Toolset 1: Case studies
Violence, gender and WASH

This toolset includes:

Case studies highlighting examples of violence, gender and WASH from a range of countries and contexts.

The case studies and examples have been split into the following groups:

**TS1-A.** Sexual violence (rape, assault, molestation)

**TS1-B.** Psychological violence (harassment, 'eve-baiting' and bullying, which can lead to fear, stress, shame)

**TS1-C.** Physical violence (beating, fighting which can lead to injury, death)

**TS1-D.** Socio-cultural violence (social ostracism, discrimination, political marginalisation, forced behaviours, shame)

**TS1-E.** Cross-cutting case studies

Case studies on violence, gender and WASH

This toolset provides an overview of the different types of violence that may be related to WASH. The case studies aim to help illustrate in a more concrete manner the different forms of violence that can occur, while the collation of this data from many countries around the world highlights the universal importance of understanding violence in the context of WASH.

The case studies can be used as a resource for trainers or for advocacy purposes, as well as for self-learning by professionals who wish to understand more thoroughly the vulnerabilities that can occur.

The examples have been split into five categories, the last of which is a cross-cutting case study with examples across the other categories (see figure).
About this document
This document is one part of the ‘Violence, Gender and WASH: A Practitioner’s Toolkit – Making water, sanitation and hygiene safer through improved programming and services’.

This toolkit has been developed by Sarah House, Suzanne Ferron, Dr Marni Sommer and Dr Sue Cavill, on behalf of WaterAid with contributions from a wide range of organisations and individuals. It was funded by the Department for International Development (DFID) through the Sanitation and Hygiene Applied Research For Equity (SHARE) Consortium and co-published by a number of organisations.

Details of co-publishing organisations can be found on the back page of this document. The acknowledgements, acronyms, definitions and an overview of the toolkit are included in BN1.

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Citation for this publication
House, Sarah, Suzanne Ferron, Marni Sommer and Sue Cavill (2014) Violence, Gender & WASH: A Practitioner’s Toolkit – Making water, sanitation and hygiene safer through improved programming and services. London, UK: WaterAid/SHARE.

The authors of these materials would very happy to receive feedback from users of the materials contained within, whether positive or negative, so that it can be used if the materials are updated at a later date.

We would also be interested to receive feedback where the methodologies have been used and their impacts evaluated in respect to reducing violence linked to WASH programmes or services. This will add to the general body of evidence on the best ways to improve policy and programming.

Please send any feedback to: gbv@wateraid.org

Promising good practices
This toolkit brings together a range of examples of promising good practice that have the potential to reduce vulnerabilities to violence associated with WASH programmes and services. The approaches have been selected on the basis of case study examples where some successes have already been seen, from good practice guidance already being recommended within the WASH sector or across sectors, and also some selected based on best judgement and common sense. These are approaches and strategies that at least give those who are vulnerable a say in the programme and service provision, which encourage communities to develop their own strategies for prevention of violence, provide opportunities for peer support, and encourage ethical behaviours from staff – and are therefore likely to be effective in helping to reduce vulnerabilities.

There is a critical need to increase understanding of the links between violence and WASH, on appropriate ways to improve policy and programming, and for testing and evaluation of the same.

Every effort has been made to obtain permission for the inclusion of materials, and also to verify that information is from reputable sources, but checks have not been possible for all entries.

This material has been funded by UK aid from the Department for International Development (DFID). However, the views expressed do not necessarily reflect the Department’s official policies.

What ‘violence’ means in this toolkit
The main focus of this toolkit is the forms of violence that occur because of the differences in power between males and females. This is known as ‘gender-based violence’ (GBV). A large proportion of GBV is aimed at women and girls, because in most societies they face discrimination and hold less power than men and boys. However, violence that is associated with the gender roles assumed by men and boys can also make them the object of violence. People who have other gender and sexual identities, such as those who are lesbian, bisexual, gay, transsexual and intersex (LGBTI) may also face GBV.

We also consider violence against those from specific social groups, particularly those who may be in vulnerable, marginalised or special circumstances; and we consider violence that may occur between people of the same gender, such as between women or between men, or between men and boys.

The forms of violence that are the main focus in this toolkit are: sexual violence (rape, assault, molestation and inappropriate touching), psychological violence (harassment, ‘eve-baiting’, bullying or other actions which may cause fear, stress or shame), physical violence (beating or fighting leading to injury and death) and socio-cultural violence (social ostracism, discrimination, political marginalisation or social norms that have negative impacts).
Categories of violence with relevance to WASH

B - Psychological violence
Harassment, ‘eve-baiting’, bullying, or causing fear, stress or shame

A - Sexual violence
Rape, assault, molestation, inappropriate touching, transactional/survival sex

Main categories of violence with relevance to WASH covered in this toolset

C - Physical violence
Beating or fighting leading injury, death or damage to infrastructure

D - Socio-cultural violence
Social ostracism, discrimination, political marginalisation, social norms with negative impacts

E - Cross-cutting

Other categories may also include: legal or institutional violence.

In this toolset, economic/material violence (damage to infrastructure or possessions, transactional or survival sex, denial of access to services) has been integrated into the categories A to E above.
### TS1-A – Sexual violence (rape, assault, molestation)

#### Themes from the case studies in this section:

- Lack of, or poor access to, WASH services can lead to rape and assaults.
- Sexual violence can occur by rivers that are used for washing clothes and bathing, in the bush when being used for open defecation, and around toilets and bathing units in camps and in school toilets (with both girls and boys being vulnerable to rape).
- Fear of such assaults can prevent women and children using sanitary facilities outside of the home at night.
- Children can be vulnerable to sexual violence when they are left behind at the house while the mother leaves to collect water or undertake other tasks.
- Expectations for sexual favours in exchange for grades, jobs and other benefits through schooling, training and internships – hence the WASH sector needs to be aware of these risks, particularly for female trainees, interns and staff undertaking training, as well as in employment.
- Women and children with disabilities may be less able to fight off a sexual attack.
- Aid workers in positions of power can abuse that power in return for sexual favours.
- Rape and assaults can have long-term psychological impacts.
- Shame and threats can prevent someone who has experienced sexual violence from reporting the incident.
- Impacts from rape may include fear, shame, being mocked by the community, and not being believed by the husband or other community members.
- The wife and children of the perpetrator will also suffer if the perpetrator is arrested and put in jail.

#### TS1-A-1

**Sudan**

Eighty-two per cent of rapes occurred when undertaking daily tasks, including collecting water

(Médecins sans Frontières, 2005)

In West Darfur, between October 2004 and February 2005, MSF health clinics treated 297 rape victims: 99 per cent were women, while 62 per cent of the women who reported the cases were actually in a group when they were attacked.

Almost 90 per cent said that their rape occurred outside a populated village, and 82 per cent were raped while pursuing their ordinary daily activities, such as searching for firewood or thatch, working in their fields, while fetching water from river beds, or travelling to the market.

Eighty-one per cent of victims report that their rapists were militia or military who used their weapons to force assault.

#### TS1-A-2

**Democratic Republic of the Congo**

Girl gang raped when going to practice open defecation, suffers recto and vaginal fistula

(Langombe, A.O. et al., 2008)

A 12 year old girl, is the fourth in a family of seven:

“I have worked since I was eight. I used to bring palm oil to the market. We would walk four hours on foot with our merchandise on our back. If I had no buyer, I would leave my jerry can there because the distance was so great. But when business was good, I would buy soap and bring the remaining money to my parents. One day when we were returning from the market with a group of women, I felt a need to open my bowels. Since the only place to go was in the forest, I told the others not to leave me. I entered to relieve myself and quickly returned to the path, fast on their heels. But my hour of darkness had come. Suddenly a group of men appeared behind me. One of them grabbed me by the hand. I screamed, but my frightened companions were already running away; the more I screamed the faster they ran.”
“Abandoned, I was facing eight beasts who first robbed me of the money and packets of soap, then three of them dragged me into the bush, stripped me naked and raped me repeatedly. The other five did not seem to approve of their brothers’ brutality and tried to stop them, but only half-heartedly and unsuccessfully. The pain was like having knives plunged inside my body as they raped me in turns. I do not know how to forgive these people, or how to forget. When they were done they left me there bleeding, moaning in pain, until a group of women found me slumped on the ground. One of them carried me on her back until we reached a health centre. Her entire back was covered in my blood. Another woman from my village went to inform my parents. That night the entire village came to the health centre to see the damage: faeces and urine flowed out of the same opening in my body. After a week at the health centre, I spent another three weeks at home before being taken to the hospital in Goma for surgery. I can now control my bladder, but not completely my bowels.”

TS1-A-3
Solomon Islands

Fear, harassment, rape and physical challenges when collecting water and accessing the toilet

(Amnesty International, 2011)³

Amnesty International undertook a study specifically looking at violence in relation to sanitation, hygiene and water in Solomon Islands. They found the types of sexual violence expressed by the women below to be common, especially for unaccompanied women.

“I wake up around 4.30am every day. After my morning devotion, I begin preparing for breakfast and make my children’s school lunches. If there is no drinking water left, I have to walk to the pipe which is quite a long way away to collect the water. I always dread walking in the morning because some of the men in the settlement will be up drinking from the night before, and more often than not they will turn their attention to me and harass me. I know these boys well so I always tell them politely that they should have respect for me, as I am older than them. I am always very frightened when they harass me, as I know they have assaulted and raped some of the younger girls in the past… We share a pit toilet with another six households; it is about 60 metres from our house and it’s on a steep slope. When we go to the toilet, we have to be very careful so that we don’t slide down the hill and hurt ourselves. The toilet itself is very dirty, but what other choice do we have?”

(A 38-year-old civil servant and mother of two girls, aged six and eight)

“My friends and I are always worried that we will be punched or raped by the drunk men. Because they don’t have jobs, these men drink kwasso and look for girls to have sex with them. If we refuse, we can be beaten or raped. We have no other place to go to, so we don’t complain and just keep quiet about it. We are already in overcrowded homes living with relatives. If we cause trouble, we can be kicked out.”

(A 21-year-old unemployed woman in Kobito 4 settlement)

“About a year ago, while walking to collect water in the afternoon, I was gang-raped by six boys from the nearby settlement. They always drink kwasso by the roadside and when I walked past them, they started calling me to go and say hello to them. I didn’t say anything and kept on walking. I was also worried that it was going to get dark soon and I still had a long way to walk to the pipe. On my way back with the water, I met the same boys up the hill. It had gotten dark and they began to harass me. One of them said that they could carry the water for me. When I said no, he got angry and said that I had insulted him. He demanded that the only way to compensate for that was to have sex with him. I refused and he punched me in the stomach. The others then grabbed me and carried me to the bush where I was raped. They each raped me and then left me there after threatening to kill me and my family. I had a black eye and was sore. I was so ashamed for being raped. I vowed not to tell my family, because it would bring shame to them. I took the water home and didn’t tell my family anything. I couldn’t trust the police, because they will not help me. I have to live with this shame for the rest of my life. I still walk to the pipe to collect water, but this time I have a friend or relative that walks with me. I see those boys sometimes but they don’t talk to me and look down when I walk past them.”

(An 18-year-old woman from Kobito 4 settlement)
A woman was raped when she came home late after university classes in September 2008. She had gone for a bath at dusk in a stream about 100m from her home:

“The man came from nowhere”, she said. “I was quite shocked! I did not have any undergarments and just had my sarong on. I couldn’t scream because he warned me not to scream. It was very easy for him to rape me! Mifala crae crae nomo! [I just cried and cried]. I can’t believe that it happened to me… I was so stupid to come alone. He was from a neighbouring settlement.”

(A 23-year-old woman in Adiliwa settlement)

“The two men were standing by the beach when I finished [relieving myself in the sea]. I recognised them immediately from their voices. I knew they were drunk, because I saw them drinking in a dilapidated house close to the road in the early evening. They came and one of them grabbed my arm and one closed his hand over my mouth. They held me down and took my clothes off and raped me. They were very violent and I had bruises all over my body. I wanted to die desperately and I was crying and crying thinking of my children. After they raped me, they warned me that if I told anyone they would cut me up. I was so afraid, but couldn’t do anything. I see them around the settlement, but I wouldn’t dare tell the police.”

(A 37-year-old woman who lives in Mamanawata settlement)

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>TS1-A-4</th>
<th>Liberia</th>
<th>Rape, harassment, fear and WASH</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Various, 2013)⁴</td>
<td>The following examples of violence or vulnerabilities to violence related to WASH were shared during meetings with a range of organisations working in protection, women’s empowerment and WASH in Liberia:</td>
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<td>• In Grand Gedeh, the town chief said to put the borehole next to his compound. When the NGO went back to monitor, they found that the women would not use the borehole because there were always men sitting outside the house of the chief and they were frightened of being harassed.</td>
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<td>• Beating/harassment is common (for women and children) if someone stays away too long from home, including for collecting water.</td>
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<td>• Girls who sell water are vulnerable to violence – there was a case of a girl who sold water to a household; the householder built up trust with her and then persuaded her to come inside where she was raped.</td>
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<td>• When there are long queues to waterpoints this can cause violence-related problems. For example, a man [managing a pump or further up a queue] can offer to collect a girl or woman’s water for them to prevent them queuing, but then after doing this several times may start to say “now you need to do something for me in return”.</td>
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<td>• Violence can also occur to a child left in the house of a relative. A child left behind while their mother goes out to do a task such as collecting water or going to the market can be vulnerable.</td>
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<td>• Students studying for undergraduate degrees and on internships face approaches by lecturers/employers for ‘sex for grades’ or before being paid. [This has relevance to WASH in relation to female students who are studying core courses relevant to the WASH sector, and also who may be on internships with organisations implementing WASH programmes].</td>
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<td>• Two girls with disabilities in Montserrado County were assaulted on their way to a waterpoint: disabled children are less able to fight back so are particularly vulnerable to GBV.</td>
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<td>• In the urban slum area of West Point there was a situation where a woman with disabilities went to the beach to defecate. She was attacked and then left on the beach until morning.</td>
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<td>• In Clara town, a man with disabilities said that he had been stopped going into communal toilets (by the people managing them) because they said he would defecate everywhere badly.</td>
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<td>• There is a fear experienced by women that if they use public toilets they will contract a disease known as ‘ichyfish’ from using public/shared toilets.</td>
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<td>• There have been rape cases when women go into the bush to defecate.</td>
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In Liberia if someone is raped the following may occur:

- If a woman says she was raped at the river, her husband may not believe her and may say she went there for a relationship.
- Most people are frightened to report rape because others may make fun of them, laugh or point fingers at them. Others may blame the victim and say: “as you didn’t call out you were not raped”.
- Children may get fistula as a result or rape, and there are some cases of children who have been raped to death.
- Most perpetrators are relatives of the person who is raped, so rapes are not reported due to the implications on the family. It is also complex, because the woman and children may be economically dependent on the man and hence if he is put in jail for rape or other abuses then the woman and children suffer in another way – so how to deal with the perpetrator is challenging.

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### TS1-A-5

**Kenya**

**Men face being mugged, women face being raped, when going to the toilet after dark in Kenya’s slums**

*(Amnesty International, 2010)*

Residents from Kibera, a large slum community in Kenya, highlighted different experiences of violence when accessing sanitation facilities at night:

“Women, more than men, suffer the indignity of being forced to defecate in the open, at risk of assault and rape. Women, generally being responsible for the home and for children and other dependents, are most affected by a lack of sanitation and by the indignity of living without sanitation…”

“The lack of sanitation facilities in Kibera affects women more than men… Men equally face the threat of violence, but women are at increased risk of sexual and other forms of gender-based violence. Women tell us regularly how they are at risk of being raped or assaulted after dark or at night if they were to attempt to walk even 100 metres to a latrine near their houses; what chance is there that they would use a facility that may be three times further, as is the dominant case here in Kibera?… Even a casual observation during the day reveals that men are not as hampered as women by the lack of toilet facilities… You would see men use the alleys and open places – such as the areas next to the railway lines to urinate… but women cannot do that because of wider public perceptions on decency and dignity…”

“Over half of us take five to ten minutes to get to the toilet. A few have toilets in their plots so it may be safe to go to the toilet at night. If you go out at night you will get raped and assaulted… For women this is unique, because it is not just the risk of an assault or mugging but sexual violence as well.”

