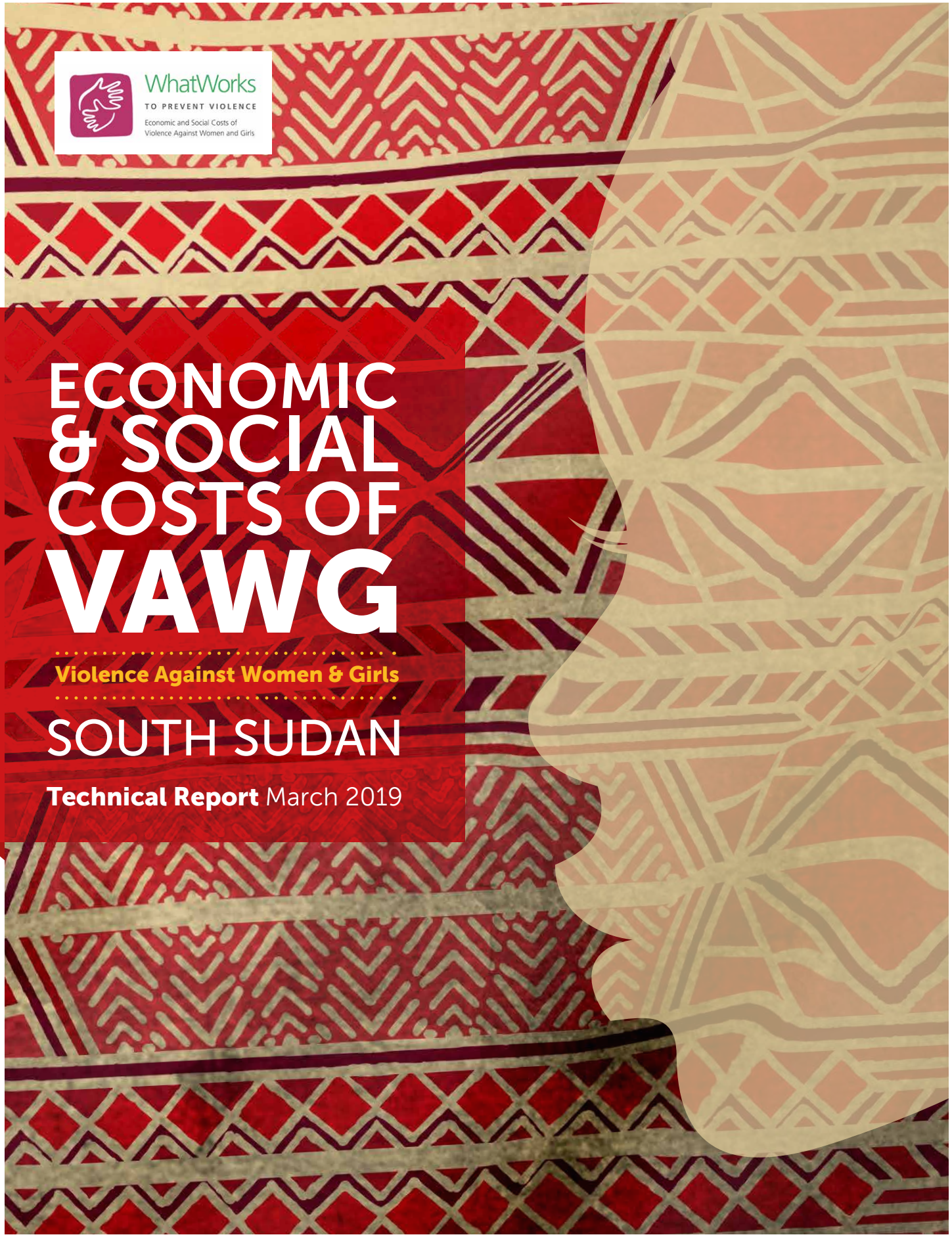


ECONOMIC & SOCIAL COSTS OF VAWG

Violence Against Women & Girls

SOUTH SUDAN

Technical Report March 2019

NUI Galway
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The photos in this report do not represent women and girls from South Sudan or who have themselves been affected by gender-based violence nor who accessed services.

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Introduction

Violence against women and girls (VAWG) is widely recognised as a violation of human rights and a challenge to public health. Further, VAWG is an under-examined, but crucial component of the overall crisis in South Sudan. VAWG has economic and social costs that have not been adequately recognised either in South Sudan or internationally. These costs not only impact individual women and their families but also ripple through society and the economy at large. The impacts of VAWG on economic development has not been adequately investigated, analysed or quantified in South Sudan.

In recognition of the dearth of knowledge of these impacts and costs, particularly in fragile and developing contexts, the UK Department for International Development (DFID) funded this research to investigate the social and economic costs of VAWG in Ghana, Pakistan and South Sudan (2014–2019), as part of its wider What Works to Prevent Violence research and innovation programme. A consortium, led by the National University of Ireland, Galway, with Ipsos MORI and in collaboration with Dr. Khalifa Elmusharaf from the University of Limerick, conducted the research to estimate the economic losses caused by VAWG as well as the non-economic costs of violence on the economic growth, development and social stability of South Sudan. A National Advisory Board, composed of stakeholders and policy-makers in South Sudan, provided important inputs to the research, ensuring the relevance of the findings to the context.

Methods

This study used a quantitative approach including surveys of individual women, households, and businesses. 1,996 women were surveyed in Central Equatoria, Eastern Equatoria, Jonglei, Warrap, Western Bahr-El-Ghazel and Western Equatoria; and employees and managers from 99 businesses in Juba and Yei completed surveys. The fieldwork was not attempted in protection of civilian camps or in areas where active conflict was ongoing due to concerns for the safety of interviewers. Additionally, the survey did not collect data on women's experiences of conflict and how conflict was/is driving VAWG. Statistical analysis was undertaken to explore the broader ramifications of the costs of violence. Given the differences in economy between areas experiencing direct conflict and the areas we surveyed, estimates of the impacts of VAWG to the economy have been scaled to reflect only the areas surveyed.

Assumptions and limitations

A key assumption in the study is that any type of violence (economic, psychological, physical or sexual) has negative impacts for women experiencing such behaviours. We have therefore explored the economic impacts of any behaviour of violence across the different locations where women experience violence, including the home, the workplace, educational institutions and public spaces. Recognising the reluctance of women to disclose incidents of violence, we have to assume that prevalence is far higher than most studies can estimate. Where the number of women reporting violence is underestimated, then the costs of violence will be even more so.

An important limitation of the study is that areas in active conflict were not included in this study. Thus, given the conflict situation in South Sudan, the survey covers only 38% of women aged 18–60 in South Sudan in 2016. Moreover, given the potential for significant differences in economic activity and social structure due to current conflict, it is not possible to extrapolate the findings of this study to the country as a whole. Hence, the estimates of this study provide an insight into the *potential economic impact* of violence experienced by women and girls for the broader economy with respect to the 38% population coverage. Furthermore, the costs estimated in this study are not comprehensive given the narrow focus on tangible costs. Estimates presented in this report must therefore be seen as an indication of the impact of VAWG and not a full accounting. Nevertheless, the contribution of knowledge from this project on the social and economic costs of violence, though incomplete, is an essential first step in making the economic case for investment in activities to prevent, reduce or eliminate VAWG.

KEY FINDINGS

Economic impact of VAWG: VAWG impacts on women's ability to engage in formal and informal work in South Sudan. The overall productivity loss due to any form of violence experienced by women in the women's survey comes to 8.5 million lost days of work in the year or equivalent to 6% of the total employed women not working in the regions of South Sudan covered in this study.

Impact on household consumption: Women who sought services due to the VAWG experienced incurred significant out-of-pocket expenditure at US$21.3 on average per survivor per year, in a context in which 80% of the population lives on less than US one dollar per day. This translates into more than US$1.2 million spent annually on services for survivors of violence in the regions of South Sudan covered in this study.

Impact on care work: In addition to out-of-pocket expenditures, women in the regions covered by the survey in South Sudan missed three million days of care work in the past year due to VAWG, which has significant implications for the wellbeing of women and their families.

Business losses: Violence affects the bottom line of businesses. About 28% of female employees across the 99 businesses surveyed in the study missed ten days work each on average in the past year due to IPV related impacts. Overall, among the 99 businesses, the total loss of person days due to IPV and non-partner sexual violence is equivalent to the loss of 1.1% of the total workforce annually.

These identified costs are only part of the overall picture. Many of the impacts are not immediately translatable to monetary sums and many will have ripple effects that produce larger impacts then the initial 'cost' suggests. Finally, impacts of violence may also be experienced across generations with the true costs presenting as opportunity costs or constraints to capabilities.

These findings however provide some of the first estimations of the costs of VAWG in South Sudan and are thus essential knowledge for stakeholders and policy makers. They indicate the long-term and serious impacts of VAWG that affect not only the victims of violence, or their family, but rather all of South Sudanese society. The findings thus provide incentive for government, business, and other agencies to prioritise investment in programmes that target VAWG.

Recommendations

This study demonstrates the negative economic consequences to families and businesses that produce an additional pressure on the South Sudanese economy and society that may limit the success of reconstruction processes. Summary recommendations are as follows:

1. Build VAWG prevention into national policies and budgets, and scale up current efforts to prevent VAWG, including by mainstreaming evidence-based approaches into education, health, social protection and other sectors.
2. Involve business associations and chambers of commerce to invest in prevention programmes and activities for combatting VAWG.
3. Strengthen existing support services to challenge norms that limit women's help-seeking after experiences of violence by partners, family members, colleagues or others.
4. Sensitise communities on using formal institutions to address VAWG concerns and equipping formal institutions to undertake these roles.

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Overview of study

Violence against women and girls (VAWG) is a significant barrier to equal participation, quality of life, and personal, social and economic development throughout the world (Sen, 1999; Nussbaum, 2005; Krug et al. 2002, etc). Advances have been made in recognising the types and prevalence of VAWG (Krug et al. 2002) and noting the contextual factors that increase or decrease risk of perpetration and victimisation (e.g. Heise, 1998; Duvvury and Scriver, 2014). More recently work has been undertaken which accounts for the costs of violence – in terms of economic loss to states (e.g. Duvvury et.al. 2012; Vyas and Watts, 2013; Walby and Olive, 2014), and to a lesser extent, the social costs of violence (e.g. Kishor and Johnson, 2006; Aguero J., 2012; Day et al., 2005). However, clear gaps remain in our understanding of how such costs/losses accrue or cumulate and the methodologies required to adequately evaluate the multiple, context-sensitive impacts on individuals, households, communities and states (Scott-Storey, 2011:135; Morrison and Orlando, 2004; Duvvury et al. 2013).

Furthermore, where literature on the economic costs and social impacts of VAWG does exist, it is often framed in terms of intimate partner violence only and while some research has taken an expanded view of VAWG or GBV (e.g. Jacoby and Mansuri, 2010; Solotoroff and Pande, 2014; Karmaliani et al., 2012) evidence is still lacking on the socio-economic costs that may be particularly relevant to developing countries and fragile or conflict-affected states. How such violence impacts on social cohesion and capabilities is a further gap in current knowledge.

To address this gap, the UK Department for International Development (DFID) initiated a programme to investigate What Works to Prevent Violence. The programme has three components, with the first two evaluating interventions to address VAWG in general and in special (conflict affected/humanitarian/emergency) settings, while the third component examines the social and economic costs of VAWG.[1] NUI Galway in collaboration with Ipsos MORI (UK) and International Centre for Research on Women (ICRW), undertook component three of the programme.

This study is a four year project undertaken in three developing countries selected to provide variations in economic and political status: Ghana, South Sudan and Pakistan. In addition to the research consortium (NUIG, Ipsos MORI and ICRW) national researchers and research institutions in each country provided technical support and advice. We further liaised with a National Advisory Board composed of local government, NGO and academic representatives (jointly convened with Component 2) and with a Management Committee, consisting of the leads of each of the components of the overall DFID programme. Finally, we also received overall guidance from the Technical Advisory Group composed of international experts in the areas of costing of violence, research uptake, and research methodologies convened specifically for Component 3 as well as members of the International Advisory Board, convened by DFID for the overall What Works Programme.

