Preventing and Responding to
Sexual Violence in Situations of Fragility and Conflict

Introduction

Women and girls are particularly vulnerable to sexual violence in situations of fragility and conflict. Sexual and physical violence against women and girls are often used to dominate, to terrorize, and to humiliate people (World Bank 2011). During conflict, they are often sexually tortured and abused with devastating physical and psychological trauma. The high level of sexual and gender-based violence against women and girls can also continue after conflicts finally end, especially before judicial and law enforcement systems are rebuilt. Although survivors of sexual violence are overwhelmingly women and girls, men and boys can also be subject to sexual violence or forced to perpetrate sexual violence against other, and even their family members (World Bank 2011).

Sexual violence causes both immediate impacts and long-term consequences, and can impede development efforts. This note summarizes the issue of sexual violence in unstable settings, particularly during and after conflict. It first describes the magnitude of sexual violence, and then explains drivers of sexual violence as well as its impacts on individuals, families, and communities. The note ends with a review of the evolving international framework to address sexual violence in conflict, a discussion of possible interventions, and potential areas for the World Bank to support actions to address gender based violence in situations of fragility and conflict.

Magnitude of Sexual Violence

The magnitude of sexual violence varies according to circumstances. The World Development Report on Conflict, Security, and Development (WDR 2011) finds significant increases in gender-based violence, including sexual violence, following a major war (World Bank 2011). In recent conflict settings, the prevalence varied from an estimated 20,000 rapes during the conflict in 1992 in Bosnia-Herzegovina (Wood 2006) to an estimated 250,000 rapes during the 1994 genocide in Rwanda (Bijleveld et al. 2009). In the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), approximately 1.8 million women between 15 and 49 years old reported having been raped in their lifetime, with more than 400,000 women reporting having been raped in the 12 months prior to the 2007 DRC Demographic Health Survey (Peterman et al. 2011). Indigenous women and women from minority clan or ethnic groups are at the greatest risk of sexual violence in conflict, and are specifically targeted as part of genocide and ethnic cleansing. In Guatemala, 90 percent of war-related sexual violence survivors were indigenous women and girls (Hanlon and Shankar 2000).

Sexual violence tends to remain high even after a conflict ends. For example, five years after the civil war ended in Sierra Leone, the International Rescue Committee (IRC) treated 1,176 rape cases at its clinics, and 65 percent of their patients were under the age of 15 (IRIN 2008). IRC estimates that this number is only a
fraction of the total number of incidences because few survivors are willing to come forward due to the stigmatization caused by rape. In Burundi, sexual violence also continued to rise after the country returned to democracy in 2005. Ligue ITEKA, a local human rights group, found the number of reported sexual violence cases increased from 983 in 2003 to 1,930 in 2006 (IRIN 2007). It is difficult to determine whether the level of sexual violence is higher after a conflict than during or before a conflict or whether there is an increase in reporting of sexual violence after the conflict (Bastick et al. 2007; Pézard and Florquin 2007).

Driving Factors of Sexual Violence

Sexual violence is not only a consequence of conflict, but rather, the result of a number of interrelated factors, including pre-existing gender norms, a shift in gender roles, lack of economic opportunities, physical insecurity, lack of law and order, and a culture of impunity.

Sexual violence is often deeply rooted in pre-existing gender norms characterized by unequal power relations between men and women in society. Particularly in traditional patriarchal society, men are expected to be physically strong, decision-makers at both household and community levels, whereas girls are seen as submissive, taking care of domestic chores, and having no power in decision-making at the community level. Patriarchal power disparities, discriminatory cultural norms, and economic inequalities allow men to exercise their power to control women and hence perpetuate sexual violence. Sexual violence is more likely to occur where beliefs in male sexual entitlement are strong and where gender roles are rigid. For instance, in DRC where the level of sexual violence is high, members of the Mai Mai militia described women as property of men and in subordinate roles to men. This narrow view of women’s gender roles coupled with other factors contributes to the perpetration of sexual violence and other atrocities (Kelly et al. 2009). Pre-existing gender norms are