“I always underestimated the threat of violence when regularly using the latrine which all 12 families who live on the plot where I live use. I would go to the latrine at any time, provided it was not too late. This was until two months ago when I almost became a victim of rape… You have to walk for about ten minutes to use the latrine. It was just about 7pm when I had reached the latrine, only to encounter a group of four young men – including one who was my neighbour and well known to me… Without saying anything two of them held my hands as one hit me on the face. I partly lost consciousness… I shouted asking them to leave me. I could feel that they were undressing me and one of them was saying that they would teach me a lesson on why I should not be out at that time… I am sure that they were about to start raping me, when a few people responded to my shouting and came to my rescue and these men ran away… I did not report the incident, because one of the four men who was well known later told me if I reported the incident to official authorities or the police they would look for and deal with me…”

“Whenever we are able to afford the costs of Kshs [Kenyan shillings] 5 (US$ 0.064) per visit, we usually use the community toilet and bathroom unit constructed by public funds – the constituency development fund… However this facility only operates between 8am and 10pm… As a woman you cannot use these toilets say after 7pm, because for some of us they are a ten-minute walk away from my house and the area is insecure with a lot of violent criminal youth groups who would harm you, especially as a woman.”
“We have received so many reports of women and girls who have been assaulted and even raped while going to use this facility in the evening or after dark…. I do not have to wait for a similar experience in order to know that it is very dangerous for a woman to attempt to use the facility after 7pm. So I always try and use the facility, especially for bath, earlier in the evening – even if this always means that I have to disrupt my schedule, including the small-scale vending business that I do at the market…”

**TS1-A-6**

### Liberia

**‘Sex for grades’, women blamed for violence due to clothes, bathrooms felt unsafe**

(Taylor, A., 2011)<sup>6</sup>

Young women attending universities in urban areas in Liberia face numerous safety risks, particularly related to sexual violence. Across the universities, perpetrators are most commonly former lovers, boyfriends or partners, professors and fellow male classmates. Transactional sex, or ‘sex for grades’, and sexual intimidation from teachers and faculty staff is a major theme across the universities. Women are most commonly blamed for violence committed against them, including rape, because of their dress and lifestyle choices. At one university the dormitories were separated by sex, though some women occasionally felt unsafe at night with male visitors and in the toilets. At another university, the presence of shared bathrooms was identified as being unsafe.

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**TS1-A-7**

### Guinea

**Girls and women vulnerable to rape, sexual exploitation and assault in refugee and internally displaced persons (IDP) camps**

(UNHCR and Save the Children-UK, 2002)<sup>7</sup>

Children were found to be subject to widespread sexual violence and exploitation in IDP and refugee camps in the Mano River region. The majority of the children affected were girls from ages 13 to 18 years, as many men noted that younger girls were more desirable as sexual partners and some believed that having sex with a virgin could cleanse a man of an infection.

Girls reported abusers as people in positions of power including UN staff, peacekeepers, NGO workers, government officials, teachers, refugee leaders and people from the commercial sector.

Factors that contributed to exploitation included: poverty, lack of livelihood options and consequent inability to meet basic survival needs; insufficient supplies and rations; issues related to the management of humanitarian aid; and pressure from peers and parents.

Sexual violence was also committed in areas including:

- Around the camps, such as by streams where children were sent to wash their clothes and kitchen utensils, where children took baths, the bush when children were sent to look for food and firewood
- In toilets and latrines, particularly where male and female latrines were in close proximity.

Children reportedly experienced attempted rape mostly when they went to use the toilets or take a bath. The toilets and bathrooms were all located in the same place, and divided along gender lines. Children said adult males would lay watch for when a child was going to the toilet. They would then follow the child and try to rape them:

> “Me and my friend went to the toilet and when I got in this man came and tried to sex me. I screamed and he got scared I run away with my friend.”

(Girl in Liberia)
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<tr>
<th>Case Study</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Description</th>
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| TS1-A-8    | India    | Women watched and molested when defecating  
“Until now, we have used open land for defecating – men go on one side and women on the other. People passing by can see women squatting. The day before yesterday, an old woman went out to defecate at seven in the evening and a man came from behind and grabbed her. A few of us generally go together for the toilet. Men hide behind the bushes and watch women when they are squatting. If they see a woman alone, they creep in and molest her.” |
| TS1-A-9    | India    | Nearly 50 per cent of rapes in Bihar occur when women go to undertake open defecation  
(Kumar, M., 2013)  
Senior police official Arvind Pandey from the Indian state of Bihar told the BBC that 400 women would have ‘escaped’ rape in 2012 if they had toilets in their homes. The rapes take place when women go outside to defecate early in the morning and late evening. These ‘sanitation-related’ rapes made up nearly half of the more than 870 cases of rape in Bihar in 2012. ‘Bad boys’ mostly target newlyweds and unmarried girls, as they are more likely to suffer silently:  
“The newlyweds fear divorce, while parents of unmarried girls are worried about their daughter’s marriage prospects.” |
| TS1-A-10   | India    | Girl with disabilities raped in public toilet, a seven-year-old girl raped in a school toilet and a girl raped and murdered when she went to a toilet  
Newspaper articles in India document three reported rapes which were under investigation at the time of writing:  
A girl who is hearing and speech impaired was taken to Chembur area of Mumbai into a public toilet and raped by two assailants. The accused are reported to be living in the area where the girl lives with her parents.  
(Jai Maharashtra News, 2012)  
Hundreds of people took to the streets of Goa to protest against the rape of a seven-year-old girl in the town of Vasco, in a school toilet next door to the Principal’s office.  
(Hui, L. (ed.), 2013)  
A girl was raped and killed when she went to the toilet.  
(National Daily, 2013) |
| TS1-A-11   | Cameroon | Concern in Cameroon for young girls collecting water in the night  
(Thompson, J. et al., 2011)  
Youth expressed their concern for young people being out in the dark, and for the safety of girls in relation to sexual abuse and harassment:  
“Some children remain out of the home into the ‘unholy hours’ of the night just to fetch water. These children, who most often are young girls, are exposed to vices such as rape.” |
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<th>Case Study ID</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Description</th>
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| TS1-A-12     | Democratic Republic of the Congo | Rape when fetching water, collecting wood or doing laundry (Kircher, S., 2007) \(^\text{14}\) 
Assault and attack risks are not well documented. Women walking some distance alone or in small groups can be targets of attacks by humans and wild animals. For example, large proportions of rape victims in Eastern Congo described being attacked when fetching water or wood or doing laundry away from the household. |
| TS1-A-13     | Kenya    | Women’s role as caretakers and in collecting water and firewood makes them vulnerable (ActionAid, 2013) \(^\text{15}\) 
“Women are many a times the breadwinners of the family. Even the water goes off the taps for days and they have to keep looking for water and it is a point of vulnerability. When the girls go to fetch firewood, they are attacked and violated.” (Elderly male in Mombasa, Kenya) |
| TS1-A-14     | South Africa | Schoolgirls frightened to use school toilets due to sexual attacks (Abrahams, N. et al., 2006) \(^\text{16}\) 
Schoolgirls in South Africa also reported a fear of using sanitation facilities due to sexual attacks in school toilets located far from the school building, as well as avoiding schools during menstruation. |
| TS1-A-15     | Tanzania | Children reported that some sexual violence occurred when they were collecting water (UNICEF, 2011) \(^\text{17}\) 
In order to better understand the context of sexual violence, females and males were asked to describe what was happening right before the sexual violence occurred. Most often both females and males reported that nothing specific was going on (54.8 per cent and 45.8 per cent, respectively). Respondents, however, did cite some common situations. Specific situations that females cited, but where there was insufficient information to produce national estimates, included farming or collecting water or firewood (18 of 294 females) and working or shopping (13 of 294 females). For males they noted that they were farming or collecting water or firewood (11 of 194 males). But because the survey did not ask respondents whether a specific situation occurred and many respondents cited no particular situation, the prevalence of these situations occurring before sexual violence are most likely underestimated. |
| TS1-A-16     | Guinea   | Aid workers ask girls for sex in exchange for employment (UNHCR and Save the Children-UK, 2002) \(^\text{18}\) 
It was reported that agency workers asked girls for sex in exchange for employment, and continued to demand sexual favours even after the girls were employed. The girls said they were reminded that the salary they earned was payment for sexual favours: 
“No girl will get a job in this camp without getting sex with NGOs workers.” (Agency workers in Guinea) |
Toolset 1  Case studies – Violence, gender and WASH

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<th>TS1-A-17</th>
<th>Uganda</th>
<th>Transactional sex for sanitary pads</th>
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<td></td>
<td>(McNeil, D.G., 2010)¹⁹</td>
<td>Much sex is what social scientists call ‘transactional’. Young women from all but the wealthiest families are under constant pressure to trade sex for high-school tuition, for grades, for food for their siblings, even for bus fare. Ms ‘Atwongyeire described a poor girl who “found a sugar daddy”, because she needed sanitary pads so her classmates would not tease her.</td>
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<tr>
<th>TS1-A-18</th>
<th>South Africa, Zambia</th>
<th>Refugee and returnee children’s experiences of violence when accessing WASH services</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(UNHCR, 2006)²⁰</td>
<td>In 2005, UNHCR conducted a qualitative study with refugee and returnee children to explore their perceptions and experiences of violence in Angola, South Africa and Zambia. Included in the themes examined were the activities that the children do in the camp, the forms of violence that children witness or experience themselves, the protection strategies they employ, and suggestions they have for preventing and responding to sexual and GBV. The findings from this study were submitted to the UN Secretary-General’s Study on Violence against Children. Given the positive response to the initial study, a second phase of participatory assessments was planned for the UNHCR operations in Southern Africa. Phase 2 participatory assessments were undertaken in Botswana, Malawi and Mozambique.</td>
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<td><strong>South Africa:</strong></td>
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<td>School toilets are especially dangerous. All the girls in the younger group agreed that they did not use the toilets at school; they waited until they got home, as they were terrified of being raped. The violence in the toilets seems to be perpetrated by older boys in the school and by outsiders, and it includes the rape of boys as well as girls.</td>
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<td>“Sometimes they rape the children in the toilet. A boy rapes a boy in the toilet. A big boy rapes a small boy in the toilet. Usually it is after school.” (Boys 10–12)</td>
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<td>“In our school men from outside hide themselves in the toilet and they come and catch you and rape you and you will go to the school crying. The other girl in my class [nine years old] had this happen to her. She was standing alone just after school. They raped her in the toilets.” …“They took her out our school because she couldn’t do anything [any work at school]. When her mommy sends her to the shops, she said no she is scared and she doesn’t want to be left in the house either.” (Girls 10–12)</td>
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<td><strong>Zambia:</strong></td>
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<td>Girls and boys of all age groups told stories of rape.</td>
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<td>“[Places that are not safe for girls include] … when a girl goes to the fields alone, for firewood collection alone, and sometimes when they go for water fetching”.</td>
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</table>
Sexual assaults on women when using toilets in camps in Haiti

(Amnesty International, 2011)\(^{21}\)

Gender-based violence is one of the most serious protection issues facing displaced women and girls. Experience has also shown that the risks of gender-based violence faced by displaced women and girls living in camps increases over time, because of the disruption of family order, protection and coping mechanisms combined with the loss of income and livelihoods. However, according to international experts on situations of internal displacement, protection remains one of the most neglected areas in humanitarian responses and planning. Lack of respect for human rights and entrenched discrimination against women are among the factors that help create an environment in which gender-based violence is more likely. Another key factor in increasing the risk of such violence is the failure to bring those responsible for attacks to justice. In Haiti, those committing these crimes know that the chances of their being brought to justice are slim to non-existent. The prevailing impunity for violence against women is a symptom of the long-term failings of Haiti’s justice and law enforcement systems in making the protection of women and girls and investigation and prosecution of these crimes a priority.

Women interviewed by Amnesty International identified the following factors as those increasing the risks of gender-based violence in the camps:

- The lack of security and policing inside the camps and the inadequate response by police officers to victims of rape;
- The lack of lighting at night;
- Insecure and inadequate shelters – tents, tarps and sometimes just blankets and sheets – available to displaced people;
- Inadequate toilets/latrines and washing facilities in and around the camps;
- The breakdown of law and order, with armed gangs carrying out attacks in the camps with total impunity;
- Overcrowding in the camps;
- The lack of access to any means of earning a living or generating income;
- The unequal distribution of humanitarian and emergency aid between and within camps;
- The lack of protective measures for survivors of sexual violence, putting them at risk of revictimisation; and
- The lack of information about the concrete steps a survivor of sexual violence needs to follow to report the crime to the police and the judiciary.

The following are two case studies where women have been raped when using toilets:

“One day, I went to the toilet. It was between 7pm and 8pm. A boy came after me and opened the door to the toilet. He gagged me with his hand and did what he wanted to do. After he finished he left and I cried and cried… It was a Friday night, in March… The boy was 16 or 17 years old. I didn’t know him and I didn’t see him again afterwards… He hit me. He punched me. After it happened, I went to see my mum and we looked for him but we couldn’t find him. My mother took me to the hospital the next day… I don’t know why he attacked me… My abdomen aches all the time. I didn’t go to the police because I don’t know the boy… it wouldn’t help. He doesn’t live in that neighbourhood…

After that happened to me, I told my mum that I didn’t like this country and that I wanted to live abroad, but I don’t have a passport or a visa… I don’t like to eat because after what happened I feel really sad all the time… I’m afraid it will happen again.” A 14 year old girl lives with her parents in a makeshift camp for displaced people in Carrefour Feuilles, south-west of Port-au-Prince. “At around 9pm on 3 May, I left my tent to go to the toilet [one of the plastic portable toilets near the Presidential Palace]. While I was in the toilet, the door opened – there was no catch to lock the door. At first I thought it was the wind, but in fact it was a man who opened the door. It was dark. There were two men: one came into the toilet, the other stayed outside as lookout. I tried to fight the man who came in but he pulled a knife and pressed it into my groin.
After he'd raped me, he ran away. I called out for help immediately and a police car patrolling the area stopped. I explained to the police officers what had happened. They asked me where the attackers were, but when I told them they had run away, the officers told me there was nothing they could do. A member of the Commission of Women Victims for Victims (KOFAVIV) came with me to the Doctors Without Borders hospital the next day. I didn’t go back to the police because they would not do anything for me.”

A 39 year old’s lack of confidence in the police is borne of experience. Just 48 hours after the earthquake that killed her husband and destroyed her home, Josette was raped. She told Amnesty International: “Three men pulled out their guns and grabbed me. They took me to a tent on the square in front of Palais de Justice. They beat and raped me. Then they just dumped me in the street. I went to Cafeteria Police Station that same night to report the rape and file a complaint. The police officer on duty asked me for money to buy fuel for the police car, but he did not write anything down on paper!”. A 39 year old woman living under a tarpaulin with her four children in a camp for displaced people in Champ-de-Mars, Port-au-Prince. She used to earn a living as a street vendor in down-town Port-au-Prince, but after the earthquake all her merchandise was looted.

**TS1-A-20**  
Liberia

**Insufficient lighting and close proximity of male and female bathhouses in IDP camp increase the likelihood of sexual violence**

(Ward, J. and M. Marsh, 2006)22

A risk assessment carried out in 2004 in seven IDP camps in Montserrado County in Liberia concluded that overcrowded conditions, insufficient lighting at night, the close proximity of male and female latrines and bathhouses, and poor or unequal access to resources all conspired to increase the likelihood of sexual violence against women and girls.
**TS1-B – Psychological violence**  
(harassment, ‘eve-baiting’ and bullying, which can lead to fear, stress, shame)

### Themes from the case studies in this section:

- Women and girls are subject to sexual harassment, assault and abuse in public service sites, as these are poorly designed and maintained.
- Women and children may be frightened to collect water from certain waterpoints due to fear of harassment or fights.
- Waterpoints near places where men gather (mosques, community leader’s houses etc.) are of particular concern.
- Lack of household toilets places more challenges on women and girls than men and boys, as it is felt that men and boys can go anywhere and men also sometimes get the opportunity to use toilets at work. By contrast, it is considered shameful for women to be seen going to the toilet.
- Poor design and location of toilets in the workplace can lead to harassment or may prevent women from using them.
- Men and boys can sometimes loiter around toilets or look down into toilet blocks, such as in urban areas where the block is not roofed.
- Pregnant women are particularly affected by concerns over using public toilets at night when the toilets are some distance from their accommodation.
- Women face shame and a range of practical challenges related to managing their menstrual period.
- Where gender-segregated bathing facilities do not exist, men bathing at waterpoints can lead to harassment when women and children collect water.
- A lack of access to water can lead to fights, and domestic violence in the family where the wife is beaten by the husband.
- Adolescent girls are particularly vulnerable to harassment and violence.
- Those who are most vulnerable include adolescent girls and young women who are or have been unaccompanied or separated from their parents. Also vulnerable are those who are or have been: out of school; living alone; living with a ‘foster family’; young mothers; who have a disability; domestic workers; trafficked into domestic and other labour; and trafficked into sex work.
- A lack of lighting increases risk of fear, harassment and assaults.
- Women who participate in WASH-related activities as the only female might face rumours of sexual misconduct just because they were the only woman present.
- In some contexts it is not seen as culturally appropriate for women to build up a rapport with male superiors, and similarly support of female staff by male colleagues can be portrayed negatively. It can be considered inappropriate for male staff to show interest in the advancement of competent female staff. Accusations and rumours of sexual liaisons can result.
- If women are in a minority in the workplace, then they can find themselves being marginalised, left out of discussions and having their views undermined.
- Women who support women’s rights or push for gender equity can themselves face a backlash of abuse.
TS1-B-1  
**India**  
**Sexual harassment when using public toilets**  
(Women in Cities International, Jagori and the International Research Development Centre, 2011)\(^{23}\)

Women and girls are subject to sexual harassment, assault and abuse in public service sites, as these are poorly designed and maintained. Boys and men stare, peep, hang out and harass women and girls in nearby toilet complexes. Women and girls are afraid of collecting at certain waterpoints due to hostile and unsafe environments. Poor drainage and piles of solid waste narrow paths and lead to increased incidents of boys/men brushing past women/girls when walking along them.

