

GUIDANCE NOTE

Gender-Based Violence and Livelihood Interventions:

Focus on populations of humanitarian concern in the context of HIV



GUIDANCE NOTE

Global issues such as deepening poverty, food insecurity and HIV and AIDS cannot be fully addressed without full and active participation of affected populations and communities, and in particular, women. This is particularly the case in the context of humanitarian crises. Although much work still needs to be done to assess the impacts of Gender-Based Violence (GBV) on agriculture and rural livelihoods, the available literature and findings indicate that the burden of violence, notably in the humanitarian and HIV and AIDS context, falls on women, affecting their health, confidence and self-esteem as well as their capacity to provide for themselves.

Therefore, GBV is not only a violation of fundamental human rights, but also an obstacle to *"the social and economic development of communities and States, as well as to the achievement of the internationally agreed development goals, including the Millennium Development Goals."*¹ The agricultural sector has an important role in preventing GBV and mitigating its impact.

This Guidance Note provides an overview of the complex interactions between GBV, HIV and AIDS and rural livelihoods, based on the available literature and findings from FAO field studies in Kenya and Uganda. The studies, conducted in humanitarian settings, focused mainly on the relationships between these issues, and on identifying the appropriate livelihood strategies to mitigate and prevent GBV, and strengthen people's resilience.

It also gives information on how to make livelihood interventions in the agricultural sector relevant to the realities of GBV and commercial sex, and thus enhance the effectiveness of the programmatic response to both food and livelihoods insecurity and GBV, in the context of humanitarian crises and HIV.

¹ UNGA Resolution on Intensification of efforts to eliminate all forms of violence against women, doc. A/RES/61/143, of 30 January 2007.

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Acronyms

AIDS	- Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
CSO	- Civil Society Organization
FAO	- Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
FFS	- Farmer Field School
FLS	- Farmer Life School
FFLS	- Farmer Field and Life School Approach
GBV	- Gender-Based Violence
HIV	- Human Immunodeficiency Virus
IASC	- Inter-Agency Standing Committee
IDP	- Internally Displaced Persons
JFFLS	- Junior Farmer Field and Life School
NGO	- Non-Governmental Organization
OVC	- Orphaned and Vulnerable Children
PHC	- Populations of Humanitarian Concern
SEAGA	- Socio-Economic and Gender Analysis
UNAIDS	- Joint United Nations Programme for HIV/AIDS
UNFPA	- United Nations Population Fund
UNHCR	- United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
WFP	- World Food Programme
WHO	- World Health Organization

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INTRODUCTION AND PURPOSE

Introduction

Gender-based violence (GBV), along with poverty and HIV and AIDS, remains among the most pervasive problems confronting women across the globe, with adverse consequences for almost all sectoral areas including agriculture and labour.

GBV takes many forms – physical, sexual, emotional and psychological, and socio-economic. Harmful traditional practices are also considered a form of GBV.² It is deeply rooted in unequal power relations and individual attitudes that condone violence within the family, the community and the State.³ As societies change, patterns of violence alter and new forms emerge.

GBV is even more severe and widespread during a humanitarian crises, where state and community social structures are disrupted and agriculture fails to ensure food and livelihood security of populations. Such circumstances may lead individuals to engage in sexual behaviors (e.g. sex work for food rations, safe passage and access to basic goods) that can expose them to higher risk of HIV infection. Orphaned and vulnerable children (OVCs) especially girls, and demobilized or rescued child soldiers are an especially affected group within populations of humanitarian concern, due to their lack of sources of livelihoods, knowledge and skills, and thus their dependence on others.

There has recently been increased attention to the relationship between GBV, HIV and livelihoods. Gender inequality, limited access and control over land, water and other productive resources, lack of access to education and health services, food insecurity, conflict and displacement continue to fuel the vicious cycle of both GBV and HIV. GBV and food insecurity also contribute directly and indirectly to people's vulnerability to HIV and their ability to cope with the infection.

There are indications that as rates of HIV in a community rise, GBV increases as well. In sub-Saharan Africa, the growing number of children orphaned by AIDS is at risk of sexual exploitation. "AIDS widows and orphans" often lose their land and property after the death of their husbands or fathers (or both parents),⁴ which increases their vulnerability and may trigger further discrimination and violence.

By affecting mostly the productive population groups (age 15 to 45), GBV has a devastating impact on the agriculture sector and food security: illness (including HIV) or injuries as a result of violence reduce work capacity, productivity and livelihood assets. Many victims and survivors of GBV are stigmatized and excluded from community and social activities, and deprived of support. Risky coping strategies such as commercial sex, employed by those facing food and livelihood insecurity and humanitarian crises, often lead to further erosion of the livelihood asset base, and further vulnerability to GBV and HIV transmission.

This situation calls for a recognition that, first, food and livelihood insecurity, including in humanitarian settings, can only be properly understood and addressed if GBV is factored into the analysis; and second, that livelihood interventions are necessary to confront underlying causes and factors related to poverty, economic inequalities and control over resources which contribute to GBV.

In addition, since conflicts and humanitarian crises damage livelihoods and fuel violence, helping to restore access to productive resources and self-sustenance can also contribute to building a foundation for peace and reconciliation.

² UNHCR, 2003. *Sexual and Gender-Based Violence against Refugees, Returnees and Internally Displaced Persons – Guidelines for Prevention and Response* (available at: http://www.rhrc.org/pdf/qj_sqbv03.pdf); UNGA, 2006. *In-depth study on all forms of violence against women*, Report of the Secretary-General, UN doc. A/61/122/Add.1 of 6 July 2006.

³ *Ibidem*.

⁴ WFP, 2007. *Intersections of Sexual and Gender Based Violence and HIV/AIDS: Case Studies in the DRC, Liberia, Uganda and Colombia*, by A. Michels, WFP, Rome. p.18-19; UN. 2005. Report of the Special Rapporteur on Violence against Women, its causes and consequences Yakin Erturk, *Integration of the human rights of women and the gender perspective: violence against women. Intersections of violence against women and HIV/AIDS*, UN doc E/CN.4/2005/72, p. 9.

Purpose of this Guidance Note

In recent years, as a result of gender mainstreaming into all areas of the UN's work, more policies and programmes seek to take into account the various impacts of their activities on women and men. The range of entities engaged in programmes to eliminate GBV has grown. Strategies to stop GBV can draw on the variety of documents and guidelines on GBV that has been developed by the specialized agencies and other bodies of the UN.⁵ However, gaps and challenges persist, and efforts are needed to achieve a more comprehensive and coordinated system-wide response to GBV, in particular with respect to linkages with livelihoods. At the same time, there is increasing recognition that food and livelihood interventions – particularly when targeting women – can inadvertently put them at risk of violence.⁶

This Guidance Note seeks to contribute to the small body of literature on intersections between GBV, HIV and rural livelihoods in humanitarian settings, and the role of livelihood interventions.

Under the UN System-wide work programme on "Scaling up HIV/AIDS Services for Populations of Humanitarian Concern", FAO has supported two studies to explore the relationships between and assess the impact of GBV and HIV on agriculture, food security and rural livelihoods. Two studies were undertaken in Bussia District, Western Kenya, and in Apac and Gulu Districts, Northern Uganda. These sites were selected because of the presence of various categories of populations of humanitarian concern, and high HIV prevalence. The two studies also attempted to identify the appropriate livelihood strategies to mitigate and prevent GBV, and reduce the vulnerability of women and men.

Based on the available literature on the subject and the findings of the two FAO case studies, this Guidance Note aims to:

- contribute to better understand how food insecurity and rural livelihoods influence and shape the level and forms of GBV in the rural context;
- contribute to better understand how various forms of GBV directly and indirectly affect the agriculture sector and livelihood security; and
- provide information and guidance on how to make livelihood interventions relevant to the realities of GBV and commercial sex, and thus enhance the effectiveness of the programmatic response to both food and livelihood insecurity and GBV.

Chapter 1 provides a brief definition of key concepts and sets the context of GBV among populations of humanitarian concern in areas with high HIV prevalence.

Chapter 2 gives an overview of the main causes and factors linked to agriculture contributing to GBV and risky coping strategies, focusing on the socio-economic dimension.

Chapter 3 briefly outlines the main consequences of GBV and explores in some detail their impacts on rural livelihoods.

Chapter 4 sets out a number of principles and approaches to guide the planning, implementation and monitoring livelihood interventions in the context of GBV, and gives some examples of livelihood interventions in agriculture.

The analysis provided in the document is supported by anecdotal evidence gathered in Uganda and Kenya, highlighted in the boxes.

The Guidance Note is intended for use by UN agencies, government agencies, extension services, non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and civil society organizations operating in humanitarian settings and in the context of GBV and HIV and AIDS at local and national levels.

⁵ These include e.g. IASC, 2005. *Guidelines for Gender-based Violence Interventions in Humanitarian Settings; Focusing on Prevention of and Response to Sexual Violence in Emergencies*; UNHCR, 2003; UNSG, 2003. UN Secretary General's Bulletin on special measures for protection from sexual exploitation and sexual abuse; WFP, 2003. Executive Director's circulars on implementation of the Secretary General's Bulletin on special measures for protection from sexual exploitation and sexual abuse, ST/SGB/2003/13; WHO, 2003. *Guidelines for medico-legal care for victims of sexual violence*. (http://www.who.int/violence_injury_prevention/publications/violence/med_leg_guidelines/en/).

