

Challenges in Estimating the Costs of Violence against Women and Girls

Data Availability

The availability of data to estimate violence and its costs has evolved tremendously (Day, McKenna and Bowlus 2005). Before the availability of national surveys that included questions to establish the prevalence of at least some forms of violence against women and girls, researchers were constrained to rely on small surveys or case studies and based prevalence rates on proxy measures and extrapolated data (Blumel et al. 1993; KPMG 1994). Increasing access to representative national survey data on prevalence rates of violence has allowed researchers to approximate costs at national levels. Finally, in recent years, researchers have access to significant nationally representative datasets that allow sophisticated and comprehensive analyses. Yet, data availability remains a critical challenge for estimating costs of violence against women and girls, particularly in the developing world. Some key challenges include:

1. *Inaccuracy of prevalence rates for violence:* as noted in chapter 2, even the best calculations of prevalence rates are most likely underestimates, thus even with the best data and methodology, one should assume that cost calculations are underestimates. Moreover, prevalence rates barely exist for certain forms of violence, such as girl child sexual abuse, trafficking, or honor killings, making costing impossible in these cases. Thus costs of violence likely reflect only certain – but not all – types of violence that girls and women suffer through their lives.
2. *The use of current versus lifetime violence prevalence to estimate costs:* Duvvury, Grown and Redner (2004) note that lifetime prevalence rates are flawed because of recall problems. Thus, where survey data are available, estimates for recent (typically 12 months prior to the survey) violence should be used. Where surveys are not available, however, researchers have attempted several data collection methods to get estimates of current or recent experiences of violence. For example, Stanko et al. (1998) conducted a postal survey, records searches, a waiting room survey of women, case studies, and meetings with service providers. However, such estimates of violence – and the estimates of associated costs – are typically not comparable across studies.
3. *Separating out service costs between violence survivors or sufferers and others who seek the same services:* Another challenge is that of disentangling costs incurred for services to violence survivors versus by the population in general, for a range of institutional or formal services such as health care, court system services, police services, or housing. For example, a recent costing exercise in Bangladesh found that in the court system, information related to violence against women is not separately maintained and thus data on court-related expenses to redress violence cases is impossible to separate out from court-related expenses to address other concerns brought to a court (Siddique 2011).

Most cost studies are based on estimates of costs of intimate partner violence (IPV), probably because IPV is the most frequently reported type of violence, has the largest amount of data and prevalence estimates, and the largest amount of costing information. Yet, it is inaccurate to describe the monetary costs of intimate partner violence as the ‘costs of violence’ since it excludes the costs of all the other types of violence that women and girls face throughout their lives.

4. *Inability to take into account the quality of service provision:* In many estimates of service provision costs, individual women who suffer violence form the unit of analysis. As Yodanis and Godenzi (1999) point out, this assumes that women actually receive satisfactory services, or that all women using a service receive an equivalent level of service, even though many studies report inadequacies and inefficiencies in service provision.
5. *Large informal sector:* Many developing countries, including large parts of South Asian countries, have large informal sectors with limited data on labor and wages. Thus, estimating the costs of violence in terms of labor participation and productivity loss is not always possible. Rather, such estimates may be biased towards the costs incurred by urban women working in the formal sector who have suffered violence, and not represent costs incurred by violence survivors in urban non-formal and rural, unpaid agricultural or household labor.

Methodological Challenges

DEFINING DIRECT AND INDIRECT COSTS

Direct costs are defined in slightly varying ways by different researchers. According to KPMG (1994), direct costs of violence are “the costs associated with the provision of a range of facilities, resources, and services to a woman as a result of her being subject to (domestic) violence.” The United States Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2003) define direct costs as “the actual dollar expenditure related to violence against women.” Buvinic, Morrison, and Shifter (1999) define direct costs as “the value of goods and services used in treating or preventing domestic violence.”

Indirect costs cover the gamut of all other ‘costs’, such as the emotional, physical and intergenerational consequences of violence for women, their children, their families and communities. Definitions vary possibly more than is the case for direct costs because of the larger range of such ‘costs’ (Duvvury, Grown and Redner 2004; Laing 2001; Laurence and Spalter-Roth 1996). Duvvury, Grown and Redner (2004) argue that indirect costs are larger and more important than direct costs, yet very few studies have attempted to estimate indirect costs, since these types of costs are “notoriously difficult” to calculate (Duvvury, Grown and Redner 2004: 16).

Day, McKenna and Bowlus (2005) propose the division of costs into two main groups: *tangible* versus *intangible* costs and *direct* versus *indirect* costs. A violence survivor is aware of tangible costs, but does not directly perceive intangible costs. Both tangible and intangible costs can be divided into direct costs, which are realized costs with a monetary value, and indirect costs, which are opportunity costs or the loss of potential,¹ where the monetary values must be estimated. Examples of direct tangible costs include out-of-pocket expenses, such as a survivor’s medical bills or legal fees; direct intangible costs include services provided by the government or NGOs. Examples of indirect tangible costs include a survivor’s income loss due to missed workdays. Examples of indirect intangible costs include a firm’s loss of profit because of the low performance of employees who are violence survivors, or the impact of violence on the children of survivors.

¹ According to KPMG (1994), opportunity costs are “the costs of opportunities which the participant has lost as a result of being in or leaving the violent relationship. An opportunity cost is the cost of the opportunity forgone when the woman’s options are limited by the circumstances in which she finds herself.”

Table L.1 provides examples of some of the most commonly measured categories of direct and indirect costs for women and their families, their communities, and incurred by service providers.

Table L.1: Illustrative direct and indirect costs of violence: women, community, providers		
	Direct costs	Indirect costs triggered by violence
Individual and family	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Out-of-pocket expenses for services • Income loss due to missing workdays • Loss of household work 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Value of goods and services forgone in the form of income lost through job loss or increased absenteeism, decreased productivity in the workplace, and decreased labor force participation • Increased mortality and morbidity • Pain, suffering, and lost quality of life • Increased drug and alcohol use • Intergenerational transmission of violence • Behavioral problems of children • Reduced educational performance • Other measures of children's social health
Community	Costs of providing services to survivors	Increased demand for public services, which may mean additional costs for other users
Businesses	Costs of provision for: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Medical services • Criminal justice • Housing • Legal services • Social services 	Loss of output and profit due to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reduced productivity and/or lower earnings • Increased absenteeism • Withdrawal from the labor market
Sources: Duvvury, Grown and Redner 2004; Buvinic, Morrison and Shifter 1999.		

CALCULATING DIRECT COSTS

According to Laurence and Spalter-Roth (1996), calculations of the direct cost of domestic violence require data on the number of affected people (prevalence rate), how many are using services as a result of domestic violence, how much of each service is used (service utilization rate), and the unit cost of these services. They propose the following general model of direct cost estimation:

$$TC = \sum_{i=1}^n P_i C_i$$

where the cost of service i (C_i) is multiplied by the proportion of those who use service i because of violence (P_i). The accuracy of this estimation model depends on the correct specification of both C_i and P_i . For example, if only those who have suffered violence request a service, then the whole cost of that service should be considered as C_i ; otherwise, only the difference between what sufferers and non-sufferers pay for that service should be included. Alternatively, when the unit cost of services is not available, estimates can use the actual budget that an institution or organization spends on violence-related services. In this method, the challenge is to estimate the ratio of sufferers of violence relative to non-sufferers who use a particular service, which is problematic, as most institutions do not maintain such data.

Where data for prevalence or cost estimates are particularly poor or not available, the direct unit cost of services for violence is calculated based on expert opinions, which creates obvious problems in terms of accuracy and bias. In such situations, even for direct cost estimates, where non-monetary consequences do not have to be assigned or imputed monetary values, it remains challenging to estimate costs, such that researchers often rely on “assumptions based on extrapolated data or the use of proxy data” (Duvvury, Grown, and Redner 2004: 17). Examples of such extrapolation in cost studies across countries include studies by Siddique (2011) and Center for Policy Dialogue (2009) in Bangladesh, Ghaus and Kazi (2012) in Pakistan, and ICRW and UNFPA (2009) in Bangladesh, Morocco and Uganda.

CALCULATING INDIRECT COSTS

The estimation of indirect costs is even more challenging than direct cost estimation because indirect costs do not have monetary values, which thus have to be imputed. Box L.1 below summarizes some approaches that have been used to estimate indirect costs of violence, each with strengths and weaknesses depending on the type of data required and elements included or excluded from definitions of the costs.

BOX L.1 Examples of estimating indirect costs of violence against women and girls

- *Mean daily value of earnings approach:* The United States Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2003) estimates the loss of income as a result of intimate partner violence as equal to the mean daily value of earnings multiplied by the total days of earnings lost, where the mean annual earnings of the mean age group of women estimated to suffer a particular kind of violence is calculated, and then divided by the number of paid workdays per year.
- *Human capital approach:* this approach, used by Cohen, Miller and Rossman (1994) to estimate the lifetime loss of earnings due to mortality, morbidity, mental health distress, and the incarceration of violence perpetrators, uses a discount rate of 3 percent to calculate the discounted present value of lifetime loss. In addition to the somewhat arbitrary nature of this rate and its questionable applicability across contexts, this approach focuses on the monetary costs of death due to violence while ignoring the costs of the pain, suffering and lost enjoyment of life caused by violence. As such, the authors note that it is appropriate if one is interested solely in the effect of deaths on economic activity, as measured by the gross national product, and on household production.
- *Econometric methods to estimate the economic impact of violence:* Morrison and Orlando (1999) estimate the impact of violence on women’s labor force participation and earnings through multivariate analysis, where labor force participation and earnings, as dependent variables, are regressed on a violence proxy, such as physical abuse in childhood, or the number of times a husband arrives home drunk, plus a vector of control variables such as age, education, and hours worked. The coefficient of the violence regressor is a measure of the impact of violence on labor force participation, and earnings. However, endogeneity and data issues make the accuracy of this model questionable.
- *Propensity score matching:* Morrison and Orlando (2004) attempt to use propensity score matching between women who have suffered violence and those who have not (a ‘control’ group) to estimate the impacts of violence on women’s health outcomes, use of health services, and labor force participation, as well as its impact on children’s health outcomes and educational performance. They conclude that, even though “...the propensity score matching adds rigor in the specification of control groups, [it] does not solve simultaneity issues which existed in the econometric method.”

Duvvury, Grown and Redner (2004) suggest that the range of methodologies used to impute indirect costs, including – but not limited to – the examples described above, can be categorized into three broad ‘types’: (a) *proportional methodology*, which includes proportioning operational budgets of different service providers between users who have suffered violence and those who have not; (b) *accounting methodology*, which aggregates costs across sectors using prevalence rates, service utilization rates, and average unit costs within each sector; and (c) *econometric methods* imputing monetary values, which are mainly used to estimate indirect costs such as income loss and productivity loss.

Regardless of the method used, Duvvury, Grown and Redner (2004) recommend that the following steps be taken to create an appropriate framework for cost estimation:

- i. Define clear objectives for the cost estimation;
- ii. Identify the appropriate level of aggregation;
- iii. Develop an operational definition of the type(s) of violence that covers the experience of the largest number of women;
- iv. Map help-seeking behavior of those who suffer violence against the services available to them so as to accurately assess service utilization; and
- v. Determine the most appropriate method and the data required for conducting the analysis.

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Literature Review Methodology

The literature review was conducted largely through a systematic on-line search process. To begin with, the authors created the guidelines below to search for literature on each type of violence listed in figure 1.1 of the report, based on certain key questions. Base search terms were used by themselves, and then in combination with various qualifiers. For those forms of violence for which cross-country prevalence data were not available through any of the data sources listed in Appendix A, we included searches of studies that might describe prevalence and patterns in non-South Asian countries.

Type of violence	Key questions	Search terms (base search terms in italics)
Female infanticide and excess female child mortality	What is the prevalence in each South Asian country? Who are the main perpetrators? What are the underlying motivations? What are the risk and protective factors?	<i>Female infanticide</i> <i>Sex ratios AND children AND girls</i> <i>Child mortality AND girls</i> <i>Discrimination AND girls</i> <i>Neglect AND girls</i> <i>Son preference</i> Each of the above AND 'South Asia' OR specific South Asian countries
Child abuse against girls	What are the patterns and prevalence in each country? (sexual, physical or emotional) Who are the main perpetrators? Where does abuse occur? (home, school, other) What are the risk and protective factors?	<i>Abuse AND girls</i> <i>Sexual abuse AND girls</i> <i>Physical abuse AND girls</i> <i>Emotional abuse AND girls</i> <i>Corporal punishment AND girls</i> Each of the above AND school Each of the above AND home <i>Son preference</i> Each of the above AND 'South Asia' OR specific South Asian countries
Child marriage and forced marriage	What are the patterns and prevalence in each country? Are there any particular caste-based, ethnic or religious patterns? What are the patterns and prevalence of forced marriage?	<i>Age at marriage</i> <i>Child marriage</i> <i>Early marriage</i> <i>Forced marriage</i> <i>Dowry</i> Each of the above AND girls Each of the above AND

Type of violence	Key questions	Search terms (base search terms in <i>italics</i>)
	<p>What are the underlying reasons?</p> <p>What are the risk and protective factors?</p> <p>What is the role, patterns and prevalence of dowry?</p>	<p>adolescents</p> <p>Each of the above AND violence</p> <p>Marriage AND value of girls</p> <p>Each of the above AND 'South Asia' OR specific South Asian countries</p>
Intimate partner or domestic violence	<p>What are the patterns and prevalence in each country? (by life stage: adolescents, unmarried young women, married women)</p> <p>How rigorous is the research?</p> <p>Who are the perpetrators? (partners, mothers-in-law, other family members)</p> <p>What are the underlying reasons?</p> <p>What are the risk and protective factors?</p> <p>What is the role, patterns and prevalence of dowry?</p>	<p><i>Domestic violence OR intimate partner violence</i></p> <p>Each of the above AND girls</p> <p>Each of the above AND adolescents</p> <p>Each of the above AND married women</p> <p>Each of the above AND never-married women</p> <p>Violence AND husband</p> <p>Violence AND partner</p> <p>Violence AND mother-in-law</p> <p>Violence AND family</p> <p>Violence AND dowry</p> <p>Each of the above AND 'South Asia' OR specific South Asian countries</p> <p>Violence AND methodology</p>
Violence against divorced women	<p>What are the prevalence and patterns?</p> <p>What are the types of violence? (sexual, economic, physical, emotional)</p> <p>Who are the main perpetrators?</p> <p>What are the attitudes towards divorced women that influence their vulnerability to violence?</p> <p>How does violence against divorced women in South Asia compare to other developing countries?</p>	<p><i>Divorce AND women AND violence</i></p> <p>The above AND emotional violence</p> <p>The above AND economic violence</p> <p>The above AND sexual violence</p> <p>The above AND physical violence</p> <p>The above AND family</p> <p>The above AND community</p> <p>The above AND stigma</p>

Type of violence	Key questions	Search terms (base search terms in <i>italics</i>)
		<p>The above AND attitudes</p> <p>Each of the above AND 'South Asia' OR specific South Asian countries</p> <p>Each of the above AND international</p>
Maltreatment of widows	<p>What are the prevalence and patterns?</p> <p>What are the types of violence? (sexual, economic, physical, emotional)</p> <p>Who are the main perpetrators? (in-laws; other family members; community members; other)</p> <p>What are the attitudes towards widows that influence their vulnerability to violence?</p> <p>What reasons and justifications are given for violence against widows?</p> <p>How does violence against widows in South Asia compare to other developing countries?</p>	<p><i>Widows OR widowhood AND violence</i></p> <p>The above AND emotional violence</p> <p>The above AND economic violence</p> <p>The above AND sexual violence</p> <p>The above AND physical violence</p> <p>The above AND family</p> <p>The above AND community</p> <p>The above AND stigma</p> <p>The above AND attitudes</p> <p>Each of the above AND 'South Asia' OR specific South Asian countries</p> <p>Each of the above AND international</p>
Trafficking	<p>What is the prevalence?</p> <p>Who are the women and girls who are trafficked?</p> <p>Who trafficks them: parents? Other relatives? Who else?</p> <p>What are the patterns? (sending and receiving areas; average age of girls; particular castes or ethnic groups or religious groups; particular geographic areas)</p> <p>What are the underlying reasons?</p> <p>What are the risk and protective factors?</p>	<p><i>Trafficking AND women</i></p> <p><i>Trafficking AND girls</i></p> <p>Each of the above AND violence</p> <p>Each of the above AND 'South Asia' OR specific South Asian countries</p>
Honor crimes (search using	What are the types of issues	<i>Honor crime</i>

Type of violence	Key questions	Search terms (base search terms in italics)
both US and British spelling: 'honor' and 'honour' as publications in non-US journals will typically use the British spelling)	<p>that result in violence against women in the name of 'honor'?</p> <p>What are the patterns?</p> <p>To what extent are 'honor' crimes seen as 'justice' and who dispenses this 'justice'?</p> <p>Who are the main perpetrators? (husbands; parents; in-laws; other)</p> <p>What is the range of attitudes towards honor crimes against women (in favor of and against)</p> <p>What is the extent of honor crimes in South Asia compared to other regions, for example, the Middle East?</p>	<p><i>Honor killings</i></p> <p>Each of the above AND women</p> <p>Each of the above AND women AND violence</p> <p>Each of the above AND women AND violence AND adultery</p> <p>Each of the above AND cross-caste AND marriage AND violence</p> <p>Each of the above AND 'South Asia' OR specific South Asian countries</p> <p>Each of the above AND international</p> <p>Each of the above AND Middle East</p>
Sexual harassment in public places	<p>What are the patterns and prevalence of sexual harassment by men other than intimate partners?</p> <p>Who are the main perpetrators?</p> <p>What are the prevalence, patterns and perpetrators for rape?</p> <p>Where does sexual harassment occur? (street, school, work, public transport, etc.)</p>	<p><i>Sexual harassment</i></p> <p><i>Sexual violence</i></p> <p><i>Rape</i></p> <p>Each of the above AND street</p> <p>Each of the above AND school</p> <p>Each of the above AND workplace</p> <p>Each of the above AND community</p> <p>Each of the above AND 'South Asia' OR specific South Asian countries</p>
Custodial violence	<p>What is the prevalence? (overall, street-based, custodial or other violence by police)</p> <p>What are key characteristics of women targeted and of perpetrators?</p> <p>What are the main</p>	<p><i>Custodial violence AND women</i></p> <p><i>Police violence AND women</i></p> <p><i>Military violence AND women</i></p> <p><i>War AND violence AND women</i></p> <p><i>Ethnic conflict AND violence AND women</i></p>

Type of violence	Key questions	Search terms (base search terms in italics)
	justifications given for custodial violence? How does custodial violence in South Asian countries compare to other parts of the developing world?	<i>Conflict AND violence And women</i> Each of the above AND 'South Asia' OR specific South Asian countries

The above-listed search terms for each type of violence were entered in Google Scholar, select academic search engines, and individual websites of select journals. Specific disciplinary search engine suggestions included (but were not limited to) sociology search engines, PubMed, PopLine, anthropological search engines, and JStor. Suggested specific journals included (but were not limited to) the Journal of Interpersonal Violence, Violence Against Women, Economic and Political Weekly, Journal of Gender Studies, World Development, The Lancet, and, The Bulletin of the World Health Organization.

To gain access to non-peer reviewed articles such as working papers, unpublished articles or organizational reports, the search terms for each form of violence were also entered into Google, and on organizational websites such as for the UN, WHO, websites of civil society organizations, and various government agency websites, including the United States Department of State (e.g., for statistics and information on trafficking), and crime and statistics departments in South Asian countries, where available (e.g., India's National Crime and Records Bureau).

For any articles whose title contained multiple key search words, researchers were instructed to click on and links for 'similar articles' and/or 'cited by' to get other similar articles. Researchers made a list of all initial results that were promising, with a separate document for each theme. Each reference's description included the full citation, any abstract provided on-line, the search words used and search engine where the item was found, and the URL, where relevant. The authors then short-listed articles and modified the search terms as needed for the next round of searching. This was an iterative procedure with close communication and interaction between those conducting the searches and the authors. Several rounds of such searches and short-listing were conducted.

To obtain information on honor violence, for which literature is widely known to be sparse and statistics are limited or unreliable, an additional Google search was conducted to gather data from online news reports of particular incidents of honor crimes (usually honor killing). A search was conducted for each of the South Asian countries, except for Pakistan, as the Human Rights Commission of Pakistan already has gathered data on honor killings through its own search of news reports. Details were recorded on any news item (from local, national or international news sources) that reported an honor killing or honor violence against a girl or woman from 2006 to the present.

Finally, the team collected documents not available on-line from several of the South Asian countries under study for this book. These documents included copies of organizational reports, conference proceedings, and working papers or other unpublished work not available on-line.

Mapping Methodology and Key Informant Interview Guidelines for Case Studies

Mapping Methodology

The mapping of organizations and interventions addressing violence against women and girls (VAWG) in South Asia recognizes the multi-sectoral and multilevel character of many of these efforts as well as the diverse variety of actors involved at different levels. For instance, some efforts included government schemes and programs; regional, national and local campaigns, organizations or programs, while actors mapped ranged from international donor and implementation bodies, community based organizations; private sector companies and CSR (corporate sector responsibility) initiatives. This mapping also pays attention to the more organic structures such as networks and movements in South Asia that address the issue of violence against women and girls in the region, but that may not be ‘programs’ in the conventional definition of that term.

Mapping Exercise

Three consultants, based in Nepal, India and Thailand, and covering the whole South Asia region, conducted the mapping exercise. This mapping exercise comprised three main elements. First, the team mapped out the broad landscape of organizations in each country and regionally that addressed any form of violence against women and girls. Next, evaluated efforts were identified. Finally, the team identified four particularly innovative programs, which are highlighted as case studies in the report.

MAPPING OF ORGANIZATIONS ADDRESSING VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN AND GIRLS IN SOUTH ASIA

The objective of this task was to identify organizations and their efforts addressing violence against women and girls in the South Asian region. The resulting list is presented in Appendix S. Efforts include programs, advocacy and campaigns, networks, policies and laws, among others.

To find organizations addressing VAWG, we conducted desk reviews of published and unpublished relevant literature and supplemented this review by a scan of journal articles, publications, project documents including program evaluations and a review of relevant policy documents and programmatic websites. The team also held phone, email and Skype consultations with experts, development practitioners and scholars in the region and elsewhere, from various research institutions, networks and organizations working in the field of VAWG prevention and response, to validate and add to this list. Additional information on organizations addressing VAWG in South Asia was gathered through fact-finding missions to Bhutan, the Maldives and Bangladesh. In all countries, we made special efforts to identify grassroots organizations outside of urban areas.

Following the search results, the profile of the organizations, their area of work and expertise, type of violence addressed and geographic coverage were categorized in a list, which was then organized by the following sectors (see Appendix legend for details):

- Health
- Youth and Education

- Women's Empowerment
- Governance and Democracy,
- Crisis/Conflict, Disaster Relief and infrastructure
- Multi-Sectoral Efforts

Feedback on the relevance and completion of these lists was solicited between September and October 2013 during in-country consultation meetings with relevant stakeholders, government officials, local NGOs/CBOs, country-based VAW/GBV experts, and the country staff of the World Bank. In-person consultations were organized in Dhaka, Bangladesh, New Delhi, India and Kathmandu, Nepal; and audio-conferences were organized in Colombo, Sri Lanka, Kabul, Afghanistan and Karachi, Pakistan.

MAPPING OF EVALUATED INTERVENTIONS ADDRESSING VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN AND GIRLS IN SOUTH ASIA

From the lists generated, the next goal was to identify existing evaluated efforts. Firstly, building on the matrix and reviews of the first list of organizations, the mapping team contacted staff of mapped organizations to obtain information about existing evaluated VAWG interventions, and to obtain relevant project reports and evaluation documentation. We contacted over 100 organizations in Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, the Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan and Sri Lanka. We used email, phone, and Skype to contact independent country-based VAWG experts, networks and relevant research institutions in order to obtain further information about any evaluated efforts addressing VAW, and in some cases, to request relevant evaluation documentation. Project documentation and final reports were also solicited in cases where formal evaluation was unavailable. We conducted follow up calls or emails to clarify any remaining questions about identified evaluations and their documentation. The lists and brief descriptions of evaluated efforts are described by form of violence across the life cycle in Appendices C through K for South Asia specific efforts, and Appendix T for evaluated efforts identified from outside the region that might be instructive to programming in South Asia.

IDENTIFYING AND DOCUMENTING CASE STUDIES

The final part of this field exercise was to identify four innovative programs that provided an opportunity for significant learning through their programmatic experience. These programs are highlighted in case studies in chapter 4. These interventions were selected from the wealth of evaluated programs to gain an in-depth understanding of implementation strategies, opportunities and challenges, including reaching outcomes but also elaborating on promising or problematic processes. The case studies were based on analyses of program evaluations and reports, supplemented by in-depth interviews with program implementers (see interview guide in below) and, in the case of the One Stop Crisis Center program in Nepal, site visits and observations.

Limitations

This mapping exercise is not intended as a comprehensive list of *every* organization and intervention addressing every form of violence across the South Asia region. Such an exercise is too vast for one effort. As with any such effort, we were limited by time, resources and of course the evolving nature of programs and the rapidly changing political and cultural contexts in each of these eight countries. We were also hampered, to some extent, by the limited scope of the existing mapping and databases. Additionally, although a good number of informants were contacted, a number of them could not be reached and a lack of time prevented additional follow-

up. In some cases, permission to access and review implementation or evaluation documentation was not granted to the mapping team. Another limitation of the process was that the research team did not have consultants based in some of the countries. While we attempted to minimize this constraint by reaching out to development actors from different levels, (international organizations, local organizations, network coordinators and activists) from the countries other than those in which consultants were physically based, it is likely we did not capture the local nuances in some of these countries.