TS1-B-2  
**Afghanistan**  
**Women police officers face harassment from colleagues when using toilets**  
(Graham-Harrison, E., 2013)\(^{24}\)

“When women are often targeted by predatory colleagues while using shared toilets in isolated corners of stations”, said an international adviser to the police force.

“These facilities that women do have access to often have peepholes or doors which don’t lock. Women have to go in pairs. Toilets are a site of harassment.”

The lack of basic facilities is just one part of a wider culture of disrespect that discourages prospective police officers. It also has wider, societal implications, because without female officers, there are concerns there may not be much progress on promises to tackle rampant violence against women.

TS1-B-3  
**Tanzania**  
**Woman faces rumours on her sexual conduct when attending a training**  
(House, S., 2013)\(^{25}\)

A woman and a man were selected from a rural village to attend a training on manual drilling in a neighbouring district. The woman attended the training and participated fully. She was the only woman to take part, and when she returned to her village she had to face unpleasant rumours that she had had sexual relations with men while she was away.

TS1-B-4  
**Afghanistan**  
**Challenges to the employment and retention of women staff as identified in the National Solidarity Programme in Afghanistan**  
(Azarbaijani-Moghaddam, S., no date, and House, S., 2013)\(^{26}\)

This example highlights learning from the National Solidarity Programme (NSP) in Afghanistan, which was one of the largest programmes in Afghanistan contributing to the WASH sector. The experiences of women under this programme are similar to women working in the sector on other programmes or with other organisations.

Interviewees highlighted the following issues as factors contributing to difficulties employing and retaining competent female staff on the NSP:

- Not all partners provide attractive salaries for female staff, and this can act as a deterrent. Women feel that they are underpaid and overworked in comparison to male counterparts.

- Local perceptions of women working in offices are still negative. The Department of Women’s Affairs (DoWA) head in Nangarhar explained that some men think that women have only been employed in offices for their use and pleasure. The Afghanistan Independent Human Rights Commission is recording cases of sexual harassment and assault in government and non-government offices.
...continued

- Even for partners with the best intentions, women still have difficulty accessing office equipment and transport facilities.
- Women are disadvantaged by the local culture, as their building up a rapport with male superiors and support for female staff by male colleagues can be portrayed negatively. Similarly, it is considered inappropriate for male staff to show an interest in the advancement of competent female staff.
- Families put pressure on women not to work, and many women still have the burden of housework in addition to their responsibilities in the office. Women cannot work if they do not have family support, especially from husbands who may help with housework and childcare. Some women cannot work because of lack of childcare facilities.
- Female staff should be allowed and encouraged to participate and inform themselves about the projects and activities of an organisation. Office layouts, e.g. putting women in small offices away from spaces where the main decision-making and management takes place, may marginalise female staff at work.
- Lack of respect and interest shown by male staff in the work of female colleagues can be discouraging.
- Sometimes female staff will be hired, but discouraged from voicing opinions or trying to achieve goals. They are ‘window dressing’.

The above factors contribute to a demoralising environment for women, and pose challenges to the retention of women in the sector. The following diagram highlights the potential impacts of low involvement of women in the WASH sector in Afghanistan, as summarised in House, S., 2013.

**Figure – Potential impacts of low involvement of women in the WASH sector in Afghanistan**

Sarah House / UNICEF Afghanistan
Cambodia

Vulnerabilities to violence related to water, sanitation and hygiene for women who work in garment factories

(Taylor, A., 2011)28

Research by Action Aid on combating violence against women in public cities investigated the safety of garment workers in Cambodia, including in relation to their water, sanitation and hygiene facilities. Findings are summarised below:

The urban space was very gender-imbalanced in that up to 90 per cent of garment factory workers are women, while the vast majority of perpetrators of violence as well as factory owners and individuals responsible for factors affecting women’s safety, are men. Women experienced rape and other forms of violence, in addition to a range of infrastructural and service deficits such as extremely poor hygiene, inadequate lighting and policing, and overcrowding in rental areas.

The distance from rental rooms to toilets was between 30 to 100 metres, and there were no lights along the way to toilets. Women were therefore afraid to use the toilets at night, because they feared rape and other forms of violence. As one woman said,

“The lights are always turned off at 9:00pm and I am afraid to go to toilet at night time, because there are some men who are not good hanging around near the toilet.”

Moreover, since most bathrooms were located outside of rental rooms, women reported that they did not have privacy or safety to bathe at night. The main lights were located in front of the factories, with smaller lights near each rental space. During the safety walk, women identified specific spaces and distances, and highlighted areas that were especially unsafe, dark and poorly lit. Pregnant women were described as most affected by the distances to toilets and bathroom facilities.

Unions and NGOs said that the number of clean toilets within the factories was inadequate, and that there was a lack of clean water and soap. Moreover, some toilets lacked lighting and had broken doors, denying women privacy. Women reported long waiting lines. One woman worker stated:

“I don’t want to go to the toilet as I have to spend a lot of time wait[ing for] other people. Sometimes I have to wait [up to] half an hour.”

In the rental rooms, there were frequent sewage blockages. During the focus group discussion women reported that there were many people using the toilets and that they were not cleaned. A house owner implied that women workers were at fault, commenting that the women did not clean the toilets properly. Water drainage and sewage were also poor, which was particularly problematic for women who lived in rooms near toilets that were not maintained. During the rainy season, sewage pipelines became blocked and could flood rental rooms for periods of 3 to 4 hours. In some areas, flooding during the rainy season lasted from 8 to 12 hours, requiring water to be pumped out.

See: http://www.actionaid.org/publications/women-and-city-examining-gender-impact-violence-and-urbanisation. The video that can be viewed at this link shows violence risks related to the WASH facilities of the women who work in the garment factories (3.22 min). The same video, which is by Action Aid, is included on the accompanying USB in TS2.
### Kenya

**Shame in performing sanitation and hygiene**  
(Amnesty International, 2010)

Residents from Kibera, a large slum community in Kenya, highlighted feelings of shame when undertaking sanitation and hygiene practices because of lack of privacy and threats of violence:

“That we have to suffer shame and indignity when using our [mostly one-roomed] houses, as every time we have to shower you need to tell the kids or adults to leave the house... At times this is not possible – kids or adults leaving the house... So you have to contend with the reality that you have to shower in their presence. Our moral values and culture do not allow this – showering in front of people, especially one's own children.”

“There is the issue of privacy when you have your menstrual periods and your male neighbours and relations are there waiting as you have to use the bathroom or toilet to change and clean-up. Because it is usually a single room latrine/toilet or bathroom, you have to queue often and people are always knocking on the door rushing you.”

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### India

**Women not eating so they don’t need to use a toilet until night time**  

“There is no toilet in this whole area. Men and women from the settlement squat along the road. Women do not go after six in the morning. They wait for the cover of darkness. We even eat less so that we do not need to relieve ourselves during the daytime, because we do not have proper toilets.”

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**Exclusion from toilets and verbal abuse**  
(Bapat, M and I. Agarwal, 2003)

“There were municipal toilets for residents of a chawl (tenement) not far from our slum. They didn’t allow us to use them, saying, ‘...slum people are dirty; they dirty our toilets’. They used to lock the toilets. We would sneak in, pretending to be from the chawl, and if they recognized us they used to swear at us.”

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**Verbal assault and humiliation when collecting water**  

“Men used to wash clothes near the taps and make us wait for a long time before we could fill our handaas [containers]. Men bathing near the taps would soap themselves and deliberately shake their heads vigorously so that the soap lather used to fly all around and fall in the water as we filled our handaas. They used to say all kinds of vulgar things to us. It was so humiliating! We would ask them to move aside and let us fill our handaas, but they never listened. In order to avoid having to face this, I used to go much further to another housing area to get water.”

“We have to fill up drinking water in one of the buildings around here. This we must do stealthily. If anyone allows us to fill the water, the others shout at that person.”
TS1-B-10  Anxiety and feeling tense about being able to use toilets
India  (Bapat, M. and I. Agarwal, 2003)\textsuperscript{33}

“I live in Kamgar Putala slum. Our settlement is on the bank of the river. We used to have very few toilets. I was very anxious and tense about going to the toilet. There used to be very long queues, sometimes 20 or 30 women in front of you. If you have diarrhoea, it is impossible to hold back. That is why the problem of toilets always made me tense. If you went to the toilet very early in the morning, there would be a slightly shorter queue. If you were late, then it took a long wait.”

TS1-B-11  Perception of women’s safety in urban areas, Mumbai
India  (Jagori and UN Women, 2011)\textsuperscript{34}

Forty-four per cent of women, 40 per cent of men and 43.2 per cent of common witnesses\textsuperscript{35} find the lack of clean and safe public toilets to be a major hindrance in the way of women access public spaces. Women respondents complained about the absence of safe, clean spaces more than men and common witnesses.

The study interviewed 3,816 women, 944 men and 250 common witnesses.

Figure – Percentage distribution of factors that contribute to women feeling unsafe

Figure – Percentage distribution of forms of sexual harassment faced by women, by occupational category
Figure – Percentage distribution of specific public spaces women have faced sexual harassment/assaults in the past year

Notes:
- The reports by men and common witnesses were where they had seen women sexually harassed or assaulted in the past year;
- In the final graph, the percentage of women who had experienced sexual harassment/assaults in the past year (or men or common witnesses reported that they had seen the same) related to public toilets were: 4.2 per cent (women); 1.4 per cent (men); and 5.5 per cent (common witnesses).

It is useful to note that there is a significant difference in the perception of violence related to public toilets and what was actually reported/experienced or seen in the previous year. Around 40 per cent of women/men/common witnesses (people who have seen others being affected by violence) noted that a lack of clean and safe public toilets contributed to women feeling unsafe; but in the past year 4.2 percent (women); 1.4 percent (men); and 5.5 percent (common witnesses) had faced or seen women face sexual harassment or assault in the past year in public toilets.

TS1-B-12  
Ethiopia  

**Water scarcity causes stresses, opportunity costs, quarrels and shame**  
(Stevenson, E.G.J, 2012)

Women in Ethiopia reported the following stresses related to water scarcity:

**Direct stresses of water collection** – The sun and dust during the day, the cold during the night; the risk of accident/assault/rape en route to the water source; lengthy queues at the water source.

**Opportunity costs of water collection** – Constrained time for other family responsibilities (e.g. cleaning, cooking, breastfeeding, planting/harvesting); constrained time for communal events (e.g. weddings, funerals); sleep deprivation; children missing school to help with water collecting (especially girls).

**Relationships with husbands and neighbours** – Domestic disputes over time use; domestic violence: “If he can’t wash his face and feet, he will beat me”; disagreements over priority in access to water: “We fight each other in the water queue”; ‘Loans’ of water to/from neighbours; accusations of theft of water by neighbours; avoidance: “We are becoming aloof with people”.

**Shame** – Shame at appearing unclean to others: “When our children go to school, we send them with dirty faces”; shame at wearing soiled clothes; shame at being unable to fulfil normal expectations of hospitality (e.g. offering drinking water to guests).
The study provides percentage data for the number of women (from a total of 324) who had experienced particular stresses in the past 30 days. Examples included: quarrelled with husband over not completing housework (18.4 per cent); quarrelled with neighbour over issues related to water stress (11.5 per cent); slept very few hours because of having to go out to collect water (34.3 per cent); and went to sleep thirsty (12.7 per cent).

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<tr>
<th>TS1-B-13</th>
<th>Somali girls’ perceptions of safety in refugee camps in Ethiopia... fear of harassment and attack by “hyenas, lions, snakes... and men”</th>
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<tr>
<td>Ethiopia</td>
<td>(Women’s Refugee Commission, 2012)³⁷</td>
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<td>A study of the perceptions of adolescent youth in a refugee camp in Ethiopia found the following challenges to the safety of adolescent girls:</td>
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<td><strong>Girls lack opportunities and support in the camps</strong> – to safely develop their social networks, participate in community activities, move about the camps freely to build their social and economic assets, and to meet their needs and those of other children, disabled parents or elderly family members who may depend on them.</td>
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<td><strong>Girls of all ages have experienced and are at risk of GBV</strong> – including sexual harassment, verbal and psychological abuse, female genital mutilation, rape, abduction, early and forced marriage, early pregnancy, exploitative domestic work, labour trafficking and sex trafficking. Girls also sometimes used transactional sex to obtain items – such as food, income, clothes, medication and transportation – to meet basic needs.</td>
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<td><strong>Girls identified specific profiles of girls who are disproportionately at risk</strong> – and who have access to the least social and economic support. These profiles include adolescent girls and young women who are or have been unaccompanied or separated from their parents, as well as those who are or have been: out of school; living alone; living with a ‘foster family’; young mothers; those who have a disability; domestic workers; those who have been trafficked into domestic and other labour; and those trafficked into sex work.</td>
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<td></td>
<td><strong>Girls feel safe almost nowhere, while boys feel safe mostly everywhere</strong> – Girls said that insecure shelters and lack of lighting at night leave them feeling like “easy prey to anyone who wishes to do them harm”. Boys said they feel safe mostly everywhere and at all times of the day and night in the camps. By contrast, girls said they feel safe almost nowhere or at any time, especially at night. Girls said they fear – and many have faced – all forms of verbal, psychological, physical and sexual violence during the day and night. During the day, they fear harassment and attack by “hyenas, lions, snakes... and men”, particularly when collecting water and firewood.</td>
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<td><strong>Location of harassment</strong> – Girls consistently indicated in the safety mapping exercise that waterpoints near mosques and on sports fields are concentrated sites of repeated harassment and abuse by men and boys, who gather in these areas. Girls said they try to walk in groups for greater safety, but that they cannot always do so.</td>
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### Fear and anger – women’s perceptions of vulnerabilities to sexual violence linked to water and sanitation in Delhi

**(Lennon, S., 2011)**

The dominant theme that reverberated through the women’s words in the focus group discussions in two urban resettlement areas, was that of fear. Their main fear was of sexual violence, both to themselves and to female relatives. Women were fearful of sexual violence when using public toilets, when defecating in the open and in public spaces in general. In all localities, women felt that going out during both the day and night was dangerous.

**“During (the) night we are in constant fear.”**

Many incidents of rape are said to have happened in all localities. In Bhalswa, a woman said it was common to be physically assaulted and raped. Women in both Bhalswa and Sunder Nagri reported specific incidents of girls under ten being raped while on their way to use a public toilet. The toilets themselves were associated with fear in Sunder Nagri and New Seemapuri. In both slums, boys were said to loiter around the toilets at night. In Sunder Nagri there were cases of boys hiding in the cubicles at night waiting to rape those who entered. Women were also scared of drug addicts, who were said to hide in the toilets at night. When women in New Seemapuri went to defecate in the open at night, they reported boys shamelessly staring at them, making threats, throwing bricks and stabbing them.

**“… if we shout, they will kill us. They stab and then run away.”**

In Bhalswa, women and girls faced lewd remarks, physical gestures and rape when they relieved themselves in the bushes. Some women in Sunder Nagri had attempted to build toilets in their homes due to such fears.

**“It is very common over here to be physically assaulted, and raped.”**

Fear of not obtaining sufficient clean water was another daily problem, followed by fear of having to negotiate the squalor of their streets and toilets. Furthermore, when women from all slums went to collect water they feared there would not be any water or enough of it to go around.

**“At night we have to go to the gutters and we feel afraid.”**

Women felt angry that they lacked control over their situation and lacked protection from those who were supposed to safeguard them – their local government and the police. Women told stories describing the lack of legislative and judicial protection. Women were angry with local politicians, who they perceived to be corrupt and unsupportive. In Sunder Nagri, a woman was angry that a shop was issued a licence to sell alcohol, thereby exacerbating the existing problem of drunken, aggressive men.

**“We don’t have any support from law-makers, from police, from the public, from our husbands and family members. Where will we go?”**

In New Seemapuri, the women said government officials were incompetent and not interested in protecting their health or safety (feelings echoed by the women in Bhalswa, who also referred to issues of corruption). They described existing infrastructure as poorly designed and maintained, as well as a lack of infrastructure. They had unsuccessfully resubmitted applications for improved water and sewage facilities to their local government official. Their toilets were falling apart and they feared the walls would collapse.

**“Many men who do such things are not caught.”**

Additionally, the women said that the police did not respond to emergencies or take action afterwards. These women were hesitant to share stories for fear of reprisal, as perpetrators of crimes were said to make death threats to their victims and their families stop them from going to the police.