In this report, the findings relating to South Sudan are presented. In the first section we provide information on the overarching conceptual framework that guides the analysis of impacts across the individual/household, community/business and economic/societal levels. In the following section, the contextual factors including the presence of conflict, legislative and policy environment, and gendered social norms, that are in play in South Sudan are considered. The specifics of this present study, including methodology, limitations and findings, are then presented. This report is intended to provide an overview of the social and economic costs of violence against women and girls in South Sudan that can be used to deepen understanding and act as an advocacy tool to encourage investment in efforts to address VAWG.

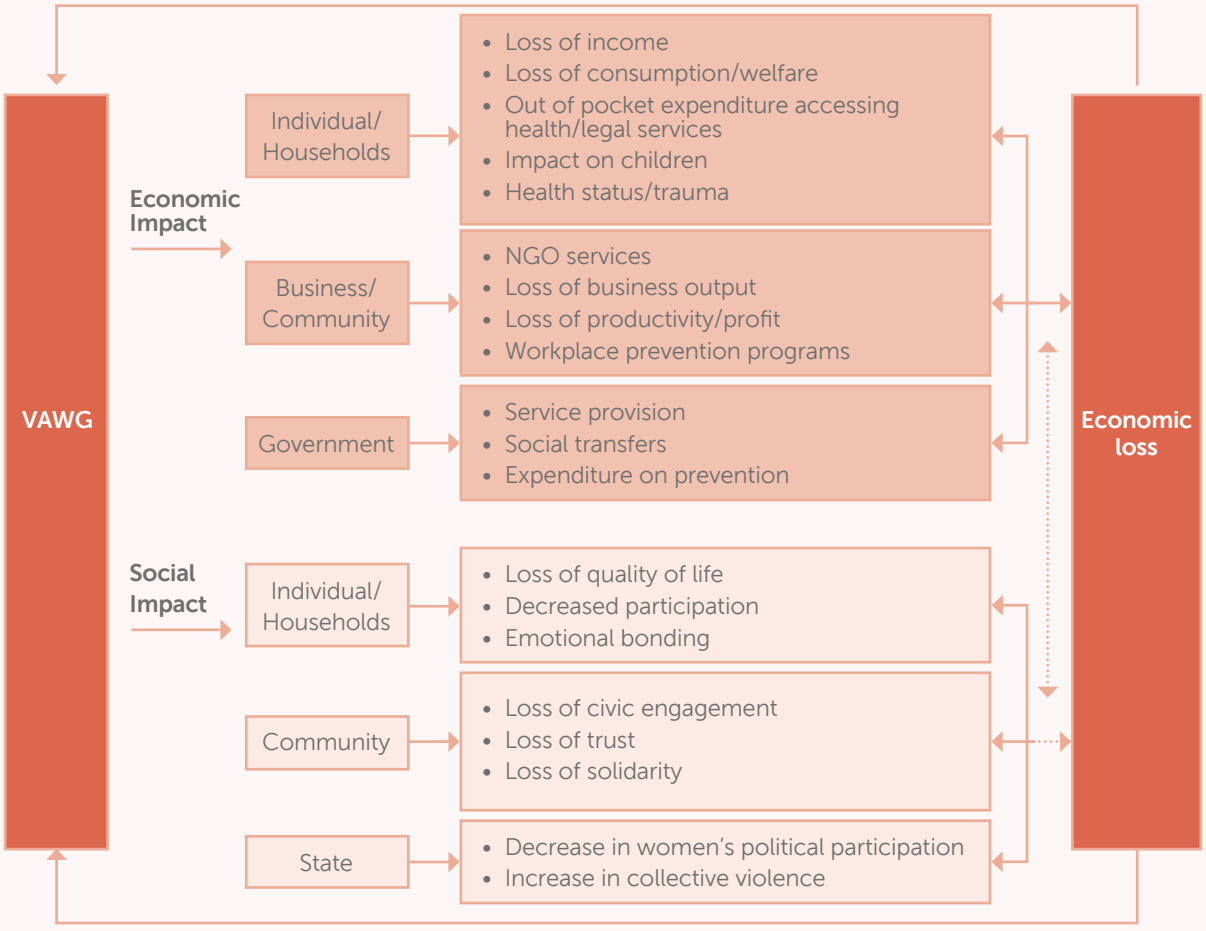
[1] Component 2 of the What Works programme has undertaken a mixed-methods study on the prevalence, forms, patterns and drivers of VAWG in South Sudan. This study by CARE, George Washington University and International Rescue Committee undertook quantitative and qualitative data collection in the city of Juba, Rumbek Centre, Juba protection of civilian (PoC) camps and Benitu POC. See the main report: The Global Women's Institute and International Rescue Committee (2017), 'No Safe Place: A Lifetime of Violence for Conflict-Affected Women and Girls in South Sudan'. Washington DC: George Washington University and London: IRC.

1.2 Conceptual framework

The conceptual framework guiding this research (see Figure 1) details the ripple-effects of VAWG at three levels: individual/household, community/business and Government/National. While Governments incur expenditure to prevent and mitigate the impacts of violence, in this research, we have not focused on government expenditure. In our view such expenditure is not a 'cost' but the necessary investment to fulfil the federal and provincial governments' commitments related to human rights obligations in the case of VAWG to prevention, protection and prosecution. The framework helps in understanding the inter-linkages that exist between the social and economic impacts both in the medium and long-term. The dotted lines in the framework highlight levels of analysis that cannot be completed within the remit of this project, but which we hypothesise exist.

The study focuses on estimating the costs for individuals and households in terms of costs for accessing services, productivity loss in terms of days of absenteeism and presenteeism (being less productive), days of missed care work and missed school days by children.

Figure 1. Conceptual framework



These losses at the individual and household level are extrapolated to regional level to estimate the costs for the economy in the regions covered by the survey. In addition to these costs, we also explored the economic costs at the business level to understand how violence against women impacts the business sector. The social impacts of violence against women, in terms of reproductive, physical and mental health outcomes, were also explored. However, the estimates of costs in this study are partial, as all of the pathways from economic and social impacts to economic loss are not explored. In particular given the limited methodologies available and the lack of longitudinal data, the study has not established how social impacts translate into economic costs. If the various social impacts are in fact quantified and monetised, the overall loss would be many times greater than the current estimates, which are based only on tangible economic impacts.

The estimates brought forward by the study are an important contribution to our understanding of the economic and social costs, in addition to the rich existing knowledge of public health costs of VAWG.

.1.3 Objectives of the study

The main aims of this research project are to:

1. Expand the knowledge base on the social and economic impacts of violence against women for the overall economy, across conflict affected, fragile and stable contexts.
2. Provide an analytical framework to estimate the economic loss taking into account the circular flow of production and consumption within an economy.
3. Provide insight into the social impacts of VAWG for the individual, household, community and society at large and the consequent implications for economic loss.
4. Leverage the knowledge generated within this project to inform policy dialogue.
5. Develop a tool kit for policy makers to estimate direct and indirect economic costs within different policy scenarios.
6. Advance the frontier in quantitative and qualitative research methods to capture economic and social costs at individual, household, community and national levels.

To advance these key aims, we proposed to focus on the following research questions:

1. **What are the social and economic impacts/costs of VAWG at the individual, household, community and national levels?**

   Economic impacts/costs:

   1.1 What are the social and economic costs of VAWG for women and girls and their households?

   1.2 What are the tangible economic impacts for businesses?

   1.3 What is the economic loss for the national economy?

   Social impacts/costs:

   1.4 What are the intangible social impacts of VAWG on women's reproductive health, physical health and mental health?

   1.5 What are the social impacts of VAWG at the community level, including impact on community cohesion?

   Economic and Social costs:

   1.6 What are policy implications of the social and economic costs for inclusive growth?

In this study to answer the key questions outlined above, we focused on estimating the costs for individuals and households in terms of costs for accessing services, productivity loss in terms of days of absenteeism and presenteeism (being less productive), days of missed care work and missed school days by children.

These losses at the individual and household level are extrapolated to the national level to estimate the costs for the economy overall. In addition to these costs, we also explored the economic costs at the business level to have an understanding of how violence against women impacts the business sector. The social impacts of violence against women, in terms of reproductive, physical and mental health outcomes, were also explored. The estimates in this study are an important contribution to our understanding of the economic and social costs, in addition to the rich existing knowledge of public health costs of VAWG.

2. CONTEXT

South Sudan is a country devastated by war. Since the end of colonial rule, there have been few years when the country has not been affected by conflict. The world's newest independent country, it is dominated by strong traditions and low levels of development. Even as war and conflict persist, so too does daily life, although the social and economic life of the country have been profoundly eroded by constant conflicts. South Sudan shares land borders with 6 countries, making its stability a concern across the Horn of Africa (Frontier Economics, et al, 2015).

The basis of South Sudan's development has been, and will remain, its population. The wellbeing and status of women is a fundamental part of this. Like many contemporary conflicts, South Sudan has attracted international attention for the brutality of conflict-related violence against women. However, research shows that women are, as is generally the case, at greatest risk of violence when in their own homes, at the hands of their own partners and families (GWI and IRC, 2017).

2.1 Overview of context

The territory that makes up contemporary South Sudan has been involved in conflict for at least five decades. The two Sudan civil wars ran from 1955 to 1972, and from 1983 to 2005, with the second war being fought largely in the south (the new state of South Sudan). In the aftermath of the signing of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) in 2005, a referendum was held. In July 2011, South Sudan became an independent country. By December 2013, the government of the new state collapsed and the country lapsed into civil war. A peace agreement brokered in April 2016 lasted a few months before war broke out again.

The post-independence civil wars have been different to the first and second Sudanese wars. The more recent conflicts are characterised by intense factionalism breaking down along often-shifting lines including ethnic and patrimonial loyalties. Throughout the decades of conflict, local communal violence has also been consistently present, regardless of the overarching political settlement. This is often related to cattle grazing and cattle rustling, with cattle playing an enormously important role in the economy and culture of South Sudan (Elmusharaf, 2015). Thefts of cattle and reprisal attacks can result in cycles of violence that involve extended families and persist through generations. Elements of the conflicts currently underway intertwine these different dimensions, involving both political differences at the level of national government, and local differences at the level of families and tribes (Wild, Jok and Patel, 2018).

The current conflict is consequently especially difficult to resolve, given indistinct structures of leadership and loyalty. It is most likely necessary to broker resolutions at multiple local levels, but there are few resources and little will for such a granular approach. The economic crisis that the country now confronts is most likely to intensify the conflict: as de Waal (2016) argues, it was not the extraordinary levels of corruption that caused the civil war, but the fact that the kleptocracy became insolvent. Competition for diminishing resources is likely to become more violent as the pool of available resources decreases.

A notable feature of the most recent conflict is its brutality, especially towards civilians, including women and children. Although South Sudan has been in a state of active conflict or post conflict for well over half a century, the experiences and nature of the violence have been markedly different over time. The more recent conflicts, particularly since the Crisis of 2013, have been noteworthy for their extreme brutality, including using mutilation, sexual violence and torture during assaults targeted against civilians (Murphy et al 2017).

Protracted conflict has important impacts on social relations and in particular gender relations. Community cohesion in South Sudan is traditionally rooted in communal ownership of wealth and shared values such as pride, hospitality and generosity (Ding, Wyett, & Werker, 2012; Evans-Pritchard, 1951). De Waal argued in the case of the Sudan civil wars (ending in 2005) that the presence of conflict in parts of South Sudan strengthened social capital, causing communities such as that of Abyei on the frontline to rally together in support of the rebel Sudan People's Liberation Army and one another. While this is a common feature of societies in conflict, it often occludes intra-community violence and particularly domestic violence. Where individual women are victimised, often by their own intimate partners or family members, it can be even more difficult to name the violence and victimisation in a context of strong social bonds against an external enemy. Divided loyalties can therefore drive the problem underground and make it invisible (McWilliams & Ní Aoláin, 2013).