Methodological Strengths

The key methodological strength of this exercise was its deliberate consultative nature. At each step of information gathering and analysis, the team in the field ensured ongoing and active collaboration and consultation with as many organizations as could be reached. This was especially true of the case studies. Second, the mapping was undertaken in a very methodical way, starting from the widest sweep of the landscape of programming and narrowing down to evaluated programs and finally, from within those evaluated-identifying innovative interventions. Finally, the analysis defined ‘evaluation’ in ways that crossed the boundaries between academic rigor and field reality: while on the one hand, the attempt was to search for rigor, at the same time the realities of complex programs, field capacity, NGO goals, and peer considerations were taken into account when deciding whether to consider a program “evaluated.” As such, this methodology lends itself to be replicated for gathering information on interventions for a wide range of social and gender issues.

Key Informant Interview Guidelines for Case Studies

PROGRAM POLICIES AND DESIGN

1. What are the mission, vision, goal and specific objectives?
2. How did the concept of the program originate? In response to what problems or issues was the program designed? How did the concept evolve?
3. Where is the program implemented? How were the locations selected?
4. Who are that target groups?
5. What are the activities?
6. What is the profile of the implementing team?

IMPLEMENTATION

1. How many beneficiaries? (If possible obtain disaggregated data by gender and location, where there are multiple working areas)
2. What are the enabling factors?
3. What are the challenges?
4. Were there any unintended consequences (positive or negative) of the program on the direct beneficiaries and the community?
5. Can this intervention be scaled up? If yes, what do you envision the process to scale up or replicate to look like?
6. Are you planning to scale up or replicate, as of now? If not, why not?
7. Did your organization collaborate with any other organization, network or self-help group? Did you collaborate with local government bodies? To what extent was collaboration effective for this particular intervention?

BUDGETING

1. What is the total budget of the program?

2. Who are the donors/funders?
3. What is the duration of funds? Do you think this is long enough for you to achieve what your effort intends to achieve? If not, why not?

MONITORING

1. What are the monitoring mechanisms in place?
2. Who set them up and when?
3. Do you think the monitoring mechanisms you have in place work well? What are some challenges and good experiences?
4. If you could design the monitoring all over again, what would you do differently and why? If not, why?

EVALUATION

1. Who does the evaluation? When was the evaluation structure set up? What are the strengths and weaknesses of the process?
2. If there is no evaluation, what are the reasons?
3. Do you think the organization's efforts have 'succeeded'? (Probe for (i) the evidence on which their response is based, especially if no formal evaluation exists; (ii) if didn't succeed, why not? (iii) if don't know yet, what plans to figure out whether succeeded or not?)

DONOR/FUNDING

1. Who funded the project?
2. Did the donors follow a process e.g.: requesting financial reports, quarterly reports, evaluation framework etc.? If yes, describe and elaborate to what extent this process was useful or counter-productive to the intervention?

SUSTAINABILITY

1. What are your opinions on the sustainability of this intervention? What do you think about donor support for such interventions?

BROADER OPINION ON VIOLENCE BEING ADDRESSED

1. What do you think are the main underlying circumstances, risk factors, norms that perpetuate the kind of violence that their effort is trying to address? In their opinion and experience, how can these longer-term dynamics be changed?

Illustrative Estimates of Domestic and Intimate Partner Violence in South Asia

Country	Reported prevalence (%)	Author(s)/study	Source of estimates
Prevalence of physical intimate partner abuse in the 12 months prior to the survey			
Afghanistan	39.3	Nijhowne and Oates 2008	national survey
Bangladesh*	37	Johnson and Das 2008, Silverman et al 2013	national BDHS 2004
Bangladesh	35	Bates et al 2013	own cross-sectional survey in 6 villages
Bangladesh	19	Naved et al 2006	cross-sectional survey in 1 urban area
Bangladesh	15.8	Naved et al 2006	cross-sectional survey in 1 rural area
India*	40	ICRW 2000b	multi-site survey
India	27	Raj et al 2010	national NFHS-3
India	27	Rocca et al 2009	cross-sectional survey in Bangalore city slums
India	25.3	Hasan et al 2004	survey in Uttar Pradesh state
India*	25.1	Koenig et al 2006	Male Re- productive Health Survey (MHRS) in 5 districts of Uttar Pradesh state
India	19.6	Hasan et al 2004	survey in Kerala state
India	16.2	Hasan et al 2004	survey in Tamil Nadu state
India	9.3	Ackerson et al 2008	national NFHS-2
Nepal	31.3	Lamichhane et al 2011	survey in 4 districts
Pakistan	56.3	Ali et al 2011	own survey in Karachi
Sri Lanka	22	Subramanian and Sivayogan 2001	survey in Trincomalee
Prevalence of physical intimate partner abuse ever			
Afghanistan	25.0	UNIFEM 2006	1327 women reporting incidents of violence
Bangladesh*	74	Johnson and Das 2008	national BDHS 2004
Bangladesh	67	Schuler and Islam 2008	cross-sectional survey in 6 villages
Bangladesh	41.7	Naved et al 2006	cross-sectional survey in 1 rural area
Bangladesh	39.7	Naved et al 2006	cross-sectional survey in 1 urban area
Bhutan	77	RENEW 2007	survey in Thimpu
Bhutan	14.5	Choda 2012	national survey
India	56	Rocca et al 2009	cross-sectional survey in Bangalore city slums
India	43.1	Hasan et al 2004	survey in Kerala state
India	40.3	ICRW 2000a	multi-site survey
India	34.9	Raj et al 2010	national NFHS-3
India	34.6	Hasan et al 2004	survey in Uttar Pradesh state
India*	34.1	Koenig et al 2006	Male Re- productive Health Survey (MHRS) in 5 districts of Uttar Pradesh state
India*	31	Population Council 2009	survey in Tamil Nadu state
India	31	Hasan et al 2004	survey in Tamil Nadu state
India	25	Population Council 2009	survey in Tamil Nadu state
India	16.1	Ackerson et al 2008	national NFHS-2
Maldives*	18	Fulu 2007	national survey
Nepal	25.3	Lamichhane et al 2011	survey in 4 districts
Pakistan	57.6	Ali et al 2011	survey in Karachi

Pakistan*	49.4	Fikree et al 2005	survey in Karachi
Sri Lanka	34	Jayasuriya et al 2011	survey in western province
Sri Lanka	30	Subramanian and Sivayogan 2001	survey in Trincomalee
Prevalence of sexual intimate partner abuse ever			
Afghanistan	17.2	Nijhowne and Oates 2008	national survey
Bhutan	23	RENEW 2007	survey in Thimpu
India*	31.8	Koenig et al 2006	Male Re- productive Health Survey (MHRS) in Uttar Pradesh state
Maldives*	6.7	Fulu 2007	national survey
Nepal	58.3	Adhikari and Tamang 2010	national survey
Nepal	46.2	Lamichhane et al 2011	survey in 4 districts
Pakistan	54.5	Ali et al 2011	survey in Karachi
Pakistan	53.4	Ali et al 2011	survey in Karachi
Pakistan	46.9	Shaikh 2003	survey in Rawalpindi and Islamabad
Pakistan	21	Kapadia et al 2009	survey in Karachi
Sri Lanka	5	Jayasuriya et al 2011	survey in western province
Prevalence of sexual intimate partner abuse in the 12 months prior to the survey			
India*	50	ICRW 2000b	multi-site survey
India	44	Santhya et al 2007	multi-site survey
India*	30.1	Koenig et al 2006	Male Re- productive Health Survey (MHRS) in Uttar Pradesh state
India	15	ICRW 2000a	multi-site survey
Nepal	17.4	Lamichhane et al 2011	survey in 4 districts
Prevalence of emotional/psychological intimate partner abuse, ever & in the 12 months prior to the survey			
Afghanistan	73.9	Nijhowne and Oates 2008	national survey
Bangladesh	79	Koenig et al 2003	survey in 2 villages
Bangladesh	65	Parvin et al. 2012	survey in Dhaka slums
Bhutan	54	RENEW 2007	survey in Thimpu
India	43.5	ICRW 2000a	multi-site survey
India	29	ICRW 2000a, 2000b	multi-site survey
Maldives*	29.2	Fulu 2007	national survey
Pakistan	83.6	Ali et al 2011	survey in Karachi
Pakistan	81.8	Ali et al 2011	survey in Karachi
Sri Lanka	19	Jayasuriya et al 2011	survey in western province

Prevalence of physical, sexual or emotional violence during pregnancy			
Bangladesh	17.7	Bates et al 2013	surveys in 6 villages
Bangladesh	12	Naved et al 2006	cross-sectional survey in 1 rural area
Bangladesh	10	Naved et al 2006	cross-sectional survey in 1 urban area
India	28.4	Khosla et al 2005	survey in Chandigarh town
India	12.9	Peedicayil et al 2004	multi-site survey
India	13 to 28	Varma et al 2007	review of studies
Maldives	6.3	Fulu 2007	national survey
Pakistan	23	Fikree et al 2006	survey in Karachi
Pakistan	15	Fikree and Bhatti 1999	survey in Karachi
* Responses given by husbands or (for Maldives) intimate partners			

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Country Gender Profiles

The Islamic Republic of Afghanistan

Population: 29.82 Million; Gender Inequality Index: 0.712

BACKGROUND

Women in Afghanistan have witnessed significant shifts in their status over time. Historically, there have been a number of attempts by previous governments to improve the role of women in society, including those of King Amanullah Khan, who sought to abolish the practice of *purdah* (the ritual seclusion of women) and implement the co-education of men and women. The attempted imposition of such progressive reforms by Khan contributed to his eventual exile; the result of a tribal uprising. Additionally, the later Prime Minister Mohammad Daoud also opposed the practice of *purdah* (World Bank, 2005).

For a decade following 1963, Afghanistan was governed by a constitutional monarchy, subsequently replaced by various Soviet-aligned governments. As the result of a continually weakening political situation, the Soviet Union began a military invasion in 1979, which resulted in a decade long conflict. In the wake of the collapse of the People's Democratic Party of Afghanistan in 1992, the Taliban rose to power in 1995, and implemented many highly oppressive restrictions on women, including full observance of *purdah* (World Bank, 2005). Under this regime, women were typically not allowed to attend educational institutions or to participate in the workforce. While the Taliban regime was later ousted by U.S. and coalition forces in 2001, women in Afghanistan continue to face significant restrictions on their mobility and social freedoms, thus hindering their access to education and employment opportunities.

HEALTH

As of 2011, the total fertility rate in Afghanistan was 5.4 births per woman. The nation's maternal mortality ratio is 460 deaths per 100,000 live births (2010), and the corresponding infant mortality rate is 103 deaths per 1,000 live births (2010). Such figures are indicative of the larger conflict situation present in the country, as well as the difficulty of accessing health care services, particularly in the country's vast rural regions.

EDUCATION

While the adult total literacy rate for Afghanistan has yet to be recently established, the ratio of girls to boys in primary and secondary education is 66% (2011). Although modest, such a figure marks significant gains from the Taliban era. Continued restrictions on women's mobility, presence in public spaces, and ongoing conflict are continual obstacles to accessing educational facilities.

WORK AND EMPLOYMENT

While the labor force participation rate for men is 80.3% (2011), the labor force participation rate of women is a meager 15.7% (2011), reflecting continued restrictions on the mobility of women, as well as traditional norms which confine women to domestic roles.

REPRESENTATION

Women are actively represented in 27.6% of the *Wolesi Jirga* (2012), the lower house of the Afghan parliament.

The People's Republic of Bangladesh

Population: 154.7 Million; Gender Inequality Index: 0.518

BACKGROUND

Following the partition of the former British Raj, Bangladesh initially emerged as East Pakistan, prior to gaining independence in 1971. As it is often the case during periods of war and conflict, during the Liberation War, women were disproportionately subject to sexual violence, as well as other atrocities and hardships. Following independence, the country subsequently faced large-scale famine in 1974, of which policy responses resulted in several positive outcomes for women. Among these, in an effort to increase food security, the national government invested in rural infrastructure- namely roads- which largely increased women's access to education and economic opportunities, as well as to health services (World Bank, 2008). During the 1970s, due to a pervasive fear of overpopulation, access to contraception was also greatly expanded, effectively decreasing the country's fertility rate (World Bank, 2008).

With the advent of the Multi-Fiber Trade Agreement in 1974, Bangladesh was able to vastly expand its presence in the global garment industry, providing an avenue for the economic empowerment of women, many of whom already possessed sewing skills (World Bank, 2008). Today, women continue to benefit from economic opportunities in the manufacturing sector, but often must contend with unsafe working environments.

HEALTH

In 2011, the total fertility rate was 2.2 births per woman, reflecting an increased use of contraception from the 1970's onward. Bangladesh's maternal mortality ratio is 240 deaths per 100,000 live births (2010), and the infant mortality rate is 38 deaths per 1,000 live births (2010). The maternal mortality rate is particularly high, as approximately 90% of women give birth within the home, with only 14% receiving assistance from a skilled birth attendant (World Bank, 2008).

EDUCATION

As of 2011, the adult total literacy rate in Bangladesh was 58%. Nationally, the adult literacy rate for men is 62% and 53% for women (2011). The ratio of girls to boys in primary and secondary education is 110% (2011), reflecting great strides in increasing access to education for women. Bangladesh's total sanitation campaign has contributed to improving education rates for women, as more schools now provide proper access to toilets (World Bank, 2008). With proper access to toilets, parents are more inclined to send girls to school, as socio-cultural norms regarding female modesty may be more easily maintained.

WORK AND EMPLOYMENT

The labor force participation rate for men was 84.3% in 2011, while the corresponding rate for women was 57.2%. While Bangladeshi women have increased access to revenue generating activities as a result of the proliferation of the textile industry, many women continue to fulfill duties in the domestic sphere, or work in agricultural or non-agricultural labor without receiving formal remuneration.

REPRESENTATION

As of 2012, women were represented in 19.7% of the parliament of Bangladesh.

The Kingdom of Bhutan

Population: 741,800; Gender Inequality Index: 0.464

BACKGROUND

Having historically existed as an independent nation, Zhabdrung Ngawang Namgyal facilitated the unification of Bhutan in the 17th century (UN CEDAW, 2003). Formerly a monarchy, the country transitioned to a multi-party democracy in 2008. Bhutan's largely Buddhist population resides predominantly in rural areas, where they largely engage in agricultural labor. The nation has typically afforded women a greater degree of equality than in other areas of the South Asia Region, and while great strides have been made in terms of development in Bhutan, several significant challenges persist. There exists a gender gap in tertiary education, unemployment amongst female youth, and a notable gender gap in employment quality for women (World Bank, 2013).

HEALTH

The total fertility rate was 2.3 births per woman in 2011, which may be linked to the use of modern contraception, which increased sharply from 28% in 2003, to 65% in 2010 (World Bank, 2013). For Bhutanese women, the maternal mortality ratio is 180 deaths per 100,000 live births (2010), and the infant mortality rate is 44 deaths per 1,000 live births (2010). The high maternal mortality ratio is attributed to the prevalence of poor infrastructure in the country's largely rugged geographical area (UN CEDAW, 2003).

EDUCATION

Although an estimate of the total adult literacy rate is currently unavailable, it is estimated that the total female literacy rate is half that of men (UN CEDAW, 2003). Such a statistic stands in contrast to the ratio of girls to boys in primary and secondary education (103%, as of 2012), which is inherently indicative of the nation's more gender equitable environment. The vast distance which must be traveled in order to access schools is often cited as a main cause for non-enrollment by parents in Bhutan (UN CEDAW, 2003).

WORK AND EMPLOYMENT

The gap between labor force participation rates for Bhutanese men and women is strikingly minimal: 75.6% for men, and 65.8% for women (2011). The majority of Bhutanese women are engaged in the agricultural sector (UN CEDAW, 2003). However, while there is a perceived wider degree of equality in the division of labor in rural Bhutan, the status of urban women seems roughly to mirror that observed in other parts of the South Asia Region (UN CEDAW, 2003).

REPRESENTATION

As of 2012, 13.9% of seats in Bhutanese national parliament were held by women.

The Republic of India

Population: 1.2 Billion; Gender Inequality Index: 0.610

BACKGROUND

Prior to acquiring independence in 1947, much of the nation was subject to a significant degree of colonial intervention, by British, Portuguese and French powers. Specifically within the context of the British Raj, a number of contentious debates occurred over the status of women in society. Child marriage was a particularly contentious issue, and the Child Marriage Restraint Act (1929) was seen as an incursion on the private matters of the home and family, which were typically thought to be free of colonial regulation. Other discourses and debates circulated regarding the practice of *purdah*, or the ritual seclusion of women, as well as *sati*, the self-immolation of widows.

Following the partition of the former British Raj, India was granted independence and became a republic in 1950, with the ratification of the Indian Constitution. In recent decades, significant strides have been made towards improving the overall condition of women, including their rights as guaranteed under the rule of law, as well as increased political representation. In spite of such progress, significant issues exist. Numerous socio-cultural norms and customs, including the giving of dowry, continue to impede upon the well-being of women.

HEALTH

India's total fertility rate was 2.5 births per woman as of 2011. The maternal mortality ratio is 200 deaths per 100,000 live births (2010), and the infant mortality rate corresponds to 48 deaths per 1,000 live births (2010). Poor access to proper water supply and sanitation services, as well as high rates of malnutrition are contributing factors to such outcomes.

EDUCATION

The ratio of girls to boys in primary and secondary education is 98% (2011), implying increased equality in the area of education. In spite of such a figure, in 2001, the female literacy rate was 53.7%, as opposed to 75.3% for males, which is reflected in the national literacy rate of 64.8% (GOI, n.d.). Such figures indicate persistent gaps in access to education (GOI, n.d.).

WORK AND EMPLOYMENT

As of 2011, the labor force participation rate for men was 80.7% and 29.0% for women. The latter figure is at least partially explained by the fact that Indian women are typically more represented in the informal sector, where they often work without proper remuneration.

REPRESENTATION

Women are currently represented in 10.9% of parliament (2012). India has undertaken a number of reforms in recent years, aimed at increasing the representation of women in governance, including the 73rd Amendment Act of 1993, which reserved seats in panchayati raj institutions for women (World Bank, 2013). The Government of India has also increased the percentage of reserved seats for women in local governments and state assemblies to 50% (World Bank, 2013).

The Republic of Maldives

Population: 300,000; Gender Inequality Index: 0.357

BACKGROUND

Formerly a British protectorate, Maldives became a republic in 1968, and was successively governed by President Maumoon Abdul Gayoom for six terms before a number of recent reforms were implemented, including the legalization of political parties (CIA, 2013). Women in the Maldives have typically served as caretakers of children and the home, but they also experience high degrees of household leadership, heading nearly half of all households in the country (ADB, 2007). Such a phenomenon results from the fact that men often migrate for work, as well as due to widowhood and divorce (ADB, 2007). The social environment of Maldives is particularly unique in South Asia, as divorce is generally considered acceptable (ADB, 2001).

The legal system of Maldives, based on a combination of English common law, as well as *Sharia* law of the *Hanafi* school, has garnered significant attention from the international community, as harsh punishments, including public flogging, are often prescribed to women for committing crimes related to *zina*, or extra-marital sexual activity.

HEALTH

As of 2011, the total fertility rate was 2.3 births per woman. The maternal mortality ratio stands at 60 deaths per 100,000 live births (2010), with a corresponding infant mortality rate of 14 deaths per 1,000 births (2010). Although it is indicated that there is universal access to health services in Maldives, access to modern contraception, malnutrition and affordable transportation to atoll referral hospitals and medical facilities in the capital are outstanding issues which impact health outcomes for women and girls (ADB, 2007).

EDUCATION

The total adult literacy rate for Maldives has yet to be recently established. As of 2012, the ratio of girls to boys in primary and secondary education was 97%. Maldivian women are typically not allowed to live away from home, per cultural expectations; hence they are often restricted from studying abroad, impacting the number of women obtaining tertiary education (ADB, 2007).

WORK AND EMPLOYMENT

As of 2011, the labor force participation rate for men was 76.8% and 55.7% for women. Between 1978 and 1995, the female employment rate declined from 60% to 21%, reflecting the rapid mechanization of the fishing industry, which began in the 1970s (ADB, 2007). This process largely benefited men, but displaced women from their common roles in drying, processing and marketing excess fish and fish products (ADB, 2007).

REPRESENTATION

As of 2012, women are represented in 6.5% of the *People's Majlis* (parliament). In spite of numerous reforms, women continue to be under-represented in local and national governments (ADB, 2007).

The Federal Democratic Republic of Nepal

Population: 27.47 Million; Gender Inequality Index: 0.485

BACKGROUND

Historically a monarchy, the country adopted a democratic system of governance (within the framework of a constitutional monarchy) in 1990, and following a decade long civil war which began in 1996, the monarchy was subsequently abolished in 2008 (CIA, 2013). Changing economic trends, as well as conflict, have contributed to an ongoing transformation of the role of women in society. It was during the

decade long Nepali civil war that women and girls were not only disproportionately impacted, but also assumed new leadership roles- both in the household and within the community- as men often migrated for military service (ADB, 2010). Today, as men continue to migrate to different areas of the country in search of economic opportunities, women are increasingly becoming the chief maintainers of farms and households (Aiken, 2003).

HEALTH

As of 2011, the total fertility rate in Nepal was 2.5 births per woman (2011). The maternal mortality ratio is 170 deaths per 100,000 live births (2010), and the infant mortality rate stands at 41 deaths per 1,000 live births (2010). While access to proper health care for women is typically hindered by poor infrastructure, women in Nepal also face sociocultural limitations which prevent them from addressing specific reproductive health issues, including uterine prolapse (ADB, 2010).

EDUCATION

The adult total literacy rate in Nepal is estimated at 57% (2011), 71% for adult males (2011), and 47% for adult females (2011). The ratio of girls to boys in primary and secondary education is 106% (2012). Despite improvements in the education sector, significant disparities exist amongst castes, ethnic groups and regions (ADB, 2010). Challenges with regard to accessing education in Nepal include geographic distances, poor infrastructure, improperly trained teachers, socio-cultural norms which prohibit attendance, and linguistic barriers (ADB, 2010).

WORK AND EMPLOYMENT

The men's labor force participation rate in Nepal is 87.6%, with a comparable figure for women: 80.4% (2011). Nepal's female labor force participation rate is rather high in comparison to other parts of South Asia, owing to the fact the wide spread nature of subsistence farming in the country, male migration, as well as government efforts to recognize work which is done by women (ADB, 2010).

REPRESENTATION

As of 2012, women are represented in approximately a third of parliament (33.2%). A number of policy actions taken by the Government of Nepal in 2007 have sought to increase the number of women in political institutions and within the civil service (ADB, 2010).

The Islamic Republic of Pakistan

Population: 179.2 Million; Gender Inequality Index: 0.567

BACKGROUND

As a constituent component of the former British Raj, as it was the case in India, Pakistan was a site of contentious debate regarding the status of women in society. Following the partition of the British Raj,

Pakistan gained independence as an Islamic republic in 1947, and was initially comprised of East and West Pakistan. East Pakistan later gained independence as the People's Republic of Bangladesh in 1971. Within the context of the new nation state of Pakistan, numerous legal reforms were implemented to the benefit of the *Sunni* Muslim majority, although the rights of individuals drawing from minority religious groups were largely unimproved. In 1978, General Muhammad Zia-ul-Haq rose to power as the sixth President of Pakistan, and during his eleven years of leadership, numerous political and legal measures proved significantly harmful to women. Among such measures, the Hudood Ordinances (1979) enabled prosecution for *zina* crimes.

Women in Pakistan continue to face harmful socio-cultural norms, which often relegate their duties to the sphere of the home, and limit their mobility in public. Acts of violence committed in the name of honor are also pervasive. In light of the increasing presence of Islamic militant groups, particularly in regions along the nation's shared border with Afghanistan, access to education for women, as well as to the public sphere more broadly, is becoming increasingly constrained.

HEALTH

The total fertility rate in Pakistan was 3.3 births per woman in 2011. The maternal mortality ratio has been established at 260 deaths per 100,000 live births (2010), and the infant mortality rate is 70 deaths per 1,000 live births (2010). Women's access to proper health care and services is significantly constrained by longstanding sociocultural constraints (ADB, 2008).

EDUCATION

While the total adult literacy rate in Pakistan is 55% (2009), literacy for adult males is 69% (2009), and 40% for adult women (2009). The ratio of girls to boys in primary and secondary education is 82% (2012), reflecting a persistent education gap. While a number of structural deficiencies exist, such as a lack of schools for girls in rural areas, access to education for girls is also hindered by the fact that families are hesitant to invest in their daughters' education due to anticipated low returns (ADB, 2008). Education is also viewed as diminishing the amount of time available for girls to fulfill household responsibilities (ADB, 2008).

WORK AND EMPLOYMENT

In Pakistan, the labor force participation rate for men is 83.3% and 22.7% for women (2011). While women are typically represented in subsistence and commercial agricultural production, they are less represented in other sectors, due to low levels of educational attainment, as well as discrimination in the labor market, derived from traditional gender roles and stereotypes (ADB, 2008).

REPRESENTATION

Pakistani women are represented in 21.1% of parliament (2012). In recent years, the Government of Pakistan has made significant strides towards increasing the representation of women in government bodies, including the implementation of the Local Government Ordinance of 2001, which reserves 33%

of seats for women at the local government level, in addition to those women whom are directly elected (ADB, 2008). The later Legal Framework Order (2002) also reserves seats for women in 17% of national and provincial assemblies (ADB, 2008).