⁶ WFP, 2007. p.7.

1. KEY CONCEPTS AND TERMS

1.1. Humanitarian crises and populations of humanitarian concern

Armed conflicts, epidemics, famine, natural disasters and other major emergencies may all involve or lead to a humanitarian crisis.⁷ An ongoing or lingering pandemic may amount to a humanitarian crisis, especially where there are increasing levels of virulence or rates of infection, as in the case of AIDS or bird flu.

Within the United Nations System-wide work programme, *populations of humanitarian concern* (PHC) include very diverse and overlapping categories:

- refugees – 16 million;
- internally displaced persons (IDPs) – 25 million;
- demobilizing and demobilized ex-combatants and their families – 5 million;
- other conflict- and disaster-affected groups, including returnees and those in transition to recovery – 25 million;
- rape survivors and females at high risk of sexual violence in crisis settings – 5 million; and
- people in extraordinary crisis due to the special circumstances of the “triple threat” (high HIV rates, deepening food insecurity and poverty, and failing governance and service delivery institutions) – 120 million, or an estimated 50 percent of the population of the ten countries in Southern Africa.⁸

Humanitarian settings are characterized by the breakdown of social structures, the exertion of political power and control over other communities, ethnic differences and socio-economic discrimination. Such characteristics are among major threats to men’s and women’s livelihoods.

1.2. Livelihoods approach

At its basis, a livelihoods approach is one that takes as its starting point the actual livelihood strategies of people; it looks at where people are, what they have and what their needs and interests are.⁹ In order to fully understand the livelihood of individuals and groups, their vulnerability context and livelihood assets should be determined.

Vulnerability context refers to the external environment in which people live. It includes unpredictable events that can undermine livelihoods and cause households to fall into poverty. Conflicts, forced evictions and displacement, idiosyncratic shocks such as illness, including HIV, or health consequences due to GBV, loss or theft of land and productive resources, and the social and cultural institutions are all elements comprising the vulnerability context.

Livelihood assets refer to resources that people control or have access to and which serve as the basis of household livelihoods (human, social, natural, physical and financial assets). Knowing more about the assets of vulnerable individuals is central to identifying appropriate measures and strategies to improve their situation and reduce their vulnerability.

⁷ <http://www.humanitarianinfo.org/iasc/pageloader.aspx>

⁸ UN, 23 March 2006, Programme Document for a United Nations System-wide Work Programme On Scaling-up HIV/AIDS Services for Populations of Humanitarian Concern – Annex 1 (available at: <http://www.sd.undp.org/doc/prodocs/HIV%20AIDS%20Programme%20for%20Persons%20of%20Humanitarian%20Concern.pdf>)

⁹ Chambers, R. and Conway, G., 1992. *Sustainable rural livelihoods: practical concepts for the 21st century*, Institute of Development Studies, Brighton.

The livelihood assets

- *Human capital*: skills, knowledge, ability to work and good health and the amount and quality of labour available;
- *Social capital*: membership in community and other groups, relationships of trust, dynamics in the household and community;
- *Natural capital*: land, forests, marine/wild resources, water;
- *Physical capital*: livestock, shelter, tools, materials, basic infrastructure and producer goods;
- *Financial capital*: income from employment or self-employment, credit, remittances from relatives abroad or in urban areas, or transfers from the state, liquid assets such as livestock and jewellery.

Source: DFID's sustainable livelihoods guidance sheets. 1999, www.livelihoods.org

Policies, institutions and processes determine access to or control over the assets and livelihood strategies people use to make a living. These include systems of governance (state / customary), civic, political and economic institutions and other social customs and rules (e.g. gender roles, land and property rights, religious rules) that are part of a given society; and processes which determine the way in which institutions and people operate and interact.¹⁰

Livelihood strategies are another important element of the livelihoods framework. In the rural context, these include activities such as crop and livestock production, fishing, hunting, gathering, bartering, and non-agricultural employment. In the context of humanitarian crises, livelihood strategies will often also include migration, and access to food assistance or food distribution programmes from governmental, non-governmental or international actors. They can also include "negative" livelihood strategies such as commercial sex for survival.

A livelihood is said to be sustainable if it can cope with and recover from stresses and shocks and maintain and enhance its capabilities and assets both now and in the future while not undermining the natural resource base – thus leading to positive livelihood outcomes (see Figure 1).

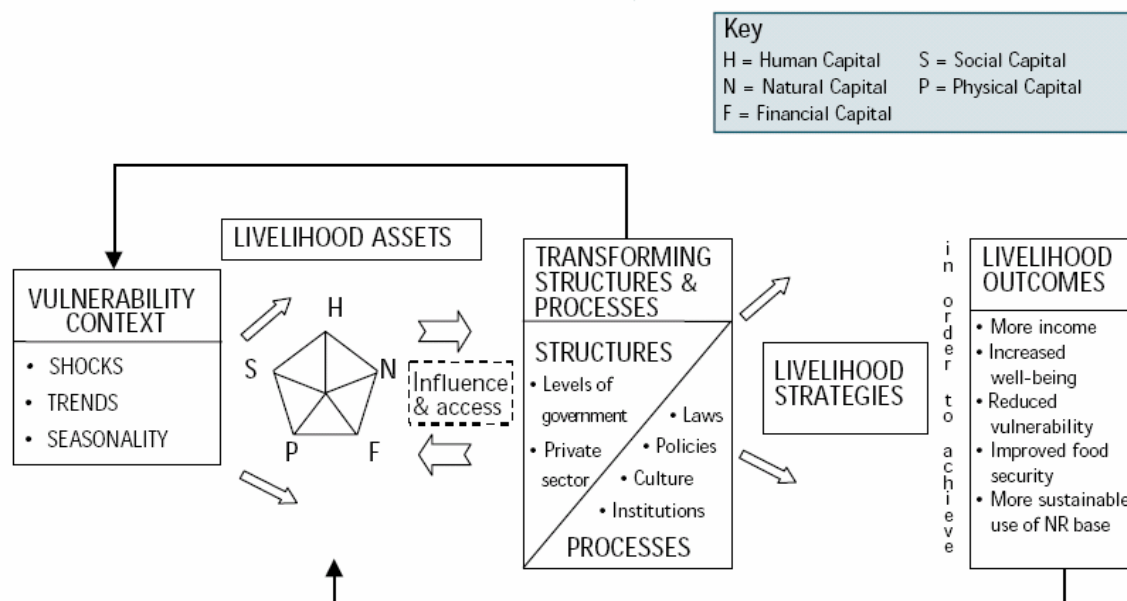


Figure 1. Sustainable livelihoods framework

¹⁰ Jaspars, S., O'Callaghan and Stites, E., 2007. *Linking Protection and Livelihoods. A preliminary analysis based on a review of the literature and agency practice*. Humanitarian Policy Group (HPG) Working Paper, HPG/ODI, p. 34-35; USAID, *Conflicts and livelihoods*, p. 3.

Interventions in support of positive livelihood strategies among PHC can strengthen women's and men's livelihood options, prevent dependency and reduce vulnerability, as well as enhance long-term self-reliance. The development of livelihood opportunities through, for example, agricultural production, small business and employment, can also have a positive impact on security in the refugee and IDP context or among populations in extraordinary crisis. It can help reduce frustration, strengthen dignity and self-respect and thus reduce levels of violence.

A livelihoods approach is also concerned with how livelihood programming is done and the objectives of doing it (see Box).

Livelihood principles

Livelihood principles refer to *how* livelihood programming is done, and the objectives of doing it. They are the following: *people-focused* (i.e. ensuring active involvement and participation of the concerned people); *multi-level and holistic* (i.e. recognize the existence of political, economic and social factors and the multiple actors at different levels that influence livelihoods); *dynamic* (i.e. livelihoods change over time so interventions must adapt and build on positive changes); and *sustainable* (i.e. promote resilience of livelihoods).

Source: DFID's sustainable livelihoods guidance sheets. 1999, www.livelihoods.org

1.3. Gender-Based Violence

GBV is an umbrella term for any harmful act that is perpetrated against a person's will and that is based on socially ascribed (gender) differences between males and females.¹¹

Sexual violence, GBV and violence against women are terms that are often used interchangeably. The present paper uses the term GBV, as it includes both sexual violence and other forms of violence against women, and highlights the centrality of the *gender* dimension of violence.

Gender

Gender refers to the social differences between males and females that are learned, and though deeply rooted in every culture, are changeable over time, and have wide variations both within and between cultures. "Gender" determines the roles, responsibilities, opportunities, privileges, expectations and limitations for males and for females in any culture.

Source: IASC, 2005

GBV occurs at an individual level, in a relationship and at household level, at community level and in the society. It perpetuates the stereotyping of gender roles that denies human dignity of the individual and hinders human development¹² by affecting human health, self-esteem and livelihoods. It is considered a violation of human rights protected by international human rights treaties.¹³

Although boys and men are increasingly affected by this form of violence, GBV is pervasive in the lives of girls and women at every stage of their life cycle. The violence is used in cultures around

¹¹ IASC, 2005.

¹² UNHCR, 2003, p. 7.

