a commitment to improve women's and girls' access to, and control over, economic assets.¹¹ It is also a focus based on prioritising employment opportunities (with good working conditions), enterprise (including tackling discriminatory laws), and assets (including control and retention by women)

It is important that DFID delivers on both policy areas (preventing VAWG and promoting economic empowerment for women) in a complementary way. For this guidance note the commitment is articulated in these two prioritised impacts (further information in Section 2.2):

- **Women and girls in employment, trade, microenterprise and market places are free from violence and the threat of violence.**
- **Women's and girls' increased economic activity and economic empowerment helps to reduce VAWG and protect women and girls from violence.**

This two-part guidance note is part of a series of DFID guidance notes on VAWG. It focuses specifically on **how to address VAWG in economic development programming**. As part of this approach it advises on how women's and girls' economic empowerment can contribute to tackling VAWG as part of a wider VAWG programme or an economic development programme.

⁶ WHO the South African MRC and the LSHTM, 2013

⁷ *Ibid*

⁸ Klugman et al., 2014

⁹ DFID Research programme: What Works to Prevent Violence against Women and Girls' programme, Component 3 will focus on determining and analyzing the economic and social costs of VAWG

¹⁰ Henderson, 2000

¹¹ DFID, 2011; DFID, 2012

The guidance note aims to provide practical advice and tips to DFID economists, private sector advisors, social development advisers and programme managers and other UK government departments. It aims to strengthen the impact of economic development programmes on preventing and responding to VAWG and in turn to increase the sustainable impact of economic development programmes. It is based on international good practice from bilateral and multilateral donors, UN agencies, international and national NGOs, and DFID's own programming experience, as well as the latest academic research on women's economic empowerment, private sector programming, and VAWG.

Part A (this part) sets out the strategic rationale for and broad approach to addressing VAWG in economic development programming and covers the following:

- Introduction and definitions relating to VAWG and women's and girls' economic empowerment
- Rationale for economic development programmes to address VAWG
- The context: VAWG in the home, in relationships, in the workplace, business and markets
- DFID's vision and key outcome areas to address VAWG through economic development programming
- Principles to guide economic development programming related to VAWG

Part B provides specific guidance on designing programmes for each key outcome area:

- Defining outcome areas and notes on M4P and social norms
- Context and situation analysis
- Approach by outcome area – including case studies and building a theory of change
- Value for Money measurement

1. Introduction

It is commonly argued that women need economic independence in order to avoid and escape from situations in which they are subjected to violence. When women are able to earn money, own assets and have control over their own resources to improve their lives, they ought to have more economic power, which they can use to prevent and escape from violence in the home. However, for women, the places where they work, whether offices, factories, markets or public spaces – as well as the journey to and from work – can also be locations of violence, sexual harassment and fear. In some contexts women who gain income and economic power find they are subject to increased violence from their husbands, families or other community members as they are challenging predominant social norms. This guidance note will explore this complex relationship between violence, social norms and economic power.

Violence against women and girls definitions

Violence against women and girls (VAWG) can take place in the home, in the market place, in other public spaces on the way to work or in the workplace, wherever that may be. VAWG is one form of gender-based violence (GBV) - alongside violence against men and boys, against people who are lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender and intersex (LGBTI) and other individuals who do not conform to dominant gender ideals – where the perpetrator is violent towards an individual or group based on their gender identity. The most common types of VAWG globally are intimate partner violence (IPV) and other types of 'family violence', mainly perpetrated in the home. Other forms of VAWG include rape, sexual assault, sexual coercion and abuse, child sexual abuse, female infanticide, sex trafficking and forced labour, neglect, elder abuse, and harmful traditional practices such as early and forced marriage, "honour" killings, and female genital mutilation/cutting (FGM/C).

Box 1. Violence against Women and Girls (VAWG) definition

The UK Government's *Call to End Violence Against Women and Girls* defines VAWG according to the *UN Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women* (1993): 'Any act of gender-based violence that results in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or in private life'. Despite internationally agreed definitions, the definition of VAWG - and the specific types of violence covered - varies across countries and within communities.

Violence in the workplace includes bullying and harassment, sexual harassment and sexual abuse, and targeted abuse and harassment around pregnancy. Abusive working conditions such as poor health and safety (including building and equipment safety), inappropriate sanitary facilities and rules about their use, and excessively long working hours can also be harmful and therefore constitute workplace violence. Violence may not always take the form of an action that results in physical harm, but can also include slow attrition psychological abuse and exclusion. Human resource systems and open leadership are often inadequate in businesses (particularly in the informal sector) to address cases of workplace violence, and there is stigma and fear associated with disclosing violence. In the face of this and inadequate forms of redress, women will often remain silent to avoid the risk of losing their livelihood and exposure to further violence.

Box 2: ILO definition of workplace violence

"Any action, incident or behaviour that departs from reasonable conduct in which a person is assaulted, threatened, harmed, or injured in the course of, or as a direct result of, his or her work."

2. The importance of addressing VAWG and the shape of potential programme

2.1 Why it is important for economic development programmes to address VAWG

There are three main reasons for addressing VAWG in economic development programmes:

I. Addressing VAWG improves the effectiveness of economic development programmes leading to better results for women, enterprise and the economy.

- **VAWG significantly limits women's income earning capability and employer productivity and profitability.** Any programme targeting women to increase their income – or where there are women in the workforce - will need to address VAWG in order to achieve results.
- **VAWG has a negative impact on physical and mental health and quality of life, and this can impact on economic growth.** There is ample evidence showing that all forms of violence, but particularly child maltreatment, IPV, and sexual violence, have a range of other health consequences. These consequences can include depression, smoking, obesity, high-risk sexual behaviours, unintended pregnancy, and alcohol abuse, among others, posing significant costs to health systems.¹²
- **VAWG restricts women's movement and ability to access income earning opportunities.** In Kigali, a 2012 baseline study revealed that women's fear of sexual harassment and other forms of sexual violence limited their participation in activities outside the home during the day and at night – between 42% and 55% of women were affected. In Port Moresby, a scoping study conducted in 2011 in 6 markets revealed that 55 per cent of women experienced some form of sexual violence in market spaces in the previous year.¹³

II. Economic development programmes can make a key contribution to preventing and responding to VAWG.

¹² Violence Prevention Alliance and Education Development Center, 2011

¹³ UN Women, 2014

- **Women’s and girls’ income earning and economic activity can present both the opportunity to address VAWG and a risk of increasing VAWG** (see section 3.1). It is thus important for economic development programmes to integrate an approach to VAWG to ensure that they “do no harm” and where possible contribute to preventing and addressing VAWG.
- **Women and girls experience violence when undertaking income earning and business related activities** whether in the formal or informal sector or within family or friends’ businesses (sometimes women are required as a family member to do unpaid work). The perpetrators of such violence include employers, colleagues, customers, family members or the public. This type of VAWG is often missed from other programmes, so an economic development programme is a key way of addressing VAWG.
- In many contexts, **women’s workplaces and economic activities may be one of the only ways to find out about and start to address the violence they are suffering at home.**
- **Multi-sectoral approaches¹⁴ to tackling VAWG are the most effective. These often don’t include economic development or women’s and girls’ economic empowerment (WGEE) initiatives.** An approach to improve women’s access to, and control over, assets and income combined with social interventions have consistently stronger, positive outcomes than interventions that focus on economic factors alone¹⁵. Therefore an approach to tackle VAWG that addresses social and gender norms will have a better impact on WGEE, and vice versa.
- **Global VAWG stakeholders believe that women’s economic empowerment is crucial for VAWG prevention.** Nearly all (94%) of the 309 respondents (VAWG stakeholders, including practitioners, policymakers, researchers and activists) to a global online survey identified women’s economic dependency on men as the most significant risk factor / root cause, of VAWG. (This was followed closely by social norms that encourage boys that they need to defend their or their family’s honour (93%)). The second highest ranked priority intervention - programmes for women to understand their rights and help them earn money (75%).¹⁶

III. Tackling VAWG is imperative in terms of a human rights based approach to development and in light of the UK’s commitment to human rights.