Family connections and marital relations play a crucial role in the nature and progress of conflict in South Sudan. SPLA commanders have been shown to literally construct their social networks by marrying many wives and having large families to staff their battles (Pinaud, 2016). The military elite consolidates its position through the provision of gifts, often cattle to serve as marriage gifts (Pinaud, 2016). Marriage to soldiers can offer women protection from targeted victimisation by other combatants (de Waal, 2016), and there is evidence in recent years that families are increasingly marrying their daughters at a young age as a means of economic survival, since it brings a dowry (Frontier Economics et al., 2015). Marriage plays a fundamental role in structuring social, political and economic relations in South Sudan, and as such it is a core feature of the conflicts there.

Recognising that women play a unique role and have unique and gendered experiences of conflict, the UN Security Council has since 2000 issued a number of Special Resolutions on the topic of Women, Peace and Security.[2] These resolutions provide for the prevention of violent conflict and violence against women in conflict; the protection of women in conflict; and women's participation in conflict resolution. Long experience of war and displacement has resulted in women from South Sudan developing leadership and organising skills, and playing public roles (Erickson & Faria, 2011). Women have organised to push for their inclusion in peace-making and peace building, invoking South Sudan's National Action Plan on Women Peace and Security 2015-2020.

2.2 Social, political and economic context

South Sudan became independent as an oil state, but in the short years since independence in 2011 it has suffered total economic collapse. In 2016, inflation ran to 300% while the currency slumped by 90% (Africa Research Bulletin, 2016). A global fall in oil prices coincided with a 35% drop in oil production owing to the conflict, a devastating blow in a country where 90% of government revenue at independence came from oil (de Waal, 2016). External debt rose from an estimated 3.2% to 38.7% of GDP in 2016. Consequently, international aid was suspended pending economic reform and implementation of the August 2015 peace agreement (African Research Bulletin, 2016). Against this backdrop, food prices soared and in February 2017, famine was declared in South Sudan. The famine is widely recognised as a result of political failures.

At independence it was apparent that South Sudan was oil dependent, and therefore vulnerable to risks typified by the concept of the 'resource curse' (Auty, 1993), including corruption, a lack of long-term planning, and strong political grievances from numerous constituencies (de Waal, 2016). Even in peace time, there were few linkages between the oil sector and the wider economy. Instead, most

[2] UNSCR 1325 (2000); 1820 (2008); 1888 (2009); 1889 (2009); 1960 (2010); 2106 (2013); 2122 (2013)

new economic activity centred around the cities of Juba and Wau, servicing the needs of international oil and development aid professionals with hotels, private transport and construction services, largely staffed by business people from other East African countries (Ding, Wyett, & Werker, 2012).

Outside of the oil and aid sectors, just 12% of the population is engaged in formal economic activity (CIA.gov), and 80% work in agriculture. In spite of its labour intensive agriculture sector, South Sudan is in fact import-dependent, including for foodstuffs. Imports are costly owing to an almost non-existent transport infrastructure: the country has just 200km of paved roads. Local economic activity mainly consists of informal, micro and small enterprises, largely headed by women (World Bank, 2013), and this local activity is the most likely basis for any future sustainable economic growth.

The poor levels of education and population health in South Sudan, discussed below, mean that the country has extremely low levels of human capital. As a result, what economic opportunities exist are largely exploited by enterprising people and businesses from outside of the country (Ding, Wyett, & Werker, 2012). Infrastructure is similarly poor: South Sudan has among the lowest road densities in all of Africa, while only around 1% of the population have access to electricity, mainly privately provided by off-grid diesel plants (Attipoe, Choudhary, & Jonga, 2014). For those few urban dwellers with access to central electricity supplies, the tariff is among the highest in Africa (ibid). Since the 2013 Crisis, essential infrastructure has been destroyed, including schools and hospitals. The country ranks 186th in the world in the 2016 World Bank Doing Business index.

South Sudan is economically underdeveloped, with a large amount of activity occurring at the micro scale, very limited sectoral linkages, poor human capital, and significant barriers to doing business of all kinds. The task faced by government and administrators is enormous. On the other hand, reserves of oil, extensive agricultural land and access to markets throughout East and Horn of Africa are suggestive of economic promise. What is not visible in macroeconomic analyses to date is the immense drag on the economy that violence against women currently places. Across all sectors and locations of the economy, the epidemic levels of unreported violence are impacting on the productivity of workers, both women and men, and on the wellbeing of families and children.

South Sudan has extremely low indicators of human development. Ranking among the ten lowest countries in the 2016 Human Development Index, the average life expectancy at birth is 56.1 years, while the adult literacy rate is just 31.9%. The combination of dire maternal health and mortality with a patriarchal system that places immense importance on women's childbearing role make the context especially bad for women.

Human development has been profoundly affected by years of conflict, but especially by the most recent conflict. Additionally, fears for personal safety resulted in a reduction in smaller scale livelihoods activities such as petty trading. A 2014 report by Frontier Economics on the cost of war in South Sudan outlines the many ways in which the conflict could impact on human development and ultimately on indirectly conflict-related deaths. The report highlighted that in the case of a protracted and serious conflict, human health would be impacted through disease and food insecurity: this has clearly now occurred. It is estimated that after 3 years, for every one direct death from conflict, there was likely to be 5 indirect deaths (Frontier Economics et al., 2015).

South Sudan came to independence with some of the worst development indicators in the world. While the country has been independent for a very short time, and has been in conditions of civil war for much of that time, it is still fair to say that there has been no serious effort to address poverty, poor services and profound lack of opportunity. A UNDP analysis of budgets in the country shows that budgetary allocations dedicated to infrastructure and the social sector (including health and education)

were pegged at less than 20% of the overall budget by 2014. For example, the 2013/2014 budget shows 3.8% dedicated to education, 2.4% to health, in contrast to a massive 17.8% spend on security (Attipoe et al., 2014)

2.3 Status of women in South Sudan including legislative framework

2.3.1 Human development indicators for women

Comprehensive quantitative data on the status of women is absent in South Sudan. For example, South Sudan is not included in the UNDP's Gender Inequality Index, since there is little gender-specific data to analyse.

However, certain indicators of human development are stark. The maternal mortality ratio of 2,037 per 100,000 live births is among the highest in the world (Elmusharaf, Byrne, & O'Donovan, 2017). As of 2006, young women between the ages of 15 and 19 were more likely to die in childbirth than finish primary school. Only 16 percent of the female population over 15 is literate, compared to 40 percent for men (World Bank, 2013). On the other hand, South Sudan sees a high level of representation of women in politics: the 2011 constitution mandates a 25% quota for women in parliamentary seats (Ali, 2011), and since independence women's representation has exceeded this figure. While neighbouring countries demonstrate high levels of religious extremism, making regressive gender norms a matter of orthodoxy, South Sudan is more normatively egalitarian (Ali, 2011).

2.3.2 Gender roles in South Sudan

Although women are active and visible in the public sphere, the society is nonetheless one in which the respective roles of women and men are clearly demarcated and maintained. The foundation of society and economy is the institution of marriage, secured and maintained by the exchange of cattle.

As a result of this, men are recognised as natural heads of households, and have absolute authority over their households. This arrangement is secured by the bride price of cattle, often paid by the man's family. A wife's position is thus subservient not only to her husband, but to his wider family given the 'price' paid by the man and his family to acquire her. Such practices can also fuel cattle raids, given the social importance conferred by cattle ownership in South Sudan. Wife inheritance is practiced in many communities, whereby if a man dies, his wife passes automatically to a member of his household (typically his brother or the eldest son of his first wife) (Murphy et.al., 2017). Thus within the household, men are viewed as rightfully dominant, with the authority to discipline and control women's lives. Women often do not have control over money, and cannot freely choose to work outside the home (Murphy et.al., 2017)

Owing to the lack of state presence in most of the country, conflict has led to a retrenchment of customary law in South Sudan. Customary law brings benefits in that it is often a source of cohesion and order in families and communities; however, it is also patriarchal and reinforces the subservience of women (Frontier Economics et al., 2015). Traditional norms thus interact with conflict to limit the scope for new, more gender equal laws or policies to make a change in women's lives.

Attitudes towards violence against women and girls mirror this culture of male dominance. A study conducted with 680 individuals male and female in seven sites within South Sudan in 2009–2011 revealed an overwhelming acceptance from both women and men towards violence against women. There was a considerable level of agreement that 'a woman should tolerate violence in order to keep her family together', 'there are times when a woman deserves to be beaten', and 'it is okay for a man to hit his wife if she won't have sex with him' (Scott et al., 2013).

2.3.3 Legislative and policy context of VAWG in South Sudan

In order to understand the context of violence against women in different countries, it is essential to assess legal and policy provisions prohibiting and preventing different types of gender based violence. These indicate the protections that are available from the state, and the measures that states are taking, including through norm-setting, to prevent violence. In the case of South Sudan, it is important to note that there is a general breakdown in the rule of law, and few people can access formal justice. The framework of the law thus tells us more about intention and norms than it does about the actual provisions available to women at present. In the event that the rule of law is established, much work remains to be done to put in place a comprehensive system of protections from violence against women (VAW).

South Sudan ratified the Convention for the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) in 2014; this is the principle international instrument for promoting gender equality, and it includes an optional protocol related to Gender Based Violence. In 2015, the Ministry of Gender, Child and Social Welfare launched a five-year National Action Plan on Women, Peace and Security. In principle, this is a high level commitment to preventing conflict and its disproportionate impact on women and girls, protecting women and ensuring their participation. However, the impact of such plans is often mediated by the power of the government department that manages them.

Rape is prohibited under the Penal Code, and is punishable by up to a 14 year prison sentence; sexual harassment is also against the law, with a punishment of up to three years detention (US Department of State, 2014). However, intimate partner violence is not prohibited, and the act of forced sex within marriage is not recognised as a crime. Prosecutions and convictions for violence against women are almost unheard of.

In the absence of access to formal justice or indeed services, most incidents of violence are neither reported nor addressed. Indeed, the stigma that adheres to sexual violence makes it almost entirely undisclosed. In response to the December 2013 Crisis, humanitarian actors have set up GBV services and coordination mechanisms in five Protection Of Civilians sites. Outside of these, women are reliant on police services for protection, although information from key informants suggests that there is limited access to the formal justice system (Murphy et.al., 2017). Special Protection Units have been developed to address the problem of police insensitivity, staffed by specially trained police and offering legal aid, protection, medical care and psychosocial support. The development of these units has been slowed by a lack of trained personnel, however, and they remain largely unavailable outside of major urban centres (Elmusharaf, 2015).

The traditional means of resolving cases of family violence, primarily violence against women, is through customary practices known as Boma Courts, led by local chiefs. These courts tend to seek to maintain families rather than enabling a woman to leave an abusive situation. In cases of rape, many survivors are forced to marry their attacker, since the woman is perceived as 'spoiled' for any other marriage match, and this will allow the family to receive bride-price (Ibreck, Logan, & Pendle, 2017).

2.4 Violence against women and girls in South Sudan

Violence Against Women and Girls is widely regarded as a serious problem in South Sudan, with INGOs such as Care International and Amnesty International drawing equal attention to its barbarity as well as its pervasiveness (e.g. Care Int., 2014; Amnesty International, 2017a; Amnesty International, 2017b). Nonetheless, and unsurprisingly given the fragile context over many decades, there is very limited comprehensive data on the prevalence of violence against women. The following section discusses

the types of VAWG that occur in South Sudan, to the extent that data allows us to know this. The two subsequent sections explore two types of violence in more detail: intimate partner violence, and conflict-related violence, and go on to discuss the inter-relations between different types of VAWG and conflict.