**“We have had one-on-one fights with thugs in order to save our daughters from getting raped. It then becomes a fight that either you (the thug) kill me to get to my daughter or you back off.”**

She questioned why God had put them in this situation: **“Why has he landed us in this hell?”**
The following box shows a map indicating the sense of danger felt by women in their vicinity. See the key below indicating where incidents of violence had occurred in the previous two years.

**Figure – Map showing sense of danger felt by women in urban spaces**

The map shows an overall sense of danger and risk felt by the women.

Although not all incidents referred to were associated with lack of water and sanitation facilities, defecating in the open was frequently associated with sexual violence against women.

The community toilet blocks were not mentioned as dangerous in themselves by this particular group of women but the routes to the toilet blocks were associated with sexual violence.

**Incidents taking place at each numbered location within the last two years:**

1. Sexual harassment occurs (vocal and physical).
2. Sexual harassment (vocal and physical); a lady was abducted, raped and murdered; men shine lights on women when they defecate in the open and on other occasions men hide by the sewers to watch them. One woman, while defecating, was raped and murdered.
3. Sexual harassment and rape in the bushes and depressions in the land; chains are snatched from women’s necks; men hide and tease passing girls and men peep inside the girls’ toilets.
4. Girls face sexual harassment on the way to school; groups of men tease or abuse passing girls.
5. Sexual harassment.
6. Women face sexual harassment when defecating in the open.
7. An old woman was forced to drink alcohol before being murdered.
8. Sexual harassment; late at night women face many problems such as robbery.
9. A four year old girl was run over and killed by an auto-rickshaw driver.
10. Many incidents have happened here, including rapes.
Insecurity and shame, the impact of the lack of sanitation on women in the slums of Kampala, Uganda

(Massey, K., 2011)39

Women in slums in Kampala, Uganda, discussed the problems they face due to lack of or poor sanitation, and identified the different impacts on women and men.

Toilet facilities lack things such as rubbish bins for the disposal of used menstrual pads or water for washing. Coupled with poor maintenance, these factors resulted in facilities that were dirty, disgusting and demoralising to use. Women also reported that the toilets were often locked at night, meaning that anyone needing to use the toilet would be forced to resort to other options – such as using buckets or plastic bags as makeshift toilets inside their homes.

The women felt that they were at risk of physical violence when travelling to a latrine after dark. Women reported fear of being outside of their homes after nightfall, due to what they perceived to be a high probability of attack and rape. This concern was a strong and consistent theme throughout the study population.

“There are two main difficulties for women when it comes to toilets in our community. The first one is money, and the second is that at night men can easily rape and murder us.”

While investigating the actual incidence of attack and rape was beyond the scope of this study, the possibility of it occurring was clearly a very real threat in the minds of the participants, strong enough to discourage women from leaving their homes during the night. The women also reported that it was not uncommon for potential assailants to hide inside the latrines, particularly after dark. This possibility added to the women’s fear of using communal latrines after nightfall.

“A woman would not feel safe walking to the toilet. Men rape women from there at night. The most dangerous time is the night.”

The combination of disgust with current facilities, prohibitive cost and fear of illness or attack strongly discouraged women from using the few latrines available in their communities. As an alternative, study participants reported a wide use of what they termed ‘home toilets’ – buckets or plastic bags used as toilets inside the home. However, this solution carried with it its own set of consequences, central to which was a deep sense of shame. This sense of shame came from two sources, the first of which was related to culture. The natural universal need to keep defecation private was added to by a need for absolute secrecy, whereby even being seen going to use a communal latrine was embarrassing; having to defecate inside the home was similarly humiliating.

“When somebody knows that you defecate in the house, your household is hated and people do not want to visit because they cannot eat or drink anything from that household.”

The women also reported a sense of shame in relation to the use of home toilets, because they felt that they ‘dirtied’ their homes when they defecated inside them and exposed their families and neighbours to disease. This sense of shame produced an interesting coping mechanism. Even though it was common knowledge that home toilets were widely used, a façade of secrecy surrounding the behaviour was constructed and carefully maintained. This behaviour was isolating, preventing women from openly discussing the impacts of inadequate sanitation on their lives and community. The sense of shame extended to menstruation, the presence and management of which was also expected to be kept secret. Unfortunately, this was almost impossible to accomplish with the existing sanitation facilities.

“It’s a secret and even shameful for others to know that you are having your period.”

Additionally, study participants spoke of shame as a consequence of rape, explaining that a victim of rape was unlikely to report the crime due to the stigma associated with the event.

“He can even rape you, but you do not talk due to fear of being shamed. You just keep quiet.”

... continued on next page
In general, women in the study felt that inadequate sanitation put a greater burden on them than on men. It is the women who are responsible for managing scant household finances, meaning that they have to decide whether to spend money on toilets for their family or to resort to other options such as ‘home toilets’. Men were more likely to leave the community for work during the day, and thus potentially had access to more or better toilets. The women also felt that men needed less privacy, as a woman required a toilet both to urinate and to defecate while a man could urinate in the open without any sort of negative stigma. This meant that men needed the use of a toilet less, and so were not faced as often with the problem of high latrine user fees or with the grim prospect of using a dirty communal latrine.

“The toilets are far from our homes and by the time you get there it is too late. A man can just go anywhere to pass urine, but a woman has to walk all the way to the toilets.”

Study participants expressed their feeling that a man would be more able to resist an attack, making them less vulnerable than a woman when travelling within the community after nightfall. In addition, women felt that they were at greater risk than men because they were not just in danger of being attacked and robbed, but also of being raped.

“It is more dangerous for a woman than a man because an attacker can take money from you and rape you, and there are so many risks from rape, you see, like AIDS and other things. But a man will only be robbed of money.”

In relation to the issue of violence, women reported little confidence in the willingness of the police, either to protect them from attackers or to take incidents of attack and rape seriously. Also discussed was the low likelihood that a fellow community member would come to the rescue of a woman who was being attacked. Essentially, the women felt as though they were without a defender. They felt helpless.

“The girl really shouted, ‘Please help me! Please save me!’ But no one was coming out, because you can come out and bump into trouble. That’s the kind of situation we are in.”

**TS1-B-16**

**General**

**Abuse when collecting water from private wells**

(Shah, A., 2002 in Sorenson, S.B., 2011)\(^{40}\)

Women sometimes face abusive treatment when they need to fetch water from private wells on the land of wealthier farmers.
Initial increase in GBV against women and women human rights defenders before longer-term reduction in GBV risks

(Department for International Development; MacDonald, M. et al., 1999; House, S., 2005)\(^41\)

Experience across countries has demonstrated the potential for the threat and reality of violence increases when gender norms are called into question, and when women have a greater sense of their entitlement to safety. In particular, there can be resistance or backlash against women organising at the community level, because they pose a direct challenge to the status quo.

Women human rights defenders and women’s rights organisations, in particular, might face direct threats of violence as a result of their activism in support of women survivors and their efforts to prevent violence against women and girls.

Negativity towards gender activists

As the gender debate often provokes heated discussion, there can be a lack of interest in becoming the champion or person who is seen to be pushing forward the debate. Becoming this person can often mean receiving the negativity that appears to be integral to the raising of this subject.

Talking about gender inevitably reminds us at some level of our own – usually uneasy – position on the gendered power scale, and the double binds involved in analysing that position and acting accordingly. We need to realise that the extreme reaction of ‘political correctness’ or defensive dismissal of gender issues highlight the emotional risk to which people feel exposed when discussing power relations of which they are part.

Threat of attack and rape when using the bush to bathe or using communal WASH facilities in refugee or internally displaced persons camps

(Hayden, T., 2012)\(^42\)

The threat of attack and rape is also an important issue. Some women said that they do not go to the bush to bathe as it is too risky; other comments highlight the risk of attack in and around the communal toilet facilities, especially at night. With adequate facilities the risk of sexual violence reduces, as women/girls do not need to use the bush or facilities after dark to manage their needs where they are easy targets for sexual abuse.

Women are also restricted in using sanitation facilities due to financial constraints. In some camps, local landowners and government agencies charge for use of sanitation and water facilities. Women have to prioritise resources for the family’s survival, and use of toilet facilities is seen as a lower priority behind water, food and shelter.

There was a considerable amount of discussion related to the quality and quantity of toilets among the groups. The main consensus in all the camps was that toilet and washing facilities were not adequate to support the menstrual hygiene management (MHM) needs of women. Toilets are often broken and/or located in areas that are not safe or have poor access. It was also stated that there is insufficient room within the toilet to conduct washing and drying of reusable sanitary items, or even adequate room for changing. Disposal was another issue identified by women in the groups: disposable pads and worn out pieces of cloth are discarded on top of rubbish piles or placed in sanitary facilities, making the facilities unusable.
Women, sanitation and security in Nigeria

(Globescan and WaterAid, 2012)43

WaterAid commissioned this study of women in Nigeria relating to access to sanitation and levels of concern around violence and intimidation towards women in this context.

The research was undertaken in October 2012 using purposive sampling among a sample of 500 female adults aged 18–54 years. Face-to-face interviews were conducted in the urban slums of Ajegunle, Ijora Badia, Oko Agbon and Otto-Oyingbo, in and around Lagos.

The following graph shows the facilities commonly used by the women interviewed:

Figure – Facilities commonly used for defecation

Women noted that they feel unsafe when using communal facilities. Seventy-seven per cent reported feeling unsafe when using public facilities, in contrast to toilets in their own homes where only 19 per cent felt unsafe.

The following graph indicates how the women reported feeling more unsafe when using public toilet facilities than when at local markets or on public transport:
Other lessons from the research:

- Despite not feeling secure when using public facilities, fewer than one in ten women report incidents of actual harassment and abuse.
- In cases where harassment is reported, the majority consists of verbally abusive statements.
- Non-physical abuse is the second most common form of harassment. When asked to comment on this, some women reported incidents of having their privacy violated by men.
- Eight per cent reported physical abuse, but few of these chose to comment on their experiences.

### Violence in schools and fear of using school toilets

The following examples highlight the levels of violence found in schools in a number of contexts, and examples of fear and abuse associated with use of school toilets.

#### Example 1 – Violence in schools in 12 countries:

(ActionAid, 2004)\textsuperscript{44}

ActionAid undertook a study in 12 countries in Africa and Asia of the violence that girls encounter in and around schools and on the way to school. They concluded that much violence against girls goes unreported and the scale of the problem has been underestimated.

What is the impact of violence against girls?

ActionAid’s initial research has found that violence against girls takes place in schools, on the way to school and around schools, and that the violence itself takes many forms. It includes sexual violence, sexual harassment, intimidation, teasing and the threat of violence.

In Uganda, in a group of 203 respondents, 65 per cent said that: “The main form of gender violence for girls is sexual violence.”

In South Africa, Human Rights Watch found that: “South African girls face the threat of multiple forms of violence at school. This includes rape, sexual abuse, and sexualised touching or emotional abuse in the form of threats of violence. Girls also encounter constant highly sexualised verbal degradation in the school environment.”

The impact of the violence is immeasurable and includes loss of self-esteem, depression, anger, risk of suicide, unwanted pregnancy, HIV infection and fear of victimisation. Combinations of these factors cause many girls to drop out of school.
Who is affected?

ActionAid found that violence affects all girls regardless of age, race, class, caste or location: “Violence against girls... is not limited to a specific age group. According to project officers working in the area of education and child protection... every girl is at risk of being violated”. (Kenya)

However, in all countries the problem peaks in adolescent girls. For example, in Pakistan the peak age for sexual violence against girls was between 12 and 18.

The studies also show how poverty, war and conflict expose girls to sexual violence and exploitation, as well as other abuses: “Girls became pregnant because there was no food and money during the war here in Bundibugyo. Our parents would tell us that we are the ones to feed the family so we would go to soldiers in the camp and get money to buy food”. (Uganda)

Girls are also very vulnerable when they have to walk long distances to school, particularly in rural and poor urban areas. In Pakistan, girls in secondary school become more vulnerable because secondary schools are few and situated far from villages. In rural areas of India, girls who have to walk long distances to school are at risk of kidnap and trafficking.

Case study

A case study included in this report related to exploitation by a male teacher while using the bathroom. In Uganda, one female student gave testimony about how a male teacher abused his powers and exploited female student’s sexually: “[A male teacher made female students] wash his feet, take water to the bathroom for him, but sometimes he would be naked and ask you to help him as a man”. (Female student, focus group discussion, Kawempe, Kampala, Uganda)

Example 2 – Violence against girls in schools, Ethiopia:

(B&M Development Consultants PLC, 2008)\(^{45}\)

Save the Children undertook a detailed study in Ethiopia on violence against girls in primary schools and its impact on their education. One of the specific recommendations from this report is ‘to make sure that schools have separate toilets for girls and that the toilets are not located in a remote part of the school compound’.

The report does not discuss where violence happens within a school, rather focusing on whether it happens in school, on the way to school or at home. This data has been included here to provide a picture of the general levels of violence experienced by girls in and on the way to school.

A range of violence was investigated in relation to sexual abuse and violence, including seduction, sexual harassment and rape/attempted rape. These figures relate to the school environment, on the way to school and at home:

- The most common type of violence experienced by girls involves the use of verbal abuse by members of the school community aimed at undermining their self esteem. The level of this type as experienced by the interviewed girls varied from 3 per cent to 29 per cent across different national regional states.
- The second most frequent type of violence experienced by girls involved the touching of their private parts. This varied from between 0 and 29 per cent across the various national regional states.
- The third highest was punishment for refusing sexual requests.
- The fourth was uninvited kissing.
- Also ranked high was attempted rape – which varied from 0 to 15 per cent across the national regional states.
- Actual rape was reported by 7 per cent of girls from the Somali region, 6 per ccent from Afar and 6 per cent from Gambella. No girls from Benishangul Gumuz, Harari or Addis reported experiencing actual rape.
The report notes (p.29) that only the first of the above can be linked to the school setting, but it later gives data that indicates otherwise (p.31–32):

- Twenty-four per cent of students, 53 per cent of teachers and 35 per cent of parents reported that sexual harassment occurs in the school setting.

- Thirty-six per cent of students, 77 per cent of teachers and 54 per cent of parents believed that on the way to and from school is the place that sexual harassment against schoolgirls takes place.

- Different members of society perpetrated sexual harassment against school girls. These included members of the school community with whom they interact frequently (school boys, teachers, administrators, guards, counselling officers). This group often sexually harassed school girls in and around schools, though they also had opportunities to continue their harassment on the way to and from school. Sexual harassment in school by students included making indecent or provocative remarks or writing letter as an expression of interest.

- Some key informants interviewed indicated that acts of sexual harassment by teachers included asking girls for a date, touching their body parts, giving persistent remarks on physical appearance and body size (body attractiveness, fat, boring), threatening by marks (i.e., some teachers threatened girls with low marks if they refused a date). FGD participants indicated that teachers sexually harassed school girls by giving low marks if she refused a sexual request of a teacher. According to the discussants, most teachers – particularly the young ones – looked for young school girls. In one case, a seventh grade school girl who refused to have sexual intercourse with a teacher was made to fail in all subjects. She used to be one of the students with an outstanding academic performance, but unfortunately she then lost interest and discontinued her schooling. Even teachers who were married and highly respected by students sometimes participated in the sexual harassment of school girls.

- Student respondents were asked if they ever encountered sexual assault or rape in school (8 per cent said yes), on the way to and from school (23 per cent) and at home (15 per cent). The school environment appeared to be relatively safer for school girls compared to on the way to and from school and at home. It would appear that the home is not as safe for the school girls as the school, implying that school girls are more vulnerable to rape and sexual assault at home than in school. Comparison of student responses with those of parents and teachers also showed similar patterns; however, these two groups’ (especially teachers) assessment of the risk of sexual assault and rape were found to be higher, as both were asked about their perceptions, not actual sexual assault and rape.

- To gather data on rape actually experienced, female students were asked if they ever encountered rape in school, on the way to and from school or at home. Of those who were asked, 19 (2.5 per cent) admitted that they actually had experienced rape in different settings. Most rape cases occurred in and around schools. School girls within the 10–19 age group were most affected.

- However, there appeared to be a major difference in how incidents of rape were perceived in the different regions and the concrete experiences reported by the girls. For example, the highest percentage of reported rape by girls was found in Somalia, although the perceived rate of incidence was relatively low. On the other hand no concrete experiences of rape were reported by girls in Benshangul-Gumuz and Dire Dawa, but attempted rapes were reported to be high. The perceptions of rape were high in both regions. In Addis Ababa, where the perception of rape was also high, there were no reported cases by the girls – neither of attempted nor actual rape incidents.