- **VAWG is a human rights abuse** as recognised by the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) and the Convention on the Rights of the Child - all of which the majority of countries have signed and many have ratified. There are also various international agreements on VAWG (See Annex 1).
- **Poverty and lack of income and assets adds to women’s vulnerability to violence.** It is harder for women to leave relationships if they are economically dependent on men. In Nepal the majority of women (76%) cite their economic dependence on men as a primary reason for failing to report incidents of violence.¹⁷
- **Tackling VAWG is the UK’s responsibility and a high-level priority for DFID** as articulated in DFID’s Business Plan 2011-2015, the Strategic Vision for Women and Girls, the Theory of Change on VAWG, the new Development Act (Gender), the DFID commitment to end VAWG in wartime, and as signatory on several international agreements (see Annex 1).

2.2 DFID’s vision and key outcome areas to address VAWG through economic development programmes.

DFID is working to integrate a robust response to VAWG across its country and sectoral programmes to ensure a holistic approach to preventing and responding to VAWG.

For this guidance note the commitment is articulated in these two prioritised impacts:

¹⁴ Haider, 2009

¹⁵ Fulu et al, 2014

¹⁶ What Works to Prevent Violence 2014

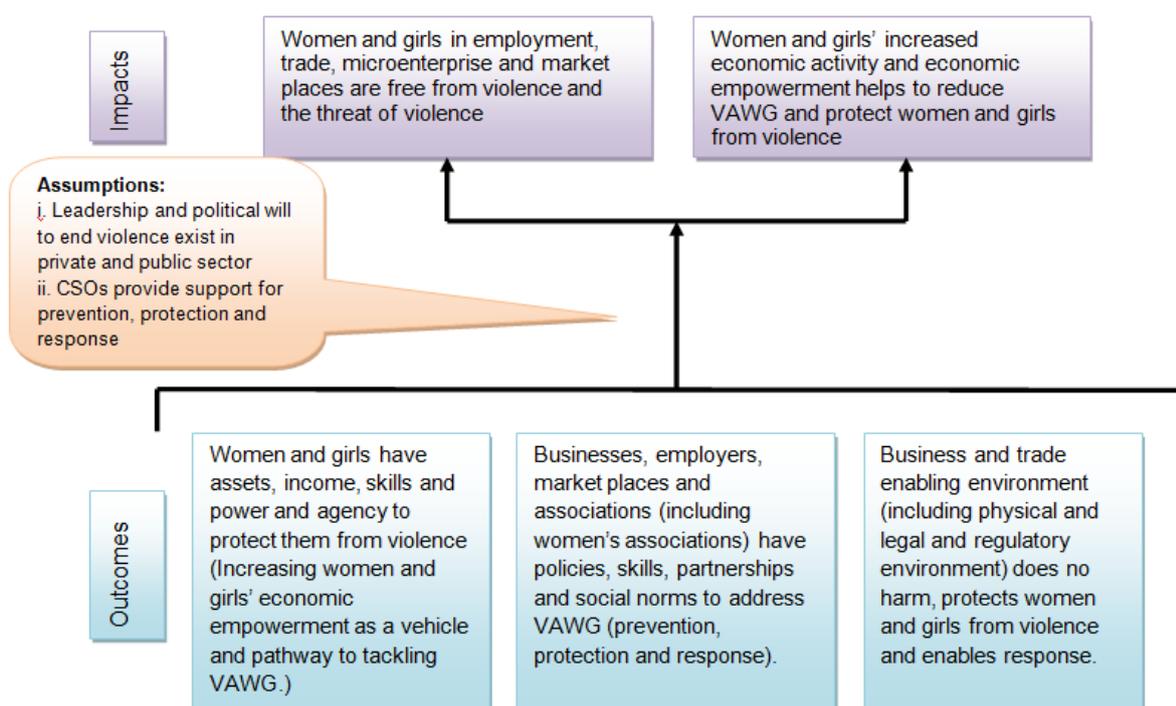
¹⁷ Saathi and the Asia Foundation, 1997

- **Women and girls in employment, trade, microenterprise and market places are free from violence and the threat of violence** [Note: this could be achieved by DFID addressing VAWG that takes place within the workplace wherever that may be]
- **Women's and girls' increased economic activity and economic empowerment helps to reduce VAWG and protect women and girls from violence.** [Note: this could be achieved by DFID ensuring that all economic development programmes do no harm and that women's and girls' economic empowerment approaches will aim to integrate measures to address VAWG - whether at home or in the workplace.]

DFID has defined **three outcome areas** in which economic development programmes can strengthen their approach to achieve these impacts (see Figure 2 below and Part B for a more detailed explanation of the outcome areas):

- **Women and girls have assets, income, skills and power and agency to protect them from violence** (increasing women's and girls' economic empowerment as a vehicle and pathway to tackling VAWG).
- **Businesses, employers, market places and associations (including women's associations) have policies, skills, partnerships and norms to address VAWG (prevention, protection and response).**
- **The business and trade-enabling environment (including physical, legal and regulatory environment) does no harm, protects women and girls from violence and enables response.**

Figure 1: Addressing VAWG through Economic Development Programmes – Outcomes and Impacts



3. The Context: Violence and work

3.1 Violence in the home and in family relationships

Alongside other negative impacts, violence or the threat of violence can act as a significant barrier to women and girls earning an income, owning assets, and controlling their income or assets.

The relationship between economic activity and VAWG in the home is complex. On the one hand, **earning an income and owning assets has the potential to protect women and girls from violence** in the home and in family relationships, through increasing their negotiating power, self-worth and

value in the eyes of men, giving them the means to support themselves to leave abusive relationships. Evidence from Uttar Pradesh in India finds that women's engagement in paid work and ownership of property are associated with sharp reductions in marital violence.¹⁸

Yet, the evidence shows that this does not always happen. In fact, **in some contexts economic activity can instead put women and girls at greater risk of violence, as they challenge social norms and appear to threaten men's control and power.** A 2014 baseline study for a VAWG reduction programme in India found that women who earned and controlled their own income were more likely to report violence experienced both at home and in public spaces. Whilst these women may have been more likely to *report* experiencing violence, the findings suggest that this is also because women were seen to be challenging gender norms and 'getting ahead', and as a result were targeted both by their male partners and by the wider community.¹⁹ This may be a temporary increase in violence, which can subside as social norms change.²⁰ It nonetheless underscores the need to involve men and boys in interventions that aim to empower women and girls and to address underlying social and cultural norms enabling GBV.²¹

This risk of violent backlash appears to be heightened where men are out of work, or economically disadvantaged in relation to women.²² At such times, women are often forced into informal and risky work, including sex work.²³ Male poverty can also occur in contexts with readily-available small arms and light weapons, leading to even higher risks of serious harm and the murder of women. This is especially the case when access to a weapon increases a male's status and power, or becomes a primary tool in income generation, e.g. through gang membership or participation in a militia.²⁴

3.2 Violence in the workplace, business and markets

Women seeking economic independence may come into contact with violence and abuse in the workplace, on the way to work or in market places.

There is limited data available on violence in the workplace in the global south.²⁵ Data is particularly limited regarding women's experience of sexual harassment (the form of gender-based violence most commonly discussed in the literature on VAWG at work) at work in the global south. One study found that young women in the Occupied Palestinian Territories are 'disproportionately' affected by violence at work: 18% of women aged 24 and under, and 29% of women aged 25 to 29 reported having experienced violence at work in the last 12 months.²⁶

Rates of sexual harassment at work across Europe range between 25% and 90%.²⁷ A 2007 Europe-wide survey found that nearly 60% of working women aged 15-29 had experienced unwanted sexual attention at work, compared to 35% of women aged 30-49²⁸.

