A FRAMEWORK TO UNDERPIN ACTION **TO PREVENT** VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN

Empowered lives. Resilient nations.

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

A FRAMEWORK TO UNDERPIN ACTION **TO PREVENT** VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN

©2015 UN Women
All rights reserved

FOREWORD

BY PHUMZILE MLAMBO-NGCUKA

UNDER-SECRETARY-GENERAL AND EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR UN WOMEN

© UN Women/ Marco Grob

Across the world, violence against women and girls remains one of the most serious human rights violations, both a cause and consequence of gender inequality and discrimination. Its continued presence is one of the clearest markers of societies out of balance; the rise of voices that condemn it as unacceptable is a signal for hope of change, and an entry point for work to prevent it.

The focus of this framework is prevention: the steps that, through concerted action, we can take to tackle the underlying structures that still permit early marriage, female genital mutilation, the turning of a blind eye to domestic violence, the impunity of rapists, the vulnerability of a teenager reading abusive texts in her bedroom, the discriminatory and hostile attitude of service providers, including in police stations or courtrooms to women's testimony of violence experienced.

We have made much progress over the last 30 years in improving the laws that distinguish these acts and others as ones of violence and invasion of human rights. This has been important. However, on their own, they have not been enough to change the daily experiences of girls and women, or indeed those of boys and men. They have not yet changed the way that people think and behave, in public spaces, in private homes, in office environments, in schools, on buses and trains, in refugee camps, online and in cyberspace.

We want to foster a sense of responsibility that does not subside and a new recognition of the unacceptability of the status quo. To prevent violence before it happens or reoccurs means that our work has to demonstrate and teach what inequality is, and how its continued existence is preventing progress. We know that community mobilization, group interventions for both women and men, educational programmes and empowerment of women are some of the interventions that have impact.

Meeting the target to eliminate violence against women in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development requires a step-change in concerted action. When more than 70 world leaders took the podium in New York at the Global Leaders' Meeting on Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment on 27 September 2015, the majority of them made commitments to ending violence against women and girls. The leadership of our UN system partners in taking joint action under this framework, along with the determined advocacy of the Secretary-General are strong assets in weaving consistent approaches. Added to this is the essential impetus for change in social structures that will come from media that supports positive stereotypes of girls and women as equal achievers, schools that teach both boys and girls to be academically adventurous, companies that recruit and pay women on a par with men, and that provide opportunities for both parents to share in child care and make choices about their careers and employment.

I am therefore very pleased to present the current framework to underpin action to prevent violence against women, as one of our United Nations inter-agency responses to what the UN System can do together to eliminate violence. The framework provides guidance to policy makers and other actors working in this field. This framework will soon be accompanied by a series of additional tools and resources which provide more detailed information about what to do for preventing violence against women that can be adapted to national contexts and needs.

I believe that if we all work together, governments, civil society organizations, the UN system, and the private sector, together with individuals in communities mobilizing through new solidarity movements, we will eventually achieve a more equal world - A Planet 50-50 - where women and girls will live free from violence and discrimination.

Phumzile Mlambo-Ngcuka

Acknowledgements

Development of the framework would not have been possible without:

- The courage of the many women subjected to violence who have spoken out about their experiences.

- Activists, especially from women's organizations located across the globe, who have advocated for appropriate service provision and support for women subjected to violence; for legislative and administrative reforms holding perpetrators of this violence to account; and for interventions that prevent violence against women.

- The efforts by governments who are taking actions towards ending violence against women through legislative reforms, policy initiatives and implementing programmes.

- Input from women across the globe, in particular through the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, the fifty-seventh session of the Commission on the Status of Women, and most recently, the post-2015 development agenda. All of them provided further opportunities to position the prevention of violence against women at the centre of efforts to realize their human rights, and to promote economic and human development.

- Cross-sector practitioners, researchers, government representatives and donors who have advanced the prevention of violence against women within and outside their own countries, including through development of conceptual and practice-based materials. This framework draws on these materials and they are listed at Appendix 1.

- The enduring commitment of the UN system to develop structures and programmes to respond to violence against women, to prevent its occurrence, and to advance knowledge of prevention strategies. The UN agencies engaged in supporting the development of this framework have shared their time and knowledge to ensure that the root causes of violence against women are addressed, and that we continue to develop a shared global understanding of what prevention of violence against women entails, and what are effective prevention strategies. The agency representatives are thanked for their commitment and input: Kalliopi Mingeirou and Tania Farha for coordinating the development of the framework (UN Women), Raphael Crowe (ILO), Veronica Birga and Adwoa Kufuor (OHCHR), Suki Beavers and Diego Antoni (UNDP), Joanna Herat and Jane Freedman (UNESCO), Upala Devi (UNFPA), Claudia Garcia Moreno and Avni Amin (WHO). Our consultants, Lyn Walker and Kim Webster for their research and dedication to finalize the current framework and Olivier Uzel for the design.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION 8

1. KEY TERMS AND CONCEPTS USED IN THE FRAMEWORK 10

2. PURPOSE OF THE DOCUMENT 12

3. THE SCOPE OF THE FRAMEWORK AND APPROACH TO ITS DEVELOPMENT 13
3.1. A FOCUS ON INTIMATE PARTNER VIOLENCE AND NON-PARTNER SEXUAL VIOLENCE 13
3.2. ADOLESCENT GIRLS 13
3.3. A FOCUS ON STABLE CONTEXTS 14
3.4. PREVENTION AS PART OF A COMPREHENSIVE APPROACH 14
3.5. PREVENTING VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN USING A HUMAN RIGHTS-BASED APPROACH 16
3.6. A THEORY OF CHANGE APPROACH 17
3.7. FACTORS TO CONSIDER WHEN USING THE FRAMEWORK 17

4. WHY ADDRESS VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN? 18
4.1 VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN IS A BREACH OF HUMAN RIGHTS 18
4.2 VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN IS PREVALENT 18
4.3 VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN CAN HAVE SERIOUS AND LONG-LASTING CONSEQUENCES 19
4.4 LEGISLATING ON VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN 21
4.5 VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN IS PREVENTABLE 21

5. UNDERSTANDING VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN 22
5.1. AN ECOLOGICAL APPROACH 22
5.2. ROOT CAUSES AND FACTORS INCREASING THE PROBABILITY OF VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN 24

6. A FRAMEWORK FOR ACTION 29
6.1 AN OVERVIEW OF THE DIAGRAM AND THEORY OF CHANGE 29
6.2 THE FRAMEWORK IN DETAIL 32

7. THE WAY FORWARD 44

GLOSSARY 45

REFERENCES 47

APPENDIX 1: SOURCES ON WHICH THE FRAMEWORK IS BASED 53

APPENDIX 2: KEY RESOURCES FOR WORKING WITH PARTICULAR POPULATION GROUPS TO PREVENT VIOLENCE 55

APPENDIX 3: KEY HUMAN RIGHTS INSTRUMENTS AND DOCUMENTS RELATING TO THE PREVENTION OF VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN AND GIRLS 56

INTRODUCTION

"Millions of women and girls around the world are assaulted, beaten, raped, mutilated or even murdered in what constitutes appalling violations of their human rights. We must fundamentally challenge the culture of discrimination that allows this violence to continue."
UN Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon.

Violence against women (VAW) is a one of the most pervasive human rights violations in the world, rooted in gender inequality, discrimination and harmful cultural and social norms. It is also increasingly recognized as a public health issue that adversely affects the health of women. It is estimated that approximately 35 per cent of women worldwide have experienced intimate partner physical and/or sexual violence or non-partner sexual violence in their lifetime (WHO, 2013a). The prevalence and serious impacts of this violence make it one of the most significant issues to be addressed in our time.

Due to sustained efforts by the women's movement, governments and other stakeholders, the issue of VAW is now positioned as a priority on global human rights, health and development agendas. The elimination of all forms of violence against women and girls and of all harmful practices are now part of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, and included as specific targets (i.e. targets 5.2 and 5.3) in the Sustainable Development Goals, providing a strong mandate for moving forward. Much of the responses to date to VAW have focused primarily on intervening with affected individuals after the violence has occurred. Such strategies are essential to mitigate the devastating mental, physical, social and economic effects for women experiencing violence, ensure justice and accountability, and prevent its recurrence. It is important to continue to improve these responses. At the same time, there is also an increasing need to address the broader factors that contribute to prevalence at a population level, and to implement programmes that prevent such violence from occurring in the first place.

There is increasing evidence that a range of individual, community and societal characteristics and conditions are associated with a higher risk of VAW. Among these are gender-discriminatory laws and policies, as well as social norms, behaviours and attitudes that condone such violence and that promote unequal gender power relations. However, these are neither fixed nor inherent features of particular individuals or groups – rather, they are shaped by social and economic forces, and hence can be changed over time. This, along with a growing body of prevention practice, suggests that it is possible to prevent VAW. It will require a coordinated and multi-sectoral approach involving multiple strategies implemented in a mutually reinforcing way with individuals, as well as communities and organizations, and at the broader societal level.

Living free of violence is a fundamental human right and taking steps to prevent this problem is essential to ensure that the human rights of women are realized. Effective prevention has the potential to both prevent violence from occurring in the first place and to complement the actions of the response system to avert repeated cycles of violence. In doing so, it also holds the promise of reducing the social and economic costs of violence. In addition to those borne by individual women, these include the costs of providing health care, police and judiciary services and child and welfare support, as well as costs resulting from the erosion of human capital and lost productivity.

Prevention cannot be a short-term effort, but rather an endeavour that requires ongoing commitment from governments and other stakeholders, increased research to inform and monitor progress, and persistent action that addresses VAW at its source.

The framework contained in this document draws together contemporary knowledge and practice in violence prevention. Its focus is on addressing the root causes as well as risk and protective factors (see *Key terms and concepts* below) associated with VAW. It outlines roles that stakeholders working across countries, regions, communities, sectors and disciplines can play in contributing to the eradication of VAW. It is envisaged that the framework will be utilized to underpin future strategies to prevent VAW across the globe and will act as a unifying 'road map' to maximize the success of combined efforts. The framework is intended to be a living document which will be updated and revised as new practices emerge, and in consultation with partners.

1. KEY TERMS AND CONCEPTS USED IN THE FRAMEWORK

Culture – distinctive patterns of values, beliefs and ways of life of a group of people. This can be a group that shares a common characteristic such as gender, ethnicity or race. It can also apply to a range of social entities such as organizations (e.g. the culture of a football club), or communities or groups with a common interest or shared geographic origin. Culture is a dynamic concept that is influenced by environmental, historical, political, geographical, linguistic, spiritual and social factors (Paradies et al., 2009). In this framework, the term 'culture' is used in this broad sense. This is in contrast to some other contexts in which it is used interchangeably with race or ethnicity.

Gender – the social attributes and opportunities associated with being male and female, the relationships between women and men and girls and boys, as well as the relations between women and those between men. These attributes, opportunities and relationships are socially constructed and are learned through socialization processes. They are context/time-specific and changeable (Office of the Special Advisor on Gender Issues and the Advancement of Women, 2001).

Gender inequality – the gender norms, roles, cultural practices, policies and laws, economic factors and institutional practices that collectively contribute to and perpetuate unequal power relations between women and men. This inequality disproportionately disadvantages women in most societies.

Gender equality – the concept that all human beings, regardless of sex, are equal in dignity and rights and free to develop their personal abilities, pursue their professional careers and make choices without discrimination and the limitations set by stereotypes, rigid gender roles and prejudices.

Gender transformative approaches – encourage critical awareness of gender roles and norms. They include ways to change harmful gender norms in order to foster more equitable power relationships between women and men, and between women and others in the community. They promote women's rights and dignity; challenge unfair and unequal distribution of resources and allocation of duties between men and women; and consider the specific needs of women and men. Such approaches can be implemented separately with women and girls, and with men and boys. However, they are also being increasingly implemented with both women and girls and men and boys together and across generations – either simultaneously, or in a coordinated way in order to challenge harmful masculine and feminine norms and unequal power relations that may be upheld by everyone in the community (WHO, 2013b).

Intimate partner violence (IPV) – any behaviour by a man or a woman, or a boy or a girl, within an intimate relationship, that causes physical, sexual or psychological harm to the other person in the relationship. This is the most common form of VAW (WHO and LSHTM, 2010). IPV may sometimes be referred to as 'domestic violence' or 'family violence', although these terms also encompass violence by and against other family members.

Non-partner sexual assault (NPSA) – the experience of being forced to perform any unwanted sexual act to or by someone other than a husband or partner (adapted from WHO and LSHTM, 2013)

Protective factor – an attribute or exposure that reduces the probability of the occurrence of a disease or other specified outcome (in this framework, VAW). See also risk factor and root cause.

Risk factor – an attribute or exposure that increases the probability of the occurrence of a disease or other specified outcome (in this framework, VAW). See also protective factor and root cause.

Root cause – that which is directly responsible for initiating a problem (in this framework, gender inequality is a root cause of VAW). It is typically a necessary condition for the problem to occur, and needs to be considered, along with other factors – in this framework referred to as risk and protective factors – to address the problem.

Sex – the biological characteristics that typically define humans as male, female and/or intersex.

Social norm – a contributing factor and social determinant of certain practices in a community that may be positive and strengthen its identity and cohesion, or may be negative and potentially lead to harm. It is also a social rule of behaviour which members of a community are expected to observe. This creates and sustains a collective sense of social obligation and expectation that conditions the behaviour of individual community members, even if they are not personally in agreement with the practice. If individuals reject the social norm they can risk ostracism, shunning and stigmatization. This marginalization may include the loss of important economic and social support and social mobility. Conversely, if individuals conform to a social norm, they expect to be rewarded, for example, through inclusion and praise. Changing social norms that underlie and justify violence and harmful practices requires that such expectations are challenged and modified (adapted from United Nations, 2014, p. 14).

Systems approach – involves bringing together a range of structures, functions and capacities from across different sectors to respond to and prevent VAW in a given context. This may include relevant sub-systems (e.g. the health system, the justice system, the education system), agencies, social, civic, government and non-government organizations and institutions, communities and families. The system is organized around a common goal and attention is paid to coordinating the actions of different actors, organizations and sub-systems so that each is mutually reinforcing. A systems approach involves a formal governance structure, and emphasizes cooperation, collaboration and coordination among stakeholders. Roles and responsibilities are agreed between stakeholders according to their respective skills and attributes.

Violence against women (VAW) – any act of gender-based violence that results in or is likely to result in physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty whether occurring in public or private life (United Nations, 1993).

2. PURPOSE OF THE DOCUMENT

The elimination and prevention of all forms of violence against women and girls (VAW) was a priority theme of the fifty-seventh session of the United Nations (UN) Commission on the Status of Women held in 2013. The meeting drew on preparatory work to which a range of UN entities and experts from across the globe contributed (United Nations, 2013). This included the work of the Expert Group Meeting on the Prevention of Violence Against Women and Girls, held in Bangkok, Thailand in 2012 (UN Women, 2012).