Box 1: Improving Data Collection on Sexual Violence in Conflict

The International Rescue Committee, the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, and the United Nations Population Fund have developed the Gender-Based Violence Information Management System (GBVIMS) to improve knowledge and understanding of sexual violence in conflict. The GBVIMS includes a gender-based violence classification tool, intake and consent form, incident recorder, and information sharing protocol template. Through these tools, the GBVIMS not only helps service providers collect quality data and analyze data but also enables safe and ethical sharing of reported gender-based violence incident data. Thus far, the GBVIMS has had a positive impact on protecting client confidentiality, providing quality data for programmatic decision-making, improving data sharing among service providers, donor agencies, and governments, and strengthening advocacy efforts and donor reporting. To date, the GBVIMS has been implemented in Cote d’Ivoire, Democratic Republic of Congo, Ethiopia, Liberia, Kenya, Sierra Leone, South Sudan, Thailand, and Uganda, and is being rolled out more broadly as partners such as UNICEF and others join the efforts.

Source: Gender-Based Violence Information Management System, http://gbvims.org/
usually exacerbated by conflict, deepening the marginalization of women and creating a lasting culture of sexual violence.

There is also a major **shift of gender roles** during conflict when most men go to war and women are left behind to fend for their family and community; this shift of gender roles could lead to a rise of domestic violence and sexual violence against women, which may also continue after conflict ends. When women take on more responsibilities and become the primary breadwinners in order to take care of their family, power relations in the household can be disrupted when men return from war (Ray and Heller 2009). Male partners may suffer from a loss of status and self-worth and feel emasculated as they can no longer provide for their families. The reintegration of demobilized male combatants who hold a traditional idea of gender clashes with women’s newly acquired economic freedom and independence. Often, this leads to an increase in domestic violence, specifically when male partners try to gain control over the women’s earnings. The loss of livelihoods, especially economic stress, often pushes men to perpetrate sexual violence against women. In DRC, almost all men who participated in focus groups stressed loss of land and other assets and unemployment as factors that lead to sexual violence (Kelly et al. 2009). Even though the study was not conducted in conflict settings, the International Men and Gender Equality Survey (IMAGE) found a strong association between men’s reports of economic stress and their use of sexual violence and other forms of interpersonal violence in Brazil, Chile, Croatia, India, Mexico, and Rwanda (Barker et al. 2011).

Shifting gender norms and pressure to support the family may be exacerbated by a **lack of economic opportunities** in conflict-affected situations, increasing women’s vulnerability to sexual violence. Women may not have property rights, inheritance rights, and pensions; this increases women’s economic fragility. Without access to resources and alternative economic opportunities, women may resort to dangerous and desperate measures to provide for themselves and their families. For example, women living in refugee or displacement camps are often forced to engage in sexual relationships with fellow refugees, humanitarian workers, and peacekeepers in exchange for protection, food, water, and shelter (Women’s Refugee Commission 2009). Lack of legal rights in hosting communities also limits refugees to work in informal sectors, such as domestic work, where the possibility of sexual exploitation, intimidation, abuse, and rape is much higher (Ray and Heller 2009). Women and girls are also at great risk of being trafficked for labor and sexual exploitation with the promise of a better paying job in the city or overseas.

A **lack of security and protection** in military occupied villages and in displacement camps also appears to increase the risk of sexual violence against women and children. The majority of rapes occur while women are pursuing their daily activities including collecting firewood, fetching water, and working in their fields. Women in the DRC reported that most of the attacks were by armed assailants carrying guns and often wearing military uniforms (Kelly et al. 2009). The perpetrators of sexual violence include members of state and international security forces, paramilitary groups, and non-state armed groups as well as civilians, including refugees and displaced persons. As displacement often contributes to the breakup of families, women and children without their male family members are at greater risk for sexual violence than those who have male protection. They are also vulnerable to rape because of cramped living conditions and inadequate security in camps. For example, most camps do not have adequate protection for women’s quarters or sufficient privacy in women’s bathroom and shower areas where women are most likely to be raped.