The Democratic Socialist Republic of Sri Lanka

Population: 20.33 Million; Gender Inequality Index: 0.402

BACKGROUND

Sri Lanka gained independence in 1948, ending successive waves of colonial intervention by the Portuguese, Dutch, and lastly the British- who united the country in 1815 as Ceylon (CIA, 2013). From 1983 to 2009, Sri Lanka was engulfed in civil conflict between the Sinhalese majority and Tamil separatist groups- namely the Liberation Tigers of Tamil Eelam (LTTE), for which it continues to rebuild and reconcile from. It was within this context that women not only disproportionately experienced the burdens war, including innumerable instances of sexual abuse and violence, but also where they took on new responsibilities as men engaged in military activities. The tsunami which struck the island nation in 2004 further exacerbated the pre-existing displacement of people due to the conflict, and had detrimental effects on the livelihoods of women.

Despite recent conflict and instability, women in Sri Lanka enjoy a more gender-progressive environment in comparison to the wider South Asia Region. Women benefit from increasing economic empowerment, greater degrees of access to education and healthcare, as well as low incidence of various forms of violence, such as dowry deaths, feticide, infanticide, and the general neglect of girls (ADB, 2008).

HEALTH

As of 2011, the total fertility rate was 2.3 births per woman. The maternal mortality ratio is 35 deaths per 100,000 live births (2010), and the infant mortality rate is 14 deaths per 1,000 live births (2010). Healthcare is widely available to Sri Lankan women, including antenatal and postnatal care (ADB, 2008). In spite of this, health programs in Sri Lanka have been cited for traditionally focusing on the wellbeing of mothers and children, ignoring other facets of the health of women and girls, including adolescent and occupational health, geriatric care, mental health, and the effects of gender based violence (ADB, 2008).

EDUCATION

The adult total literacy rate for Sri Lanka is 91% (2010). Total adult literacy rates for men and women are 93% and 90%, respectively (2010). The ratio of girls to boys in primary and secondary education is 101% (2011). Education policy in Sri Lanka has made significant strides in recent decades towards reducing gender inequality, and in 1998, compulsory education was mandated for children between the ages of 5 and 14 years (ADB, 2008). Unfortunately, poor implementation has meant that universal education has yet to be fully realized (ADB, 2008).

WORK AND EMPLOYMENT

The labor force participation rate for men in Sri Lanka is 76.3% (2011), with a much lower participation rate for women, 34.7% (2011). Women are becoming increasingly engaged in the garment industry and in overseas domestic labor, as a result of low productivity and incomes in the agricultural sector (ADB, 2008).

REPRESENTATION

Sri Lankan women are currently represented in 5.8% of parliament (2012). As described by the Asian Development Bank in 2008, studies have indicated that four major factors serve as constraints to the active participation of Sri Lankan women in politics, as well as to their broader entry into the political sphere: the gendered norm of male leadership; time constraints on women who already combine jobs, domestic tasks, and child care; a lack of money; and the prevailing climate of political violence (ADB, 2008, Pg. 7).

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Status of Laws on Particular Forms of Violence against Women and Girls in Each South Asian Country

State-Sanctioned Legal Protections for VAW Across South Asia								
	Afghanistan	Bangladesh	Bhutan	India	Maldives	Nepal	Pakistan	Sri Lanka
Female Infanticide	Penal Code	Penal Code	Penal Code	Penal Code	Penal Code	Civil Code	Penal Code	Penal Code
Excess Female Child Mortality	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Child Abuse	Civil Code (1977); Juvenile Code (2005)	Penal Code; Suppression of Violence against Women and Children Act (2000, as amended, 2003); Children Act (2013); Human Trafficking Deterrence and Suppression Act (2012); Pornography Control Act (2012)	Penal Code, Criminal Code	Protection of Children from Sexual Offenses Act (2012), Bonded Labour System (Abolition) Act (1976); Immoral Traffic Prevention Act (1986); Indecent Representation of Women (Prohibition) Act (1986); the Information Technology Act (2000); the Juvenile Justice (Care and Protection of Children) Act (2000) [revised by the Juvenile Justice (Care and Protection of Children) Amendment Act (2006)]; The Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act (2009); Penal Code	Penal Code; Child Sex Abuse Act (2009)	Civil Code; Children's Act (1991); Kamaiya Labor (Prohibition Act) (2002); Child Labor Regulation and Control Act (2000)	Suppression of Prostitution Ordinance (1961); Offence of Zina (Enforcement of Hudood) Ordinance (1979); Penal Code	Vagrants Ordinance (1842); Brothels Ordinance (1889); Penal Code; Tsunami Special Provision Act (2005); Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children Act (No. 47) (1956)

Child Marriage	Elimination of Violence Against Women (EVAW) Law (2009); Civil Code (1977); Shiite Personal Status Law, Amended (2009)	Child Marriage Restraint Act (1929); Dissolution of Muslim Marriages Act (1939);	Marriage Act of Bhutan, 1980 (Amended by Marriage Amendment Act of 1996)	Child Marriage Restraint Act (1929); Prohibition of Child Marriage Act (2006); Hindu Marriage Act (1955); Parsi Marriage and Divorce Act (1936); Dissolution of Muslim Marriages Act (1939)	Law on the Protection of the Rights of the Child (1991)	Civil Code	Child Marriage Restraint Act (1929); The Dissolution of Muslim Marriages Act (1939); Christian Marriage Act (1872)	Penal Code; Kandyan Marriage and Divorce Act (1952); Marriage Registration Ordinance (1907); Muslim Marriages and Divorce Act (1951); Age of Majority Ordinance (1865, amended 1989);
Trafficking	Law Countering Abduction and Human Trafficking (2008)	Suppression of Violence Against Women and Children Act, (2000 as amended, 2003); Human Trafficking Deterrence and Suppression Act (2012)	Penal Code; Child Care and Protection Act of 2011	Immoral Traffic Prevention Act (1986)	Anti-Human Trafficking Act (2013)	Civil Code; Human Trafficking and Transportation (Control) Act (2007); Foreign Employment Act (1985); Labor Act (1991)	Prevention and Control of Human Trafficking Ordinance (2002); the Pakistan Suppression of Prostitution Ordinance (1961); Prevention of Anti-Women Practices (Criminal Law Amendment) Act 2011	Penal Code; Kandyan Law; General Law; Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children Act (2003); Convention on Preventing and Combating Trafficking in Women and Children for Prostitution Act (2005)
Honor Crimes	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	Criminal Law Amendment Act (2004)	n/a

Non-partner Sexual Violence	Elimination of Violence Against Women (EVAW) Law (2009)	Penal Code; Suppression of Violence Against Women and Children Act (2000, as amended 2003); Domestic Violence (Prevention and Protection) Act (2010)	Penal Code (amended in 2004)	Penal Code; Criminal Law Amendment Act (2013)	Penal Code	Civil Code	Penal Code	Penal Code
Sexual Harassment	n/a	Suppression of Violence Against Women and Children Act (2000, as amended 2003)	Labor and Employment Act (2007)	Sexual Harassment of Women at Workplace (Prevention Prohibition and Redressal) Act (2013)	n/a	Gender Equality Act (2006); Civil Code	Protection Against Harassment of Women at the Workplace Act (2010); Penal Code	Penal Code
Custodial Violence	n/a	Penal Code; Code of Criminal Procedure; Suppression of Violence Against Women and Children Act (2000, as amended 2003); Torture and Custodial Death (Prohibition) Act, 2013	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	Penal Code *Specific provisions on custodial rape.

Intimate Partner Violence	Elimination of Violence Against Women (EVAW) Law (2009)	Domestic Violence (Prevention and Protection) Act (2010)	Domestic Violence Prevention Bill (2013)	Protection of Women from Domestic Violence Act (2005)	Domestic Violence Act (2012)	Domestic Violence (Crime & Punishment Act) (2009)	(Sindh) Domestic Violence (Prevention and Protection) Act (2013) *Only applicable to Sindh province; (Baluchistan) Domestic Violence (Prevention and Protection) Bill (2014) *Only applicable to Baluchistan province.	Prevention of Domestic Violence Act (2005); Penal Code
Maltreatment of widows/Divorced	Civil Code (1977)	Hindu Married Women's Right to Separate Residence and Maintenance Act (1946); Married Women's Property Act (1874); Domestic Violence (Prevention and Protection) Act (2010)	Marriage Act of Bhutan, 1980 (Amended by Marriage Amendment Act of 1996)	Divorce Act of 1869 (amended by Divorce Amendment Act, 2001); Muslim Women (Protection of Rights on Divorce) Act (1986); Hindu Marriage Act (1955); Hindu Adoption and Maintenance Act (1956); Special Marriage Act (1954); Commission of Sati Prevention Act (1987)	Family Act (2000)	Civil Code	Dissolution of Muslim Marriages Act (1939); Christian Divorce Act (1869); Prevention of Anti-Women Practices (Criminal Law Amendment) Act (2011)	Muslim Marriage and Divorce Act (1951); Maintenance Act, No. 37 (1999)
Elderly Abuse	n/a	n/a	n/a	Maintenance and Welfare of Parents and Senior Citizens Act (2007)	n/a	Senior Citizens Act (2006)	n/a	Protection of the Rights of the Elders Act (No. 9 of 2000); Maintenance Act, No. 37 (1999)

Legal Systems in South Asian Countries

The Islamic Republic of Afghanistan

The Islamic Republic of Afghanistan is an extremely diverse nation-state within South Asia, and has endured successive waves of changing governance, war and conflict over the past several decades. Rule of law in Afghanistan is certainly reflective of this recent history, having been previously described by the United States Institute for Peace as "...a patchwork of differing and overlapping laws, elements of different types of legal systems, and an incoherent collection of law enforcement and military structures (USIP, 2004, Pg. 1)." Three distinct, but overlapping sources of law are prevalent in Afghanistan: state-sanctioned law, *Sharia* (Islamic law), and customary law.

STATE-SANCTIONED LAW

Following the successive removal of the Taliban government in 2001, the Afghan Constitution (2004) was ratified, which inherently stipulates gender equality for all citizens. The Islamic Republic of Afghanistan is also a signatory party to CEDAW, which was signed under previous governance, on August 14, 1980, without reservations. The Civil Code of 1977 governs matters related to divorce and child custody, and allows for men to easily divorce women (HRW, 2012). The Penal Code of 1976, while applicable to all citizens, is particularly problematic in that Articles 426 and 427 cover matters related to '*zina*' crimes. *Zina*, referring to adultery, or more broadly, extramarital sexual activity, is a punishable offense under the Penal Code. *Zina* crimes serve as a significant impeding factor for women seeking justice in light of sexual violence (HRW, 2012). The Juvenile Code (2005) specifically aims to provide protections for children, although it does not contain any articles regarding sexual abuse, exploitation or forced marriage (UNICEF, 2008).

While current issues exist in Afghan law, as described with regard to the Civil and Penal Codes, the Elimination of Violence Against Women (EVAW) Law (2009) was a monumental step, as it prescribes criminal penalties for a plethora of crimes against women, including child and forced marriages, as well as domestic violence. Unfortunately, the law is inadequately enforced (HRW, 2013). Standing in sharp contrast to the gains envisioned under EVAW, the Shiite Personal Status Law (2009) contains a number of provisions which are harmful to women, including stipulations which allow husbands to end financial support to wives who do not fulfill sexual "duties," and provides child custody to fathers (International Crisis Group, 2013). Matters regarding human trafficking are chiefly governed by the Law Countering Abduction and Human Trafficking (2008).

SHARIA LAW

Sharia law, of the *Hanafi* school, is generally applicable to the country's *Sunni* Muslim majority, as well as the Shia minority, and may be deferred to in civil courts and within customary law mechanisms. Article 130 of the Afghan Constitution (2004) officially defers to *Hanafi* jurisprudence when no law can

be found which is applicable to a matter in court. Additionally Article 131 of the constitution stipulates that for personal matters, when no applicable law may be found, *Shia* law and jurisprudence may be applied. It must also be noted that the aforementioned Civil Code of 1977 is understood to have effectively codified *Hanafi* law.

CUSTOMARY LAW

Outside of urban spaces in Afghanistan, disputes (including those related to land, property, family and crime) are regularly settled through local councils, known in Pashto as *jirga*, or in Dari, *shura* (World Bank, 2005). In Pashtun, as well as in many other communities in Afghanistan, justice is based on a restorative model, rather than a retributive model as utilized in Western legal models (ILF, 2004). Within the context of these customary systems, due to long standing patriarchal values which contribute to the low status of women and their commodification, women may be exchanged amongst families to settle outlying disputes (World Bank, 2005). These practices are often categorized respectively as *baad* (the giving of a girl to another family) and *baadal* (intermarriage of daughters between two families) (HRW, 2012).

ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

Women victims of violence in Afghanistan often do not bring forward their cases, due to “*cultural restraints social norms and taboos, customary and religious beliefs relegating women to subordinate position, fear of social stigma, exclusion and, at times, even threat to life* (UNAMA, 2012, Pg. 24).” Assuming women have access to state judicial mechanisms; access to justice for women in Afghanistan is also significantly hindered by (1) the politicization and gender-bias of the judiciary, (2) the weakness of the formal legal system, and (3) a lack of clarity surrounding applicable law (Choudhury, 2008). Compounding such issues, women are strongly underrepresented in the Afghan judiciary system (Choudhury, 2008).

The Government of Afghanistan maintains a number of institutions to assist women facing violence, including public prosecutors, Family Response Units with the Afghan National Police, the Afghan Independent Human Rights Commission, and the Department of Women’s Affairs. UNAMA (2012) has indicated that comprehensive official statistics on the number of reported and registered incidents and cases of VAW were not available, although UNAMA/OHCHR recorded 1,211 complaints of VAW which were registered with police, in the calendar year of March 21, 2010 to March 20, 2011 (UNAMA/OHCHR, 2011).

The People’s Republic of Bangladesh

Bangladeshi women are subject to significant inequalities as a result of the current legal system. Following the partition of British India and formation of Pakistan in 1947, Bangladesh inherited a colonial legal framework, which features a personal law system, affording different rights to individuals based on their religious affiliation. Numerous recent legal provisions seek to strengthen the position of women under formal law. Outside of formal judiciary systems, many disputes are handled through traditional mechanisms of dispute resolution (*shalish*).

Those social-cultural norms which are generally cross-cutting across the South Asia region are applicable in Bangladesh, particularly themes of personal and familial honor. As a requirement under Muslim law, *Mahr* is commonly exchanged as a part of marriage practice in Bangladesh, which carries additional significance for women, as it may serve as a form of financial protection for women following divorce or widowhood.

STATE-SANCTIONED LAW

Women in Bangladesh enjoy protections for gender equality under the Constitution of 1972, as well as under CEDAW, which was signed with a reservation, stating that the government is not bound to implement provisions which conflict with religious law: "*The Government of the People's Republic of Bangladesh does not consider as binding upon itself the provisions of article 2, [... and ...] 16 (1) (c) as they conflict with Sharia law based on Holy Quran and Sunna (UN, 2013).*" While the Penal Code, 1860 (amended to Penal Code [Amendment] Act, 2004) contains provisions for rape (Section 375), it is particularly problematic in that it provides an exception for marital rape: "sexual intercourse by a man with his own wife, the wife not being under thirteen years of age, is not rape."

Bangladesh observes a system of personal laws which regulate marriage, divorce, and various aspects of family law. Specific provisions, originally codified under British India, exist for Hindus, Christians and Muslims. With specific regard to Hindu Personal Law, most law is uncodified, and very little reform has been implemented (standing in stark contrast to Muslim Personal Law, applicable to the majority of citizens) (HRW, 2012). While Hindu women cannot officially file for divorce under law, under the Hindu Married Women's Right to Separate Residence and Maintenance Act of 1946 they may be entitled to separate residence and maintenance (HRW, 2012). The more recent Hindu Marriage Registration Bill, 2012 officially allows for the registration of Hindu marriages, thereby granting additional protections under law.

For Christian citizens, the Christian Marriage Act of 1872 chiefly governs matters related to marriage, including registration. Under the Divorce Act of 1869, Christians may file for divorce, primarily based upon the grounds of adultery: men can divorce their wife based on adultery, and women may divorce their spouse based on adultery as well as another act, such as incest, rape or cruelty (HRW, 2012). The Married Women's Property Act (1874) defines a woman's earnings as being separate from matrimonial property (Pereira, 2002 Pg. 51). Additionally the act requires men to provide alimony to their separated or divorced wife if she is deemed "chaste" (Pereira 2002 Pg. 51).

For the majority of Bangladeshis, Muslim Personal Law applies. Similar to other countries in the region which have a *Sunni* majority, much of the law has effectively codified *Sharia* drawn from the *Hanafi* school. The Muslim Family Laws Ordinance (1961) places stipulations on the practice of polygamy, and prescribes procedure for the execution of divorce (HRW, 2011; BLAST, 2009). In the area of marriage and divorce, several additional laws are applicable. The Dissolution of Muslim Marriages Act (1939) enables women to seek divorce through courts (HRW, 2011). The Muslim Marriages and Divorces (Registration) Act of 1974 requires marriages and divorces to be registered.

A number of other key acts apply to all citizens, regardless of religious affiliation, which aim to protect the rights and livelihoods of women and girls:

- *Child Marriage Restraint Act, 1929*: Sets minimum age of marriage to 21 for men, and 18 for women.
- *Dowry Prohibition Act, 1980*: Prohibits the practice of dowry.
- *Suppression of Violence Against Women and Children Act 2000 (as amended, 2003)*: Includes severe punishments for acts of violence against women (the death penalty is prescribed for incidents of dowry-related violence), which are critiqued as being so severe that they prevent women from filing cases, or inversely, women are incentivized to file wrongful suits (Ali, 2009). The act was amended in 2003 to include provisions regarding sexual abuse and dowry, amongst other forms of violence (Ali, 2009).
- *Acid Control Act 2002; Acid Crime Prevention Acts 2002*: Restricts the sale of acid, prescribes punishments for offenders, and aid for victims.
- *Domestic Violence (Prevention and Protection) Act, 2010*: Includes a holistic definition of domestic violence, including economic aspects (HRW, 2011).
- *Human Trafficking Deterrence and Suppression Act, 2012*: Supersedes components of the Women and Children Repression Prevention (Amendment) Act 2000 related to trafficking for commercial sexual exploitation or involuntary servitude (Department of State, 2012). Expressly prohibits all forms of human trafficking and prescribes punishments (Department of State, 2012).
- *Pornography Control Act, 2012*: Restricts the production and distribution of pornographic materials. Prescribes specific punishments for the possession and production of child pornography.
- *Children Act, 2013*: Legally defines childhood as being under the age of 18, and provides protections for children from various forms of labor exploitation (ILO, 2013).
- *Torture and Custodial Death (Prohibition) Act, 2013*: Prohibits the torture of detainees by custodial staff.

INFORMAL JUSTICE

Informal village-based justice systems, known as *shalish*, are prevalent in Bangladesh. *Shalish* are advantageous in that they are more easily accessible than formal justice mechanisms, but disadvantage women in that they are typically comprised of male elders, and similar to other informal justice mechanisms, lack government oversight and codified standards (HRW, 2012). It has been noted that women often utilize the *shalish* to settle disputes regarding *mahr*, or maintenance payments (HRW, 2012). Overall, many facets of VAW are handled through the *shalish* system, making it increasingly difficult to monitor enforcement (BLAST, 2009).

ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

Limited data on officially recorded crimes of VAW is available from the Bangladesh Police, although it is not particularly descriptive.¹

The Kingdom of Bhutan

The Kingdom of Bhutan's legal system has been progressively developed since the 1600s, and is heavily based upon traditional Buddhist principles. Overall, the status of women is outwardly perceived as being more progressive than other countries in South Asia, and more recent general acts of law serve to continue to improve the status of women.

While there is a perceived wider degree of equality in the division of labor in rural Bhutan, the status of urban women seems roughly to mirror that observed in other parts of the South Asia region (CEDAW, 2003). With regard to inheritance, land is most often transferred in a matrilineal fashion, particularly in western and central Bhutan, and amongst some ethnic groups in the eastern part of the country (CEDAW, 2003). Inversely, land is observed to be transferred in a patrilineal fashion in the southern, as well as various eastern regions of the country (CEDAW, 2003). Unlike in many parts of the region, dowry is not customary in Bhutan (U.S. Dept. of State, 2010).

STATE-SANCTIONED LAW

Women are provided with key protections under state sanctioned law, and gender equality is enshrined in Provision OM of *Thimzhung Chhenpo* (the Supreme Laws of Bhutan) and Section 3 of the Civil and Criminal Procedure Code, 2001. Bhutan has also signed CEDAW, without reservations.

A number of key legislative acts over the last few decades have sought to improve the status of women. The Marriage Act of Bhutan, 1980 covers marriage, separation, adultery, divorce and child custody (CEDAW, 2003). The act also protects an individual's right to select their own partner, and per the Marriage Amendment Act of 1996, sets the minimum age of marriage to 18 for both men and women (CEDAW, 2003). The Rape Act (1996) amends sections of the Marriage Act of Bhutan (1980) relating to rape, defining the offense as "sexual intercourse with a person under any of the following circumstances: without his/her consent; use of any force; or with his/her consent when the consent is obtained by putting him/her in fear of death or of hurt (Ba 2.1.1)," and prescribes punishment for the offender, as well as compensation for victims (CEDAW, 2003).

The Child Care and Protection Act (2011) provides protections for children from sexual exploitation, and defines the legal age of consent as 16 years for boys and girls (U.S. Dept. of State, 2013). Prior to 1985, women who married non-Bhutanese nationals were not able to bestow citizenship upon their children. The Bhutan Citizenship Act (1985) amends the previous matter, and provides men and women the equal right to "acquire, change or retain their nationality (CEDAW, 2003)."

¹ See publicly available data from the Bangladesh Police: 'Comparative Crime Statistics, 2002-2012,' <http://www.police.gov.bd/Crime-Statistics-comparative.php?id=208>.

Regarding inheritance, the Inheritance Act (1980) ensures equality for men and women to inherit property; the Land Act of 1979 enables land to be registered in the name of women and prevents a spouse from selling land without ownership, while the Loan Act of 1981 enables women to obtain loans and mortgages (not including minors) (CEDAW, 2002).

Additionally, the Labor Employment Act (2007) addresses sexual harassment in the workplace (U.S. Dept. of State, 2010). The recent Domestic Violence Prevention Bill (2013) defines domestic abuse as "...any unlawful act, omission or behavior which results in physical, sexual, emotional, verbal, psychological or economic abuse," prescribes procedures for managing instances of domestic violence, and stipulates that a Women and Child Protection Unit/desk must be maintained at all police stations (Bhutan, 2013). These desks must be staffed by at least one police staff with expertise in the area of domestic violence (Bhutan, 2013).

ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

Within the area of law enforcement, the Police Act (1980) affirms the recruitment of women in the police forces, and the Prison Act (1982) provides protections for, and provisions with regard to the treatment of women and girls when imprisoned (CEDAW, 2003). Official crime statistics on violence against women are available from the National Statistics Bureau of Bhutan.²

The Republic of India

As a result of British colonialism, India possesses an inherited system of Personal Laws. Protections for women are specifically provided under the Penal Code, as well as under numerous other special acts. Due to recent high profile incidents, violence against women has been brought to the forefront of discussion and debate within Indian society and the judiciary system. Owing to the vast level of diversity present in India, there are observable variations in socio-cultural norms, such as the perceived presence of matrilineal culture in South India (Kerala and Karnataka) and the Northeastern States. Many contextual themes are cross-cutting throughout the country, such as understandings of personal, familial, and community honor.

STATE-SANCTIONED LAW

The Constitution of India came into effect on January 26, 1950, and confirms equality for all citizens, regardless of gender. India has ratified the CEDAW convention, although it maintains several declarations, as well as a reservation.³ Most notably, the Government of India holds the position that it is not practical to mandate the compulsory registration of marriages in such a vast country, which features

² Please see the Bhutan Statistical Yearbook (2012): <http://www.nsb.gov.bt/publication/files/pub10pp3748yo.pdf>

³ India holds the following declarations pertaining to CEDAW: "i) With regard to articles 5 (a) and 16 (1) of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women, the Government of the Republic of India declares that it shall abide by and ensure these provisions in conformity with its policy of non-interference in the personal affairs of any Community without its initiative and consent." ii) With regard to article 16 (2) of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women, the Government of the Republic of India declares that though in principle it fully supports the principle of compulsory registration of marriages, it is not practical in a vast country like India with its variety of customs, religions and level of literacy (UN, 2013)." Additionally, India holds one reservation: "With regard to article 29 of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women, the Government of the Republic of India declares that it does not consider itself bound by paragraph 1 of this article (UN, 2013)."

significant diversity of customs and religions, as well as varying degrees of literacy amongst the population.⁴ The Indian Penal Code of 1860 covers most forms of violence against women, although Section 375 inherently excludes marital rape from the penal code.⁵ As previously indicated, a system of personal law, covering most matters of family law, is maintained for Indian citizens. As such, separate legal protections exist for Hindu, Christian, and Muslim citizens.

For Christians, matters pertaining to marriage and divorce are generally covered by the Indian Christian Marriage Act (1872) and the Divorce Act (1869). Later amendments to the Divorce Act, via the Divorce Amendment Act (2001) remove some of the discriminatory provisions which increase the difficulty for Christian women to obtain a divorce.

Per the Muslim Personal Law (Shariat) Application Act (1937), *Sharia* law of the *Hanafi* school is applicable to Muslim citizens. The Dissolution of Muslim Marriages Act (1939) stipulates the requirements for women to seek divorce, and the Muslim Women (Protection of Rights on Divorce) Act (1986) dictates that a husband is only obliged to return *mahr*, and provide maintenance during the period of *iddat* (Cossman and Kapur, 1993). As such, under Muslim Personal law, women are not guaranteed maintenance after this period.