Women in both formal and informal employment face VAWG, but certain kinds of work expose women to higher risks. These include contexts where women are working alone, outside normal working hours, interacting with the public, working with valuables, or working with people in distress. Particularly precarious or vulnerable groups of workers include migrant workers, domestic workers, sex workers, casual or unskilled workers, child workers, and workers in conflict or other unsafe settings.²⁹ These workers are also least likely to report violence due to their vulnerability and sometimes the illegality of their status. For many of these women, the line between 'work' and

¹⁸ Bhattacharyya et al, 2011

¹⁹ Neville et al., 2014

²⁰ McAslan Fraser, 2012a; Vyas and Watts, 2011; Fulu et al., 2014

²¹ Kiplesund and Morton, 2014

²² Heise, 2012

²³ Cruz and Klinger, 2011

²⁴ Farr et al, 2009

²⁵ For a variety of reasons, including: in some countries, only fatal cases are counted; reporting on violence often falls outside of normal health and safety requirements; etc. See p. 32 of Chappell and Di Martino (2006) for more detail

²⁶ Schulte et al., 2014

²⁷ Chappell and Di Martino, 2006

²⁸ Cruz and Klinger, 2011

²⁹ Kabeer, 2012; Chappell and Di Martino, 2006

'home' is blurred, as women workers in factories and on agricultural plantations often work and live on the same site. Home-based workers, such as women doing piece-work in the garment sector, also experience this unsupported situation. These 'fluid', 'flexible' workspaces pose challenges for VAWG interventions.³⁰ (See Annex 3 for an expanded list of risky work contexts for women and girls)

3.3 International policy, trade, legal and regulatory frameworks, and the business and physical enabling environment

Trade and business regulation, both national and international, can increase women's economic vulnerability and also their vulnerability to violence. Inefficient and corrupt business regulatory environments can limit business registration and, therefore, formal employment.³¹ As the majority of women, especially poor and vulnerable women, work in the informal sector, low levels of business registration means that the transition from informal to formal employment is limited. At the same time, a globalised world economy has led to increased cross-border trade and migration, which is also often linked with women's increased vulnerability, as they find themselves in unfamiliar locations with no social capital or networks.

Globalisation appears to be linked with an increase in women's vulnerability in the workplace.

With globalisation women are increasingly entering the workforce and challenging gender stereotypes in traditionally male-dominated environments. However, women's jobs tend to be concentrated in low skilled, insecure or temporary, low paid work which can leave them vulnerable to abuse at the hands of usually male managers and other employees and ill-equipped to avoid violence in and outside the work arena. The numbers of domestic workers, migrant workers, sex workers and traders have increased with globalisation and are much harder to reach with codes of conduct, support networks and services.³²

Labour migration may increase women's vulnerability to violence. Whilst labour migration can be an empowering process for many women, it can also result in women's increased vulnerability to violence before, during and after migration.³³ More than half of all migrant labourers are women, and there are multiple studies from the International Labour Organization (ILO), International Organization for Migration (IOM) and Human Rights Watch (HRW) on VAWG faced by female domestic workers in Europe, the Middle East and Asia.³⁴ War-displaced women and girls (IDPs or refugees) face particular risks in income generation and in protecting their assets, especially when they are separated from male family members.³⁵

Women who engage in cross-border trade, particularly in fragile and conflict-affected states, are also at great risk of violence, as they regularly negotiate risky border areas. One study from the Great Lakes region in Africa found that women cross-border traders in DRC, Rwanda and Burundi faced high levels of violence (including by border guards and 'watchers' who are hired to 'hassle' traders for goods and money).³⁶

Factory workers in "maquilas", special economic zones (SEZs -often designed to attract foreign investment and trade), and some national factories, are at high risk of violence. Empirical research in factories in Asia and the Middle East suggest that sexual harassment can be used to 'discipline' female workers, and is more common in factories with low awareness about sexual harassment issues, and in factories with few local competitors to provide alternative workplaces for women.³⁷

The physical environment and transport can be risky for women – Women face violence on their way to work, especially when they use public transport or poorly lit roads and alleyways, or live in informal settlements or camps. This is particularly the case for women who work overtime and travel

³⁰ Cruz and Klinger, 2011, citing Haspels et al., 2001

³¹ World Bank, 2013a

³² Razavi et al., 2012

³³ Cruz and Klinger, 2011

³⁴ Esim and Smith (ed.s), 2004; ILO, 2013; HRW, 2011, 2012; Paoletti et al., 2014; Guichon, 2014

³⁵ Nordstrom, 2010

³⁶ Brenton et al., 2011

³⁷ Truskinovsky et al., 2014

home late at night, and face not only daytime harassment, but also threats of sexual assault, or fear of being accused of prostitution by the police.³⁸ Violence and harassment often occurs in public transportation vehicles, which creates a higher risk for commuting workers, especially women. Women and girls who commute in areas of armed violence, including gang warfare, also face heightened risks of coming to harm.

3.4 The economic costs of VAWG

VAWG results in costs to women and the economy. Various studies have measured the impact of VAWG in terms of cost to a country's economy. Two of these studies have used econometric techniques to compare outcomes for victims and non-victims. One study estimated that victims of domestic violence faced reduced earnings totalling \$1.56 billion (or 2% of GDP) in Chile and \$29.5 million (or 1.6% of GDP) in Nicaragua.³⁹ Further, recent studies estimate the cost of gender-based violence as between 1.2% to 3.7% of GDP.⁴⁰ In an Australian study, the total cost of temporary absenteeism from paid and unpaid work is estimated to be AUS\$283.3 million in 2002–2003.⁴¹

Violence can act as a barrier to women's employment, though there is limited and sometimes conflicting data. In Colombia, abused women were much more likely to be unemployed, with 8% higher unemployment rates than non-abused women. The same study found that women whose children were abused had 4–8% higher unemployment rates.⁴² By contrast, a study of Peru, Haiti, and Zambia found that abused women were more likely to be employed than non-victims.⁴³

Violence against girls at school can reduce the likelihood of school attendance and result in a reduction in girls' long-term potential and a longer-term depletion of the stock of human capital.⁴⁴

For example, a survey among Benin schoolchildren found that 43% of primary students and 80% of secondary students knew girls who had dropped out of school owing to sexual abuse.⁴⁵

VAWG impacts on business productivity and profitability. An in-depth study based in the UK⁴⁶ found evidence that domestic violence reduces a person's capacities and capabilities in many ways, including: lost days of employment as a result of injuries, fear and anxiety, or time spent seeking help and seeing doctors and lawyers; lost productivity and promotion as a result of working beneath potential due to injuries, fear and anxiety; lost jobs as a result of poor work performance and of the need to move locality in order to escape a violent partner or former partner;⁴⁷ disruption to education and training programmes⁴⁸ as well as problems with concentration, job performance, and productivity.⁴⁹ At the same time employers face the costs of days taken off sick; lower productivity because of poor concentration and possible disruption by the violent partner at work; and the costs of recruitment and re-training if a person leaves their job.⁵⁰

VAWG results in loss of income and increased costs to women. Women who experience violence lose income due to days off work and tend to have lower earnings⁵¹, and have significant out of pocket expenditure to access services.⁵² Evidence also suggests that children from households where IPV is perpetrated have lower job performance, stability and earnings in later life.⁵³

3.5 Negative masculinity, gender and social norms that sanction violence in the world of work

³⁸ Haspels et al., 2001

³⁹ Morrison and Orlando, 1999; Willman, 2009

⁴⁰ Duvvury et al., 2013; Horna, 2013.