The agreed conclusions of the Commission's fifty-seventh session called upon governments, UN entities, international and regional organizations, national human rights institutions, civil society – including non-governmental organizations – the private sector, employers' organizations, trade unions, media and other relevant actors to participate in a coordinated global effort engaging multiple strategies across sectors to prevent violence against women and girls (United Nations, 2013). In addition to initiatives to prevent further violence by strengthening responses to affected individuals, the Commission also emphasized the need to address social norms, structures and practices that increase the probability of violence against women and girls.

The evidence, concepts and theories involved in preventing VAW have been documented in a range of international sources – key documents are listed in Appendix 1. It is not the intent of this framework to identify any new approaches or findings. Rather, the aim is to bring together and synthesize the findings of these many studies into a single framework agreed by key UN agencies. It is envisaged that the framework will promote a common understanding and approach to prevention, and more specifically, that it will:

- Be utilized by relevant UN and international agencies and national policy makers to plan and implement coordinated and well-targeted approaches to prevention.
- Support local, regional and national planning and implementation of evidence-informed strategies to prevent VAW.
- Strengthen a shared understanding regarding the factors contributing to and protecting against VAW, and the role different sectors and disciplines can play to prevent this violence.
- Assist a range of actors to develop a common language to discuss the prevention of VAW.
- Benchmark current evidence and knowledge to provide a base on which to continue to build.

The framework is not intended as a detailed 'how-to' guide for those implementing specific initiatives to prevent VAW, but rather for those engaged in policy development and programme and project planning in organizations, communities and governments. It is anticipated that it will be especially important in the context of the post-2015 development agenda, where specific targets and indicators will apply to many of the precursors of VAW, in particular those relating to gender inequality and poverty reduction, as well as to the elimination of VAW itself. It is also important to consider this framework in the context of specific areas of work such as the forthcoming global plan of action to strengthen the role of the health system in addressing interpersonal violence, in particular against women and girls, and against children.

3. THE SCOPE OF THE FRAMEWORK AND APPROACH TO ITS DEVELOPMENT

3.1. A focus on intimate partner violence and non-partner sexual violence

Violence against women (VAW) manifests in different forms including, but not limited to:

- intimate partner violence
- non-partner sexual assault
- forced pregnancy and abortion
- trafficking
- so-called 'honor crimes'
- sexual harassment and exploitation
- stalking
- sorcery/witchcraft-related violence
- gender-related killings/femicide/feminicide
- female genital mutilation
- child, early and forced marriage.

Some groups are disproportionately affected by VAW because they experience multiple forms of discrimination. These groups include: women with disabilities, women from ethnic or racial minorities or indigenous groups, sex workers, lesbian, bisexual or transgender or intersex women, among others. VAW tends to increase in specific settings such as prisons, institutions for people with disabilities, and juvenile centers. It also tends to increase in settings of humanitarian crises including conflicts or wars.

Based on the data available, intimate partner violence (IPV) and non-partner sexual assault (NPSA) are among the most prevalent forms of VAW globally. These forms of violence, as discussed in the following section, have serious consequences for women and their children, as well as for communities and nations. While there remains much to be learned, knowledge and practice relating to these forms are better developed relative to other forms of VAW. For these reasons, many of the strategies suggested in this framework are drawn from research and practice in addressing these two forms of VAW.

However, many of the general principles and approaches, and some of the strategies identified may also apply to other forms of violence and harmful practices against women, since many of these forms of violence are interrelated and share common risk factors (Heise, 2011, p.4).

3.2. Adolescent girls

Adolescence is a stage when girls begin to establish intimate relationships with men and boys, exposing them to the risk of intimate partner and dating violence as well as sexual violence from non-partners. In addition, in many countries where there is a high prevalence of harmful practices such as child, early and forced marriage, girls are likely to be at heightened risk of IPV (UNICEF, 2014b, p. 13). Child, early and forced marriage is a human rights violation and in most circumstances a harmful practice in itself (Joint general recommendation No. 31 of the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women/general comment No. 18 of the Committee on the Rights of the Child on harmful practices). Despite the progress that has been made in ending child marriage, it is estimated that at the current pace of change, by 2050 some 700 million women worldwide will have been married as children (UNICEF, 2014a).

The risk of sexual violence perpetrated against women outside of their families also increases in adolescence (UNICEF, 2014b, p. 167). Although most of the research on IPV and NPSA has involved adult women, it is reasonable to assume that some of these issues may also be relevant to adolescent girls (herein referred to as women).

3.3. A focus on stable contexts

The approaches proposed in this framework depend on governments being in a position to lead prevention efforts. While there is likely to be some overlap in approaches undertaken in stable settings and those undertaken in less stable circumstances – such as conflict and post-conflict settings and fragile states –knowledge and practice in prevention in non-stable contexts is still emerging and requires further development before more specific guidance can be offered (UN Women, 2012).

A list of resources pertaining to other forms of VAW and VAW in conflict and other humanitarian settings is provided in Appendix 2.

3.4. Prevention as part of a comprehensive approach

Addressing VAW involves a continuum of interdependent and mutually reinforcing interventions. While they are conceptualized in different ways by different organizations, the following continuum is used to underpin this framework:

- Preventing violence before it occurs (that is, preventing 'new cases' of VAW).
- Preventing the recurrence of violence (that is, preventing women from being re-victimised and men from perpetrating further violence).
- Preventing or limiting the impacts of VAW, through the provision of short- and long-term care and support.

All levels of intervention are important for a comprehensive systems approach (see Key terms and concepts) to prevent VAW and its consequences. As can be seen above there is considerable overlap and interdependence between levels of prevention, and between activity implemented before and after violence has occurred. However, the focus of this framework is on prevention as described in the shaded parts of Table 1 below. This includes opportunities to prevent violence before it occurs through early intervention.

The importance of an effective response system and links between the response and prevention systems are noted as crucial foundations for prevention (see section 6.2.1). However, responses to violence are the subject of existing policy frameworks. While ongoing reform of the response system through these existing frameworks is critical, such reform is not the focus of the framework.

Table 1: Focus of the framework and its place in a comprehensive systems approach to eliminating VAW

	Prevention focuses on the population as a whole, and the range of settings in which gender relations and violent behaviour are shaped, to address factors leading to or protecting against VAW	**Early intervention** focuses on individuals and groups with a high risk of perpetrating/being a victim of VAW and the factors contributing to that risk	**Response** focuses on those affected by violence and on building systemic, organizational and community capacity to respond to them
Preventing violence before it occurs	Build social structures, norms and practices that protect against VAW and/or reduce the risk of it occurring	Mitigate the impact of prior exposure to risk factors and build protective factors	Contribute to social norms against VAW by demonstrating accountability for violence and women's right to remedy and support
Preventing recurring violence	Build social structures, norms and practices that protect against and/or reduce the risk of recurring exposure to/perpetration of violence		Provide remedy and support to women affected by violence and hold individual men using it accountable. In demonstrating this, it also strengthens social norms against VAW
Preventing long-term harm from violence	Build social structures, norms and practices that maximize the prospects of rebuilding lives after violence, minimize its impacts and reduce the likelihood of recurrence in the longer term		Support to individuals to prevent negative impacts of violence, promote rebuilding and reduce the likelihood of recurrence in the longer term
Examples	Building women's economic independence, while working with both men and women to strengthen equal and respectful relationships. Shifting norms toward gender relations and VAW through mutually reinforcing group education, community mobilization and local media activities.	A psycho-educational programme for children who are exposed to parental violence to address the consequences of this exposure as a risk factor for future perpetration or victimization.	A workplace policy to strengthen support for women workers affected by IPV (e.g. paid leave provisions, co-worker sensitivity training). Legislative and procedural reform to strengthen access to justice for victims of sexual assault.

= the focus of this framework

3.5. Preventing violence against women using a human rights-based approach

This framework is underpinned by a human rights-based approach. Such an approach:

- Asserts that VAW is a form and a manifestation of discrimination against women, which impairs or nullifies the enjoyment by women of human rights and fundamental freedoms.
- Places women's human rights, including their rights to physical integrity, agency and autonomy at the centre of prevention efforts.
- Ensures that measures to prevent violence are consistent with other rights of women (e.g. their right to freedom of movement and to full participation in education, employment, entrepreneurship, politics and society more broadly).
- Recognizes and observes the obligation to ensure compliance with agreed human rights standards and ensure accountability for violations.
- Seeks to empower women and strengthen their capacities to claim their rights.
- Ensures that affected communities and stakeholders, in particular women, are engaged in the planning and implementation of prevention activities. The aim is to support self-advocacy and build the capacity of groups to prevent VAW, rather than treating them as passive recipients.
- Gives priority to preventing violence affecting women who suffer multiple forms of discrimination and face a higher risk of violence or who are more vulnerable to its consequences. This involves targeting activity to these groups of women, and to risk and protective factors affecting them (see Key terms and concepts above). It also involves making sure that activity designed for the whole population reaches and is relevant to high-risk groups.

There is a strong normative framework obliging governments to take comprehensive, strategic and well-resourced action to prevent VAW. Particular human rights instruments and agreements are outlined in Appendix 3. While all human rights instruments apply equally to women and men, some key documents that are specifically relevant to women's right to live free from violence or the threat of violence include the following:

- Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958 (No. 111)
- Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1979)
- CEDAW General Recommendation No. 19 (1992): Violence against women
- Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, adopted by the Fourth World Conference on Women in 1995, building on the requirements in CEDAW
- Agreed conclusions of the fifty-seventh session of the Commission on the Status of Women (2013)

3.6. A theory of change approach

The framework is based on a 'theory of change' approach. This approach is designed for developing solutions to complex social problems (Anderson, 2005). It explicitly identifies the theory of a policy or programme, and the multiple interventions needed to produce the early and intermediate outcomes required to achieve a desired goal (Anderson, 2005).[1] A 'theory of change' is distinguished from a logic model in that it is designed to draw a broad strategic picture on the basis of which multiple interventions can be developed. By comparison, a logic model is concerned with the specific tactics of achieving a desired outcome. It has a greater emphasis on process and the specific relationships between programme inputs and activities.

A number of logic models may be developed on the basis of a single theory of change.

A theory of change approach has a number of benefits, but in particular it:

- Makes assumptions and goals explicit;
- Provides a clear basis for evaluation;
- Promotes accountability; and
- Can help to engender donors' support.

3.7. Factors to consider when using the framework

The framework is necessarily generalized and while it draws from research and practices addressing IPV and NPSA, it is designed for application in a range of contexts, for guiding prevention of both victimization and perpetration, and for addressing multiple factors contributing to violence.

Careful assessment at the local, regional or national level is required to identify specific factors protecting against or increasing the probability of violence in specific contexts.

When developing a specific intervention in a community or organization, consideration needs to be given to identifying particular factors and the likely relationships between them. This would form the basis of a specific programme or policy logic for the individual policy or project to be developed.

1. An example of a theory of change can be found on www.theoryofchange.org

4. WHY ADDRESS VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN?

4.1. Violence against women is a breach of human rights

VAW is a form of discrimination against women, which impairs or nullifies the enjoyment by women of human rights and fundamental freedoms. The numerous international and regional conventions as well as policy documents developed over the past four decades to protect women's human rights through the prevention of VAW are detailed in Appendix 3.

4.2. Violence against women is prevalent

- 35 per cent of women worldwide have experienced either physical and/or sexual IPV or NPSA (WHO, 2013a).
- Nearly one third (30 per cent) of all women who have been in a relationship have experienced physical and/or sexual violence by their intimate partner.
- One in three adolescent girls aged 15 to 19 years worldwide have been victims of emotional, physical or sexual violence committed by their husbands or partners at some point in their lives (UNICEF, 2014b).
- Globally, seven per cent of women have been sexually assaulted by someone other than a partner (WHO, 2013a).
- 43 per cent of women in 28 European Union countries report some form of psychological violence by an intimate partner (European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights, 2014).

Similar patterns are found when men are asked about their perpetration of VAW:

- In a study conducted in nine sites across six countries in Asia and the Pacific:

  - Between 30 per cent and 57 per cent of ever-partnered men reported having perpetrated physical or sexual partner violence in their lifetime.

  - Between 10 per cent and 62 per cent of men reported ever having perpetrated sexual violence against a woman or girl.

  - Between 41 per cent and 83 per cent of men reported having ever used at least one emotionally abusive act against an intimate partner (Fulu et al., 2013).
- Across a sample drawn from eight low and middle-income countries, 31 per cent of men reported having perpetrated physical violence against an intimate partner in their lifetime, ranging from 17 per cent to 45 per cent between countries (Fleming et al., 2015).

Violence occurs across the life-course of women. However:

- It is most likely to occur among women aged 18–44, with women aged 18–24 years being particularly vulnerable (European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights, 2014; Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2013). Among girls, partner and other forms of sexual violence are most likely to take place between the ages of 15 and 19 (UNICEF, 2014b, p. 167).
- In the Asia and the Pacific study mentioned above, nearly half of all men reporting they had perpetrated rape claimed to have done so for the first time before the age of 20 (Fulu et al., 2013, p. 20).
- Violence is experienced by women across the social spectrum and many factors contribute to its perpetration. However, certain groups of women, in particular those who suffer multiple forms of discrimination, are especially vulnerable. Extensive UN research and expert consultation (United Nations, 2011a; 2011b; 2012a; 2012b; 2015) suggests that these include, inter alia, women:

  - With a disability;

  - From some minority ethnic or indigenous communities, and refugees and asylum seekers;

  - Who are lesbian, bisexual, transgender or intersex (more vulnerable to NPSA);

  - In communities experiencing natural and environmental disasters;

  - In communities in which there have been rapid changes in women's status and power (e.g. where women's participation in paid work has increased as a consequence of changing economic arrangements or as a result of migration);

  - Located in rural and remote communities;

  - Affected by poverty;

  - Living with HIV; and

  - Who are irregular migrants/domestic workers.

4.3. Violence against women can have serious and long-lasting consequences

4.3.1 Consequences for the health of women

- Women who have been physically or sexually abused by their partners report higher rates of a range of health problems (WHO, 2013a). For example, when compared to women who have not experienced such violence they are:

  - 16 per cent more likely to have a low birth-weight baby;

  - 41 per cent more likely to have a pre-term birth;

  - More than twice as likely to have an induced abortion (in many settings this is unsafe);

  - Almost twice as likely to experience depression; and

  - In some regions, 1.5 times more likely to acquire a sexually-transmitted infection or HIV (WHO, 2013a).
- Women who have experienced NPSA are 2.3 times more likely to have alcohol use disorders and 2.6 times more likely to experience anxiety or depression (WHO, 2013a).
- Being subject to physical or sexual abuse as an adolescent has a range of negative behavioural, psychological and cognitive consequences, and the influence of many of these may persist over the life-course (UNICEF, 2014b).
- Death may be a consequence of IPV with as many as 38 per cent of all murders of women globally being committed by intimate partners (WHO, 2013a). In 2012, almost half of all female victims of murder were killed by family members or intimate partners (UNODC, 2013).