A plethora acts govern matters of family law for India's Hindu majority, as well as Buddhists, Jains and Sikhs, who also fall under the purview of Hindu Personal Law. The Hindu Marriage Act (1955) provides grounds for divorce, and the Hindu Adoption and Maintenance Act (1956), later amended by the Personal Laws (Amendment) Act of 2010, grants married women equal rights of adoption (UNFPA, 2013). The law also provides grounds on which women may seek maintenance, and provides guidelines for determining the appropriate amount of maintenance. The Hindu Succession Act (1956) formalized procedures for inheritance and ensured a right to inheritance for women, but did not provide them with coparcener⁶ status (Deininger et. al 2010). The law has been subsequently amended in a number of states to ensure that daughters receive coparcener status (Deininger et. al 2010).

Outside of the sphere of personal law, numerous other key acts apply to all citizens, regardless of religious affiliation, which aim to protect the rights and livelihoods of women:

- *The Child Marriage Restraint Act, 1929*: Sets the minimum age of marriage to 21 for men, and 18 for women.
- *The Special Marriage Act, 1954*: Regulates marriages (and the registration thereof), divorces, and maintenance taking place outside the sphere of personal law.
- *Immoral Traffic (Prevention) Act, 1956*: Main legislative piece for addressing human trafficking, although it focuses on the trafficking of women and girls with regard to prostitution 'as an organized means of living (NHRC).'
- *Dowry Prohibition Act, 1961*: Effectively prohibits the practice of dowry.
- *Indecent Representation of Women (Prohibition) Act, 1986*: Prohibits the indecent representation of women "through advertisements or in publications, writings, paintings, figures or in any other manner and for matters connected therewith or incidental thereto."
- *Commission of Sati Prevention Act, 1987*: The law serves to prohibit the act of sati, or the ritual self-immolation of widows.

⁴ Ibid.

⁵ Indian Penal Code, 1860 covers the following offenses: Rape (Sec. 376); Kidnapping & abduction for specified purposes (Sec. 363 - 373); Homicide for dowry, dowry deaths or their attempts (Sec. 302/304-B); Torture - both mental and physical (Sec. 498-A); Assault on women with intent to outrage her modesty (Sec. 354); Insult to the modesty of women (Sec. 509); Importation of girl from foreign country (up to 21 years of age) (Sec. 366-B); Section 376A: Prohibits rape of a woman by her separated husband (NCRB, 2012).

⁶ A coparcener refers to "A person to whom an estate descends jointly, and who holds it as an entire estate; a person who has become a concurrent owner as a result of descent (Garner, 2009)."

- *Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe (Prevention of Atrocities) Act, 1989*: Provides protections against the sexual exploitation of members of scheduled castes and tribes.
- *The Pre-Natal Diagnostic Techniques (Regulation and Prevention of Misuse) Act, 1994 (Amended to the Pre-Natal Diagnostic Techniques Regulation and Prevention of Misuse) Amendment Act, 2002*: Prohibits sex selection, before and after conception, and regulates pre-natal diagnostic techniques for the prevention of female feticide.
- *Protection of Women from Domestic Violence Act, 2005*: Defines domestic violence and civil reliefs (Lawyers Collective, 2012). Extends protections to all individuals in domestic relationships- not simply those in marital relationships (Lawyers Collective, 2012). Additionally, the act contains a stipulation intended to prohibit women from being forced out of their home (Lawyers Collective, 2012).
- *Protection of Children from Sexual Offences Act, 2012*: Punishes “penetrative and non-penetrative sexual assault and aggravated forms of both of these types of sexual assaults” against minors (UNFPA, 2013 Pg. 122). The law is considered problematic in that a child is defined as being under 18 years of age, thus technically criminalizing consensual sexual activity amongst minors (UNFPA, 2013).
- *Criminal Law Amendment Act, 2013*: Amongst other significant improvements, the law mandates punishment for public servants who fail to record information on sexual harassment or rape, prescribes medical examination procedures for victims of sexual assault, and criminalizes acid attacks, voyeurism and stalking (Kapur, 2013). In addition to other shortcomings, the law specifically does not prohibit marital rape (Kapur, 2013)
- *The Sexual Harassment of Women at Workplace (Prevention Prohibition and Redressal) Act, 2013*: Defines sexual harassment, prescribes protections and outlines structures for the redress of complaints. The act has yet to come into force (Kapur, 2013).

INFORMAL JUSTICE

Various forms of non-state dispute justice mechanisms exist, particularly in rural parts of Northern India, at the *panchayat* level: *Khap panchayats* are prevalent in rural areas of Haryana and Western Uttar Pradesh, and *Jaati panchayats* are also ubiquitous in the region (AALI, 2012). These institutions punish community members for digressing from accepted socio-cultural norms, such as romantically engaging with, or marrying unapproved partners (such as from another caste group). *Khap panchayats*, the extra-legal mediation bodies of the Jat communities, are often highlighted for their diktats, which have “ordered murders, public rapes, and other criminal acts against people who have exercised their constitutional rights against the will or traditions of the Jat community (AALI, 2012 Pg. 116).” Similarly, the Jaati panchayats, organized around caste or village, have committed similar acts (AALI, 2012).

ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

The National Crime Records Bureau (NCRB) of the Ministry of Home Affairs maintains statistics on crime against women. These crimes are officially categorized into two main groups: those crimes which are subject to statutory law of the Penal Code, and those which are subject to the special & local laws (NCRB Report, 2012, Chapter 5).

Across all 28 states and 7 union territories, India maintains 85,462 female civil police (including district armed police), with Maharashtra and Tamil Nadu maintaining the highest numbers (NCRB Crime in India Statistics, 2012). As such, female officers constitute 6.5% of India’s total police force (1,298,944 personnel) (NCRB Crime in India Statistics, 2012).

The Republic of Maldives

The Maldives maintain a state-sanctioned system of law which observes compliance with *Shariah* in most aspects of family law, personal relations, and criminal justice, while common law is observed in areas of business and civil matters. The use of flogging as a punishment for those convicted of *zina* crimes have led to calls for legal reform by the international community. Emerging challenges in Maldives' legal system include provisions which regulate children's care, equitable right to property, and marital laws- particularly in light of increasing divorce rates (ADB, 2001).

While women in the Maldives experience many of the other social norms observed throughout the region, the country is thought to be unique in that son preference is believed to be almost non-existent, and divorce is indicated to be a more acceptable practice than in neighboring countries (ADB, 2001). Although Maldivians tend to marry at young age (often as young as 15 years), most select their own marriage partners- although parental consent must be obtained (ADB, 2001).

STATE-SANCTIONED LAW

The Constitution of the Republic of Maldives (2008) inherently affords protection for women, although the observed *Sharia* law in its current form, disadvantages women in several ways. Maldives has also ratified CEDAW, with one reservation, which indicates that *Sharia* ultimately governs all marital and family relations in the country.⁷

In Maldives, it is prescribed that women will have a legal guardian at all stages of life, as stipulated by the laws of Islam (ADB, 2001). Per Family Law and other regulations, the male guardian has the right to provide permission for their daughter to marry, although in instances where this is denied, a judge may hear the case and provide permission when there are no substantial objections. In spite of progressive marriage practices, marriage between Maldivian women and non-Muslim men is prohibited. Children resulting from such relationships are considered illegitimate, thus having implications for rights to inheritance. Polygamy is permitted under Family Law, per the Family Act (2000), which limits a man to four wives. Family Law also includes provisions which enable women to file for judicial divorce. The process of divorce is considered to be simple, although men are more easily able to obtain divorce (ADB, 2001).

Maldivian women (married and unmarried) possess a right to their own property, although in accordance with *Shariah*, men inherit twice that of a woman (ADB, 2001). While discriminatory laws exist, it is noted that in practice that property is typically divided equally amongst female and male heirs, unless requested otherwise. State owned land belonging to individuals is divided equally among heirs.

Premarital sex is prohibited in Maldives (ADB, 2001). Comparable to other nations in South Asia which utilize *Sharia* law, such as Afghanistan and Pakistan, premarital sex is punishable as a *zina* offense. Those convicted as having committed a *zina* crime, almost always a woman, are typically subject to public

⁷ "... 2. The Government of the Republic of Maldives reserves its right to apply article 16 of the Convention concerning the equality of men and women in all matters relating to marriage and family relations without prejudice to the provisions of the Islamic Sharia, which govern all marital and family relations of the 100 percent Muslim population of the Maldives (UN, 2013)."

lashings. While the official age limit for receiving adult punishments is 18, one exception to this stipulation is if a woman has a child; a young victim of sexual violence who is pregnant may subsequently be subject to public lashings (Alder & Polk, 2004). For individuals convicted of punishments under the age of 18, punishments are typically delayed until they reach the age. As it is unusual to procure four witnesses, convictions of zina cases are typically confession based.

In Maldives, rape is understood to constitute “forced zina,” also requiring four male witnesses or a confession for proof of evidence. If a woman seeks recourse for rape or sexual violence, her accusations must be corroborated by either two men or four women; hence prosecution is unlikely (Alder & Polk, 2004). Women are unlikely to seek resource for these crimes in the first place, as the legal process may allow them to be victimized again by the culprit (Alder & Polk, 2004). It must also be noted that marital rape is not prohibited under Maldivian law.

Births outside of wedlock are not considered proof of committing a zina crime, so unless the evidentiary requirements for conviction of zina are met (four male witnesses or a confession), the woman will be sentenced to one year of house arrest, and the child will be considered illegitimate under law. Men generally go unpunished for extra-nuptial births, as “*the man involved can only be punished if he confesses and claims paternity or if there are four witnesses (which is highly unlikely)*” (ADB, 2001). In instances of births outside of wedlock as a result of rape, a woman is not required to present witnesses. Paternity tests are not utilized as evidence, and thus only women are convicted for zina. While sexual activity outside of marriage may bring shame to one’s family, women convicted of such crimes are typically not ostracized by their families, or larger society (ADB, 2001).

The Republic of Maldives has recently passed significant laws which aim to mitigate violence against women: the Child Sex Abuse Act (2009), the Domestic Violence Act (2012), and the Anti-Human Trafficking Act (2013). While the earlier Law on the Protection of the Rights of Children (1991) prohibits the exploitation of children, including sexual offenses, and discourages child marriage, the Child Sex Abuse Act (2009) effectively codified child sex offenses and outlined significant criminal punishments (Department of State, 2010). Unfortunately, Article 14 of the law specifies that if an individual is legally married to a minor per *Sharia* law, offenses outlined in the law are not applicable (Department of State, 2010). The Domestic Violence Act (2012) is notable in that it defines domestic violence in a holistic fashion (encompassing physical, emotional, economic and other forms of violence) and provides various protection mechanisms. Unfortunately, acts of domestic violence, as defined in this piece of legislation, are not criminal offenses; nor is marital rape criminalized. Additionally problematic, necessary protection services and oversight mechanisms are hindered by a deficit of capacity and resources, hindering the overall implementation of the law (Hope for Women, 2012). The Anti-Human Trafficking Act (2013) effectively criminalizes human trafficking and prescribes punishments for those convicted, with longer prison sentences in cases where children are trafficked (Bosley, 2013).

ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

The Department of Judicial Administration of Maldives maintains official statistics from the justice sector, including various acts of violence against women.⁸

The Federal Democratic Republic of Nepal

As a predominantly Hindu country which did not directly experience colonization, Nepal's legal system features aspects of common law, as well as traditional Hindu law (Urscheler, 2012). The status of women in Nepal should also be observed against the backdrop of the Nepalese Civil War, which as in other conflict areas, served to shift to some extent the roles and responsibilities of women in society.

Many of the key norms and contextual themes observed more broadly in South Asia may be observed in Nepal, although owing to the country's rich cultural diversity, variations in social norms may be found across the largely rural nation. Observance of the caste system is pervasive, and in addition to influencing one's choice of partner, it presents constraints to economic and social mobility (Aiken, 2003). As the majority of Nepalese citizens are reliant on subsistence farming, men often migrate for further economic opportunities, leaving women in charge of maintaining agricultural lands and households (Aiken, 2003). Additionally, although abortion is legal in Nepal as of 2002, the practice carries a significant social stigma in the country.

STATE-SANCTIONED LAW

Protections are provided for women under the Interim Constitution of Nepal (2007) and CEDAW, which was signed without reservations. Most areas of family law affecting women are covered under the Country Code (*Muluki Ain*), 1963, of which four core sections pertain to family law: (1) *On Marriage*, (2) *On Husbands and Wives*, (3) *On Ancestral Property Division*, and (4) *On Women's Wealth and Personal Property* (World Bank/DFID, 2006). Additionally, protections are provided under the Civil Rights Act (1955), which prohibits discrimination based on sex, and the 11th Amendment in the Civil Code-2020, which regulates inheritance, divorce, polygamy, abortion.

Several recent legal measures have sought to improve the condition of women under Nepali law. The Kamaiya Labor (Prohibition Act) of 2002 outlaws bonded labor, and the more recent Domestic Violence (Crime & Punishment Act) of 2009 acknowledges both physical and psychological violence as being within the scope of domestic violence. Numerous protections are provided for women and girls under the Human Trafficking and Transportation (Control) Act (2007); Foreign Employment Act (1985); the Labor Act (1991); the Children's Act (1991) (which also provides numerous protections against various forms of child abuse); and the Child Labor Regulation and Control Act (2000).

More recently, the Gender Equality Act (2006) repealed and amended discriminatory provisions in numerous pre-existing laws, and most notably, it strengthened property rights for women and establishes

⁸ Please see Maldives Justice Sector Statistics, 2009 and 2010:
http://justice.gov.mv/jwe/index.php?option=com_joomdoc&view=documents&path=Downloads&Itemid=499

sexual violence as a punishable crime (Asia Foundation, 2010). With regard to elderly abuse, the Senior Citizens Act (2006) ensures maintenance for the elderly from family members and other designated care takers, and additionally ensures access to basic services.

INFORMAL JUSTICE

Systems of customary law and justice mechanisms are found in Janajati (indigenous), Muslim and other communities in Nepal. In the Yadav and Tharu communities, the Pancheti system is practiced, whereby villagers gather to solve community issues (International Alert, 2012). In Muslim communities, the *Mulabi* and *Hazi* mediate disputes in accordance with *Sharia* (International Alert, 2012). Comparable to other non-state justice mechanisms in South Asia, these systems provide some advantages (namely, they are low-cost and more accessible than state justice mechanisms), but may exclude women from adjudication processes.

ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

The Asia Foundation, in a 2010 report, indicates that women are often reluctant in reporting incidents of gender-based violence, due to ‘financial dependency, lack of education and fear of social exclusion,’ amongst other reasons (The Asia Foundation, 2010, Pg. 13). There often is also a dearth of proper facilities and services available for victims (including psychosocial counseling, legal mechanisms) (Asia Foundation, 2010).

The Government of Nepal’s The Three Year Plan (2010-2013) includes objectives pertaining to the elimination of gender-based violence, and the National Plan of Action Against Gender Violence (2010) provides a framework for responding to, as well as preventing gender-based violence. Official police statistics are available, and the national Police Force also prescribes internal measures and inclusive policies for women in the national police force.⁹

The Islamic Republic of Pakistan

Comparable to India and Bangladesh, the Islamic Republic of Pakistan possesses a legal structure inherited from the British colonial period, and thus features a system of Personal Law which contains specific legal provisions for several religious groups. While many legal protections exist for women, acts such as the Hudood Ordinances and Qisas and Diyat have historically posed significant harm. In Pakistan’s less densely populated tribal regions, customary judicial systems, similar to those found throughout neighboring Afghanistan, are a common form of dispute resolution.

Cultural norms and religious rules are prominently influential in Pakistani society. As stated by Shaheen Sardar Ali, “*Cultural norms and religious rules are just as potent a force, if not more, as legislative*

⁹ See document, “Nepal Police, Gender Policy 2069,” for policies regarding gender in the police force (including staffing and operational policy). Available:

http://www.nepalpolice.gov.np/images/documents/general_documents/en_gender_policy_2069.pdf

See, “Nepal 16 Years Crime Data related to Women,” for official police statistics. Available:

<http://www.nepalpolice.gov.np/women-children-service-directorate.html>

enactment (Ali, 2000).” Many of the cross-regional norms in South Asia, including conceptions of familial honor and son preference, are observed within Pakistan, with some existing variation in rural and tribal areas, where an imbalance in gender relations is most prominent (ADB, 2000). Pakistan also features two unique forms of marriage practice, namely *watta satta* (‘an exchange marriage whereby a woman and her brother [or some other male relative] from one family wed a sister and brother from another family, usually around the same time’) and “two-sister” marriages (‘two sisters marrying two brothers (or other male relatives) from another household’) (World Bank, 2005 Pg. 27).

STATE-SANCTIONED LAW

Gender equality is enshrined in the Constitution of Pakistan (1973), where Article 25 stipulates that “There shall be no discrimination on the basis of sex.” Pakistan has also signed CEDAW, with a declaration indicating that the Government of Pakistan is ultimately subject to the provisions provided in the constitution.¹⁰ Protections for women and girls are also provided under the Penal Code of Pakistan.

As noted, Pakistan observes a system of personal law, which is well developed for the Muslim majority, but for minority religious groups, such as Christians, few substantive changes have been implemented since the British colonial period, and Hindu personal law is wholly uncodified (Mahmood, 1990).

Uncodified Muslim personal law governs most matters of family relations and inheritance (Mahmood, 1990). Under statutory law, which is based upon the principles of *Sharia*, women are not granted equal inheritance rights to men, but rather, they are entitled to inherit one-half of what is to be granted to men in similar relationships, and additional stipulations exist for widows and children (World Bank, 2005). Significant legislation under the purview of Muslim Personal Law includes the Muslim Family Law Ordinance (1961), which penalizes marriages for women under the age of 16 years, mandates the registration of marriages, and requires consent from both marrying parties (World Bank, 2005). The Dissolution of Muslim Marriages Act (1939) is also significant, in that it provides provisions for the dissolution of marriages by women, protects a wife’s right to dower in instances of dissolution of marriage, and provides women the ‘option of puberty’ to repudiate marriages contracted for minors (World Bank, 2005). *Sharia* not only forms the basis for many of the laws applicable to Muslim citizens, but it is also applicable in federal *Sharia* courts, as maintained by the government of Pakistan.

Personal Laws applicable to Christians, regarding matters of marriage, inheritance, and child custody, have not undergone review (Aurat Foundation, 2012). Amongst the laws applicable to Christians in Pakistan, the Christian Marriages Act (1872) covers matters regarding marriage (including registration), and the Christian Divorce Act (1869) regulates divorce. The latter act is particularly problematic in that it enables men to more easily divorce their spouse than women; men may divorce simply on the grounds of adultery (Aurat Foundation, 2012). While women are able to apply for divorce on the grounds of adultery, they must additionally prove another offense.

¹⁰ Pakistan included the following declaration with its accession to CEDAW: “The accession by [the] Government of the Islamic Republic of Pakistan to the [said Convention] is subject to the provisions of the Constitution of the Islamic Republic of Pakistan (UN, 2013).”

Outside of the realm of personal law, a number of laws harmful to women have been enacted in recent decades. Under General Zia-ul Haq, the Hudood Ordinances (1979) were enacted, which effectively enabled prosecution for zina crimes (covering adultery and other extramarital sexual relations), punishable on account of a confession or four male adult witnesses. The later Protection of Women Act (2006) repealed many of the most oppressive aspects of the Hudood Ordinances with regard to *zina*. Amongst the changes, the act mandates the offenses of rape and fornication to be regulated by the Penal Code (Shirkat Gah, 2013). In spite of reform, the law is still problematic in that it defines adulthood as 16 years of age for girls, providing judges with the ability to declare the validity of under-age marriages (Shirkat Gah, 2013). The punishment of stoning also has not been removed from the Hudood Ordinances (Shirkat Gah, 2013).

The Law of Evidence (Qanun-e-Shahadat) Order (1984) provides stipulations and a framework with regard to the competence of, and number of witnesses needed in a court case (per Article 17), and effectively discriminates against women with regard to financial and future obligations, as men are required to witness these forms of agreements. Also problematic, the Qisas and Diyat Ordinance (1990) allows for violent crimes (including murder) to be settled by affected families outside of court, thereby providing less protection to women in cases of honor-related crimes (Amnesty International, 1999).

A number of general acts, applicable to all citizens, have improved the status of women throughout Pakistan:

- *Child Marriage Restraint Act, 1929*: Sets the legal age of marriage to 18 for men and 16 for women.
- *Suppression of Prostitution Ordinance (1961)*: Places restrictions on prostitution and punishes individuals for facilitating prostitution. Only applicable in the Punjab Province.
- *Dowry and Bridal Gifts (Restriction) Act of 1976 (Amended in 1980 by the Dowry and Bridal Gifts (Restriction) Amendment Ordinance)*: Makes dowry an offence and “imposed ceilings on permissible expenses of marriages and on the cost of marital gifts (Mahmood, 1990 Pg. 579).”
- *Prevention and Control of Human Trafficking Ordinance (2002)*: Prescribes penalties for the offense of trafficking women and children, compensation for victims and care for impacted individuals (ADB, 2008 Releasing Women’s Potential).
- *The Criminal Law (Amendment) Act 2004*: The so-called ‘Honour Killings Act’ amended the Penal Code (primarily with regard to aspects of Qisas and Diyat) and Criminal Procedure to define honor killings as murder with penal punishments (Lari, 2011).
- *Protection of Women Act, 2006*: Amends many of the most harmful provisions of the Hudood Ordinances with regard to *zina* (Butt and Zia, 2012). Also significant in that it defines rape as sexual intercourse with a woman under the age of 16, with or without consent (Shirkat Gah, 2013).
- *Protection Against Harassment of Women at the Workplace Act, 2010*: Defines sexual harassment and prescribes procedures for addressing incidents.
- *Anti-Women Practices (Criminal Law) Amendment Act, 2011*: Prohibits depriving a woman of her inheritance, marrying women to the Quran, forced marriages, and provides stipulations regarding the exchange of women for the settlement of disputes (Aurat Foundation, 2012).

- *Acid Control and Acid Crime Prevention Bill, 2011*: Criminalizes acid crimes and prescribes financial aid for victims.
- *Criminal Law Amendment Act, 2011*: Introduces more strict punishments for acid crime offenders than the previous bill.
- *Domestic Violence (Prevention and Protection) Act, 2013*: Defines domestic violence as being wholly inclusive of physical and psychological abuse, and prescribes punishments (CEDAW, 2013). This act is only applicable to the Sindh province.
- *Child Marriage Restraint Act, 2013*: Prescribes punishments for underage marriages. This act is only applicable to the Sindh province (Hafeez, 2014).
- *Domestic Violence (Prevention and Protection) Act, 2014*: Defines domestic violence as being inclusive of physical and economic abuse, and extends protections for this form of violence to domestic servants (Dawn, 2014). The act is critiqued for not prescribing penalties for abuses which do not fall under the purview of the Pakistan Penal Code (Dawn, 2014). This act is only applicable to the Balochistan province.

INFORMAL JUSTICE

Particularly in the tribal areas, akin to much of rural Afghanistan, there exist a number of informal or customary judiciary systems, which while they may be seen as more accessible and cost-effective means of justice, tend to disadvantage women in many ways. Such informal justice mechanisms include the *jirga*, *panchayat*, and *vadera/zamindar* (landlords) (Lari, 2011). Such institutions are primarily staffed by men, and thus decisions tend to reflect a pro-male bias (Lari, 2011). Similarly, as in the customary legal institutions of Afghanistan, a decision may require that a woman be given in order to settle disputes (Lari, 2011).

ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

Although some officially recorded police statistics are available from the Gender Crimes Bureau, as it is common throughout the region, VAW cases in Pakistan are unlikely to be reported, and when reported, may not be handled seriously by police forces for treatment in official judiciary systems. Police may advise victims to reconcile with husbands and families in order to avoid shaming their families (Amnesty International, 1999). Regarding instances of *karo-kari* (honor killing), police often do not treat such matters with appropriate seriousness, and may improperly record or document such acts of violence (Lari, 2011). Additionally, women face a significant gender-bias within the courtroom, as well as a pervasive belief on behalf of the judiciary that defying traditional patriarchal structures is disruptive to society (Amnesty International, 1999).

A significant issue in Pakistan with regard to the law is that there is very little awareness of applicable laws, both amongst legal professionals and average citizens. Regarding the Criminal Law (Amendment) Act 2004 and the Protection of Women (Criminal Law Amendment) Act 2006, two NCSW studies revealed low rates of legal literacy across society, including the public (particularly women), as well as the police and judiciary (Aurat Foundation, 2012). Additionally problematic is the fact that laws are not accessible to the majority of citizens, due to pre-existing high rates of illiteracy in the nation, as well as the fact that laws are most often in English (Aurat Foundation, 2012).

The Democratic Socialist Republic of Sri Lanka

In a fashion similar to India, Pakistan, and Bangladesh, Sri Lanka features a colonially derived legal system, stemming from successive periods of intervention by the Dutch and British. As such, the country utilizes a system of personal law, whereby different rights and privileges are delegated to citizens based on religious, ethnic, and geographic affiliation.

Sri Lankan women are believed to inhabit a more gender-progressive environment than their regional counterparts. As a result of the increasing economic empowerment of women, gender relations within individual families, as well as in larger communities, are perceived to have become more equitable: *“Families appear to have less control over the selection of spouses by daughters. Dowries have been overshadowed by income from employment. Sri Lanka is virtually free of dowry deaths, feticide, infanticide, and neglect of the girl child (ADB, 2008 Pg. 38).”* Despite the increasing economic empowerment of women, they are still underrepresented in the Sri Lankan labor force, where they often work in tea production, garment making, and various forms of migrant labor.