In spite of data limitations, there is a certain amount of information available about types and prevalence of VAWG in South Sudan. In a 2009 study, 41% of respondents reported that they had experienced GBV in the past year and 29% reported knowing someone who had experienced GBV in the past year. The most commonly reported forms of GBV included physical violence (47%), psychological violence (44%), economic violence (30%), and sexual violence (13%) (UNIFEM, 2009). Evidence collected from interviews in a 2011 report revealed that 69% of respondents knew at least woman who was beaten by her husband in the past month (Scott et al., 2013).

Formative research conducted in South Sudan for the second component of DFID's What Works programme, led by the International Rescue Committee and George Washington University's Global Women's Institute, indicates that, in spite of the high profile given to conflict-driven sexual violence, the most common form of violence perpetrated against adult women is physical and sexual violence perpetrated by an intimate partner, known as intimate partner violence or IPV (Murphy, Blackwell, Contreras and Ellsberg, 2017). In terms of non-partner sexual violence the taboo surrounding disclosure by the taboo surrounding non-partner sexual violence, and the very low likelihood that women will report or even discuss the act. In the absence of prevalence data, what is certain is that both IPV and non-partner sexual violence (NPSV) are likely to occur at a much higher rate than the global average of one in three women experiencing either IPV or NPSV.

Other forms of intimate partner violence are likely to also be common although they are rarely reported, including psychological and economic violence. Women also experience violence at the hands of their own families and those of their husbands, for example if they reject a marriage partner or if they are perceived by their in-laws to have "misbehaved" (Elmusharaf, 2015). Polygamy is commonly practiced in South Sudan, and can result in competition and tensions between wives and between a wife and her husband: it is often associated with heightened levels of family violence (Murphy et al., 2017).

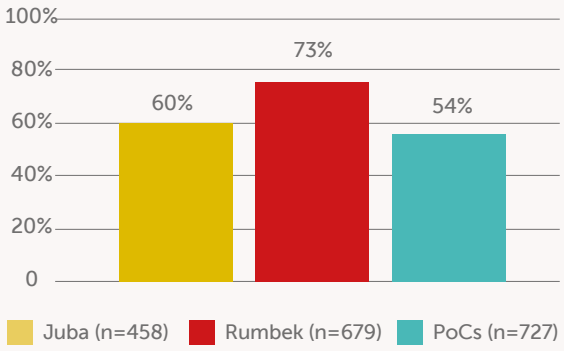
Outside of the sphere of family violence, conflict-related sexual violence, which broadly encompasses incidents and patterns of 'violence against women, men, girls or boys occurring in a conflict or post-conflict setting that have direct or indirect links with the conflict itself or that occur in other situations of concern' (UN Action against Sexual Violence in Conflict, 2011) such as rape by soldiers or rebels, receives high levels of attention from the international community, although instances of non-partner sexual violence are utterly taboo and so are rarely discussed by individuals, or within families or the local community. In addition to this, sexual harassment may be a rising problem in South Sudanese communities, although it was not considered prevalent previously. Qualitative interviews carried out by Murphy et al (2017) suggest that harassment may have increased following the 2005 signing of the CPA and return of refugees from other countries. Similarly, with growing poverty and instability there has been a rise of petty criminal activity particularly in Juba City and Protection of Civilian Camps (PoCs). This activity can be accompanied by sexual assault perpetrated by armed men or gangs (Murphy et al 2017). All forms of gender based violence (GBV) tend to go unreported: for example, in a survey conducted by Care International, just 7% of all women who had experienced GBV had reported it to any authority, either because of fear, shame, or because they felt there was no point in reporting (Care International, 2014).

2.4.1 State of knowledge on intimate partner violence in South Sudan

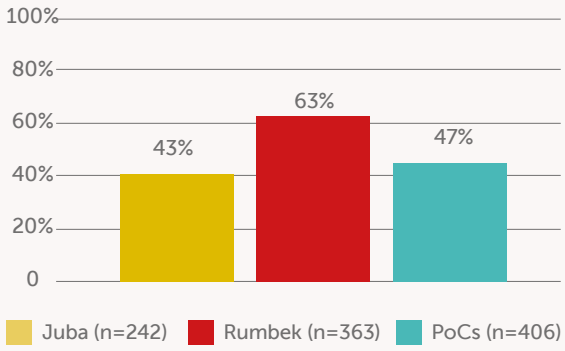
Findings from Component 2 of the DFID What Works to Prevent VAWG programme paint a clear picture of pervasive violence throughout the lives of South Sudanese women and girls. While their experiences of violence are deeply influenced by both past and on-going conflicts, a key finding of the Component 2 study is that women and girls are overwhelmingly at greatest risk of physical, sexual and emotional injury within their own homes, primarily at the hands of family members and intimate partners. The findings also reveal very high levels of conflict-associated physical and sexual violence, as well as a general culture of violence associated with the continuing armed conflict. However, violence in the household remains the primary bastion of VAWG across all study contexts (Murphy et. al, 2017).

In the household survey conducted by IRC and its partner The Global Women's Institute (2012), almost three quarters of women and girls in Rumbek reported that they had experienced physical or sexual violence from their partners over the course of their lifetime. While not as high as Rumbek, over half of respondents from Juba city and the Juba PoCs also experienced physical or sexual violence from their partners. For women that had seen their husband/partner in the past 12 months, IPV rates were also very high approaching the levels of lifetime experience of violence. This analysis shows that once violence occurs in South Sudan it generally continues for as long as the woman and her husband/partner remain together.

Ever physical and/or sexual IPV



Physical and/or sexual IPV - past 12 months



Source: IRC and GWI, 2017, pp.55

A culture of female subservience and male ownership of their wives and women in the extended family endorses the use of violence to control women, while an intensely stressful context increases violence triggers in households. The 2010 Demographic Health Survey found that 79% of respondents considered it justifiable for men to beat their wives for any reason suggested (Ministry of Health & National Bureau of Statistics, 2010).

Evidence from qualitative research (Elmusharaf, 2015) carried out in South Sudan as part of the formative research for the present study, and from Murphy et.al. (2017), suggest that physical violence is the most widespread form of domestic violence reported to researchers, commonly exercised as a form of discipline by husbands over their wives. Economic violence is also widespread, especially instances of preventing a woman from working outside the home, and denying her access to adequate money for her needs, or controlling her salary if she does work outside the home (Murphy et al, 2017). Sexual violence in marriage is complicated by the fact that marital rape is not recognised by law, and culturally is viewed as non-existent. Thus, it is extremely hard to understand the true extent of the problem, but

qualitative research suggests that it is common (Murphy et al., 2017; Elmusharaf, 2015). In addition to physical, economic and sexual violence, psychological violence is also likely to be widespread (Murphy et al., 2017).

2.4.2 Conflict-related violence

In the study on South Sudan by IRC and Global Women's Institute, it is remarked that the most recent conflicts to affect South Sudan, particularly the 2013 Crisis, are unique for their extreme brutality and in targeting civilians, in particular for acts of extreme gender based violence. They suggest that while a degree of control over the rank and file was exercised by SPLA leadership during the Sudan wars including a prohibition on rape, the current crop of armed insurgents act with impunity. Reports from human rights and humanitarian actors substantiate this claim: since the outbreak of conflict at the end of 2013 there have been widespread reports of sexual violence against women and children by security forces, particularly in the States of Central Equatoria, Jonglei, Upper Nile, and Unity (Care International, 2014; International Rescue Committee, 2012; Amnesty International 2017a; Amnesty International 2017b).

Forms of such violence include rape, including gang rape and rape with objects, sexual slavery and abduction, taking of 'war wives', forced abortion and mutilation of women's bodies. Women, young girls and young boys have all been targeted by perpetrators and there is evidence of the perpetration of such acts by combatants on all sides of the conflict (UNMISS, 2014: 49). Given that reporting is extremely rare, it is likely that such cases represent the most extreme instances, and the tip of the iceberg. Many of the rape cases that have been reported are girls in their childhood, mainly less than 13 years old. Most of these cases occur at home, at schools, or at night and during transportation (ibid).

In qualitative interviews, individuals in PoCs have said that at times women are selected by their own families to run errands outside of the camp, because while they run the risk of rape and sexual assault, men will be killed (Murphy et al., 2017; Amnesty International, 2017a). In a militarised atmosphere, inter-communal violence also persists, driven by competition for cattle ownership and acts of cattle rustling: women are directly targeted as a part of this violence also, and rape used as a tactic of revenge (Murphy et al, 2017).

2.4.3 Relationship between conflict and VAWG

The study of Component 2 of the DFID What Works to Prevent VAWG programme describes how the conflict informs, drives and triggers a wide range of types of violence against women; all VAW in South Sudan can be described as in some way conflict-related. Directly conflict-related violence is that in which civilians are targeted by combatants, often in such a way that it includes sexual and gender-based abuse, targeting women specifically for their reproductive role. But conflict pervades relationships in South Sudan, and it informs almost all types of VAW (Murphy et al, 2017).

Much violence against women is indirectly conflict-related: for example intimate partner violence, family violence, forced and early marriage, and sexual harassment. These episodes, which we have seen are likely even more common than those directly conflict-related, are rooted in societal attitudes and values. However, they are exacerbated and often triggered by the conflict context. The economic context is dire, with the country experiencing famine since August 2016, and formal employment opportunities almost absent. Poverty, hunger and illness all increase the stress and tensions at household and community level, and can result in violent acts. These tensions emerge in a hyper-masculine, militarised context, where physical violence is normal, weapons easily available, and men are often practiced in attacking and defending others. One of the impacts of the conflict is the absence of the rule of law in many locations, so that most acts of violence or criminality are carried out with impunity;

while customary law does exist, it is deeply patriarchal and invariably favours the man in a relationship dispute. Thus, while specific episodes of violence in themselves may be local and not part of a wider political conflict, they are embedded in a context which increases both their prevalence and brutality.

The relationship also works the other way, with violence against women in turn informing the context of normalised competition and violence as a means of resolving disputes. Norms of gender intolerance and inequality which are supported by an 'environment of structural violence [against women and girls]' result in violence 'as a way of life and a valid tool for settling disputes' (Caprioli, 2005). In the case of South Sudan, gender inequality is clearly pervasive, and this is likely to be a factor in intensifying violent reactions to conflict. The corollary of this is that communities and societies possessing more gender equitable attitudes are the ones most likely to reject violent conflict as a means of resolving disputes (Melander, 2005). Finally, violence frequently works to remove women from the public sphere, and to limit their ability to play an equitable role in the task of peacemaking, peacebuilding and governance, resulting in less comprehensive and robust post-conflict settlements. Addressing gender inequality, and particularly gender based violence, could prove essential to laying the foundations for lasting peace in South Sudan.

2.5 Current knowledge on economic and social impacts of VAWG in country

No studies have been carried out on the impact of violence against women on South Sudan. Indeed, VAW tends to be viewed as an outcome of the conflict, rather than a root cause, contributing both to conflict and to a drag on economic development. The current study aims to outline the ways in which failure to address VAW will continue to place an unsustainable burden on the economy and society that undermines the peace effort.

Although there is no accurate national prevalence statistics, it is widely estimated that the prevalence of IPV and conflict-related non-partner physical and sexual violence is extremely high. There is growing recognition that VAW is a crucial development issue. The phenomenon has a significant impact on a nascent society and economy. Through its impact on formal and informal workplaces, VAW places a drag on economic growth which is often unacknowledged. There is a significant burden of ill health following on from VAW, which is currently borne at a local level by women themselves and by their families. In the absence of effective healthcare services to address this burden, women undergo the physical and mental trauma of family abuse largely without ever seeking professional help to address it: this results in reduced capacity for work, childcare and social and community engagement. The health and human burden of violence against women may be even greater than that of conflict, since rates of IPV are likely to be far higher than those of conflict-related violence among civilians (Murphy et al., 2017). Thus, at individual level, VAW diminishes human capital and individual capabilities; while at the level of society as a whole, it plays a destabilising role, reinforcing conflict dynamics.