¹³ Such rights include the right to security of person; the right to the highest attainable standard of physical and mental health; the right to an adequate standard of living, including food., the right of freedom from torture or cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment, and the right to life (IASC, 2005, p. 1).

the world as a way to maintain women's subordinate status *vis a vis* men.¹⁴ At least one in three women globally has been physically or sexually abused at some time in her life.¹⁵



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In the humanitarian settings, children are increasingly vulnerable to violence due to their age and socio-economic dependence on others, and to difficulties in realizing their fundamental rights.

This is notably true for orphans and other vulnerable children and youth. Demobilized child soldiers, and children who have escaped or have been rescued during battles, are a specific category of persons highly vulnerable to violence, abuse and exploitation. This is because they often face exclusion, isolation and lack of any productive resources or means of survival.

Perpetrators of GBV are individuals, groups or institutions that directly inflict, support and condone violence or other abuse against a person or a group of people. Perpetrators are in a position of real or perceived power and can thus exert control over their victims.

Contrary to common belief, most acts of GBV are perpetrated by someone known to the victim, and many violent incidents are planned.¹⁶

Perpetrators can be intimate partners (husbands, boyfriends), family members, close relatives, caregivers and friends; influential community members (teachers, religious figures, leaders, politicians, employers, supervisors and colleagues); security forces and soldiers, including peacekeepers; humanitarian aid workers; and institutions and states.¹⁷

GBV takes *many forms* – physical, sexual, emotional and psychological, socio-economic and harmful traditional practices.¹⁸ Naming and recognizing forms and manifestations of GBV is an important step towards addressing them.

The nature and extent of specific forms of GBV vary across cultures, countries and regions. GBV may take different forms depending on the type and the stage of the humanitarian crisis (pre-, post- conflict, reconstruction and integration). As societies change, patterns of violence alter and new forms emerge. For example, until recently, socio-economic violence has not received much attention at the international level. Yet, in the context of agriculture and rural livelihoods, this form of violence has devastating impacts. The table below summarizes the main forms of GBV; the paragraphs following the table describe in some detail property grabbing as an emerging form of socio-economic violence.

¹⁴ UN. 2004. Report of the Special Reporter on violence against women, its causes and consequences, Yakin Erturk, *Integration of the human rights of women and the gender perspective: violence against women. Towards an effective implementation of international norms to end violence against women*, doc E/CN.4/2004/66. p.12.

¹⁵ UNGA, 2006.

¹⁶ UNHCR, 2003.

¹⁷ IASC, 2005.

¹⁸ UNHCR, 2003; UNGA, 2006.

Table 1. The main forms of GBV

Physical violence	<p>Selling and/or trading in human beings for sexual exploitation, forced labour or services, slavery, servitude or similar.</p> <p>With regard to <i>children</i>, this type of violence refers to all forms of slavery, use of child soldiers, trafficking of children, commercial sexual exploitation, and the use of children in illicit activities as well as hazardous child labour.¹⁹</p>
Sexual violence	<p>Rape and marital rape, defilement, sexual harassment, forced prostitution or exploitation, and child sexual abuse. It is often used systematically and methodically as a <i>weapon of war</i> for purposes of destabilizing populations and destroying community and family bonds. It also often occurs during civilian flight from conflict and among IDPs perpetrated by rebels, bandits, military, host communities, humanitarian aid workers, and fellow refugees.</p> <p>Young girls may be forced to exchange sex for life necessities such as food, sanitary towels, clothes and or money to support themselves (i.e. commercial sex).</p>
Violence related to harmful traditional practices	<p>Female genital mutilation, forced marriage and early marriages, infanticide and/or neglect, and denial of education for girls or women.</p>
Emotional and psychological violence	<p>Isolating a person from friends/family or restricting movements, thus causing increased dependence and fear.</p>
Socio-economic violence	<p>Acts of exclusion, denial of economic and social benefits and opportunities. It also includes limiting access to employment opportunities, access to and control over land and productive resources, access to services and social benefits, or precluding persons from exercising and enjoying their fundamental rights.²⁰</p>

Property grabbing: a recent manifestation of socio-economic gender-based violence

“Property grabbing” refers to a situation whereby a person when widowed or separated, loses land, a house or shelter and other belongings, and thus also the main source of livelihood and welfare. It is increasingly recognized as a new form of gendered violence, threatening the security of women and orphaned children in many countries²¹.

Dispossession of land and property may in some instances be followed by physical, emotional and other forms of violence²² and abuses. Even when it is not, it does increase women’s and children’s vulnerability to other forms of GBV, including physical and mental harassment and abuse, forced labour and sexual exploitation. In some cases, it can lead them to engage in harmful coping

¹⁹ ILO Convention no. 182. “Hazardous activities” refer to work which is likely to pose a risk to a child’s health and or psychological development and should hence not be undertaken before the age of 18. The category of “hazardous activities” is particularly relevant in agriculture, because of certain activities which may be hazardous in nature.

²⁰ UNHCR, 2003, p. 18.

²¹ Izumi, K., 2007. Gender-based violence and property grabbing in Africa: denial of women’s liberty and security. in *Gender & Development*, Vol. 15, Issue 1, March, pp.11-20; UN, 2005, p. 9.

²² Izumi, K. (ed.), 2006. *The land and property rights of women and orphans in the context of HIV and AIDS. Case studies from Zimbabwe*, FAO and The Global Coalition on Women and AIDS, Rome, pp. 28-29.

strategies such as commercial sex for subsistence survival, which exposes them to high risk of HIV infection.

Property grabbing is increasingly present among *populations in extraordinary crisis* due to high prevalence of HIV and deepening poverty. In the pre-HIV and AIDS situation, the death of a husband occurred when children were already grown up and were able to inherit. Widows were cared for by their children or “inherited” and cared for by the extended family. In the current HIV context, however, the death of a husband occurs much earlier, leaving a young widow and under-age children. Extended family systems have been gradually weakened, and people are afraid of social stigma and discrimination associated with contact with AIDS-affected households. Children fail to inherit and widows lose the land and other assets. In many cases, members of the extended family who should take care of the widow and her children – motivated by poverty and other reasons – are using the property to meet their own needs or those of members within their nuclear families. As customary safeguards do not come into play, women have to return to their family house and/or remarry.²³ Cases of widows and orphans struggling over land are rampant in Kenya and Northern Uganda.

Taking of land and property is also an issue for IDPs and refugee returnees. Some of the common problems these categories of PHC face include taking of land and property by neighbours and early returnees; illegal occupation by army officers or private investors; and location of IDP camps on family lands. Here too, women and orphans are the most affected. Fear of violence also discourages many widows or orphaned children from reclaiming their spouse’s or parents’ lands and/or to return to original homes.

Experience of women in Bobi IDP camp and Lela-Obaro (Gulu district), Northern Uganda

“When I returned to our original village, I was physically assaulted by sons of my co wife when we were arguing over land that belonged to my late husband. My arm was broken and I have no sons to help me fight back for the land. Even the elders seem to agree with my co wife because she has sons!”²⁴

“We have several cases of widows who returned to this village and were denied access to land originally belonging to their husbands. One particular widow was chased by her in-laws and told to return to her father’s land since they no longer had anything to do with her.” (community leader of Lela-Obaro)

Source: FAO field assessment, 2008

1.4. Commercial sex

Commercial sex²⁵ is a particular kind of exchange relationship in which men and women exchange material benefits and sex.²⁶ According to a recent study in Botswana and Swaziland, for women in sub-Saharan Africa, insufficient food for their daily needs is strongly linked to multiple (often interdependent) risky sexual practices – sex exchange and inconsistent condom use – which results in the increase in HIV transmission.²⁷ In the context of humanitarian crises, commercial sex linked to subsistence is a common livelihood strategy among households that are unable to meet their basic needs.²⁸

²³ Fieldwork in Mozambique by Sonia Seuane, FAO Project at the Legal and Judicial Training Centre, with UNAIDS and UNFPA support, cited in presentation by Christopher Tanner, FAO, in Carpano, F., Izumi, K. and Mathieson, K., 2008, *Gender, Property Rights and Livelihoods in the Era of AIDS – Proceeding Report of FAO Technical Consultation*, 28-30 November 2007, Rome, Italy. FAO, 2008, <http://ext-ftp.fao.org/ES/data/ESW/HIVAIDS/FinalConsultationReport.pdf>

²⁴ Respondent, Bobi IDP camp, September 2008.

²⁵ UNAIDS. 2008. Terminology Guidelines.

²⁶ Swidler, A. and Watkins, S. C., December 2006, *Ties of Dependence: AIDS and Transactional Sex in Rural Malawi*. <http://repositories.cdlib.org/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1152&context=ccpr>

²⁷ Weiser, S.D., Leiter, K., Bangsberg, D.R., Butler, L.M., Percy-de Korte, F., Hlanze, Z., Phaladze, N., Iacopino, V., Heisler, M., 2009. *Food insufficiency is associated with high-risk sexual behaviour among women in Botswana and Swaziland*, available at: www.plosmedicine.org/article/info:doi/10.1371/journal.pmed.0040260

²⁸ FAO. Unpublished. Findings from the assessment study undertaken in Uganda. USAID. Livelihoods and conflicts.

In certain circumstances, commercial sex linked to survival (i.e. in exchange for food or money for basic needs) can be considered a form of GBV; this may be the case of young girls who may be lured into early and short-term sexual relations by older men in exchange for food, money or school fees²⁹ as well as in the case of orphan girls who are given away by relatives or guardians with the expectation that they will provide a means of living for the family. This Guidance Note uses the term “commercial sex” only as related to survival needs.