The situation of women in Sri Lanka must also be viewed against the backdrop of recent conflict. It is often the case in conflict-affected areas that gender relations shift; as men become engaged in military activities, women assume different responsibilities and opportunities, both within and outside the household. While this has certainly been the case in Sri Lanka, legal and policy changes have not been updated to reflect this (Abeysekera, 2003). For those women who experienced sexual abuse or violence during the Sri Lankan Civil War, their cases are often perceived “from the point of view of the ‘victimhood’ of women,” and social attitudes towards victims of the conflict “remain locked within traditional patriarchal moral codes (Abeysekera, 2003, Pg. 537).” As in many conflict-affected regions, the war in Sri Lanka fueled the sex-industry, and created numerous problems surrounding widowhood (Tambiah, 2004).

STATE-SANCTIONED LAW

Sri Lanka guarantees equality and protections for women, including affirmative action, under the Constitution of Sri Lanka (1978), as well as under CEDAW, which was signed without reservation. The Penal Code of Sri Lanka covers matters including rape (including custodial), sexual abuse, and sexual harassment, although marital rape is not illegal, barring instances where a married couple has been judicially separated. While General Law in Sri Lanka generally provides more gender equitable provisions for individuals, the personal laws, particularly in the area of family law, contain provisions which are harmful to women (ADB, 2008). Three main branches of personal law exist in Sri Lanka, namely Muslim Personal Law, Kandyan Law and Thesavalamai Law.

For Muslims, the Muslim Marriage and Divorce Act, 1951 covers stipulations regarding child marriage, consent, dowry, polygamy, religious conversion for second marriage, maintenance during marriage and after divorce, and custody of children. For Muslim marriages in Sri Lanka, *mahr* (dowry) is typically given by the groom to the bride, and three modes of divorce exist: *Fasah*, *Khula*, and *Mubarat*. For individuals who fall under the purview of Kandyan Law, the Kandyan Marriage and Divorce Act (1952, amended 1995) defines the legal age of marriage to 18 years (Goonesekere, 2004).

A number of recent acts exist to provide protections for women. The Prevention of Domestic Violence Act (2005) includes emotional abuse in defining violence against women, and provides the option of protection orders for victims. The Civil Procedure Amendment Act (2002, amending s. 495) enables women to serve as guardians for minor children in litigation matters (ADB, 2008). The Tsunami Special Provision Act (2005) includes provisions for preventing sexual exploitation, abuse and violence against girls (ADB, 2008). With regard to trafficking, the Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children Act (2003) prohibits the employment of individuals below the age of 14 (ADB, 2008). The Convention on Preventing and Combating Trafficking in Women and Children for Prostitution Act (2005) outlines trafficking of women and children for prostitution as a criminal offense, although the law has been criticized for inherently being more concerned with trafficking in the context of prostitution and associated matters, rather than firmly addressing the issues of internal trafficking and trafficking for overseas migrant work (ADB, 2008). A number of other laws provide specific protections for women and girls in Sri Lanka, at various stages in the lifecycle:

- *Vagrants Ordinance (1842)*: Classifies street prostitution as an offense (Women and Media Collective, 2010). This particular ordinance has been cited as being used by police to intimidate sex workers (Women and Media Collective, 2010).
- *Age of Majority Ordinance (1865, amended 1989)*: Establishes the age of majority – the age at which an individual is legally considered an adult – at 18 years.
- *Brothels Ordinance (1889)*: Criminalizes brothel keeping and related activities (Women and Media Collective, 2010).
- *Marriage Registration Ordinance (1907, amended 1995)*: Both parties must be of 18 years of age for a marriage to be considered valid (Skanthakumar, 2003).
- *Maintenance Act, No. 37 (1999)*: Ensures maintenance for children, adult offspring, disabled offspring, and spouses unable to maintain themselves.
- *Protection of the Rights of the Elders Act (No. 9 of 2000)*: Protects the rights of elders, including maintenance, and ensures access to services.

ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

It is generally believed that many barriers to justice exist for women in Sri Lanka, including a lack of seriousness on the part of public institutions to address individual VAW cases. Likewise, support services for victims face a dearth of resources. It is common for officials to improperly record incidences of domestic violence as ‘accidents,’ rather than appropriately categorizing them as punishable offenses (Wijayatilake and Guneratne, 2002).

The Government of Sri Lanka maintains numerous initiatives to address violence against women, including the provision legal aid through the State Legal Aid Commission and the Ministry of Child Development and Women’s Empowerment, which operates counseling centers (ADB, 2008). It is also noted that essential support service providers, such as the Special Women’s Bureau and Women and Children’s Desks (located in police stations) as well as various NGO-sponsored crisis centers, face a serious dearth of resources (ADB, 2008). State-sanctioned mediation boards also deal with a number of disputes related to violence against women, including domestic violence (Kodikara et. al 2012). Such

boards are often problematic in that the mediators (often well-respected individuals in a given village community) “*lack understanding of the root causes of domestic violence and force a settlement which reinforces cultural attitudes towards domestic violence by either trivializing or dismissing such violence as common place and minor (Kodikara et. al 2012 Pg. 43).*”

Comprehensive sex-disaggregated data on the incidence of violence within the Sri Lankan context is not available (ADB, 2008). Such sex-disaggregated data is not maintained by hospitals, police stations, or courts (Wijayatilake and Guneratne, 2002). In spite of this, limited statistics are available from the Sri Lanka Police.¹¹

¹¹ Official Police statistics are available from Sri Lanka for 2011 and 2012: <http://www.police.lk/index.php/crime-trends>

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List of Select Identified Organizations in South Asia Working on Violence against Women and Girls, by Country

	Organizations	Sector
Afghanistan		
1	Action Contre La Faim	Crisis and Disaster Settings
2	ActionAid	Multi-sectoral
3	Afghan Women social and services organization (AWSSO)	Health, Youth and Education
4	Afghan Civil Society Forum-organization	Multi-sectoral
5	Afghan friendship& cooperation Organization (AFCO)	Crisis and Disaster Settings
6	Afghan Independent Human Rights Commission (Women's Rights Support Unit)	Governance/Democracy
7	Afghan Women Training and Development Organization (AWTDO)	Women's Economic Empowerment
8	Afghan Women and Children Rights Law Organization	Legal/Governance
9	Afghan Women Association for Rehabilitation & Development AWARD	Health, Youth and Education, Women's Economic Empowerment
10	Afghan Women Leaders Connect	Multi-sectoral
11	Afghan Women Services and Education Organization (AWSE)	Multi-sectoral
12	Afghan Women Skill Development Centre	Multi-sectoral
13	Afghan Women Welfare & Development Organization	Multi-sectoral
14	Afghan Women's Resource Center	Multi-sectoral
15	Afghan Women's Educational Center	Multi-sectoral
16	Afghan Women's Mission	Multi-sectoral
17	Afghan Women's Network	Governance/Democracy
18	Afghanistan Capacity Development and Educational Organization	Governance/Democracy
19	Afghanistan Independent Human Rights Commission	Governance/democracy
20	Afghanistan Women 50% Campaign	Governance/Democracy
21	Afghanistan Women Council	Health, Youth and Education, Women's Economic Empowerment,
22	Afghanistan Women's Political Committee	Governance/Democracy

23	Aga Khan Foundation	Youth and Education, Governance/Democracy,
24	All Afghan women Union	Women's Economic Empowerment
25	American Society for Muslim Advancement	Multi-sectoral
26	Aria Services and Rehabilitation Organization for Afghanistan	Multi-sectoral
27	AUS AID	Multi-sectoral
28	AWRSA Afghan Women rehabilitation and Skill Building Association	Youth and Education
29	AWWD Afghan women welfare department	Multi-sectoral
30	BANO	Women's Economic Empowerment
31	BVO Badakhshan Volunteer women organization	Health, Women's Economic Empowerment
32	Cooperation and Coordination Commission	Governance/Democracy
33	Cooperation Center for Afghanistan	Multi-sectoral
34	Cordaid (Catholic Organisation for Relief & Development Aid)	Crisis and Disaster Settings
35	Culture, Services and Development Organization	Multi-sectoral
36	DFID	Multi-sectoral
37	Educational Center for Women (ECW)	Youth and Education
38	EVAW Comission	Governance/Democracy
39	EWAO Empowering Women of Afghanistan Organization	Multi-sectoral
40	Fayaz Foundation	Governance/Democracy
41	Female Rehabilitation and Development Organization	Governance/Democracy
42	Feminist Majority Foundation	Youth and Education, Governence and Democracy, Womens Economic Empowerment
43	Flora Family Foundation	Health, Education
44	Gateway Afghanistan	Multi-sectoral
45	Gender Budgeting Unit, Ministry of Finance	Governance/Democracy
46	Hagar International	Youth and Education, Women's Economic Empowerment

47	HODA organization for development of Afghanistan	Health, Youth and Education, Women's Economic Empowerment
48	Humanitarian Assistance for the Women and Children of Afghanistan (HAWCA)	Multi-sectoral
49	International Development Law Organization (IDLO)	Multi-sectoral
50	International Legal Foundation	Crisis and Disaster Settings
51	International Medical Corps	Multi-sectoral
52	International Organization for Migration (IOM)	Governance/democracy
53	IWSAO	Health, Youth and Education
54	Judiciary	Governance/Democracy
55	Khorasan Legal Services Organization (KLSO)	Governance/Democracy
56	Legal Aid Organization of Afghanistan	Governance/Democracy
57	Legal and cultural services for Afghan women and Children LCSAWC	Governance/Democracy
58	Madica Afghanistan women support organization	Health, Governance/Democracy
59	Medica Afghanistan	Multi-sectoral
60	Medica for Afghanistan	Multi-sectoral
61	Ministry of Education	Governance/Democracy
62	Ministry of Interior	Governance/Democracy
63	Ministry of Public Health, Gender Department	Health
64	Ministry of Religious Affairs (Ministry of Hajj and Awqaf)	Governance/Democracy
65	Mnistry of Women Affairs - Department of Women Affairs	Governance/Democracy
66	Noor Educational And Capacity Building Organisation (NECDO)	Youth and Education
67	Open Society	Governance/Democracy
68	Peace Windows Women Rehabilitation Organization for Afghanistan (PWWROA)	Multi-sectoral
69	RAWA(Revolutionary Association of the women of Afganisthan)	Crisis and Disaster Settings
70	Research and Cultural Center of Imam Shaibani (RCCIS)	Multi-sectoral
71	Revival of professional skills for Afghanistan ROPSFA	Health, Youth and Education, Women's Economic Empowerment
72	Roqia Center for Women's Rights, Studies and Education	Youth and Education

73	RSSO Roshanee Social Service Organization	Health, Youth and Education, Women's Economic Empowerment
74	Sayara Media and Communication	Governance/Democracy,
75	Service education and capacity building organization for youth (SECOY)	Women's Economic Empowerment
76	Shams Women's Need and help Organization	Multi-sectoral
77	Shuhada Organization	Governance/Democracy
78	Skill Training And Rehabilitation Society STRARS	Health, Youth and Education
79	Suboot News Agency	Media
80	supportive Organization For Poor Women Children	Multi-sectoral
81	Swedish Committee for Afghanistan (SCA)	Multi-sectoral
82	Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency	Multi-sectoral
83	Takhar province women's skills and handicrafts Association TPWSHA	Women's Economic Empowerment
84	The Advocates for Human Rights	Youth and Education
85	The Asia Foundation	Multi-sectoral
86	Training Human Rights Association for Afghan women	Multi-sectoral
87	UN Women	Multi-sectoral
88	UNAMA/UNOPS	Governance/Democracy
89	UNDP	Multi-sectoral
90	UNFPA	Health, Youth and Education, Governance/Democracy
91	Voice of Women Organization (VWO)	Health, Women's Economic Empowerment
92	Wise Muslim Women	Governance/Democracy
93	Wolesi Jirga Commission on Women and Human Rights Committee	Governance/Democracy,
94	Womankind worldwide	Youth and Education, Governance/Democracy
95	Women & Children Legal Research Foundation	Multi-sectoral
96	women activity development program	Multi-sectoral
97	Women and Children Legal Research Foundation	Governance/Democracy

98	Women and Youths for Peace and Development Organization (WAYPADO)	Multi-sectoral
99	Women for Afghan Women	Multi-sectoral
100	Women for Women International	Health, Women's Economic Empowerment,
101	Women Health Service and Right Organization	Health, Governance/Democracy
102	Women's Unity for Rehabilitation	Multi-sectoral
Bangladesh		
1	Academy for Educational Development (AED)	Health, Youth and Education, Women's Economic Empowerment
2	Acid Foundation Bangladesh	Health
3	Action Aid International - Bangladesh	Multi-sectoral
4	Adrasha Samaj Seba Samiti	Multi-sectoral
5	Ain-O-Salish Kendra	Multi-sectoral
6	Association for Community Development (ACD)	Crisis and Disaster Settings
7	ATSEC (Action against Trafficking and Sexual Exploitation of Children)	Crisis and Disaster Settings;Media
8	Bangladesh Human Rights Advocacy Program (BHRAP)	Governance/Democracy
9	Bangladesh Legal Aid Services Trust	Governance/Democracy
10	Bangladesh Mahila Parishad	Multi-sectoral
11	Bangladesh Mahila Parishad	Governance/Democracy
12	Bangladesh Mahila Parishad (BMP)	Governance/Democracy
13	Bangladesh Nari Progati Sangha (BNPS)	Governance/Democracy
14	Bangladesh National Woman Lawyers' Association	Governance/Democracy
15	Bangladesh Parliament	Governance/Democracy
16	Bangladesh Shishu Adhikar Forum	Media
17	BRAC (Research and Evaluation Division)	Youth and Education
18	BRAC Development Institute - Centre for Gender and Social Transformation	Youth and Education
19	BRAC University, James P. Grant School of Public Health	Youth and Education
20	CARE	Multi-sectoral
21	Center for Policy Dialogue	Youth and Education
22	Centre for Women and Children Studies (CWCS)	Multi-sectoral
23	Daily Sangbad	Media
24	Dhaka Ahsania Mission (DAM)	Youth and Education, Women's Economic Empowerment
25	doctorsbd.com	Media

26	Gono Gagoran Kendra	Media
27	Hotline Bangladesh (Asia)	Media
28	ICDDRB	Youth and Education
29	Integrated Community & Industrial Development Initiative (INCIDIN) Bangladesh	Multi-sectoral
30	Kapotakkha	Media
31	Khan foundation	Governance/Democracy
32	MenEngage Alliance South Asia	Youth and Education
33	Ministry of Information and Communication	Governance/Democracy
34	Ministry of Law, Justice and Parliamentary Affairs (MOLI&PA)	Governance/Democracy
35	Ministry of Women and Children's Affairs (MOWCA)	Governance/Democracy
36	Nari Kalayan Samity	Media
37	Narigrantha Probortana	Media
38	NariPokkho	Multi-sectoral
39	NORAD	Multi-sectoral
40	Organization for Women's Development in Bangladesh	Multi-sectoral
41	Oxfam GB Bangladesh	Multi-sectoral
42	Red Bernet	Multi-sectoral
43	Rehabilitation Centre for Prostitutes and Rootless Children PARC	Multi-sectoral
44	Rights Jessore	Multi-sectoral
45	Rupantar	Media
46	STEPS Towards Development	Governance/Democracy,
47	The Asia Foundation bangladesh	Crisis and Disaster, Governance/Democracy
48	The Daily Sun	Media
49	The Hunger Project	Legal
50	The Institute of Governance Studies (IGS)	Youth and Education
51	The Ministry of Expatriate Welfare Overseas Employments	Multi-sectoral
52	The Monthly Computer Jagat	Media
53	The Thengamar Mohila Sabuj Sangha (TMSS)	Women's Economic Empowerment
54	UBINIG (Unnayan Bikalper Nitinirdharoni Gobeshona)	Multi-sectoral
55	UNDP, ILO, UNFPA, WHO, UNAIDS, UN Women, UNESCO, UNICEF, IOM	Multi-sectoral
56	Unnayan Shamannay (US)	Youth and Education
57	Unnayan Shamannay (US)	Youth and Education
58	USAID	Multi-sectoral

59	USAID/Women's Advancement and Gender Equality sub-group of the Local Consultative Group – Bangladesh	Youth and Education
60	Winrock International	Multi-sectoral
Bhutan		
1	Ministry of Education	Youth and Education
2	National Commission for Women and Children	Multi-sectoral
3	RENEW	Multi-sectoral
4	UN Resident Coordinator's Office in Bhutan (UNICEF, UNFPA, UNDP)	Multi-sectoral
5	Women and child protection division (Royal Bhutanese Police)	Governance/Democracy
India		
1	Aalochana-Center for Documentation and Research on Women	Research; Multi-sectoral
2	AASH-Hope of Kashmir	Crisis and Disaster Settings
3	Academy for Educational Development (AED)	Multi-sectoral
4	Academy for Educational Development (AED)	Multi-sectoral
5	Action Against Trafficking and Sexual Exploitation of Children and Women (ATSEC)	Multi-Sectoral (anti-trafficking)
6	Action Aid International	Youth and Education, Multi-sectoral, Women's Economic Empowerment, Governance/Democracy
7	Ahmedabad Women's Action Group (AWAG)	Womens Economic Empowerment
8	Akshara Center	Multi-sectoral
9	All Bengal Women's Union	Health
10	All India Dalit Mahila Adhikar Manch	marginalized communities; multi-sectoral
11	All India Democratic Womens' Association	Governance/Democracy
12	All India Womens Conference	Governance/Democracy
13	All India Women's Conference	Governance/Democracy
14	Alternative for Rural Movement	Rural Welfare
15	American Center for International Labor Solidarity (ACILS)	Multi-sectoral
16	American Center for International Labor Solidarity (ACILS)	Multi-sectoral
17	Ankuram	Health

18	Anti-Slavery International	Multi-Sectoral
19	Anveshi Research Center for Womens Studies, Hyderabad	Research; Multi-sectoral
20	Anweshi Womens Counselling Center	Health
21	Apnalaya	Urban Development
22	Arpan	Child Centered Approaches
23	Arz India	Governance/Democracy; anti-trafficking
24	Asmita-Resource Center for Women	Women's Empowerment, Multi-Sectoral
25	Association for Advocacy and Legal Initiatives	Governance/Democracy
26	Astitva	Health Sector
27	Bachpan Bachao Andolan	Child Centered Approaches
28	Bangalore Political Action Committee	Governance/Democracy, Private sector
29	Bengal Mass Education Society	Youth and Education
30	Bharatiya Kisan Sangh	Agriculture, Labor rights, Governance/Democracy
31	Bhoomika	Women Economic Empowerment
32	Bhoomika Vihar	Mutli-Sectoral (anti-trafficking)
33	Blank Noise	Governance/Democracy, Health, Women's Empowerment
34	Brahmol Samaj Mahila Bhawan	Womens Empowerment, Health
35	Breakthrough	Youth and Education
36	Canvasm technologies (Tech Mahindra)	Media
37	Care	Multi-Sectoral
38	CEHAT (Center for Enquiring into Health and Allied themes)	Health
39	Center for Equity for Women, Children and Families, TISS	Governance/Democracy, Health, Research
40	Center for Feminist Legal Research	Governance/Democracy
41	Center for Health and Social Justice	Multi-sectoral
42	Center for Social Justice	Multi-sectoral
43	Center for Women' Studies and Development, Punjab University	Research; Multi-sectoral
44	Center for Women Studies, Aligarh University	Research; Multi-sectoral
45	Center for Womens Development and Research (CWDR)	Research; Multi-sectoral
46	Center for Womens Development Studies	Research; Multi-sectoral
47	Center for Women's Studies and Development, Banaras Hindu University	Research; Multi-sectoral
48	Centre for Social Research	Governance/Democracy, Multi-sectoral,
49	Cents of Relief	Womens empowerment (anti-trafficking)
50	Chetna	Health, Legal Action (Governance/Democracy)

51	Chetna (Center for Health Education Training and Nutrition Awareness)	Health
52	Circle of 6	IT
53	City Health and Welfare Association	Health
54	Colalition Against Trafficking in Women	Crisis and Disaster settings
55	Confederation of Indian Industries	Private Sector
56	CORO (Committee for resource organizations) for literacy	Youth and Education
57	Counsel to Secure Justice	Child Centered Approaches
58	CREA	Womens Empowerment, Health
59	Crime Against Women Cell	Governance/Democracy
60	Crossover Foundation	Governance/Democracy
61	Dasra	Private Sector
62	Delhi Brotherhood Society	Health
63	Delhi Commission for Women	Governance/Democracy
64	Dev Kalpana Technologies	IT
65	Development Alternatives	Multi-sectoral
66	Durbar Mahila Samanwaya Committee	Womens Empowerment
67	Educate Girls	Youth and Education
68	Equal Community Foundation	Youth and Education
69	Feminist Association for Social Action	Research; Multi-sectoral
70	Forum Against Oppression of Women	Governance/Democracy, Education
71	Freedom Firm	Governance/Democracy, Legal Sector
72	Gana Unnayan Parshad	Womens Empowerment
73	Gender at Work	Labor
74	Gulabi gang	Governance/Democracy (local level)
75	Guru Swayam Seva Sansthan	Religious based ameliorative efforts
76	HAQ Center for Child Rights	Governance/Democracy, Childrens rights
77	Hengasara Hakina Sangha	Multi-sectoral
78	Human Rights Law Network	Governance/Democracy
79	Human Rights Law Network	Legal Action (Governance/Democracy)
80	Impulse NGO Network's	Multi-sectoral
81	Impulse NGO Network's	Multi-sectoral
82	Indian Community Welfare Organization	Health, Multi-sectoral, working with marginalized community
83	Indian Social Institute	Research; Multi-sectoral
84	Indian Women Welfare Foundation	Multi-sectoral; Governance/Democracy
85	Indira Kranthi Patham	Women and Girls Empowerment

86	Initiatives of Women in Development	Womens Economic Empowerment
87	Institute for Social Development	Multi-Sectoral
88	Institute of Economic Growth, Delhi University	Womens Economic Empowerment
89	Institute of Social Studies Trust	Governance/Democracy, Gender sensitive economics and planning
90	Institute of Social Work	Multi-sectoral
91	International Center for Research on Women	Youth and Education, Multi-sectoral
92	International Justice Mission	Governance/Democracy, Legal Sector
93	International Planned Parenthood Federation	Health, Multi-sectoral
94	Jabala	Womens Economic Empowerment
95	Jagori	Multi-sectoral, Infrastructure
96	Jajnaseni	Multi-Sectoral (anti-trafficking)
97	Jananeethi	Multi-sectoral
98	Joint Action Council for women	Governance
99	Joint Womens Program	Governance/Democracy
100	Joint Women's Programme (JWP)	Multi-Sectoral
101	Justice and Care	Governance/Democracy
102	Kudhumbashree	Women's Economic Empowerment, Governance/Democracy,
103	Lawyers' Collective	Legal Action, Governance/Democracy
104	Lawyers Collective Women's rights initiative	Health
105	Love Commandos	Youth and Education, Legal Action (helplines and shelters)
106	Madras Christian Council of Social Service	Multi-Sectoral
107	Magic Bus India Foundation	Youth and Education, Youth Empowerment
108	Mahila Dakshata Samiti	Multi-sectoral
109	Mahila Jan Adhikar Samiti	Multi-Sectoral
110	Mahila Samakhya	Governance/Democracy, Womens Economic Empowerment
111	Maitri	Health, Governance/Democracy, Multi-sectoral
112	Majlis	Governance/Democracy
113	Mamta	Health
114	MAMTA-Health Institute for mother and child	Health
115	Manav Seva Sansthan	Crisis and Disaster Relief
116	Manushi	Governance/Democracy (Accountability and Human Rights)

117	Maps4Aid	Crisis and Disaster, Media
118	MARG (Multiple Action Research Group)	Multi-Sectoral
119	Men against violence and Abuse	Multi-Sectoral
120	Must Bol	Youth and Education
121	MV Foundation	Health
122	Myrada	Education, Legal Action, Governance/Democracy
123	Nari Adalat	Governance/Democracy
124	Nari Raksha Samiti	Governance/Democracy
125	National Alliance of Womens Organization	Multi-sectoral
126	National Domestic Workers Union	Labor Rights
127	National Mission for Empowerment of Women, Ministry of Women and Child Development	Governance/Democracy
128	Navjyoti India Foundation	Women's Economic Empowerment, Multi-sectoral
129	Nirantar (A center for gender education)	Youth and Education, Womens Empowerment
130	Northeast Network	Multi-sectoral
131	Odanadi Seva Samsthe	Multi-Sectoral (anti-trafficking)
132	OxfamIndia	Governance/Democracy, Multi-sectoral,
133	Packard Foundation	Health, Multisectoral
134	Palash Foundation	Multi-sectoral (acid attacks)
135	Participatory Research in Asia (PRIA)	Multi-sectoral
136	Pathfinder International	Multi-sectoral
137	PCVC (International Foundation for crime prevention and Victim care)	Multi-sectoral
138	Pennurimai Iyakkam	Multi-Sectoral
139	Plan International	Health, Legal Action, Governance/Democracy
140	Plan International	Multi-sectoral
141	Point of View	Education
142	Population Council	Health
143	Population Council	Health, Education
144	Population Foundation of India	Health, Education, Governance/Democracy
145	Pradan	Women's Economic Empowerment, Governance/Democracy,
146	Prajnya	Multi-sectoral