VAWG is an under-examined, but crucial component of the overall crisis in South Sudan. In order to put the country on a stable path to peace and development, raising the understanding of policy makers regarding the consequences of VAWG on the country's economic development is critical to accelerate efforts by the government to addressing VAWG.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1 Overview of methodology

In order to answer the research questions outlined in Section 1.3, a number of approaches and methods were used:

1. Quantitative household and women's survey:

To gather information relating to individual experiences of women we conducted structured interviews surveys with a proportionally representative sample. This survey began with a household questionnaire to capture general household data. The individual survey included a comprehensive questionnaire administered by members of the local research team (from Tango Consult).

2. Quantitative employees and business managers' surveys:

To consider costs to businesses of VAWG, both perpetrated and experienced, we conducted in-person interviews with business managers and self-administered surveys with employees in the formal sector businesses.

3.2 Data

3.2.1 Women's survey and household survey questionnaires

The women's survey is a face-to-face in-home survey of women and girls aged between 18 and 60. Survey questions include those about wellbeing and social networks, as well as incidents of intimate partner violence, and non-partner violence. The number of Women and Girls' survey interviews that were completed were 1,996.

The household survey was conducted alongside the women's survey and collects data about the general household and individuals within the household. The data collected in the household survey provides important detail on socio-economic status, occupational distribution and pressures for examining economic and social impacts of VAWG. The number of Household survey interviews were 1,917. It was not possible to always complete a household survey, as the head of household in some households selected for the survey was unavailable during interviewer visits; hence, there are fewer household surveys than women and girls' surveys.

3.2.2 Business surveys questionnaires

Employee surveys questionnaires were handed out to employees in sampled businesses for self-completion. Both male and female employees have completed a business survey. For male employees, the survey covered both their experiences of violence and also their perpetration of violence. For female employees, the survey covered their experience of violence. The number of Employee Survey interviews that were completed were 680 (357 male & 323 female).

Manager surveys were conducted face-to-face and gathered information regarding their understanding of violence, their knowledge of violence, and the impacts of violence within the workplace. To protect employees, the manager survey was undertaken in separate businesses to the employee survey. 27 Manager Surveys were completed.

3.3 Sample size and framework

3.3.1 Women's survey and household survey

Target population and achieved sample size

The target population for the women and girls survey was women aged between 18 and 60, living in private, residential households.[3] A reference sample size of 2,000 interviews was required.

Coverage

It was necessary to exclude specific areas prior to the selection of primary sampling units (PSUs). The areas and the reasons for this are shown in Table 1 below.

Table 1 Areas excluded and reasons for exclusion

Areas excluded	Reasons for exclusion
Northern Bahr el Ghazel state; Unity state; Upper Nile state and Jonglei State (except 1 district)	Ongoing conflict between government and rebel forces.
Lakes state	Worsening tribal conflicts and increasing rebel incursions.
Twic county (within Warrap state)	Too close to Unity state, Northern Bahr el Ghazel state and the disputed Abyei region that were all volatile, unsafe areas.
Raga county (within Western Bahr el Ghazel state)	Inaccessible for fieldwork - no flights to the area and the only road was unsafe because of the presence of the Lord's Resistance Army (LRA).[4]
Tonj East county (within Warrap state)	Too close to Lakes state and Unity state, which were volatile, unsafe areas.
Lafon county (within Eastern Equatoria state)	Inaccessible for fieldwork – access would only be possible via off-road vehicles that could not be resourced.

Following these exclusions, the areas below were defined as accessible for fieldwork: Western Bahr el Ghazal state (excluding 1 county), Warrap state (excluding 2 counties), Western Equatorial state, Central Equatorial state, Eastern Equatoria state (except 1 county) and 1 district within Jonglei state offering 38% total population coverage.[5]

[3] In South Sudan, this means that fieldwork was not attempted in Protection of Civilian camps.

[4] A Ugandan rebel group operating in Central Africa Republic, DR Congo and South Sudan.

[5] Estimated coverage because large numbers of the population have been displaced because of the conflict since the data were compiled in 2008.

The fieldwork was not attempted in protection of civilian camps or in areas where active conflict was ongoing due to concerns for the safety of interviewers. Additionally, the survey did not collect data on women's experiences of conflict and how conflict was/is driving VAWG.[6]

Selection of PSUs and stratification

Bomas (the lowest level administrative unit available in South Sudan) were used in urban and rural areas. Random stratified sampling with probability of selection proportional to size (PPS) was applied in order to select the required number of PSUs. The stratification variables used were State, Urbanity and Ethnicity.[7]

The selection of PSUs was made by the respective National Bureau of Statistics, once they had reviewed and approved the research protocol. The distribution of PSUs in South Sudan across region and urbanity are shown in Table 2 .

Table 2 South Sudan - PSU distribution across region and urbanity

Region	Number of PSUs - urban	Number of PSUs - rural	Total number of PSUs
Central Equatoria	9	15	24
Eastern Equatoria	3	19	22
Jonglei	3	2	5
Warrap	2	11	13
Western Bahr-El-Ghazel	0	6	6
Western Equatoria	3	11	14
Total number of PSUs	20	64	84

Selected PSUs that did not have sufficient support services for respondents were replaced during the sampling phase by the SSNBS. To meet the ethical requirements for conducting this research, it was necessary to mitigate against the risk of causing further harm or distress to respondents by ensuring that local governmental and non-governmental support services were available should that be required.

It is also important to note that the area of fieldwork in this study did not overlap with the selected sites of the research by Component 2, with the exception of Juba. In Juba, selection of specific Bomas from the sampling frame provided by the SSNBS was done in coordination with Component 2 to ensure both research teams operated in distinct geographical zones of Juba.

[6]For readers interested in data on women's experiences of conflict or the interaction of VAWG and conflict, please see The Global Women's Institute and International Rescue Committee (2017), 'No Safe Place: A Lifetime of Violence for Conflict-Affected Women and Girls in South Sudan'. Washington DC: George Washington University and London: IRC.

[7] Ethnicity was based on the estimated population quarters of these groups in the capital city.

Random walk

A suitable list of addresses/households/individuals was not available to serve as a sample frame within the selected PSUs so instead a random walk approach was carried out. The aim of this was to identify dwelling units and households at which to attempt contact. Interviewers were given detailed instructions and training on the procedures to follow when carrying out the random walk. This included how to use maps (where available), identifying the starting point, the interval and the number of addresses to contact in each PSU. Further detail on each of these is included below.

Maps and starting points

Maps were provided by the Statistics Bureau for some PSUs but not all. The maps showed the boundary of each PSU[8] and landmarks within each – e.g. a public square, school, mosque, hotel, shop or hospital or another easily identifiable place or structure. Where sufficient information was available on either the PSU maps or in the list of PSUs, starting points were selected in advance of fieldwork by Ipsos. Where insufficient information was available, interviewers listed all landmarks within a PSU and supervisors randomly selected one or more to be used as a starting point for the interviewers to begin the random walk. In the event that a landmark no longer existed in a PSU, interviewers were instructed to list all available landmarks and for supervisors to randomly select one of those to act as a starting point for the random walk. Where maps were unavailable, interviewers were required to draw a rough sketch map of the PSU – showing the rough outline of the PSU including all boundary edges and the direction showing the orientation of the map. All major landmarks were plotted on the map and a supervisor randomly selected one of these to serve as the starting point.

Interval and number of addresses to contact

All interviewers were given detailed instructions and training on how to identify potential households to attempt contact at. Only residential buildings were to be contacted - offices, businesses, uninhabited or abandoned houses or apartment blocks, schools, hospitals, public buildings, factories, workshops, supermarkets and shops etc. were excluded from the count along the interviewer's route.

A sampling interval was pre-determined for each PSU and included in the instructions provided to the interviewers. The interval is the distance between two randomly selected addresses. The interval to be used was determined by PSU size. The interval ranged from 2-5 given that the PSUs were based on random routes from start points provided by the agency, rather than size-defined areas within given boundaries where it would have been possible to run out of addresses.[9]

Interviewers were instructed to contact 48 addresses per PSU. This was based on an assumed response rate of 50%. Contacting 48 addresses in 84 PSUs would generate 4,032 addresses and the required 2,000 interviews (24 per PSU).

[8] Clearly marked boundaries ensure there is no overlap between different PSUs (which would mean an increased likelihood for certain addresses to be selected into the sample) and, vice versa, no addresses were left out between two PSUs (which would result in non-coverage of these addresses).

[9] An interval of 1 was not considered appropriate for this project given the potential ethical and safety concerns associated with contacting every household in a PSU.

Random walk and selection of dwellings, households and individuals

Interviewers were given detailed instructions and training on the following elements of the random walk – how to apply the interval (when walking along a street and for apartment blocks), what to do at crossroads, dead-end streets, squares and roundabouts in urban areas at in villages next to a road or in a star shape.

Interviewers were instructed to attempt contact at the residential address identified via the random walk. On the rare occasion that multiple dwellings existed at an address, one was randomly selected. Similarly, where more than one household lived in a dwelling, all households were listed alphabetically according to the first name of the head of the household. Then one household was randomly selected using a Kish grid.

Having made contact with a household, the interviewer asked any responsible adult the screening questions to establish the number of eligible women living there.[10] If more than one woman was eligible, one was selected at random out of all eligible women. All eligible women were listed from oldest to youngest (where there were two women/girls of the same age, these were listed alphabetically) and then one selected using a Kish grid. In addition, the head of the household was also asked to complete the household survey. In some cases, the selected woman also completed the household survey.

Making contact

Interviewers were instructed to attempt to make contact and conduct interviews with equal effort at all addresses in a PSU even if this meant that on average the number of achieved interviews was higher than anticipated. They were given a contact sheet to record the outcome of each visit. The interviewers were instructed to visit every selected household at least 4 times before classifying this as a non-contact. If the head of a household or a selected woman was not available at the time of interview, the interviewer was required to make an appointment for a subsequent visit. Interviewers were also advised to re-visit any households where an interview or refusal was not obtained at the first visit – once they had contacted the required number of households in a PSU.

Quality control

Detailed documentation for the random walks were maintained by the supervisors. This included the hand drawn PSU maps (as described above); the first household selected; the random walk followed through a PSU by each interviewer and the household and respondent listing on each contact sheet. Supervisors were on hand during fieldwork to assist interviewers in locating PSU boundaries, replacing start points (e.g. if a hotel had been demolished or replaced) and conducting spot-checks and back-checks.

[10]Aged 18-60 years old who usually live in the household. All women/girls who were away for a period of six weeks or longer on work or study in another geographical location or country were excluded. Temporary guests, lodgers, tenants or servants unless they live in the household at least 5 nights a week, or have been living in the household for the past six months, or intend to do so for the next six months were also excluded.

The distribution of respondents across region and urbanity are shown in Table 3.

Table 3 Distribution of respondents across region and urbanity

Region and urbanity		Frequency	Total number of PSUs
Locality	Central Equatoria	676	33.9
	Eastern Equatoria	456	22.8
	Jonglei	112	5.6
	Warrap	321	16.1
	Western Bahr el Ghazel	132	6.6
	Western Equatoria	299	15.0
Urbanity	Rural	1401	70.2
	Urban	595	29.8

3.3.2 Business surveys

Sampling strategy and the role of national researchers

A purposive quota sample was used within selected cities in order to collect information from employees and managers of businesses. Self-completion surveys were undertaken with male and female employees in 100 businesses within the formal business sector in selected cities. In addition, HR and finance managers were surveyed in 25 separate businesses. National researchers formulated a sampling strategy to cover businesses in the formal business sector. Sectors were not selected based on their contribution to GDP, as GDP data was not available in South Sudan. While it had been anticipated that South Sudan Bureau of Statistics would be able to help draw the business survey samples, it was unable to do this. A sample frame that had been compiled by Tango Consult for the Africa Enterprise Survey on behalf of the World Bank was used.

Table 4 shows the cities, business sectors, and sample sources used. More details are provided in the following sections to explain why the cities and sectors were selected for the business surveys. Businesses with fewer than 10 employees were excluded from the sample frame[11] for the employee survey.