Example 3 – Primary school girls fear to use toilets in schools, Afghanistan

(Gawade, V., 2010)16

Girl children in primary grades feared that somebody would kidnap them from latrines or poison them in latrines. Children preferred to have latrines near their classrooms. They preferred to go to the latrine in pairs. Such feelings had their history in kidnappings in Afghanistan. Such fears were observed in those schools, where latrines were located in corners.
Example 4 – Fear over attack on the journey to and from school and where there are no toilets

(Parkes, J. And J. Heslop, 2011)\textsuperscript{47}

The journey to school was often seen as unsafe, with girls in Mozambique saying that roads were not safe, and girls in Ghana referring to the risk of being attacked on the way to the bore hole, and especially when going to the toilet where they were concerned that men might grab them and force them to have sex. Girls in Kenya also spoke of the dangers of being attacked by men and boys when they go to the toilet, and of the risks of sexual attack. Often incidents involving school boys happened outside school, and girls, particularly in Kenya, spoke about their vulnerability when having to go to the toilet in the bush or on the walk home:

“Sometimes girls are grabbed by boys and taken to the bushes. I don’t know what they do to them. Sometimes boys touch the breasts of Std 6 girls” (9-year-old girl, Kenya)

“One day a boy approached me from the back and touched my breasts. This happens to other girls in school and in the village. Sometimes they touch other girls’ buttocks and thighs on our way to school. They hide in the bush and scare us, sometimes they also approach us and we run away” (13-year-old girl, Kenya)

Girls in Kenya and Ghana talked of the risk of wild animals on the journey to school, snakes in Ghana and lions and buffaloes in Kenya. In Kenya they feared attack by bandits in the area, though parents felt this risk had subsided in recent times. In Ghana, a legacy of tension between the two local ethnic groups was viewed occasionally as generating mistrust. Parents in Kenya and Ghana also feared for their daughters’ safety in the bush, either on long journeys to school or when the lack of toilets meant they had to go to the bush to relieve themselves.

Example 5 – Rape of girls in schools, South Africa

The following references highlight sexual violence in South Africa including in schools. Where other studies have been referred to please refer to the document referenced below for further details.

5A - Human Rights Watch Report – ‘Scared to go to School; Sexual violence against girls in South African schools’ (2001)\textsuperscript{48}

This report provides a detailed qualitative overview of the scale of sexual violence in schools in South Africa.

Human Rights Watch found that sexual abuse and harassment of girls by both teachers and other students is widespread in South Africa. In each of the three provinces visited, we documented cases of rape, assault, and sexual harassment of girls committed by both teachers and male students. Girls who encountered sexual violence at school were raped in school toilets, in empty classrooms and hallways, and in hostels and dormitories. Girls were also fondled, subjected to aggressive sexual advances, and verbally degraded at school. We found that girls from all levels of society and among all ethnic groups are affected by sexual violence at school.

Human Rights Watch found that sexual violence has a profoundly destabilizing effect on the education of girl children. All the rape survivors Human Rights Watch interviewed reported that their school performance suffered. All of the girls told us it was harder to concentrate on their work after their assaults. Some girls reported losing interest in school altogether, many girls transferred to new schools, others simply left school entirely.

Human Rights Watch learned that sexual assault occurs in prestigious predominantly white schools, in impoverished predominantly black township schools, in schools for the learning disabled, and even in primary schools. Privilege often does not protect a girl against sexual violence, while poverty may render her more vulnerable to assault.
South African girls face the threat of multiple forms of violence at school. This includes rape, sexual abuse, and sexualized touching or emotional abuse in the form of threats of violence. Girls also encounter constant highly sexualized verbal degradation in the school environment. These forms of gender violence are largely committed by other students, and in some instances by teachers or other school employees. Even strangers to the school environment target young women in schools, or on their way to and from school.

Girls have been attacked in school toilet facilities, in empty classrooms and hallways, in hostel rooms and dormitories, and in other “no go” areas on school grounds, which girls repeatedly described to us as virtually any place. Sexual assaults were often attempted during class breaks and recess activity times. Human Rights Watch found that boys who commit acts of sexual violence against girls rarely act alone. All of the girls we interviewed who were raped or sexually assaulted by their male classmates said that they had been attacked by two or more boys. We learned of only one case of rape at school committed by a student acting alone.

Nine-year-old LB was raped in the school toilets at her primary school in Guguletu, a township near Cape Town, by two students aged twelve and fourteen in March 2000. She was on her way to the girls’ toilet when the two boys intercepted her and took turns raping her in the boys’ toilet.

5B – Women’s Legal Centre Communication to the Commission on the Status of Women on Women in South Africa (no date)⁴⁹

Amnesty International found, when interviewing in relation to the 2008 report on rural women and HIV, that the majority of the women interviewed had experienced, witnessed or were aware of incidents of violence in the home or rapes occurring in the wider community, including in schools or while en route to school, or on farms.

The South African Human Rights Commission concluded after hearings on school based violence in 2006 that schools were “the most likely place where children would become the victims of crime, including crimes of sexual violence”. 2008 statistics reveal that a young girl born in South Africa has a greater chance of being raped than learning how to read.

5C – Hirschowitz, R et al - Quantitative research findings on rape in South Africa. Pretoria: Statistics South Africa⁵⁰

This study documents a range of studies which provide statistics on rape in South Africa, both larger and smaller studies. Those of particular relevance to schools include:

- Victims of Crime Survey, 1998 (4,000 respondents):
  - Younger women, aged 16 to 25 years, tend to be most vulnerable to rape (2.7% of all women in this age category said that they had been raped in the five years prior to the interview of March 1998, compared to 1.8% of women aged 26 and 45 years during this time period), although rape occurs in all age groups; and
  - 2% of the rapes were reported to have occurred in school/college/university.

- South African Police statistics on the incidence of rape in 1996 -
  - Approximately 40% of all reported rape cases are rape of children under the age of 18 years (120 per 100,000 population in 1996).

- South African Demographic and Health Survey, 1998 (using a survey for women of ages 15 to 49 years, total 12,327 women selected with 11,735 interviewed)
  - Nationally 4% reported having been ever raped at some stage during their lives (N=471);
  - 65.6% did not specify their relationship with their attacker; and
  - Among the women who specified a relationship with their attacker (N= 162), 19.8% said the perpetrators were strangers of recent acquaintances, 37.7% said they were their school teachers or principals and 29.6% said the perpetrator was a relative or someone close to them.
...continued

- Rape surveillance data through district surgeon offices in Johannesburg, 1996-1998:
  - Most rape incidents where victims came to the medico-legal centres took place in open
    spaces or alleys. Close to 43% of total rapes occurred within the home, of which 29.1%
    took place at the rapists home. Other places include hotel rooms, public toilets and
    transport terminals.

Refer also to the following studies for further information on fear or experiences of violence
related to school latrines:

- TS1-A- 6, 10, 14, 18
- TS1-D- 7, 10

TS1-B-21
Afghanistan

Experiences of children collecting water and their assessment of the most dangerous
places, Kabul

(de Berry, J. et al., 2003)51

Experiences of children collecting water in Kabul

The lack of infrastructure and the physical destruction in Kabul makes children’s daily tasks
and journeys dangerous and complicated. They are less well able to fulfil their responsibilities
because the physical environment hinders them. For example, the shortage of water increases
the time and travel children have to put into fetching water. Children’s seventh most commonly
stated ‘Sad Day’ story was one concerning the difficulties of fetching water, which is hard for
children in Kabul because they have to walk a long way to get it and because they have to
cross dangerous and damaged places or busy roads to reach water sources and then, often,
the water sources are not working. When children are responsible for helping sustain their
families by getting water, facing problems in fetching it can be of huge concern for them and
make them feel they are failing their families.

Most dangerous places as assessed by children, Kabul

A children’s mapping activity resulted in a list of 37 most frequently drawn places of danger.
Numbers 11, 12, 16 and 17 related to waterpoints and rivers, and number 18 was toilets.
TS1-C – Physical violence (beating, fighting which can lead to injury, death)

Themes from the case studies in this section:

- Physical violence may occur in the household due to arguments over the availability of water, or when women or children return home late from collecting water.
- Physical fights can occur at waterpoints, particularly where long queues have developed.
- Sometimes physical fighting can result in damage to WASH services infrastructure.
- Adults, both women and men, can prevent children from collecting water before them at waterpoints, and may beat the children in the process.
- Children can also sometimes be verbally abusive to adults and the caretaker when collecting water.
- Fear of being robbed may prevent people using public facilities during the night, but also sometimes during the day.
- Physical fighting can occur between people of different livelihood bases – for example, pastoralists and farmers over access to water and land.
- Women who take on what are perceived to be traditionally male roles may be vulnerable to harassment, and also in some cases physical violence.
- Women and children, who are usually allocated the role for water collection, can be particularly vulnerable to accidents and physical injury when collecting water over rugged terrain or when defecating near roads or railway tracks.
- Activists supporting the rights of the poorest people to access gender-friendly WASH services have sometimes faced physical violence or threats of physical violence.

TS1-C-1  
Pacific Islands

Domestic violence due to water collection requests

(Willetts, J. et al., 2010)52

When women requested assistance from their husbands to fetch water, often such requests were refused and at times men responded with violence:

“My wife used to tell me to get some water. I would say it’s too much work and I would get angry, we would fight and I would hit her.”

TS1-C-2  
Zambia

Violence against a woman technician and domestic violence

(House, S, 1998 and House, S., 2014)53

A woman who was a team leader on a large food-for-work project in an urban infrastructure programme in Zambia (roads, drainage, toilets, solid waste management) was badly beaten when she returned home late from work. Another was promoted to a paid position of assistant technician. She was very badly beaten by a male candidate, who applied for the same post and was unhappy that a woman had got the job over him.

(continued on the next page)
The following text provides further information on the second incident from the perspective of a young female engineer working on the project at the time:

“I was working as an implementation and training engineer on my first development-related assignment when these instances of violence occurred, and I was at the time unaware of issues related to gender and the impacts that these issues had on the women and men who worked on the project or how I should be considering them in my work. The incidents led to a steep learning curve.”

“We were supporting large workforces on a food-for-work urban-upgrading programme. This involved thousands of people from the townships, the large majority of whom were women, working for food for half-days, five days a week, to clean up their living environments and improve the infrastructure. The workforces were divided into gangs, each with a gang-leader, and then each group of gangs supervised by a senior gang-leader. Several senior gang-leaders were then supervised by a number of technicians, and then by engineers in a pyramidal structure. All technicians and all but two engineers were men. At one point in the programme, it was decided to appoint an additional level paid post. This was the assistant technician-level post and we invited applicants from the general workforce, and particularly from those working at the senior gang-leader level currently working on food-for-work.”

“For one of the posts, three people were interviewed. Two were men and one woman, all working at senior gang-leader level. The woman was clearly the strongest candidate, and highly respected by both the women she supervised and the programme staff alike. She was appointed to the post.”

“One day some months into her new post, I arrived in the township where she was working and came across colleagues and workforce members looking highly concerned. The day before she had been attacked by one of the men who had also applied for her post. He had taken her into the community centre and locked the door, and proceeded to kick and beat her head in. It was a very serious attack and, had a female community development worker not broken down the door, we believe she may have been killed. During the night that followed, she disappeared and no one was able to find her – hence the high level of concern as to what had happened to her.”

“As the engineer responsible for the site and for employing the female technician, I was also highly concerned and went to try and find her. My mind was jumping all over the place because of what had happened to her, concerned – as was everyone else – that maybe she was lying dead in a field somewhere. I was also questioning myself, whether I had been wrong to employ her. Had I by default been responsible for the beating she had received and, if she died, for her death, because I had employed a woman to undertake a job that traditionally in many cultures is still undertaken by men?”

“As I approached her one-room mud brick house, two of her six children, who must have only been around three or four at the time, were standing with tears falling down their faces – not having seen their mother all night and knowing that she had been badly hurt. As I walked up to the house, their mother turned up with her head and face all battered and swollen, hardly being able to see through her eyes. I said something to her that in hindsight was very inappropriate, but it is what came out of my mouth on the shock of seeing her, and it led to one of the most important lessons in my life and career and hence my, and the female assistant technician’s, willingness to document and share this incident.”

“After an initial exclamation of shock, I asked her if she wished that she hadn’t been given the job? She looked me in the eye, raised her voice and said: ‘How dare you ask me that! Especially you! I got this job on the basis of my ability and that man was wrong in what he did. I am a widow. What would my children have done if I had died?’”

“And she was so right! In the confusion of the moment I had started to wonder if I had nearly killed her, because I had wanted to impose my beliefs on women and men having an equal right to jobs and opportunities in life, and that men and women can both be good at such jobs. I wondered if I had imposed a Western [way of] thinking on a society that was not ready and hence my guilt in this incident. But what I had not understood, and had not considered... continued
... continued until she responded to me, was that women all over the world are already fighting hard for their rights on a daily basis. We may not always be able to see these efforts, but many women and men are regularly struggling for and pushing forward changes in gender relations all of the time. It is our duty to listen to the people we are supporting, and to support them in the way they want to live their lives and go forward – and not limit their decisions by our own limitations. I also learnt that, as an engineer, ... I did not know enough about the complex environment in which I was working, and that the violence by this man was due to power differences between men and women. I learnt that, as an engineer, it was very important for me to learn about gender and other equity-related issues – so I could make sure [the] programmes I support would be more effective and equitable, and would not increase vulnerabilities to violence by my lack of understanding, and that other technical staff needed to understand the same.”

“As we were standing by her house talking, the wife of the man who beat her came to plead with her to not put him in jail, as then how would she and her children eat? This also highlighted how complex violence is [and] ... how many people it affects.”

“I took the assistant technician to the hospital to be checked out and also to the police station. The police in Zambia did not have many vehicles, so I had to pick up the policeman with his gun and take him and the assistant technician back to the township to identify the perpetrator. He was arrested, and I then had to drive the whole group back to the police station. I had not been trained in what to do to respond to violence when it occurred, so could only act on the basis of my own humanity at that time. [However, I am] now very happy to have this new toolkit, which provides some of the ‘dos and don’ts’ – so that if anyone else is faced with a similar incident they will be clearer on what they should and should not do.”

“The assistant technician went on to continue her post. ...[In] later years after I had left the programme, she was given a post with the International Labour Office and became a paid supervisor on a major rural road construction project and she and her family moved into a concrete house with multiple rooms with water and electricity. She told me that after a long time waiting for the case against the man who attacked her [to come to court], the case in the end did not progress to a charge, although I am not clear why. But ... she said she was satisfied, because the man who perpetrated the attack from that point onwards was always very respectful of her and she faced no more problems with him.”
| **TS1-C-3** | **Risk of being injured or killed by trains and other vehicles**  
**India**  
(Bapat, M. and I. Agarwal, 2003)\(^{54}\)  
Residents of urban slums near roads or railways lines in India noted:  
“In Govandi, we used the railway tracks as toilets. We used to go between midnight and four in the morning, because at other times there were people around. Men would go in the daytime also, but women could not do that. We sat between railway tracks and, if a train came, we used to jump onto the other track. There were frequent accidents and, every week or so, someone used to get hit by a train and got killed on the tracks. So many times we used to find pieces of flesh outside our doors.”  
“There is no open area nearby where we can go for defecating. So people go and squat along the highway. And there have been many accidents because of that.”  
“There used to be lots of fights for filling water. We had to queue for as long as an hour and we had to leave our children behind. Once, my small daughter walked out of the house and sat on the railway track. I saw a train approaching as I walked back with water. I threw the handaa down and ran towards my daughter. I managed to pick her up just before the train roared past.” |
| **TS1-C-4** | **Fights at waterpoints where water volumes are inadequate**  
**India**  
(Bapat, M. and I. Agarwal, 2003)\(^{55}\)  
“We have public standposts in the settlement, but the water is available for only two to three hours a day. In such a short period of time, it is not possible for all of us to fill water. There is always a long queue and frequent fights. Women come to blows, because some try to fill many handaas or jump the queue. Those who do not get their turn before the water is turned off have to walk 20 to 30 minutes to fetch water.” |
| **TS1-C-5** | **Girl crushed by the wheel of a water tanker when collecting water**  
**India**  
(Bapat, M. and I. Agarwal, 2003)\(^{56}\)  
“When the tanker comes there is a scramble for water. There is always a big commotion. We had an awful accident two years ago. A young girl got crushed under the wheel of the tanker as she hurried to get her turn to fill the water before the tanker came to a halt.” |
| **TS1-C-6** | **Risks from road transport and poor terrain**  
**General**  
(Sorenson, S.B. et al., 2011)\(^{57}\)  
Road casualties are an important risk. Transportation infrastructure is poor in developing countries, especially in rural areas. Fetching water often involves walking on poorly designed and chaotic roadways (often the only place to walk), with pedestrians sharing the roadways with vehicles and cyclists. Injuries and death can result: more than 90 per cent of the world’s roadway fatalities occur in low- and middle-income countries, and a substantial portion are pedestrians and other vulnerable road users (WHO, 2009).  
In addition, the condition of the terrain can require sustained vigilance. For example, when carrying water over very uneven, steep hillides, falling is always a risk. Where there is a road, water fetchers will use it despite being at risk from vehicles. Post-disaster (landslide, tsunami, earthquake etc.) areas pose numerous challenges to water fetchers, whether they are walking or cycling.
**TS1-C-7**

**Tanzania**

**Conflicts over water between agriculturalists and pastoralists**

(WaterAid, 2003)

When water, land control and access issues become serious they can lead to conflict. In Kiteto these conflicts have even led to the occasional fatality. In one situation there was a problem of a water source that bordered Kiteto and another district. This large body of water had been used for many years by farming communities in one district and pastoralist communities in Kiteto. Slowly the agricultural community started to move into and farm the area of land in Kiteto previously used by the pastoralists. At first the pastoralists did not react, as in Tanzania people are free to live anywhere. But after the problem became more serious and large areas of land were taken, they asked the authorities to stop the invasion of their land. At this point the agriculturalists tried to stop the pastoralists using the water source for their cattle and a violent conflict started. Police forces and district officials from both districts were mobilised to help solve the problem. However, before it could be resolved, women were raped, one person and a number of cattle were killed, and court cases led to some people being put in jail. The people needing to use this water source still remain vulnerable. Water is the difference between life and death, and between poverty and economic development. It is therefore worth fighting for and this makes it a precious, but sensitive, commodity to work with.

