Evaluation of DFID
Development Assistance:
Gender Equality and Women’s Empowerment

Phase II Thematic Evaluation:
Gender Violence

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Disclaimer
The British Government’s Department for International Development financed this work as part of the United Kingdom’s aid programme. However, the views and recommendations contained in this report are those of the consultant, and DFID is not responsible for, or bound by the recommendations made.

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Foreword

BY MARK LOWCOCK,
DIRECTOR GENERAL FOR CORPORATE PERFORMANCE AND KNOWLEDGE SHARING

DFID recognises gender equality and the empowerment of women as essential both for the elimination of world poverty and the upholding of human rights. Since 1985, we have worked to support this area, as laid out in our Strategy Paper¹.

In 2005, the international community will consider progress towards the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Many of the hardest-to-reach MDGs are related to gender. Two examples are the goal to reduce deaths in pregnancy and childbirth, which are still unacceptably high, and the goal to increase girls’ education, which has been shown to have many positive knock-on effects including on child health and on economic growth.

2005 also marks the 10th anniversary of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action. World leaders will be meeting in March to consider progress towards the goals identified in Beijing.

As a contribution to this renewed effort, DFID is currently conducting an evaluation of its policies and practice on gender equality and women’s empowerment. The evaluation will provide independent and systematic evidence of the effectiveness of DFID’s contribution to international gender equality goals. It will draw lessons from experience to inform our future strategy.

This is one of a series of working papers produced in preparation for the main evaluation. These are rapid reviews and provide indicative evidence on eight thematic areas of DFID’s work:

- Voice and Accountability;
- Maternal Mortality;
- Gender Violence;
- The Enabling Environment for Growth;
- Education;
- Conflict and Post Conflict Reconstruction;
- HIV and AIDS; and
- Migration.

Any feedback on this paper should be addressed to Jo Bosworth in Evaluation Department.

¹ Poverty Elimination and the Empowerment of Women. This is currently being reviewed and updated.
## Contents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Executive summary</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>The scale of the problem</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>Rationale</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>Purpose and methodology</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>Outline</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Conceptual framework</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>Definitions</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>The links between gender-based and other forms of violence</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>A framework for analysing policy implementation</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Developing an international consensus and understanding of gender violence</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>United Nations frameworks</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>DFID gender violence policies and frameworks</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Policy Implementation – normative</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>Planning systems</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>Monitoring and evaluation tools</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>Partnerships with UN and others</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Policy implementation – gender violence within country programmes</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>Case studies</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>Jordan</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>Central America</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Some issues raised by the case studies</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>Approaches to tackling gender violence</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>Working with partners</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>Influence and the challenges of upstream support</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>Use of ‘new’ tools for communication and advocacy</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>Women’s voice and state accountability</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>Is it possible to create a virtuous circle empowering women, changing social/political norms and reducing gender violence?</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Contents

7 Conclusions and recommendations 30  
  7.1 Conclusions and recommendations 30  
  7.2 Frameworks for detailed evaluation 31  

References 33  

Appendixes (available from DFID’s Evaluation Department)  
1 Interviews and contacts  
2 Development of DFID gender violence policies and strategies  
3 Gender violence projects identified from information provided  
4 Case studies on gender violence  
5 Entry points through SSAJ frameworks
Definitions of Key Terms

**Gender Equality**
Women having the same rights and opportunities in life as men, including the ability to participate in the public sphere.

**Women’s Empowerment**
A process of transforming gender relations through groups or individuals developing awareness of women’s subordination and building their capacity to challenge it.

**Gender Mainstreaming**
A strategy to ensure that women’s and men’s concerns and experiences are integral to the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of all legislation, policies and programmes in any area and at all levels.

**Twin Track Approach**
DFID’s strategy combining focused actions aimed at women’s empowerment and gender-aware actions in the mainstream of development work.

**Evaporation**
When good policy intentions fail to be followed through in practice.

**Invisibilization**
When monitoring and evaluation procedures fail to document what is occurring ‘on the ground’.

**Resistance**
When mechanisms are used to block gender mainstreaming based on ‘political’ opposition (itself embedded in unequal gender power relations) rather than on ‘technocratic’ procedural constraints.

Sources: Adapted from Reeves & Baden (2000); Moser et al. (2004); DFID (2000); and Darbyshire (2002).
Executive summary

Focus of evaluation

S1 The overall purpose of this evaluation is to examine the extent and effectiveness of DFID’s programming on gender violence in the context of the Beijing Platform for Action and DFID’s own gender strategy objectives. It discusses DFID’s influencing and programming on gender violence, and makes observations in relation to a more detailed analysis of impact.

The challenge

Gender violence is a social problem that has reached epidemic proportions, and its constraining impact on poverty reduction initiatives is becoming increasingly recognised:
• one out of every three women has been beaten, coerced into sex, or otherwise abused in her lifetime, usually by a member of her family or someone known to her (Heise et al 1999)
• domestic abuse accounts for more death and ill health than cancer or traffic accidents (Council of Europe); in a study in Managua, Nicaragua, abused women earned 46% less than women who did not report suffering abuse; research by the Inter-American Development Bank (IDB) has shown that in 1997 the cost of health care expenditures arising from violence was 1.9% of GDP in Brazil, 5.0% in Colombia, 4.3% in El Salvador, 1.3% in Mexico, 1.5% in Peru (WHO 2002)
• more than 60 million women are ‘missing’ from the world today as a result of sex-selective abortions and female infanticide (UN Population Fund)
• up to 70% of female murder victims are killed by their male partners (WHO 2002)
• South African Police Service statistics chronicle 51,249 cases of rape reported to police in 1999 – the actual figure is likely to be far higher (Millennium Project 2004)
• around 500,000 women were raped during the 1994 genocide in Rwanda (IWCT 2000)
• an estimated 500–700 Nepalese girls are trafficked to India for prostitution each year; 60 – 70% of those returning to Nepal carry HIV or have AIDS (Maiti 2003).

Approach and methodology

S2 Factors leading to violence against women can be identified on four interlinked levels:
• individual – being abused as a child, alcohol use, absent father
• relationship – marital conflict
• community – low socio-economic status; isolation of women and family
• society – social norms granting men control over female behaviour; rigid gender roles; acceptance of violence as a way to resolve conflict.¹

S3 DFID’s approaches to gender violence work and intervention tools are located against these levels in a suggested framework for assessment of coverage and effectiveness. DFID’s international partnerships and a selection of case studies illustrative of different approaches are then assessed.

¹ This ‘ecological model’ has been widely used e.g. UNIFEM 2003. The analytical levels and linkages between them could equally be applied to other forms of gender violence.
Key findings

There are a number of key findings:

- the centrality of addressing gender violence to achieve the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and reduce poverty is not strategically addressed in practice
- work on gender violence is almost invisible through DFID’s planning and monitoring systems, particularly in sectoral work. Few projects relate directly to gender violence, and most focus on violence against women
- positive work is going on, albeit invisibly\(^2\), but these projects appear to be largely isolated and do not feed into the overall learning process
- influencing is often critical to gender violence work, and DFID has been able to increase ownership and create synergy through investing time in partnership working and co-ordination between different combinations of donors, governments and Civil Society Organisations (CSOs).

Key recommendations

There are a number of key recommendations:

- considerable progress has been made in developing the international frameworks needed to develop effective strategies for tackling gender violence. Increased use of and reference to the Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) commitments offers a shared approach for donors to develop programming on gender violence (at least the violence against women (VAW) element) in partnership with country governments
- the United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM) is a key ally for future work on both VAW, and post conflict and conflict resolution, and there is potential for strengthening country level partnerships considerably. Good practice should be disseminated
- gender violence affects men as well as women, but little of DFID’s work addresses this – DFID should consider how to develop understanding and interventions on men’s role as both victim and aggressor particularly within work on HIV/AIDS, conflict/post conflict, Citizen Security and Safety, Security and Access to Justice (SSAJ)
- research is needed on the relationship and linkages between developing areas such as migration, conflict and security, trade and globalisation, the environment and gender violence
- ways are needed to measure the impacts of complex, multi-sector and longitudinal interventions. The (limited) projects identified relating directly to gender violence offer useful insights and lessons, but appear to be largely isolated, and do not feed into an overall learning. Institutional memory and communication also needs to be improved
- the systematic evaluation should analyse approaches to gender violence within emerging areas of DFID’s work e.g.: security, conflict and economic reform; a more detailed analysis of how gender violence has been conceptualised within other thematic areas (health, education etc.) should be undertaken to facilitate improved visibility of the issue; in Pakistan, DFID work on gender violence overlaps with several themes in this suite of evaluations, as well as the emerging issue of security, and consideration should be given to a detailed case study being developed\(^3\).

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\(^2\) Case studies in the report include work on VAW in Pakistan, Jordan and South Africa, and violence prevention in Central America

\(^3\) Unusually, a considerable amount of information and statistics are also available
1 Introduction

1.1 ‘Despite substantial progress in the last two decades to raise awareness of gender violence as a serious human rights violation, today’s world is no safer for women and girls. The scale of the problem has reached epidemic proportions – globally, one in three women will be raped, beaten, coerced into sex or otherwise abused in her lifetime. Partnerships across sectors and at all levels of society are critical to build political will and secure the resources necessary to match the magnitude of the challenge.’ (United Nations, New York, 19 November 2004)

1.2 This recent UN statement underlines both the enormity of the threat posed by Gender violence (GbV) globally, and its inherent complexities.