Table 4 Cities, business sectors, and sample sources used for each of the three study countries

Cities	Business sectors	Sample source
Juba and Yei	Manufacturing Retail and wholesale Hotels and restaurants Communication and IT Transport and logistics Construction Financial services	Africa Enterprise Survey (AES)

[11] This was due to confidentiality reasons and to protect respondent anonymity.

Businesses sampled: employee survey

The number of business sampled per sector by city was in line with the strategy developed by the by the national researchers who devised a sampling strategy to include businesses in both the service and industrial sectors, including manufacturing, retail and wholesale, hospitality, transport, construction, and financial services. It was advised that the majority of interviews be undertaken in Juba, given this is where the majority of businesses are based, and that as most of the business surveyed as part of the AES were based in Juba, the sample was largely limited to that city. It was however, recommended that at least some businesses should be surveyed in a second city, with Yei selected as the second city.

Table 5 shows the number of businesses surveyed by sector and city, and number of completed questionnaires achieved in South Sudan.

Table 5 South Sudan employee survey– number of businesses surveyed and number of completed questionnaires achieved

Sector	Number of businesses surveyed		Number of completed questionnaires achieved
	Juba	Yei	Overall total by sector
Manufacturing*	20	6	155
Retail and wholesale	5	4	49
Hotels and restaurants	32	0	288
Communication and IT	3	1	19
Transport and logistics	2	0	11
Construction	6	2	31
Financial services	19	2	127
TOTAL	84	15	680

*Includes 37 completed questionnaires from the oil and gas industry

Businesses sampled: manager survey

While fewer interviews were to be conducted with managers as part of the manager survey, the number of businesses selected followed the national researcher business strategies. As with the employee surveys, the same cities and sub-sectors were selected, with one manager surveyed in each business. Further details are provided in Table 6 .

Table 6 South Sudan manager survey– number of businesses surveyed and number of completed questionnaires achieved

Sector	Number of businesses surveyed	
	Juba	Yei
Manufacturing*	12	1
Retail and wholesale	7	0
Hotels and restaurants	1	2
Communication and IT	1	0
Transport and logistics	0	0
Construction	1	0
Financial services	2	0
TOTAL	24	3

*Includes 5 business managers from the oil and gas industry

3.4 Training and piloting

3.4.1 Cognitive testing

A small number of questions were selected from both the women's survey (N=20) and the employee survey (N=5) for pre-testing using cognitive interviewing. Cognitive interviewing is a diagnostic technique that explores the mental thought processes employed by individuals when answering survey questions – such as comprehension, recall and judgement. By exploring in detail the processes by which people interpret and respond to questions, it is possible to identify problems experienced and potential sources of measurement error. These can then be addressed through appropriate revisions to the questions or instructions to ensure that the questions measure what was intended and result in accurate data being collected. Around 20 cognitive interviews were conducted covering a spread of socio-demographic backgrounds (age, working status, education) of women living in each country. The questions selected from the two surveys were chosen on the basis that they might be difficult for respondents to interpret and understand.

3.4.2 Piloting

The women and girls' survey and the household survey were piloted in April and May 2016. The primary aim of the pilot was to test the questionnaire in an interview setting to understand the following:

- The overall length of the survey (Women and Girls' and Household Surveys combined).
- If there were any issues with the translated versions of the questionnaires.
- Respondents' comprehension of the questionnaires.
- How the introduction to the survey was received and potential respondents' willingness to participate.

The feasibility of conducting the interviews in a private setting.

The pilot also provided the opportunity to do a small scale test of the sampling procedures and fieldwork materials, including the consent form, contact sheet and respondent letter.

The team used a random walk sampling procedure, with random probability selection of both the household and the respondent. The full women and girls' survey and the household survey were tested. Feedback was provided by the interviewers and country managers which contributed to the evaluation of the materials and approach for the mainstage fieldwork

3.4.3 Translations

The Women and Girls' and Household survey questionnaires were translated into Juba Arabic. The business surveys would not be required in languages other than in English. It was advised that those who work in the formal business sector would be able to understand the questions in English.

The process to translate the questionnaires, and to validate the translations took part in a number of steps as follows:

- The final master questionnaires were translated by the local fieldwork agencies
- The translated questionnaires were proof read by Ipsos MORI's translation partner cApStAn
- cApStAn's commented versions were sent back to the local fieldwork agencies to review comments and implement and necessary changes
- The revised translated questionnaires were reviewed by NUI Galway and the national researchers with their comments being incorporated before the start of fieldwork.

3.4.4 Training

All interviewers working on the VAWG study were required to attend a comprehensive interviewer training workshop, prior to commencing fieldwork. The objective of the training was to give interviewers a solid background to the nature and objectives of the study; to help prepare them for dealing with sensitive subjects; and to ensure that the surveys would be carried out ethically, safely, and robustly. Each workshop lasted at least four days and covered a range of subjects from what is VAWG and the objectives of the study, to survey administration, fieldwork and sampling. A representative of the South Sudan fieldwork management team attended a training workshop in Accra, Ghana from 8-11 March 2016, with the objective being to replicate the same training in South Sudan. A workshop was then conducted in Juba, South Sudan from 5-9 April 2016. The first half of each workshop (two days) was dedicated to gender-violence training, role plays, case studies and how to handle sensitive subjects. Nata Duvvury, from the National University of Ireland, Galway

(NUIG) led the training in South Sudan. The second half of the training (two days) covered survey fieldwork, including the different questionnaires, survey administration, sampling, respondent and household selection, quality and fieldwork monitoring, and key timelines. While the main training workshops were held before fieldwork started, it was also necessary to undertake refresher training which was conducted on 13 September 2016.

3.5 Data collection/cleaning and preparation

All fieldwork was undertaken between June 2016 and March 2017. Due to the escalation of violence and civil unrest, it became too dangerous for fieldwork to be undertaken between 11 July and 13 September. To carry on with fieldwork would have put interviewers and interviewees in serious risk of harm. Interviewers working on the women and girls' survey and household survey received one day of refresher training, on 13 September, before the resumption of survey fieldwork.

Table 7 The fieldwork timeframe:

Survey	2016										2017	
	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	July	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb
Training	8-10						13					
Women		5-9		8					23			
Household												
Employee		22										28
Manager				7			30					

3.5.1 Women's survey and household survey

Contact sheets were used as a record of fieldwork progress, and to screen for and select eligible households. A contact sheet was used to select the household in structures where there were two of more households. A contact sheet was also used to select eligible respondents for the women's survey, in cases where there were two or more women aged 18-60 in the selected household. All interviews were carried out on paper questionnaires. Interviewers provided each respondent with an introductory letter, outlining the nature and purpose of the survey, and why it was important for them to take part. For the women's survey, the letter also explained why the respondent had been selected. All respondents were assured of confidentiality, and provided with the contact details of the local fieldwork agency's head office in their country in order that they could make enquiries or obtain more information about the survey if desired. Importantly, interviewers obtained informed consent from all participants in the surveys. For the women and girls' survey, and household survey, respondents were asked to sign a consent form, or if they could not write, to place an "x" as evidence they agreed to the survey. Women who took part in the survey were provided with a small thank you gift at the end of the survey with a value of around USD3. The gifts consisted of sugar, soap, salt, water, soda or cooking oil. Interviewers did not mention the thank you gift until the interview had been completed.

The response rate for the women and girls' survey is calculated as: Number of achieved (complete) interviews Divided by Number of addresses contacted minus the number of ineligible addresses or persons: 1,996 / 2,290-71 = 89.9%

3.5.2 Business surveys

Businesses were contacted by letter, telephone and in person to request their participation in the research. The survey was introduced as an important survey about employee quality of life and wellbeing. Among those business that agreed to take part, a day and time was agreed for interviewers to visit the premises of the business to hand out and collect the self-completion survey for employees, or to conduct the interview with managers.

For the employee survey, at the agreed date and time, interviewers visited each business to hand out questionnaires to employees. Upon arrival, interviewers asked to speak to the representative of the business who had agreed to the survey being undertaken. Employees were randomly selected for the survey with any employees of the business being eligible to take part. The nature and purpose of the survey was explained to each employee who was willing to complete a questionnaire. Those completing the questionnaire were asked to do so in private, and to hand it back to an interviewer upon completion. However, in some cases, interviewers were not allowed to remain on site for the day, but had to return to collect completed questionnaires. Where interviewers could not remain on site, employees were provided with a plain envelope and asked to seal their questionnaire once completed. A member of the interviewing team returned to collect completed questionnaires at the agreed time, which was usually at the end of the business day.

For the manager survey, in the same way as the employee survey, research teams made appointments to survey a representative of each of the selected businesses on the sample. Firstly, a letter was sent to the business, explaining that the survey was about employee health and wellbeing. The letter also explained that those eligible for the research should be senior staff from a finance or HR background, able to speak on behalf of the business. Letters were also followed up with telephone calls to ensure suitable appointments could be made. Interviewers visited each business at the agreed date and time to undertake a face-to-face survey with the business representative. Managers were surveyed face-to-face in different businesses to those where the employee surveys were conducted. This was to ensure confidentially for employees taking part in the survey. Managers were selected if they worked in a finance or human resources role as it was considered that they would be the most informed about their employees of a day-to-day basis. Only one interview per business was conducted, with the manager or supervisor responding on behalf of his or her own business or business area. No incentives were provided to any businesses that participated in the research.

3.5.3 Data processing

Once interviewing teams had completed their assignment, paper questionnaires were sent back to the Tango Consult's main office in Kampala for data processing. Ipsos MORI provided a data entry link for each survey to allow the uniform data entry of all surveys. The data was checked on a periodical basis by the local teams and the central team. Any issues identified were raised with respective country teams who were asked to recheck the data. Country teams then sent a list of corrections to Ipsos MORI, whose data processing operatives then applied to the datasets if/as applicable.

3.6 Ethical considerations

Individuals who have experienced intimate partner, domestic and/or non-partner sexual violence constitute a vulnerable group for whom participation in a research study on VAWG constitutes some risks. In particular risks include distress at re-calling incidents of violence, risk of retaliatory violence by an abusing partner/spouse, or stigma by the community. Given these risks, there are important ethical considerations in carrying out this research, in particular, reducing the risk of experiencing distress and ensuring confidentiality and anonymity. The following measures were taken:

- We asked that the woman takes part in the survey away from a male relative or other people – to prevent them from listening in. We did all we could to avoid a situation when a male relative is present as this may well distort the answers that the respondent would wish to give. Recognising that some men may insist on listening in to what their partner has to say, we trained interviewers to use a dummy questionnaire when men and/or other bystanders are present and to continue with the main questionnaire only when bystanders, including young children, are no longer present. Above all – if the interviewer saw that the woman was not allowed to take part in private, she discreetly ended the survey without saying that the survey can only be carried out privately. This is not to raise suspicion which could lead to retaliatory violence for the interviewee or the interviewer.
- Only female interviewers of appropriate ethnicity were used for the women's survey. All interviewers were trained in handling sensitive topics. They received written instructions, and took part in a training workshop for four days before commencing fieldwork. They also had a refresher training of 1 day when a break in the survey occurred due to sudden eruption of conflict in July 2016.The training included a module on surveying vulnerable groups.
- An information sheet was read to participants to ensure understanding of the research, its objectives and how the information will be used. Participants were encouraged to clarify any doubts they may have before giving consent. Once consent was given, the respondents was given an opportunity to indicate their willingness to continue the interview before sections on sensitive topics. Additionally participants were assured that they could opt not to answer particular questions.
- All participants were fully informed that participation is voluntary and that they may chose not to answer any question they wish or end the interview at any time with no negative consequences.
- The counties in which the Bomas have been selected are those that all have referral services available.
- We engaged trained psycho-social counsellors working in the Juba area to accompany the interviewers/enumerators.
- When a participant became distressed, the enumerators were able to advise on relevant support services in the area. To avoid compromising the woman (by providing her with hard copies of materials, which may arouse suspicion) relevant information was conveyed verbally.
- All data was held in confidence, anonymised, and securely stored.