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**TS1-C-8**

**Uganda**

**Health problems, deaths, verbal attacks and fighting while collecting water**

(Asaba, R.B. et al., 2013)

A study on the burden of water collection on women, men and children in rural Uganda identified a number of implications for the health, life and well-being of community members. These included:

- **Health problems** – Particularly chest pains, reported most frequently by women and female youths; also fatigue and headaches among children and youth. Nasal bleeding was reported, as well as back pain and spinal problems, although these were reported less frequently than chest pains, fatigue and headaches.

- **Deaths and accidental injuries** – These occurred around unimproved water sources in particular. There were cases of children drowning at open wells or in ponds in the villages of Makondo, Wajjinja and Kiganjo; one of these (Kiganjo) happened when data for the study was being collected. The victim from Wajjinja Village slipped when trying to retrieve a 5l jerry can that had slipped out of her hand into the middle of the open pond when she was filling it up.

- **Verbal attacks** – Children sometimes exchanged socially or culturally unappealing language of vulgar words, which made adults in their presence uncomfortable. Many of the child participants, particularly girls, admitted that boys insulted them a lot while queuing and drawing water from the waterpoints. There were also a few incidents of verbal attacks between adults and children, including one on a caretaker of the shallow well in Misaana Village, who was verbally attacked by a young girl of about ten years when he tried to caution her about misusing the pump.

- **Fighting** – Sometimes children’s playing at waterpoints (particularly improved waterpoints) degenerated into verbal exchanges, quarrels or physical fights. In one of the sessions, a boy and a girl tussled with each other because the boy wanted to overtake the girl in the queue. Some respondents revealed that their children sometimes returned from the protected spring and pumps with minor cuts or swellings on their hands or various parts of their heads or faces.

>

“Our children fight a lot at the protected spring and many times they do not tell us. Sometimes they fight with each other and get seriously hurt... A child may sustain a swollen ear or cheek and keep quiet. It is only when he/she gets worse after a day or two that he/she informs us of the injury and that he/she is sick. When you ask him/her what happened, he/she says, so and so beat me when we were collecting water at the protected spring...”

(Men’s focus group discussion [FGD], Makondo Village)

- **Rape and attempted rape** – There were reports of both rape and attempted rape against women and children.

- **Animal attacks** – There were also risks of animal attacks, particularly at unimproved water sources, such as from ‘big snakes’, as well as concerns over blood-sucking leeches.
<table>
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<th>Case Study</th>
<th>Location</th>
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| TS1-C-9    | Cameroon | Quarrelling or fighting at tapstands, leading to infrastructure damage (Thompson, J et al, 2011)<sup>60</sup>  
When water is flowing at particular standpipes, there are long line-ups as women and children bring a great number of containers for household use, as well as for income-generating activities. People get frustrated about long waiting times, which sometimes produces tension or conflict among the waiting people including quarrelling or fighting. Sometimes fighting at the taps causes damage to the infrastructure – taps and pipes are broken as water collectors scuffle for access. |
| TS1-C-10   | India    | No water sources available for people living on the streets (Bapat, M. and I. Agarwal, 2003)<sup>61</sup>  
People who are living on the streets in Mumbai described how they struggle to find water from any source possible, as there was no provision for people who live on the streets; however they were sometimes refused. Sometimes there have been fights at taps. |
| TS1-C-11   | Pakistan | Murder of water and sanitation crusader and head of the Orangi Project (BBC, 2013; International Resource Centre, 2013)<sup>62</sup>  
Parveen Rehman was killed by four gunmen while travelling in her car near the Western Orangi area of the city. Ms Rehman was head of the Orangi Project, one of Pakistan's most successful non-profit programmes, which helps local communities escape from poverty.  
The BBC's M. Llyas Khan in Pakistan says her death reflects the increased level of violence in the country’s largest city, where scores of people had been killed in 2013 in ethnic, sectarian and criminal violence.  
Ms Reman’s associates say that while she had no enemies, her work on land grabbing and illegal water hydrants in and around Karachi may have angered elements involved in this illegal, multi-million rupee business.  
Ms Rehman had complained in the past that she had received death threats. At one point some armed men stormed her offices and ordered her staff to leave.  
One article<sup>63</sup> noted that the police suspected Tehreek-e-Taliban Pakistan militants of being behind the killing. The Express Tribune reported that Ms Rahman had also worked in a Taliban-controlled area in Karachi. |
| TS1-C-12   | Tanzania | Women too frightened to leave the house to use the toilet (Cavill, S., 2013)<sup>64</sup>  
Women in slum/low-income areas in Dar es Salaam, Tanzania, reported that they were too scared to go to the toilet at night, because of fear of sexual or physical assault. In case no one else could go with them, they keep a potty or a bag in the bedroom. Women also reported that they were too scared to leave the house during the day in case their house was robbed by their neighbours while they were using the toilet. |
Refugee and returnee children’s experiences of violence when accessing WASH services

(UNHCR, 2006)65

In 2005, UNHCR conducted a qualitative study with refugee and returnee children to explore their perceptions and experiences of violence in Angola, South Africa and Zambia. Included in the themes examined were the activities that the children do in the camp, the forms of violence that children witness or experience themselves, the protection strategies they employ, and suggestions they have for preventing and responding to sexual and GBV. The findings from this study were submitted to the UN Secretary-General’s Study on Violence against Children. Given the positive response to the initial study, a second phase of participatory assessments was planned for the UNHCR operations in Southern Africa. Phase 2 participatory assessments were undertaken in Botswana, Malawi and Mozambique.

**Angola:**

“We go with our buckets to the well and the owners of those wells say this is my grandmother’s well and if you try to disagree with them they beat us. We try to go very early but otherwise we wait and wait until they have collected. Yesterday I waited from 05:00 until 12:00. These people live in the area next to us and they say they own the wells because they have been here longer.” (Girls 13–18)

“At the river we are beaten by the owners of the wells, the women. They shout at us: ‘Why didn’t you come with your own wells from Zambia?’ They beat us with hands, but they also beat us with bottles and sticks. Once I went to collect water and they said: ‘You are rude, you are talking as if it is your well’, so I was slapped with hands. The other women had to stop them beating me.” (Girls 13–18)

**Malawi:**

Younger children also described a general lack of respect from adults in the camp. This was often related to water collection and food distribution.

“Someone will say ‘I have to get water before you’ … even if it is your turn to get water, an adult will come and tell you he has to get the water and you denying will result in you being beaten.” (Girls 10–13)

“On the borehole, I have drawn a woman fighting with a child because of water. Me I can say that most of the women think they are more powerful than a child, so if a child wants to fetch water, a woman will say that ‘No, you have found me here; you will not fetch water before I fetch’, and then the woman starts fighting with the child.” (Girls 14–17)
Risks of conflicts over drinking water and water for animals

(Competition for Peace and Unity, 2010; Centre for Policy and Human Development, Kabul University, 2011)

“Many conflicts take place among community members; the families furthest away from waterpoints usually come here to get water, but there is not enough water for all households. This creates conflict, and, once, three people were injured by others with knives because of disputes over water.” 66 (Man interviewed in an IDP camp)

The village of Chenar Gai Payan consisted of 400 households but, because of a water shortage, 200 to 250 households migrated to other places in Afghanistan or to Pakistan. The following is the account of a man from the village about the issue:

“We had one spring in our village, but the upstream village dug a deep well that caused our spring to dry up. We don’t have a well, and now the spring is also dried up. During droughts, people who had money migrated to other places. We remained in the village and, with great difficulty, life goes on. One of our villagers went to the neighbouring village, which is two hours away on foot, to fetch water. He was not given water. He came back and told us. We and several elders went to the neighbouring village. A man from that village said that they do not give water to Taliban and that we should dig our own deep well. At this we all became angry and we almost fought with them, but we could not fight with them because, if we did, they would not give us water the next time. The elders intervened in the dispute and made arrangements that we should pay AFN [afghani] 10 per sheep or AFN 100 per hour for water from the other village. The arrangement did not always work, and sometimes they [the people in the other village] refused to give us water, and we were thus forced to drink the same water our livestock drinks, from the kandas. 67 Our children go to the [neighbouring] village early in the morning and fetch water and then go to school. It takes at least two hours to reach home after fetching water. Sometimes, the children do not want to go for water. They bring three containers of 20 litres in one trip on a donkey, and they go two times a day: once before going to school and then once after school.” 68 (Man from Chenar Gai Payan village)
TS1-D – Socio-cultural violence  
(social ostracism, discrimination, political marginalisation, forced behaviours, shame)

Themes from the case studies in this section:

- Dalit women may face a range of violence when accessing WASH services, including verbal abuse, physical violence and sexual violence, with women from other castes often being the main perpetrators of much of the violence.
- Lack of access to WASH services for marginalised groups can lead to harassment and stigmatisation of children in schools or adults in work over their poor hygiene.
- When water is scarce, the use of water by men for bathing and hygiene is often prioritised before any being available for women or children.
- Domestic servants living in slave-like conditions may be marginalised from accessing WASH services – they may not be able to use the same toilets as their masters, and may not be permitted to participate in community-based hygiene promotion activities or be allocated hygiene-related items when distributions are occurring in humanitarian contexts.
- Traditional norms and stereotypes might deem it shameful, demeaning or ‘unmanly’ for men to collect water.
- Cultural restrictions may mean that women and girls do not feel comfortable using household latrines when the entrance is near to the entrance to the courtyard or is located near to where male members of the family gather.
- A range of taboos and social norms influence what women and girls are allowed to do or not allowed to do during their monthly menstrual period. They may have to sleep outside in the animal shed during their period; they might not use the household latrine due to fear of staining it with blood, leading them to practice open defecation; while some may not wash their bodies for the whole of their menstrual period, leaving them more prone to poor hygiene and infections. Girls are sometimes too embarrassed to stay in school during their periods, because they do not have adequate access to protection materials and facilities.
- People with disabilities may be forced to practice open defecation because public facilities are not designed to be accessible. Otherwise, facilities might be unhygienic making it difficult for someone who has to move across the floor to use them. This puts them at increased risk of violence, or they may try to not eat or drink during the day if they are at school so that they don’t have to use the latrine at school.
- People whose work involves the collection of human excreta from bucket or vault latrines, sometimes known as ‘scavengers’, are often stigmatised and face harassment from other members of the public because of their job, their caste or the smell that is sometimes difficult to get rid of when undertaking the task.
- Refugees, returnees and internally displaced persons may face violence because they are new to an area, and host communities are not happy with them using the water sources they previously used alone or because of their ethnic status, particularly where displacement has happened due to conflict.

TS1-D-1  
Sudan  
Sixteen-year-old girl raped, thrown out of her home, then beaten and arrested by police (Médecins sans Frontières, 2005)

“I am 16 years old. On day, in March 2004, I was collecting firewood for my family when three armed men on camels came and surrounded me. They held me down, tied my hands and raped me one after the other. When I arrived home, I told my family what happened. They threw me out of home and I had to build my own hut away from them. I was engaged to a man and I was so much looking forward to getting married. After I got raped, he did not want to marry me and broke off the engagement because he said that I was now disgraced and spoilt. It is the worst thing for me…”

“When I was eight months pregnant from the rape, the police came to my hut and forced me with their guns to go to the police station. They asked me questions, so I told them that I had
...continued

been raped. They told me that as I was not married, I will deliver this baby illegally. They beat me with a whip on the chest and back and put me in jail. There were other women in jail, who had the same story. During the day, we had to walk to the well four times a day to get the policemen water, clean and cook for them. At night, I was in a small cell with 23 other women. I had no other food than what I could find during my work during the day. And the only water was what I drank at the well. I stayed ten days in jail and now I still have to pay the fine, 20,000 Sudanese Dinars (65 USD) they asked me. My child is now two months old.”

TS1-D-2

Dalit women discriminated against when collecting water and face harassment when defecating

(WaterAid and National Confederation of Dalit Organisations, 2013)

Research was undertaken in 2013 with 10,000 Dalit households across five states. The findings for four of the states are indicated below - Uttar Pradesh, Andhra Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh and Bihar. Selected findings:

- Women from other castes were the most likely perpetrators of discrimination or violence against Dalit women, then same caste men and then other caste men.
- Violence linked to water collection reported varied from abusive language, vulgar moments, sexual harassment, scolding / threats and physical violence.
- Problems faced due to the delay in fetching water include: physical violence by family members; scolding by family members; small children remain at home alone for long periods of time and risk facing accidents.
- Dalit women also face a range of problems by not having toilets in their premises. These include humiliation and insults; sexual harassment; health problems; painful situations during illness, particularly for stomach-related diseases; risk of accidents when defecating on roads or railway tracks; risk of snake and insect bites; risk of attack by wild animals; and difficulties and pain during their menstrual cycle.

The graphs which follow highlight some of the above issues in more detail. Please note that the data below is provisional data for the study which had not been formally published at the time of inclusion in this case study.

![Graph showing percentage of Dalit women facing violence related to water collection and use.](image-url)
Problems faced by women because of open defecation
(the single most important problem)
(WaterAid and National Confederation of Dalit Organisations, 2013; provisional data)

UP = 4,510; AP = 1,175; MP = 1,462; Bihar = 1,480; total = 8,627

Forms of violence faced by Dalit women when they are collecting water
(multiple options allowed)
(WaterAid and National Confederation of Dalit Organisations, provisional data)

UP = 8,879; AP = 1,676; MP = 1,559; Bihar = 1,530; total = 9,644
TS3-D-3 Discrimination against the Roma in Slovenia leads to challenges relating to WASH including bullying of children in school

(Amnesty International, 2011)71

Amnesty International undertook a study specifically looking at the housing and living conditions of the Roma in Slovenia, including their access to water and sanitation facilities. The following highlights the issues they face due to widespread discrimination against Roma communities.

Under Slovenian law, citizens can only obtain access to services if they own or hold other legal claims over the land on which they live, along with requisite planning permission. Due to their lack of security of tenure, many Roma are therefore unable to access even minimum essential levels of water and sanitation. Although a number of municipalities have waived these requirements for informal Roma settlements some, particularly those in southeast Slovenia, have failed to take adequate measures to provide these essential services. Some communities are forced to collect water from petrol stations, cemeteries and polluted streams. Amnesty International found that some people are only able to collect 10–20 litres a day for drinking, bathing and cooking – below the minimum recommended even in humanitarian emergencies. Very few of the settlements are connected to the public sewage system. The main options for residents are to construct outdoor toilets — holes in the ground that are covered with mud when they are full, sheltered by basic wooden structures — or use nearby wooded and other open areas.

The denial of the rights of Romani communities to adequate housing, water and sanitation negatively impacts their rights to education, work and health, and feeds into a cycle of poverty and marginalisation. For instance, in most of the settlements visited while conducting the research, Amnesty International heard frequent reports of Romani children stigmatised as “smelly” and “dirty” by other students in schools. The lack of water and sanitation also particularly affects Romani women, who bear the responsibilities for washing and cleaning children and clothes and struggle to find privacy for their own hygiene and sanitation needs. Following her mission to Slovenia, on 28 May 2010, the UN Independent Expert on human rights obligations related to safe drinking water and sanitation, issued a statement saying:

“The consequences of this lack of access to water and sanitation are devastating for these communities”, and also: “The implications of the lack of access to water and sanitation for hygiene are particularly serious. Many people explained how their children went to school, but eventually dropped out because they were ashamed of not being able to wash and were therefore teased by other schoolchildren about their odour. Similarly, adults faced difficulties in finding work when they had no way of maintaining minimum standards of hygiene. Women face particular issues when they are menstruating, and those interviewed expressed a feeling of shame for the conditions in which they had to practice their menstrual hygiene.”