1.1 The scale of the problem

1.3 There are two important factors that limit our knowledge about the scale of gender violence. Firstly, it occurs most frequently in what many societies view as the ‘private sphere’ of families or households. Social norms, reinforced by culture and legislation, make it very difficult for victims to report abuse, resulting in what has been referred to as an iceberg of unreported incidents, and a reinforcing dynamic of silence at all levels of society.

1.4 Secondly, standard ways of collecting information have yet to be agreed, so data is rarely comparable, and in any case, many states and institutions do not prioritise the need for information and have limited capacity to collect it.

1.5 Despite this, the scale and scope of gender violence is immense (see fig. 1). Population-based surveys show for example that violence against women cuts across socio-economic, religious, and ethnic groups, and across geographical areas. At the same time, evidence also shows that children, and women living in poverty are especially vulnerable to gender violence.
Introduction

Figure 1 Occurrences and types of violence against women

At least one out of every three women has been beaten, coerced into sex, or otherwise abused in her lifetime. Usually, the abuser is a member of her own family or someone known to her (Heise et al 1999).

Domestic violence is the major cause of death and disability for women aged 16 to 44 and accounts for more death and ill health than cancer or traffic accidents (Council of Europe).

More than 60 million women are ‘missing’ from the world today as a result of sex-selective abortions and female infanticide. China’s last census in the year 2000 revealed that the ratio of new-born girls to boys was 100:119. The biological norm is 100:103 (UN Population Fund 1999). In Pakistan high rates of female child mortality (12% higher for girls than boys), the violence and discrimination women face throughout their lives means that the ratio of women to men is 92:100 (FBS Compendium on Gender Statistics 1998).

Up to 70% of female murder victims are killed by their male partners (WHO 2002).

South African Police Service statistics chronicle 51,249 cases of rape reported to police in 1999 – the actual figure is likely to be far higher (Millennium Project 2004).

Around 500,000 women were raped during the 1994 genocide in Rwanda (IWCT 2000).

Recent studies in six African countries found that between 16% and 47% of girls in primary and secondary schools report sexual abuse or harassment, with both male fellow students and male teachers responsible for the abuse (Leach et al 2003).

An estimated 500–700 Nepalese girls are trafficked to India for prostitution each year; 60 - 70% returning to Nepal carry HIV or have AIDS (Maiti 2003).

1.2 Rationale

1.6 Violence against women continues because of the unequal situation of men and women. In turn, this violence, means that women are less able to take advantage of opportunities and use the abilities and resources they actually have, thereby further accentuating gender inequality (Birdsall et al 2004).

1.7 Violence exists on a continuum, from violence members of a family or household, to violence as a weapon of war. It is now widely recognized that violence slows both economic growth and poverty reduction.

1.8 Gender violence is the commonest of the many interrelated categories of daily violence and cuts across all aspects of DFID’s work. Evidence of how this has been addressed will contribute to the evaluation of DFIDs policy of gender mainstreaming and women’s empowerment.
1.3 Purpose and methodology

1.9 The overall purpose of this review is to evaluate how effective DFID’s programming on gender violence has been within the overall aim of mainstreaming gender and women’s empowerment, and to enable informed decisions to be made about the best ways forward. Comments on availability and quality of information provided by DFID are also given.

1.10 The evaluation has been conducted through desk-based research and interviews. Information prepared by the statistics department has been used to gain an overview of how DFID has been working on gender violence.

1.11 Case studies within five country programmes, have been selected in order to investigate the main issues which emerged. They include an overview of work on gender violence in Pakistan; a Family Protection Project (FPP) in Jordan; support for a media infotainment project in South Africa where radio and television has been used to raise awareness about gender violence in relation to HIV/AIDS; a Violence Prevention Programme (VPP) in Central America; and the partnership work between DFID Brazil and United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM). Selection of the case studies was pragmatic rather than systematic, but they do reflect a variety of cultural and geographic contexts, and countries where DFID has differing levels of programming, as well as covering different aspects of work on gender violence. Summaries of the case studies can be found in appendixes 3–5.

1.4 Outline

1.12 Section 2 traces the conceptual development of gender violence, and gives examples of the frameworks that have been developed to understand, and analyse it. Section 3 reviews how the concepts have been incorporated into international agreements and declarations, and into DFID policy.

1.13 Section 4 looks at the normative systems and strategies in DFID — international partnerships, planning and monitoring processes and systems — and provides an overview of DFID Gender violence initiatives.

1.14 Section 5 identifies five case studies through which the effectiveness of more integrated approaches may be assessed and section 6 discusses some of the issues raised by the case studies.

1.15 Section 7 Summarises the findings and makes recommendations for the more detailed evaluation to follow.

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See contents, appendix 1.
2  Conceptual framework

2.1  Definitions

2.1.1 Gender violence
2.1  Gender violence refers to violence targeting women or men, girls or boys on the basis of their gender or sexual orientation (Spees 2004).

2.2  Thus, gender violence can include same sex violence that is the result of gendered power relations, for example, adult males use their position within households to abuse women, younger men, and children of either sex. Beyond the household, the way in which men act out their (gender) identity can mean that they, and other men, as well as women, suffer from their violence – this is often a focus for men’s gender training, and conflict prevention/reconstruction.

Figure 2  Gendered experiences of violence (WHO 2002)

Men are more likely to be killed or injured in wars or in youth and gang violence than women, and they are more likely to be physically assaulted or killed on the street by a stranger. Men are also more likely to be the perpetrators of violence, regardless of the sex of the victim.

Women are more likely to be physically assaulted or murdered by someone they know, often a family member or intimate partner. They are also at much greater risk of being sexually assaulted or exploited, either in childhood, adolescence or as adults. Women are vulnerable to different types of violence at different moments in their lives.

2.1.2 Violence Against Women (VAW)
2.3  Although both men and women can be victims as well as perpetrators of violence, the most common form of gender violence is violence against women. Sometimes the two terms are used interchangeably – in this report the term violence against women is used as an unequivocal definition for such violence, which is understood as one of many forms of gender violence. Most of the examples considered fall into this category.

2.4  The United National Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women (DEVAW) 1993 defines violence against women as: ‘any act of GbV 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 deprivations of liberty, whether occurring in public or private life’ (United Nations General Assembly 1993).

2.5  The complex inter-relationship of factors often associated with VAW, particularly intimate partner violence, can be broadly contextualised by considering the ecological model (fig. 3) below (e.g. UNIFEM 2003)
2.2 Links between gender-based and other forms of violence

2.6 Not all violence is specifically gender-based; it may be economic, social or political/institutional violence. However, these forms may also have a different impact (gendered) on women and girls, or men. So, in each particular context, it is important to understand the interplay between economic, political/institutional, social and gender violence.

2.3 A framework for analysing policy implementation

2.7 Table 1 shows how DFID policy interventions relate to the ecological model, and offers a way of looking at the effectiveness of DFID policy interventions, tools and approaches, as they relate to overall reduction or prevention of gender violence in a given context (research should be included at every level) (adapted from Morrison et al 2004).

2.8 The themes being reviewed within this suite of evaluations have also been located in the framework (where relevant), since gender violence affects, or is affected by, each theme to a greater or lesser degree. The three themes in italics, and the cross cutting themes of Migration and Enabling Environments will not be considered in detail due to time constraints, invisibility or lack of evidence.

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5 Considered in more detail in 5.4
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Focus</th>
<th>DFID Approach</th>
<th>Intervention tools</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Society</td>
<td><strong>International partnerships</strong> (Centrally funded), Multi sector approaches</td>
<td>Formulation of laws and policies (linked to International Human Rights Frameworks)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>Health – maternal health Education sector</em></td>
<td>Partnerships/co-ordination with UN/Multilateral funders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>Conflict prevention and reconstruction</em></td>
<td>Strengthen institutional responses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Civil Society Organisation (CSO) Capacity (strategic)</td>
<td>Strategic influencing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Voice and accountability</td>
<td>Sectoral/budget support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Reconstruction/conflict prevention interventions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community</td>
<td><strong>Voice and accountability</strong></td>
<td>Application of laws and policies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CSO capacity</td>
<td>Media campaigns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Community level interventions</td>
<td>CSO capacity building/funding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Community driven development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Conflict prevention</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship</td>
<td><strong>Women’s empowerment initiatives</strong> (often funded through CSOs/International</td>
<td>Individual behaviour change strategies (victim support/empowerment, perpetrators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non-Governmental Organisations (INGOs)</td>
<td>rehabilitation/punitive sanctions, girls’ education, gender/masculinity awareness,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>rights education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Development of rights based approaches to sector interventions intended to support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>individuals</td>
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Table 1 Analysing DFID approaches through a focus on gender violence
3 Developing an international consensus and understanding of gender violence

3.1 United Nations frameworks

3.1 Over the past 30 years lobbying, particularly by the women’s movement, through successive UN conferences, has had considerable success in shaping how countries consider the relations between women, children and men, and their rights, within international agreements. Through the Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), women’s rights, including reproductive rights, have been confirmed (fig. 4); violence against women has been defined and accepted as a form of discrimination; the links between gender violence and women’s human rights have been established and defined (DEVAW). This is summarised in fig. 5.