1.5. GBV CAUSES AND CONTRIBUTING FACTORS LINKED TO AGRICULTURE

The abuses of power and gender inequality are the *underlying causes* of GBV. Violence, exploitation and abuse occur when the disparity of power is misused to the detriment of those people who cannot negotiate or make decisions on an equal basis. Lack of education, information and access to services, economic inequalities and control over resources, as well as inappropriate or inexistent policies, laws and institutions are *factors that contribute* to people’s vulnerability to GBV. In practice however, various causes and contributing factors of GBV often converge. War and conflicts further influence the causes and factors that fuel GBV.

The sections that follow briefly outline the main causes and contributing factors of GBV, with a focus on those linked to rural livelihoods and agriculture; most are common for all categories of PHC (see above, Section 1.1).



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2.1. Power relationships and discriminatory cultural norms

The type and extent of GBV amongst PHC reflect the attitudes, beliefs and practices of their own society/culture, and often increase in a situation of humanitarian concern. While some cultural norms and practices do empower and protect women’s human rights, traditions, customs and religious values are often used to justify or even encourage violence against women. To a large extent, the same holds true with respect to children. The use of violence against children is often perceived to be “for their own good”. Patriarchy may be intertwined with other systems of subordination and exclusion and its expressions influenced by factors such as economic status, ethnicity, class, age, religion and security context (i.e. conflicts, displacement, and migration).³⁰

Demobilizing and demobilized ex-combatants, demobilized or rescued child soldiers and other conflict and disaster-affected groups are particularly vulnerable to abuse from those in position of power, due to lack of livelihood sources, age and dependence on others.

²⁹ See for example, UN, 2005, paragraph 37.

³⁰ UNGA, 2006, p. 28.

In the *refugee and IDP context*, the loss of the traditional male role (protector and provider) undermines the traditional family and community power base. This can result in an increase in tensions and violence.

2.2. HIV and AIDS

In the rural context, living with HIV can constitute a risk factor for GBV, with many people reporting experiences of violence following disclosure of HIV status, or even following admission that HIV testing has been sought.³¹

In some parts of Africa there is a widespread belief that sex with a virgin can cure a man from HIV. According to UNICEF, this so-called 'sexual cleansing' is practised in extended families in parts of Western Kenya, Zimbabwe and parts of Ghana, with girls as young as eight years of age being selected, to ensure their virginity and that they are not infected.³²

2.3. Lack of education and information

Lack of access to education, information and services increases the vulnerability of people to various forms of violence. Uneducated or illiterate people are less likely to have information about GBV, about available social benefits, and their rights, including procedures to access the (social, health and legal) services when they exist/function. They are less likely to have the technical and life skills to diversify their livelihood strategies, access employment opportunities, and resist various forms of violence. A recent WHO study found that higher education of women was associated with less violence in many settings (e.g. Brazil, Namibia, Peru, Thailand and United Republic of Tanzania).³³

2.4. Gender and economic inequalities

Economic inequalities are one of the major causes of GBV, at all levels (individual, household, community and society); they are evident in levels of utilization of household resources; and in access to and control over productive resources, personal property, employment, wages and credits. Inequalities in access and control not only reduce women's economic independence and reduce their capacity to act and take decisions, but also increase their vulnerability to violence. Examples from Uganda indicate that women's subordination at a household level is maintained through restrictions in access to and utilization of resources such as land, income and or control of proceeds from their own labour, which often lead to domestic violence.

Experience of women in Apac district, Northern Uganda

Whereas women carry out the bulk of agricultural production, they cannot freely use the produce they obtain but have to ask for permission from their husbands. Such disagreements over the use of financial resources most often leads to family tensions and domestic violence as men reassert their authority within the households.

"Whenever I talk to my husband about not selling food, he beats me up, claiming that the land on which the food is grown belongs to him. When he sells the food, he just goes out to drink or pay previous debts. Since he knows I disagree with him about selling food, he has resorted to stealing it from the store whenever I am not around."³⁴ (FGD respondent Apac)

Source: *FAO field assessment 2009*

³¹ Harvard School of Public Health, 2006. *HIV/AIDS and Gender-based Violence Literature Review*. Program on International Health and Human Rights,

³² UNICEF, 2000. in Terry, G., 2004, "Poverty reduction and violence against women: exploring links, assessing impact", *Development in Practice*, 14:4, 496-480, <http://docserver.ingentaconnect.com/deliver/connect/routledg/09614524/v14n4/s2.pdf?expires=1210843551&id=44231133&tid=84&acname=FAO+of+the+UN&checksum=C45F909BCE2B31E4C79D3F59908398BF>

³³ WHO, 2005. *Multi-country study on Women's Health and Domestic Violence against Women: executive summary of initial results on prevalence, health outcomes and women's responses*, Geneva, WHO, p. 9.

³⁴ Women FGD respondent Bar Odwong- Apac District, October 2008.

Economic restrictions and gender inequalities are also the factors that force women to exchange sex for material goods, which in turn can be the cause of other forms of violence and abuse against them.

While economic independence does not protect women from violence, access to economic resources can enhance women's capacity to make meaningful choices, including escaping violent situations and having recourse to mechanisms for protection and redress.³⁵

2.5. Control over productive resources

In the rural context, food and the means for its production are the most valuable assets. Control over food and productive sources can and often is a source of violence within a household and a community.

Violence due to conflicts over control over productive resources may increase further due to women's economic empowerment and financial independence achieved through food and livelihood programmes and projects that target women. In fact, although in many societies women are usually responsible for the food in the household, becoming a bread-winner and gaining financial independence on their own can result in a shift in gender roles – the loss of “traditional male role” of husbands – and a subsequent rise in domestic violence.³⁶

Participation in decision-making over land and large livestock in Bussia District, Kenya

The FAO field assessment found that fewer abused women seem to make independent decisions on household items such as *shamba* (land) and large livestock. The study found that within the sites covered 31 percent of women who are not abused women make decisions on *shamba*, compared to 17 percent of abused women. In addition, fewer abused women make decisions jointly with their partners on major items compared to women who are not abused.

Source: FAO field assessment, 2007

In humanitarian settings in particular, in the recovery stage the original causes of a conflict will frequently be supplanted by others linked to protection or restoration of livelihoods. Increased competition for limited available resources increases rates of violence, in particular against women, children and elderly and marginalized populations (e.g. ethnic minorities).

Findings from the FAO field assessment in Northern Uganda point out to the link between agricultural season and GBV: during the planting season, the conflicts often arise over access to land for cultivation; disagreements often lead to physical violence against women. Acts of violence can also be taken against other members of the household or within community members of the same clan. During the rainy season, violence takes place over decisions on how to utilize meagre resources. This is made worse when households have no source of income to buy food or, in the case of *IDPs and refugees, return sites and return communities* that have been weaned off food aid and assistance. While men may resort to drinking as a coping mechanism, women may seek alternative ways of feeding their households such as giving away their daughters into early marriage.

³⁵ UNGA, 2006, p.32.

³⁶ IASC, 2006. *Gender Handbook on Humanitarian Action*. p. 88. Available at: <http://www.humanitarianinfo.org/iasc/gender>

Poverty and food insecurity are among the main causes of children being forced to marry early

Parents and guardians are known to marry off their daughters at a tender age to gain bride wealth. For others, marriage is a way of getting rid of an extra mouth to feed within the household. For instance if one gives the daughter to one of the soldiers, they not only get rid of the extra mouth to feed, but they also receive continued financial support as "in-laws."³⁷

Source: FAO field assessment in Uganda

Even in periods of plentiful harvests, violence is not necessarily absent. The same FAO study found that during the harvest season, there is a high rate of sexual violence in the form of rape, defilement and commercial sex, especially within fishing communities. Among the most affected are female relatives who choose this period to seek help and assistance from male relatives and friends who, however, demand sex in exchange. Further, disagreements on how to use funds from the sale of the harvest are a cause of physical violence. These findings confirm that gender inequality remains the underlying cause of violence.

2.6. Poverty and insecurity of land and property rights

Whereas violence occurs at all levels of society, poverty remains a factor that increases people's vulnerability to GBV by increasing their exposure to potentially violent situations, in particular by reducing their ability to avoid or escape from such situations.³⁸ A 2000 World Bank study found that poor women often cite violence as a factor in their poverty and that even if the men are equally poor, women face additional vulnerability compared to men, i.e. being exposed to sexual abuse.³⁹

Moreover, the insecurity of women's rights to land and property and economic dependence on male relatives makes them more vulnerable to socio-economic forms of violence, notably property grabbing. On the other hand, reclaiming the rights on the taken land and property may in itself be the factor leading to new forms of violence.

Experience of a woman in an agricultural community, Bussia, Kenya

During her marriage, Jane was constantly subject to physical violence by her husband. When her third child was one year old, Jane conceived again and during the usual routine of beatings, she had a miscarriage. Instead of taking her to the hospital, her husband disappeared for about two weeks. When he returned home, he found Jane sick and unable to work on the farm. He dragged her out of bed and rained blows on her...Jane decided to go back to her mother (a widow), who accepted to take her back. One year ago, Jane's mother died and now her brothers have threatened to take her back to her violent husband. They argue that she has no right to inherit property in her father's household, even though her mother had given her a piece of land on which she currently grows crops to feed her children.