A **breakdown of law and order and a culture of impunity** are other driving factors that influence high levels of sexual violence in conflict-affected situations. As a result of a breakdown in law and order during conflict, particularly in judicial
and law enforcement systems, acts of sexual violence often go unpunished. A culture of impunity where acts of sexual violence go unpunished combined with the already subordinate status of women and low interpersonal and institutional trust has created conditions where sexual violence continues at an alarming rate and becomes socially normalized (Bouta et al. 2005). This culture of impunity can give rise to opportunistic violence against women by civilians, such as in DRC (Kelly et al. 2009; Women for Women International 2010).

The research findings in DRC show sexual violence is spreading out of the conflict zones into areas such as Equateur, which is not in the eastern conflict region, yet has one of the highest rates of rape and intimate partner sexual violence in the country (Peterman et al. 2011). In Burundi, survivors of sexual violence also report that the majority of attacks are perpetrated by members of extended family, household domestic staff, and teachers; rebels and military personnel are no longer the primary perpetrators. This indicates a breakdown of social norms constraining the use of violence (Zicherman 2008). The persistence of violence and insecurity continues to affect people’s daily lives and social behaviors and erodes livelihoods (Pouligny Forthcoming). All these driving factors combine to foster increased sexual violence.

Impacts of Sexual Violence on Individual, Family, and Community

Sexual violence has long lasting consequences and far-reaching impacts on individual survivors, their families, and their communities. Survivors of sexual violence are exposed to short- and long-term physical, psychological, social, and economic consequences; however, impacts of sexual violence vary between women and men. Besides physical injuries, sexually transmitted diseases such as HIV/AIDS, and psychological trauma, women have the additional health risks of unwanted pregnancy, unsafe abortion, and permanent damage to their reproductive system. Female survivors and children born from rape are often rejected by their husbands and families and thus experience lifelong social ostracism and neglect (Bouta et al. 2005). As a result, they often seek economic opportunities in the informal sector, such as domestic work, where they are at great risk of further labor and sexual exploitation.

Sexual violence against men often goes unrecognized; like female survivors, male survivors of sexual violence also experience physical and psychological trauma as well as profound humiliation. In societies where men are discouraged from talking about their emotions, they may find it even more difficult than women to acknowledge what has happened to them. In addition to shame and humiliation caused by sexual violence itself, those men who have failed to protect their wives, daughters, mothers, and sisters may also feel weak and a loss of their dignity and manhood. Sexual violence emasculates men and boys and shatters the leadership structure in family, community, and society.

Impacts of sexual violence have ripple effects extending from individuals to their family and community. Rape perpetrated in front of family during conflict can tear apart family ties and social bonds. In conservative societies, survivors are often blamed for the loss of family honor, and the use of rape is not only humiliating for survivors but for their families and communities. When individuals, families, and communities cannot cope with their trauma, there is a high likelihood that they will pass it on to the next generation and continue the cycle of sexual violence (Pouligny Forthcoming). All these impacts on individual survivors and families undermine trust within and between communities, and deeply affect social cohesion. This leads to a further breakdown of community’s social ties and traditional support systems, such as extended families, friends, neighbors, churches, and community centers.

Evolution of the International Framework to Address Sexual Violence

Since the mid-1990s, the international community has been paying more attention to conflict-related sexual violence. International criminal tribunals
for Rwanda and the former Yugoslavia, established in 1994 and 1993 respectively, have set the precedent of prosecuting sexual violence as a form of genocide and war crime. These two historic international instruments laid the foundation for punishing rape and sexual violence. In addition, in 1998, the Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court recognized for the first time that acts of rape, sexual slavery, enforced prostitution, forced pregnancy, enforced sterilization, or any other form of sexual violence of comparable gravity could constitute war crimes or crimes against humanity.\(^1\) The creation of the ad hoc international criminal tribunals and the Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court have been important milestones in the development of international criminal law on the issue of sexual violence against women.

Since the adoption of the United Nations (UN) Security Council Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace, and Security in 2000, follow-up resolutions have given increased attention to sexual violence in conflict.\(^2\) In 2008, the UN Security Council formally recognized sexual violence as a tactic of war in Resolution 1820 and called for political and security responses to end widespread sexual violence and impunity during conflict. Resolution 1888, which was passed in 2009, called for the development of approaches to address the effects of sexual violence and the appointment of a special representative to lead efforts to end conflict-related sexual violence.\(^3\) The most recent resolution, 1960 was passed in 2010 and requested that the Security Council use sanctions and other measures against individuals and groups employing sexual violence. However, it is very difficult to translate these Security Council resolutions into action. Even though UN agencies, international organizations, NGOs, and civil society groups are trying to implement these resolutions on the ground, interventions are still focused primarily on delivering services to survivors with limited results.