She also noted:

“The situation is reminiscent of situations I have witnessed in much poorer countries and astonishing to observe in a country where so much has been achieved for the vast majority of the population.”

Romani women and children noted:

“I don’t go to school because I’m dirty and I smell. Other children make fun of me because of that and call me names and that’s why I hate going there.”

(A 12-year-old girl living in the informal Roma settlement Žabjak in Novo mesto, which is without water, electricity and sanitation facilities)

The girl and her family live in the informal Roma-only settlement of Ponova vas in Grosuplje municipality. Twenty-three people live at Ponova vas Roma settlement, which has no water, electricity or sanitation. They moved to this settlement about ten years ago after they had been evicted from the land where they were previously living. The girl told Amnesty International:

“We have to use the water from the stream, which is very dirty. Children vomit and get diarrhoea very often. They don’t allow us to take water from the pipe at the cemetery and at the petrol station – they say that Gypsies should go away.”
The mayor of Grosuplje said that the municipality could not provide the settlement with water, since their dwelling is built illegally on agricultural land. They also have no sanitation facilities.

“My boy, who is 11, is ashamed to be washed in a plastic basin in front of everyone. I cannot wash myself in front of my husband or my sons. If men are not home, we women wash ourselves in the stream. In the winter we can only wash our hair and face. We cannot be naked in front of our children. We go to the toilet behind the house – as far away from the house as possible, to the trench. Children go nearer, especially in the dark, because I’m afraid they would fall into one of the trenches. When we had floods we couldn’t go anywhere since water was all around. In the dark I must take the torchlight to go to the toilet, in the daylight we have to check all the time that there is no one around who could see us.”

A resident of the Roma settlement of Goriča vas in Ribnica Municipality, told Amnesty International:

“We have no water. Every day we have to go fetch water from the nearest gas station, from the cemetery or from the water spring which is three and a half kilometres away. Since it is far away we end up paying more for the petrol than we would pay for the water itself. By the time we get home the water is already too warm to drink. In the summer we go to wash ourselves in the local stream; however the police chase us away. In the winter we don’t wash ourselves, except the face. The stream is frozen and the water we bring from the cemetery or spring has to be saved for drinking and cooking. It is normal that we smell and that people avoid us. How do you think our children feel when they make fun of them in school because they smell?”

Men ridiculed for collecting water

(Uganda)

Adult male involvement in fetching water for household consumption in the parish was uncommon. Traditional norms and stereotypes deemed it shameful, demeaning, ‘unmanly’ and unusual for a man to collect water, especially on a daily basis. Some survey respondents and women in focus group discussions supposed that men who collected water were ridiculed by other men, who urged them to stop or else they risked fetching water in their homes for the rest of their lives. Men also ridiculed other male water fetchers, saying they may had been ‘charmed’ by their partners to be submissive. A female survey respondent from Kanyogoga village alleged: “Some men tell their [male] friends who collect water that you... you must be bewitched, how do you collect water every day as if you do not have a wife?” Also, some female FGD participants alleged that a man who fetched water daily was deemed to be “emotionally unstable”, “having something wrong in his head” or “nearly mad”.

“If a man fetches water every day and yet he has a wife and children, we might suspect that he has something missing in his head; he may be mentally challenged.”

(Female FGD, Makondo Village)
### Taboos and restrictions relating to menstruation

(Various documented in House, S., et al., 2012)

A range of taboos and social norms construct what women and girls are allowed to do or not allowed to do during their monthly menstrual period. The following are examples of social norms which may have negative implications (with approximate percentages of those interviewed who reported that they face the particular restriction), as well as some additional challenges that women with disabilities face in managing their menstruation:

- **Women with disabilities in Tanzania spoke of the challenges they faced when menstruating. Women or girls who cannot stand or see, often have to crawl or sit on dirty latrine seats to change their pads or cloths, which not only makes them dirty and soils their clothes but may also put them at greater risk of infection. They also noted that some ethnic groups in Tanzania have taboos around menstruation. For example, menstruating women – even those who are disabled – may have to sleep on the mud floor, which is resurfaced afterwards.**

- **Women and girls have to sleep separately from family members, sometimes in an outbuilding or animal shed (Nepal, 28 per cent).**

- **Women and girls are not allowed to wash their bodies/shower/bathe during their menstrual cycle (Afghanistan, 70 per cent; Gujarat, India, 98 per cent; Iran, 52 per cent).**

- **Girls miss some time or are absent from school during their menses (Ghana, 95 per cent; Nepal, 53 per cent; Kenya, 53–86 per cent in two different contexts; Afghanistan, 29 per cent; Iran, 15 per cent; Ethiopia, 51 per cent; Malawi, 7 per cent).**

### The impact of social norms – women and girls unable to use latrines in the household

(O’Reilly, K., 2010 in D. Joshi, no date)

O’Reilly (2010; 53–54) describes that complex gender-space relations influence the fact that while having an individual household latrine may eliminate men’s concerns about providing safety for women... for women the need for privacy in public was replaced by the need for privacy at home...; or that the provision of toilets at home did not easily eradicate gendered, social conventions around women’s modesty.

Presenting examples from Rajasthan, O’Reilly explains how a sanitation unit built near the entrance to a family courtyard meant that women did not feel comfortable using it, since such spaces opened to public lanes and were also the spaces for men to congregate when they were at home. In strongly patriarchal cultures, these situations are common – in joint family settings where certain men of the same family group need to be secluded from certain women members, as well as in single family households where local culture demands a social segregation of adolescent daughters and fathers.
| TS1-D-7   | Ethiopia  | Sanitation and menstrual hygiene-related challenges affect school attendance and performance  
|          |          | (WaterAid, 2005)<sup>75</sup>  
|          |          | Female students indicated that they often missed classes during menstruation, because cultural restrictions combined with poor hygiene and lack of privacy prevented them from using the school latrines. Certain ethnic groups may fall back a year or even drop out altogether due to the practice of menstrual isolation. Many girls will not use latrines in the daytime, because they are culturally limited to relieving themselves only during darkness. Female boarding school pupils mentioned their fear of using latrines at night due to poor lighting. All studies show that girls' performance, attendance and retention rates are lower than boys, and poor school sanitation is one of the multiple difficulties that girls have to struggle with.  
|          |          | Gender considerations do not form part of latrine construction or maintenance  
|          |          | In many of the schools studied, the latrines were situated badly, such as close to a public road or to the classrooms, and in the majority of cases doors were missing or broken. Although most schools nominally separate male, female and teachers' facilities, male students often ignore the signs. Concerns about privacy overwhelmingly affect girls and women, but women play no part in the planning or design of school latrines, although they may occasionally provide unskilled labour.  

| TS1-D-8   | India    | Verbal abuse of scavengers and inhumane working conditions  
|          |          | (Sulabh International, 2013)<sup>76</sup>  
|          |          | Scavenging is the practice of manual cleaning of human excreta from service/dry latrines. The scavengers, mostly women, crawl into dry latrines and collect the human excreta with their bare hands. They then carry it as a head-load in a container to dispose of, often with the muck trickling down over the face and body. Passers-by avoid such persons. If a scavenger comes in close proximity, he or she is showered with a hail of abuse. Scavenging is a caste-based and hereditary profession, which is handed down as a legacy from one generation to the next. These people are the most oppressed and suppressed class of Indian society – they are hated, ostracised, vilified and avoided by all other castes and classes.  

| TS1-D-9   | Ghana    | Men's hygiene needs prioritised over those of women or children  
|          |          | (Sorenson, S.B. et al., 2011)<sup>77</sup>  
|          |          | Priorities in water use may be important. Drinking and cooking are the first priorities in domestic water use; water consumption for personal hygiene (for example, handwashing) and sanitation is likely to be sacrificed when the supply is low. Status within the household can affect allocation; for example, in a qualitative study in Ghana, women reported that when water is scarce men have priority for bath water.  
|          |          | Women's health, as well as their dignity and sense of personal worth, can be affected by their experiences while collecting water and, particularly for sanitation-related diseases and illnesses, by the within-household allocation of water itself.  

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<sup>75</sup> WaterAid, 2005

<sup>76</sup> Sulabh International, 2013

<sup>77</sup> Sorenson, S.B. et al., 2011
### TS1-D-10

**Lack of access to girl-friendly WASH facilities leads to them missing school**

*(Emory University and UNICEF, 2013)⁷⁸*

Hygiene education has been identified as one of the factors that affect girls’ drop-out and retention rates. UNICEF Malawi conducted a study more than a decade ago to investigate why girls were dropping out, despite efforts to improve girls’ education (Chimombo, et al., 2000). The report noted that female students ‘need more time and privacy to take care of themselves. This is not always possible if the girls have to queue for the toilet. As a result, girls may get discouraged with the situation at the school and decide to remain home where they are more comfortable, especially during menstruation periods’.

One student in Nkhatabay District shared her challenges in managing menstrual hygiene in school with the current case study, and spoke about spotting on her uniform:

“Other learners had noticed. I felt so ashamed and embarrassed that I could not return to school until my period was over”.

A study conducted in 2011 by Bee, Saneamentu no Ijiene iha Komunidade (BESIK), the Australian Government-funded rural water supply and sanitation programme in Timor-Leste, found that many girls do not attend school during menstruation. The reasons for this were varied, but most were related to a lack of WASH facilities at school; there were often no clean, private or suitable latrines, nor were there places to wash. For girls who use sanitary pads, there was no method for disposal, and for girls who use cloths, there was no water or space for them to wash and dry their cloths. For all girls there was often a lack of private, gender-separated facilities, which led to feelings of insecurity.

### TS1-D-11

**Lack of access to accessible WASH facilities leads to children with disabilities not drinking or eating during the day**

*(Emory University and UNICEF, 2013)⁷⁹*

During the key informant interviews with students with disabilities and their guardians, many students gave examples of restricting their drinking and eating in order to avoid using school facilities. Teachers also spoke of the need to stop class so they could assist students with disabilities to use the latrine, thus disrupting the whole class. Excerpts from the interviews are included below:

“My parents told me to stop drinking water or porridge during the school day, so that I do not need to use the latrine at school. It is dirty and so I will wait to use the latrine when I go home.”

(Student, Grade 6)

“When I need water or to use the latrine at school I ask my brother or a friend.”

(Student, Grade 6)
TS1-D-12  
**Kenya**  

Exclusion from community services due to cost for multiple family members  
(Amnesty International, 2010)  

An Amnesty International study looking into the issues of violence in Kibera, an urban slum in Kenya, identified the cost of services as prohibiting use:

“We [women] are the ones primarily responsible for ensuring that our children and dependants can access these community toilets and facilities… The main hindrances to using them are the costs involved, and the fact that the community toilet facility here closes by 9pm until the next morning at about 6am. How would you afford paying Kshs 5 (US$ 0.064) each and every time a child and yourself use the toilets? Most of us here have at least three or more children and dependants, and can you imagine how much you would spend on toilet use alone…?”

“There is a community toilet run by a co-operative society where I live... However, I am unable to use this toilet because I cannot afford it. One has to pay Kshs 2 (US$ 0.025) every time you use it and you may have to use the toilet so many times. My neighbours and I have no solution, but to use flying toilets [where people defecate into a plastic bag and then throw it out of their compound, often into a public area] as Kiandaa [on the edge of Kibera] is one of the areas where it is rare to find pit latrines – even of poor quality – within the plots…”

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TS1-D-13  
**Tanzania**  

Power and access to water  
(WaterAid, 2003)  

Water is power, particularly where it involves the use or control of money. This is especially true where certain groups in the community, such as women, have limited control over monetary resources. The very poorest may also be excluded due to lack of funds. In the design of one community borehole project, women were to be given domestic water for free and cattle owners had to bring diesel to pump water for their cattle. This was the management strategy designed and agreed by the community representatives at the time. However, this translated into women sometimes being expected to sit for the whole day while a few owners of large cattle herds watered their animals. If at the end of the day, when the cattle had finished drinking, there was water left over then the women were able to take the water for domestic use.

Likewise it was reported in another community that, at the traditional wells, if the women did not reach there by four o’clock in the morning, then the cattle and their owners would arrive and the women would have to stop collecting water and wait until the cattle had finished drinking.

To prevent exclusion, and/or particular groups taking control of a community resource, project staff have to try hard to develop methodologies which are inclusive, and work with the men and women of the different social groups to help them identify and respond to these problems. This is neither easy nor quick work, and both patience and persistence are necessary. Societies do not change overnight, but when difficult issues are faced and the people concerned are given support, positive change can happen. For example, to overcome the problem of women having to wait for their ‘free’ borehole water, the community decided to organise a separate fund, managed by the women, to purchase diesel specifically to pump domestic water.
Refugee and returnee children’s experiences of violence when accessing WASH services (UNHCR, 2006)\textsuperscript{82}

In 2005, UNHCR conducted a qualitative study with refugee and returnee children to explore their perceptions and experiences of violence in Angola, South Africa and Zambia. Included in the themes examined were the activities that the children do in the camp, the forms of violence that children witness or experience themselves, the protection strategies they employ, and suggestions they have for preventing and responding to sexual and GBV. The findings from this study were submitted to the UN Secretary-General’s Study on Violence against Children. Given the positive response to the initial study, a second phase of participatory assessments was planned for the UNHCR operations in Southern Africa. Phase 2 participatory assessments were undertaken in Botswana, Malawi and Mozambique, with workshops planned for Namibia and Zimbabwe in 2007.

Mozambique:

The main problem identified by children in all the groups was fighting (boys’ groups ranked it as the biggest problem and girls ranked it, after rape, as the second biggest issue). The younger children drew many pictures of children fighting, and described how children often fought at the water pump, at school, at the football field and around the camp. The younger boys described the conflict simply as ‘fighting’, but when the younger girls were asked what people said or did they described verbal abuse related to ethnic differences as the main characteristic of the fighting.

“The Congolese they used to tell us at the pump that we don’t have to get water here because we are a Burundian.”

“They can beat us by saying you are Burundian you are bad, go back to your country.”

One older girl described how she and her family collect water at night, because the abuse from neighbours is so bad.

“We draw water when all the people are finished. Me and my father and my family we collect water at night because they chase us away and say you are Tsutsi and you are causing the problems in Congo.” [she cried]

“Yes, there are problems maybe they say you are a Hutu, you killed my family, this is why I had to flee my country because of you people.” (Girls 14–17)
Domestic worker slaves facing multiple challenges to access WASH

(Chuch, P. and S. Carter, 2013)83

The Malian refugee population in Burkina Faso and Mauritania is composed by a variety of ethnic groups such as the Touaregs, Arabs, Peuhls, Bambara and Sonrhais. Their particular social structure includes the existence of a marginalised group that work as domestic servants in conditions of slavery or semi-slavery. This is the case of the ‘Bellas’ among the Touareg and the ‘Haratin’ among the Arabs, the two majority groups in the camps. The question of ‘slavery’ is considered to be a highly ‘sensitive’ issue, and has not been addressed openly by the different humanitarian actors in the camps. These vulnerable groups are therefore not included in the group of persons with special needs by the UNHCR.

The OXFAM programme identified that the slaves/domestic servants face multiple challenges accessing WASH, including some that put them at increased vulnerability to violence. The challenges they faced included:

- That the slaves/domestic servants were not allowed to use the latrines by their ‘masters’, creating a risk of violence for women in particular [who may have to resort to open defecation];
- Distribution of non-food items was not done equitably, and it was hard to reach domestic workers – when items were given to the slaves/domestic workers they would often have to hand them over to their masters;
- Lack of presence of all groups in hygiene-promotion activities [leaving themselves and the family they worked for at more risk of WASH-related diseases]; and
- Lack of information received from domestic workers on their needs, as they did not take part in participatory activities set up for the general community.

Refer to further details including how the programme was adapted in: TS3-B-3

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Women professionals in the WASH sector, South Asia

(SaciWATERs, 2011)84

This study was exploratory in nature, and was undertaken to understand the profiles, numbers and constraints of women water professionals (WWPs) in the South Asia region. This group includes women working in water resources, irrigation and water supply. Most of the women studied were working in water bureaucracy (i.e. in government structures), but some views were also gathered from women working in NGOs and academic groups such as gender water advocates. The following provides a summary of key aspects of the findings.

Low numbers of women working in the water sector – All of the countries (noted in the left hand column) showed a very small number of women working in water in South Asia. With the exception of three departments in India and Bangladesh, the percentage of women in technical posts was not more than 5 per cent. In some departments – like the irrigation department in Maharashtra, India, and Nepal – it was as low as 1.9 and 1.5 per cent respectively, while in Pakistan the percentage of women in technical posts was just 2.3 per cent. In some countries, non-technical experts from the social sciences are not formally employed in the permanent structures of most bureaucracies in the water sector. When they are employed, this does tend to open up more spaces for women in the sector as, in the current scenario, women are more likely to be social scientists than civil or water engineers.