Source: FAO field assessment, 2007

Several studies indicate that fear of loss of food and shelter and lack of economic options are among the reasons why women continue to stay in abusive relationships.⁴⁰

³⁷ Interview Community leader Oroko, Gulu District, September 2008

³⁸ Terry, G., 2004, "Poverty reduction and violence against women: exploring links, assessing impact", *Development in Practice*, 14:4, 496-480

³⁹ Narayan et al., 2000. in Terry, G., 2004.

⁴⁰ ICRW, 2006. *Property Ownership & Inheritance Rights of Women for Social Protection – The South Asia Experience. Synthesis report of three case studies.* (available at: http://www.icrw.org/docs/2006_propertyrights-southasia.pdf , p. 4. FAO field assessment from Uganda.

"Rights in, access to, and control over land, housing and property /.../ are essential to women's everyday survival, economic security and physical safety"⁴¹.

Report by the UN Centre for Human Settlements (UNHCS, UN Habitat)

Losses of land and property rights are also common consequences of humanitarian crises (both natural disasters and conflicts) due to forced displacement of the population.



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When refugees and IDPs eventually consider return, whether and how to reclaim their land and property rights and thus rebuild their livelihoods is of crucial concern to them.⁴² Land is the main livelihood asset available to people in post-conflict settings. Problems of illegal occupations, squatting, exploitative rent increases and violence commonly characterize all humanitarian crises. Years of displacement have weakened traditional conflict resolution mechanisms, and increased the level of uncertainty, tensions and confusion over land. Again, the most vulnerable, such as women widows, orphaned children and the elderly, experience GBV in form of property grabbing, sometimes accompanied by physical violence and threats.

This has served to discourage many women refugees and IDPs from even reclaiming their spouse's lands and/or returning to their original homes.⁴³

2.7. Physical insecurity

Uprooted populations generally encounter problems of protection and safety, with women and girls in particular suffering sexual and physical abuse. As women are mostly responsible for ensuring the food security of their families, they are the ones who collect firewood, queue for water and care for children. Families also frequently select girls to collect fuel wood used for the preparation of food inside refugee camps, and girls receive food in return. Land degradation, water degradation and scarcity, and deforestation often cause women and girls to walk longer distances to collect fuel wood and water, with consequences for their health and safety.⁴⁴ It can also force them to engage in commercial sex for survival, which, according to some, approximates rape given the women's lack of choice and the power imbalance between the perpetrator and the victim.⁴⁵

In humanitarian settings, men and boys are increasingly becoming victims/survivors of sexual violence. There have been increased cases of sexual violence specifically targeting men and boys, in several conflicts in Croatia, Iraq and Uganda.⁴⁶

⁴¹ ICRW, 2006, p.4

⁴² Rugadya, M.A., 2008. *Unveiling gender, land and property right sin post-conflict Northern Uganda*, Associates Research Occasional Paper, No. 4, November 2008, p. 2. Available at:

http://www.oxfam.org.pe/resources/learning/landrights/downloads/gender_land_propertyrights_in_postconflict_northern_uganda.pdf

⁴³ Rugadya, M.A., 2008.

⁴⁴ World Bank-FAO-IFAD.2008. *Gender in Agriculture – Sourcebook*, available at: <http://worldbank.org/genderinag> p. 450.

⁴⁵ Okello, M.C., Hovil, L., 2007. Confronting the Reality of GBV in Northern Uganda, in *International Journal of Transitional Justice*, Vol. 1, pp. 433-443.

⁴⁶ Oosterhof, P. Zwanikken and Ketting, E., 2004. Sexual Torture of men in Croatia and other conflict situations: an open secret, in *Reproductive Health Matters 12 (2004)*, pp. 68-77; Zawati, H.M., 2007. Impunity or immunity: wartime male rape and sexual torture as a crime against humanity, *Torture 17(1)*, pp. 24-47.

2.8. Policy and legal framework (state & community levels)

Discriminatory policies and laws contribute to constructing and maintaining gender roles and unequal power relations. The lack of an appropriate legal framework to protect people from violence makes it more difficult for men and women to resist various forms of violence or to protect themselves or their children against acts of GBV.

For returnees, demobilized soldiers and their families, failure to understand and adapt to the changing reality and transformed statutory and customary laws and practices may lead many to lose out to others. Such situations of powerlessness and inability to support one's livelihood may lead some into a vicious cycle of anger, violence and abuse.

2.9. Institutional framework

Even when there is a policy and legal framework conducive to gender and economic equality and protective of people's human rights, implementing and enforcing policies and laws requires effective formal and informal institutions at all levels – national, regional and local. In some countries, legislation and policies do exist and appropriate institutions are in place but do not function adequately to provide the specific services demanded. Yet, when community leaders, institutions and the State fail to hold perpetrators accountable, the knowledge of impunity not only intensifies the subordination and powerlessness of those affected by violence, but also strengthens the perception that male violence against women is both acceptable and inevitable.

This is even more valid in humanitarian settings, where the state institutions are inexistent or weak, and community social and cultural structures and networks that might prevent and respond to issues of GBV in normal times are minimal or not functioning. This is also because the refugee or IDP camps are often composed of groups of individuals and families who have been put together, regardless of their previous affiliations.

3. CONSEQUENCES OF GBV AND IMPACTS ON RURAL LIVELIHOODS

GBV has far-reaching impacts across all sectors of society. It can lead to severe physical, psychological and social consequences, and in some cases even death.

Agricultural sector and agricultural-based livelihoods are highly dependant on land, natural resources and human labour, and thus on good health status of farmers; this means that farmers are negatively affected by GBV. Social stigma and discrimination may lead to psychological trauma, feelings of powerlessness, and inadequacy to engage in productive activities and to fully participate in community activities.

In situations where people are already impoverished and social structures and the rule of law disrupted, as is the case in humanitarian settings, the impacts of GBV on rural livelihoods are even more devastating.

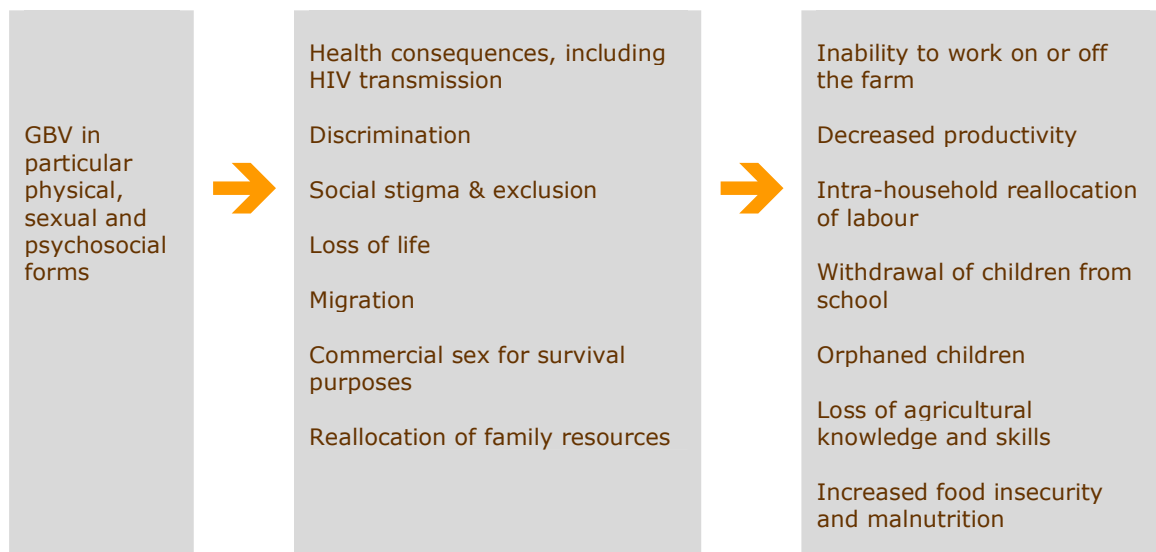
Using the sustainable livelihoods framework (see Figure 1 above), the following sections propose a brief analysis of how GBV and its associated impacts (including increased HIV transmission) affect the five capital assets of PHC. An effort is also made to integrate a gender perspective, with the aim of highlighting the fact that the impacts of GBV, and HIV and AIDS, on rural livelihoods affect men and women differently.



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3.1. Impacts on people's skills, knowledge, health and ability to work

GBV negatively influences human assets of both perpetrators (mainly men) and survivors (mainly women) of violence)



The health, emotional and psychological consequences of GBV may be so devastating that the victims/survivors will not be able to continue being productive. Social stigma and exclusion, loss of role and functions in a community society – with consequent deficit of income and increased

gender inequalities – may as well push the persons affected by GBV into a downward spiral of poverty, preventing them from living a healthy and dignified life.

Negative impacts of GBV are particularly devastating for women and girls. Girls are forced out of school because of defilement, rape and or constant sexual harassment from, for example, teachers and guardians. Others cannot build skills required for future survival because they are forced by families into early marriages or commercial sex as a way of gaining food, income and school fees, among others.

By restricting women’s movements and their involvement in education and trainings, including agricultural extension services or farmer field and life schools, psycho-social forms of violence hinder their access to information and better farming practices.⁴⁷ The result is that agricultural programmes that target ‘farmers’ may fail to achieve their objectives if women, who carry out the majority of farming activities, are not involved.