### Interventions to Prevent and Respond to Sexual Violence

In conflict-affected situations, interventions often deal with both short-term and long-term impacts of sexual violence. While short-term interventions address the immediate needs of individuals, families and communities, interventions with a long-term approach support the transition from immediate responses to prevention and sustainable development. The context in which an intervention is taking place is extremely important to effectively meeting program objectives because the use of sexual violence varies in different contexts in terms of social norms, gender norms, traditional customs, and the history of conflict and violence. This section introduces some examples of interventions that adapt a short-term or long-term approach to prevent and respond to sexual violence; however, these interventions are not evidence-based practices.

#### Interventions to Address Short-Term Needs

Interventions that respond to immediate needs of survivors, families, and communities primarily focus on service provision, such as medical and psychological treatment, social support, and legal assistance as well as protection of women and girls.

- **Service Provision for Survivors and Families**
  A set of activities is rapidly undertaken to respond to sexual violence from the earliest stage of an emergency. Survivors often need access to a comprehensive package of services that include medical and psychological treatment, social support, security, and legal assistance. In Colombia, for instance, PROFAMILIA, an NGO working in a conflict setting, provides comprehensive assistance to sexual violence survivors, including medical, psychological and legal services (Contreras 2010). As part of their medical services, they offer emergency contraception, tests and

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\(^3\) Margot Wallström was appointed as Special Representative on Sexual Violence in Conflict by Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon in February, 2009.
treatment for sexually transmitted diseases and HIV/AIDS, and long-term medical care. The World Bank also supports a comprehensive program that provides medical, psychosocial, and legal assistance to survivors of sexual violence. It also provides quality case management that involves medical and legal referrals as well as psychosocial support, such as one-on-one or group sessions, family mediation, and social reintegration activities.

2. Community Support for Women and Girls Affected by Conflict: This aims to improve community support to survivors of sexual violence through community-based healing and recovery initiatives. Using a participatory approach, it identifies priority needs and implements peer-to-peer support sessions and group discussions for additional psychosocial support. It also pilots economic empowerment activities using the Village Savings and Loans methodology.

3. Advocacy for the Application of Policies that Promote the Protection of Women and Girls; Coordination with Actors in Responding to Sexual Violence: This component supports the coordination mechanisms led by the UN in responding to sexual violence at local, provincial, and national levels. It also supports advocacy efforts that are in line with the UN comprehensive strategy to combat sexual violence.

Box 2: Addressing Gender-Based Violence in South Kivu, DRC

Funded by the World Bank’s State and Peacebuilding Fund, the International Rescue Committee provides a comprehensive program that consists of the following three components to address and respond to gender-based violence at individual, family and community level in South Kivu.

1. Provision of Essential Services to Survivors of Sexual Violence: The project provides medical, psychosocial, and legal assistance to survivors of sexual violence. It also provides quality case management that involves medical and legal referrals as well as psychosocial support, such as one-on-one or group sessions, family mediation, and social reintegration activities.

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Strengthening security and protection activities is an important step to preventing further sexual violence. Humanitarian agencies working in unstable settings during and after conflict report women are often raped while fetching water, collecting firewood, and working in the field. There are some simple, practical measures that could help prevent rape from occurring in the first place. In Darfur, for instance, armed patrols accompany women and girls when they fetch water and collect firewood beyond camp perimeters (Anderson 2010). According to the UN peacekeeping practice, these firewood and water route patrols are particularly effective when trust is built between participants and patrollers through “patrol committees” that discuss timing, frequency, route selection, distance and ways in which the patrol is carried out. To prevent sexual violence during firewood collection and ensure safe access to cooking fuel, the Women’s Refugee Commission and the World Food Program distributed thousands of fuel-efficient stoves in Sudan and Uganda. Another example is a water container project in North Darfur. The joint United Nations-African Union peacekeeping force (UNAMID) distributed several thousand high-capacity water containers – each shaped like a barrel and capable of carrying 75 liters of water – to eight villages in North Darfur. The containers are designed to relieve the physical burden of carrying water and to reduce the number of trips a resident has to make to a water source.