4.3.2 Social and economic consequences for women

- Women subject to physical and sexual abuse as adolescents face a higher likelihood of poor academic performance and achievement, as well as a higher likelihood of financial and employment-related difficulties later in life (UNICEF, 2014b).
- Women who have been exposed to violence are at higher risk of experiencing social isolation (Wright, 2012), poverty (Lindhorst et al. 2007),

and disruption to their employment, including unemployment (Banyard et al 2011, Kimmerling et al. 2009; Lindhorst et al. 2007). IPV is also a common cause of homelessness and housing instability among women (Tually et al. 2008).

The consequences of violence extend beyond those directly affected. The fear of violence results in many women curtailing their activities, and this has consequences for their participation in social, civil and economic life:

- More than half of all women in European Union countries report avoiding certain situations and places at least sometimes for fear of being physically or sexually assaulted (European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights, 2014).
- An Australian national household survey found that one in four women (compared with only one in ten men) did not walk alone or catch public transport late at night because they did not feel safe doing so (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2013).
- The fear of violence is a barrier to school attendance for girls in many countries (UNICEF, 2014b).

4.3.3 Consequences for the children of women affected by intimate partner violence

In a study of IPV in countries in the European Union, 73 per cent of women experiencing such violence who had children in their care reported that the children were aware of the violence (European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights, 2014).

Reviews of studies on the impacts felt by children living with intra-parental violence have been undertaken (Richards, 2011; Krug et al, 2002; Edleson and Nissley, 2006; Flood and Fergus, 2009; Holt et al., 2008; Humphries et al., 2008; Richards, 2011; Campo et al., 2014; UNICEF, 2014b, UNICEF 2015). These find that, although not all children suffer lasting negative consequences of this exposure, when compared to children in families not affected by such violence, they are nevertheless at greater risk of experiencing the following effects:

- Mental health problems and poor emotional well-being, including anxiety, depression, trauma symptoms, mood disorders, low self-esteem and poor attachment.
- Cognitive and behavioural problems including increased aggression, anti-social behaviour, lower social competence, temperament problems, and impaired cognitive functioning.
- Social development problems including school difficulties, peer conflict and loneliness.
- Behaviours presenting risks to health including alcohol and drug misuse and eating disorders.
- Physical injuries that may result from intervening in violence to protect their mothers or otherwise being caught up in aggression.

The impacts of exposure to such violence as children may also be felt later in the life-course. As adults, those who lived with intra-parental violence as children have a greater probability of being a victim or perpetrator of IPV (although not all children exposed are necessarily so) (WHO, 2006), and of experiencing depression, alcohol and substance abuse, trauma-related symptoms, low self-esteem, stress, poor social adjustment and disrupted employment and education (Fergus and Flood, 2009).

4.3.4 An intergenerational problem

The direct impacts of witnessing VAW on children, together with the impacts on the economic and social stability and well-being of children and families, means that such violence can contribute to intergenerational cycles of abuse and deprivation (KPMG Human and Social Services, 2014).

4.3.5 Consequences at the community, regional and national levels

- VAW is costly to societies, and involves both direct costs (e.g. increased social spending associated with responding to the consequences of violence) as well as indirect costs in the form of reduced productivity (KPMG Human and Social Services, 2014; UNICEF, 2014b).
- A synthesis of 30 international studies of the economic costs of VAW to countries conservatively estimates that this lies between one and two per cent of GDP (KPMG Human and Social Services, 2014).
- A recent study in South Africa found costs to be between 0.09 per cent and 1.3 per cent of GDP, equivalent to the costs of support payments for the aged and people with disabilities in that country for a two-year period (KPMG Human and Social Services, 2014).
- The costs of responding to violence, together with its negative impacts on women's participation in education, employment and civic activity undermines poverty reduction and development goals (WHO, 2005).

4.4. Legislating on violence against women

The law is an important means available to a society to demonstrate that certain behaviours are unacceptable, and to hold perpetrators to account. Over the past 40 years, legislation has been adopted across a large number of countries making specific forms of VAW and harmful practices against the law and subject to associated penalties (see for example UN Women, 2015, p. 29).

Many countries however, still have some way to go in developing laws to promote accountability for VAW and to ensure that laws are comprehensive and consistent with international human rights standards (e.g. that they address all relevant forms of sexual exploitation against women). Similarly, many countries have more work to do in the form of community and professional education and awareness-raising to ensure greater knowledge and understanding of laws relating to VAW. There is also the need for further procedural reform to ensure that existing laws are effectively implemented and enforced, and that victims have access to justice.

4.5. Violence against women is preventable

The potential to prevent VAW has gained increasing attention in recent decades. There is still much to be learned and gaps in knowledge and practice remain. Nevertheless, increasing understanding of the root causes and risk and protective factors contributing to VAW, together with a growing body of effective and promising prevention practice (see Appendix 1), suggest that there are sound prospects for prevention.

5. UNDERSTANDING VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN

The focus of prevention is to address the root causes of VAW, to strengthen population-level factors that protect against violence, and to address those that increase the probability of it occurring. This involves identifying these factors, as well as understanding the relationships among them.

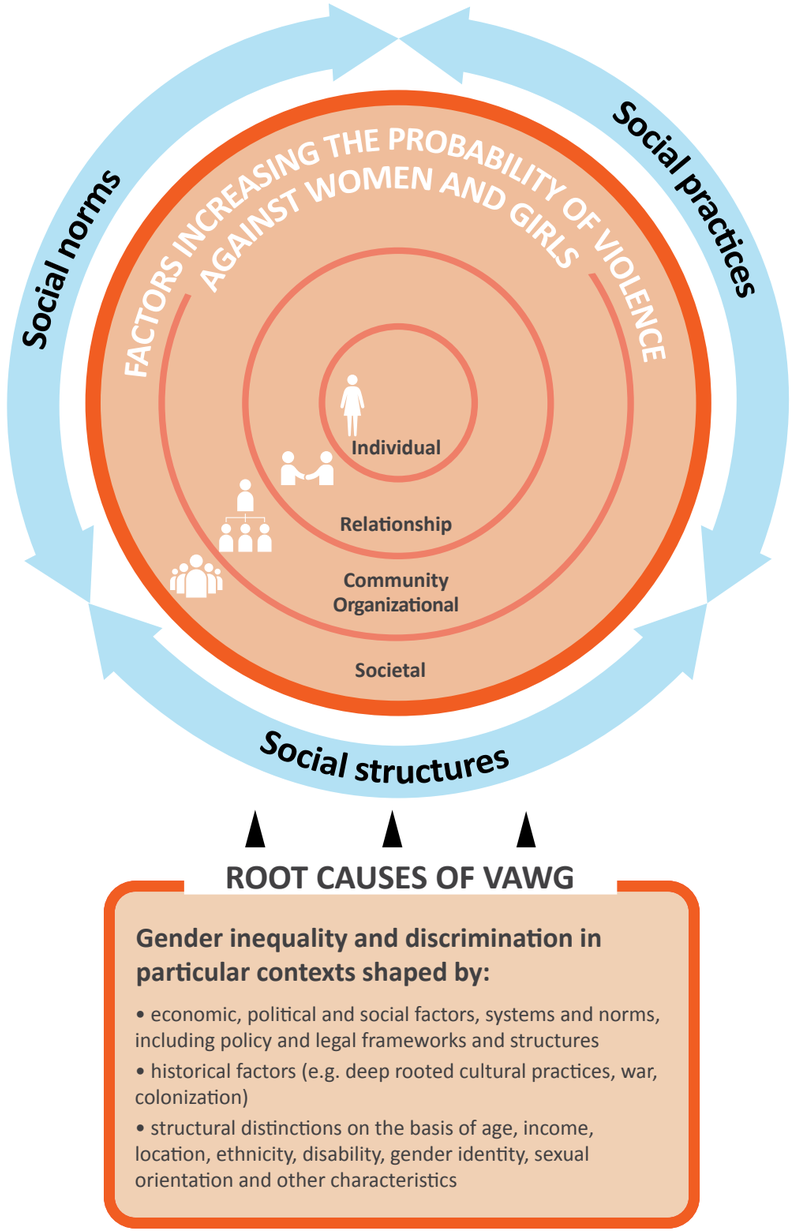
5.1. An ecological approach

The framework is based on an ecological approach. Initially pioneered by Bronfenbrenner in 1975 to strengthen understanding of child development (Bronfenbrenner, 1994), the ecological approach has subsequently been adopted internationally to understand a range of complex issues, among them the challenge of preventing VAW (see sources in Appendix 1).

This approach involves considering factors contributing to the problem at different levels. While these have been conceptualized in different ways in various models, for the purposes of this framework, four levels are included, as illustrated in Figure 1. These are the individual, relationship, community or organizational and societal levels.

The ecological approach is based on the understanding that factors at each of the levels act in a mutually reinforcing way.

Figure 1: Understanding violence against women



THE ECOLOGICAL APPROACH – POLICY AND PROGRAMME IMPLICATIONS

- Multiple factors need to be taken into account when preventing VAW.
- It is important to consider factors at each of the ecological levels and the relationships between and among them. For example, individual behaviours, attitudes and beliefs are shaped by people's immediate organizational and community environments as well as by influences at the broader societal level. At the same time, these broader structures and cultures are influenced by the attitudes and behaviours of individuals.
- A coordinated and consistent approach is needed to ensure that activities at one ecological level (for example, respectful relationships and human rights promotion among individuals) are supported and reinforced by activities at other layers (for example, adoption and implementation of laws and policies that promote the human rights of women and address VAW and discrimination). This mutually reinforcing approach has been identified as especially important in the prevention of VAW.
- Different sectors will need to be engaged to address the challenge of preventing VAW.
- Many actors will have a role in preventing VAW. For example, a teacher (working primarily with individuals) may not be able to lead change to laws that discriminate against women and girls. They are well positioned, however, through their teaching methods, to promote non-violent, respectful relationships.

5.2 Root causes and factors increasing the probability of violence against women

5.2.1 Gender inequality as a root cause of violence against women

Discrimination against women and inequality in the distribution of power and resources between men and women are the main root causes of VAW. Discrimination is prohibited in human rights law and governments have an obligation to address it. Discrimination and inequalities characterize almost all human societies, with men typically holding greater power and resources than women. Such divisions are not inevitable but rather are formed and reinforced through social norms (e.g. the belief that women are best equipped to care for children), practices (e.g. differences in child-rearing practices relating to boys and girls) and structures (e.g. pay differences between men and women) (Flood, 2009). These are not discrete processes that can be addressed in isolation. Rather they are interrelated and reinforce one another. This means that changing social norms, and ultimately attitudes and behaviours, will require structural as well as community, organizational, family and individual level actions.

Gender-based discrimination and inequalities can be expressed, inter alia, through:

- Discrimination against women in legislation;
- Unequal distribution of power and resources between men and women in public and economic life and in families, homes and relationships in ways that disadvantage women;
- Ways in which masculinity and femininity are constructed to attribute higher status, power and privileges for men relative to women (i.e. what it means to be a 'man' or a 'woman' in a given context);
- Gender roles and stereotypes; and
- Peer relations among men and among women (Connell, 2005; Connell and Pearse, 2015).

Gender inequalities lead to the development of norms, which can influence the development of attitudes and beliefs that can lead to the expression of violence. For example, when children witness violence against their mothers in the family, they are learning about violence and about its place in gender relations. This makes it important to consider norms, and learning about gender relations, norms and violence together, rather than as discrete influences on VAW to be addressed separately.

5.2.2 Risk factors and determinants for violence against women

In addition to the root causes of VAW, other factors may increase the probability of violence being perpetrated (Heise, 2011; United Nations, 2006; WHO and LSH and TM, 2010; VicHealth, 2007; 2014). This does not mean that everyone exposed to the factors concerned will be perpetrators or victims of violence, but rather that they have an increased likelihood of being so.

The risk of VAW is determined by a complex interplay between various factors at each of the ecological layers. For example, having access to education may reduce a woman's risk at the individual level, but risk may still be high due to the impact of community level factors, such as norms justifying partner violence. Similarly, exposure to one risk may increase the likelihood of exposure to other risks. For example, studies show that boys subject to violence and neglect as children are as adolescents at greater risk of forming delinquent peer associations in which sexual aggression is encouraged (see for example Malamuth et al., 1995). A growing body of research shows the interconnections between different forms of violence, and the fact that these forms share many (although not all) common risk factors (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention and Prevention Institute, 2014).

Risk factors are presented below in Table 2. [2] It is important to illustrate how some of these risk factors can increase the likelihood of VAW. For example, the use of violence is perpetuated when support for its use is normalized or when sanctions against it are weak. Sanctions can be informal (e.g. community attitudes concerning violence) or formal (e.g. laws and regulations about violence). Weak legal sanctions may result from the lack of laws pertaining to VAW, inadequate laws, and/or laws that are not sufficiently comprehensive to cover the range of forms of violence and circumstances in which it takes place. Weak sanctions may also be due to existing laws being inaccessible to women, to women lacking trust in institutions responsible for enforcing the law, or to laws being poorly enforced. There are other specific circumstances when VAW is also more likely to be perpetrated, such as during relationship separation, when alcohol is misused or during economic downturns and financial crises.

2. Some factors identified in Table 2 (e.g. disability, alcohol misuse) are likely to be both precursors to, as well as consequences of, VAW. It is not always possible to determine which 'direction' is most influential, because many studies are taken at a specific point in time (referred to as cross-sectional studies), rather than being based on following people over time (longitudinal).

Table 2: Summary of risk factors and determinants of victimization and perpetration of intimate partner violence and non-partner sexual assault

	Victimization	Perpetration
Intimate partner violence		
Individual/ relationship	• Low levels of education, • Young age • Socio-economic status/food insecurity • Lack of autonomy • Attitudes accepting of unequal gender roles and violence • A history of exposure to violence in the childhood • Acceptance of violence • Prior victimization • Disability • Poverty • Discrimination based on sexual orientation and gender identity • Unemployment • Depression • Harmful use of alcohol/illicit drug use • Educational disparity • Number of children • Marital discord/dissatisfaction • Separation	• Multiple partners/infidelity • Transactional sex • Controlling behaviours • Belief in rigid/unequal gender roles • Use of alcohol • History of exposure to violence and neglect in the childhood • Acceptance of violence • Past history of IPV • Low socioeconomic status, low income and/or food insecurity • Low education levels • Unemployment • Depression/low life satisfaction • Educational disparity • Marital dissatisfaction/discord and its duration (especially gender role disputes) • Marital duration • Separation
Community/ organizational	• Acceptance of traditional gender roles • Low proportion of women with high level of autonomy • Limited collective activity among women • Acceptance of violence • Weak sanctions against violence • High proportion in the community of: - Poverty - Unemployment - Female illiteracy • Discriminatory attitudes and practices towards specific groups of women* • Poverty • Weak social connectedness • Limited collective efficacy	• Acceptance of traditional gender roles • Masculine peer and organizational cultures • Acceptance of violence • Weak sanctions against VAW • High proportion of families using corporal punishment • High proportion of: - Poverty - Unemployment - Male illiteracy • Weak social connectedness • Limited collective efficacy
Societal	• Gender norms that perpetuate inequality • Low proportion of women with higher education • Discriminatory laws and policies towards women (property, inheritance, family laws) • Support for family privacy and autonomy	• Gender norms that perpetuate inequality • Social norms supportive of violence • Support for family privacy and autonomy
Non-partner sexual assault		
Individual/ relationship	• Exposure to intra-parental violence and/or sexual abuse as a child • Prior victimization • Early exposure to sexual activity • Depression • Harmful alcohol use/illicit drug use • Multiple partners	• Beliefs and norms related that emphasize family honour/sexual purity of women and girls! • Multiple partners/infidelity • Transactional sex • Masculine norms that emphasize entitlement • Perpetration of IPV • Perpetration of other forms of violence (e.g. gangs, fights) • Exposure to intra-parental violence and/or physical and/or sexual abuse as a child: • Low socioeconomic status and/or low income • Low resistance to peer pressure • Gang membership • Anti-social personality • Harmful alcohol use/illicit drug use
Community/ organizational	• Weak sanctions against violence	• Masculine peer and organizational cultures • Weak sanctions against violence • Poverty
Societal	• Gender norms that perpetuate inequality • Ideologies of male sexual entitlement and female subordination • Social norms supportive of violence • Weak legal sanctions against violence/VAW • State fragility (e.g. legitimacy, functioning, governance) • Discriminatory laws and policies towards specific groups of women*	• Gender norms that perpetuate inequality • Ideologies of male sexual entitlement and female subordination • Social norms supportive of violence • Weak legal sanctions against violence/VAW • State fragility (e.g. legitimacy, functioning, governance).