Fatal GBV outcomes may result in labour shortages and declines in productivity. Declining productivity, in turn, leads to declines in income through both decreases in the household’s own production and through declines in off-farm income and remittances, which may lead to increased food insecurity and malnutrition.

3.2. Impacts on networks and relationships of trust



Social capital is critical for farmers’ ability to cope with external shocks, recover from their consequences and continue normal life and work. Illness and death, emotional and psychological consequences, as well as stigma and discrimination related to GBV, disrupt people’s links to their extended family and the larger community. Victims/survivors as well as perpetrators often avoid engaging in social and community activities.⁴⁸ Moreover, services offered exclusively for survivors of violence or HIV-positive people contribute to stigma and exclusion, as many communities and societies still consider violence as a norm, or do not fully accept persons living with HIV.⁴⁹

Violence in the households also has a strong psychological impact on children. It may lead to children dropping out of school, irregular school attendance and a general negative impact on their wellbeing. At a community level, GBV influences the socialization processes whereby boys and girls come to accept violence as a norm in family life.

⁴⁷ See for example, Swaans, L, Broerse, E.W., Mudhara, M., Mwel, M. and Bunders, J.F.G., 2008. The Farmer Life School: experience from an innovative approach to HIV education among farmers in South Africa, in *Journal of Social Aspects of HIV/AIDS*, Vol. 5, No. 2, July 2008, p.62.

⁴⁸ FAO field assessments in Uganda and Kenya.

⁴⁹ Eghtessadi, R., 2008. Gender violence and HIV: Reversing twin epidemics, in *Exchange on HIV/AIDS, sexuality and gender*, No. 3, pp. 1-4.

3.3. Impacts on land, property and resources



Land and other natural resources are fundamental to the rural social and economic structure. Gender differences are particularly visible when analysing the impacts of GBV on natural capital.

The impacts of socio-economic violence on rural livelihoods strongly affect *populations in extraordinary crises*. As previously mentioned, the HIV and AIDS pandemic has increased the vulnerability of widows and orphans to this form of GBV; being dispossessed of their property, widows and orphans may not be able to engage in agriculture and other sustainable livelihoods.⁵⁰ This forces them to adopt harmful coping strategies that may endanger their health and sometimes, even their life.

3.4. Impacts on basic infrastructure and producer goods

For PHC physical capital is critical to their livelihoods, especially basic ones such as hand hoes, axes and shovels. Physical injuries sustained from violence prevent victims from using these tools, and thus from field work and production.



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Denial of access to such tools to women or other vulnerable categories diminishes their opportunities to produce more and/or to market their products, thus limiting their incomes and food security.

Increased expenditure on medical care to treat injuries and illness (e.g. HIV) as a result of GBV is among the causes of the loss of household assets through the sale of both productive and non-productive assets.⁵¹ For widows and orphans, GBV in the form of property grabbing directly results in the loss of productive resources and even personal belongings and prevents them from providing for themselves and their families.

⁵⁰ See Izumi, K. (ed.). 2006.

⁵¹ FAO field assessment case-studies (Uganda and Kenya); see also, Stokes, C.S., 2003. *Measuring impacts of HIV/AIDS on rural livelihoods and food security*. FAO SD research papers, available on-line at http://www.fao.org/sd/2003/PE0102a_en.htm; Rau, B., Rugalema, G., Mathieson, K. and Stloukal, L., 2008. *The evolving contexts of AIDS and the challenges for food security and rural livelihoods*, FAO, Rome.

3.5. Impacts on available and incoming incomes

The loss of capital assets results in a loss of financial capital. Income obviously declines as victims/survivors no longer engage in productive activities, investments or off-farm employment. As income decreases, livelihood options are limited and people become more vulnerable to food insecurity and increased poverty.

Macro-level impacts

While the most immediate impacts of GBV and its consequences affect individuals – victims / survivors and perpetrators – and their families directly, these impacts combine to exert effects on the wider community and society. At the same time, disrupted livelihoods, food insecurity and loss of social and community support exacerbate the risk and vulnerability environment for GBV (see Figure 2).



Figure 2. Interrelationships between GBV, HIV and food and livelihood insecurity

4. ADDRESSING GBV THROUGH LIVELIHOOD INTERVENTIONS: AGRICULTURAL-SECTOR RESPONSE

Understanding the relationships between GBV, food security and rural livelihoods, and knowing more about the assets of vulnerable individuals is central to identifying appropriate interventions to reduce men's and women's vulnerability to violence and mitigate its impacts.

There are a wide variety of possible livelihood interventions. What matters the most, however, is that any intervention is designed and implemented in ways that take into account major aspects of GBV and related HIV transmission. A combination of sustainable livelihood principles and development approaches can ensure that this is the case in practice.

4.1. Key guiding principles and approaches

Further to the core sustainable livelihood principles, there are a number of other principles and development approaches which can make livelihood interventions relevant to GBV. They can be grouped as follows:

- Promoting participation;
- Protecting and promoting human rights and gender equality;
- Respecting local culture without perpetuating stereotypes and discrimination;
- Understanding the local context and building on women's and men's strengths and assets;
- Farmer field and life school approach;
- Coordinated approach.

These principles and approaches are inter-connected and can all affect the effectiveness of livelihood interventions in terms of their influence on underlying causes and factors that contribute to both GBV and HIV. They should apply in planning, implementation and monitoring phases of interventions.



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4.1.1. Promoting participation

Like HIV, GBV is a problem that cross cuts all sectors, organizations and programmes.⁵² Ensuring the widest possible support for a given intervention will foster a sense of ownership and increase its acceptance and support by the concerned actors – both those who will be affected by it and those who may be called on to support it. This means including key government agencies (e.g. agriculture, social development, labour, education, trade and economy), affected populations themselves (e.g. refugees, IDPs, orphaned children, persons living with HIV) and farmers associations, women’s groups and civil society and non-governmental organizations.

In the humanitarian setting, where government and state institutions and services may be inexistent or ineffective, active involvement and consultations with local organizations and associations will enhance the possibilities of success of the envisaged interventions. Understanding the basis upon which people give their support to a particular group or organization and the kinds of services they rely on or expect from it can help form the basis for effective collaboration.⁵³

Full engagement of the community and related stakeholders should be central to all activities. Considering that control over productive resources is one of the major causes of GBV, even livelihood interventions themselves may inadvertently put women, girls and the most vulnerable at further risk of violence⁵⁴ if the interventions are implemented in certain way. Full and active participation of men as well as of other community members will contribute to decreased tension over natural resources.⁵⁵

In *IDP and refugee camps*, including also a number of persons from the local host community can be an important step towards defusing some of the tension between IDPs/refugees and host community members.

Another important issue that requires particular attention is *who* in a given household will actually participate in a programme or project:⁵⁶ the best option may be to involve all members of the households by giving each one a role, as small as it might be, to build a sense of ownership and strengthen accountability.

Finding a way to actively engage local community leaders and opinion makers (including within schools and religious or traditional institutions) can also ensure political will and sustained action to address GBV as well as commercial sex. Efforts should be made to ensure that all actors – government, civil society and communities – are willing to work together.

FAO’s Socio-economic and Gender Analysis (SEAGA) approach provides a valid framework for better understanding households and community dynamics, and for grasping the possible implications of agricultural support activities on them (see box that follows).

The FAO SEAGA programme

The FAO SEAGA Programme is an approach to development, based on a participatory identification and analysis of the socio-economic factors that determine women’s and men’s priorities and potentials. Its main objective is to close the gaps between what people need and what development delivers, to contribute to effective and sustainable development.

The SEAGA approach is based on three guiding principles: a) gender roles and relations are key; b) disadvantaged people are a priority; and c) participation of local people is essential for development. The SEAGA approach was also adapted for emergency and rehabilitation programmes.

Source: FAO/WFP, 2005, SEAGA for Emergency and Rehabilitation Programmes

⁵² Jennings, M. and McLean, S., 2005. Gender-based violence Study, Consortium of Irish Human Rights, Humanitarian and Development Agencies & Development Cooperation Ireland, July, p. 14; IASC, 2005.

⁵³ Ibidem, p. 13.

⁵⁴ IASC, 2005; ODI, 2007. The Impact of Emergencies on People Living with and Affected by HIV and AIDS: case study Mozambique, Overseas Development Institute, December.

⁵⁵ Women’s Refugee Commission. 2009. Working Women at Risk: The Links between Making a Living and Sexual Violence for Refugees in Ethiopia, p. 10.

⁵⁶ Lautze and Stites 2003; Young, Osman et al. 2007, quoted in Jaspars, S., O’Callaghan and Stites. E. 2007.

4.1.2. Protecting and promoting human rights, with a focus on gender equality

In a human rights-based perspective, taking action to ensure both food and livelihood security and influence gender inequality as the underlying cause of GBV is a matter of legal obligation. The principles of non-discrimination and equality are among the most fundamental elements of international human rights law.

Applying the equality principle in practice implies designing livelihood interventions so that they reach men and women, boys and girls, but in a way that takes into account their specific roles, needs and lack of access to opportunities. This can mean targeting specific people or groups in order to influence socio-economic conditions that perpetuate difficulties or violence they experience due to discriminatory practices. At the same time, however, specific activities should not target *only* GBV victims/survivors as this can result in an increased stigma and exclusion of these persons.