Sexual violence can be also greatly deterred when both security and lighting are present in the camps. While not an example from a conflict setting, residents in over 30 camps in post-earthquake Haiti reported far lower rates of rape in camps

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with both a security presence and adequate lighting (Davis et al. 2011). Camps with only lighting or only security patrols or neither reported higher incidences of rape while using the bathroom or sleeping in a tent at night. KOFAVIV and MADRE, nongovernmental organizations working in Haiti, have developed community-based strategies to enhance security through nighttime community watch groups and deliveries of cell phones, whistles, and flashlights to women in the camps.6

**Interventions to Support Long-Term Sustainability of Violence Prevention**

To prevent further sexual violence and support the sustainable development process, some interventions adopt a long-term approach that emphasizes gender equality and mitigates negative impacts on women, men, and children. The reduction in gender inequality and improvements to women’s security are necessary conditions for stability and economic growth (Anderlini 2010). The following interventions aim to strengthen institutional capacity and improve access to justice for survivors of sexual violence. They also promote gender equality and positive social change through women’s participation in decision-making and economic activities, engaging men and youth, and using media.

- **Access to Justice through Formal and Informal Systems**

Building a gender-sensitive criminal justice system and improving access to justice are important steps to increasing accessibility and responsiveness for survivors of sexual violence. A number of conflict-affected countries have initiated measures to build gender-sensitive law enforcement. Afghanistan, Colombia, Croatia, DRC, Iraq, Kosovo, Liberia, Namibia, and Sierra Leone established specialized family and women’s units in police stations that have trained both male and female officers to handle sexual violence cases sensitively (Anderlini 2010; Contreras et al. 2010; Anderson 2010; World Bank 2011). These special units have shown an increase in reporting as well as in the likelihood that survivors receive comprehensive services (Bott et al. 2005). For instance, in Sierra Leone, the gender sensitive environment for survivors resulted in an increase of reporting sexual violence cases, 90 percent of which came from women and girls (World Bank 2011, 152). However, some evaluations have found that female officers do not necessarily demonstrate more positive attitudes toward women who experience sexual violence than male officers. To improve officers’ sensitivity towards survivors, the Organization for Security and Economic Cooperation in Europe (OSCE) and the International Organization for Migration developed a training curriculum on gender-based violence, gender equality, and human rights for the police academy curriculum in Albania (Bouta et al. 2005). It helped police officers to recognize cases of domestic violence and human trafficking of women and handle them in a sensitive manner.

As survivors may have some constraints accessing the formal criminal justice system, such as financial costs and transportation, informal and traditional conflict resolution mechanisms can also improve their access to justice. For example, an informal community-based service, Casas de Justicia (Houses of Justice) in Colombia, can help increase access to justice for survivors who live in marginalized communities (Contreras et al. 2010). Casas de Justicia provide conflict resolution services, which involve educators, psychologists, lawyers, and police officers. UN agencies have supported their training program to strengthen their response to sexual violence. Frequently, their resolution services reflect deeply rooted practices in communities. Traditional conflict resolution mechanisms are often the primary forms of social control, dispute resolution, and reconciliation in many communities (Pouligny Forthcoming). However, traditional conflict resolution mechanisms are not always helpful for survivors of sexual violence because traditional mechanisms tend to prioritize social

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harmony over individual rights of survivors (Summer and Zurstrassen 2011), reinforce existing social attitudes, and discriminate on the basis of social status including, gender, caste, age, and marital status (Pouligny Forthcoming).

- **Women’s Participation in Economic Activities and Decision-Making**

Even though women are usually viewed as victims of sexual violence and beneficiaries of protection efforts, interventions can also promote women as agents of change and women’s participation in economic activities and decision-making. Because economic dependence on men and a lack of economic opportunities contributes to women’s vulnerability to sexual violence, interventions that support women’s economic empowerment can reduce their vulnerability to sexual violence. Women take a more active role in economic activities to support their family during conflict despite being overburdened with responsibilities. Few women wanted to go back to pre-war days when their contribution and their voice went unrecognized (El-Bushra and Sahl 2005).