⁴¹ Duvvury et al, 2013

⁴² Ribero and Sánchez, 2004

⁴³ Morrison and Orlando, 2004

⁴⁴ Action Aid, 2004; Perezniето, 2014

⁴⁵ Cited in Wible, 2004; Ward et al, 2010

⁴⁶ Walby, 2004

⁴⁷ Lloyd, 1997; Raphael and Toman, 1997

⁴⁸ Brush, 2000

⁴⁹ Moe and Bell, 2004; Reeves and O'Leary-Kelly, 2007; Swanberg et al., 2006; Agarwal and Panda, 2000; Violence Prevention Alliance and Education Development Center, 2011

⁵⁰ Henderson, 2000

⁵¹ ICRW, 2000; Lozano, 1999; ICRW and UNFPA, 2009; Duvvury et al., 2012

⁵² ICRW and UNFPA, 2009; Duvvury et al 2013

⁵³ Holt et al., 2008

In many cultures men adhere to masculinity norms that promote men's power and control over women and condone violence as a way of maintaining that control. Whilst strength, leadership and power may be seen as important "masculine" attributes⁵⁴ that maintain social order and peace, abuse of this power and use of violence to abuse and control those who do not have power contributes to a destructive or negative "masculinity".⁵⁵

Negative masculinity can create suffering for men as well as women.⁵⁶ For example, men can be coerced into behaving in certain ways that conform with male group behaviour, including denying feelings, missing out on care-giving and relationships with their children, competitiveness and violence between boys and men. Most men are keen to appear to be masculine as the alternative of being thought of as feminine or homosexual is abhorrent to them and to the communities that they live in, especially in homophobic and misogynistic cultures.⁵⁷ Therefore men may go to significant lengths to demonstrate their masculinity to themselves and to their social group, including being violent towards women and girls or exhibiting abusive and controlling sexual behaviour. However, men do generally have choices about how they behave and are often aware of laws and religious norms around ethical, caring and peaceful behaviour.

Men and boys constitute the greatest number of both perpetrators and victims of violence globally,⁵⁸ meaning that they often experience violence themselves and this trauma, especially from a young age, contributes to men's violent behaviour as they mature.⁵⁹ The economic context can also exacerbate an already fragile situation. In high-crime and conflict-affected situations, where there is already a culture of violence, high unemployment and underemployment among young men can be a risk of further violence and fragility.⁶⁰

Negative masculinities in the workplace are reinforced by organisational norms, the behaviour of managers and leaders, a lack of codes of conduct and workplaces dominated by men. In some jobs (such as the army) negative masculinity can be the norm, whereby, '*militarized masculinity has been defined as a form of masculinity that equates 'manliness' with 'sanctioned use of aggression, force and violence'*'.⁶¹ Even in workplaces where the majority of employees are women (e.g. Bangladesh garment workers – see Box 3), the dominance of men in senior and management positions means that a negative masculine culture pervades and women maybe nervous about pursuing managerial positions and opportunities.⁶²

Box 3: Men's behaviour in Bangladesh garment industry

Offensive and sexually explicit language, hitting, suggestions to become a prostitute, slapping on heads, pulling of hair; these are examples of abusive behaviour reported by garment workers. Millions of women have experienced this type of treatment because they made a mistake, failed to meet a production target, asked for leave, worked slower because of illness, or arrived late. Many women have also experienced unwanted sexual advances in the workplace, stalking, or worse, from male colleagues or supervisors.

Source: Fair Wear Foundation 2013

Negative masculinity can also impede women from earning money or owning their own business because in some contexts men rarely take on domestic responsibilities when women are working, thus leaving women with the double burden of work in and outside the home, as discussed above.⁶³

⁵⁴ These can also be attributes that women demonstrate but are still thought of as masculine.

⁵⁵ The term negative masculinity is used in order to enable the possibility of some positive attributes of masculinity. It does not offer a value judgement but rather distinguishes masculine traits that destructive to mental and physical wellbeing of men and women from other constructive masculine traits.

⁵⁶ ILO, 2013

⁵⁷ Epstein, 1996

⁵⁸ UNODC, 2014

⁵⁹ Jewkes, 2014

⁶⁰ World Bank, 2013b; McLean-Hilker and Fraser (2009)

⁶¹ Bevan and MacKenzie, 2012: p. 513

⁶² Fair Wear Foundation, 2013

⁶³ Kabeer, 2011

4. Understanding women's and girls' economic empowerment

4.1 Economic Development Programming

There are many different interventions implemented to strengthen the private sector, enhance economic development and build women's and girls' economic empowerment (WGEE).

Programmatic and system approaches - combining different interventions at a number of levels (individual, company, market, economy, legal framework):

- **Making markets work for the poor (M4P):** market systems approaches.
- **Value chain approaches:** sometimes included in M4P approaches or as part of international trade or Ethical Trade approaches.
- **Enterprise and cooperative development:** sometimes focussing on a particular sector, these approaches can be included in Fairtrade, M4P and other approaches.
- **Fairtrade and Ethical Trade**
- **Corporate social responsibility (CSR) and corporate responsibility (CR) business:** actions to enhance the social, environmental, developmental and human rights effects of their business operations.
- **Regulatory and legal frameworks:** including for asset and business ownership and control, as well as gender equity regulatory frameworks to support an enabling environment for women's economic activities.
- **International trade negotiations and agreements**

Individual interventions - these interventions can be part of any of the above approaches in different combinations:

- **Financial services and assets:** including business finance (credit, equity, guarantees), microfinance, micro-insurance, savings (including interventions using new technologies such as mobile phones), village savings and loans associations (VSLA).
- **Business development services:** including accountancy, human resources, marketing.
- **Skills training:** including financial literacy, job and industry-related skills development.
- **Asset provision:** non-financial assets, including but not limited to goods, land and property, productive assets from which an income can be generated (including livestock, technology, consumer durables and energy-saving devices).
- **Social protection:** including cash transfers, cash for work, childcare and elder care services.
- **Unions and associations:** including business or trade associations, women's rights organisations, unions for independent workers (e.g. Self-Employed Women's Association (SEWA) in India), and other group-based activities to promote access to fair employment and business opportunities.
- **Trade and access to markets:** support to organisations (including CSOs, cooperatives, companies) working in fair trade, ethical trade, cross-border trade, trade regulations and agreements and support to hawkers (those selling on the street). Support can include trade and market information, marketing and product development support, and connections with regional and international markets.

4.2 Economic empowerment of women and girls⁶⁴

Economic empowerment is the process whereby women's and girls' lives are transformed from a situation where they have limited power and access to economic assets, to a situation where they experience economic advancement, and their power and agency is enhanced across four key change areas (see box 4).⁶⁵

⁶⁴ The change areas in box 3 have been adapted to be relevant to economic empowerment, not just overall empowerment.

⁶⁵ VeneKlasen and Miller, 2002

Box 4: Women's and girls' Economic Empowerment: Change areas

- **Power within:** the knowledge, individual capabilities, sense of entitlement, self-esteem, and self-belief to make changes in their lives, including learning skills for jobs or to start an enterprise.
- **Power to:** economic decision-making power within their household, community, and local economy (including markets), not just in areas that are traditionally regarded as women's realms but extending to areas that are traditionally regarded as men's realms.
- **Power over:** access to and control over financial, physical and knowledge-based assets, including access to employment and income-generation activities.
- **Power with:** the ability to organise with others to enhance economic activity and rights.

Source: VeneKlasen and Miller, 2002

Economic empowerment will only be possible and sustainable if there are changes at different levels: within **the individual** (capability, knowledge, self-esteem); in **communities and institutions** (including norms and behaviour); **in markets and value chains; and in the wider political and legal environment.**⁶⁶ This is a 'holistic' approach to WGEE because it is not just looking at whether women and girls have increased their access to income and assets, but also whether they have more control over them and are able to use them to have greater control over other areas of their life.⁶⁷

The difference between women's economic advancement and women's economic empowerment.

Many economic development programmes and projects claim to be working on and producing outcomes for women's and girls' economic empowerment (WGEE), and yet are often focused on economic advancement (where income, access to employment and assets are increased). **This differs from economic empowerment because, although women and girls may be able to earn money and gain access to assets, they may not be able to retain control over economic choices if their power and agency and if structures and social norms around gender equality remain unchanged.** These structures and social norms are the same aspects of gender inequality that sanction VAWG. WGEE approaches address different levels of structure and social norms (individual, family, community, institutional) around both women's and girls' economic advancement and their power and agency. (See ICRW Women's Economic Empowerment Framework in Figure 1).