A human rights approach also emphasizes principles of human dignity and accountability at all levels. This requires the agricultural sector to be open and transparent in delivering services; ensuring that information on means of gaining access to agricultural support, income-generating or employment opportunities, and agricultural services and trainings are easily accessible to all – men, women, girls and boys. All those involved in programmes, including beneficiaries and community leaders, should be held accountable for their actions and for accomplishing agreed-upon tasks and responsibilities. Envisaged livelihood support activities should be implemented in a way that ensures full respect for the dignity of every individual.

4.1.3. Respecting local culture without perpetuating stereotypes and discrimination

The cultural appropriateness of a given livelihood intervention can be a crucial consideration for its effectiveness and success. In the agricultural sector, value chains are diverse and often complex systems, with different and changing gender roles depending on local norms about resource access and control and mobility. For example, in capture fisheries, many small-scale fisheries operate with the men investing in fishing vessels, nets and other gear and doing the fishing, and with the women investing in processing equipment and being responsible for fish purchasing, processing and sales.⁵⁷

Respect for local culture implies taking into account the existing power relationships within a specific context or setting among men and women, and within different population groups, when determining activities. This will ensure that livelihood interventions targeted at specific groups or persons do not result in increasing people's vulnerability to various forms of violence due to changes in power relations and division of tasks within a household or community (e.g. rise in domestic violence as a reaction to women's involvement in income-generating activities; rise in violence against more vulnerable groups, due to competition for resources). The risk of GBV or increase in violence should always be considered in the design, implementation and monitoring of livelihood interventions.

At the same time, however, livelihood interventions should not result in reinforcing gender inequalities that already exist or even introduce them where they did not previously exist (e.g. giving women only the role of helpers to others or place them in less-valued jobs). They should serve to challenge cultural norms and social attitudes that limit the choices and options available to less powerful individuals and groups. In other words, interventions should be designed and implemented in a way that *values what women and men are able to be and do with their resources*, rather than what resources they do or do not have.⁵⁸

Practical experience suggests that gaining men's support and involvement will help ensure that activities aiming to empower women economically do not result in putting them at greater risk of violence.⁵⁹

⁵⁷ WB, FAO & IFAD, 2009, p. 562.

⁵⁸ WB, FAO and IFAD, 2009, p.565.

⁵⁹ WFP, 2007; Women's Refugee Commission, 2009.

4.1.4. Understanding the local context and building on men's and women's strengths and assets

Generally speaking, major differences can exist in a country between one region and another in terms of agricultural practices, natural resources endowment, market opportunities, knowledge and education levels, and the capacity of local institutions. In the context of humanitarian crisis and high HIV and AIDS rate, context specificity is even more relevant as people adopt multiple and varied livelihood strategies, including negative strategies such as commercial sex or trafficking in women, girls and boys. Livelihood interventions will thus be more effective if they are appropriate for the specific context and if they build on the existing efforts at the local level.

Livelihood analysis can assist in identifying the causes and factors that put women/girls and men/boys at risk of GBV, and the assets that they use to mitigate and manage risks. This can further assist to determine appropriate measures that can be taken to support their livelihood options. It is therefore essential to assess and understand basic livelihood dynamics and specific local socio-economic, political and institutional dimensions, and the ways in which the concerned population has modified its strategies to minimize the impacts of shocks (including of GBV and HIV) and strengthen resilience. This include a range of issues such as socio-cultural norms for gender expectations, use of power and decision making in the community, community systems for protection, community attitudes and beliefs about GBV, and formal and informal systems for law and administration of justice. At the household level, it is important to understand power relationships among household members, including: access to and control over resources, boys' and girls' access to education, the different ways that women and men access economic opportunities.

Here too, FAO's SEAGA approach can be useful. Failure to consider basic livelihood dynamics and to match the specific needs of different groups of population can lead to poor and even damaging programming⁶⁰ and increase women/girls' and men/boys' vulnerability to GBV.

4.1.5. Implementing interventions using the farmer field and life schools approach

Livelihood interventions are more likely to generate positive effects and better achieve their objectives if they also act on the awareness and capacity of the concerned population and the local institutions. Complementary interventions in training and skills development can enhance the value of a given livelihood activity and its sustainability, by providing farmers with appropriate knowledge and skills and by ensuring sensitive and responsive institutions.

FAO's experience with farmer field and life schools indicates that introducing social and legal issues in participatory group learning can be instrumental in changing behaviour, particularly social and gender attitudes. This approach was also adapted to situations of humanitarian concern and high HIV prevalence areas.

Using farmer field and life schools as a means for implementing livelihood interventions in the context of humanitarian crises can thus play a valuable role in making livelihood interventions relevant to GBV. This is because it can ensure that a given agricultural intervention for PHC (e.g. starting a business with fish farming) is not only accompanied with the appropriate transfer of agricultural knowledge and skills but also provides to the beneficiaries a platform to discuss and understand the causes and factors that contribute to GBV within their communities, its implications for rural livelihoods, and possible solutions to address it.

⁶⁰ USAID, 2005. *Livelihoods & Conflict. A toolkit for intervention*, available at: .

FAO Farmer Field and Life Schools, for adults and youth: an approach to farmers' empowerment

The Farmer Field and Life School approach includes three main forms: Farmer Field Schools (FFS), Farmer Life Schools (FLS) and Junior Farmer Field and Life Schools (JFFLS).

The **FFS**⁶¹ approach has been developed as a livelihood strategy aimed to empower farmers and strengthen their self-esteem and food security. The FFS transfers agricultural knowledge to enrolled farmers but also provides them with the opportunity to learn by doing, discussing and experimenting with agricultural strategies to improve their food production and livelihood security. The FFS participants apply the Agro-ecosystem Analysis (AESAs) tool, with which interactions between crops/livestock and other factors are studied regularly on the basis of varying field conditions.

The **FLS**⁶² approach goes a step further and seeks to enable farmers to understand the larger socio-economic and cultural context and factors which influence the various assets on which they draw to make a living. At the heart of the FLS approach is the Human Eco-System Analysis (HESA) tool. In this socio-ecological approach, the farmer groups investigate various socio-economic issues that threaten their lives and livelihoods and at the same time they identify supporting factors that can help them to address these issues. This process enables farmers to understand their own strengths, vulnerabilities and constraints and be in a position to make decisions about what actions to take to improve their own lives, and the lives of others within their community. Issues addressed include loss of land, lack of family planning, domestic violence, gender inequalities and HIV and AIDS.

The **JFFLS**⁶³ concept emerged as a combined approach and a mitigation strategy to counter the HIV epidemic and the orphans crisis. Its major goal is to empower vulnerable youths, giving them livelihood options and long-term food security while minimizing their vulnerability to destitution and risky coping strategies. One of the objectives of the JFFLS is to promote the creation of gender-equal attitudes, not only through the exercise of roles and responsibilities, but also by developing the capacity of youths to critically assess relationships and links and understand risks and resources within their community.

4.1.6. Coordinating action with partners from other sectors

When intervening in the context of GBV and humanitarian settings, it is important to liaise with actors in other sectors to coordinate activities and support. This coordination can prevent the fragmentation of the approach and services that can lead to confusion or even division within the communities, as well as to continuing violence. Figure 3 depicts a multi-sectoral and coordinated response to GBV.

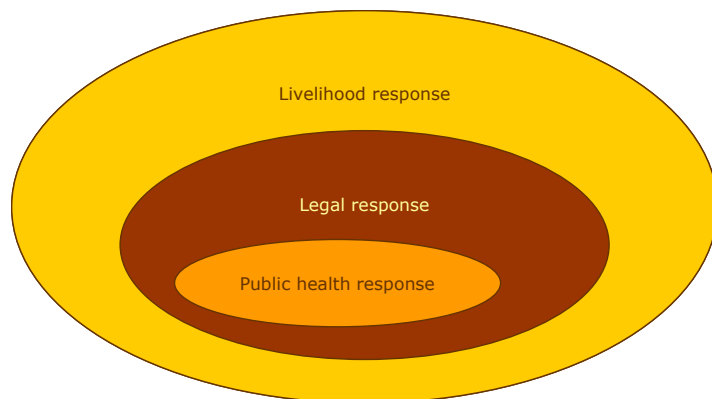


Figure 3. Coordinated response to GBV⁶⁴

⁶¹ See http://www.farmerfieldschool.net/document_en/05_06.pdf

⁶² See [http://www.undp.org/hiv/docs/alldocs/Asia%20-%20Farmers%20Life%20School%20Manual%20\(2004\).pdf](http://www.undp.org/hiv/docs/alldocs/Asia%20-%20Farmers%20Life%20School%20Manual%20(2004).pdf)

⁶³ See <ftp://ftp.fao.org/docrep/fao/010/a1111e/a1111e00.pdf>

⁶⁴ Adapted from FAO/IIEP/UNESCO/ADEA, 2005. Education for Rural People in Africa: Policy Lessons, Options and Priorities, Ministerial Seminar, 7-9 September 2005 (Addis Ababa, Ethiopia), Working document.

4.2. Examples of livelihoods interventions

In situations of humanitarian crisis, livelihood activities are relatively rare; options to make a living are limited, state and community structures are inexistent or weak, and there are high security risks associated with longer-term rehabilitation and development activities.⁶⁵ Nevertheless, there are some examples of appropriate livelihoods programming and opportunities to do more.⁶⁶

The examples proposed below are drawn from the available literature, findings from FAO studies in Kenya and Uganda, and information documenting lessons learned and experiences from FAO studies on HIV and AIDS.