Sources: Fulu et al., 2013; Heise, 2011; Heise and Kostadam, 2015; United Nations, 2011a; 2015; VicHealth, 2007; WHO and LSH and TM, 2010.
*May include discrimination on the grounds of age, socioeconomic status, race, ethnicity, disability, and for NPSA, gender identity and sexuality.

5.2.3 Age and life cycle stages

As identified above, some of the key risks for VAW occur in childhood (e.g. child abuse). The probability of perpetrating violence is higher among young men (Fulu et al., 2013), while women are more likely to be subject to violence in late adolescence and early adulthood (WHO Multi-country study on women's health and domestic violence against women, 2005; European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights, 2014; Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2013).

KEY ISSUES ARISING FROM THE EVIDENCE – POLICY AND PROGRAMME IMPLICATIONS

- Multiple factors related to gender inequality need to be addressed in order to prevent VAW. Other factors are influential but need to be addressed as they intersect or interact with unequal gender relations.
- Each setting needs to analyze the context specific risk factors for VAW and take these into account.
- It is important to address the social, political and economic structures influencing violence, as well as norms and practices.
- It is important that men and boys who use violence are held accountable for their behaviour through formal legal sanctions (e.g. laws and their effective implementation and enforcement) as well as formal and informal social sanctions.

6. A FRAMEWORK FOR ACTION

6.1. An overview of the diagram and theory of change

The diagram below is based on a theory of change approach (discussed in section 3.6 above) and includes eight segments as follows:

The problem (segment 1) – summarizes the nature of the problem to be addressed. This draws on evidence presented in section 4 of this document.

Conditions that need to be addressed to eliminate the problem (segment 2) – summarizes the factors contributing to VAW as identified in section 5 of this document.

Foundations for prevention (segment 3) – outlines the key resources and arrangements, or the 'infrastructure', needed to establish and subsequently to sustain the prevention of VAW. Further discussion on this is presented in section 6.2.1 below.

Actions to be implemented to prevent VAW (segment 4) – identifies 11 broad approaches that are effective or promising in preventing VAW. Specific strategies within these approaches are outlined in section 6.2.2 below.

Optimizing prevention through timely, targeted and tailored efforts (segment 5) – identifies the groups to whom prevention efforts need to be targeted, as well as the structures, cultures and practices influencing them. These are discussed in greater detail in section 6.2.3 below.

Maximizing impact by working through multiple entry points (segment 6) – discusses the key entry points through which action to prevent VAW can be delivered. These are further explored below in section 6.2.4.

Anticipated short-term outcomes (segment 7) – is concerned with specific outcomes sought through action to prevent VAW and addresses the question 'what would success look like in the short term?'

Anticipated longer-term impacts (segment 8) – focuses on the intended impacts of action to prevent VAW, and addresses the question of 'what would success look like in the longer term?'

A framework to prevent violence against women

1. The problem

Violence and the threat of violence against women (VAW), including those women experiencing multiple and intersecting forms of discrimination. Such violence is a form of discrimination against women which impairs or nullifies the enjoyment by women of human rights and fundamental freedoms. It is also an obstacle to national development and poverty reduction goals. Its health, social and economic impacts extend to children, communities and society as whole.

2. Conditions that need to be addressed to eliminate the problem

1. Individual, relationship, community, organizational and societal/l structures, laws and policies, practices and social norms that:

(a) Support gender inequality, as manifested in:
- discrimination against women, and their unequal access to power and resources in public and private life;
- harmful constructions of masculinity (e.g. entitled, aggressive, dominant) and femininity (e.g. subordinate, sexualized, objectified);
- stereotyped gender roles; and
- negative male peer associations and weak peer associations among women and girls.

(b) Condone, tolerate, perpetuate and/or positively portray the use of VAW.

2. Exposure to violence in the family, the community, organizations and institutions.

3. Other circumstances and contexts that interact or intersect with gender inequality to increase the probability of violence being perpetrated against women (e.g. poverty, alcohol misuse).

3. Foundations for prevention

- State's commitment to gender equality, accountability for violence and prevention.
- Awareness of VAW as a human rights violation and of the extent, consequences and causes of VAW and the place of prevention.
- Cross-sector partnerships and collaboration.
- Adequate resources (allocation of budgets, allocation of human resources and capacity strengthening to address VAW).
- Tools, knowledge and skills to support prevention.
- Multi-sectoral planning and coordination mechanisms at the organizational, national and community levels.
- Strong leadership by government, and increased funding and support to civil society, especially women's organizations, and engagement of other non-government and private sector institutions.
- Systems for monitoring and evaluating, building the evidence base and sharing lessons learned.
- Linkages between the response and prevention systems to ensure a comprehensive and consistent approach.
- Strong legislation that prohibits VAW that is implemented through an accessible and effective legal system.

4. Actions to prevent VAW, implemented with individuals, communities, organizations and societal structures and institutions through a coordinated, multi-sectoral approach

- Adoption and enforcement of legislation, policies and organizational and institutional reforms to promote and protect the human rights of all women and girls, promote gender equality, ensure accountability for violence, and prohibit all forms of VAW.
- Advocacy to strengthen organizational, institutional and community commitments to prevent VAW, and to ensure that governments meet obligations to prevent VAW.
- Formal and informal education to strengthen social norms against inequality, discrimination, disrespect and violence.
- Mobilizing and engaging communities, and government, non-government and private sector organizations to strengthen structures, cultures and practices supportive of gender equality and non-violence.
- Engaging the media to support prevention including through the portrayal of respectful and equal relationships between women and men.
- Professional development and training to strengthen skills to undertake activity to prevent VAW.
- Leadership development among women and girls and non-violent men and boys in communities and organizations.
- Economic, social and political empowerment to build women's and girls' personal skills and resources, and to transform relations between men and women.
- Individual skills development to enable action to prevent VAW, undertake positive parenting and establish respectful relationships and positive constructions of masculinities and femininities.
- Mitigating the consequences of prior exposure to violence.
- Collaborating with other policy settings to address issues of common concern (e.g. HIV prevention, constitutional reforms, economic empowerment).

5. Optimizing prevention through effort that is timely and targeted, and tailored to particular groups, stages and transitions and the norms, structures and practices influencing them

Targeting life cycle stages and key transitions:
- Children/families to promote gender equality, mitigate impacts of exposure to violence in childhood and support key transitions (e.g. parenthood, divorce).
- Young people to support the development of positive constructions of masculinities and femininities and respectful and equal relationships.
- Communities affected by rapid changes in gender roles resulting from economic and social change or migration.

Targeting population groups:
- The population as a whole to strengthen non-violent and equitable social norms and practices.
- Women and girls to support their empowerment and promote constructions of femininity emphasizing autonomy and agency.
- Men and boys to promote non-violent, non-dominant roles and constructions of masculinity and equal, respectful relationships.
- Particular groups affected by multiple forms of discrimination.

6. Maximizing impact by working through multiple entry points

Sectors and institutions
- Central government/legislature
- Local authorities/local governments
- Schools/education
- Health sector
- Social services sector
- Legal and justice sector
- Media, popular culture and information and communication technologies
- Workplaces and industries
- Transport and physical infrastructure

Settings
- Community networks, organizations and institutions, including faith-based organizations
- Practice and policy settings addressing issues of common concern (e.g. poverty reduction programmes; HIV/AIDS prevention, sexual and reproductive health)
- Organizations/settings influencing norms and practices among and towards people affected by multiple forms of discrimination
- Male dominated environments (e.g. certain sports codes, armed forces, police, college fraternities)
- Sport and recreation environments and the arts

7. Anticipated short-term outcomes (the conditions required in the short term to secure longer-term impacts)

Anticipated outcomes of laying foundations:
- Increased recognition of VAW as a prevalent, preventable, serious and unacceptable human rights violation.
- Governments actively fulfil their international obligations to prevent VAW.
- Systems engage a range of sectors established to plan, implement, coordinate, monitor and evaluate prevention, build the evidence base and share learning.
- Civil society groups, including autonomous women's/girls' organizations and organizations that promote the engagement of men and boys in gender equality take an active role in supporting prevention and responding to backlash.
- National human rights institutions
- Support for prevention from senior leadership across sectors.
- Increased expertise and skills in prevention planning, coordination and implementation.
- Tools and resources to support prevention are developed.
- Response and prevention systems that support consistent action and communications.
- Increased engagement in and capacity to undertake activity to prevent VAW by and within organizations across the government, non-government and corporate sectors.

Anticipated outcomes of implementation:
- Discriminatory legislation repealed and policies promoting gender equality implemented.
- Strong formal and informal sanctions against violence and disrespect are established and enforced.
- Strengthened peer associations between women and girls, especially those experiencing social isolation.
- Increased positive portrayals of masculinities, femininities that are based on equal and respectful relationships between women and men and responsible reporting of violence in the media and popular culture.
- Greater value accorded to the roles of women and girls.
- More equitable distribution of resources and power between men and women in both the public and private spheres, and greater fluidity in gender roles and expressions of masculinity and femininity.
- Improved knowledge and skills of individuals to prevent VAW and strengthen gender equality in public and private life.
- Individuals affected by prior exposure to violence are identified and have access to support to assist them in mitigating its impacts.
- Increased collaborative activity with those addressing overlapping issues (e.g. alcohol misuse, poverty).

8. Anticipated longer-term impacts
- Reduction of VAW, including that perpetrated against women affected by multiple discriminations.
- Reduced acceptability of VAW among women and men and overall improvements in egalitarian or gender equal norms.
- Increased perception of safety among women and girls.
- Reduced health burden associated with VAW.
- Reduced economic costs associated with VAW.
- Increased equality, including economic and political empowerment of women and girls
- Reduced levels of violence against children.
- Improved capacity of institutions, organizations, communities and nations to meet goals pertaining to gender equality, human rights and economic and human development.

6.2 The framework in detail

6.2.1 Building the foundations for prevention

The *foundations for prevention* segment of the framework recognizes that prevention is most likely to be successful when:

- There is a high level of awareness that VAW is a form and a manifestation of discrimination against women and that efforts to prevent it must be framed within the promotion of women's human rights and gender equality as a whole.
- There is a high level of awareness that VAW is prevalent, has serious consequences and can be prevented.
- Key players across sectors are engaged and their actions are well coordinated, ideally through a coordinating body. Relevant sectors are identified in section 6.2.4 below.
- Work on prevention is supported through the development of formalized processes such as in legislation or in high-level, cross-sector plans. This is a requirement in a number of the international human rights instruments identified in Appendix 3.
- It is supported with funding and other resources including with budget lines and allocations within national budgets. While no country is free from VAW, the resource capacity across countries varies considerably. In low-income countries, for example, prevention interventions can be implemented as either stand-alone interventions or when combined with other large-scale strategies (see box below).
- It is based on the best understanding of the root causes of, and risk factors for, prevalent forms of VAW, and what works to mitigate them.
- Policies and programme interventions are designed through free and informed consultations with rights-holders.
- Practitioners have access to tools (e.g. instructional manuals, campaign materials, curricula, group programmes) and have the skills and knowledge to design, implement and evaluate prevention interventions. In some settings, existing staff are likely to be skilled in responding to those affected by VAW. However, prevention involves some different or additional skills, such as skills in organizational development, community mobilization and resource development. Prevention can involve activities such as economic empowerment, skill development programmes or policy changes that are implemented in day-to-day settings such as schools, workplaces, health services, and communities. Prevention will require skills and knowledge particular to these settings as well as knowledge of prevention of VAW. Such requirements may not necessarily be fulfilled by the existing workforce, making investment in professional development and training an important consideration.
- It has the support of government and civil society to ensure adequate resources and coordinated action, as well as to enable structural and cultural changes and sustainable prevention efforts. The support of independent women's groups has been found to be particularly important to the success of prevention work, and sustained and continued investments in their work are critical to prevention efforts (Htun and Weldon, 2012).
- Measures are in place to prevent 'backlash' from community leaders, and men and boys, or to respond to it should it occur. Backlash (an adverse reaction to something gaining prominence) may occur if prevention is perceived to challenge existing gender power dynamics or breach particular social norms.
- Institutions and systems to respond to individuals affected by violence are functioning well and there are linkages between systems involved in prevention and response interventions (See Table 1 in section 3 above). A sound response system is crucial, as prevention may result in an initial increase in reporting of violence. It is also important that the response system addresses impunity and promotes accountability for violence. If this is not the case, response actions risk contradicting efforts to prevent violence. Information from the response system can also help to ensure that prevention is responsive to any changes in the patterns and prevalence of violence.
- Mechanisms and processes are in place to monitor and evaluate interventions (e.g. periodic attitude surveys, baseline data and agreed indicators for comparisons). Evaluation is important to ensure that the evidence and knowledge base continues to be built.

Assessing the context in which prevention strategies are to be implemented is a fundamental aspect of the planning process. This includes consideration of current laws, policies and practices addressing gender inequality and VAW in order to assess their compliance with international standards. Through this process, legal, policy and practices gaps are likely to be identified for further revision.

6.2.2 Prevention actions

Mutually reinforcing actions to prevent VAW: The current evidence

This segment of the framework identifies 11 broad prevention actions. These are broad categories used to describe or group together a number of conceptually similar strategies.

The evidence for the effectiveness of various interventions is documented in the tables below. An intervention may comprise multiple strategies. Table 3 includes interventions that have been formally evaluated and assessed using internationally established processes and standards. Table 4, in contrast, includes interventions that have been implemented in practice. They show some promise in that they are based on a sound theory and have been shown to be feasible to implement. However their impact on VAW or risk factors for such violence have yet to be formally assessed.