Figure 4 General Recommendation No. 19 of CEDAW

| This notes that: ‘Gender violence, which impairs or nullifies the enjoyment by women of human rights and fundamental freedoms under general international law or under human rights conventions, is discrimination... These rights and freedoms include
| • the right to life
| • the right not to be subject to torture or to cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment
| • the right to equal protection according to humanitarian norms in time of international or internal armed conflict
| • the right to liberty and security of person
| • the right to equal protection of the law
| • the right to equality in the family
| • the right to the highest standard attainable of physical and mental health
| • the right to just and favourable conditions of work.’ |

3.2 By 1995, the point from which this evaluation develops, human rights had been accepted as a basic requirement for development, and the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (PfA), which focused on women, called for strategic action in 12 areas, one of which is ending violence against women. Gender mainstreaming was seen as the appropriate means of achieving overall progress. UNIFEM was given a key role through the PfA, particularly in relation to gender violence (see section 4.3).

3.2 DFID gender violence policies and frameworks

3.3 Key policy developments include adoption of a gender and development approach, as well as human rights based approaches. Frameworks for action to implement these approaches were then outlined in Target Strategy Papers6.

3.4 ‘Poverty Elimination and the Empowerment of Women’ sets the gender equality strategy within an overall poverty reduction framework. There are 10 objectives in the Strategy, and their priority is to be decided by analysing the local context. Objective 5 is ‘to increase women’s personal security and reduce gender violence’, and areas for interventions are suggested:

6 Outlined in more detail in Appendix 2, – see Table of Contents
Developing an International Consensus and Understanding of Gender Violence

- reform and strengthening of criminal and civil laws
- awareness raising of women’s rights among police and judiciary
- public information campaigns
- support to women’s organisations
- improved knowledge and statistics

Suggested indicators include UN and other reporting, sex desegregated crime and other statistics, data on crimes against women.
4 Policy implementation – normative

4.1 Planning systems

4.1 The current planning system in DFID is based on a Public Service Agreement (PSA), operationalised through the Service Delivery Agreement (SDA), in turn used to develop regional plans (Directors Delivery Plans (DDPs)) and then Country Assistance Plans (CAPs). With the exception of the Asia Division DDP, which Watkins has suggested should be used as a model of good practice (Watkins 2003), gender is mentioned very little, so not surprisingly, there is no systematic focus on gender (and thus gender violence) in the CAPs (Watkins 2003, Pir—n & Watkins 2004).

4.2 In recent years, human rights and exclusion frameworks (and terminology) have been used more frequently in strategy development. Where this work considers women and men as different groups but does not mention gender relations, this suggests an assumption that analysis of gender relations is not necessary. If the frameworks are complementary, then to a certain extent, the issue is about semantics and should focus more on the visibility of work DFID is undertaking to reduce the levels of gender violence in all its forms.

4.3 The case study on Pakistan (outlined in 5.2), which has no explicit gender strategy, although VAW and women’s rights are fundamental within the country strategy, would be a useful example to investigate in greater detail through the systematic evaluation.

4.2 Monitoring and evaluation tools

4.4 The next sections show that a significant amount of work being undertaken on the ground is having a positive impact on the lives of many victims of violence, but remains invisible if viewed through a gender lens. This is due partly to the limitations of PRISM, the tool DFID uses for monitoring, and informing planning.

4.5 Many projects are either not entered, or reports are not submitted, the use of the Policy Information System Marker (PIMs) marker for gender discrimination is inconsistent, and the meaning of the marker itself has been changed three times during the period of this evaluation. Adding to the difficulties, there is no way of identifying or cross checking a theme such as gender violence, which does not fall clearly in a sector such as education or health.

4.6 A gender audit conducted at country level in Malawi recommended that DFID should drop the use of PIM markers, or provide better guidelines and training to those using it (Moser et al 2004). In relation to gender violence, other alternatives include:
• refining the use of the gender discrimination marker, building on work in Bangladesh (Payne 2001)
• incorporating gender within a wider framework of social inclusion, which the Asia Division and Europe, Middle east and Americas Division (EMAD) are currently working on (ibid), and
• developing work jointly between DFID statistics Department and UNIFEM, as has been agreed for phase 2 of the current DFID/UNIFEM partnership (2004–7).

7 Prior to Country Assistance plans CAPs, Country Strategy Papers were produced.
4.7 A lot of DFID’s work on gender violence is developed through ‘influencing’ key people or partners and there is no standard or central means of evaluating the impact of this kind of qualitative, often long-term work. The difficulty of showing this impact should not detract from the importance of influencing as part of a strategy. This review has made use of time lines to identify key decisions and to track influencing within case studies (Section 5), although lack of space prevents their inclusion within the report itself.

4.3 Partnerships with UN and others

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Focus</th>
<th>DFID Approach</th>
<th>Intervention tools</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Society</td>
<td>International partnerships (centrally funded)</td>
<td>Formulation of laws and policies (linked to International Human Rights Frameworks); partnerships/co-ordination with UN/multilateral funders</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.8 Centrally, DFID has Institutional Partnership Agreements with several of the UN agencies and other inter-governmental organisations. The partnership, co-ordination with, and funding of, UNIFEM, is pivotal in terms of gender violence (and increasingly, work on conflict and post conflict resolution), other important partnerships include the World Health Organisation (WHO), International Labour Organisation (ILO), UNICEF, United Nations Development Fund (UNDP).

4.9 DFID has used funding strategically to share and expand knowledge in specific aspects of gender violence (including ‘new’ areas), and to add value to the work of these partners. For example, four year funding has been agreed for the ILO to support China at a national and provincial level in developing strategies to reduce trafficking of women and children in the Mekong Delta. This programme will complement and add value to the ongoing work of DFID China with the All China Federation of Women.

4.10 Understanding the nature, levels and impacts of gender violence requires research at all levels, and also comprehensive and comparable gender disaggregated information, which is rarely available. Centrally, DFID funding enabled the WHO to undertake a major piece of research into the impact of domestic violence on health. Support for the development of improved monitoring, statistical systems and capacity through UNIFEM and the Inter-American Development Bank (IDB) will facilitate future research.

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8 ILO Anti-trafficking Project in China – project header sheet.
Box1 UNIFEM

UNIFEM’s mandate gives it an innovative and catalytic rather than operational role (Resolution A/RES/39/125). The PfA led DFID to invest in UNIFEM as a key partner in relation to gender violence. From giving relatively little support in 1995, by 2000 DFID had become its main donor, and its financial commitment has continued to rise both in core funding and discretionary support. The second Institutional Strategy Paper (ISP), covering 2004–2007 considers the role of UNIFEM in achieving gender equity within the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) through its contribution to Poverty Reduction Strategies (PRS), Common Country Assessment (CCA) and the United Nations Development Assistance Framework (UNDAF) (UNIFEM–DFID Institutional Strategy 2004–7).

A review in 2003 highlighted progress that had been made, particularly in upstream, policy-related work on work on violence against women, and women, peace and security. (DFID 2003b) DFID has enabled UNIFEM to attract increased levels of funding from a wider spread of donors, reflecting a virtuous cycle of increasing respect and positive impact of its work both within and outside the UN.

The work has included supporting work to develop indicators for violence against women (ECLAC 2002), strengthening legal frameworks at country level, and establishment of the Trust Fund on Violence against Women, which supports a wide variety of projects. The Fund offers DFID another entry point to both state and civil societies, and Conflict and Humanitarian Affairs Department (CHAD) has recently contributed £5m to it.

4.11 As sections 5 and 6 show, the international partners themselves also seek to support, intervene and influence at any level within the framework, and this offers DFID an alternative range of entry points into work on gender violence in situations where its position as a bilateral donor offers no comparative advantage.
5 Policy implementation – gender violence within country programmes

5.1 A summary of DFID activities in relating to gender violence in 2002, included 37 examples (and a further 16 access to justice programmes), including support to multilateral partners and the UN Agencies (Social Development Department (SDD) memo 2002).

5.2 From the information provided for this evaluation, searches on gender markers, likely sectors and word searches on project titles revealed 44 projects that seem to be related to gender violence, without including general access to justice programmes9. The suite of projects related to Female Genital Mutilation mentioned in the SDD memo were not located.

5.3 Most of the gender violence projects identified are a response to specific issues and contexts rather than interventions developed after mainstreaming gender within a country level strategy. Interventions that look at the impact it has within other sectors are rarely visible or explicit, so the work reviewed here relates directly to gender violence, making it difficult to apply analytical tools which assess the extent to which projects have mainstreamed gender (e.g. Murison 2005). They relate mainly to Voice and Accountability, and Access to Justice (Family Protection, Citizen Security/Social Protection and, Safety, Security and Access to Justice (SSAJ)). They also include a cluster of research projects on violence against girls in education10.

5.4 The range of projects show that the channels for action identified in the Gender Equality Target Strategy Paper (TSP)11 and the operating principles of the Human Rights TSP12 are both widely used. However, no meaningful quantitative analysis can be made with such limited data, except to observe that the total spending for all of the projects is very small compared to the scale of the problem.