The study received ethical approval from National University of Ireland Galway's Ethics Committee in 2016. The research protocol was also reviewed and approved by the National Bureau of Statistics of South Sudan. Once approved, NBS drew the sampling frame for the research and provided maps of selected PSUs (known as Bomas in SS) to the extent possible.

3.7 Analysis of data

The focus of the study was estimating the economic and social costs of violence at the household and community level, particularly focusing on tangible costs, due to the experience of different forms of violence (IPV, family violence, workplace violence, and violence in public spaces). The costs at the household were estimated using a simple accounting methodology. The costs that have been captured in the women's survey include the out-of- pocket expenditures for accessing services, missed work due to violence, missed school days by children and missed care work. The women's questionnaire included detailed questions on:

- Demographic details
- Social networks
- Local community
- Access to services
- Governance
- Participation and volunteering
- Crime and safety
- Marital relationships
- Paid and unpaid work
- General and reproductive health
- History of violence in the home
- Violence at the workplace, in educational institutes and in public spaces
- Impact and seeking help
- Protection of civilian/internally displaced person camps (South Sudan only)

3.7.1 Estimation of the costs to households

In this study two types of costs have been considered to estimate the cost of

different forms of violence at the household level. These are direct (out of pocket) costs and the indirect costs. Table 8 below presents the elements that have been considered for the cost estimations.

Table 8 Elements of VAWG cost estimation

Costs elements	
Out of pocket cost	Healthcare expenses, police fees (formal and informal), costs of arrest, shelter, filing cases, costs incurred in courts, replacement costs for property damaged
Indirect cost	Days lost from paid work by the women and their husbands; days lost in reproductive work, School days

Out-of-pocket costs were calculated for each woman for each type of expense based on the following equation:

$$TOPC = \sum_i \sum_s C_{is} \quad (1)$$

Where TOPC is total out-of-pocket cost, C_{is} represents the reported cost for each service for each woman experiencing violence as outlined in the table above. Costs of each specific service included various elements such as fees, transport, and/or material costs. Unit cost for accessing each service or replacing property was calculated by averaging the total cost by the number of women reporting the expense.

In terms of indirect costs, average number of days of lost was calculated by taking the mean of number of days reported by women with respect to their missing work and their partners missing work. For care work missed, the number of days missed by each woman reporting missed care work was calculated as follows:

$$MCW = \sum_i (\sum_t (DFS_t * H_t) + (DPS_t * H_t))/H_t \quad (2)$$

Where MCW is Missed Care Work, i individual woman, t is the care activity, DFS is days fully stopped care activity t, DPS is days partially stopped care activity t, and H is the average hours spent on care activity in a day. The sum of hours care work missed across all tasks is divided by the hours spent of care activities in a day to derive days missed of care work.

Following the same logic as above the missed school days was calculated as the mean of the days reported by each individual woman as children missing school as given below:

$$MSCD = (\sum_i (SCD_i))/n \quad (3)$$

where MSCD is Missed School Days, SCD is reported school days missed by children of woman, n is number of women reporting children missed school.

Each of these costs were calculated for each location of violence as well as an overall average across all locations. Thus two estimates are provided – costs for IPV alone and costs for any form of violence including IPV.

Given the low reporting rate of women on these specific costs and with the understanding that the major impact of violence in contexts of limited services is on work, we have also calculated the days of absenteeism, tardiness and presenteeism among women and undertook a simple comparison of means between two groups – those experiencing IPV and no IPV, as well as those experiencing 'Any Violence' and 'No Violence'.

Women who reported engaging in economic activity were asked the number of days they missed work, were late to work or had lower productivity due to a range of reasons in the past 4 weeks. As the questions are asked in the last 4 weeks for each woman because of better recall, the days lost are multiplied by 12 to give yearly estimates. The calculation of days for each is based on an algorithm developed by Aristides Vara Horna. The algorithm, based on a review of management literature, was initially applied in his study on costs of IPV to businesses in Peru and Bolivia (Vara Horna, 2014 and 2015).

Table 9 Calculation of absenteeism, tardiness and presenteeism

Indicator	Algorithm	Notes
Absenteeism a) You were unwell at home b) You had to go to a hospital or a health clinic because you were unwell c) You had to look after a child or other family member because they were unwell d) You had to attend to legal, financial or personal matters e) You did not have enough money for transport to and/or from work	ABS= (AVG(a+b)+c+d+e)*12	First two reasons are closely related and so average is taken across both to provide a conservative estimate, minimising double counting. As the questions are asked in the last 4 weeks for each woman because of better recall, the days lost are multiplied by 12 to give yearly estimates.
Tardiness a)You were unwell at home b)You had to go to a hospital or a health clinic because you were unwell c)You had to look after a child or other family member they were unwell d)You had to attend legal, financial or personal matters	TD = ((a+b+c+d)*0.25)*12	Days late equivalent to ¼ of a full working day as being late impacts only part of the day (possibly up to 2 hours in the working day)

Table 9 Calculation of absenteeism, tardiness and presenteeism (continued)

Indicator	Algorithm	Notes
Presenteeism a) Did you have difficulties concentrating on your work b) Did you work much more slowly than you normally would c) Were you exhausted at work d) Did you have to stop work because you were worried about something e) Did you have to stop work because you had an accident at work	PRS = (AVG(a+b)*0.25+c*0.25+d *1+e*2)*12	a) and b) are closely interrelated so average is taken. First three a), b), and c) weighted as equivalent to ¼ day, d) is weighted as 1 because work is stopped and e) has weight of 2 as work is stopped for day of accident and potentially for subsequent days.

Business employees were specifically asked if they missed work, were late or had lowered productivity after incidents of violence. The estimation of actual hours lost was based on reported time lost for each item under the three categories of absenteeism, tardiness and presenteeism, hence no weights were applied. Thus the estimates of absenteeism, tardiness and presenteeism can be used to estimate the output loss for the economy.

Additionally various indicators were developed to explore the dynamics and impacts of violence: socio-economic status, illness score, acute mobility score, and depression score.

3.7.2 Regional estimates

All estimates were derived from weighted analysis of household and women's survey data. Household and individual weights reflected the reciprocal of the probability of household or individual women being selected, both capped at 97.5 percentile and the average of the weights equaling to one. National estimates were derived after applying the population weight for individual women which is defined as:

w_ind *(N/n)

Where w_ind is the individual woman's weight, N is the national country estimate of the number of women 18-60 and n is the country sample size. This means that the weight for each case in South Sudan will get exactly the same scaling factor multiplied onto its weight. This works if the individual

women's weights have an average of 1 which is the case of this study. The population weight was estimated scaling down by 38% the total female population of 2,607,871 in 2016 derived from World Bank estimates, as no specific regional female population figure covering the survey region was available.

Applying the population weights provides the numbers of women who are survivors of violence based on the reporting of violent behaviours by women in the survey. Technically this means that regional estimates assume that the prevalence rates of different forms of violence in the study are regionally representative. These regional estimates equally assume that the unit values for various costs represent the average expenditures incurred by women who incurred various costs.

3.7.3 Limitations of the study

A key assumption in the study is that any type of violence (economic, psychological, physical or sexual) has negative impacts for women experiencing such behaviours. We have therefore explored the economic impacts of any behaviour of violence across the different locations that women experience violence

An important limitation of the study is that areas in active conflict were not included in this study. Thus, given the conflict situation in South Sudan, the survey covers only 38% of women aged 18–60 in South Sudan in 2016. Moreover, given the potential for significant differences in economic activity and social structure due to current conflict, it is not possible to extrapolate the findings of this study to the country as a whole.[12] Hence, the estimates of this study provide an insight into the *potential economic impact* of violence experienced by women and girls for the broader economy with respect to the 38% population coverage

Second, estimates extrapolated from sample data can result in overestimates or underestimates depending on the representativeness of the sample as well as sample size for variables of interest. For example we restricted our sample selection to Bomas with referral services and thus extrapolation across the region may result in overestimation or even underestimation of the out-of-pocket expenditure for accessing services. All estimates presented here should be interpreted as likely within a +/- 95% confidence interval.

Third, we did not have robust wage/income data, from the survey or even from other national datasets, to give estimates of monetary costs of missed work and care work.

[12] Among the surveyed women in this study, 17% of women reported that they had been in the POC or IDP camps for more than a week in the last three years from the time of the survey (2016).

4. FINDINGS

4.1 Findings from the women's survey

4.1.1 Respondent characteristics

The household survey included 1996 completed surveys. The mean age of the women participating in the household survey was 32 years (SD = 11.9 years). South Sudan is a country where marriage is predominant – about 26% of women respondents were never married, about half were married or have a boyfriend or fiancé, and 22% were divorced, separated or widowed. The IRC/GWI study of Component 2 also found that more than 80% of respondents were ever partnered. As discussed above in section on the context of South Sudan, the majority of women have little schooling – 62 % of the women have never attended school in this survey. Not surprisingly given the conflict context, only about 5% of respondents had technical or university education. The participation rate of women in economic activity is high with 71% of women reporting that they were working in the last 12 months. This is higher than the ILO's estimate of 62% in 2016, which is a projected estimate based on 2008 data.[13] The higher percentage of women reporting working in this study may reflect that in a growing period of uncertainty due to conflict, women are eking out livelihood as self-employed (52.6%), or unpaid family worker (30%). Female participants mainly worked in the agriculture sector (78%). Table 10 shows the respondent characteristics.

Table 10 Household survey respondent characteristics

	No of Female	% of Total
Age		
18–20	429	21.5
21–25	390	19.5
26–35	477	23.9
36–45	360	18
46–50	148	7.4
50+	192	9.6
Mean SD	31.98	11.9

	No of Female	% of Total
Employment status		
Working	1422	71.1
Not working	561	28.1
Occupation (n= 1422)		
Regular salaried	116	8.2
Self-employed	748	52.6
Unpaid family worker	426	30
Contract	43	3
Doing something else	61	4.3
Not stated	29	2

[13]ILOSTAT accessible at https://www.ilo.org/ilostat/faces/wcnav_defaultSelection?_afrLoop=2674339937126878_afrWindowMode=0&_afrWindowId=null#!%40%40%3F_afrWindowId%3Dnull%26_afrLoop%3D267433993712687%26_afrWindowMode%3D0%26_adf.ctrl-state%3Dw10fr6l77_4

Table 10 Household survey respondent characteristics (continued)

	No of Female	% of Total
The highest level of education obtained		
Never attended school	1239	62.1%
Primary	411	20.6%
Middle and Secondary School	216	10.8%
Higher/University	44	2.2%
Technical/ Vocational	48	2.4%
Not stated	39	1.9%
Marital status		
Never married	525	26.3
Married	748	37.5
living with a boyfriend	209	10.5
Have a boyfriend / not living with him	22	1.1
Divorced or separated	164	8.2
Widowed	303	15.2
Not stated	26	1.2

	No of Female	% of Total
Frequency of work during the year		
Full-time	231	16.2
Part-time	113	7.9
Seasonal worker	1040	73.2
Others or not stated	39	2.6
Sector of work		
Agriculture	1109	78
Wholesale and retail	62	4.4
Education	42	3
Fishing and forestry	28	2
Accommodation & food	30	2.1
Health & social work	26	1.8
Other industry	75	5.2
Not stated	18	1.2

Reflecting the conflict context where individuals and families have been displaced or sought shelter in POCs, 17% of the women in the survey reported seeking shelter in POC or IDP camp for than a week in the last 3 years. Additionally approximately 20% of the women reported that they had lived in the community for less than 3 years, reflecting the state of fluidity that has characterised the lives of South Sudanese people since its formation in 2011.

The survey is representative of the specific context of women in South Sudan in the regions covered, thus providing a rationale to derive regional estimates from the reported unit costs of violence in this study. The estimates in this report are likely to be an underestimate as the cost related impacts on productivity and human capital of the internally displaced due to conflict may be significantly higher. However, the estimates provide an insight into the potential economic impact of violence against women.