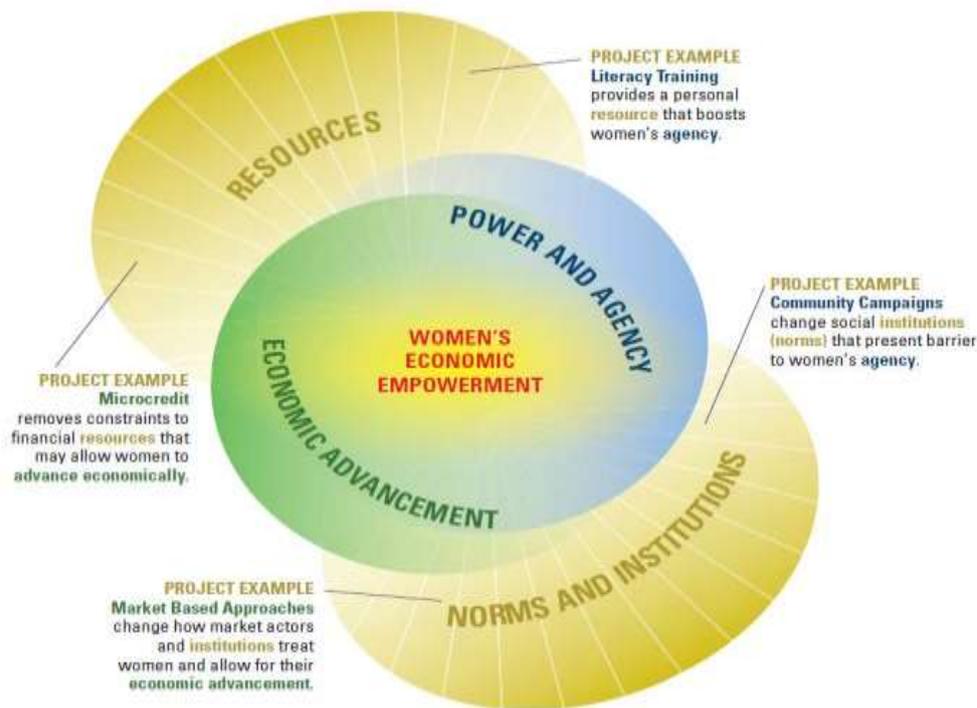
Approaches to address VAWG within economic development programming must understand and have a focus on women's and girls' economic empowerment – not just economic advancement.

VAWG can be implicated in, and be a consequence of, the factors that limit women's economic empowerment (see next section). Unless the gender inequalities that drive VAWG are addressed, economic development initiatives could not only fail to improve women's lives but actually make them worse. Addressing these issues within programmes and policies will help to facilitate women's and girls' economic empowerment. Case studies in Part B show how WGEE and VAWG have been addressed within programmes in a synergistic and mutually supportive way.

⁶⁶ Golla et al., 2011

⁶⁷ Taylor and Perezniето, 2014

Figure 2: ICRW Framework on Women's Economic Empowerment⁶⁸



4.3 Social, economic and cultural factors that hinder women's and girls' economic empowerment

Discriminatory gendered social norms prevalent in the community, family or institution where they live or work will often limit the roles that women and girls can take on. For example, social norms may prevent women being seen as money earners, as capable of decision-making about the disposal of assets, or as economically powerful.⁶⁹ Negative social norms can limit women's and girls' physical movement, where they are not allowed or are justifiably too afraid to leave the home or to go to certain places where they could work.⁷⁰ Norms can also affect ownership and use of goods and assets or management of their own income. All of this limits women's and girls' aspirations and ability to plan for the future.

Women and girls have limited time and energy for income earning and enterprise due to their unpaid reproductive, household and caring roles. This can include fetching water and firewood, looking after the sick, injured, elderly and children, buying and cooking food, cleaning and washing and working on the home smallholding (farming and livestock) or for the family business.⁷¹

Limited access to health services and contraception and high levels of sexual violence, sexual coercion and emotional abuse, including during wartime, **can result in women having more pregnancies** than intended (often high risk in young women, adolescents and girls) or suffering debilitating pregnancy, childbirth or violence-related injuries and illness (including fistula) and many children to care for. This leaves limited time and energy for income earning opportunities. Women with untreated injuries after rape may suffer severe social stigma and health burdens that prevent them from all forms of social interaction, including finding work.

⁶⁸ Golla et al., 2011

⁶⁹ World Bank, 2014; Klugman et al, 2014

⁷⁰ ibid

⁷¹ Razavi et al, 2012; Bradshaw et al, 2013

Box 5: Women's time

Across six developed and developing countries the World Development Report 2012 found that women devote one to three more hours a day to housework than men, two to ten times the amount of time to child or elder care and one to four hours less a day to market activities. Women living in conflict and violence affected situations experience even more demand on their time.

After an individual is released from hospital with an injury from armed violence, most of the burden of care falls on her or his family and other volunteers, usually women and girls because of gendered social norms that regard caregiving as “women’s work”. It is often undervalued, unpaid or underpaid, and unrecognised; yet caregiving has clear economic, health, and human rights implications for both the recipient and the carer. Sustainable caregiving is instrumental to good outcomes for survivors of violence, and an important link between health systems and social protection. However many caregivers, particularly in low-income settings, suffer economically because they are not able to work or study outside the home.

Source: World Bank, 2012

Women have unequal access to economic opportunities due to discriminatory social norms. For example, women may not be seen as managers or leaders and are discriminated against in recruitment and promotion processes. There are large discrepancies between men’s and women’s pay all over the world, and this is more prevalent in countries with high levels of gender inequality.⁷² In many low-income countries women are more likely to be working in the informal sector in vulnerable employment or enterprise, rather than the formal sector. Women market traders may be given the worst positions in the market,⁷³ not be included in market and business associations, and/or not listened to in collective action. Similarly, women in conflict zones or in contexts where they face high levels of armed violence, such as those in favelas or slums, may be unable to protect their fields, market stalls or small businesses, move their produce to market or engage in productive labour.

Discriminatory legal and regulatory frameworks and unequal access to assets and services. In many countries women own fewer and lower-value fixed assets, including land and buildings due to discrimination in customary or national laws or lack of knowledge of rights.⁷⁴ Women sometimes need their husband’s permission to register a business or land, to get a bank account or to get a job (for example in Bolivia, DRC, Iran, Jordan, Niger, Sudan).⁷⁵ This limits their ability to borrow money due to lack of collateral. Women also have limited access to other financial services, including bank accounts, savings, insurance and leasing due to low mobility, scarce services (especially in rural areas), low levels of literacy and gender norms. Typically, business development services and skills development programmes tend to target men and boys, and women have limited participation. Where these programmes are targeted at women, they tend to focus on typically “female” products and services (such as hairdressing, soap making, or sewing), which provide low added value and profitability and are offered within saturated markets, reducing margin and sales volume.

Current international trade rules. Non-tariff trade barriers can include regulations such as subsidies (for example the EU Common Agricultural Policy), health and safety regulation, packaging, phyto-sanitation conditions, and discriminatory rules of origin. These barriers can reduce the potential for trade between countries and are particularly restrictive for low-income countries with limited formal industry. Evidence shows that these barriers disproportionately push women traders and producers into the informal economy, where a lack of access to finance, information, and networks jeopardises their capacity to grow and develop businesses.⁷⁶