5.1 Case studies

5.5 Gender violence is such a complex and pervasive issue DFID has to go beyond programmes and projects with a single focus if its work is to make any difference to societies. Because of this, the analysis here has tried to look for evidence of integrated/comprehensive approaches which can offer insights and direction for future work. Five case studies have been developed, trying in each case to look at the wider contexts, cover overlapping time frames, and different projects/programmes. It is hoped that these will offer examples of good practice and lesson learning13.

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9 These analyses used information provided by the Statistics Department of DFID, they do not represent a comprehensive analysis of PRISM data
10 Two of these, ‘Abuse of girls’ and ‘School girl pregnancy and drop out in Zimbabwe’, do not have even a secondary gender marker. Projects are listed in Appendix 3 (Table of Contents)
11 Three main channels for action are identified:
   • support to governments, civil society and private sector for implementation of the PfA and the inclusion of gender equality goals in the mainstream of all development programmes
   • stronger collaboration and co-ordination for the achievement of gender equality goals among donors, incl. EU, UN, WB and other financial institutions
   • strengthening DFID’s internal capacity through research and knowledge development, information support, and gender training.
12 The operating principles are Participation, Inclusion, Fulfilling obligations
13 Details of the case studies are given in Appendix 4 - see Table of Contents
5.6 Detailed assessments of impact are beyond the scope of this review. Rather, the intention is to highlight some of the differences in approach that have been used (this section), and from this discuss progress, tensions, difficulties and learning points (section 6) in order to make some final recommendations (section 7).

5.2 Pakistan

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Focus</th>
<th>DFID Approach</th>
<th>Intervention tools</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Society</td>
<td>International partnerships</td>
<td>Strategic influencing <em>Family Protection Project</em>, Formulation of laws/policies <em>Gender Equality Project</em>, Partnerships/co-ordination <em>UNDP/ADB/UNICEF</em>, Strengthen institutional responses (support to women candidates in local elections, training for women elected, support to devolution process, funding Social Audit of Abuse against Women)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CSO Capacity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Voice and accountability</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community</td>
<td>Voice and accountability</td>
<td>Media campaigns <em>TV documentaries about honour killings, book on burn victims</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CSO capacity</td>
<td>CSO capacity building/funding <em>(e.g. Rural Support Programmes through which women can organise, develop leadership skills, increase economic role)</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Community level interventions</td>
<td>Community driven development <em>GEP</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.7 This is the most wide-ranging case study and throughout the period of this evaluation, a wide range of tools and approaches have been used at different levels (from individual to society). Key aspects have included:

- *building a base of organised women* – at the start of the evaluation period, DFID was using a Women in Development (WID) strategy to reach the most excluded women e.g. The Doorsteps Programme took education and family planning to the doorstep of women in Purdah. Although the validity of the approach was debated at the time, many thousands of women are now organised through credit and community groups, with women leading them. During the 1990s donors gave strong support to organisations lobbying for women’s voice to be heard in the media, civil society and legislative bodies (Porter 2005).

- *influencing key politicians* – between 1995 and 1999 political instability limited DFID activity to advocacy, although VAW had been prioritised by the SDA. The Minister for Women was persuaded to let DFID fund a survey of the conditions in State run women’s refuges, and this led to two new hostels being established. DFID then part funded a UNDP post for a Gender and Poverty Advisor who persuaded President Musharraf to establish a quota (33%) for women in the local elections of 2000. DFID funding (other donors could not respond as flexibly) enabled candidates to organise, and despite severe intimidation in some parts of the country, around 37,000 women were eventually elected.

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14 The thematic evaluation ‘Voice and Accountability’ also considers some of this work
15 The GoP replaced DFID funding when it was withdrawn following the military take-over.
5.8 Since 2000, a suite of programmes has been funded\textsuperscript{16}, the largest of which is using a family protection model\textsuperscript{17}. Communication is recognised as being of fundamental importance to all of the work, and a strategy has recently been developed to improve this aspect (including communication about VAW).

**Box 2 Pakistan – successes in DFID work related to VAW (1993 – 2004)**

*Providing a statistical baseline to inform effective policy and programming* – Social Audit of Abuse Against Women (SAAW), funded by DFID, undertaken by GoP, not released as yet, but at provincial level the findings have stimulated debate and lobbying.

*Taboos preventing acknowledgement of domestic violence and sexual abuse of children have been broken* – new women’s shelters with improved conditions. Effective use of media to generate discussion.

*Mobilisation around VAW* – women’s participation and the devolution process started by the Musharraf government have been key. DFID has proactive and strategic in this. There is lively public debate about violence and laws are being passed which relate to VAW.

*Discriminatory legislation* – local Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) are increasingly effective and articulate. Some are now drafting and feeding bills to parliament (DFID supports strategic capacity building through the Gender Equality Project and expanded support to civil society, particularly work on gender equality and VAW, is being explored). Despite often being weak/neutral, the legislation is being passed, and DFID support to political participation has been crucial.

5.3 Jordan

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Focus</th>
<th>DFID Approach</th>
<th>Intervention tools</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Society</td>
<td>Multi sector approaches</td>
<td><em>Co-ordination with the Foreign and Commonwealth Office (FCO), interagency management of FPP</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CSO Capacity (strategic)</td>
<td><em>Strategic influencing – eg Ministry of Religious Affairs</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Voice and accountability</td>
<td><em>Strengthen institutional responses – capacity building within Ministries</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>Sectoral/budget support – to police via FPP</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community</td>
<td>CSO capacity</td>
<td>Media campaigns – <em>indirect</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Voice and Accountability</td>
<td>CSO capacity building/funding – <em>e.g. to women’s NGOs supporting victims</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\textsuperscript{16} Appendix 4 – see contents

\textsuperscript{17} The National Strategic Framework for Family Protection (NSFFP) has been adopted as Government policy and includes strategies for both the protection of women at risk and the prevention of violence and abuse. It has five core elements: Breaking the silence; Positive Policy Environment; Referral systems; Access to Justice Programme management. DFID funds a small part of the overall programme, supporting decentralised referral systems and a communication strategy. The overall programme has had to be rescoped, in order to align it more effectively with the changing political and institutional context.
5.9 This case study also has VAW as a focus. It is more focused than the previous one, being limited to a Family Protection Project and some support to CSOs working on VAW. Jordan is a country with a similar religious context to Pakistan and equally culturally conservative in terms of women. Despite being far better educated (overall) than Pakistani women, very few Jordanian women have been able to enter politics or occupy positions of leadership, and political resistance has limited the possibilities for change.

5.10 DFID Jordan has a limited budget and this, together with the country context, means that family protection has offered a realistic vehicle for work on VAW. The model of family protection used was more specific than the one proposed in Pakistan as it focused on capacity building of agencies and NGOs, and developing effective co-ordination between them. In Pakistan, five core elements of the FPP included developing a positive policy environment (not contemplated in the Jordan FPP).

5.11 The inter-agency co-ordination that has been achieved is unprecedented, and the FPP provides an innovative model for other MENA countries, none of which have developed the skills and approaches that Jordan now has. The programme has extended beyond the original 3 years envisaged, and will require more support for the new systems and procedures to become fully embedded in the different institutions, particularly the Social Development Ministry (DFID 2003a).

5.12 Although the provision for women has not been developed as fully as that for children, the incremental changes that have been achieved in Jordan provide a base from which to develop opportunities in the future.

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Capacity building of public and voluntary institutions; developing and implementing an integrated strategy to prevent domestic violence, child and sexual abuse. There have been a number of successes in the project.

*Breaking the silence* – the project succeeded in breaking the taboo of talking about abuse. Considerable debate in Jordan around human rights and women’s rights has not happened because DFID has been there, but DFID input has added value, helped to advance it and change legislation, which in turn has enabled change in practice.

*Attitudinal changes amongst agency staff* – family protection work is no longer seen as an added responsibility. Perceptions of victims in the agencies are changing, they are not seen as responsible for the violence.

*Policy changes* – the Ministry of Health has adopted WHO guidance on linking health and the elimination of violence. Police in Amman refer incidents involving sexual offences to the Family Protection Department.

*Inter-agency approaches and collaboration with NGOs* – a significant number of government departments and some NGOs have established working partnerships through the project.

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18 DFID is withdrawing from Jordan in 2005. It is intended that DANIDA will support the FPP.
### 5.4 South Africa

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Focus</th>
<th>DFID approach</th>
<th>Intervention tools</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Society</td>
<td>H I V &amp; CSO Capacity (strategic) Voice and accountability.</td>
<td>Influencing and formulation of laws and policies (National Network of Violence Against Women (NNVAW) advocacy and lobbying central government) Joint funding (European Union now lead donor to Soul City).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community</td>
<td>A I D S Voice and accountability CSO capacity Community-level interventions.</td>
<td>Media campaigns (multi media Soul City) CSO capacity building/funding (capacity building of NNVAW – not contemplated in programme design) Community driven development (local campaigns and activities by NNVAW members).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship</td>
<td>Women’s empowerment initiatives.</td>
<td>Individual behaviour change strategies (through activities of local NNVAW members).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.13 Gender violence is a huge issue in South Africa and CSOs are very active in work on VAW and the GoSA is supportive to this. Sexual violence and abuse of children is particularly important in the context of HIV/AIDS. DFIDSA also claims to be very conscious of the importance of gender violence, but, lacking an explicit gender strategy, this commitment is not visible at a policy level.