CURRENT EVIDENCE – POLICY AND PROGRAMME IMPLICATIONS

- Interventions are most likely to be successful when they combine multiple strategies and target more than one level of the community or organizational ecology. For example, 'whole-of-school' interventions (see Table 3 for description) are more effective than implementing a single strategy such as a group education program. Similarly, media campaigns are more likely to be successful when combined with group training and efforts to develop leadership.
- The most successful interventions are those that seek to transform gender relations (e.g. addressing men's roles in caregiving in the family or increasing women's economic participation) and that result in not only changes in attitudes, but also behaviours (e.g. reductions in violence perpetration or victimization) (Fulu et al., 2014).
- There is emerging evidence that interventions that work with both men and women are more effective than single sex interventions (Fulu et al., 2014). As well as having better prospects for change this can help to prevent potential backlash from men that could otherwise occur.

Key overlapping issues

Violence against children, as well as children's exposure to intra-parental violence, are damaging to children and must be addressed. Children have an inherent right to be protected from violence. In addition, these forms of violence have consistently been found to be associated with IPV in adulthood. Addressing them can improve children's short- and long-term health and development and potentially contribute to reducing IPV.

Other overlapping issues include:

- Reducing harmful alcohol and drug use through interventions at the individual and community levels;
- Promotion of mental health and well-being and prevention of mental illness;
- Prevention of other forms of violence, and of exposure to them (e.g. community violence, bullying, civic conflict and war);
- Poverty reduction; and
- Strengthening community connectedness and cohesion.

Activities responding to the above issues, and to prevent VAW, can be mutually reinforcing, particularly if they address some of the common risk factors for both VAW and other types of violence identified above.

There is also value in integrating activity to prevent VAW into programmes for which VAW is a risk factor. Current examples are initiatives to prevent VAW that are integrated into programmes to improve sexual and reproductive health and prevent HIV (see for example WHO, 2013b), as well as programmes seeking to promote the economic empowerment of women. This approach enables both issues to be addressed through a common infrastructure. This achieves efficiencies and may also help to strengthen the reach of prevention activities. The application of such an approach would be subject to assessment of its suitability to a particular local context.

Factors to consider when using the evidence base

- Knowledge and evidence to support the prevention of IPV, and to a lesser degree, NPSA, has grown considerably in recent decades and there are good prospects for prevention. Nevertheless, there remain substantial gaps in both knowledge and evidence, and hence there is a need to continue to expand both the practice and evidence base (Fulu et al., 2014).
- Some interventions described in the tables below comprise multiple strategies (e.g. the community mobilization and 'whole-of-school' interventions), while others are based on evaluations of a single strategy (e.g. bystander programmes). Evaluations of multi-strategy interventions are generally of the net impact of the intervention, rather than of the individual strategies that make up the intervention as a whole.
- It is possible that individual strategies found to be ineffective on their own may be effective when implemented as part of a multi-strategy approach.
- Many existing evaluations have used intermediate measures (e.g. whether attitudes changed) rather than outcomes (e.g. reduced violence).
- Changes in violence reduction require a longer time than allowed by most programme funding cycles (e.g. 6 or 12 months), hence, fewer studies have assessed whether changes are sustained over time.
- Interventions in Table 3 for which the evidence is conflicting or insufficient may not necessarily be ineffective. Rather they suggest the need to strengthen the current evidence base on such efforts.
- Certain strategies have been evaluated in particular country contexts (e.g. low and middle-income contexts), and have yet to be evaluated in other contexts. Fewer approaches have been evaluated in low and middle-income countries.
- Some practices have been found to be effective in addressing a specific factor associated with IPV or NPSA (e.g. child exposure to violence). As noted above, they are a risk factor that can potentially reduce the prevalence of VAW. However, programmes that address exposure to violence in childhood have not been followed long enough to show reductions in VAW.

This 'state of the evidence' has its parallels in the early stages of movements to address other key health and social issues such as tobacco control and HIV. As regards these issues, initial practice was firstly built from evidence of the prevalence and patterns of the problems, as well as theories about their causes. Interventions were then evaluated, enabling an evidence base for future practice to be built iteratively, and subsequently 'scaled' to a wider range of practice environments. Such an approach recognizes the high human, social and economic costs of inaction, a particular concern in relation to VAW, and is consistent with international obligations to prevent this serious violation of human rights. It is also based on the reality that generating evidence for practice ultimately depends on first building a practice base to evaluate.

This does not mean that practice simply proceeds on the basis of 'trial and error'. Rather it is informed by evidence from available evaluations along with theory and evidence on the causes of VAW. When planning it is important to:

- Consult the existing evidence base;
- Have a well-articulated 'theory of change' and logic model specific to the intervention being planned;
- Conduct an assessment of the specific type of violence and the context in which it occurs;
- Build a thorough evaluation into the programme and consider means of contributing to the international evidence base (e.g. via documenting and disseminating outcomes);
- Anticipate risks and means to address them;
- Consider the scalability of the intervention; and
- Adopt a participatory approach, ensuring consultations with rights-holders and other key stakeholders.

About the evidence

In Table 3 interventions are considered:

- ***Effective*** – if they have been shown to be effective in preventing VAW.
- ***Promising*** – if found to have an impact on risk factors, but not on violence directly.
- ***Conflicting*** – where some evaluations show the interventions to be effective and others show that they are not.
- ***Ineffective*** – when current studies have not established a positive impact on VAW or its risk factors.

Insufficient evidence means there are currently insufficient studies of an appropriate quality to make an assessment regarding effectiveness.

Table 3: Evaluated interventions to prevent IPV and NPSA – current state of the evidence for effectiveness

Intervention	Example/s	Assessment based on available evidence of effectiveness
Legislative, policy, organizational and institutional reforms		
Strengthening infrastructure and transport to promote safety	Improving the safety of public transport and street lighting	Insufficient evidence for NPSA
Improvements in school infrastructure for safety	Improving water, sanitation and hygiene facilities for girls (e.g. sex segregated toilets, menstrual hygiene facilities)	Ineffective** (as a 'stand-alone' strategy) for NPSA
Reducing alcohol availability	Regulation to reduce the density of alcohol outlets or reduce alcohol consumption (e.g. through taxation, rationing, regulating trading hours)	Promising* for IPV, although optimally should be implemented alongside other interventions addressing gender norms
Mobilizing and engaging communities and organizations		
Community mobilization to change social norms	Participatory projects, community driven development engaging multiple stakeholders and addressing gender norms	Effective** for IPV
'Whole-of-school' interventions to promote gender equality, respectful relationships and safe, discrimination-free school environments	Multi-level interventions targeting teachers and other school staff, pupils, reporting mechanisms, parents and the local community, along with national advocacy. A variety of strategies are used (e.g. curriculum and group-based programmes, policy reform, advocacy)	Promising for IPV and NPSA
Engaging the media to support efforts to prevent VAW		
Social marketing campaigns or edutainment plus group education that raise awareness about VAW and promote egalitarian gender norms	Long-term programmes engaging social media, mobile applications, thematic television series, posters, together with interpersonal communication activities	Promising for IPV and NSPA
Single component communications campaigns to raise awareness of VAW	A campaign involving advertisements through television and print media	Ineffective for IPV and NPSA
Economic, social and political empowerment		
Gender equality training for women and girls	School or community programmes to improve women's and girls' agency. Can include other components such as safe spaces, mentoring and life skills training	Effective** for IPV and NPSA
Economic empowerment and income supplements	Micro-finance, vocational training, job placement or cash or asset transfers (e.g. land reform)	Conflicting evidence** for IPV and NPSA
Economic empowerment and income supplements plus gender equality training	Micro-finance, vocational training, job placement or cash or asset transfers (e.g. land reform) plus gender equality training	Effective** for IPV
Collectivization of sex workers	Supporting sex workers to come together as a collective and become advocates for their rights	Effective for reducing physical and sexual violence from police and clients of sex workers
Skills development		
Group-based training - men and boys / masculinity norms programming	School programmes and group education workshops to promote changes in social norms and behaviours that encourage VAW and gender inequality	Insufficient* evidence for IPV or NPSA
Group-based training on gender equality and expressions of femininity and masculinity for both women and men	Group education workshops in schools and community settings to promote critical reflection and dialogue on gender norms and behaviour that encourage VAW and gender inequality. In contrast to the above, these involve both men and women	Promising** for IPV and NPSA
Bystander programmes	Programmes to strengthen individual skills and knowledge to take positive or 'pro-social' action in relation to attitudes and behaviours supporting violence (e.g. the belief that women deserve violence) and precursors to violence (e.g. sexist attitudes). Typically implemented as part of a broader programme of community/organizational mobilization	Conflicting evidence for IPV and NPSA (emphasis in current evaluations is on bystander responses to violence, as opposed to its precursors, and on bystander approaches as 'stand-alone' interventions)
Mitigating the consequences of prior exposure to violence		
Mitigating the impacts of witnessing intra-parental violence*	Psychotherapeutic and psycho-educational interventions for children who have been exposed to violence perpetrated against their mothers, noting that the primary benefits and purposes of such programmes are to preserve children's human rights and restore their well-being.	Promising for IPV
Addressing other types of violence that can also contribute to preventing violence against women.		
Parenting programmes to prevent child abuse and neglect	Nurse home-visit programmes aimed to strengthen parenting attitudes and skills, noting that the primary purpose and benefits of such programmes are the prevention of child abuse	Promising for IPV (effective for reducing child abuse and neglect)

*Evidence from high-income countries only.
**Evidence from low and middle-income countries only.
Sources: Table adapted with permission from Arango et al., 2014; Ellsberg et al., 2014; Fulu et al 2013; Fulu et al., 2014; WHO and LSH TM, 2010

Table 4: Emerging practices to prevent VAW

Possible intervention or strategy	Rationale
Legislative, policy and institutional reform	
Legal and policy reforms designed to address specific aspects of human rights and gender inequality that are established in research to be strongly linked with VAW (e.g. family law reform)	There are established linkages between certain dimensions of these macro-level conditions and VAW (e.g. the availability of no-fault divorce)
Multi-strategy approaches with media outlets to promote the responsible portrayal of women, girls and VAW in the media (e.g. involving advocacy, training, guidelines, self-regulation and taking into account the need to protect press freedoms)	Evidence that the media influences attitudes and social norms towards gender and VAW (Gauntlett 2002; Lind 2004, Flood and Pease 2009; Pease and Flood 2008).
Advocacy to prevent VAW	
Skills training and capacity-building for organizations and community members advocating for gender equality and the elimination of VAW	
Leadership programmes that identify and support influential, non-violent individuals to 'speak out' and play a leadership role regarding gender inequality and the elimination of VAW. These may be targeted to prominent individuals or be delivered through informal peer groups (e.g. among young people) or organizational settings identified in Table 5 below (e.g. workplaces)	Social norms theory proposes that the views of prominent others are influential in shifting social norms (Webster et al. 2014).
Formal and informal education	
Supporting individuals from particular sub-populations to educate their peers. This may be referred to as peer education or community-based educational dialogues (see for example UNICEF, 2013)	Qualitative evaluations show some promise in peer education approaches, especially among young people
Programmes to support young people to engage critically with media and popular culture representations of women and gender relations, often referred to as strengthening media literacy	Based on the understanding that the negative influences of the media on constructions of masculinities and femininities and on behaviours can be lessened by encouraging young people to engage in a critical way with the media
Mobilizing and engaging communities and organizations	
Organizational auditing processes to identify and address structures and practices contributing to gender inequality and VAW. Involves developing audit tools and processes for engaging staff, community members and volunteers in using these to reflect on organizational cultures and processes and plan reform. Inducements may be used to encourage or support compliance (e.g. funding, awards)	Provide a systematic approach and a focus for engaging organizations in a process of reflection and reform. Also applicable to institutional reform (above)
Skills development	
Programmes to support the skills of parents (both men and women) to promote gender equality and non-violence in their parenting practices	Individual attitudes and behaviours pertaining to violence and gender relations are established in childhood, adolescence in particular, and the family is a key influence
Relationship level interventions for equitable and respectful relationships.	Interventions to support couples in maintaining equitable and respectful relationships have been successfully implemented (e.g. among couples expecting a first child). There may be some potential in such programmes as preventive measures at the population or sub-population level.
Possible intervention or strategy	**Rationale**
Support to mitigate the consequences of prior exposure to violence	
Individual and group programmes to mitigate the psychological consequences of experiencing other forms of violence (e.g. racially motivated and historical violence experienced by Indigenous populations, war-related trauma and torture, prison violence).	Exposure to these forms of violence is associated with an increased risk of perpetrating VAW by men, and for some forms, being a victim among women. There are various programmes established to mitigate the impacts of these forms of violence (e.g. Indigenous Men's Healing Circles in Australia and Canada). The primary purpose of these programmes is to address the impacts of prior violence for the populations concerned. However, the additional benefit of a reduction in the risk of perpetration of VAW is a theoretical possibility. There is also the potential to integrate content and activities to prevent VAW into these programmes.

6.2.3 Population segments for targeting

Social norms and structures have a strong influence on the perpetration of VAW and responses to this violence. This suggests that a comprehensive approach to prevention will require the development of interventions:

- That address cultures, structures and practices across organizations, sometimes called 'whole-of-organization' approaches; and
- That reach a wide range of people and organizations in a nation, locality or region.

However, there are also benefits in prioritizing prevention to reach particular groups. This may be because:

- Higher rates of violence are perpetrated against women or by men within specific groups. Prioritizing groups most in need is a principle of the human rights approach informing this framework.
- Particular risk factors for violence affect varying groups differently.
- Reaching varying groups will require specially tailored approaches, such as approaches that take into account particular cultural sensitivities.
- The prospects and opportunities for prevention in some groups are especially strong (e.g. among children and young people as noted below).

Specific populations are outlined in Table 5 below. It is important to note that the term 'targeting' here should be taken to mean not only reaching members of the groups themselves, but also working with the organizations, institutions and community and societal structures that influence their risk. For example, reducing violence perpetration among young people would involve group programmes delivered to young people themselves, as well as work with environments influencing their behaviours, such as the media, schools and the family.

A list of additional sources to guide the prevention of VAW with particular population groups is in Appendix 2.

6.2.4 Key entry points

The framework identifies key entry points for the delivery of strategies to prevent VAW (see Table 5 below). These are identified on the basis that they are environments:

- That have a key role in transmitting attitudes and social norms about VAW and gender equality;
- That have the potential to reach a large proportion of the population in the course of people's day-to-day lives;
- Through which priority populations identified above can be reached, or which have a particular influence on the risk of violence perpetration or victimization among priority populations; and
- In which prevention interventions can be feasibly implemented.