There is a clear glass ceiling – Looking at employment, there were few women working at the more senior levels. No women in any country were found at the chief engineer level and in some countries, including India, no women were found even at the superintending engineer level. In some countries, a few women were found at the superintending engineer level, with a few also at the executive engineer level.

Main constraints determining women’s low participation in the water sector – In discussions with more than 100 WWPs in the region and several focus group discussions with a diverse set of people, the two major constraints that determine women’s low presence in the water sector as professionals are: a) constraints that come from the type of work women do and are expected to do; and b) the related but distinct category of content and structure of engineering science itself.
Challenges in attracting women to engineering studies – Examples of issues that discouraged women from undertaking engineering studies include being told that engineering was a course only suitable for boys, and that it would require site works that a woman cannot do. Women were more likely to take on courses considered to be more ‘feminine’ such as architecture, which has more deskwork than fieldwork. Such courses are seen to better suit women’s biological responsibilities to be a mother and caretaker of children.

Most women engineers and associated technical staff were restricted from undertaking fieldwork and ended up doing deskwork – Of the 100 or so women interviewed across South Asia, a majority of them, especially those from the engineering field, were involved in deskwork of varying kinds. They found this work unchallenging, but agreed that it was a choice that they had made for several reasons beyond their control. The data showed that most of the women in technical posts were either working as sectional engineers or assistant engineers in different departments. Almost all of them felt that their skills were highly underutilised due to the unchallenging nature of their jobs. Most of them were stuck in administrative work and felt that their knowledge and understanding was not being put to good use. In making choices of the kind/type of work they do once in the department, women cited domestic responsibilities as the major reason for not opting for site work. However, this was not always true: some women sought site-related experience early in their careers, but were deliberately kept away from it. This convenient labelling of women never wanting site work was used to keep women away from a rich learning experience, and also away from the corrupt politics of the organisation/sector. A deputy executive engineer said, “There are more women who joined as executive engineers, but they don’t have any work in the department right now. Therefore, they are assigned the tasks like drafting letters, correspondence that has no relation with their education, so most of the new employees are very disappointed with the job”. A deputy engineer shared her experience: “Few years back, I had asked for subdivision office, because I was interested in doing engineering work. But my boss, as well as my colleagues, were very unco-operative. Though my boss gave me an opportunity to work on sites, he told me to go there alone. They were at very interior places and even male engineers used to go in pairs. I had to face so many problems that I finally had to give it up”.

Women excluded from informal decision-making processes after hours – Usually most crucial decisions were taken after office hours. This point was voiced strongly by the assistant engineers in Andhra Pradesh, who said that women found no time to be part of these informal collectives. They were too busy with their household responsibilities and also found it uncomfortable to interact with men in these informal decision-making spaces.

Different expectations of men and women – Several of the young professionals spoke of their struggle to get jobs of their liking, and shared how they were continuously under pressure to prove their mettle without falling prey to various tactics: “If a man is doing something wrong, then nobody tells him so. But similarly if a woman does, there are so many people who point it out. So women are always under pressure if they do anything wrong”. Another contributor noted: “Many times I’m not involved in important decisions just because I’m a woman. If there is some problem in the village and we organise a meeting to solve it, my role is limited to organise the meeting, facilitate people to attend, control the people gathered and start the discussion; in short preparing the groundwork. Later when the decisions are taken, my opinion as an expert is not considered. Then it becomes a male issue”.

Normative behaviour expected of women – Most women, whether engineers or otherwise, enter so-called gender-neutral organisations, and here normative behaviour is expected of them. In Pakistan, for example, women said that they couldn’t shout or laugh loudly in offices, that they should be good looking, smart and well dressed, and caring as well. Politeness is valued. “I was shocked when during the interview one of the members of the interview committee asked me not to apply make-up or dress up the way he thinks unsuitable”. In addition, if a woman is dynamic she is seen to be egoistic and stretching herself too far.

Lack of gender-segregated toilets, facilities for transport and security in the field – In all of the countries, what came out clearly was that basic facilities like clean, separate toilets were missing or in locations that could be a hindrance to their use. Most of the offices continue to be housed in old buildings, which were constructed at a time when it was not conceived
that women could be employed in the water sector. In Pakistan, all of the women employees mentioned a significant lack of facilities for fieldwork for women such as transportation, lodging and boarding facilities. Evidence showed that women themselves have to pay for fuel and transportation, although this is refunded at a later date. Another striking problem that most women face in the field is the lack of security. This was voiced by women from all the countries, but more so in Pakistan and Bangladesh.

**Challenges in taking maternity leave and childcare** – In an office in Pakistan, women were not entitled to maternity leave with pay and it was a herculean task to get approval for leave. In this office, women were not considered to be acting as professionals if they asked for leave for maternity/reproductive health problems or if they refused to work late hours. Most offices do not have childcare facilities. There are no facilities for bringing in infants or for breastfeeding them on the office premises. Such a condition not only affects the mother’s health, but also has an adverse effect on the child. In Bangladesh, of the 32 women interviewed only seven said that their office had daycare.

**Women in leadership** – Most men find it difficult to accept women in leadership roles. They are usually more comfortable in brotherly, fatherly roles with women. Women had a mixed response to women bosses. Some were sensitive to women’s outside responsibilities and allowed for more flexibility in work hours, but some were rigid and refused to budge on the rules. In fact, women said that sometimes male bosses were more considerate in this regard.

**Women need to prove themselves more than men in the same roles** – “As a woman I had to struggle to prove my mettle. Whereas my male colleagues were encouraged to take on new responsibilities, they got more exposure and so they matured faster. They easily get sites, but for me I got it late. There is a protective attitude towards women which is not always positive”. “At office level, I continuously have had to prove myself. The seniors always seek opportunities to find faults. [The] smallest of … mistake[s] is not spared”.

**Other socio-cultural challenges in addition to being female** – Caste is also an important factor for the basis of ill treatment. One of the social scientists said: “I have suffered due to caste discrimination. Some people refuse to accept that I can speak well, write well, so they try to find opportunities to point out my mistakes. One of my male colleagues used to call our driver by my surname, although his surname is different. He meant to convey that Dalits only deserve to be [in] such posts. He used to do such things to humiliate me”.

**Sexual harassment** – Most of the women were not forthcoming when discussing sexual harassment in the work place. Very few women shared their personal experience: they said that they had heard there were problems with other women, but that they themselves had never actually faced this. However, the following examples were shared:

- **In Pakistan**, women were extremely articulate and narrated their experiences regarding men’s behaviour towards them. A majority of women here reported cases of harassment, and some of them left their jobs for that reason: “Yes we are asked by male bosses to dress in a particular way. Whereas my colleagues got more exposure and so they matured faster. They easily get sites, but for me I got it late. There is a protective attitude towards women which is not always positive”. “At office level, I continuously have had to prove myself. The seniors always seek opportunities to find faults. [The] smallest of … mistake[s] is not spared”.

- **In Maharashtra** a woman employee said, “During the Gadgebaba Swatchata Abhiyan (Total Sanitation Programme) one woman sanitation expert had made a complaint to us about the chief executive officer (CEO) of a district who would often call her to his cabin after the office hours. She was on a contractual employment, so was scared to give a written complaint … We sympathised with her, and suggested that she should take a drop until [while] this CEO is in charge, and when he is transferred we will recruit you back. But then she got same work in [a] different district”.

- A community development expert said, “A lot of harassment is done in subtle ways – like transferring a woman to a difficult field area, allocating her tedious tasks not related to her brief”.

- “As I’m the only one who opposes malpractices here, I’ve faced [a] lot of harassment. Some people used to make comments about my character, suggesting I [am having] an affair with a male colleague. That is the most common form of harassment women have to face”.
...continued

- Although there were a few women who said that they experienced sexual innuendos, most women did not recognise subtle forms of sexual harassment. For example one said, “... there were times when comments and remarks were made when we were attired in trousers. This made us feel uncomfortable”. Yet the response of this woman had been to give in to the harassers and stop wearing trousers to office, although she admitted that wearing trousers was easy and safe for her as she had to travel by train.

**Contributions that women bring to the sector** – These were also shared by the women professionals in the study. Examples included:

- The ideal officer was described as not one with technical competence alone, but also one who has the ability to communicate with people and establish a rapport with communities. These are largely the voices of social scientists in the sector, but also increasingly of sensitive women engineers.

- In a focus group discussion in Pakistan, women said, “There are differences in the way men and women think, because they experience different realities based on different types of attitudes they face in society. Women’s interests are usually discounted in their absence in decision-making. Apart from this, women bring [a] different set of values and perspectives to work”.

- In the Sri Lankan experience, women engineers from the Irrigation Department who worked in the field stated that they had the ability to communicate better with both men and women farmers and that they were accepted in the community and at field level. For example, in walk-through surveys women responded better to women engineers than to men, as they could discuss their problems with them. In projects that demand women’s participation in large numbers, such as the community water projects of the Water Supply and Drainage Board, the community actually preferred to have women engineers and technical assistants deal with them.

For a wider variety of experiences and findings refer to the main report.
TS1-E – Cross-cutting case studies

Themes from the case studies in this section:

- Women and girls are frightened to use public services at night, because of fear of harassment or rape.
- Sometimes men hang around public facilities or sit and play cards with the caretaker, which prevents women and girls from using the facilities.
- A lack of locks on latrine doors and lighting on the way to and in public facilities can make women and girls less likely to use them at night.
- Boys can look down into public sanitary facilities in urban areas where the facilities are not roofed.
- Sexual harassment of young girls is not reported, because of fear of damaging the family’s image in the society.
- Filling water from tankers can be dangerous, as a result of harassment as well as physical violence.
- Girls report not eating and drinking in the mornings before going to school, as they have to queue for long periods to collect water.
- Poor drainage and solid waste piled up on paths to/from facilities can lead to men brushing by women’s bodies as they walk pass one another.
- Waste blocking drainage channels can also become the source of physical fights between neighbours, particularly when water becomes stagnant in front of their homes.
- Poorly designed public facilities and those that are poorly maintained may be difficult to access for people with disabilities.

Violence related to urban services including WASH services in Delhi


The following case study provides learning from an in-depth study with two communities living in resettlement areas in Delhi, Bwana and Bhalswa. It provides a useful insight into the range of violence-related challenges that are being faced in these areas.

Title: Violence related to water and sanitation in Delhi

Context: In Bawana, there are community toilet complexes (CTCs) which include latrines, showers and locations for washing laundry. These are under the jurisdiction of the Municipal Corporation of Delhi and the Delhi Development Authority, which have a mixture of charges for use at different times and for men, women and children. Some are subcontracted to private management and these all close by 10pm, leaving people to defecate either in open areas or in home-based toilets with septic tanks (where they exist). Water standpipes are out of action and hence water has to be collected from further distances away. Drains are often blocked, and although there are designated locations for collection of solid waste they are deemed too far away and hence garbage is disposed of on vacant plots, in parks and on street corners. In Bhalswa, most people bathe and wash laundry in the street outside their homes. They often use leachate from a local landfill for bathing, cooking and sometimes even for drinking. Most residents rely on tankers for water, which come to the area every ten days or so.

Gender based violence and WASH: “A pucca [good quality] road has been constructed there. Men keep coming and going. One is embarrassed to defecate there. I dare not go alone or send my daughter alone there. One feels scared... it is so unsafe that in the summers, four or five women go to the toilet in a group at 11–12 in the night. Boys keep standing there, and often they snatch and hurt us for money. Women or girls who don’t have money are molested and sexually harassed.”

(Interview with Sunita from Bawana, 60 years old)
“Cases of sexual harassment against very small girls do take place, but often they are not reported for the fear of damaging the societal image of the girl and her family.”

(Interview with Anuba in Bhalswa, 16 years old)

**Gendered time in the context of essential services:**

- Filling water from the tankers is often a violent process, during which women and girls face sexual harassment.
- Some women have to take water from their work places, and face heckling on public transport from bus conductors and fellow passengers for taking up more space.
- For women who have to take water from 2–3km from their homes, this reduces the time they can spend on livelihood or childcare activities.
- Between one and two hours of the day are spent collecting water, or longer when the supply is irregular, and more time is spent queuing to use public toilets or to reach areas for open defecation. Girls have reported not having time to eat in the mornings before going to school due to queuing.

**Violence in the context of essential services:**

- Women and girls are subject to sexual harassment, assault and abuse in public service sites, as these are poorly designed and maintained. Boys and men stare, peep, hang out and harass women and girls in nearby toilet complexes. They are afraid of collecting at certain waterpoints due to hostile and unsafe environments.
- The design of the CTCs is such that there is an open roof which allows men/boys to look inside. In Bhalswa, boys from neighbouring homes keep their pet birds on the roofs of the CTC and therefore constantly seem to loiter around the rooftops. There are broken latches/doors in the toilets and washing spaces. Large numbers of boys play cricket, hang out in groups or play cards with the caretaker. Their constant presence violates the privacy/space that girls/women need for the use of the toilets and for bathing.
- The spaces for open defecation have shrunk. Women use these spaces primarily after dark, and because of risks of harassment and rape women have had to come up with adaptive measures. These include going out into open fields in groups, eating and drinking less during the evening hours so that they won’t need to relieve themselves, and/or hurriedly relieving themselves – all adding to anxiety and potential health problems.
- Younger/adolescent girls are not allowed to go to some sites where fear of harassment is more likely, such as where groups of men and boys hang out.
- Poor drainage and piles of solid waste narrow paths and lead to increased incidents of boys/men brushing past women/girls when walking along them.
- Drainage passing by the houses can also be a source of serious arguments/fights between households, especially when one tries to stop waste and ponding in front of their own house leading to backing-up of water to another house.
- When electricity fails the water pumps stop working, while lighting in the CTCs is also cut. The caretakers have generators, but will not put them on until someone pays for them to do so. Women may have to enter the men’s complex to get water and face being stared at or followed to their homes. Returning home after open defecation without lighting is also frightening. Women have reported increased groping when there is no electricity.
- Women feel a loss of dignity in using the toilets, particularly when menstruating, as there are no disposal bins for sanitary protection materials and so the waste can just lie in the complexes.
- Women with disabilities and who are pregnant also face challenges in using the facilities, as the toilets do not have seats or support and they find it difficult to balance.

**Key risk areas**

- Water which is far away from the home, intermittent or located in places where men and boys gather can lead to harassment, rape, long time periods spent collecting water, and fights at queues for water.
- Toilets which are not lit, which have broken doors or locks, the interiors of which can be viewed from the outside, where boys or men loiter outside, or which are not accessible 24 hours a day – can all lead to harassment and rape and hence anxiety in their use.
...continued

- Toilets which are unhygienic, do not have menstrual hygiene disposal bins, and do not have seats or hand-rails for women and girls who are pregnant, elderly or have disabilities – can be a challenge for access and dignity.
- Solid waste blocking pathways and drains and poor and stagnant drainage – means less access and space for women and girls to walk without being brushed up against by men and boys.
- Lack of street lights and light in and around facilities – can hinder use of the facilities by women and girls at night.

References/links

The material and quotations above have been taken from the following resources:

- Jagori, Research reports. Available at: http://jagori.org/category/research-reports/ [accessed 11 October 2013].
- Jagori, Video: first of three videos, ‘Our Lanes Our Lives’. Available at: http://jagori.org/category/video/ (video length 21.30 min) [accessed 11 October 2013]. This video highlights the problem of harassment for women when walking through unlit lanes at night in urban areas. See TS2-B-3.

Endnotes

The examples included in this document have been summarised or abstracted from the references identified in the endnotes. A full list of references referred to in the toolkit can also be found in TS8.


4 Meetings were held with: Protection and WASH sector actors, Liberia (AFELL); Journalists Against SGBV, Liberia Action for Persons with Disabilities; Liberia National Police Force, Women and Children’s Protection Section; Ministry of Gender and Development; Ministry of Disabilities; Liberia National Police Force, Women and Children’s (AFELL); Journalists Against SGBV; Liberia Action for Persons with Disabilities; Women NGOs; WONGOSOL. Personal communications. The points noted here were identified by a number of the organisations in this list, but may not represent the views of all.


16. Same as note 7, above.


16. Same as note 7, above.


16. Same as note 7, above.


55 Ibid.

56 Ibid.


60 Same as note 13, above.

61 Same as note 54, above.


67 Kandas are open depressions or excavations in which surface water, snow or rainwater is collected for livestock or, during dry periods, domestic uses.


69 Same as note 1, above.

70 WaterAid and National Confederation of Dalit Organisations (2013) Research on the DFID-supported IPAP programme in India in 5 states (unpublished).


72 Same as note 59, above.

Notes
Commitments of co-publishing organisations

It should be noted that the organisations co-publishing this resource might not currently practice all of the recommendations proposed within it.

Co-publishing the resource provides an indication of the organisations’ commitment to help their staff become increasingly aware of the issues relating to violence and WASH, and that they will continue to work to improve their organisation-wide commitment, policies, strategies, plans and programming over time to reduce vulnerabilities to violence related to WASH wherever it is realistically possible.