5.14 The Soul City Institute for Health and Development Communication, an established local NGO, has been funded since 1998 to produce TV soap operas, radio programmes and printed material on HIV/AIDS. In 1999, additional funding was then used to strengthen what, at the time, was a relatively loose network of organisations, the National Network of Violence Against Women (NNVAW) with the intention of adding value to its work by linking it to Soul City.

5.15 The partnership thus combined two very different organisations and areas of work – a media campaign that reached communities and households, and a CSO advocacy campaign. Despite the overall success of each campaign, the synergy hoped for did not materialise (discussed in 6.2).

5.16 Although Soul City reached a large audience, and was successful in raising awareness and stimulating debate about domestic violence and VAW within family and peer groups, evaluation of the programmes is less clear about changes in behaviour. Reporting of domestic violence increased, and help-lines were used more, but respondents showed ambivalent attitudes about how to prevent and intervene in situations of domestic violence.
Box 4  South Africa – changing attitudes, women’s voice and advocacy (1998 – 2004)

The purpose was: to reduce VAW, fulfilling urban/rural women’s rights to safety and wellbeing in South Africa; to capacity build, enhance and strengthen local national GbV alliances, service response and provision for victims of violence; to assist and strengthen the GoSA in its policy on gender equality; to use media to inform and promote changes in attitudes regarding VAW. There were a number of successes.

**Breaking down taboos** – The fourth series of Soul City (1999) addressed VAW, sexual behaviour and gender relations. Evaluation has shown that attitudes were affected and the programme was successful in reaching a large proportion of its target audience (radio 60% of 15–24 year olds, TV 70% and print 63%).

**CSO inputs via National Network of Violence Against Women (NNVAW) into important policy/legislation** – Domestic Violence Act, review of Sexual Offences Act, input to Department of Welfare (now Social Development) on issue of shelters for women, work with Dept of Justice on guidelines for prosecutors dealing with domestic violence, participation in annual 16 days of VAW activism.

### 5.5 Central America

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Focus</th>
<th>DFID Approach</th>
<th>Intervention tools</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Society</td>
<td>Multi-sector approaches <em>Health Education sector</em></td>
<td>Partnerships/co-ordination. (<em>IDB, Swedish SIDA</em>)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strengthen institutional responses (<em>Health, Education, Police, Women’s Ministry</em>)</td>
<td>Strategic influencing (to ensure strategic political support and influence IDB template approach)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community</td>
<td>Community level interventions</td>
<td>Community driven development, conflict prevention (outcomes of pilot programme, co-ordinated with Ministries on the ground)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship/individual</td>
<td>Initiatives to reduce/ prevent gender violence within households</td>
<td>Individual behaviour change strategies (victim support / empowerment, perpetrators rehabilitation/punitive sanctions, gender/masculinity awareness, rights education) delivered through inter-agency work at neighbourhood level</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.17 This is the only case study to focus on levels of violence in general, rather than gender violence or VAW. It is also the only one to highlight the impact and costs of gender violence to young men. Much of the population in the Region has lived through conflicts (linking this case study to the thematic evaluation on Conflict), and high levels of violence continue to affect communities. Gangs of youths and gang violence are perceived as a big problem, although crime statistics do not reflect this.

5.18 Initially DFID (and SIDA) intended to design a violence prevention programme (VPP) which mainstreamed gender. Research into the causes and types of violence was

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19 This was to be funded by the IDB and cover 4 Central American countries. In fact, the work took place in Honduras and Nicaragua, and reorganisation of DFID has led to cuts on programming, so DFID involvement has been limited to funding the pilot work for the Nicaraguan programme and design of the HIV/AIDS and domestic violence component of the Honduran programme.
Policy Implementation - Gender Violence Within Country Programmes

commissioned (Moser and Winton 2003), and a baseline survey of violence in the neighbourhood selected for a pilot project revealed very high levels of gender violence in households (Ortega & Del Rey 2003). The links between gender violence and social/economic violence are complex, so in practice, the pilot programme responded to both the social and gender issues that were leading to violent behaviour (DFID et al 2004).

5.19 Unusually, and importantly, the pilot worked with both young women and young men to help them understand how gender violence had affected them – again, perhaps a reflection of the country context. Nicaragua has a small but high profile Men Against Violence Group which, together with NGOs and groups from elsewhere in Latin America and the Caribbean have researched into the effects of gender violence on men and developed training for men around masculinity (Cantera 1996–9, Welsh 2001).


There have been a number of successes.

Research has increased understanding about violence in the region, mapped violence that is occurring, and offered a framework for developing an integrated response to reduce violence.

Building a sustainable and cross-sectoral government-owned approach to violence reduction in Nicaragua. A drivers of change approach was used successfully to target key people in different Ministries and resulted in strong political support and effective inter-agency working.

Linking violence to poverty reduction through inclusion of proposals for an integrated social protection system (mentioning violence) in National Development Plan (PRS 2004).

5.6 Brazil

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Focus</th>
<th>DFID Approach</th>
<th>Intervention tools</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Society</td>
<td>International partnerships</td>
<td>Partnerships (UNIFEM Brazil – through this to key Ministries and NGOs) Through the partnership, influence: Formulation of laws and policies Strengthen institutional responses Strategic influencing Sectoral/budget support</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

20 The country context has been key to the outcomes ‘on the ground’. In Nicaragua, where domestic violence is a public issue, and the women’s movement is well organised, GoN has retained the original underpinning analysis for the programme (appendix 4 – see contents), whereas in neighbouring Honduras, domestic violence is still perceived as a ‘private’ issue, and a more punitive approach to social violence is preferred.

21 Many forms of gratuitous violence are conceptualised as being intrageneric (men against men) and a way of achieving status, gaining and perpetuating power within male circles. Thus it is part of a process through which boys and young men learn and construct their male identities. In Latin America males are socialised through a ‘macho’ lens which, for example, calls for men to carry arms, to drink heavily, to respond violently to disagreements (machismo describes a socio-cultural model of masculinity which is, in effect, an ideology of male dominance and a system of gender inequity)
5.20 This final case study highlights how DFID has made use of the comparative advantage of strategic partners to develop its gender strategy. The review of the UNIFEM/DFID ISP recommends improving links at country level, and it was felt important to consider an example of the potential that such partnership working offers DFID country programmes, particularly in relation to work on VAW. Brazil and China were mentioned as an example of good practice, and Brazil responded to requests for information in a very short time frame.

5.21 It is too soon to gauge success in terms of programme outputs, so the focus has been the way that the partnership is structured. This has allowed gender violence to enter into a DFID programme where it is not prioritised.

**Box 6 Brazil – gender mainstreaming through a partnership with UNIFEM 2003 – 2005**

Analysis of comparative advantage led to DFID funding and UNIFEM implementing a programme agreed with local partners.

Partners each address specific programme outputs in line with their experience and mandate, coherence and synergies being checked through a Consultative Committee. VAW is a key priority for two of the partners; the Women’s Machinery is directly linked to the presidency and has a mandate to mainstream gender across government; the Feminist Centre for Studies and Advocacy which monitors public spending, and works with CSOs on equality issues has also selected VAW.

A memorandum was added to this partnership in 2004 whereby UNIFEM Brazil will provide cross-cutting social development support to DFID with a focus on race and gender, using a rights-based approach.

The collaborative institutional arrangement between DFID and UNIFEM has also led to joint activities, particularly around gender sensitive budget initiatives and affirmative action around race, both areas with considerable potential for lesson-learning across DFID.
6 Some issues raised by the case studies

6.1 While the case studies offer examples of good practice, outputs and impacts, they also offer learning points through the tensions and issues that have arisen during the course of their development. This section attempts to abstract the most important aspects, and considers:

- how conceptualisation of gender violence affects the scope and direction of work
- the potential of partnership working and issues it raises in terms of direction and outcomes
- implications of moving towards ‘upstream’ support, and the role of influencing
- use of ‘new’ tools for communication and advocacy
- the importance of women’s voice in developing state accountability to civil society.

6.1 Approaches to tackling gender violence

6.2 Violence against women is a sensitive area of work, so entry points are often difficult for a bilateral donor such as DFID. One approach considered in this section is family protection; another, more general approach is to address women’s equality by increasing their ability to claim rights through SSAJ programmes. The third approach considered is to look at gender violence within violence prevention and reduction programmes (in effect, mainstreaming it within that particular work).

6.1.1 Family Protection offers DFID an entry point into work on VAW

6.3 In some societies, empowerment of women would lead to strong resistance because it is seen to lead to divorce, so family protection offers a way of reducing VAW, and abuse of children, without threatening the existence of traditional family structures. At the same time, this may limit the extent to which victims of domestic abuse can really overcome their situation, because there are few options open to them other than reconciliation.

- Work on family protection in Jordan and Pakistan offers contrasting experiences. Progress in Jordan has been slow but incremental, with conscious efforts to maintain the support of the Ministry of Islamic Affairs and religious leaders. In Pakistan, a less stable political context has meant that whilst progress in family protection has been limited (see section 5.1.1) the fact that government has accepted the principle has legitimised discussions about abuse of women and children within the family, thus opening other opportunities to reduce it.