To reinforce women’s economic independence, the International Rescue Committee supported a community-led microfinance intervention after the conflict ended in Burundi (Ray and Heller 2009). This intervention provided select groups of women and men with increased access to economic resources through village savings and loan associations. In addition, it also gave community members the opportunity to discuss attitudes, beliefs and actions that condone gender inequality, disempowerment, and violence against women. Discussions indirectly dealt with gender and violence issues because explicitly addressing these issues might anger men in the community; the project included men in all phases of its programming to prevent backlash against women. Interventions should take into account the existing power relationships between men and women within a specific context in order to mitigate the further vulnerability of women to various forms of violence (FAO 2010). The WDR 2011 notes: “Gender roles and relations change during conflict, and appear to signal social progress. However, such gains may not be sustained or may be counterbalanced by a reversion to traditional identities and norms when families and communities are threatened” (World Bank 2011, 168).

Involving women in decision-making can also reduce women’s vulnerability to sexual violence and exploitation. The Women’s Refugee Commission implements a global program to increase the participation of refugee and internally displaced women in decision-making activities. 7 This program promotes women’s participation in camp management and assistance programs and addresses issues, such as unequal access to food, supplies, and other necessities. It has helped better allocate basic items and services in conflict-affected settings, consequently reducing women’s vulnerability to sexual exploitation in exchange for food and services. Despite the significant potential benefits of women’s participation in community decision-making, the experience of the National Solidarity Program in Afghanistan indicates that social and cultural change takes time (Box 3).

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**Box 3: Women’s Participation in Community Decision-Making in Afghanistan**

The National Solidarity Program (NSP), the largest development program in Afghanistan, empowers women’s participation in community decision-making through democratically elected community development councils (CDCs). CDCs aim to enable more balanced gender participation by adapting various forms: mixed-gender CDC, parallel committees in which one male and one female report to a mixed-gender CDC, or a women’s committee that consults with a fully male CDC. Results of a comparison between NSP and non-NSP villages suggest that women’s participation in community decision-making improves both men’s and women’s perceptions of women’s leadership roles. It shows that incremental steps can lead to incremental progress, even for culturally difficult concepts of inclusion.

**Source:** World Bank 2011
• **Engaging Men and Youth**

Women’s participation in economic activities and decision-making is rarely sustainable without the engagement of men and boys as partners in these efforts and can even be detrimental. Interventions targeting men and boys usually encourage them to challenge patriarchal gender norms that support the use of violence against women and girls. Women for Women International educates male community leaders about women’s rights and prepares them to leverage their community influence through Men’s Leadership Program. 8 The program has trained over 2,100 male community leaders in Afghanistan, DRC, Iraq, and Nigeria, covering topics like community rebuilding, violence against women, reproductive and family health, and women’s community participation. It aims to enhance the capacity of community and male leaders to address the various impacts of violence against women on the community as well as their economic and social inclusion. The program is tailored to each country’s specific social codes and gender norms. Funded by the World Bank’s State and Peacebuilding Fund, the International Rescue Committee also provides training targeting security forces and community leaders in Cote d’Ivoire (Box 4).

Some interventions target youth to break the cycle of violence. For example, in partnership with CARE International, Promundo, and other NGOs and youth groups, the International Center for Research on Women is working with youth in the Western Balkans on the Young Men Initiative. 9 This initiative reaches young men ages 15-19 through school-based activities and media campaigns that address gender norms and prevent violence. It includes workshops about gender equality, sexual and reproductive health, emotional well-being, and violence and conflict resolution. Another example of engaging youth is the Man Up Campaign. 10 This campaign encourages young people, both boys and girls, to address violence against women and girls in their communities through art, music, sports, and technology. Through training and workshops, it prepares young people to implement sustainable grassroots initiatives in their countries and communities.