⁷² OECD, 2012; World Bank, 2012; Razavi et al, 2012

⁷³ Chant and Pedwell, 2008

⁷⁴ Doss et al, 2013; Klugman et al, 2014; UN Women, 2012

⁷⁵ World Bank, 2014; UN Women, 2012

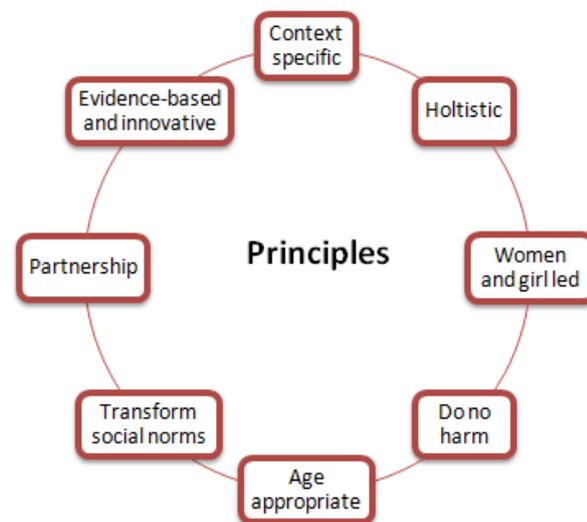
⁷⁶ Brenton, 2013

4.4 Key enabling or facilitating factors for women's economic empowerment:⁷⁷

- Education, particularly secondary education, supports girls to build confidence and ability.
- Women's improved knowledge and communication capability in work and in the home.
- Formal employment away from the home or off farm enterprises (more so than informal and home based employment or enterprise).
- Women's organisations in the form of unions, cooperatives or business associations. Association and networking empowers women ("*power with*") and builds confidence and resources to protect rights and expand economic activity.
- Access to ownership of and control over fixed assets such as land and equipment.
- Access to business development services and financial services.
- Protection of women in times of armed conflict or insecurity and women's participation in peacetime decision-making, including on economic matters.⁷⁸

5. Principles to guide economic development programming in tackling VAWG

The general principles outlined in DFID's *Guidance Note 1: A Theory of Change for Tackling Violence Against Women and Girls* should inform the design of all DFID programming on VAWG. These have been adapted here for the context of economic development programming. Some principles may be more relevant than others, depending on the particular aims of the programme.



5.1 Design context-specific interventions

to tackle violence as part of economic development programmes using a thorough situational analysis which analyses women's and girls' economic activities in both the formal and informal sector, in the home and in organisations (See indicative questions in Annex 3). The context analysis must look at all four of the following:

- How violence in the home, intimate partner violence, violence in the workplace and on the way to work can limit women's participation in economic activity (employment and enterprise).
- The potential for economic activity, income and ownership of assets to protect women and girls from violence in and outside the work arena.
- A thorough gender analysis and understanding of incentives for social norm and power relations to change. This should include analysis with families, communities, workplaces, markets and organisations and analysis of masculinity.
- A thorough mapping of potential partners, service providers and organisations that can support work to tackle VAWG.

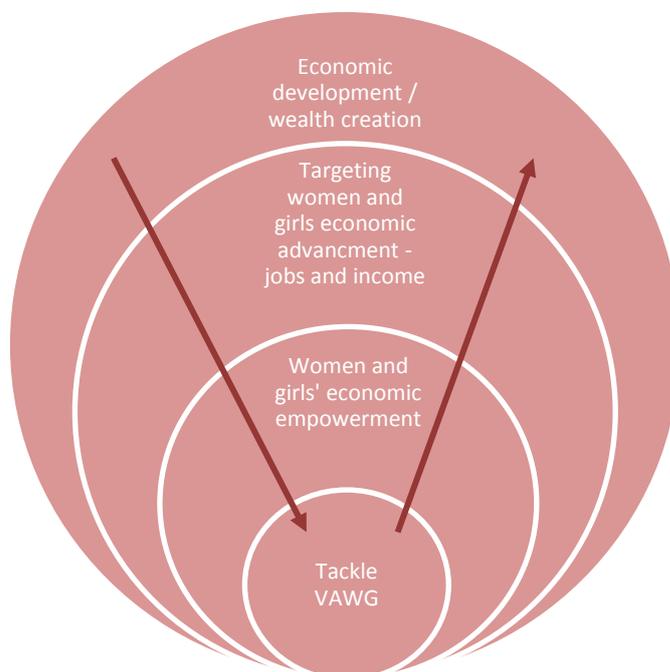
5.2 Develop multi-level holistic approaches to women's economic empowerment with specific action to tackle VAWG. Within an approach to economic development, women's and girls' economic advancement approaches need to be implemented alongside, and integrated into, an approach that can increase women's power and agency with respect to income and assets. This usually means an approach that will work to change social norms around women and girls working, earning an income and having decision-making power around the world of work. In order for this to have an effect on VAWG there also has to be some specific action to address social norms and behaviour around

⁷⁷ Kabeer, 2011

⁷⁸ UNSCR 1325, (2000) and 1889 (2009)

violence and gender roles and relations and to ensure prevention, protection and response. This can be termed a holistic approach to WGEE and VAWG (see Figure 3.) The entry point can be either through economic development programming or through VAWG programming.

Figure 3: A holistic Approach to Women and Girls Economic Empowerment and VAWG



5.3 Use women and girl-led participatory methods throughout the project cycle (i.e. for situational analysis, design, implementation, and monitoring and evaluation). Because the dynamics of VAWG and WGEE are context-specific, it is important to design interventions that are strongly informed by women's and girls' needs and opinions and to implement programmes with a participatory approach. Support should be given to indigenous empowerment processes and social movements. This usually means supporting women's rights organisations, but can also include support to unions, industry associations and other forms of collective action as they have an important role to play in improving workplace conditions and treatment for women.

5.4 Do no harm. Economic development interacts with women's risk of violence in a complex and context-specific manner (e.g. depending on dominant gender attitudes regarding women's economic advancement) and this is contingent on other factors such as a partner's employment or education.⁷⁹ Microfinance programmes and conditional cash transfer programmes in some situations can actually increase the incidence of partner violence, at least in the short term.⁸⁰ This seems especially common when a woman is beginning to contribute relatively more to family maintenance than a male spouse⁸¹ or when taking a non-traditional job⁸². There is some evidence that an initial increase in VAWG may reduce as a result of a participation in economic development programmes over time, as economic stresses on households reduce⁸³ and as social norms shift.

A strong 'do no harm' approach needs to be based on a solid understanding of the context of VAWG and economic activity – ensuring that the risks mentioned above do not increase because of women's economic activity or increased income. This means that a thorough assessment of social norms and support systems around women's work and income earning needs to be undertaken (see

⁷⁹ Heise, 2012; Vyas and Watts, 2009

⁸⁰ Fulu et al., 2014, Klugman et al, 2014

⁸¹ Heise, 2012

⁸² Heise, 2012

⁸³ Schuler et al, 1999; Hadi, 2005

section 5.1). This also means assessing the risk that certain enterprise activities or financial services might increase women's and girls' vulnerability (e.g. through debt).

Evidence suggests that men's inclusion in programming and transformational gender groups or training is more effective than just including women. There is also an indication that men and women making decisions together reduces the risk of violence⁸⁴. Approaches should also include social protection, rather than propel women into debt, and secure long term contracts for enterprises or guaranteed value chains and markets, in order to increase income security and reduce women's vulnerability to shocks.

5.5 Design age appropriate interventions. Work on girls' economic empowerment needs a specialised approach that takes into account specific age-related and intersecting vulnerabilities. Several DFID programmes now focus on girls' economic empowerment or include adolescent girls within women's economic empowerment projects. It is important to analyse the specific situation and roles of girls of different ages and backgrounds and judge the appropriate approaches. For example, in many countries girls as young as 12 or 13 years are already married, and so are thought of as women. In some contexts, girls of 10 years may be street hawking and can be viewed as economically active. It is essential to consult with these girls and understand their circumstances.

Approaches to build girls' economic empowerment should do the following:

- Understand the needs and constraints faced by girls, particularly those that are the most vulnerable.
- Consider an approach for younger adolescent girls that develops the "building blocks" for economic empowerment, (e.g. having a bank account, financial literacy, business knowledge, and savings) rather than necessarily economic activity. If economic activity is necessary for survival it should be safe, should be combined with increasing access to education and must not increase vulnerability (e.g. through debt).
- Include a child protection strategy and action for all work with girls less than 18 years. This should include links with the child protection architecture (government and CSO), policies and monitoring on child protection, and child protection expertise.
- Include education (e.g. attendance and continuation as well as starting education) and life skills training in all interventions targeted to adolescent girls. Equip girls with technical skills for which there is a proven demand in the local labour market.
- Help girls expand their networks and link to employment opportunities at the right time.
- Integrate a "do no harm" approach in all aspects, but especially with analysis of whether interventions are increasing or decreasing the vulnerability and risk for girls.
- Ensure safe, secure and considered transition out of adolescent girl programming and into either the world of work or women's programming.
- Remain sensitive to violent contexts – i.e. consider girls associated with armed groups and forces or girls made insecure in areas of high crime, especially where weapons are prolific.