147	Prajwala	Multi-sectoral
148	Pratidhi	Governance/Democracy
149	Prayas Bharati Trust	Health, Governance/Democracy, Multi-sectoral
150	Prayatn	Health, Legal Action, Governance/Democracy
151	Prerana ATC	Multi-Sectoral (anti-trafficking)
152	Rahi Foundation (recovering and healing from incest)	Child Centered Approaches
153	Rescue Foundation	Health
154	Research Center for Women's Studies, S.N.D.T	Research; Multi-sectoral
155	Rockefeller Foundation	Education, Legal Action, Governance/Democracy
156	Rupantar	Health
157	Saarthak	Women's Economic Empowerment
158	Saheli Womens Resource Center	Health
159	Sahodari Foundation	Multisectoral (transgender community)
160	Sakshi	Multi-Sectoral
161	Sama	Health, Youth and Education
162	Sambhali Trust, Jodhpur	Womens Economic Empowerment
163	Samvada	Womens empowerment, youth and education
164	Sanchetna-Community health and research center	Health
165	SANGAMA	Multi-Sectoral
166	SANGAT (South Asian Feminist Network)	Multi-sectoral
167	Sangath (Goa)	Health, Multi-sectoral
168	SANGRAM (Sampada Gramin Mahila Sanshta)	Multi-Sectoral
169	Sanhita Gender Resource Center	Multi-sectoral
170	Sanjivini Society for Mental Health	Health
171	Sanlaap	Multi-sectoral (anti-trafficking)
172	Sanlaap	multi-sectoral; anti-trafficking
173	Sari Bari	anti-trafficking
174	Save the Children	Multi-sectoral
175	Save the Children	Multi-sectoral
176	SEWA Bharat	Multi-Sectoral, Womens economic empowerment
177	Shakti Shalini	Multi-Sectoral
178	Shakti Vahini	Youth and Education, Womens Economic Empowerment, Advocacy

179	Shared Hope International	Women's Economic Empowerment, Health, Multi-sectoral
180	Sneha (Society for Nutrition, Education and Health Action)	Health
181	Special Cells for Women and Children	Governance/Democracy
182	Special Police Unit for Women and Children	Governance/Democracy
183	Stop Trafficking Oppression and Prostitution of Children and Women (STOP)	Multi-Sectoral (anti-trafficking)
184	Stree Adhar Kendra	Multi-Sectoral
185	Sutanutir Sakhyo	Multi-Sectoral, Womens economic empowerment
186	Swaadhar	Multi
187	Swanchetan Society	Health
188	Swanchetan Society	Health
189	SWAYAM	Multi-sectoral
190	Tarshi	Health
191	Tata Steel Rural Development Authority	Health
192	The Art of Living Foundation	Health
193	The Resources Center for Interventions on Violence Against Women (RCI-VAW), Tata Institute of Social Sciences	Governance and Infrastructure
194	The YP Foundation	Youth and Education, Empowerment
195	Tibetan Womens Association	Multi-sectoral
196	Udyogini	Women Economic Empowerment, Renewable Energy
197	UN Women	Multi-Sectoral
198	UNFPA	Health, Education, Governance/Democracy
199	UNICEF	Multi-sectoral
200	United Nations Office of Drugs and Crime (UNODC)	Multi-sectoral
201	United Nations Office of Drugs and Crime (UNODC)	Multi-sectoral
202	Urmul Trust	Education, Legal Action
203	Vanangana	Womens Economic Empowerment
204	Vigyan Foundation	Multi-sectoral
205	Vigyan Foundation	Multi-sectoral
206	Vimochana	Multi-Sectoral
207	Vimochana	Media, Infrastructure

208	Vodafone Foundation India	Private Sector
209	Warlaw (Womens Action research and legal action for women)	Legal Action (Governance/Democracy)
210	Women against sexual violence and state repression	Governance/Democracy
211	Women Power Connect	Multi-Sectoral
212	Women Studies and Development Center, University of Delhi	Research; Multi-sectoral
213	Women Studies Unit, TISS	Research; Multi-sectoral
214	Women's Collective	Womens Economic Empowerment
215	Women's Interlink Foundation	Multi-Sectoral (anti-trafficking)
216	Womens Political Watch	Governance/Democracy
217	Women's Studies Center, University	Research; Multi-sectoral
218	Womens Studies Research Center, Faculty of Family and Community Science	Research; Multi-sectoral
219	Yuwa India	Youth and Education, Empowerment
220	YWCA India	Multi-Sectoral
Maldives		
1	Care Society	Health
2	Community Aid	Youth and Education
3	Department of Judicial Administration	Governance/Democracy
4	Department of Judicial Administration	Governance/Democracy
5	The Ministry of Finance	Governance/Democracy
6	Family Protection Authority	Governance/Democracy
7	Foundation For the Advanced of Self Help in Attaining Needs	Multi-sectoral
8	Hope for Women	Multi-sectoral
9	One Billion Rising	Multi-sectoral
10	Society for Health Education	Health
11	SWAD	Health
12	The International Planned Parenthood Federation	Health
15	The Ministry of Gender and Health	Governance/Democracy
18	The Ministry of Youth and Sports	Governance/Democracy
19	UNFPA	Health
20	UNICEF	Multi-sectoral
21	WHO	Health
22	Journey	Health and Youth
23	The Vibe	Health and Youth
24	Ensure Maldives	Multi-sectoral
25	Hand in Hand	Multi-sectoral
26	Hulhulmale Association for Women's improvement	Multi-sectoral

27	Maldivian Network on Violence Against Women	Multi-sectoral, Governance/Democracy and Disaster Settings
28	Silent Voices	Governance/Democracy, Multi-sectoral,
29	Youth for Equality	Youth and Education, Empowerment, Multi-sectoral
30	Strength of Society	Youth and Education
31	Hamma Janiyya	Governance/Democracy, Media`
32	Madulu	Governance/Democracy
33	Voice of Women	Multi-sectoral
34	Maldivian Detainee Network	Governance/Democracy
35	Maldivian Aid	Disaster Settings
36	Open Society Association	Multi-sectoral
Nepal		
1	Aama Milan Kendra (AMK)	Health, Women's Economic Empowerment
2	AATWIN	Women's Economic Empowerment
3	Aawaj	Women's Economic Empowerment
4	ABC Nepal	Health, Women's Economic Empowerment
5	Actionaid Nepal	Multi-sectoral
6	Advocacy Forum	Governance/Democracy
7	ADWAN	Governance/Democracy
8	Alliance for Peace	Governance/Democracy, Youth and Education
9	American Himalayan Foundation	Youth and education
10	Annapurna Post	Media
11	Antenna Foundation Nepal (AFN)	Media
12	Asia Foundation (Women Empowerment Program)	Multi-sectoral
13	Asian Development Bank	Governance/Democracy
14	Association of Youth Organizations Nepal (AYON)	Youth and Education
15	Bishwas Nepal	Women's Economic Empowerment
16	Blue Diamond Society	Multi-sectoral
17	CARE	Multi Sectoral
18	Care Society	Health
19	Center for Legal Research and Resource Development (CeLRRd)	Governance/democracy
20	Center for Awareness Promotion (CAP-Nepal)	Multi-sectoral
21	Centre for Victims of Torture (CVICT)	Women's Economic Empowerment
22	Child Workers in Nepal Concerned Centre (CWIN)	Youth and education

23	Children-Women in Social Service and Human Rights (CWISH)	Governance/Democracy
24	Community Action Center(CAC Nepal)	Women's Economic Empowerment, Multi-sectoral
25	Community Aid	Youth and Education
26	Dalit Mahila Ekta Kendra (DMEK)	Women's Economic Empowerment
27	Department of Judicial Administration	Governance/Democracy
28	Department of Judicial Administration	Governance/Democracy
29	Department of National Planning, The Ministry of Finance	Governance/Democracy
30	Department of Women and Children	Governance/Democracy
31	DFID	Multi-sectoral
32	Didi Bahini	Youth and Education, Women's Economic Empowerment
33	Easter Benjamin Memorial Fund (EBMF)	Youth and education
34	EDC	Women's Economic Empowerment
35	Equal Access Nepal	Multi-sectoral
36	Family Protection Authority	Governance/Democracy
37	Fatima Foundation	Women's Economic Empowerment
38	FEDO	Health, Youth and Education, Women's Economic Empowerment
39	Forum for Women, Law and Development (FWLD)	Governance/Democracy
40	Foundation For the Advanced of Self Help in Attaining Needs	Multi-sectoral
41	FPAN	Health, Youth and Education
42	Freed Kamaiya Women Development Forum	Women's Economic Empowerment
43	Himali Rural Youth Social Development Centre	Youth and Education
44	Hucodon	Multi-sectoral
45	ICRW	Health, Education, Multi-sectoral
46	Informal Sector Service Center(INSEC)	Multi-sectoral
47	Institute for Human Rights Communication Nepal(IHRICON)	Media
48	Jagaran Media Centre	Media, Youth and Education
49	Legal Aid and Consultancy Center	Governance/Democracy
50	Maiti Nepal	Multi-sectoral
51	Ministry of Education	Governance/Democracy
52	Ministry of Finance	Governance/Democracy
53	Ministry of Health and Population	Governance/Democracy
54	Ministry of Home Affairs	Governance/Democracy
55	Ministry of Law, Justice, Constituent Assembly & Parliamentary Affairs	Governance/Democracy
56	Ministry of Women, Children and Social Welfare	Governance/Democracy
57	Mission East Nepal	Multi-sectoral

58	Mitini Nepal	Health
59	Nari Chetana Kendra Nepal (Women Awareness Centre Nepal)	Women's Economic Empowerment
60	National Alliance for Women's Rights Defenders	Governance/Democracy
61	National Alliance of Women Human Rights Defender	Governance/democracy
62	National Health Foundation	Health
63	National Human Rights Commission (NHRC)	Governance/Democracy
64	National Inter-Religious Network - Nepal (NIRN)	Multi-sectoral
65	National Network Against Domestic Violence (NNADV)	Governance/democracy
66	National Network Against Girl Trafficking (NNAGT)	Governance/Democracy
67	National Women Commission (NWC)	Governance/Democracy
68	National Network against Girls Trafficking (NNAGT)	Multi-sectoral
69	Nepal Muslim Women Welfare Society (NMWWS)	Multi-sectoral
70	Nepal Police (Women and Children Service)	Governance/Democracy
71	Office of the Prime Minister and Council of Ministers (OPMCM)	Governance/Democracy
72	Peacewin	Women's Economic Empowerment
73	Plan International	Multi-sectoral
74	Pourakhi	Women's Economic Empowerment
75	Prerana,- Support Group for Participatory Development	Women's Economic Empowerment
76	Prisoners Assistance Nepal (PA Nepal),	Women's Economic Empowerment
77	Pro-public Nepal	Governance/Democracy
78	Raksha Nepal,	Multi-sectoral
79	Renaissance Society Nepal,	Multi-sectoral
80	Rural Health and Education Service Centre	Youth and Education
81	Rural Women Creative Forum	Multi-sectoral
82	Rural Women's Development and Unity Center (RUWDUC)	Multi-sectoral
83	Rural Women's Development Centre	Women's Economic Empowerment
84	SAATHI	Women's Economic Empowerment, Multi-sectoral
85	Samabikas	Women's Economic Empowerment
86	Samachar Patra	Media
87	Samagra Radio	Youth and Education, Women's Economic Empowerment, Governance/Democracy
88	SAMANATA- Institute for Social & Gender Equality	Governance/Democracy
89	Sancharika Samuha	Media
90	Shakti Milan Samaj	Multi-sectoral
91	Shakti Samuha	Infrastructure

92	Shilpee Art Group	Youth and Education, Media
93	Single Women Group (WHR)	Multi-sectoral
94	Society for Empoertment-Nepal (STEP-Nepal)	Health
95	Society for Health Education	Health
96	South Asia Partnership-Nepal (SAP Nepal)	Governance/Democracy
97	Strii Shakti	Multi-sectoral
98	SWAD	Health
99	Swiss Development Cooperation	Multi-sectoral
100	The International Legal Foundation (ILF)	Governance/Democracy
101	The International Planned Parenthood Federation	Health
102	The Ministry of Youth, Sports and Human Resources	Governance/Democracy
103	The Ministry of Youth, Sports and Human Resources	Governance/Democracy
104	TPO-Nepal	Health
105	UNDP	Multi-sectoral
106	UNFPA	Multi-sectoral
107	UNFPA	Health
108	UNFPA	Multi-sectoral
109	UNICEF	Multi-sectoral
110	UNICEF	Multi-sectoral
111	UNICEF	Governance/Democracy
112	UNWomen	Women's Economic Empowerment
113	UNWomwn	Multi-sectoral
114	USAID	Governance/democracy
115	Voice of Women	Women's Economic Empowerment
116	WATCH Nepal	Multi-sectoral
117	Women development safe empowerment training centre	Women's Economic Empowerment
118	Women development Society Nepal	Governance/Democracy
119	Women for Human Rights	Women's Economic Empowerment
120	Women forum for women in Nepal (wofwon)	Women's Economic Empowerment
121	Women Progress centre, kanchanpur	Multi-sectoral
122	Women Security Pressure Group	Governance/Democracy
123	Women WelfareSociety	Women's Economic Empowerment
124	WOREC	Multi-sectoral
125	Working Women Journalist	Media
126	World Education	Youth and education
Pakistan		
1	Aahung	Multi-sectoral

2	AASHA (Alliance Against Sexual Harassment)	Multi-sectoral
3	Acid Survivors Foundation (ASF)	Multi-sectoral
4	Action Aid Pakistan	Multi-sectoral
5	ADB	Multi-sectoral
6	AGS Law Associates	Governance/Democracy
7	Al Asar Development Organization	Women's Economic Empowerment
8	Al Mubarik Welfare Society	Governance/Democracy
9	Al Shahbaz womens organization	Multi-sectoral
10	All Pakistan Womens Association	Multi-sectoral
11	AMAL Human Development	Health
12	Ansar Burney Trust	Governance/Democracy
13	Applied Socio-economic research (ASR)	Multi-sectoral
14	Asia Foundation	Multi-sectoral
15	Aurat Foundation	Multi-sectoral
16	Aware Girls	Multi-sectoral
17	Balochistan Foundation for Development	Multi-sectoral
18	Balochistan (Health and Rural Development) (HARD)	Multi-sectoral
19	Bargad	Youth and Education
20	Batool Welfare Trust	Multi-sectoral
21	Bedari	Multi-sectoral
22	Behbud	Multi-sectoral
23	Blue Veins	Health
24	Boy Scouts, Balochistan	Youth and Education
25	Bytes for All	Media
26	Care International	Multi-sectoral
27	Citizen Rights and Sustainable Development	Multi-sectoral
28	Collective for Social Science Research	Multi-sectoral
29	Community Development Foundation	Multi-sectoral
30	Consultative Group for Development Cooperation	Multi-sectoral
31	Creative Anger	Multi-sectoral
32	Dastak	Multi-sectoral
33	Depilex Smile Again Foundation	Multi-sectoral
34	Ethnomedia	Governance/Democracy
35	Federal Ombudsman for Protection Against Harassment	Governance/Democracy
36	Gawaahi	Media
37	Gender Crime Cell	Governance/democracy
38	Girl Guides of Pakistan	Multi-sectoral

39	HANDS	Legal rights (Governance/Democracy)
40	Himalyan Development Foundation	Multi-sectoral
41	HRCP	Multi-sectoral
42	Human Development Foundation	Youth and Education
43	Human Rights Commission	Media
44	IDRAK	Health
45	Insaaf Network Pakistan	Governance/Democracy
46	Insaf Foundation	Governance/Democracy
47	Insan Foundation Trust	Multi-sectoral
48	International Child Development Initiatives	Multi-sectoral
49	Islamabad Progressive Women's Association	Governance/Democracy
50	Kainaat Development Association	Multi-sectoral
51	Kashf Foundation	Women's Economic Empowerment
52	Khushal Welfare Organization	Multi-sectoral
53	Khwendo Kor	Multi-sectoral
54	Lawyers for Human Rights and Legal Aid	Governance/Democracy
55	Life and Hope	Multi-sectoral
56	Madadgar	Youth and Education
57	Madni Women Development Organisation [MINDO]	Multi-sectoral
58	Meher garh	Youth and Education
59	Meher Garh	Governance/Democracy
60	Mehran-Socio cultural forum	Multi-sectoral
61	Men Engage alliance for Gender Equality	Multi-sectoral
62	Ministry of Human Rights	Governance/Democracy
63	Mukhtar Mai Women's Organization	Multi-sectoral
64	National Commission on the status of women	Governance/Democracy
65	National Organization for Social Development	Health
66	National Police Bureau	Governance/Democracy
67	National White Ribbon Campaign	Governance/Democracy
68	Nishat Welfare Organization	Multi-sectoral
69	Noor Pakistan	Multi-sectoral
70	Norweigan Church Aid	Multi-sectoral
71	Norweigan Church Aid	Multi-sectoral
72	Oxfam Pakistan	Multi-sectoral
73	Paiman Trust	Multi-sectoral
74	Pakistan Federation of Business & Professional Women	Women's Economic Empowerment
75	Pakistani Womens Human Rights Organization	Governance/Democracy

76	Pattan	Multi-sectoral
77	Plan Pakistan	Multi-sectoral
78	Population Council Pakistan	Health
79	Rahnuma-Family planning association of Pakistan	Governance/Democracy
80	Research and Development for Human Resources	Health
81	Rozan	Multi-sectoral
82	Rutgers WPF	Education, Health
83	Sahara for Life trust	Health
84	Sahil	Multi-sectoral
85	Sarsabz Foundation	Women's Economic Empowerment
86	Sewa development trust	Multi-sectoral
87	Sexual Harrassment Watch (An initiative of Meher Garh)	Multi-sectoral
88	Shahid Benazir Bhutto Womens Centers (Ministry of Womens Development, Pakistan)	Governance/Democracy
89	Shirkat Gah	Governance/Democracy
90	Simorgh Collective	Governance/Democracy
91	Society for Appraisal and Womens empowerment in rural areas (SAWERA)	Women's Economic Empowerment
92	Society for Community organization and promotion of education (SCOPE)	Multi-sectoral
93	Society for Empowering Human Resources (SEHER)	Governance/Democracy
94	Society for the Advancement of Community, Health Education and Training (SACHET)	Multi-sectoral
95	Sparc	Legal rights for children (Governance/Democracy),
96	Sujag Sansar	Water and Sanitation, Education, Disaster Relief
97	Tehrik E-Niswan	Governance/Democracy
98	The Kering Foundation	Multi-sectoral
99	The National Education and Environmental Development Society	Multi-sectoral
100	The Pakistan Women's Lawyers Association	Governance/Democracy
101	Uks	Multi-sectoral
102	UNFPA Pakistan	Multi-sectoral
103	UNHCR Pakistan	Multi-sectoral
104	UNIFEM Pakistan	Multi-sectoral
105	USAID Pakistan	Multi-sectoral
106	War against rape	Multi-sectoral
107	We Can Pakistan	Youth and Education

108	Women Association Struggle for Development	Multi-sectoral
109	Women Development Department	Governance/Democracy
110	Women Empowerment Group	Multi-sectoral
111	Women Shade	media
112	Women's Action Forum	Governance/Democracy
113	Womens Rights Association	Governance/Democracy
114	World Population Foundation	Multi-sectoral
115	World Vision International	Multi-sectoral
116	Youth Advocacy Network Pakistan	Youth and Education
117	Youth Network	Youth and Education
Sri Lanka		
1	Affected Women's Forum	Multi-sectoral
2	ARD	Governance/Democracy
3	Association of War Affected Women	Governance/Democracy
4	CARE International Sri Lanka	Multi-sectoral
5	CARE International Sri Lanka	Multi-sectoral
6	Center for Women's Research	Multi-sectoral
7	Community Concern Society	Multi-sectoral
8	Community Strength Development Organization	Multi-sectoral
9	Danish Refugee Council	Crisis and Disaster
10	Devasarana Development Centre, Kurunegala	Multi-sectoral
11	Development Alternatives with Women for a New Era	Multi-sectoral
12	Diriyata Sawiyak Women's Organization	Multi-sectoral
13	EMERGE Global	Multi-sectoral
14	Employers Federation of Ceylon	Multi-sectoral
15	Family Planning Association (FPA)	Multi-sectoral
16	FDSIL (formerly FORUT)	Multi-sectoral
17	Good Shepherd Sisters	Multi-sectoral
18	ILO	Governance/Democracy
19	Inform Human Rights Documentation Centre (INFORM)	Governance/Democracy
20	Kantha Shakthi Organisation	Multi-sectoral
21	Legal Aid Commission of Sri Lanka	Governance/Democracy
22	Mannar Women's Development Foundation	Multi-sectoral
23	Ministry of Child Development and Women's Affairs	Governance/Democracy
24	Ministry of Gender, Family and Human Rights	Governance/Democracy
25	Ministry of Health and Welfare	Governance/Democracy
26	Ministry of Justice	Governance/Democracy

27	Mithuru Piyasa Centers (at Castle Street Hospital for Women, Ministry of Health Sri Lanka)	Health
28	National Committee on Women	Multi-sectoral
29	Norwegian Refugee Council (since closed down)	Governance/Democracy
30	Oxfam Australia	Multi-sectoral
31	Oxfam GB Sri Lanka	Governance/Democracy
32	Penne Vimochana Gnanodayam	Multi-sectoral
33	Plantation Human Development Trust (tri-partite org)	Governance/Democracy
34	Police Children and Women's Bureau Desks	Governance/Democracy
35	Protection of Environment and Children Everywhere (PEACE)	Women's Economic Empowerment, Governance/Democracy,
36	Rajarata Women's Foundation	Multi-sectoral
37	Ruhunu Rural Women's Organisation	Multi-sectoral
38	Sarvodaya	Multi-sectoral
39	Save the Children	Multi-sectoral
40	Sri Lanka Medical Association (Women's Committee)	Multi-sectoral
41	Sri Lanka Sumithrayo	Multi-sectoral
42	Sri Lanka Women Lawyers' Association	Governance/Democracy
43	Suriya Women's Development Center	Multi-sectoral
44	The Agromart Foundation	Governance/Democracy
45	The Asia Foundation Sri Lanka	Governance/Democracy
46	The Asian Development Bank	Multi-sectoral
47	The National Child Protection Authority	Multi-sectoral
48	The Salvation Army of Sri Lanka	Multi-sectoral
49	UN (UNFPA)	Multi-sectoral
50	UNDP	Multi-sectoral
51	UNFPA	Multi-sectoral
52	UNHCR	Multi-sectoral
53	UNHCR Sri Lanka	Governance/Democracy
54	UNICEF	Multi-sectoral
55	UNWomen	Multi-sectoral
56	Vehilihini Development Organisation	Multi-sectoral
57	Welcome House	Multi-sectoral
58	WHO	Health
59	Women and Media Collective	Media
60	Women In Need (WIN)	Multi-sectoral
61	Women's Development Centre	Multi-sectoral

62	Women's Development Foundation (WDF)	Multi-sectoral
63	Women's Center	Governance/Democracy
64	Women's Education and Research Center	Multi-sectoral
65	World Vision Sri Lanka	Health

Select Evaluated Interventions Outside of South Asia That Address Violence against Women and Girls

Early Marriage

1	Primary or one of several objectives
2	VAWG not program objectives but included in program activities and evaluation

Program and organization. Sources.	Country	Program description	Focus areas	Evaluation description and findings
Ishraq (Sunrise) (2001-2013) Caritas, CEDPA, Population Council, Save the Children, Ministry of Youth, National Council for Childhood and Motherhood, Teaming for Development, Egyptian Food Bank, Embassy of the Kingdom of the Netherlands, Nike Foundation, The Dickler Family Foundation, The Ford Foundation/Egypt,	Egypt	Program looked to create safe public spaces for girls, support their continuing education and change their knowledge and attitudes regarding marriage and childbearing. The program targeted out-of-school girls (aged 12-15), adolescent boys (aged 13-18), and parents. Literacy classes, life skills training and sports training were offered in a classroom setting. Girls meet four times a week for three-hour sessions in youth centers. Program was implemented in one year in 54 villages and reached 3,321 girls and 1,775 boys.	1 A,B,C	Methodology: Quasi-experimental. Comparison of participants and non-participants. Evaluation covers period 2001-2004. Findings: Ishraq participants were more likely to want to delay marriage and limit childbearing. Eighty-five percent thought that the appropriate age at marriage should be 18 or older, while only 63 percent of non-participants thought the same. Ishraq participants were also more likely to believe they should have a say in who they marry. Parents' attitudes became more progressive about girls' roles, rights and capacities.

Focus area codes: A = Empowering girls with information, skills, and support networks; B = Educating and mobilizing parents and community members; C = Enhancing the accessibility of and quality of formal schooling for girls; D = Offering economic support and incentives for girls and their families

Program and organization. Sources.	Country	Program description	Focus areas	Evaluation description and findings
<p>UK Department for International Development, UNICEF/Egypt</p> <p>Selim, M; Nahla Abdel-T; K Elsayd, K; el badawy A, and El Kalaawy,H (2013)</p>				
<p>Berhane Hewan (2004-present)</p> <p>Ethiopian Ministry of Youth and Sport, Amhara Regional Bureau of Youth and Sport, Population Council, UNFPA, UN Foundation, Nike Foundation, USAID, Amhara Regional Bureau of Women, Children, and Youth, Ethiopia Ministry of Women, Children, and Youth, Tabora Development Foundation Trust, Association Munyu des Femmes de la Comoe</p> <p>Erulkar, A. S. & Muthengi, E. (2009).</p>	Ethiopia	<p>The program's objective was to reduce the prevalence of child marriage. Program activities included literacy and livelihood training delivered in group setting and creation of safe spaces for girls. There were also activities with the communities to engage them in discussions of key issues, such as early marriage. Communities were supported in the development of collective actions, such as not to marry off their daughters early or not to circumcise them. Once a collective decision was reached, a subset of the group formed a committee, which in turn attempted to influence other community members to adopt the same resolution. Program targeted married and unmarried</p>	1 A,B,C,D	<p>Methodology: A quasi-experimental evaluation with baseline and endline. Chi-square tests, proportional hazards models and logistic regressions were also conducted. Evaluation covers period 2004-2006.</p> <p>Findings: Younger girls aged 10-14 experienced more positive changes resulting from the intervention. This cohort was more likely to be in school and less likely to be married. At baseline, 10% and 14% of treatment and control girls respectively had ever been married. At endline, only 2% of intervention girls in this cohort had been married while the figure rose to 22% in the control area. When the sample was restricted to girls who had not been married two years before the survey periods, a similar pattern was observed: The proportions of girls who got married in the year prior to baseline were nearly the same (1%–2%), but at endline none of the treatment girls had gotten married in the previous year, whereas 5% of the controls had done so. The likelihood of having ever been married increased with age and higher-socioeconomic status and decreased with years of education. Girls aged 15-19 in the intervention area had a higher likelihood of being married by endline. The evaluation results suggest a</p>

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		young girls aged 10-19.		delay in marriage until later adolescence.
Zomba Cash Transfer Program (2007-2009) World Bank, Government of Malawi Baird, S, McIntosh, C., & Ozler, B. (2009).	Malawi	Conditional cash transfer program that provides approximately \$10 conditional on school attendance to current schoolgirls and young women who have recently dropped out of school to stay in or return to school. Program also provides direct payment of secondary school fees.	2 C,D	Methodology: Randomized control trial. Findings: For program beneficiaries who were out of school at baseline, the probability of getting married declined by more than 40%. However, the program had no effect on the propensity to get married among the baseline schoolgirls – 4.7% of whom got married both among the controls and treatments. Another treatment arm with unconditional cash transfers (Baird 2011) the likelihood of girls being “ever married” was lower than in the conditional transfer arm.