- The support needed to achieve changes in culture/social attitudes goes beyond normal project time frames. Detailed evaluation of whether or how attitudes have changed on these issues would be very useful, but it is clear that in both countries, the silence about domestic abuse has been broken.

- In Jordan, DFID initially limited its support to raising awareness about the issues, and looking at ways of improving protection for women and children. There was little attempt to tackle discriminatory laws or wider women’s empowerment issues, and

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22 The devolution process has had a significant impact on the FPP in Pakistan, resulting in the need to re-scope the entire programme.
Some Issues Raised by the Case Studies

the FPP has allowed DFID to work on VAW without being accused of cultural imperialism or challenging religious beliefs. The model proposed in Pakistan does anticipate changing policy and this may have contributed to some of the difficulties in getting the programme off the ground.

In summary, work on family protection can be a key way of breaking taboos by acknowledging the existence of domestic abuse in families and making it socially unacceptable. It offers some respite and protection to victims, but further progress depends on the work being part of a wider strategy to mainstream VAW in other areas such as politics, legal frameworks, and cultural change.23

6.1.2 Including gender violence in work on violence in wider contexts

6.4 Research into the nature of violence in Central America undertaken by Moser and Winston led them to develop a typology, which has been adapted here to show how gender relations underpin certain forms of violence. It has also been expanded to incorporate political, armed conflicts (Moser & Winton 2003).

Figure 6 Links between gender and other forms of violence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Violence continuum</th>
<th>Category of violence</th>
<th>Types of violence by perpetrators and/or victims</th>
<th>Linkages with gender violence</th>
<th>Violence continuum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Political</td>
<td>Civil wars/interstate conflicts</td>
<td>Sexual violence used as a weapon of war. Destabilisation and undermining community cohesion</td>
<td>State institutional violence results in lack of trust in police and judicial system</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political/institutional</td>
<td>Institutional violence of the state and other 'informal' institutions, including the private Sector</td>
<td>Many legal frameworks based on social and cultural norms that sanction gender violence, men in powerful positions, patriarchal societies</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional/economic</td>
<td>Organised crime business interests</td>
<td>Male ‘identity’ condones use of violence against others. Gender violence within trafficking and migration (forced, economic and internal). Labour conditions of women in free trade zones.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic</td>
<td>Delinquency/robbery</td>
<td>Gender relations within gangs replicate experiences of abusive family relationships. Differential impact/use of violence</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic/social</td>
<td>Gangs street children (boys and girls)</td>
<td>Gender relations within the household. Interrelation with culture, ethnicity, age, income determines gendered identity and agency (perpetrator/victim). Rates of domestic violence increase post-conflict.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>Gratuitous routine/daily violence</td>
<td>Domestic violence between adults24. Intergenerational conflict (young, adults, elderly). Abuse (boys, girls)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

23 A Drivers of Change study in Pakistan suggests that the possibility of a ‘twin track’ approach to time frames and change processes would allow DFID to look for ways of supporting constructive engagement with different sides of politically sensitive issues such as the tensions between traditionalist Islamism and secular modernism (Nadvi & Robinson 2004).

24 Domestic violence within households can be physical, emotional and psychological so in many cases, the term domestic abuse is more accurate.
6.5 The Central American case study shows how even with in depth knowledge of the causes of violence, different institutional cultures/conceptual approaches will affect how practical responses to violence prevention and reduction are developed. It also highlights how country contexts can affect programme design and development.

- The citizen protection model, favoured by the IDB and Honduran Government, focuses on protection measures at community level and used a template approach in which an analysis of gender would be ‘additional’ rather than part of the programme design process. The second approach, initially advocated by DFID and subsequently by the Government of Nicaragua (GoN), focused on a social and gender analysis of the causes of violence and developed context-specific responses to these, including development of counselling services in schools, a new role for community-based health workers, and revision of the school curriculum25.

- An outcome of the VPP pilot is that the GoN has included proposals for an integrated social protection system (mentioning violence) in the second PRS – known as the National Development Plan (2004).

6.1.3 Safety, Security and Access to Justice Projects

6.6 According to information provided by Policy Division, DFID funds SSAJ programmes in 20 countries and has committed about £200 million to them. Integrating gender concerns into wider SSAJ programmes is therefore an important alternative approach to the focussed programmes described above.

- From the information made available, it appears that despite being compatible with human rights approaches and gender equity, gender issues often remain invisible in larger, multi-sector SSAJ programmes26. For gender violence to be mainstreamed within these programmes, an analysis of gender violence in the country context, and the ways in which it links to different forms of violence, will be necessary

- An alternative hypothesis postulates that where gender is mainstreamed effectively across a country programme, the main elements of a gender sensitive SSAJ – in effect a VAW SSAJ – will already be in place27. To test this, the main programmes in a country programme where gender has been prioritised (Bangladesh (Payne 2001)) were placed in the SSAJ framework. Using this approach shows how a wider portfolio of activities complementing specific SSAJ programmes becomes visible28. ‘Reframing’ the gender portfolio in this way thus increases the possibility of synergy and cross linkages to narrower (or gender blind) SSAJ programmes.

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25 An interesting issue here is that by this stage, a decision taken centrally by Latin America Department/EMAD meant that DFID had dropped all mention of gender in the programme memos, whilst it still forms a strong element of the work being promoted by GoN, and key NGOs such as the Network of Violence Against Women are represented on the VPP management group.

26 See contents, appendix 3.

27 The framework suggested for implementing SSAJ programmes (DFID 2002) overlaps with Objective 5 (action on gender violence) of the gender equality TSP and the levels identified through the ecological model

28 See contents, appendix 5.
Some Issues Raised by the Case Studies

- More detailed analysis of SSAJ programmes is beyond the scope of this review, but for the purposes of improving gender mainstreaming, a review of the ways that gender violence is approached – in practice – in the larger SSAJ programmes would be useful. A more detailed understanding of how seemingly stand alone interventions are, in reality, linked (or not) to strategic aspects of country programmes/gender mainstreaming, would also help to develop understanding of how best to promote incremental changes and develop incentives.

6.2 Working with partners

6.7 DFID works with various partners including other UK government departments, partner country governments and NGOs. The case studies highlight several lessons about managing partnerships.

6.2.1 UK Government Departments may have different priorities

6.8 Internally, DFID may be co-ordinating with other British Government Departments, such as the FCO or Department of Trade and Industry, each bringing a different perspective and mandate into any work.

- In Jordan, there were tensions between the FCO (police focus) and DFID (social development/community focus) during the initial stages of the FPP. DFID Jordan had not developed its capacity to effectively address this situation, as no gender analysis was undertaken, entry points for change had not been identified, and the managing agents had limited social development experience within the team.

- Although conflict and migration are considered in specific themed evaluations, a very specific point of crossover with this review relates to the co-ordination being developed between DFID and the Home Office, and the Government strategy on VAW, ‘Living Without Fear’. Victims of domestic abuse who are accompanying asylum seekers or economic migrants living illegally in the UK, and trafficked women, are unable to access any form of support or any of the services offered to UK residents.

6.2.2 Partnerships are difficult to manage, but can be very productive

6.9 Multi-agency co-ordination is often unprecedented and in both Jordan and Nicaragua, achieving this co-ordination in itself was a very positive outcome. In the Pakistan FPP it has also caused considerable problems, which have yet to be successfully resolved.

6.10 The location of programmes within host governments can be critical in determining the main focus, and also the potential for achieving change; Women’s Ministries may be strategically important, but are often relatively weak; Interior Ministries may lack social analysis, and so on.

- In Jordan, the National Council for Family Affairs, chaired by the Queen, was established as a way of resolving the politics around the different Ministries involved in the FPP.

- In Nicaragua, a Declaration had to be prepared laying out conditions for co-operation between Ministries during pilot work preparing the VPP. Involvement of the IDB has
meant that the full programme will be co-ordinated from the Interior Ministry, so it will be interesting to see whether the current level of social analysis remains over time.

• Involvement in preparation of the programme design has increased ownership across the different Ministries involved in both Central America and Jordan.

6.2.3 **Partnerships can offer leverage or develop comparative advantage**

6.11 As a bilateral donor, DFID may have comparative advantage, or may find that multilateral donors or organisations within the UN family can have more leverage.

• The role of DFID in Pakistan has varied from proactive direct funding, to indirect support via the UNDP at one level, and CSOs at another.

• In the Nicaragua case study where the IDB is the main funder, DFID has used funding strategically to influence the Bank’s approach.

• Establishing a partnership with UNIFEM in Brazil has allowed the best use of comparative advantage in both organisations to be built in to agreed programme of work.

6.2.4 **Well-planned partnerships can create synergy**

6.12 Capacity to undertake work is often a limiting factor in programmes, and partnerships present the additional challenge of working with organisations whose style of working, incentives, and procedures are very different. Thus differing capacities should be recognised and taken into account in programme design.

• In South Africa, the demands of programming TV and radio shows dominated the Soul City partnership with NNVAW, at the expense of institutional development within the NNVAW.

• The multi-agency group managing the Jordan FPP is chaired by the Queen partly because the Social Ministry is weak.