Table 5: Key entry points and settings

Entry point	Rationale
Central government and legislature	• The State has the primary responsibility for the implementation of its human rights obligation to prevent VAW. • Policy and legislative measures must be undertaken to prevent violence, eradicate discrimination against women in law and practice and promote women's rights. This encompasses some of the measures listed below, including as they refer to health and social policies; law enforcement and justice responses; and labour policies.
Schools and educational facilities	• Schools and educational facilities play an important role in the socialization of children and young people and are a means of reaching large proportions of the population. Interventions can be built into school curricula and structures, but require training of teachers and other staff (see Foundations for prevention section 6.2.1). • In some contexts schools and educational facilities are sites in which VAW is common.
Health services: - Primary health care services - Mental health service - Sexual and reproductive health and HIV - Child and Adolescent health services Social services: - Early childhood services - Services supporting families, adolescents and young adults and migrants and refugees	• Health programmes have played a key role in leading effective cross-sector interventions to prevent VAW. Prevention strategies can be readily built into other interventions (e.g. SRH, HIV prevention, adolescent health, mental health programmes). • Health programmes play an important role in providing support to parents to prevent child abuse and neglect. They can also support couples in pregnancy and the transition to parenting. • Poor mental health is a risk for both victimization and perpetration, suggesting the importance of integrating strategies to prevent VAW into programmes to prevent and respond to poor mental health. • Health services are an important point for early identification and intervention of women and children subject to or at risk of violence. • Social service programmes can be an important means of reaching young people, especially those outside of the formal education system – a particularly high-risk group. Services supporting migrants and refugees can target groups that may not be reached by strategies designed for host populations, and can implement prevention efforts soon after arrival.
Police and the justice sector	• Although primarily involved in response, this sector is critical to engage when laying foundations for prevention given that effective investigation of allegations, prosecution of alleged perpetrators, promoting accountability and ensuring effective access to remedies for victims are important conditions for effective prevention (see 6.2.1). In some contexts, law enforcement personnel may be implicated in the perpetration of VAW, a further consideration at this stage.
Media, popular culture and information and communications technologies	• The media can be an important partner in preventing VAW as it has wide reach, and plays a significant role in shaping and maintaining social norms (Flood and Pease, 2009). Information and communications technologies (ICTs) can be an important vehicle for empowerment, especially of young women. • At the same time, however, the media can perpetuate violence-supportive social norms, and actively undermine gender equality and women's freedom from violence. In this respect, the media may need to be considered as targets for intervention, or barriers to success in some contexts. • There is growing evidence of ICTs being used as vehicles or sites for the perpetration of VAW. Examples include the use of tracking technologies to monitor women's movements by perpetrators of IPV (Hand et al., 2009) and the grooming of adolescent girls for the purposes of sexual exploitation via chat rooms (UNICEF Innocenti Research Centre, 2011).

Entry point	Rationale
Workplaces, including unions and employers' organizations	• These environments provide opportunity to reach a large number of people where work is integrated into their day-to-day lives. • Workplaces are sites for some forms of VAW (e.g. workplace harassment). • Workplaces are also key settings in which unequal and stereotyped gender roles exist and can be addressed. Some workplaces (e.g. the police, military, the construction industry) offer opportunities to reach a large number of men and are settings that have significant impact on development of attitudes and social norms pertaining to VAW. • Unions and the private sector may be engaged in prevention through workplaces.
Sport and recreation environments and the arts	• In societies where sport plays an important role, professional and amateur (sometimes called community-based) sports organizations are contexts in which attitudes and behaviours toward gender relations can be shaped and changed. Sports 'stars', both men and women, can be influential leaders and ambassadors. Sports organizations can provide a powerful infrastructure through which to reach populations, in particular young men. • The arts are similarly a valuable medium for challenging social norms pertaining to VAW and gender inequality.
Male dominated environments (e.g. prisons, sports clubs, military, police forces)	• These environments offer the opportunity to reach a large number of men and may influence attitudes and social norms pertaining to VAW. However the entrenched 'macho' culture that may prevail in some of these bodies poses important challenges.
Community networks, organizations and institutions (e.g. faith-based organizations, cultural institutions, clubs and societies)	• Such entities can be critical partners in prevention, providing the means to reach communities and to deliver messages in a familiar environment. Leaders within such environments (e.g. faith and community leaders) can be influential allies in prevention. • At the same time, some of these bodies may also have cultures and practices that contribute to gender inequality and VAW and may resist change. In this regard they may become targets for intervention, or there may be barriers that need to be addressed in prevention planning.
Local authorities/local governments	• As a level of government close to people, they may be well placed to support localized mobilization and specific prevention activities (an approach found to be effective in preventing VAW) (Arango et al., 2014).
Employment/ economic empowerment and poverty reduction programmes	• Interventions using economic empowerment, including but not limited to providing full and productive employment and decent work for women, have been found to be effective in preventing VAW (see Table 3). As male unemployment is a risk factor for perpetration of violence in certain circumstances, organizations addressing unemployment may hold some promise as an entry point.
Transport sector	• Access to safe spaces and transport increases women's and girls' autonomy, safety and capacity for economic, social and civic participation.

6.2.5 Desired outcomes and impacts

The framework is based on the understanding that long-term reductions in the incidence of VAW will be achieved by supporting sustained changes in laws and policies, as well as in the skills, knowledge and behaviours of individuals, in addition to changes to practices, norms and structures in communities, in organizations and at the societal level. These are identified in segment 8 of the framework.

Social norms and structural changes required to prevent VAW will take time to achieve. Nevertheless, drawing on a theory of change approach and the factors underlying and increasing the risk of VAW outlined earlier, it is possible to identify the factors or conditions in the short to medium term that are likely to lead to the longer-term benefits sought.

Two clusters of short- to medium-term changes are identified in segment 7. The first of these are the conditions that would be expected from efforts to lay the foundations for prevention (as outlined in segment 3). The second are those that would be expected from implementing prevention activity itself (outlined in broad terms in segment 4).

The short- to medium-term outcomes provide a basis against which indicators of success and the means to measure them would be established for the purposes of monitoring and evaluating in a particular context or an intervention.

7. THE WAY FORWARD

There is increasing evidence that VAW is a prevalent problem with serious consequences, but that it is also preventable. There are now global, regional, national and community-based agencies committed to eradicating this problem. While this will not be a short-term proposition, there is currently considerable momentum to address the challenges ahead.

Drawing on the work of UN agencies and global experts, this framework has been designed to build on this momentum and make further contribution to current efforts to prevent VAW. In particular it addresses some of the future challenges. Meeting these challenges will be dependent on the capacity to:

- Plan and deliver coordinated, well-targeted, evidence-informed strategies to prevent VAW. This will require ongoing research into the efficacy and effectiveness of prevention interventions, and formation of collaborative partnerships to advance this work.
- Strengthen a shared understanding regarding the factors contributing to and protecting against VAW and the role that different sectors and disciplines can play to prevent this violence.
- Develop a common language to discuss the prevention of VAW.
- Provide the necessary budgetary allocations and capacity-building.

It is envisaged that this framework will be disseminated and utilized by the UN system, regional authorities and governments and other stakeholders working across the globe to prevent VAW. It is also envisaged that, as the evidence for preventing VAW evolves, this framework will be reviewed in order to ensure that it continues to provide a strong and unifying platform to support the collective work of government and non-government actors across the globe.

Preventing violence against women before it occurs is fundamental to ensuring that women and girls are truly able to live a life free from violence.

GLOSSARY

Adolescent – see child/children below.

Backlash – an adverse reaction to something gaining prominence; in this framework the prevention of VAW.

Colonization – the process of settling among and establishing control over the indigenous people of an area. Historically it has often involved the displacement and undermining of indigenous societies, including their values, cultures, beliefs and ways of life by outside peoples (Weaver, 2008).

Child/children – includes human beings under the age of 18 (United Nations, 1990). Those within this age group may be categorised variously as being in early childhood (birth to eight years) (United Nations, 2005); adolescents (10 to 19 years); youth (15 to 25 years); and young people (10 to 24 years). Adolescents may be further broken down into early adolescence (10 to 14 years) and later/older adolescence (14 to 19 years).

Community – in this framework, a group of people living in the same geographic area or sharing a common characteristic (also see organization below).

Discrimination – behaviours and practices resulting in avoidable and unfair inequalities across groups in society (Paradies et al., 2009). This definition encompasses overt forms of prejudice, violence, open threats and rejection, as well as subtle forms such as bias, exclusion and using stereotypes. Discrimination can occur at individual, interpersonal, organizational, community and societal levels.

Disability – viewed as an evolving concept that results from the interaction between people with different functional abilities and societal obstacles, such as physical barriers and attitudes. It is these barriers that are disabling for people, not their impairments or different functional abilities. The more obstacles and barriers a person faces the more disabled they become. People with disabilities include but are not limited to those who have long-term physical, mental, intellectual, or sensory impairments such as blindness, deafness, impaired mobility and developmental impairments (United Nations, 2007).

Ethnicity – describing a social group whose members share a sense of common origins, claim common and distinctive history and destiny, possess one or more dimensions of collective individuality and feel a sense of unique collective individuality (Paradies et al., 2009).

Gender identity – a deeply felt and experienced sense of one's own gender. One may identify as male, female, a blend of both or neither, and one's gender identity may or may not match the sex assigned at birth (adapted from United Nations).

Institution – in this framework, an established custom and practice (e.g. the institution of marriage) or an organization established for a religious, educational, professional or social purpose. In general usage it may also be used to describe a place for the care or custody of certain groups of people (e.g. prisoners). However this is not the case in this framework.

Organization – a social unit of people that is structured and managed to meet a need or to pursue common goals. Organizations vary in their degree of formality but generally have means for determining relationships between activities and members, and for assigning roles, responsibilities and lines of authority. The terms institution and organization are sometimes used interchangeably. Common examples of organizations are schools, churches, sports clubs, workplaces and media companies.

Racism, racial discrimination, xenophobia and related intolerance (referred to in this framework as 'racism') – any distinction, exclusion, restriction or preference based on race, colour, descent, or national or ethnic origin which has the purpose or effect of nullifying or impairing the recognition, enjoyment or exercise, on an equal footing, of human rights and fundamental freedoms in the political, economic, social, cultural or any other field of public life (United Nations, 1969).

Refugee – a person who has fled their country of origin and is unable or unwilling to return because of a well-founded fear of being persecuted due to their race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion (adapted from United Nations, 2010).

Sexual orientation – refers to a person's physical, romantic and/or emotional attraction towards other people. Everyone has a sexual orientation, which is integral to a person's identity. Gay men and lesbian women are attracted to individuals of the same sex as themselves. Heterosexual people are attracted to individuals of a different sex from themselves. Bisexual people may be attracted to individuals of the same or different sex (adapted from United Nations).

REFERENCES

Abbey, A (2008). Alcohol and Sexual Violence Perpetration. VAWnet: The National Online Resource Center on Violence Against Women. Available from http://www.vawnet.org/applied-research-papers/print-document.php?doc_id=1586. Accessed 10 June 2015.

Abbey, A (2011). Alcohol's role in sexual violence perpetration: Theoretical explanations, existing evidence and future directions. Drug and Alcohol Review, vol. 30, pp. 481–489.

Abramsky, T, Watts, C, Garcia-Moreno, C, Devries, K, Kiss, L, Ellsberg, M, Jansen, H & Heise, L (2011). 'What factors are associated with recent intimate partner violence? Findings from the WHO multi-country study on women's health and domestic violence', BMC Public Health, vol. 11, no. 1, p. 109.

Anderson, A (2005). An introduction to theory of change. The Evaluation Exchange, Harvard Family Research Project, Harvard Graduate School of Education, vol. x1, No. 2. Available from http://www.hfrp.org/var/hfrp/storage/original/application/d6517d4c8da2c9f1fb3dffe3e8b68ce4.pdf. Accessed 14 June 2015.

Arango, DJ, Morton, M, Genari, F, Kiplesund, S and Ellsberg, M (2014). Interventions to prevent or reduce violence against women and girls. A systematic review of reviews. Women's voice and agency research series 2014, No 10, Gender Equality and Development. Available from http://www.worldbank.org/content/dam/Worldbank/document/Gender/Arango%20et%20al%202014.%20Interventions%20to%20Prevent%20or%20Reduce%20VAW%20-%20A%20Systematic%20Review%20of%20Reviews.pdf. Accessed 10 June 2015.

Atkinson, MP, Greenstein, TN and Lang, MM (2005). For women breadwinning can be dangerous: Gendered resource theory and wife abuse. Journal of Marriage and Family, vol. 67, No. 5, pp. 1137.

Australian Bureau of Statistics (2013). Personal Safety Australia 2012, cat. no. 4906.0. Canberra. Available from www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/abs@.nsf/mf/4906.0.

Bagshaw, D, Chung, D, Couch, M, Lilburn, S and Wadham, B (2000). Reshaping Responses to Domestic Violence. Canberra: Office for the Status of Women, Department of Prime Minister and Cabinet.

Banyard, VL, Potter, S & Turner, H (2011). The impact of interpersonal violence in adult women's job satisfaction and productivity: the mediating roles of mental and physical health, Psychology of violence, vol. 1, no. 1, pp. 16–28.

Belknap, J and Melton, H (2005). Are heterosexual men also victims of intimate partner abuse? VAWnet National Electronic Network on Violence Against Women, Applied Research Forum. Available from http://www.xyonline.net/sites/default/files/Belknap,%20Are%20heterosexual%20men%20also.pdf. Accessed 6 January 2014.

Bennet, L and Bland, P (2008). Substance Abuse and Intimate Partner Violence. Harrisburg, PA: National Resource Centre on Domestic Violence.

Bronfenbrenner, U (1994). Ecological models of human development. International Encyclopedia of Education, vol. 3, 2nd ed., Elsevier, NY: Oxford.

Caldwell, J and Swan, SC (2012). Gender differences in intimate partner violence outcomes. Psychology of Violence, vol. 2, pp. 42–57.

Campo, M, Kaspiew, R, Moore, S and Tayton, S (2014). Children Affected by Domestic and Family Violence: A Review of Domestic and Family Violence Prevention, Early Intervention and Response Services. Melbourne: Australian Institute of Family Studies.

Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2004). Sexual Violence Prevention: Beginning the Dialogue. Atlanta, GA: Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Available from http://www.cdc.gov/violenceprevention/pdf/svprevention-a.pdf. Accessed 10 June 2015.

Centers for Disease Control and Prevention and Prevention Institute (2014). Connecting the Dots: An Overview of the Links Among Multiple Forms of Violence. Atlanta, GA: Centres for Disease Control and Prevention.

Chon, DS (2013). Test of impacts of gender equality and economic development on sexual violence. Journal of Family Violence, vol. 28. No. 26, pp. 603–610.

Connell, R and Pearse, R (2015). Gender: In World Perspective. 3rd ed. Cambridge, UK: Polity.

Connell, RW (2005). Advancing gender reform in large-scale organisations: A new approach for practitioners and researchers. Policy and Society, vol. 24, No. 5, pp. 5–24.

Connell, RW and Messerschmidt, JW (2005). Hegemonic masculinity: Rethinking the concept. Gender and Society, vol. 19, No. 6, pp. 829–859.

Dekeseredy, WS, McKenzie, R and Schwartz, MD (2004). Separation/divorce sexual assault: The current state of scientific knowledge. Aggression and Violent Behavior, vol. 9, No. 6, pp. 675–691.