References:

Baird, S., McIntosh, C., & Ozler, B. Cash or Condition? Evidence from a Cash Transfer Experiment. (2011) *The Quarterly Journal of Economics* (2011) 126 (4): 1709-1753.

Erulkar, A. S. & Muthengi, E. (2009). Evaluation of Berhane Hewan: A Program To Delay Child Marriage in Rural Ethiopia. *International Perspectives on Sexual and Reproductive Health*, 35, 6-14.

Selim, M; Abdel-Tawab N; Elsayed K; el badawy A, and El Kalaawy, H. 2013. “The Ishraq Program for out-of-school girls: from Pilot to scale-up.” Population Council

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Intimate Partner Violence

1	Primary or one of several objectives
2	VAWG not program objectives but included in program activities and evaluation

Program and organization. Sources.	Country	Program description	Focus areas	Evaluation description and findings
Respect, Protect, Connect Program South East Centre Against Sexual Assault Ricardo et al (2011); Fergus et al (2006)	Australia	Interactive training program that aimed to increase awareness of gender stereotyping and build skills for respectful and non-violent relationships. The program targets younger teens aged 12-15.	1 B	Methodology: Mixed-method approach with pre- and post-test questionnaires and semi-structured interviews in the two treatment schools and one control school. Findings: The evaluation revealed a decrease in favorable beliefs supporting the use of violence and gender stereotyping among young men. There were mixed results for young women; one treatment group saw a decrease in beliefs condoning VAW amongst young women and the other experienced a slight increase in these same beliefs by young women
The Youth Relationships Project (YRP) CPS Agencies Wolfe et al. (2003)	Canada	The program was designed to partner with youths to assist them in making informed choices and to learn about nonviolent, non-abusive and healthy relationships with their current and future partners. The programs used curriculum, guest speakers, videos, behavioral rehearsal, visit to community agencies, and social action project in the community.	1 B	Methodology: A random two-group, two-level growth curve design is applied to individual-level longitudinal data that permits an examination of the pattern of changes over time. Fifteen coeducational intervention groups (approximately 6–10 participants per group) were conducted. Each of the 2 hour sessions were detailed in an intervention manual and was led by a man and a woman co-facilitator who modeled positive relationship skills such as power sharing and assertiveness. Findings: Participants evidenced decreasing frequency and severity of abuse compared with controls. Also those receiving the intervention were less physically abusive toward their dating partners and reported less physical, emotional and threatening forms of abuse by their partners toward themselves.

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Program and organization. Sources.	Country	Program description	Focus areas	Evaluation description and findings
<p>A School-Based Program to Prevent Adolescent Dating Violence</p> <p>Center for Addiction and Mental Health, The University of Western Ontario, public schools in Southwestern Ontario</p> <p>Wolfe et al. (2009)</p>	Canada	<p>The program included core lessons about healthy relationships, sexual health and substance use prevention using interactive exercises, video resources, role-play exercises, rubrics, handouts, additional teacher training on dating violence and healthy relationships, information for parents and student-led “safe school committees”</p> <p>The intervention program aims to determine whether an interactive 21 lessons into the 9th grade curriculum increases the knowledge of participants on dating violence prevention, healthy relationships, sexual health, and substance use reduces physical dating violence (PDV).</p>	1 A, B	<p>Methodology: The individual student-level intervention was a 21-lesson manualized curriculum delivered by teachers with specialization in health and physical education . The curriculum comprised 3 units containing seven 75-minute classes each: (1) personal safety and injury prevention, (2) healthy growth and sexuality, and (3) substance use and abuse. Total sample consisted of a total of 1722 students aged 14-15 from 20 public schools (52.8% girls).Categorical data were analyzed by using 2-level hierarchical models to account for clustering of students in schools. Also, pre-specified subgroup analyses by sex were conducted. The follow-up was 2.5 year.</p> <p>Findings: The study showed that the Physical Dating Violence (PDV) was greater in control vs intervention students (9.8% vs 7.4%) and after intervention, the findings support for the hypothesis that teaching youth about healthy relationships and ways to avoid PDV in Grade 9 Health classes would reduce PDV 2.5 years later, but this effect was greater in boys (PDV: 7.1% in controls vs 2.7% in intervention students) than in girls (12.1% vs 11.9%).</p>
<p>Effect of an Advocacy Intervention on Mental Health in Chinese Women Survivors of Intimate Partner Violence-A Randomized Controlled Trial</p> <p>Tiwari et al (2010)</p>	China	<p>The focus of the intervention was to improve depressive symptoms among women with a history of IPV. The 12-week intervention consisted of in-person and telephone counseling support. The women in the control group received services that were already offered in the community centers where the intervention was implemented.</p>	2 D	<p>Methodology: Randomized control trial design where 200 women were placed either in the treatment or control group.</p> <p>Findings: There was a decrease in depressive symptoms in the women in the treatment group, although this was not statistically significant. There was also a decrease in psychological aggression by partners of women in the treatment group, which might have been a potential contributor to the decrease in depressive symptoms amongst women.</p>

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Program and organization. Sources.	Country	Program description	Focus areas		Evaluation description and findings
<p>Somos Diferentes, Somos Iguales (We are Different, We are Equal)</p> <p>PATH, the Horizons Program/ Population Council, National Autonomous University of Nicaragua – Center for Demographic and Health Research, Puntos de Encuentro</p> <p>Solórzano (2008)</p>	Nicaragua	<p>Mass media HIV-prevention program that included the production of a weekly edutainment TV drama, Sexto Sentido.</p>	2	A B	<p>Methodology: The program evaluation used quantitative and qualitative survey instruments. A longitudinal panel study was used to quantitatively evaluate the program’s impact on individuals.</p> <p>Findings: Exposure to the program is attributed with a greater probability of knowing of, and using centers that support victims of domestic violence. There was also a greater probability of having talked to someone in the last six months about experiencing domestic violence, and greater probability of perceiving capacities among their group of friends to jointly do something to solve domestic violence problems.</p>
<p>Stepping Stones</p> <p>MRC South Africa, Planned Parenthood Association of South Africa</p> <p>Jewkes et al. (2008)</p>	South Africa	<p>Stepping Stones was a 50-hour HIV-prevention program for women and men. The training curriculum covered a number of sexual and reproductive health topics including gender-based violence.</p>	2	A B	<p>Methodology: Cluster randomized control trial where the treatment clusters received the full 50-hour program and control clusters received a 3-hour training program on HIV and safer sex. Seventy clusters comprising of 64 villages were in the treatment group. VAW related outcomes measured by the evaluation include the incidence of physical or sexual intimate partner violence, rape or attempted rape and depression.</p> <p>Findings: The program did not have an effect on the incidence of HIV, but it had an impact on incidence of HSV-2 and perpetration of intimate partner violence. The proportion of men who perpetrated physical or sexual intimate partner violence was significantly lower.</p>
<p>Zero Tolerance Village Alliance Intervention Model</p> <p>Tohoyandou Victim Empowerment Program (TVEP), Population Council</p>	South Africa	<p>Program focused on addressing the problem of non-reporting of SGBV due to stigmatization of victims. Program activities included the creation of safe-houses for victims of abuse that were run by the community, the identification of male leaders as</p>	1	D	<p>Methodology: Randomized control trial</p> <p>Findings: Randomized control trial evaluation revealed that while there was no statistical significance observed for the variable, self-reported incidence of SGBV and self-reported experiences of SGBV increased in the two intervention sites. There was a marked increase, at endline, of knowledge of where to go to access services after assault, including TVEP Help desks, for both women and men, in treatment villages.</p>

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Program and organization. Sources.	Country	Program description	Focus areas		Evaluation description and findings
Carty (2010)		program champions, and community workshops where SGBV issues were discussed.			
<p>Intervention with Microfinance for AIDS and Gender Equity (IMAGE) (2001-2005)</p> <p>Rural AIDS & Development Action Research Program, School of Public Health, University of the Witwatersrand, South Africa; Small Enterprise Foundation</p> <p>Pronyk et Al.(2006)</p>	South Africa	HIV prevention intervention that included microfinance to poor women in addition to HIV training given to the women and other community members.	2	A B C	<p>Methodology: Randomized control trial evaluation where eight villages were pair-matched and randomly allocated to receive the intervention at once (the treatment group) or three years later (the comparison group). Both arms of the trial were divided into three cohorts: Cohort 1 consisted of the women who received the loans and training; Cohort 2 included randomly selected household co-residents who were 14-35 years old; and, Cohort 3 included randomly selected community members.</p> <p>Findings: Evaluation revealed a 55 percent reduction in IPV for cohort 1, but no effect on other factors (such as HIV transmission or rate of unprotected sex with non-spousal partner) measured for cohorts 2 and 3, household and community members. A combined microfinance and training intervention can lead to reductions in levels of intimate-partner violence in programme participants. Social and economic development interventions have the potential to alter risk environments for HIV and intimate-partner violence in southern Africa.</p>
<p>The World Starts With Me (WSWM)</p> <p>World Population Foundation, Butterfly Works, SchoolNet Uganda</p> <p>Rijsdijk et al (2011)</p>	Uganda	Computer-based programs that combined training in digital literacy with sex education (sexual and reproductive health). The program was implemented in secondary schools in Uganda. The computer-based lessons included virtual peer educator guides and games (i.e., safe sex quiz).	1	B	<p>Methodology: A quasi-experimental evaluation with intervention (N=853) and comparison students (N=1011). A mixed model repeated measures analysis was performed to assess the effectiveness of the program.</p> <p>Findings: The evaluation found significantly greater sense of self-efficacy in dealing with sexual coercion among students in the treatment group.</p>
<p>Family planning clinic partner violence intervention (Unnamed)</p> <p>Community based</p>	USA	This study examined the efficacy of a family-planning-clinic-based intervention to address IPV and reproductive coercion.	1	B D	<p>Methodology: Randomized control trial evaluation. English-speaking and Spanish-speaking females ages 16-29 years (N = 906) completed audio computer-assisted surveys prior to a clinic visit and 12-24 weeks later (75% retention rate). Analyses included assessment of intervention effects on recent IPV, awareness of IPV services and reproductive coercion.</p>

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Program and organization. Sources.	Country	Program description	Focus areas		Evaluation description and findings
<p>practitioners, IPV advocates and researchers, trained para-professional reproductive health specialists</p> <p>Miller et al (2011); Chibber et al (2011)</p>					<p>Findings: There was a 71 percent reduction in the odds of pregnancy coercion among women that reported an incident of IPV three months prior to the intervention. Women in the intervention arm were more likely to report ending a relationship because the relationship was unhealthy or because they felt unsafe regardless of IPV status.</p>
<p>Secondary prevention of intimate partner violence</p> <p>Unnamed urban public primary care clinics</p> <p>McFarlane et al. (2006)</p>	USA	<p>The trial examined the impact of various combinations of interventions in women’s safety behavior. Specifically, it examined the impact of nurse case management combined with abuse assessment and provision of referrals alone, on women’s safety behaviors, use of community resources, and subsequent experience of violence.</p>	1	B D	<p>Methodology: A randomized two arm clinical trial testing impact of a wallet-sized referral card and a 20-minute nurse case management protocol.</p> <p>Findings: Both treatment groups of women reported significantly fewer threats of abuse, assaults, danger risks for homicide, and events of work harassment, but there were no significant differences between groups. Compared to baseline, both groups of women adopted significantly more safety behaviors within 24 months; however, community resource use declined significantly for both groups.</p>
<p>Safe Dates Program</p> <p>Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration</p> <p>Foshee et al (1998, 2000, 2004)</p>	USA	<p>Safe Dates was a school-based prevention program that helped students recognize the difference between supportive and abusive relationships.</p>	1	B	<p>Methodology: Randomized control trial evaluation where participating schools were stratified by grade and matched by school size. Baseline data was collected in participating schools and follow-up data was collected 1-month after the intervention and then yearly for the next four years. A randomly selected half of treatment adolescents received a booster between years two and three.</p> <p>Findings: Evaluation revealed short-term behavioral effects including reductions in the perpetration of psychological abuse (25% reduction) and sexual violence (60% less) in treatment schools. Adolescents receiving the intervention reported significantly less physical and sexual dating violence perpetration and victimization 4 years after the program. The booster did not improve the effectiveness of the program.</p>
Video Doctor	USA	Study objective was to report the	2	B	<p>Methodology: Randomized control trial evaluation with women receiving</p>

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Program and organization. Sources.	Country	Program description	Focus areas		Evaluation description and findings
Health in Pregnancy Study,IBM Chibber et al (2011); Humphreys et al (2011)		effectiveness of a prenatal intervention and to provide evidence that prenatal visits provide an opportune time for health assessment and counseling for abused women.		D	routine prenatal care and were at risk for IPV. Findings: Women who received an interactive 15-minute multimedia-based assessment (the Video Doctor) followed by personalized counseling by a health care provider (aided by a printed cue sheet alert with suggested counseling messages) were more likely to report having IPV discussions with their provider. They were also more likely to find provider interactions to be helpful compared with patients receiving standard care.
Ending Violence Curriculum Break the Cycle Ricardo et al (2011); Jaycox et al (2006)	USA	Program objective was to prevent dating violence. The program included three-class-sessions focused on the law, highlighting legal rights of victims of domestic violence and legal responsibilities of perpetrators. The program targeted younger teens aged 12-15.		B	Methodology: Randomized control trial evaluation. Classrooms were randomly selected within tracks and individual student outcomes were assessed pre- and post-intervention, and six months later. Findings: Students in intervention classrooms showed improved knowledge related to IPV, less acceptance of female-on-male aggression, and enhanced perception of the helpfulness and likelihood of seeking assistance from a number of sources immediately after the program.
Unnamed five component dating Violence Prevention Program Single unnamed school in Long Island, New York Avery Leaf et al. (1997)	USA	Intervention consisted of a five-session dating violence curriculum implemented in health classes in a secondary school. Program objectives were to promote equity in dating relationships by demonstrating how gender inequality may foster violence; challenge individual/societal attitudes towards violence as a means of conflict resolution, identify constructive communication skills, and support resources for victims of aggression.	1	B	Methodology: Quasi-experimental evaluation with health classes randomly assigned to treatment and no treatment conditions. Findings: The evaluation revealed significant decreases in overall attitudes justifying the use of dating violence as a means to resolve conflict amongst those students exposed to the curriculum material. The rates of aggression, victimization and injury did not differ significantly between treatment and control groups. Significantly, more girls reported having been aggressive in a dating relationship during the past year.
Connections: Relationships and Marriage	USA	The purpose of this study was to evaluate the effectiveness of the Connections' curriculum up to	2	B	Methodology: Quasi-experimental design matched set of 72 high school students either in the curriculum group or the control group.

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<p>Agriculture experiment station at South Dakota State University; Dibble Institute for Marriage Education</p> <p>Gardner and Boellaard (2007)</p>		<p>four years after the class was taught instead of the original pre/posttest assessment. Program was a school-based training program that aimed to improve relationships.</p>			<p>Findings: The one variable that did show a significant difference between the groups at follow-up was dating and relationship violence. During the course of the curriculum, the Connections group had clear declines in their use of violence, whereas the control group had a modest increase. By the 1-year follow-up, the control group decreased their usage of violence to mirror the low level of the Connections group. During the time period between the 1- and 4-year follow-ups, however, the Connections group again decreased their usage of violence, and the control group increased their incidence of dating and relationship violence.</p>
<p>The Healthy Couples, Healthy Children: Targeting Youth (HCHCTY)</p> <p>U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Office of Planning Research and Evaluation and by the Alabama Department of Child Abuse and Neglect Prevention</p> <p>Kerpelman et. al 2009</p>	USA	<p>High school students in Family and Consumer Science classes participated in an evaluation study of the Relationship Smarts Plus (RS+) curriculum.</p>	2	B	<p>Methodology: Quasi-experimental evaluation including pre and post-surveys.</p> <p>Findings: The quantitative and qualitative findings of this evaluation showed that students receiving the RS+ program found the curriculum useful and there were improved changes in knowledge and attitudes from pre-to-post program in the participants. Positive changes in favor of curriculum effectiveness were found for six of the seven quantitative areas examined. Although there was no difference in the groups at pre-test in five of the six significant tests, the test group changed positively at post-test in all three faulty relationship beliefs, in perceived conflict management ability, beliefs about the importance of a supportive partner, and interest in pursuing future relationships education/counseling.</p>
<p>First Year Campus Acquaintance Rape Education</p> <p>University of Illinois</p> <p>Lonsway & Kothari (2000)</p>	USA	<p>FYCARE was a mandatory college rape education training program designed to increase student awareness of rape and relevant services in the school campus.</p>	1	A	<p>Methodology: In the program evaluation, questionnaires were designed for FYCARE participants and were assessed immediately following workshop participation. Telephone surveys were conducted with students who participated in FYCARE 4 to 6 months earlier and first year students who had not yet attended the workshop.</p> <p>Findings: The evaluation showed that FYCARE participants had greater sexual assault knowledge, less support for cultural rape myths, and less rape-supportive judgments in a hypothetical case scenario compared with students</p>

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					who had not yet attended a FYCARE workshop. However, positive change was seen primarily among those participants assessed immediately following the FYCARE workshop. No comparable impact was observed in the unrelated context of introductory psychology.
<p>Date-Rape Prevention Program</p> <p>Unnamed private institution</p> <p>Lanier et al 1998</p>	USA	The intervention was a play designed to counter rape-tolerant attitudes.	1	A B	<p>Methodology: A randomized pretest and posttest control group design to assess changes in attitudes was used for evaluation. Participants were randomly assigned in approximately equal numbers to the control and intervention groups. A pretest, play view (intervention or control play) was given to each group who then responded to a posttest questionnaire.</p> <p>Findings: The students who saw the play showed evidence of some improvement in attitudes toward date rape, compared with students exposed to the alternative play. There was equal improvement in the attitudes of men and women who viewed the play.</p>
<p>Poster Campaign for Empowering Bystanders to Prevent Campus Violence Against Women</p> <p>University of New Hampshire</p> <p>Source: SJ Potter (2009)</p>	USA	The poster campaign was a university based media program. It was based on extensive empirical and theoretical work that indicates sexual and intimate partner violence has roots in larger cultural, community, and peer norms. These norms support coercive relationships. The campaign was based on the 'Bringing in the Bystander' program, which is a peer-facilitated bystander education program. This program trains participants to identify situations that could lead to sexual violence and to intervene in safe, nonviolent, and positive ways before, during, and after such an incident with friends,	1	A	<p>Methodology: A posttest-only design was used to assess student awareness of the bystander role in reducing sexual violence. A Web survey was also conducted to reach a diverse sample of the student body. Students who participated in the survey were asked first about their attitudes regarding sexual violence prevention, then asked whether or not they had seen the posters, and in the end, were asked about the relevant demographic information.</p> <p>Findings: The results showed that poster campaigns can be important in raising awareness about sexual violence on the college campus. Promising variation in the awareness of students who reported seeing the campaign compared to those who did not was also observed.</p>

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<p>Rape-Awareness Program</p> <p>Women Helping Women (WHW), Ohio</p> <p>Proto-Campise et al. (1998)</p>	USA	<p>acquaintances, or strangers.</p> <p>The program was a high school based rape awareness program through presentations and discussions about the legal definition of rape, motivation of rape, statistics and myths about rape. The program had a one-session class presented by a worker from WHW. There was a combination of lecture and verbal interaction between the presenter and the students. The program was meant to dismiss common societal rape myths, to educate the participants about the warning signs of potentially dangerous situations, the importance of effective communication in dating relationships, role of media and information on community resources available to survivors of sexual violence.</p>	1	A	<p>Methodology: For evaluation, a two-page survey (that served as both the pre- and posttests) on rape attitudes was created and distributed in high schools. The experimental design had pre- and posttests and experimental and control groups. Data from a total of 837 surveys was used for conducting the multivariate analysis. First high school students adherence to rape myths was assessed, second the effectiveness of rape awareness program for high school students was assessed using an experimental design.</p> <p>Findings: Participation of high school students in a rape-awareness program has an important impact on changing students' adherence to rape myths by educating students about these myths. There seems to be strong support to include rape-awareness programs in high schools.</p>
<p>Reaching and Teaching Teens to Stop Violence</p> <p>Rape Counseling Center, urban inner city public charter middle school in undisclosed location,</p> <p>Weisz and Black (2001)</p>	USA	<p>The study addressed three research questions: (1) Do the knowledge levels and attitudes of seventh-grade students related to sexual assault program? (2) Are knowledge and attitude changes maintained over a six month period? (3) Do the knowledge levels and attitudes of seventh graders regarding sexual assault or dating violence differ by gender?</p>	1	A B	<p>Methodology: A quasi-experimental pretest, posttest, follow-up group design was used to evaluate the sexual assault and dating violence prevention program's effectiveness on the knowledge and attitudes of an intervention group of 46 and a comparison group of 20 African American seventh graders in urban middle school.</p> <p>Findings: In response to first two research questions, the findings suggest that the program was effective in increasing knowledge and improving attitudes, and effects were maintained for six months. In response to the third research question, the findings confirm that there are differences between male and female attitudes about sexual assault and dating violence.</p>

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Program and organization. Sources.	Country	Program description	Focus areas	Evaluation description and findings
		Programmatic approach included curriculum “Reaching and Teaching Teens to Stop Violence”, didactic presentation of information, modeling, role-plays, experiential exercises, discussions.		
<p>1. Rape Supportive Cognitions (RSC) 2. Victim Empathy/Outcome Expectancies (VE/OE)</p> <p>Schewe and O Donohue (1996)</p>	USA	<p>The goal of <u>Rape Supportive Cognitions (RSC)</u> was to increase subjects' knowledge concerning sexual communication, rape myths, and the disastrous effects of sexual victimization while the purpose of <u>Victim Empathy/Outcome Expectancies (VE/OE)</u> was to decrease subjects' proclivity to rape by increasing subjects' awareness of the negative consequences of rape, both for themselves. This study aimed to determine the relative efficacy of one over the other.</p> <p>Components of the program consisted of 50-min videotaped presentation, discussion, and behavioral exercises.</p>	1 A B	<p>Methodology: A 2 (Time; pre/post) x 3 (Group; RSC, VE/OE, No-Treatment) MANOVA was used to assess differences due to treatment for the four pre/post dependent measures (Attraction to Sexual Aggression (ASA), Acceptance of Interpersonal Violence (AIV), Adversarial Sexual Beliefs (ASB) and Rape Myth Acceptance (RMA)) and to control for experiment wise error, while a one-way ANOVA is conducted to assess group differences on the Rape Conformity Scale (RCA). 225 male undergraduates from a large Midwestern university participated in the pretest/screening for this study. The average age of subjects was 19.7 years (range = 18-33), and 67% were Caucasian, 15% Hispanic, 10% Asian American, and 6% African American.</p> <p>Findings: The results of this study supports the relative efficacy of the RSC program over the VE/OE intervention. While both interventions were successful in lowering subjects' scores on the ASA and on the AIV, only the RSC intervention was successful in changing subjects' scores on the ASB and RMA scales.</p>
<p>Expect Respect: Preventing Teen Dating Violence</p> <p>Ohio University, unnamed domestic violence prevention group.</p>	USA	The programmatic approach included discussion groups with engagement of students, video clips depicting real life situations, introducing Velma Farris, a woman who is a survivor of teen dating violence and domestic violence. The purpose of this study	1 A B	<p>Methodology: High school student participants in each treatment group provided demographic information, attitudes, and experiences of teen dating violence (TDV) via a background information form, the Conflict in Adolescent Dating Relationships Inventory (CADRI) and the Attitudes Toward Dating Violence Scales (ATDV) to determine the effect of the program directly after its completion and its short term effect three full weeks after the program concluded. While the sample size was 141 valid cases for CADRI analysis, 272 responses were obtained for ATDV analysis.</p>

Focus area codes: A = Raising awareness of rape or IPV and increasing knowledge and access to support services; B = Promoting healthy intimate partner relationships; C = Supporting women’s economic empowerment; D = Addressing consequences of IPV, including non-reporting, in order to reduce incidence of IPV.