• The limited capacity of the Women’s Ministry in Nicaragua to be involved ‘on the ground’ in the VPP was acknowledged within the programme design, and it has a strategic advisory role.

6.3 **Influence and the challenges of ‘upstream’ support**

6.13 As DFID policy moves towards increasing ‘upstream’ support to governments, and reduces the conditionality and amount of direct intervention, so the ability to influence becomes both more important and more diffuse. Where advocacy and influencing result in large budget dispersals, it ‘shows’ – otherwise, there are limited incentives for DFID staff to be involved in influencing. Nor are there standard ways of quantifying/evaluating its impact. Yet, strategic influencing can be crucial, especially when longer time frames are involved\(^\text{29}\).

\(^{29}\) This point is highlighted in different Drivers of Change studies egs – Bangladesh, Nigeria, Pakistan
• Influencing and flexibility have been a critical aspect of DFID work on VAW and women’s rights in Pakistan. This has ranged from ‘targeting’ key individuals such as the Minister for Women, to the current strategy of influencing the ADB. The move from project support to influencing the wider social, governance and institutional environment through a rights-based approach is providing challenges and significant learning opportunities on how to turn policies into practice (Porter 2005).

• Using a ‘drivers of change’ approach in Nicaragua, a key group of Vice-Ministers were identified. Their engagement and subsequent enthusiasm was key to keeping both the President and workers from different Institutions committed to the development of the pilot project.

6.4 Use of ‘new’ tools for communication and advocacy

6.14 Much has changed during the period of this evaluation, including the tools available for instigating change. Two aspects merit particular attention, albeit (in the case of gender budgets) for potential rather than actual impact to date.

6.4.1 Mass communication is a powerful tool for raising awareness

6.15 Television and radio reach into the ‘private’ sphere of households in the remotest parts of the world and have tremendous potential for raising awareness and education.

• In South Africa, Soul City has been very successful in raising awareness of HIV/AIDS and VAW. It also demonstrates how gender violence/VAW can be raised within related thematic areas – it would be useful to draw out lessons from similar experiences elsewhere (e.g. DFID funded TV series promoting awareness of health issues in Cambodia).

• The partnership attempted between NNVAW and Soul City, highlights the considerable potential for imaginative use of multi-media as a way of multiplying the impact of advocacy on gender violence and VAW.

• Quite deliberate use of TV and a book as a ‘shock tactic’ in Pakistan succeeded in generating debate and breaking down taboos around the sensitive issue of honour killings, burning and the Hadood ordinances.

6.4.2 Statistics on gender violence need to be improved

6.16 UNIFEM and International Financial Institutions (IFIs) such as the IDB and World Bank are supporting countries to develop their capacity to collect sex-disaggregated statistics, and work is being done to develop appropriate indicators of gender violence. Once statistics are available it is possible to show costs, for example, of domestic violence.

6.17 In Brazil, the DFID/UNIFEM partnership is supporting the use of gender budget analysis as a monitoring tool at Municipal level, and DFID has supported both development of gender budgets as a tool, and the use GBIs in several other countries.
6.5 Women’s voice and state accountability

6.18 At the beginning of the evaluation period, DFID interventions at the level of civil society were used as a means of service delivery. They are now intended to increase community support for women’s rights and access to justice, change attitudes about the social acceptability of gender violence and the concepts of public–private, breakdown taboos and silences, enable women to take an active part in politics and to organise themselves.

6.19 As DFID moves to upstream support of development programmes, it is important not to lose sight of the important role civil society and communities play in addressing gender violence, as the ecological model highlights.

6.5.1 CSOs are key to developing state accountability

6.20 DFID supports CSOs indirectly via INGOs (using PPAs and the Civil Society Challenge Fund), and by contributing to or directly funding, schemes such as the UNIFEM Violence Trust Fund, the Gender Equality Project (GEP) in Pakistan, and the Manusha Jonno Human Rights and Governance Programme in Bangladesh.

- Funding CSOs has offered DFID some leverage for strategic capacity development in Jordan and Pakistan, where support is targeted at national CSOs whose aim is to challenge discriminatory laws and increase women’s voice. It has also revealed strengths and weaknesses—for example, the Gender Equality Project has highlighted limited capacity among NGOs in Pakistan to prepare and draft legislation.

- In Nicaragua, funding of several CSOs working on VAW and masculinity during the 1990s contributed strategically to the development of debate about gender violence within civil society.

- The intention to strengthen the work of the NNVAW in South Africa was in line with this approach. Unfortunately the existing nature of the Network, and its capacity were not taken into account in the programme design—nor was the experience used to allow the network to address the weaknesses that became apparent (through participative evaluation).

- Participative evaluation of the difficulties encountered in by the NNVAW during its partnership with Soul City could have enabled the Network to develop strategically—from the information available, it is not clear what exit strategy was used by DFID.

6.5.2 Developing women’s voice

6.21 Women organise in order to advocate change on a wide variety of issues that affect them. The need for a voice is discussed more fully in the ‘Voice and Accountability’ evaluation—in this paper, examples have been used from countries where VAW is a particular issue.

- In Pakistan, capacity building support for grass roots CSOs has been wide reaching and sustained, beginning in the 1980’s. This has resulted in a solid base of women in local organisations, many with some leadership experience. An indication of sustainable change in women’s positions is, the resistance that women have shown to proposals affecting them in areas where the Taliban have returned.
• In Bangladesh, the lack of demand for change has been identified as a fundamental block. A proposal has been made to use a longer time frame, and a drivers of change approach, to create this demand via capacity building and funding women’s advocacy groups, and continued investment in girls education (Duncan et al 2002).

6.6 Is it possible to create a virtuous circle empowering women, changing social/political norms and reducing gender violence?

6.22 ‘Legal and social justice are mutually linked to gender – legal (de jure) should reflect the social aspirations of a country, but as a result both are affected by power (gender) relationships. Access to justice is thus affected by the substantive law derived from this, and the quality of the justice delivered through particular institutions’ (DFID Uganda).

6.23 Women’s political participation complements strengthened participation in civil society. Strengthened laws make new entry points for CSOs to expand the scope of their work, and build their capacities. (The Voice and Accountability thematic review discusses women’s political participation in greater detail).

• When women in Pakistan were offered a 33% quota and a six-month time frame for the local elections in 2000 they had sufficient grass roots capacity to put forward candidates. Since women have been elected, DFID has used the Gender Equality Project (GEP) to support strategic capacity building of CSOs to draft legislation that elected women can take before Parliament. The SAAW project provides a statistical baseline from which change can be measured – the impact on VAW remains to be assessed over the coming years.

• In South Africa, Soul City has opened discussion and changed attitudes, the NNVAW has successfully lobbied for legislation and better implementation of strategies to support victims of domestic violence – and yet, behavioural change has been limited.
7 Conclusions and recommendations

7.1 Conclusions and recommendations

7.1 The incentives and regulatory approaches being used by DFID are not achieving the desired mainstreaming of interventions on gender violence.

7.2 Although the centrality of addressing gender violence in realising the MDGs, and within overall Poverty Reduction Strategies is acknowledged on paper, is not strategically addressed in practice.

7.3 Gender violence and VAW remain invisible within DFID normative structures and procedures, and more importantly, ‘ignored’ in relation to the extent of the issue and its impact on poverty.

7.4 Increasing use of human-rights based and SSAJ frameworks, and the development of knowledge and understanding around exclusion offer opportunities for work on gender violence. However, the evidence reviewed suggests that in practice, gender analysis is no more likely to be mainstreamed within these approaches than it has been in others.

7.5 The case studies have highlighted the need for interventions to be flexible and generally follow the channels for action proposed in the Gender Equality TSP.

7.6 Increased use of and reference to, CEDAW commitments would offer a shared approach for donors such as DFID to develop its programming on gender violence (at least the VAW element) in conjunction with country governments, using the framework proposed here, which is widely known and used by other agencies.

Work on gender violence should develop beyond VAW approaches

7.7 UNIFEM is a key ally for future work on VAW, and there is potential for strengthening country level partnerships considerably. This is particularly important as UNIFEM starts to develop work in parallel to DFID’s work on PRSs.

7.8 There is a tendency to conflate the VAW and gender violence, and to overlook the gendered nature of some forms of social, economic and political violence.

7.9 DFID should consider how to develop understanding and interventions on men’s role as both victim and aggressor particularly within work on HIV/AIDS, conflict/post conflict, Citizen Security and SSAJ.

Communication and lesson learning should be improved

7.10 There is considerable scope to improve institutional memory, communication and lesson learning across DFID and this will become increasingly important as multi-donor approaches are developed.

30 Work on conflict and conflict resolution is starting to look at the impact of gender violence on men - UNIFEM will be a key partner in this work as well as other forms of gender violence.
7.11 Dissemination of good practice should include examples of successful approaches e.g. of interventions on that take account of the gendered nature or impact of violence, such as the VPP in Nicaragua, or recent work by Oxfam (Ruxton 2004) and practice e.g. country level partnerships with UNIFEM.

Work on gender violence needs to accommodate long time frames and programme designs need to include ways of measuring impacts.

7.12 ‘Drivers of Change’ approaches are useful for analysing gender violence in the context of country programmes, since they look at longer, and overlapping time frames, and incorporate analysis of likely negative as well as positive changes.