• **Media Interventions**

The use of radio, TV, and film is another way to prevent sexual violence by increasing people’s knowledge and understanding of the issues relating to sexual violence and challenging the attitudes and values that tolerate sexual violence. In Cote d’Ivoire, for example, the International Rescue Committee (IRC) used a radio campaign to raise awareness about sexual and gender-based violence and to distribute information about services available to the survivors. IRC created 10-15 minute short programs that covered intimate partner violence, sexual violence, female genital mutilation, mistreatment of widows, and services available for survivors. In total, 53 programs were

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10 [http://www.manupcampaign.org/](http://www.manupcampaign.org/)
broadcasted through the local radio station in the evening when the most people listened to the radio. The project evaluation showed that 77.5 percent of people who were interviewed had heard about gender-based violence on the radio and 69 percent of them had listened to the GBV programs at least twice. Some media interventions, such as Soul City in South Africa and Somos Diferentes, Somos Iguales (We are different, We are equal) in Nicaragua, also incorporated the issues of sexual and gender-based violence and gender equality into a series of radio and television soap operas (WHO 2009).

Another good example is a mobile cinema project in eastern Congo. Since September 2008, the Mobile Cinema Foundation (MCF) in collaboration with Search for Common Ground and Amnesty International Netherlands has been educating communities about sexual violence by showing an adapted version of the IFPRODUCTIONS documentary Fighting the Silence, followed by a public debate. The documentary shows survivors telling their experience of how rape impacted their lives and why they have chosen to hide their grief and remain silent for fear of being rejected. The mobile cinema project also travels to military camps to educate soldiers about the consequences of rape through testimonies of survivors, perpetrators, military, and judicial experts. Following the film, discussions are facilitated by specially trained military officers.

**Conclusion**

Sexual violence is not only a women’s rights issue but a development issue. Therefore, it is necessary to encourage large-scale interventions focusing on prevention, which also support sustainable development and promote gender equality. The World Bank has begun engaging in activities to address and prevent sexual violence in conflict-affected situations. Two projects in Cote d’Ivoire and DRC, funded by the State and Peace-building Fund, provide direct medical, psychosocial, and legal assistance to survivors and their families and work to prevent sexual violence through awareness raising campaigns and economic empowerment. Recognizing the lack of evidence-based programming, both projects incorporate impact evaluation to measure the effectiveness of interventions (Box 5). The World Bank also supports gender-sensitive activities related to insecurity and violence in Sub-Saharan Africa by a Multi-Donor Trust Fund. The program focuses on gender sensitivity in demobilization and reintegration programs for former combatants, gender-based violence, and young men at risk of engaging in conflict. Thus far, all projects on sexual violence in conflict have been conducted with the support of trust funds, but there is

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**Box 5: Impact Evaluation of Gender-Based Violence Project in Cote d’Ivoire**

The Yale School of Public Health, in partnership with Innovations for Poverty Action, is conducting an impact evaluation study of International Rescue Committee’s (IRC) program in Cote d’Ivoire. This study aims to identify effective and scalable interventions to prevent and respond to gender-based violence. It also aims to evaluate the impact of a socio-economic program and gender discussion group on the incidence of physical and sexual violence, as well as women’s individual agency. The study evaluates two components of the IRC’s program, the Village Savings and Loans Association (VSLA) and the Gender Dialogue Groups, by using a randomized community trial in 24 villages over two years. The IRC has created 48 VSLA groups to increase savings opportunities and capital acquisition for both women and men. Half of the VSLA groups are placed in Gender Dialogue Groups to discuss women’s economic independence, intimate partner violence, and to evaluate household decision-making and gender attitudes. The impact evaluation study will compare outcomes between a group that has participated in both the VSLA group and the Gender Dialogue Group as well as a group which only has participated in the VSLA group. A baseline survey with 1271 women was conducted in October 2010, and an endline survey will be conducted following the completion of all intervention sessions.

*Source: Gupta et al. 2011*

11 http://mobilecinemafoundation.com/website/
potential to address the issue on a larger scale by integrating measures in education, health, access to justice, community driven development, and conditional cash transfer programs. This will increase social cohesion, build trust, and engage both men and women to change social norms that condone sexual violence.

This note was prepared by Megumi Makisaka under the supervision of Alexandre Marc. The findings, interpretations, and conclusions are entirely those of the authors and should not be attributed in any manner to the World Bank, its affiliated organizations, or members of its Board of Executive Directors or the country they represent. For additional copies please contact: socialdevelopment@worldbank.org

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