4.2.1. Supporting/influencing formal and informal policy and legal frameworks

As mentioned earlier, the extent of GBV within a given society is strongly influenced by the existence of policies and laws that proscribe and punish such violence and the extent to which they are enforced.⁶⁷ It is therefore important to support and influence formal and informal policy and legal frameworks that establish and protect human rights of women and children, notably with respect to marriage, land and property (including inheritance, water, forestry and fisheries) as well as labour and access to justice.

Support should also be provided to reconstructing and improving services, to the establishment or strengthening of local institutions such as farming cooperatives, women's groups, or local systems for natural resource management (e.g. fisheries committees, water user associations).

Youth unemployment being one of the main problems in the context of humanitarian crisis, interventions could also support the drafting and adoption of local and national gender-sensitive employment strategies focusing on youth. This can contribute not only to preventing risky coping strategies but also to promoting gender-equal attitudes.

Such interventions should not be limited only to formal state law and institutions. Traditional or customary legal systems and practices fall within the sphere of informal laws and institutions, and are dominant in many countries. This is especially the case in the humanitarian settings where rule of law and state institutions are themselves vulnerable and often inexistent or inefficient. Because such norms and rules in many countries perpetuate gender inequalities in access to and control over land and resources or in access to employment opportunities, interventions seeking to influence changes in norms and practices and attitudes at the level of community institutions are equally important.

4.2.2. Increasing agricultural productivity

Among PHC, lack of agricultural inputs, poor infrastructure and poor marketing of products are common problems. Improving access to tools such as hand hoes, axes and shovels, and to agricultural inputs can help increase agricultural production, which in turn can improve livelihood options and reduce food insecurity, and thus minimize tensions and violence.

Specific activities in support of agricultural productivity may include:

- provision of seeds, fertilizers and tools together with good advice to ensure their best possible use, which will allow for sustainable production;
- transferring knowledge and providing support for integrated pest management systems to reduce harvest losses;
- support for diversification of crops and promotion of rural technology, in particular labour-saving technologies;⁶⁸
- conservation and propagation of traditional local seeds;
- improving infrastructure such as irrigation systems, market infrastructure and rural roads; and
- transferring agricultural knowledge to add value to smallholder farmers' final marketable products.

⁶⁵Jaspars, S., O'Callaghan and Stites. E. 2007.

⁶⁶ For some examples of what good practice for interventions especially, in protracted crises might look like, see in particular, Alinovi, L., Hemrich, G. et al., 2007. *Beyond Relief. Food security in Protracted Crises*.

⁶⁷ UNHCR, 2003. p. 47.

⁶⁸ FAO. 2003. *Mitigating the impact of HIV/AIDS on food security and rural poverty. Results of multi-stakeholder meeting and outcomes of subsequent strategy development*, FAO, Rome, pp.25-27.

This kind of support is particularly needed for *people in extraordinary crisis and returnee communities* (see the box that follows).

The FFS approach to restore agricultural livelihoods and income of displaced and returning communities in Northern Uganda

Within the framework of this project, a total of 256 FFSs were established to implement agricultural production activities. Each FFS group learned how to improve and multiply varieties of cassava, orange, sweet potato, rice and groundnut. The FFSs also established community tree nurseries. With improved seeds, introduction of new technologies and training, the capacity of the returnees to produce food has increased. Informal federations of FFSs were also formed. They are helping farmers to link up to markets and to share information such as market prices. They were also provided with grinding mills that members are using as well as providing a service to the community.

The trainings also included such topics as reproductive and family health care, HIV and AIDS, sexual and gender-based violence, conflict resolution and community action planning.

Source: FAO Uganda, Information Bulletin, January 2009

4.2.3. Securing access to and control of the means of production

PHC often have insufficient land in terms of farm size, quality and security of access and control; or they are landless. In addition, they lack access to water and are short of family labour owing to crisis, HIV and migration. Solid natural capital (e.g. land, natural resources, water) can help contribute to sustainable livelihood strategies while reducing tensions and competition for resources, and thus violence and commercial sex.

Securing rights to land and other property can also prevent property grabbing, and decrease women's and children's dependency on others, and thus their vulnerability to socio-economic violence and risky coping strategies. In some cases, it may also provide a sound exit strategy from abusive relationships.

Changes should therefore be supported by institutions managing and governing access to natural resources, and law enforcement mechanisms should be strengthened.

4.2.4. Enhancing income-generating activities and economic opportunities

In risk-prone environments, the ability to combine different income-generating activities (e.g. trading and farming) with livestock production makes people more resilient⁶⁹ to external shocks.

Interventions in support of income-generating activities and economic opportunities will be particularly useful in households affected by crisis or conflict, and in which men feel powerless, which may lead them into a vicious cycle of violence and abuse.

Key activities may include:

- diversifying vegetable and livestock production;
- diversifying into commercial fodder and seedling nurseries, home gardens or fish mongering;
- supporting access to finances necessary for acquiring productive assets and technologies to initiate an income-generating activity;
- providing training and capacity building to farmers to increase their bargaining power in the marketplace; and
- strengthening the capacity of producers to act on their own behalf.

⁶⁹ Alinovi, L. Hemrich, G. et al., 2007.

It is important that income-generating activities promote active community participation because this is one of the ways through which social networks can be reinforced.

To start these activities, access to credits is necessary. The breakdown of community institutions and social relations that characterizes humanitarian settings weakens community-based credit initiatives. Providing financial services could assist people whose capacity to work on the farm has been reduced due to illness or injuries as a result of GBV. Financial services could include offering special credit, linking farm-business development services or instituting a leasing programme to increase access to labour-saving tools and machinery such as draft animal power, tractor hire, improving tool quality and changing farming practices to conservation agriculture. However, it has been argued that microfinance programmes bear too many risks and constraints in conflict environments.⁷⁰ For PHC, notably refugees, IDPs and returnees, micro-credit, micro-grants, in-kind repayment, community-based credit programmes or group savings modalities may be more appropriately used.



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Here too, the FFLS approach could serve as a good means for implementing these kinds of interventions.

4.2.5. Promoting social reconstruction and reintegration

One of the major difficulties in dealing with GBV is the silence that surrounds it – in refugee/IDP camps, transit sites, communities and households. Interventions in support of rebuilding social support and reinvigorating relationships of trust may improve the sense of self-esteem of victims/survivors, and thus enable them to carry a healthy, dignified and productive life.

Key activities may include:

- improving the internal functioning of groups, such as leadership, representation and management;
- creating a more open, supportive and reliable environment conducive to influencing and changing discriminatory social norms and attitudes;
- promoting and encouraging social mobilization and information and communication between communities (in particular, between host communities and refugees/IDPs).

Through support to social reconstruction, adult farmers and young people (men, women, girls and boys) can gather together to discuss issues of gender and power inequalities, and violence within their cultures and social practices, and understand how they affect their lives and livelihoods. They can also plan for action to reduce and eliminate the identified inequalities and mitigate the impacts of violence.

⁷⁰ See, for example, Feinstein International Famine Center, 2003. *Livelihood interventions in Conflict-Affected Areas: Dilemmas & Lessons Learned*. Feinstein International Famine Center Sackler Center for Health Communications Tufts University, March 6-7, 2003, Report and Summary of workshop Proceedings; Eckman, K., 2005. *Lessons learned by the WIN project on livelihoods diversification and enterprise development*, LSP Working Paper 19, FAO, Rome.

4.2.6. Capacity building, skills development and training

In view of the impact of GBV on people's knowledge and skills (see Section 3.1.), capacity building, skills development and training in farming are critical to enable people, especially children and youth, to cope with crisis and other shocks in the long term. Skills training programmes are often provided in camp settings. However, in order to be relevant for GBV realities, training activities should *combine technical and life skills*. Combining technical and life skills trainings can work to improve food security and at the same time promote changing behaviour, in particular social and gender attitudes. This in turn, can contribute to preventing GBV and mitigating its consequences. Under "life skills", issues such as GBV, HIV/AIDS, land and property rights, entrepreneurship skills, human rights and gender equality can be discussed and analyzed, in order to identify the most appropriate way of addressing them within a specific community context. Also, training should include empowerment of rural populations, refugees and IDPs to demand better rural services and to use the law and legal services to defend their interests and rights.

The mandate of the agricultural extension services may thus be broadened to encompass GBV, human rights and access to justice, as it was done in some cases for HIV, and to be more oriented towards young people.

It is equally important to support institutional capacity building to ensure the capacity of local institutions to provide the services that people in rural areas need – access to agricultural technologies and inputs, participation in markets, access to health, social and legal services – and thus improve their livelihoods and wellbeing.

4.2.7. Information and gender awareness raising

One of the key activities in addressing GBV is creating awareness about the issues surrounding it. Gender training, information and communication campaigns are crucial to raise awareness of gender-specific issues in humanitarian settings – including access to food, land and other productive resources, health care, social and legal services, education and economic opportunities, as well as participation in decision-making processes.

Interventions in support of information and gender awareness raising may include:

- information dissemination and basic training amongst community and opinion leaders about issues of gender, power and GBV to raise their understanding of and responsiveness to the different needs of men and women, girls and boys; and
- training in roles and responsibilities amongst NGOs, their partners, refugees, IDPs, host communities as well as government agencies to promote the respect of accountability principles.



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