7.13 In recent research into VAW funded by DFID, Oxfam has highlighted the lack of knowledge about the impact of interventions on gender violence (Terry 2004). Work is needed to develop ways of measuring the impacts of complex, multi-sector and longitudinal interventions (as Fig 8, adapted from Engelhart et al 2003 shows)\textsuperscript{31}.

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{figure8.png}
\caption{Impact levels and externalities}
\end{figure}

7.14 Development is not static, so ongoing research is needed before policy can be developed in emerging priority areas. It is important to consider gender violence within developing areas such as migration, conflict and security, trade and globalisation, and the environment.

7.2 Frameworks for detailed evaluation of gender violence

7.15 Detailed evaluation of particular case studies would provide useful evidence of cost-effectiveness; increase understanding of the inter-relation between gender violence and ‘new’ agendas; allow lesson learning about cross-sectoral approaches to particular issues.

7.16 It should also draw out learning in relation to institutional incentives, learning across DFID, and ways of incorporating gender violence within gender mainstreaming efforts.

7.17 Examples of integrated, strategic approaches to violence against women, although limited, have shown that considerable progress is possible. As the case study of Pakistan has shown, the complexity of interactions that follow from interventions on gender violence, mean that impact assessment will need to take account of externalities and unintended outcomes.

\textsuperscript{31} Lessons could be learned from approaches developed to measure the impact of some DFID RNR Research programmes
Conclusions and Recommendations

7.18 In developing a framework for more detailed evaluation of interventions, three points are particularly relevant to this theme.

1 Issues exist about the availability of information for detailed evaluations relating to gender violence and VAW. This places practical limits on the scope of further evaluation.

2 The outcomes of this evaluation are intended to guide DFIDs future interventions on gender violence within the context of gender mainstreaming in a rapidly changing global context. Security and conflict are rapidly becoming key factors in development, and a more detailed analysis of how gender violence has been approached within this should be considered.

3 Given the difficulties of assessing impact, the invisibility of much of the work on gender violence, and the need to improve mainstreaming, it may be most useful if the detailed evaluation developed a better understanding of how gender violence has been conceptualised within the other themes (in practice) and looked for ways to make this visible. The evaluation framework developed for the HIV/AIDS and Maternal Health themes provides a way of tracing gender violence within other thematic areas.
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Abbreviations

ACPP  | Africa Conflict Prevention Pool
ADB   | Asian Development Bank
BRAC  | Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee
BRIDGE| Gender and Development Information Service, IDS
CAP   | Country Assistance Plan
CEDAW | Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women
CHAD  | Conflict and Humanitarian Affairs Department
CIDA  | Canadian International Development Agency
CPCS  | Community-Based Policing and Community Safety Programme
CPPs  | Conflict Prevention Pools
CSO   | Civil Society Organisation
CSP   | Country Strategy Paper
CSR   | Corporate Social Responsibility
DAC   | Development Assistance Committee
DAC-GENDERNET | Development Assistance Committee – Gender and Development Network
DBS   | Direct Budget Support
DDP   | Directors Delivery Plan
DDR   | Disarmament, Demobilisation and Reintegration
DEVAW | Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women
DPKO  | Department of Peacekeeping Operations
DRC   | Democratic Republic of Congo
DTI   | Department of Trade and Industry
DV    | Domestic Violence
EC    | European Commission
EDP   | External Development Partner
EE    | Enabling Environment
EFA   | Education for All
EMAD  | Europe, Middle East and Americas Division
EmOC  | Emergency Obstetric Care
EU    | European Union
FCO   | Foreign and Commonwealth Office
FDI   | Foreign Direct Investment
FGM   | Female Genital Mutilation
GBIs  | Gender Budget Initiatives
GBV   | Gender Based Violence
GCPPP | Global Conflict Prevention Pool
GE    | Gender Equality
GoB/  | Government of Bangladesh / India / Nicaragua / Nigeria / Pakistan / Peru / South Africa / Uganda
I     |
N     |
P     |
SA    |
U     |
GTZ   | German Aid Agency: Gesellschaft fur Technische Zusammenarbeit
HSR   | Health Sector Reform
ICEE  | Investment, Competition & Enabling Environment Team, DFID
ICPD  | International Conference on Population and Development
IDB   | Inter-American Development Bank and Fund

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IDPs</td>
<td>Internally Displaced Persons</td>
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<tr>
<td>IDS</td>
<td>Institute of Development Studies, University of Sussex</td>
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<td>IDT</td>
<td>International Development Targets</td>
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<td>INGO</td>
<td>International Non-Governmental Organisation</td>
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<td>ISP</td>
<td>Institutional Strategy Paper</td>
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<td>JICA</td>
<td>Japan International Co-operation Agency</td>
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<td>JRM</td>
<td>Joint Review Mission</td>
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<td>KFOR</td>
<td>Kosovo Force</td>
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<td>LMM</td>
<td>Lower Maternal Mortality</td>
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<td>M&amp;E</td>
<td>Monitoring and Evaluation</td>
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<td>MDG</td>
<td>Millennium Development Goal</td>
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<td>MMR</td>
<td>Maternal Mortality Ratio</td>
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<td>MOD</td>
<td>Ministry of Defence</td>
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<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non-Governmental Organisation</td>
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<td>OECD</td>
<td>Organisation for Economic Development and Cooperation</td>
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<td>OPR</td>
<td>Output to Purpose Review</td>
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<td>OVI</td>
<td>Objectively Verifiable Indicator</td>
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<td>PAD</td>
<td>Project Appraisal Document (World Bank)</td>
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<td>PCN</td>
<td>Project Concept Note</td>
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<tr>
<td>PCR</td>
<td>Project Completion Report</td>
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<td>PCRU</td>
<td>Post Conflict Reconstruction Unit</td>
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<td>PEAP</td>
<td>Poverty Eradication Action Plan</td>
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<td>PFA</td>
<td>Platform for Action</td>
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<td>PIMS</td>
<td>Policy Information Marker System</td>
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<td>PPA</td>
<td>Participatory Poverty Assessment</td>
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<td>PRISM</td>
<td>Performance Reporting Information System Management</td>
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<td>PRS(P)</td>
<td>Poverty Reduction Strategy (Paper)</td>
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<td>PSA</td>
<td>Public Service Agreement</td>
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<td>PSD</td>
<td>Private Sector Development</td>
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<td>RBA</td>
<td>Rights Based Approach</td>
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<td>RCH</td>
<td>Reproductive and Child Health</td>
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<td>RGC</td>
<td>Royal Government of Cambodia</td>
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<td>SAAW</td>
<td>Social Audit of Abuse against Women</td>
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<td>SDA</td>
<td>Social Development Adviser or Service Delivery Agreement</td>
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<td>Social Development Department</td>
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<td>SED</td>
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<td>SRHR</td>
<td>Sexual and Reproductive Health and Rights</td>
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<td>SSAJ</td>
<td>Safety, Security and Access to Justice</td>
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<td>SWAp</td>
<td>Sector Wide Approach</td>
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<tr>
<td>ToRs</td>
<td>Terms of Reference</td>
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<td>TRC</td>
<td>Truth and Reconciliation Commission</td>
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<td>TRCB</td>
<td>Trade Related Capacity Building</td>
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<td>TSP</td>
<td>Target Strategy Paper</td>
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<td>UAF</td>
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<td>UN</td>
<td>United Nations</td>
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<td>Abbreviation</td>
<td>Full Form</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNDP</td>
<td>United Nations Development Programme</td>
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<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation</td>
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<td>UNFPA</td>
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<td>UNGEI</td>
<td>United Nations Girls’ Education Initiative</td>
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<td>UNHCR</td>
<td>United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees</td>
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<td>UNIDO</td>
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<td>UNIFEM</td>
<td>United Nations Development Fund for Women</td>
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<td>UNMIK</td>
<td>United Nations Peacekeeping Mission in Kosovo</td>
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<td>UPE</td>
<td>Universal Primary Education</td>
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<td>USAID</td>
<td>United States Agency for International Development</td>
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<td>VAW</td>
<td>Violence Against Women</td>
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<td>WHO</td>
<td>World Health Organisation</td>
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<td>WID</td>
<td>Women in Development</td>
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DFID, the Department for International Development: leading the British government’s fight against world poverty.

One in five people in the world today, over 1 billion people, live in poverty on less than one dollar a day. In an increasingly interdependent world, many problems – like conflict, crime, pollution and diseases such as HIV and AIDS – are caused or made worse by poverty.

DFID supports long-term programmes to help tackle the underlying causes of poverty. DFID also responds to emergencies, both natural and man-made.

DFID’s work forms part of a global promise to
• halve the number of people living in extreme poverty and hunger
• ensure that all children receive primary education
• promote sexual equality and give women a stronger voice
• reduce child death rates
• improve the health of mothers
• combat HIV and AIDS, malaria and other diseases
• make sure the environment is protected
• build a global partnership for those working in development.

Together, these form the United Nations’ eight ‘Millennium Development Goals’, with a 2015 deadline. Each of these Goals has its own, measurable, targets.

DFID works in partnership with governments, civil society, the private sector and others. It also works with multilateral institutions, including the World Bank, United Nations agencies and the European Commission.

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