Edleson, JL and Nissley, BA (2006). Emerging Responses to Children Exposed to Domestic Violence. Harrisburg, PA, National Resource Center on Domestic Violence.

Ellsberg, M, Arango, DJ, Morton, M, Gennari, F, Kiplesund, S, Contreras and Watts, C (2014). Prevention of violence against women and girls: What does the evidence say? The Lancet. Available from http://www.thelancet.com/journals/lancet/article/PIIS0140-6736(14)61703-7/fulltext. Accessed 25 January 2015.

European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights (2014). Violence Against Women. An EU Wide Survey, Main Results. Available from http://fra.europa.eu/sites/default/files/fra-2014-vaw-survey-main-results_en.pdf. Accessed 14 June 2015.

Fisher, C (2009). The exploration of the nature and understanding of family and domestic violence within Sudanese, Somalian, Ethiopian, Liberian and Sierra Leonean communities and its impact on individuals, family relations, the community and settlement, Association for Services to Torture and Trauma Survivors, Perth, Western Australia. Available from http://pubs.asetts.org.au/Documents/DomesticViolenceResearchReportAugust2008.pdf. Accessed 14 August 2015.

Fleming, PJ, McCleary-Sills, J, Morton, M, Levtov, R, Heilman, B and Barker, G (2015). Risk factors for men's lifetime perpetration of physical violence against intimate partners: Results from the International Men and Gender Equality Survey (IMAGES) in eight countries. Plos One, vol. 10, No. 3, pp. 1–18.

Flood, M (2009). Bent straights: Diversity and flux among heterosexual men. In Intimate Citizenships: Gender, Sexualities, Politics, EH Oleksy, ed. London: Routledge, pp. 223–240.

Flood, M and Fergus, L (2008). An Assault on Our Future: The Impact of Violence on Young People and Their Relationships. Sydney: White Ribbon Foundation. Available from http://www.whiteribbon.org.au/uploads/media/Research_series/An_assault_on_our_future_FULL_Flood__Fergus_2010.pdf. Accessed 10 June 2014.

Flood, M and Pease, B (2009). Factors influencing attitudes to violence against women. Trauma, Violence and Abuse, vol. 10, pp. 125–142.

Fulu, E, Kerr-Wilson, A and Lang, J (2014). Effectiveness of Interventions to Prevent Violence Against Women and Girls. A Summary of the Evidence. Available from https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/337617/effectiveness-interventions-summary-evidence-G.pdf. Accessed 10 June 2015.

Fulu, E, Warner, X, Miedema, S, Jewkes, R, Roselli, T and Lang, J (2013). Why Do Some Men Use Violence Against Women and How Can We Prevent It? Quantitative Findings from the United Nations Multi-Country Study on Men and Violence in Asia and the Pacific. Bangkok: UNDP, UNFPA, UN Women and UNV.

Garcia-Moreno, C, Jansen, H, Ellsberg, M, Heise, L, Watts, C (2005). WHO Multi-Country study on women's health and domestic violence against women. Geneva, World Health Organization. Available from http://www.unece.org/fileadmin/DAM/stats/gender/vaw/surveys/Serbia%20%26%20Montenegro/WHO%20VAW%20multiple%20country.pdf. Accessed 18 August 2015.

Gauntlett, D (2002). Media, Gender and Identity: An Introduction, Routledge, New York.

Hand, T, Chung, D and Peters, M (2009). The use of information and communication technologies to coerce and control in domestic violence and following separation. In Stakeholder paper 6, L Harris, G Johnson and N Bailey, eds. Sydney: ADFVC, University of New South Wales. Available from www.adfvc.unsw.edu.au/RTF%20Files/Stakeholderpaper_6.rtf. Accessed 19 June 2015.

Heise, L (2011). What Works to Prevent Partner Violence? An Evidence Overview, Working Paper Version 2.0. Available from http://www.oecd.org/derec/49872444.pdf. Accessed 10 June 2015.

Heise, L and Fulu, E (2014). What Works to Prevent Violence Against Women and Girls? State of the Field of Violence Against Women and Girls: What Do We Know and What Are the Knowledge Gaps? Annex D. Available from https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/337603/What-know-what-knowledge-gaps-D.pdf. Accessed 14 June 2015.

Heise, L and Kotsadam, A (2015). Cross-national and multi-level correlates of partner violence: An analysis of data from population-based surveys. Lancet Global Health, vol. 3, pp. 332–340.

Heise, L, Ellsberg, M and Goettemoeller, M (1999). Ending Violence Against Women. Population Reports, Series L, No. 11. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University School of Public Health, Population Information Program. Available from http://www.vawnet.org/assoc_files_vawnet/populationreports.pdf. Accessed 10 June 2015.

Holt, S, Buckley, H and Whelan, S (2008). The impact of exposure to domestic violence on children and young people: A review of the literature. Child Abuse & Neglect, vol. 32, pp. 797–810.

Holtzworth-Munroe, A (2005). Male versus female intimate partner violence: Putting controversial findings into context. Journal of Marriage and Family, vol. 67, pp. 1120-1125.

Htun, M and Weldon, SL (2012). The civic origins of progressive policy change: Combating violence against women in global perspective 1975–2005. American Political Science Review, vol. 106, No. 3, pp. 548–569.

Humphreys, C, Houghton, C and Ellis, J (2008). Literature Review: Better Outcomes for Children and Young People Experiencing Domestic Abuse – Directions for Good Practice. Edinburgh: The Scottish Government.

Jewkes, R (2002). Intimate partner violence: Causes and prevention. Lancet, vol. 359, pp. 1423–1429.

Kimmel, MS (2002). "Gender symmetry" in domestic violence: A substantive and methodological research review. Violence Against Women, vol. 8, pp. 132–163.

Kimerling, R, Alvarez, J, Pavao, J, Mack, KP, Smith, MW & Baumrind, N (2009). Unemployment among women: examining the relationship of physical and psychological intimate partner violence and posttraumatic stress disorder, Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 24, pp. 450–463.

KPMG Human and Social Services (2014). Too Costly to Ignore: The Economic Impact of Gender Based Violence in South Africa. Johannesburg: KPMG.

Krug, EG, Dahlberg, LL, Mercy, JA, Zwi, AB and Lozano, R (2002). The World Report on Violence and Health. Geneva: World Health Organization.

Lind, RA (ed.) 2004, Race, Gender, Media: Considering Diversity Across Audiences, Content and Producers, Allyn and Bacon, Boston.

Lindhorst, T, Oxford M & Rogers M G (2007). Longitudinal effects of domestic violence on employment and welfare outcomes, Journal of Interpersonal Violence, vol. 22 , no. 7, pp. 812–828.

Malamuth, NM, Linz, D, Heavey, CL, Barnes, G and Acker, M (1995). Using the confluence model of sexual aggression to predict men's conflict with women: A 10-year follow-up study. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, vol. 69, No. 2, pp. 353–369.

Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (2013). Gender Stereotyping as a Human Rights Violation. Geneva: Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights.

Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights publication (2015). Women's Rights are Human Rights, Available from http://www.ohchr.org/Documents/Events/WHRD/WomenRightsAreHR.pdf

Office of the Special Advisor on Gender Issues and the Advancement of Women (2001). Gender Mainstreaming. Strategy for promoting gender inequality. Available from http://www.un.org/womenwatch/osagi/pdf/factsheet1.pdf. Accessed 4 July 2015.

Paradies, Y, Chandrakumar, L, Klocker, N, Frere, M, Webster, K, Burrell, M and McLean, P (2009). Building on Our Strengths: A Framework to Reduce Race-Based Discrimination and Support Diversity in Victoria. Melbourne: Victorian Health Promotion Foundation.

Pease, B and Flood, M (2008). Rethinking the significance of attitudes in preventing men's violence against women. Australian Journal of Social Issues, vol. 43, no. 44, pp. 547–561.

Richards, K (2011). Children's Exposure to Domestic Violence in Australia. Canberra: Australian Institute of Criminology.

Schwartz, MD and Dekeseredy, WS (2000). Aggression bias and woman abuse: Variations in male peer support, region, language and school type. Journal of Interpersonal Violence, vol. 15, pp. 555–565.

Simister, J and Mehta, PS (2010). Gender based violence in India: Long term trends. Journal of Interpersonal violence, vol. 25, No. 9, pp. 1594–1611.

Tually, S, Faulkner, D, Cutler, C & Slatter, M (2008). Women, Domestic and Family Violence and Homelessness: A Synthesis Report, Flinders Institute for Housing, Urban and Regional Research Flinders University. Available from https://www.dss.gov.au/sites/default/files/documents/05_2012/synthesis_report2008.pdf. Accessed 12 August 2015.

UN Women (2012). Report of the expert group meeting on prevention of violence against women and girls, Commission on the Status of Women, 57, 4–15 March 2103. Available from http://www.unwomen.org/~/media/headquarters/attachments/sections/csw/57/egm/report-of-the-egm-on-prevention-of-violence-against-women-and-girls%20pdf.pdf. Accessed 10 June 2015.

UN Women (2015). Progress of the World's Women 2015–2016: Transforming Economies, Realizing Rights. Available from http://progress.unwomen.org/en/2015/. Accessed 15 June 2015.

UNICEF (2013). Female Genital Mutilation/Cutting. A Statistical Overview and Exploration of the Dynamics of Change. New York: UNICEF.

UNICEF (2014a). Ending Child Marriage: Progress and Prospects. Available from http://www.unicef.org/media/files/Child_Marriage_Report_7_17_LR..pdf. Accessed 14 June 2015.

UNICEF (2014b). Hidden in Plain Sight: A Statistical Analysis of Violence Against Children. Available from http://files.unicef.org/publications/files/Hidden_in_plain_sight_statistical_analysis_EN_3_Sept_2014.pdf. Accessed 14 June 2015.

UNICEF (2015). Harmful Connections: Examining the Relationship Between Violence Against Women and Violence Against Children in the South Pacific. Fiji: UNICEF.

United Nations [Committee on the Rights of the Child] (2005). General Comment No. 7, Implementing child rights in early childhood, Fortieth session, 12–30 September. Available from http://tbinternet.ohchr.org/_layouts/treatybodyexternal/Download.aspx?symbolno=CRC%2fC%2fGC%2f7%2fRev.1&Lang=en. Accessed 20 July 2015.

United Nations [General Assembly] (1990). Convention on the Rights of the Child. Available from http://www.ohchr.org/EN/ProfessionalInterest/Pages/CRC.aspx. Accessed 20 July 2015.

United Nations [General Assembly] (1969). International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. Available from http://www.ohchr.org/EN/ProfessionalInterest/Pages/CERD.aspx. Accessed 20 July 2015.

United Nations (1993). Declaration on the elimination of violence against women, UN Resolution 48/104, proceedings of the Eighty-fifth Plenary Meeting, United Nations General Assembly, Geneva. Available from http://www.un.org/documents/ga/res/48/a48r104.htm. Accessed 6 February 2014.

United Nations [General Assembly] (2006). Ending violence against women: From words to action, Study of the Secretary-General. Available from http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/public/VAW_Study/VAWstudyE.pdf. Accessed 10 June 2015.

United Nations [General Assembly] (2007). Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities. Available from http://www.un.org/disabilities/default.asp?id=199. Accessed 20 July 2015.

United Nations (2010). Convention and protocol relating to the status of refugees. Available from http://www.unhcr.org/3b66c2aa10.html. Accessed 15 June 2015.

United Nations [General Assembly] (2011a). Report of the Special Rapporteur on Violence Against Women, its Causes and Consequences, Promotion and protection of all human rights, civil, political, economic, social and cultural rights including the right to development, Human Rights Council, Seventeenth session. Available from http://daccess-dds-ny.un.org/doc/UNDOC/GEN/G11/130/22/PDF/G1113022.pdf?OpenElement. Accessed 15 June 2015.

United Nations [General Assembly] (2011b). Discriminatory laws and practices and acts of violence against individuals based on their sexual orientation and gender identity, United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights, Human Rights Council, Nineteenth session, November 2011. Available from www.un.org/en/ga/search/view_doc.asp?symbol=A/HRC/19/41. Accessed 10 June, 2015

United Nations [General Assembly] (2012a). Report of the Special Rapporteur on Violence Against Women, its Causes and Consequences, Report on Violence Against Women with Disabilities, General Assembly, Sixty-Seventh session, August 2012. Available from http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/documents/ga66/RAPPORT_on_VAW.PDF. Accessed 10 June 2015.

United Nations [General Assembly] (2012b). Thematic study on the issue of violence against women and girls and disability, Report of the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights, Human Rights Council, Twentieth session, March 2012. Available from http://www.ohchr.org/Documents/Issues/Disability/ThematicStudyViolenceAgainstWomenGirls.pdf. Accessed 10 June 2015.

United Nations [Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women] (2013). Agreed Conclusions on the Elimination and Prevention of All Forms of Violence Against Women and Girls. Conclusions of the Fifty-Seventh session, 15 March 2013. Available from http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/csw/csw57/CSW57_Agreed_Conclusions_%28CSW_report_excerpt%29.pdf. Accessed 14 June 2015.

United Nations [Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women and Committee on the Rights of the Child] (2014). Joint general recommendation No. 31 of the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women/General Comment No. 18 of the Committee on the Rights of the Child on harmful practices. Available from http://tbinternet.ohchr.org/_layouts/treatybodyexternal/Download.aspx?symbolno=CEDAW%2FC%2FGC%2F31%2FCRC%2FC%2FGC%2F18&Lang=en. Accessed 19 May 2015.

United Nations [General Assembly] (2015). Discrimination and violence against individuals based on their sexual orientation and gender identity, Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights, Human Rights Council, Twenty-ninth session, May 2015. Available from www.un.org/en/ga/search/view_doc.asp?symbol=A/HRC/29/23. Accessed 10 June 2015.

United Nations [Free and Equal] (n.d.). Facts Sheet: LGBT Rights, Frequently Asked Questions. Available from https://www.unfe.org/system/unfe-7-UN_Fact_Sheets_v6_-_FAQ.pdf. Accessed 20 July 2015.

United Nations Office on Drugs & Crime (2013). Global Study on Homicide: Executive Summary. Available from https://www.unodc.org/documents/gsh/pdfs/GLOBAL_HOMICIDE_Report_ExSum.pdf. Accessed 20 July 2015.

United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA), Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights c. 2001, 'Application of human rights to reproductive and sexual health', Expert Group Meeting, UNFPA, New York.

UNICEF Innocenti Research Centre (2011). Child Safety Online, Global Strategies and Challenges. Available from http://www.unicef.org/pacificislands/ict_eng.pdf. Accessed 19 June 2015.

VicHealth (2007). Preventing Violence Before it Occurs: A Framework and Background Paper to Guide the Primary Prevention of Violence Against Women in Victoria. Melbourne: Victorian Health Promotion Foundation.

VicHealth (2014). Australians' Attitudes Towards Violence Against Women: Findings from the 2013 Community Attitudes Towards Violence Against Women Survey. Melbourne: Victorian Health Promotion Foundation.