Program and organization. Sources.	Country	Program description	Focus areas	Evaluation description and findings
Roberts (2009)		was to determine the efficacy of the Expect Respect: Preventing Teen Dating Violence program and to determine whether this program decreased the incidence of teens' use of violent behaviors in their relationships and if it altered teens' attitudes towards teen dating violence.		<p>For analysis of the data, measures were compared within and between the control and experimental groups resulting in a Repeated Measures Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) design.</p> <p>Results: The findings suggest that the program did lower participants' tolerance towards dating violence initially, and three weeks after the program concluded. In addition, male participants' scores were consistently higher than females' scores, tolerance of dating violence than females. Biological sex of respondent significantly explained 13% of the variance in scores on both ATDV scales overall.</p>

Focus area codes: A = Raising awareness of rape or IPV and increasing knowledge and access to support services; B = Promoting healthy intimate partner relationships; C = Supporting women's economic empowerment; D = Addressing consequences of IPV, including non-reporting, in order to reduce incidence of IPV.

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Sexual Harassment/ Non-Intimate Partner Violence

1	Primary or one of several objectives
2	VAWG not program objectives but included in program activities and evaluation

Program and organization. Sources.	Country	Program description	Focus areas	Evaluation description and findings
<p>Safe and Smart Savings Products for Vulnerable Adolescent Girls (2008-2011)</p> <p>Population Council, MicroSave Consulting</p> <p>Austrian and Muthengi (2013)</p>	Kenya, Uganda	<p>Program aimed to support the economic and social empowerment of adolescent girls. Activities included weekly meetings with female mentors and creation of safe spaces for girls, financial literacy training, and support in opening an individual savings account. The program worked with adolescent girls aged 10-19.</p>	2 A	<p>Methodology: Quasi-experimental evaluation with intervention and comparison group. The comparison group consisted of girls from a similar area who also opened bank accounts with the financial institutions that participated in the project. A program delivery error in Uganda caused many girls to not participate in the safe-spaces component. The evaluation in Uganda, therefore, allowed for a comparison between girls who opened a savings account and participated in the safe spaces component and girls who only opened a savings account.</p> <p>Findings: In Kenya, intervention girls were significantly less likely to report that they feared getting raped, or had been teased by people of the opposite sex at endline. Generally, intervention girls in the older age group (15-19) were significantly more likely to experience teasing than girls in the younger age group. The evaluation of the program in Uganda found that girls who only received a savings account experienced increased levels of sexual harassment and violence (i.e., being touched inappropriately or teased). This finding points to the possibility that simply increasing economic empowerment (i.e., savings accounts only) can increase girls vulnerability, unless it is accompanied by an investment in building girls' other assets, such as self-esteem, knowledge of their rights, and other life skills.</p>
<p>The guardian programme (1996)</p> <p>TANESA Project, District Education Office</p> <p>Mgalla, Z, Schapink, D and</p>	Tanzania	<p>Program objective was to reduce girls' vulnerability to sexual harassment in schools in Mwanza, Tanzania, where sexual harassment</p>	1 B	<p>Methodology: Guardians received one day of training. At the end of one year, the program was assessed through interviews with adolescent girls age 13-19 in a sample of intervention schools and a comparable sample of schools without the guardian program.</p> <p>Findings: The program was well accepted by girls with about 60 percent in the intervention schools having sought the guardian's help or advice; they were</p>

Focus area codes: A = Support social and economic empowerment of program participants; B = Reduce vulnerability to sexual harassment and violence; C = Provide knowledge and tools to intervene in situations of violence; D = Changing gender norms, attitudes and behaviors

Program and organization. Sources.	Country	Program description	Focus areas	Evaluation description and findings
Ties Boerma, J (1998)		and violence directed against school girls was found to be prevalent. In the context of an HIV/AIDS control project, a 'guardian' system was introduced in primary schools in which a female teacher was designated as someone who could be safely consulted by girls in cases of sexual harassment and for advice on sexual and reproductive health issues.		much more likely to speak to the guardian than were girls in the control schools and were more likely to seek assistance from a female teacher. For example, 19 percent of girls sought help from a guardian about being sexually harassed by a boy compared to just 1 percent of girls who sought help for the same problem from a female teacher. All of the schools in the study reported at least one case of sexual abuse or violence and many of these cases were made public.
Sexual violence prevention through bystander education: An experimental evaluation University of New Hampshire Banyard, V. L., Moynihan, M. M., Plante, E. G. (2007).	USA	Sexual violence prevention program based on a community responsibility model that teaches women and men how to intervene safely and effectively in case of sexual violence before during and after incidents with strangers, acquaintances and	1 C,D	Methodology: An experimental design with a longitudinal study was used. Two versions of the program were developed and tested to compare the effectiveness of different doses of the intervention. Analyses of gender differences in the effectiveness of the program were also conducted. To assess the relationship between socially desirable bias in responding and outcomes, a series of Pearson correlations were performed. Findings: Conducted over two academic years; the groups did not significantly differ from one another on outcome measures at pretest. Results from the research reveal that up to 2 months after participating in either a one or three-session version of the program, participants in the treatment conditions showed improvements across measures of attitudes knowledge and behavior while the control group did not. Most program efforts persisted at 4 and 12 months follow up. Higher perceived bystander ineffectiveness was related to lower bystander

Focus area codes: A = Support social and economic empowerment of program participants; B = Reduce vulnerability to sexual harassment and violence; C = Provide knowledge and tools to intervene in situations of violence; D = Changing gender norms, attitudes and behaviors

Program and organization. Sources.	Country	Program description	Focus areas		Evaluation description and findings
		friends. Program implemented in a university setting using group training.			willingness to intervene and more negative perceptions of bystander. Otherwise, correlations were fairly low between measures, supporting the decision. Univariate analyses indicated sex differences on most outcomes, with women more knowledgeable, less endorsing of general rape myths, more accurate about date rape, and more willing to engage in various bystander behaviors. Women reported that they actually engaged in more bystander behaviors and had total decisional balance scores that reflected less positive views of being an active bystander. For this sample, there were not overall significant differences between men and women in the impact of the prevention program though both men and women were tested. Furthermore, both one-session and three-session doses produced significant changes, though more significant change was seen with the longer prevention program. Application of such results supports implementation of longer prevention programs when possible for maximum effect, but also suggests that when time constraints prohibit longer programs, even a shorter bystander program can create important changes.
Syracuse Partnership for Violence Prevention (Mentors in Violence Prevention - MVP) Syracuse University Cissner (2009)	USA	The MVP program is based on a peer leadership model, targeting not only potential perpetrators and victims, but also seeking to empower those who might otherwise be passive bystanders to potentially violent situations. The program relies on adult staff to train youth participants ('Peer Educators') who in turn facilitate workshops attended	1	C,D	<p>Methodology: Quasi-experimental, pre-test/post-test survey design to measure change.</p> <p>Findings: Both peer-educators and workshop participants reported significantly less sexist attitudes at post-test than at pre-test. Workshop participants attributed significantly less sexist attitudes to their peers at post-test than at pre-test. However, peer educators' assessment of their peers did not change significantly. No significant change in the reporting or prevalence of violence in the university as a whole. Both groups reported an increase in self-efficacy and prevention.</p>

Focus area codes: A = Support social and economic empowerment of program participants; B = Reduce vulnerability to sexual harassment and violence; C = Provide knowledge and tools to intervene in situations of violence; D = Changing gender norms, attitudes and behaviors

Program and organization. Sources.	Country	Program description	Focus areas		Evaluation description and findings
		<p>by a larger number of their peers ('Workshop Participants'). This study was mainly to see whether the program can be adapted for a college age population. Program was implemented over three semesters. It was initially meant to be for college athletes. It has four primary aims to raise awareness of men's abuse of women, challenge mainstream messages about gender and sex, create a safe space for dialogue, and inspire leadership.</p> <p>Approach: group training</p>			
<p>Freshmen 101 Curriculum</p> <p>Unnamed high school in South Carolina</p> <p>Fay, K., & Medway, F. (2006)</p>	USA	<p>Program consisted of a six-activity acquaintance rape prevention program for first year high school students living in a rural community</p>	1	D	<p>Methodology: Randomized control trial</p> <p>Findings: The program decreased students acceptance of rape myths compared with non-participating students both on a scale developed by Burt and on additional items measuring acquaintance rape. Attitudes towards dating violence did not change.</p>

Focus area codes: A = Support social and economic empowerment of program participants; B = Reduce vulnerability to sexual harassment and violence; C = Provide knowledge and tools to intervene in situations of violence; D = Changing gender norms, attitudes and behaviors

Program and organization. Sources.	Country	Program description	Focus areas	Evaluation description and findings
		<p>in South Carolina. This program was included in high school's 'Freshman 101' curriculum-a three week experience focusing on high school transitions. Program objectives were to provide an understanding of acquaintance rape, rape laws and the relationship of rape to violence, explore feelings about acquaintance rape, be more aware of cultural norms influencing rape, learn about the role of inconsistent verbal and nonverbal communication, and identify rape prevention strategies. Rape myth changes are particularly significant as myth acceptance has been strongly linked to behavioral intentions to commit rape. The</p>		

Focus area codes: A = Support social and economic empowerment of program participants; B = Reduce vulnerability to sexual harassment and violence; C = Provide knowledge and tools to intervene in situations of violence; D = Changing gender norms, attitudes and behaviors

Program and organization. Sources.	Country	Program description	Focus areas	Evaluation description and findings
		<p>educational setting of this project was in the only high school in a town of 6600 in rural South Carolina. 21% of the population had family incomes below the poverty rate and the town's incidence of reported rape was 62% higher than the national average. 154 students (67 males, 85 females;78 control group, 76 treatment group).</p>		

Focus area codes: A = Support social and economic empowerment of program participants; B = Reduce vulnerability to sexual harassment and violence; C = Provide knowledge and tools to intervene in situations of violence; D = Changing gender norms, attitudes and behaviors

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Engaging Men and Boys to Prevent VAWG

1	Primary or one of several objectives
2	VAWG not program objectives but included in program activities and evaluation

Program and organization. Sources.	Country	Program description	Focus Areas		Evaluation description and findings
Using Football to Reach Men in GBV Prevention Date? Promundo Instituto Promundo (2012)	Brazil	Program included educational workshops, soccer tournaments and community-wide campaigns. Workshops focused on increasing awareness of gender norms and the consequences of violence against women. The soccer tournament served as an incentive: in order to participate in the soccer tournament, men needed to have participated in at least one workshop per week. Family members were invited to meals immediately after the matches to encourage wider family discussion on the topics.	1	A	Methodology: Quasi-experimental design. Targets were men aged 15-64 in Rio de Janeiro. Findings: Survey results show that following the workshops, there was a ten percent decrease in the number of participants in the intervention group who agreed with the statement “ <i>there are times when a woman deserves to be beaten.</i> ” Furthermore, following the intervention, there was a significant decrease in the number of men in the intervention group (from 62 to 53 percent), who agreed with the statement “ <i>violence in a relationship is the couple’s problem and should not be discussed with others</i> ” Participants self-reported continuing to use psychological violence during instances of conflict within couples. Additionally, there were statistically significant increases in the sharing of household responsibilities among male participants and their partners.
Promoting More Gender-equitable Norms and Behaviors Among Young Men as an HIV/AIDS	Brazil	The program examines the effectiveness of the interventions designed to i) improve young men’s	1	A	Methodology: A quasi-experimental study was conducted to compare the impact of different combinations of program activities: interactive group education and a community-wide “lifestyle”/ social marketing campaign to promote condom use. Three groups of young men aged 14 to 25 years, with

Focus area codes: A = Changing gender norms, attitudes, and behaviors; B = Provide knowledge and tools to intervene in situations of violence

Program and organization. Sources.	Country	Program description	Focus Areas		Evaluation description and findings
<p>Prevention Strategy.</p> <p>The Horizons Program and Instituto Promundo</p> <p>Julie Pulerwitz, Horizons/PATH Gary Barker, Márcio Segundo, and Marcos Nascimento, Instituto Promundo (2006)</p>		<p>attitudes toward gender norms and, (ii) to reduce HIV/STI risk through interactive group education and a community-wide social marketing campaign to promote condom use.</p>			<p>a mean age of 17 (at baseline, n = 780), were followed over time. The GEM (Gender-equitable men) Scale, which measures attitudes toward gender norms related to topics such as HIV/AIDS prevention, partner violence, and sexual relationships, was used to assess the impact of the program.</p> <p>Findings: The findings indicate that improvements on the gender norm scale were associated with changes in at least one key HIV/STI risk outcome. Agreement with inequitable norms in the GEM Scale was significantly associated with reported STI symptoms (p < .05), lack of contraceptive use (p = .05), and both physical and sexual violence against a current, or most recent, partner (p < .001).</p>
<p>Engaging Young Men via the Public Health System</p> <p>CulturaSalud</p> <p>Instituto Promundo (2012)</p>	Chile	<p>CulturaSalud conducted educational workshops for 260 young men via the public health sector, and in public schools, on the prevention of violence against women, alternatives to violence and gender equity. The manual and workshops addressed multiple types of violence including violence within families, intimate partner violence, assault and sexual abuse.</p>	1	A	<p>Methodology: Quasi-experimental design. To supplement the quantitative evaluation, in-depth interviews and focus groups were conducted with both health professionals who implemented the workshops, and young men who participated in them, to assess their impact. CulturaSalud conducted 16 in-depth interviews and six group interviews with participants, and five in-depth interviews and five focus groups with the health professionals.</p> <p>Findings: Results showed a significant positive change in participants' self-reported behavior, including an increase in condom use. There was also a significant increase in gender equitable behavior by participants and they reported feeling that they were given better tools to deal with violence compared to no change in the control group.</p>

Focus area codes: A = Changing gender norms, attitudes, and behaviors; B = Provide knowledge and tools to intervene in situations of violence

Program and organization. Sources.	Country	Program description	Focus Areas		Evaluation description and findings
<p>Male Norms Initiative</p> <p>The US President's Emergency Plan for AIDS Relief (PEPFAR)</p> <p>Pulerwitz et al. (2010)</p>	Ethiopia	<p>The program aimed to promote gender equitable norms and reduce risk of HIV and violence. Activities conducted included distribution of leaflets, newsletters, and other materials, music and drama skits, community discussions, condom distribution, and an International Father's Day March.</p>	1	A	<p>Methodology: This quasi-experimental study was used to compare the impact of different sets of program activities on three groups of young men ages 15 to 24 years, who were members of the youth groups. After being exposed to different interventions, three groups of young men were followed over six months. One intervention arm consisted of interactive group education with community engagement activities (GE+CE); the second intervention arm included only community engagement activities (CE); and the third arm (a comparison group) did not receive any intervention activities until after the study period ended (a "delayed" intervention). Surveys were administered in May and June 2008.</p> <p>Findings: The program had a positive impact on young men's attitude towards gender norms: the percentage of respondents who reported being physically violent toward a female partner over the past six months significantly decreased in both the GE+CE arm (36 vs. 16 percent) and the CE-only arm (36 vs. 18 percent). Also 95% of participants in the GE+CE arm, and 82% of participants in the CE arm reported that after intervention, they are more aware of gender issues, treat women with more respect, have increased their ability to negotiate condom use, reduced their sexual risk behavior, and have learned how to improve partner communication about HIV risk issues.</p>
<p>One Man Can Campaign</p> <p>Sonke Gender Justice Network</p> <p>Colvin (2009)</p>	South Africa	<p>The One Man Can Campaign engages men to prevent GBV, reduce the spread and impact of HIV/AIDS and support efforts to achieve greater gender equality. The program included training to civil society organizations on a range of community education, mobilization and advocacy activities. The program also included a</p>	1	A	<p>Methodology: Program evaluation included phone surveys with a randomly selected pool of previous OMC campaign workshop participants in the three provinces, in addition to other sources of data. One of the indicators included in the evaluation was increased awareness and reporting of GBV.</p> <p>Findings: The phone survey indicated significant changes in short-term behavior in the weeks following Sonke workshops with 50% of participants reporting acts of gender-based violence. More than 4 out of 5 participants at Sonke workshops also reported having subsequently talked with friends or family members about HIV and AIDS, gender and human rights.</p>

Focus area codes: A = Changing gender norms, attitudes, and behaviors; B = Provide knowledge and tools to intervene in situations of violence

Program and organization. Sources.	Country	Program description	Focus Areas		Evaluation description and findings
		range of communication campaigns through various media. Work was also undertaken with local governments to support the implementation of existing laws related to GBV. The campaign was launched in urban, peri-urban and rural areas with men and boys of all ages			
<p>'How to Help a Sexual Assault Survivor' Program (Spring 1995)</p> <p>Department of Resident Life, University of Maryland, College Park</p> <p>Foubert & Marriott (1997).</p>	USA	An all-male sexual assault peer education program focusing on how to help survivors. Trained male undergraduate peer educators used videos and facilitation skills in college campuses.	1	A	<p>Methodology: Randomized control trial. Belief in rape myths was assessed using the Burt Rape Myth Acceptance Scale in which respondents endorse belief in items rated on a 7 point Likert scale. The scale was completed three times: at pre-test, immediately following the post test, and approximately two months after (follow up test). The control group completed the questionnaire only twice-one month apart. Participants were told that the sessions will provide them with the skills to help a sexual assault survivor to ensure men enter the program in a non-judgmental open atmosphere</p> <p>Findings: Led to a decrease in rape myth belief among predominantly Caucasian participants immediately after, and two months following, a one-hour program. Program participants believed fewer rape myths than the initial testing of a control group. In addition, a clear majority of participants reported decreased likelihood of being sexually coercive as a result of attending the program.</p>
Preventing Sexual Aggression Among College Men: An Evaluation of a Social Norms and Bystander Intervention Program	USA	This study administered two tailored single-sex programs for randomly assigned male and female first year students living in the same campus community. Male	1	A,B	<p>Methodology: Randomized control trial. First-year dormitories were randomly assigned to participate in either the treatment or control groups. The program incorporated social norms and bystander intervention education and is grounded in theory and empirical data regarding risk for sexual aggression. Men completed a 1.5-hour intervention program and 1 hour booster.</p> <p>Findings: Compared with men in the control group, men in the program</p>

Focus area codes: A = Changing gender norms, attitudes, and behaviors; B = Provide knowledge and tools to intervene in situations of violence

Program and organization. Sources.	Country	Program description	Focus Areas		Evaluation description and findings
Gidycz, C, Orchowski, L and Berkowitz,A (2011)		participants were exposed to a theoretically driven prevention program and female participants were exposed to a risk reduction program. Both programs focused on debunking rape myths, increasing awareness about conditions of consent, and fostering bystander interventions.			group found sexual assault behavior less reinforcing. Program group men also evidenced larger decreases in associations with sexual assault peers and exposure to sexually explicit media relative to the control group. Program group men also believed that their friends would be more likely to intervene when they witnessed inappropriate behavior. These findings are noteworthy in light of previous research suggesting that men’s own willingness to intervene is strongly associated with their perceptions of how other men might act in similar situations. Despite positive changes, some outcomes remained unchanged like support for rape prevention efforts and sustained positive changes in rape myths.
The Men’s Program One in Four Inc. Foubert, J. D., & Newberry, J. T. (2006).	USA	The Men’s Program was a college rape education program specifically designed for college men and it was designed to reduce men’s defensiveness while still targeting men’s rape supportive behaviors and beliefs. It uses video, audience connection and discussion. The major ways this program focuses on ending rape is through a powerful male-on-male victim empathy component and by including bystander intervention training delivered by male peer	1	A	<p>Methodology : This was a randomized control trial. All 12 fraternities on the campus were randomly divided. Four fraternities participated in The Men’s Program with an added training module on bystander intervention in situations involving alcohol; four participated in The Men’s Program with an added training module on defining consent in situations involving alcohol; and four constituted a control group. They were first presented guided imagery of a woman close to them being sexually assaulted while a bystander did nothing to stop it. Next, participants were asked what they would do where they had the opportunity to confront another man abusing or preparing to, with a woman who cannot give consent due to intoxication. Finally, participants considered what they would do in a potentially sexually intimate situation involving alcohol. The program is based in belief system theory and elaboration likelihood model. Belief in rape myths was assessed using the IRMAS. Behavioral intent to rape was assessed by Malamuth’s likelihood of raping scale. Empathy was measured by the Rape Empathy Scale. Pre and posttest surveys, which took about 10 minutes.</p> <p>Findings: Program participants reported significant increases in empathy toward rape survivors and significant declines in rape myth acceptance, likelihood of raping, and likelihood of committing sexual assault. Program participants’ scores significantly differed from an untreated control group in</p>

Focus area codes: A = Changing gender norms, attitudes, and behaviors; B = Provide knowledge and tools to intervene in situations of violence

Program and organization. Sources.	Country	Program description	Focus Areas		Evaluation description and findings
		educators to an all-male audience. Participants are specifically encouraged to learn to respond more effectively to women who might seek their assistance after surviving rape.			several areas. Implications for describing a male-on-male rape to increase men's empathy toward female survivors and other related attitudes are discussed. Evidence was stronger for the impact of the program that contained <i>The Men's Program</i> with an additional element on 'alcohol and bystander intervention' than 'alcohol and defining consent'.
Men As Allies as part of the 'Working Together' curriculum Hillenbrand-Gunn, T., Heppner, M.J., Mauch, P. A. & Park, H. J. (2010).	USA	The Men's Program was a college rape education program specifically designed for college men and it was designed to reduce men's defensiveness while still targeting men's rape supportive behaviors and beliefs. It uses video, audience connection and discussion. The major ways this program focuses on ending rape is through a powerful male-on-male victim empathy component and by including bystander intervention training delivered by male peer educators to an all-male audience. Participants are specifically encouraged to learn to respond more effectively to women who might seek their assistance after surviving	1	A	<p>Methodology: The intervention consisted of three 45-minute sessions. Data about peer pressure and dating violence was presented along with a focus on the students' disagreement with rape-supportive behavior and positive feedback for students suggestions to decrease abusive behavior. Finally, during the last session, a student role play served as a means to demonstrate how males can be a support to a rape survivor.</p> <p>Findings: The male and female experimental groups demonstrated a significant decrease in rape-supportive attitudes, which was maintained at follow-up. Male participants viewed peers' attitudes toward sexual violence as significantly different (worse) from peers' pretest self-ratings; after intervention, male and female experimental group participants' peer ratings were significantly more accurate.</p>

Focus area codes: A = Changing gender norms, attitudes, and behaviors; B = Provide knowledge and tools to intervene in situations of violence

Program and organization. Sources.	Country	Program description	Focus Areas		Evaluation description and findings
		rape.			
<p>Coaching Boys into Men (CBIM)' Dating Violence (DV) Perpetration Prevention Program</p> <p>Futures Without Violence</p> <p>Miller (2011)</p>	USA	<p>CBIM was a school-based training program of athletic coaches to become role models for male athletes. CBIM was intended to engage athletic coaches to become positive role models to deliver violence prevention messages to adolescent male athletes. The program has a 60-minute training session for coaches, led by a trained instructor who also introduced 'Coaches Kit' which provides strategies to athletes to discuss violence against women. There were also eleven</p>	1	A,B	<p>Methodology: 2,006 student athletes participated in the intervention and control groups from across 16 schools. Of these, 1,798 athletes participated in a follow up assessment 3 months after the program. Regression models for clustered, longitudinal data that assessed between-arm differences in over-time changes in the mean levels of continuous outcomes were used. The primary outcomes were intentions to intervene, recognition of abusive behaviors, and gender-equitable attitudes while the secondary outcomes explored bystander behaviors and abuse perpetration.</p> <p>Findings: This evaluation showed the effectiveness of a school athletics-based prevention program as a promising strategy to reduce DV perpetration. Athletes who were exposed to the intervention showed improvements in intentions to intervene and recognition of abusive behaviors and positive bystander intervention as compared with the control subjects.</p>

Focus area codes: A = Changing gender norms, attitudes, and behaviors; B = Provide knowledge and tools to intervene in situations of violence

Program and organization. Sources.	Country	Program description	Focus Areas		Evaluation description and findings
		“Training Cards” guides with short 10–15 minutes weekly discussions with athletes highlighting DV prevention.			
Mentors in Violence Prevention (MVP) Program, Northeastern University Northeastern University (2007)	USA	MVP is a university based, gender violence prevention and education program. It aimed to create awareness among the participants about the level of men’s verbal, emotional, physical, and sexual abuse of women.	1	A	<p>Methodology: The evaluation of the program was conducted from 1999-2002. Both qualitative and quantitative data from 475 student leaders from 20 different urban, suburban, and rural high schools was collected for the analysis.</p> <p>Findings: It was found that the MVP was very effective in creating positive and significant changes in students’ knowledge, attitudes and behaviors regarding gender violence. MVP has a powerful impact on both individuals and communities.</p>
Sexual Assault Prevention Program for Men The Ohio Department of Health Lobo (2004)	USA	This program was a college based sexual assault prevention program using presentations, group discussions and group activity. It was based on social norms theoretical perspective and integrated model of sexual assault by Berkowitz (1992 &2003). Some of the objectives were to improve participants understanding about consent, to discourage rape supportive attitudes, and help prevent the occurrence of sexually aggressive behavior. The	1	A	<p>Methodology: There was a random selection of 342 college men for control and experimental groups. Pre-test and post-tests at 3 months and 7 months were conducted to collect data on self-reported sexually aggressive behavior, rape supporting attitudes, perception of other men’s attitude about sexual aggression and judgments of consent. Statistical analysis was performed on the collected data</p> <p>Findings: The results of evaluation suggested a lack of evidence to support the effectiveness of this program. It was observed that a brief, one session prevention program is not very effective and only those programs that have multiple exposures to important information over a period of time have a stronger impact.</p>

Focus area codes: A = Changing gender norms, attitudes, and behaviors; B = Provide knowledge and tools to intervene in situations of violence

Program and organization. Sources.	Country	Program description	Focus Areas		Evaluation description and findings
		program was conducted by a trained male graduate student and participants were randomly assigned to control or experimental groups.			

Focus area codes: A = Changing gender norms, attitudes, and behaviors; B = Provide knowledge and tools to intervene in situations of violence

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