5.6 Work to change social norms that condone and promote violence at all levels in communities and the workplace. Approaches work best when they address negative (violent) social norms and negative masculinity through engaging with individual women AND their partners, families and communities. Work to increase women's and girls' economic empowerment needs to work with individuals and structures at all levels in communities and in organisations.

For interventions working with the private sector on VAWG in the workplace, the different levels of organisational structure and social norms need to be taken into account. Interventions need to work with leaders and managers, unions, and male and female employees at all levels. All workers require training – men and women. They need to understand what constitutes violence and harassment, how it affects women and co-workers and how it impacts on business health and culture of the workplace.

⁸⁴ Fulu et al, 2014

5.7 Partner with organisations that can provide services and support. Most private sector companies and economic development experts do not have expertise and comparative advantage in gender and VAWG. It is important that a network of partner organisations with VAWG experience can work with the private sector to develop approaches within the organisation. It is also essential that partnerships are formed within programme implementation consortiums and with national organisations in order to ensure wider access to VAWG expertise and services.

5.8 Build on evidence and innovate. Interventions are more likely to produce results where there is good evidence of effectiveness based on quality research. However the diversity and complexity of the private sector, value chains, markets and economic interventions means that it is difficult to generalise evidence across different contexts. There is limited research on the effectiveness of integrating VAWG in economic development programming – although there is some evidence on microfinance, vocational training and cash transfer programmes.⁸⁵ However, most studies look at specific projects rather than programmes provoking systemic change in value chains or markets, and are often linked to HIV and AIDS, sexual and reproductive health and rights (SRHR) or demobilisation programmes. Thus, innovation will be important with a view to testing and evaluating new approaches, as will be capturing evidence of what does and does not work well.

Based on existing experience, there are a number of lessons about evaluating programmes that seek to empower women and girls economically and also address VAWG.⁸⁶

- Ensure there is a theory of change that describes transformational change in women’s and girls’ economic advancement and power and agency.
- Build a team that has sufficient gender and economic development/private sector expertise and involve these experts from the beginning at evaluation design and context analysis.
- Undertake context analysis that includes a comprehensive gender analysis across different levels and institutions, and maintain sensitivity to the context and to evaluation-related risks
- Use mixed methods effectively and design appropriate tools for different study participants and provide them in full in the research report.
- Disaggregate data fully by age, sex, disability and other relevant groups.
- Measure locally-relevant indicators that aim to measure transformational change in:
 - women’s economic advancement and power and agency
 - attitudes, norms and behaviours of women and men
 - gender mainstreaming and attitudes in institutions
 - gender differences in empowerment between women and men to increase local relevance
 - men and women’s social capital, economic autonomy and political participation
 - effects of the wider market, value chain and employment
 - violent behaviours and tolerance of violence, including in post-conflict recovery

⁸⁵ Fulu et al, 2014

⁸⁶ Taylor et al, 2014, Raab et al, 2014 – see also Part B for more information and example indicators.

Annex 1: UK Government's commitments to VAWG

Ending VAWG is a top priority for the UK Government, which has made a number of international commitments:

- The UK is a signatory to international commitments on VAWG including the *UN Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women* (1993) *UN Security Council Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security* (2000) and subsequent, related resolutions - SCR 1820 (2008), SCR 1888 (2009), SCR 1889 (2009), SCR 1960 (2010), SCR 2106 (2013) and SCR 2122 (2013). These binding agreements set out a framework of commitments to improve the protection of women and girls and promote their rights in conflict and post-conflict situations.
- In 2013, the UK played a leading role in delivering a successful outcome at the UN Commission on the Status of Women (CSW 57), which commits UN member states to comprehensive measures to eliminate and prevent all forms of VAWG across all contexts.
- In November 2013, the DFID-organised Call to Action event 'Keep Her Safe' committed countries and humanitarian agencies to protecting girls and women in emergencies.
- Agreed conclusions (relevant to VAWG) at the 58th Commission on the Status of Women reaffirmed commitment to the full and effective implementation of and follow-up to the Declaration on the Elimination of VAW, recognising that VAW impedes social and economic development, as well as the achievement of the MDGs, and commits member states to eliminating all forms of VAWG in public and private spaces, through multi-sectoral and coordinated approaches to prevent and respond to VAWG.
- The UK is also working to ensure that the post-2015 development framework includes strong commitments on VAWG.
- In 2012, the UK Foreign Secretary launched the Preventing Sexual Violence Initiative (PSVI), which aims to increase the number of perpetrators facing justice, push for greater international action and help countries to tackle these crimes and support survivors of sexual violence.
- As part of its G8 Presidency, the UK worked hard to secure the G8 Declaration on Preventing Sexual Violence in Conflict, adopted in April 2013. This sets out commitments to assist conflict-affected countries in ensuring that their future national security sector and justice reform programmes are gender and child-sensitive and are designed to deter and address gender-based violence, including sexual violence, and promote the full participation of women. Support should be provided to both state and non-state service providers where appropriate.
- There are ILO codes of conduct (see Annex 2) and in many countries there are national laws and regulations around health and safety and prevention of violence in the workplace. These international frameworks confirm that women and girls have the right to live free from violence and to pursue economic lives free of violence and abuse.

The UK's international commitments are also matched by a **robust framework of UK national commitments**:

- In 2010, the UK Government launched the UK National Action Plan on UNSCR 1325 which provides a framework for UK defence, diplomatic and development efforts to promote women's roles in peace and security and mainstream VAWG into all HMG S&J programming. It was revised in 2012 and a new UK National Action Plan 2014-2017 was launched in early 2014. <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/uk-national-action-plan-on-women-peace-and-security>
- In November 2010, the UK Government published its Call to End Violence Against Women and Girls: Strategic Vision followed by annual action plans in 2011, 2012 and 2013 and 2014. These set out specific actions for government departments, including DFID, the FCO and MOD, to work together to make progress towards ending VAWG in the UK and overseas.

- The UK's Building Stability Overseas Strategy (BSOS) (2011) recognises that women have a central role in building stability and reiterates the UK's commitment to addressing VAWG. It stresses the importance of an effective, accountable security sector, better access to justice and respect for human rights for state stability and acknowledges the role of both formal and informal S&J actors in ensuring equitable justice is accessible to all.

Preventing VAWG is also a **priority for DFID's Ministerial team:**

- DFID's Business Plan (2011-15) commits DFID to pilot new and innovative approaches to prevent VAWG.
- *DFID ToC for VAWG* includes ownership, control and access to assets. (DFID, 2011)
- Preventing VAWG is also one of four pillars in DFID's Strategic Vision for Girls and Women (2011), which also includes a commitment to getting economic assets directly to girls and women. The Strategic Vision states that, '[t]o be most effective, we need to link up actions across the pillars.' (DFID, 2011: 3) It also stresses the need to Support the "enabling environment" by challenging discriminatory attitudes and behaviours, increasing the value given to girls and women; building effective legal frameworks to protect rights of women and girls; increasing the power of women to make informed choices and control decisions that affect them.
- *Economic Development for Shared Prosperity and Poverty Reduction: A Strategic Framework* does not specifically mention violence but does include a pillar on the importance of inclusive growth particularly for women and girls and recognizes that this involves addressing the structural barriers they face. (DFID, 2014)
- *The new Development Act (Gender) 2014*
- DFID Commitment to end VAWG in wartime: The UK National Action Plan on UNSCR13253 and the 2013 G8 declaration on Preventing Sexual Violence in Conflict.

Related guidance and resources

For more detailed information on DFID's Theory of Change on VAWG and overall approach to addressing VAWG, please consult the guidance note: 'A Theory of Change for Tackling Violence Against Women and Girls'.