Victorian Equal Opportunity & Human Rights Commission (2013). Guideline: Transgender People at Work. Complying with the Equal Opportunity Act 2010 in Employment. Melbourne: Victorian Equal Opportunity & Human Rights Commission.

Waltermaurer, E (2012). Public justification of intimate partner violence: A review of the literature. Trauma, Violence & Abuse, vol. 13, No. 3, pp. 167–175.

Weaver, HN (2008). The colonial context of violence: Reflections on violence in the lives of Native American women. Journal of Interpersonal Violence, vol. 24, pp. 1552–1563.

Webster, K, Pennay, P, Bricknall, R, Diemer, K, Flood, M, Powell, A, Politoff, V and Ward, A (2014). Australians' Attitudes to Violence Against Women: Full Technical Report. Findings from the 2013 National Community Attitudes Towards Violence Against Women Survey (NCAS). Melbourne: Victorian Health Promotion Foundation.

WHO (2005). Addressing Violence Against Women and Achieving the Millennium Development Goals. Geneva: World Health Organization.

WHO (2006). Preventing Child Maltreatment. A Guide to Taking Action and Generating Evidence. Geneva: World Health Organization.

WHO (2010). Violence Prevention: The Evidence. Geneva: World Health Organization.

WHO (2013a). Global and Regional Estimates of Violence Against Women: Prevalence and Health Effects of Intimate Partner Violence and Non-Partner Sexual Violence. Geneva: World Health Organization.

WHO (2013b). 16 ideas for addressing violence against women in the context of the HIV epidemic – a programming tool. Available from http://www.who.int/reproductivehealth/publications/violence/vaw_hiv_epidemic/en/. Accessed 20 July 2015.

WHO (2014). Global Status Report on Violence Prevention 2014. Geneva: World Health Organization.

Wright, EM (2012). The relationship between social support and intimate partner violence in neighborhood context, Crime & Delinquency, November 29.

Xie, M, Heimer, K and Lauritsen, JL (2012). Violence against women in US metropolitan areas: Changes in women's status and risk, 1980–2004. Criminology, vol. 50, No. 1, pp. 105–143.

Zannettino, L (2012). "…. There is no war here; it is only the relationship that makes us scared": Factors having an impact on domestic violence in the Liberian Refugee Communities in South Australia. Violence Against Women, vol. 18, no. 7, pp. 807–828.

Appendix 1:
Sources on which the framework is based

Arango, DJ, Morton, M, Gennari, F, Kiplesund, S and Ellsberg, M (2014). Interventions to Prevent or Reduce Violence Against Women and Girls: A Systematic Review of Reviews. Women's Voice and Agency Research Series, 2014, No 10. Washington, DC: The World Bank.

DeGue, S, Valle LA, Holt, MK, Massetti, GM, Matjasko, Jl and Tharp, AT (2014). A systematic review of primary prevention strategies for sexual violence perpetration. Aggression and Violent Behavior, vol. 19, pp. 346-362.

Ellsberg, M, Arango, DJ, Morton, M, Gennari, F, Kiplesund, S, Contreras and Watts, C (2014). Prevention of violence against women and girls: What does the evidence say? The Lancet. Available from http://www.thelancet.com/journals/lancet/article/PIIS0140-6736(14)61703-7/fulltext. Accessed 25 January 2015.

European Commission (2010). Factors at play in the perpetration of violence against women, violence against children and sexual orientation violence: A multi-level interactive model. Available from http://ec.europa.eu/justice/funding/daphne3/multi-level_interactive_model/understanding_perpetration_start_uinix.html. Accessed 10 June 2015.

Fulu, E, Kerr-Wilson, A and Lang, J (2013). Effectiveness of Interventions to Prevent Violence Against Women and Girls: A Summary of the Evidence. Available from https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/337617/effectiveness-interventions-summary-evidence-G.pdf. Accessed 10 June 2015.

Fulu, E, Warner, Kerr-Wilson, A and Lang, J (2014). What works to prevent violence against women and girls? Evidence review of interventions to prevent violence against women and girls. Pretoria: Medical Research Council. Available from http://r4d.dfid.gov.uk/pdf/outputs/VAW/What_Works_Inception_Report_June_2014_AnnexF_WG23_paper_prevention_interventions.pdf. Accessed 10 June 2015.

Fulu, E, Warner, X, Miedema, S, Jewkes, R, Roselli, T and Lang, J (2013). Why Do Some Men Use Violence Against Women and How Can We Prevent It? Quantitative Findings from the United Nations Multi-Country Study on Men and Violence in Asia and the Pacific. Bangkok: UNDP, UNFPA, UN Women and UNV.

Garcia-Moreno, C, Jansen, H, Ellsberg, M, Heise, L, Watts, C (2005). WHO Multi-Country study on women's health and domestic violence against women. Geneva: World Health Organization. Available from http://www.unece.org/fileadmin/DAM/stats/gender/vaw/surveys/Serbia%20%26%20Montenegro/WHO%20VAW%20multiple%20country.pdf. Accessed 18 August 2015.

García-Moreno, C, Zimmerman, C, Morris-Gehring, A, Heise, L, Amin, A, Abrahams, N, Montoya, O, Bhate-Deosthali, P, Kilonzo, N and Watts, C (2014). Addressing violence against women: A call to action. The Lancet. Available from http://www.thelancet.com/journals/lancet/article/PIIS0140-6736(14)61830-4/fulltext. Accessed 25 January 2015.

Heise, L (2011). What works to prevent partner violence – an evidence overview. London: STRIVE. Available from http://strive.lshtm.ac.uk/resources/what-works-prevent-partner-violence-evidence-overview. Accessed 10 June 2015.

Jewkes, R, Flood, M and Long, J (2014). From work with men and boys to changes of social norms and reduction of inequities in gender relations: A conceptual shift in prevention of violence against women and girls. The Lancet. Available from http://www.thelancet.com/journals/lancet/article/PIIS0140-6736(14)61683-4/fulltext. Accessed 25 January 2015.

Krug, EG, Dahlberg, LL, Mercy, JA, Ziwi, AB and Lozano, R, eds. (2002). World Report on Violence and Health. Geneva: World Health Organization.

Lundgren, R and Amin, A (2015). Addressing intimate partner violence and sexual violence among adolescents: Emerging evidence of effectiveness. Journal of Adolescent Health, vol. 56, pp. 542–550.

Michau, L, Horn, J, Bank, A, Dutt, M and Zimmerman, C (2014). Prevention of violence against women and girls: Lessons from practice. The Lancet. Available from http://www.thelancet.com/journals/lancet/article/PIIS0140-6736(14)61797-9/fulltext. Accessed 25 January 2015.

Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (2011). Good practices in efforts aimed at preventing violence against women, Report of the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights, A/HRC/17/23. Available from http://ap.ohchr.org/documents/dpage_e.aspx?si=A/HRC/17/23. Accessed 10 June 2015.

Sexual Violence Research Initiative (2014). A summary of the evidence and research agenda for what works: A global programme to prevent violence against women and girls. Pretoria: Medical Research Centre.

United Nations (2006). Ending Violence Against Women and Children: From Words to Action, Study of the Secretary-General. Geneva: United Nations.

United Nations [General Assembly] (2012a). Report of the special rapporteur on Violence against Women, its causes and consequences, Report on Violence Against Women with disabilities, General Assembly, Sixty-Seventh session, August 2012. Available from http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/documents/ga66/RAPPORT_on_VAW.PDF. Accessed 6 January 2014.

United Nations [General Assembly] (2012b). Thematic study on the issue of violence against women and girls and disability, Report of the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights, Human Rights Council, Twentieth session, March 2012. Available from http://www.ohchr.org/Documents/Issues/Disability/ThematicStudyViolenceAgainstWomenGirls.pdf. Accessed 6 January 2014.

United Nations [General Assembly] (2015). Discrimination and violence against individuals based on their sexual orientation and gender identity, Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights, Human Rights Council, Twenty ninth session, May 2015. Available from www.un.org/en/ga/search/view_doc.asp?symbol=A/HRC/29/23. Accessed 10 June 2015.

United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women (UN Women), the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA), the International Labour Organisation (ILO) and the Office of the Special Representative of the Secretary-General on Violence against Children (OSRSG/VAC) (2013). Breaking the silence on violence against indigenous girls, adolescents and young women: A call to action based on an overview of existing evidence from Africa, Asia Pacific and Latin America. Available from http://www.unfpa.org/webdav/site/global/shared/documents/publications/2013/VAIWG_FINAL.pdf. Accessed 6 February 2014.

VicHealth (2007). Preventing Violence Before it Occurs: A Framework and Background Paper to Guide the Primary Prevention of Violence Against Women in Victoria. Melbourne: Victorian Health Promotion Foundation.

What Works to Prevent Violence (2014). Effectiveness of Interventions to Prevent Violence Against Women and Girls: A Summary of the Evidence. Available from http://www.svri.org/WhatWorksEvidenceSummary.pdf. Accessed 10 June 2015.

What Works to Prevent Violence (2014). A Summary of the Evidence and Research Agenda for What Works: A Global Programme to Prevent Violence against Women and Girls. Available from http://www.svri.org/WhatWorksEvidenceSummary.pdf

World Health Organization (2010). Preventing Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Against Women: Taking Action and Generating Evidence. Geneva: World Health Organization.

World Health Organization and London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine, South African Medical Research Council (2013). Global and Regional Estimates of Violence Against Women: Prevalence and Health Effects of Intimate Partner Violence and Non-Partner Sexual Violence. Geneva: World Health Organization.

Appendix 2:

Key resources for working with particular population groups to prevent violence against women

Girls	Together for Girls (2011). T*ogether for Girls We Can End Sexual Violence.* http://www.togetherforgirls.org/wp-content/uploads/Together-for-Girls-Technical-Framework.pdf UNICEF (2104). *Ending Violence Against Children. Six Strategies For Action*. http://www.unicef.org/publications/index_74866.html Report of the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (2015). *Good Practices and Major Challenges in Preventing and Eliminating Female Genital Mutilation*. http://www.ohchr.org/EN/Issues/Women/WRGS/Pages/Documentation.aspx Report of the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (2014). *Preventing and Eliminating Child, Early and Forced Marriage*. http://ap.ohchr.org/documents/dpage_e.aspx?si=A/HRC/26/22
Indigenous women	United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women (UN Women), the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA), the International Labour Organisation (ILO) and the Office of the Special Representative of the Secretary-General on Violence against Children (OSRSG/VAC) (2013). *Breaking the Silence on Violence Against Indigenous Girls, Adolescents and Young Women: A Call to Action Based on an Overview of Existing Evidence from Africa, Asia Pacific and Latin America*. http://www.unfpa.org/webdav/site/global/shared/documents/publications/2013/VAIWG_FINAL.pdf Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (2013). *Guidance Note of the Secretary-General on Racial Discrimination and Protection of Minorities*. http://www.ohchr.org/Documents/Issues/Minorities/GuidanceNoteRacialDiscriminationMinorities.pdf
Women with disabilities	Van der Heijden, I (n.d.). *What Works to Prevent Violence Against Women with Disabilities?* https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/337954/Interventions-abuse-against-WWD-W.pdf Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (2012). *Thematic Study on the Issue of Violence Against Women and Girls and Disability.* http://www2.ohchr.org/english/issues/women/docs/A.HRC.20.5.pdf
Conflict situations/ fragile states	Ward, J and UN Women (2013). *Violence Against Women in Conflict, Post Conflict and Emergency Settings*. http://endvawnow.org/en/modules/view/4-conflict-post-conflict.html Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (2014). *Guidance Note of the Secretary-General Reparations for Conflict-Related Sexual Violence*. http://www.ohchr.org/Documents/Press/GuidanceNoteReparationsJune-2014.pdf Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (2014). *Analytical Study Focusing on Gender-Based and Sexual Violence in Relation to Transitional Justice*. http://www.ohchr.org/EN/Issues/Women/WRGS/Pages/Documentation.aspx
Lesbian, bisexual, transgender and intersex women	Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (2014). *The Role of the United Nations in Combatting Discrimination and Violence against Individuals Based on Sexual Orientation and Gender Identity*. http://www.ohchr.org/EN/Issues/Discrimination/Pages/LGBTUNSystem.aspx Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (2015), *High Commissioner's Report to the Human Rights Council on Discrimination and Violence Against Individuals Based on their Sexual Orientation and Gender Identity.* http://www.ohchr.org/EN/Issues/Discrimination/Pages/LGBT.aspx UNICEF (2014). Position Paper No. 9: Eliminating Discrimination Against Children and Parents Based on Sexual Orientation and/or Gender Identity. http://uni.cf/1wjvfad

Appendix 3:

Key human rights instruments and documents relating to the prevention of violence against women and girls

International and regional legal and policy instruments developed to support prevention of VAW	Year
International treaties	
Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention (No. 111)	1958
The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) Article 5(a) on addressing gender stereotypes, prejudices and customary practices (article 5(a))	1979
Convention on the Rights of the Child	1989
Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child, on the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography	2000
Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities	2006
Regional treaties	
The Inter-American Convention on the Prevention, Punishment and Eradication of Violence Against Women ("Convention of Belem do Para")	1994
The African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child	1999
Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa ("The Maputo Protocol")	2003
The Council of Europe Convention on the Protection of Children against Sexual Exploitation and Sexual Abuse ("the Lanzarote Convention")	2007
The Council of Europe Convention on preventing and combating violence against women and domestic violence ("Istanbul Convention")	2011
International policy instruments	
Programme of Action of the International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD)	1994
Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action providing guidance on strategic objectives and actions for the prevention of violence against women and girls, including awareness-raising and information campaigns, educational programmes, community mobilization and promotion of the role of the media.	1995
Declaration on the Elimination of Violence Against Women in the ASEAN Region	2004
Selected General Assembly and Human Rights Council resolutions	
Declaration on the Elimination of Violence Against Women, General Assembly resolution 48/104	1993
General Assembly resolutions on the intensification of efforts to eliminate all forms of violence against women, including 63/155 (2008), 64/137 (2009), 65/187 (2010), 67/144 (2012), 69/147 (2014)	2008 2009 2010 2012 2014
Human Rights Council resolution on accelerating efforts to eliminate all forms of violence against women: ensuring due diligence in prevention (A/HRC/14/12)	2010
Agreed conclusions of the Commission on the Status of Women	
Elimination and prevention of all forms of violence against women and girls which place a strong focus on prevention	2013
United Nations Treaty Bodies	
Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women, general recommendation No. 19: Violence against women, which recognizes that gender-based violence is a form of discrimination against women within the meaning of article 1 of the CEDAW Convention and observes that States have an obligation to act with 'due diligence' to prevent and respond to violence against women and girls	1992
Committee on the Rights of the Child, General Comment No. 13: The right of the child to freedom from all forms of violence	2011

Prevention cannot be a short-term effort, but rather an endeavour that requires ongoing commitment from governments and other stakeholders, increased research to inform and monitor progress, and persistent action that addresses violence against women at its source.

The framework contained in this document draws together contemporary knowledge and practice in violence prevention. Its focus is on addressing the root causes as well as risk and protective factors associated with violence against women.