- 'A Practical Guide to Community Programming on Violence against Women and Girls'.
- 'Guidance on Monitoring and Evaluation for Programming on Violence against Women and Girls'.
- Violence against Women and Girls in Humanitarian Emergencies.
- Addressing Violence against Women and Girls through Security and Justice (S&J) Programming Part A and Part B.
- Addressing VAWG through Education Programming
- Other guidance on addressing VAWG through programming in different sectors will be made available at <https://www.gov.uk/government/collections/violence-against-women-and-girls-guidance-notes>.

Annex 2: ILO (and other UN) codes of conduct and regulations⁸⁷

ILO conventions on gender equality are reinforced by related Resolutions adopted by its highest decision-making body, the International Labour Conference. For example:

- the Resolution concerning Gender Equality at the Heart of Decent Work, adopted in June 2009;
- the Resolution concerning the Promotion of Gender Equality, Pay Equity and Maternity Protection, adopted in June 2004.
- the Governing Body's March 2005 Decision on Gender Mainstreaming in Technical Cooperation which mandates attention to gender equality in all aspects of the ILO's technical cooperation.

The ILO's gender equality mandate is also set in the context of a number of international instruments advancing equality between women and men. These include the UN Charter itself, numerous resolutions of the General Assembly, the 1997 UN Economic and Social Council's Agreed Conclusions on gender mainstreaming, the Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), the 1995 Beijing Platform for Action and its follow-up, and the Millennium Development Goals.

Specific codes of practice and conventions on violence against women and girls at work (including sexual harassment) include:

- The ILO's Governing Body *Code of practice on workplace violence in services sectors and measures to combat this phenomenon* (adopted in 2003) is a non-binding instrument which offers guidance in addressing workplace violence in these sectors and which makes specific reference to sexual harassment.
- ILO's decent work mandate compels it to act against violence at work and to foster workplace environments founded on gender equality and respect.
- The 2011 Convention on Decent Work for Domestic Workers covers these highly-vulnerable and predominantly female workers. It requires ratifying States along with trade unions and employers' organizations to take action against any form of violence, abuse and harassment at work.
- There are several ILO conventions on gender equality but currently not one that specifically focused on VAWG. There is however a campaign to have an ILO convention focusing on GBV at work.⁸⁸

The international legal framework to prevent and address violence against migrant women and girls includes the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (1979); the Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989); the International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families (1990); and the Convention concerning Decent Work for Domestic Workers (2011). In addition, the Committee on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women adopted General Recommendation No. 26 on Women Migrant Workers (2008), and the Committee on Migrant Workers adopted General Comment No. 1 on Migrant Domestic Workers (2011).

⁸⁷ <http://www.ilo.org/gender/Aboutus/ILOandGenderEquality/lang--en/index.htm>

⁸⁸ International Trade Union Confederation (date not given)

Annex 3: Most risky work contexts for women and girls

Data on the main types, patterns and trends of VAWG in different work contexts for women and girls show that:

- (i) **Risks are highest where trade unions do not exist**, as in these cases women do not have the opportunity to collectively organise to address the violence.⁸⁹
- (ii) **Public sector workers**, especially in the education and the health sector, face particular risks. For example, a 2002 study of health workers in seven countries found that psychological violence was most common type of violence experienced, with very high rates, (40% in Brazil and 60% in South Africa).⁹⁰ Violence against teachers occurs in many countries, though the forms and drivers of violence vary. Violence is also not limited to the school context – teachers are also victims of attack on their way to school or in their home or local community. Political violence against female teachers is a particular problem in areas where girls' education is contested.⁹¹
- (iii) **Job insecurity or precariousness—real or perceived—can also exacerbate vulnerability to violence**, as workers on temporary contracts and with less experience are at higher risk of violence.⁹²
- (iv) **Child labourers, both boys and girls, are particularly vulnerable to violence**, largely due to their dependence on adults. Whilst both girls and boys are at risk of a range of kinds of violence, girls experience higher rates of sexual violence. Child labourers work across different sectors, but are globally most commonly working in agriculture, services and industry, with 60% working in hazardous working conditions, including those associated with armed groups and forces.⁹³ Several qualitative studies from Nigeria have shown that girls working in informal hawking activities are at great risk of sexual harassment and violence.⁹⁴
- (v) **Sex workers are also highly vulnerable to multiple forms of violence**. Not only are they at risk of violence from clients, brothel owners, police officers, or 'controllers' (pimps), they are also at greater risk of IPV and violence committed by other sex workers.⁹⁵
- (vi) **Workers in and around extractive industries often suffer high levels of violence**: In the DRC, women artisanal miners suffer multiple forms of VAWG⁹⁶. In artisanal mining towns women have economic opportunities (in the mining value chain itself, though primarily in the lower end of the value chain, as well as other work in mining areas, e.g. trade, running restaurants, commercial sex work), but also face risks of violence, including war. In the oil industry, where jobs are scarce and oil production is in decline, hostility of men toward women entering the labour force increases—as do incidences of domestic violence and abuse.⁹⁷
- (vii) **Women in fragile and conflicted affected states**, refugees and IDPs. For example in Afghanistan women entrepreneurs face lower mobility and especially high vulnerability to harassment and intimidation, which limits simple business transactions or network building that would support economic initiatives⁹⁸.

Annex 4: Conducting a situation analysis in for tackling VAWG in an economic development programme

⁸⁹ Cruz and Klinger, 2011

⁹⁰ Chappell and Di Martino, 2006

⁹¹ McAslan Fraser, 2012b

⁹² *ibid.*

⁹³ Cruz and Klinger, 2011

⁹⁴ Taylor et al., 2014; Olufunmilayo et al., 2002

⁹⁵ Cruz and Klinger, 2011; Fulu et al., 2014

⁹⁶ Kelly et al., 2014

⁹⁷ Scott et al, 2013

⁹⁸ Ritchie, 2013; Cruz and Klinger, 2011

Enterprise	Employment
Violence and impact on W&G economic activities, power and agency – extent of violence and impact	
Where and when are women experiencing violence? What type of violence is it? (E.g. physical, sexual, psychological).	What is the experience of violence in the workplace or on the way to work?
How is violence impacting on women’s health, their power and agency and their ability to organise and network?	How is violence in the home and in the workplace (or on the way to work) impacting on women’s agency and power, their health, or their participation in unions or collective action?
How does violence limit women’s income earning and enterprise activities?	How are women’s experiences of violence impacting on employee productivity and motivation?
Does the nature of women’s enterprise and income earning bring them into contact with violence or increase their risk of experiencing IPV? (E.g. health work, sex work, cross-border trade)	To what extent is IPV or family violence affecting attendance and quality of work? Is employment increasing women’s risk of violence?
Are social (gender) norms limiting business growth and income security?	What dominant gender norms and behaviours exist within the workplace?
What do husbands, partners and family members think about women earning income and working outside the home? Are they supportive – what might the barriers be? Has this attitude changed at all in the last few years?	
Are women experiencing violence in markets, in public places and/or on the way to work, and is this limiting their economic activity?	
Who are the perpetrators of VAWG in the home, in public spaces or in the workplace and what information is there on these individuals?	
Mapping economic activities and opportunities for women (new markets etc.)	
What economic activities and enterprises are women involved in?	What employment opportunities are there for women?
What new markets can women become involved in?	Are women excluded from or scared of taking positions of authority within businesses?
How do social norms determine sector, enterprise or type of employment that women can be involved in?	
Does the business and gender legal and regulatory framework increase the risk of women’s vulnerability to violence? (E.g. land ownership and inheritance, business registration, tax, child custody).	
What assets do women own, and what are they entitled to? Are customary laws preventing women from asset ownership, even where national legislation exists supporting women’s rights?	
Mapping of actors	
Are women involved in, have a voice or leading business or trade associations, market associations or collective action of any sort?	Are there any unions or collectives that can support women’s voices and preventing violence?
Are there any organizations (state or non-state) providing support to women’s enterprise? Do they support women’s power and agency too?	What kind of referral organizations and services are available for companies to work with? (CSOs or public sector)
Which financial service providers have products and services for women? Do they support women’s power and agency too?	Which employers have codes of conduct, human resource systems and leadership to support violence prevention in the workplace?

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