4.1.2 Prevalence of VAWG

Violence definitions

To understand the different violence experiences, the woman's survey explored both the form of violence as well as the type of violence. Form of violence was defined by the perpetrator and location of the violence. Thus IPV was defined as violence by a partner/husband in an intimate relationship. Family violence included violence experiences of women living in marital or natal families, with the violence being perpetrated by non-partner (i.e., parents, siblings, in-laws, and/or relatives). Work place violence was defined as violence that occurs in the workplace, educational violence was violence within educational institutes by classmates, teachers or administrators, and public spaces violence encompassed violence by known persons or strangers in public transport, streets, squares and markets.

The type of violence explored in this study included psychological, physical and sexual violence experienced by women by the different forms of violence. In case of IPV, each type of violence involved specific acts as given in the table below.

Type of IPV	Explanation
Economic violence	The intimate partners have control over women's access to economic resources, which diminishes their capacity to support themselves and forces them to depend on the perpetrators financially.
Psychological violence	The intimate partners insult women or made them feel bad, belittle and humiliate them in front of other people, scare or frighten them, or threaten to hurt them or someone they care about.
Physical violence	The intimate partners slap women or physically hurt them by hitting, kicking, dragging, beating, choking or burning them, or threaten to use or used guns, knives or other weapon against them, or throw them out of their houses
Sexual violence	The intimate partners physically force women to have sex when they did not want to, used threats or intimidation to get them to have sex when they did not want to, or forced them to do something else sexual that they did not want to.

Economic violence was explored only in the case of IPV. In the case of sexual violence, sexual violence was explored more deeply in the case of workplace, educational and public space violence to cover sexual harassment, sexual assault without force and sexual assault with force.

Sexual harassment	Verbal harassment in sexual manner, leering, sexual jokes, belittling/humiliating sexual remarks
Sexual assault	Grabbing, groping or sexually touching without consent
Sexual assault	Forced to touch, made drunk, drugged , or threatened so could not refuse sexual act, or physically forced to engage in sexual acts

Pervasiveness of violence

Violence against women not unexpectedly is quite high in South Sudan, as was indicated in the earlier discussion of the South Sudan context. ***In line with the IRC study, 51% of currently partnered women reported experiencing physical and/or sexual violence in the last year.*** In this study, behaviours of economic and psychological violence were also explored. Considering all behaviours, the prevalence of intimate partner is high with nearly 72% of currently married women reporting experiencing at least one behaviour of IPV in the last 12months (see Table 11 below). More than 4 out of every 10 women living with parents or in extended families reported experiencing violence whereas nearly 1 in 3 working women experienced violence in the last 12 months. More than half of all women surveyed reported experiencing some type of violence in the public space. Though the numbers surveyed are small, more than 80 per cent of women attending educational institutions reported experiencing at least one violent behaviour in the last 12 months. In effect, women in South Sudan live in an environment of high levels of violence within intimate relationships, family, workplace, and public spaces.

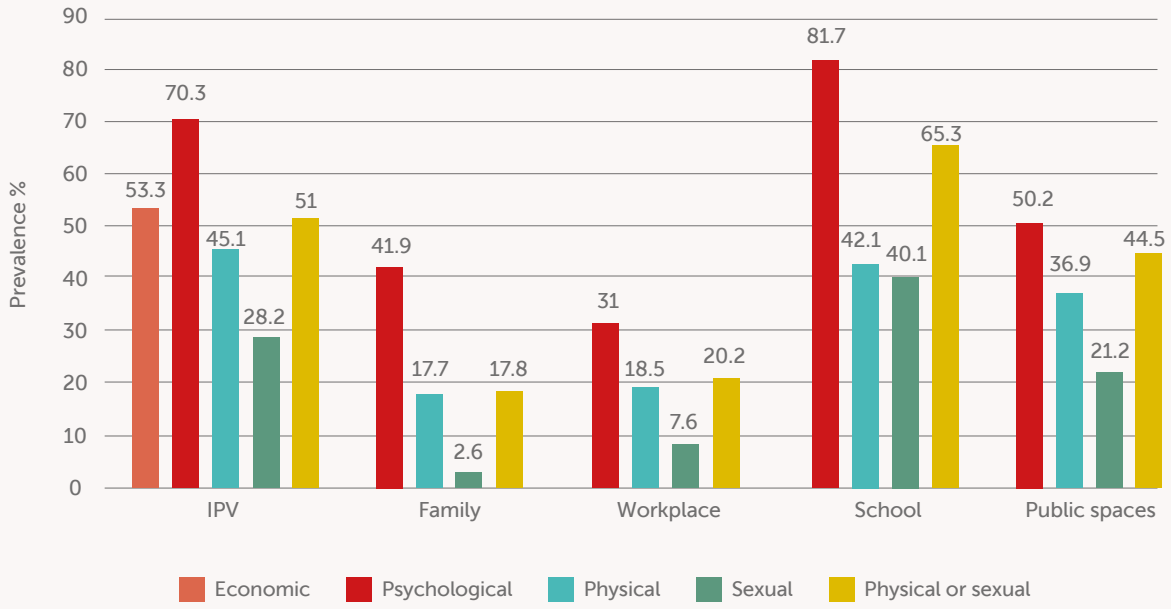
Table 11 and Figure 2 shows the prevalence of violence during the last 12 months

Table 11 Prevalence of violence during the last 12 months

Forms of violence	Number	Sample prevalence	Weighted sample	Weighted prevalence	Weighted prevalence out of the total sample (n=1996)
IPV	764	71.9%	624	72.3%	31.26%
Family	391	45.2%	461	42%	23.10%
Workplace	320	29.5%	353	31.8%	17.69%
Schools	83	82.2%	96	81.7%	4.81%
Public spaces	1054	54.8%	1049	55.1%	52.56%

In each form of violence, women experienced different types of violence including economic, psychological, physical or sexual.

Figure 2 Prevalence of violence during last 12 months



Source: Women's Survey, 2016

4.1.2.1 Intimate partner violence among partnered women during last 12 months

Out of 1063 currently partnered women who participated in the women's survey 764 (71.9%) reported that they have some form of domestic violence by a current or former spouse or partner in an intimate relationship during the last 12 months. Table 12 and Table 13 shows the prevalence of IPV among partnered women during last 12 months.

Women who experienced IPV, experienced a range of forms of violence within their relationships. Below we provide information about economic, physical, sexual and psychological IPV.

Economic violence: About half (53.3%) of women reported experiencing economic violence. In economic violence, the intimate partners have control over their access to economic resources, which diminishes their capacity to support themselves and forces them to depend on the perpetrators financially.

Psychological violence: 70.3% reported Intimate partner psychological violence during last 12 months, where the intimate partners have insulted them or made the feel bad, belittled and humiliated them in front of other people, scared or frighten them, or threaten to hurt them or someone they care about.

Physical violence: 45.1% of the women reported physical violence during last 12 months, where their intimate partners have slapped or physically hurt them by hitting, kicking, dragging, beating, choking or burning them, or threaten to use or used guns, knives or other weapon against them, or throw them out of their houses.

Sexual violence: At least one in every 4 women interviewed (28.2%) reported sexual violence by intimate partners during last 12 months. This includes that intimate partners physically force them to have sex when they did not want to, used threats or intimidation to get them to have sex when they did not want to, or forced them to do something else sexual that they did not want to.

Table 12 Prevalence of IPV among partnered women during last 12 months

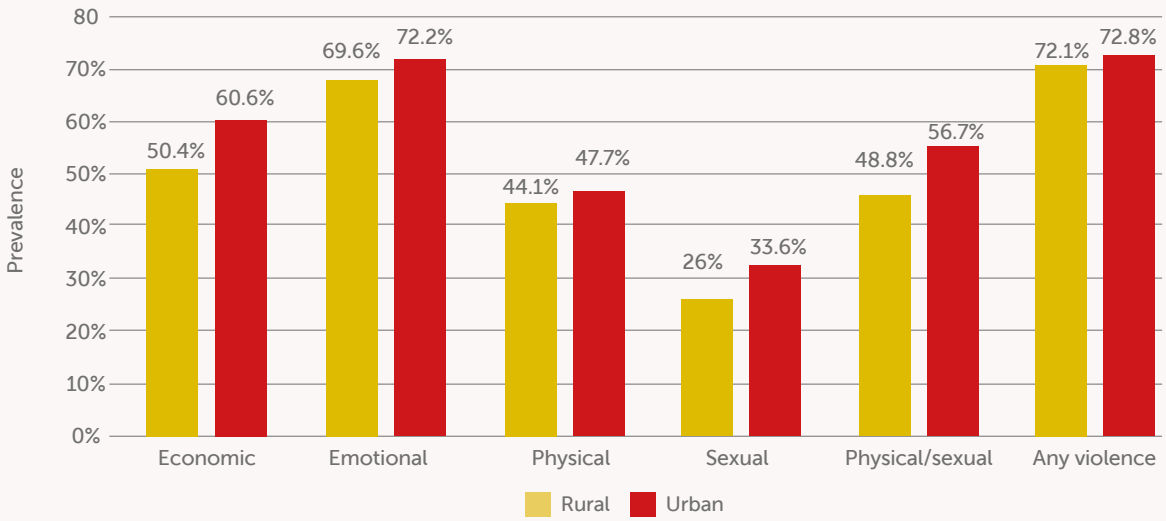
IPV during last 12 months	No of women experienced IPV (Unweighted)	Unweighted prevalence	Number of women experienced IPV	Weighted prevalence out of the total sample (n=1996)
Economic	556	52.8	456	53.3%
Psychological	727	69.4	598	70.3%
Physical	495	47.7	382	45.1%
Sexual	298	28.9	238	28.2%
Physical or Sexual	549	52.9	431	51%
Any type	764	71.9	624	72.3%

Urban areas have higher rates of all types of IPV (Table 13 and (Figure 3). There is a significant difference between urban and rural areas in relation to economic, physical, sexual and physical or sexual violence wherein women in urban areas were significantly more likely to experience those forms of violence compared to women in rural areas.

Table 13 Prevalence of IPV among partnered women during last 12 months by geographical location

IPV during last 12 months	Rural		Urban		P value
	No of women experienced violence	Weighted percent out of partnered women	No of women experienced violence	Weighted percent out of partnered women	
Economic	310	50.4%	146	60.6	.007
Psychological	424	69.6%	174	72.2%	.458
Physical	267	44.1%	115	47.7%	.344
Sexual	157	26%	80	33.6%	.028
Physical or sexual	295	48.8%	136	56.7%	.038
Any	446	72.1	179	72.8	.833

Figure 3 IPV during last 12 months by geographical location



Source: Women's Survey, 2016

4.1.2.2 Family members violence during last 12 months

Women also faced problems and conflicts with other family members who live with them in addition to husbands/partners. This could be with their parents, or parents-in-law, brothers and sisters, and other family members. Out of the 888 who live with other people who are not their husbands or partners, 386 (41.9%) reported psychological violence during last 12 months, 17.7% reported physical violence, and 2.6% reported sexual violence by other family members (Table 14). Urban areas have higher rates of all type of family members' violence. (Table 15)

Table 14 Prevalence of violence during last 12 months

Violence during last 12 months	Frequency	Percent	Weighted prevalence
Family members violence during last 12 months (n=888)			
Psychological	386	44.7%	41.9%
Physical	169	21%	17.7%
Sexual	26	3.3%	2.6%
Physical or sexual	171	21.3%	17.8%
Any type	391	45.2%	42%

Table 15 Prevalence of violence during last 12 months by geographical location

IPV during last 12 months	Rural		Urban		P value
	No of women experienced violence	Weighted percent out of partnered women	No of women experienced violence	Weighted percent out of partnered women	
Psychological	305	38.3%	152	51.2%	0.000
Physical	113	15.6%	65	23.1%	.005
Sexual	19	2.6%	7	2.5%	.912
Physical or sexual	114	15.7%	65	23.1%	.006
Any	307	38.3%	154	51.7%	0.000

4.1.2.3 Violence outside home

Women also experience violence outside the home, including in the workplace, in educational institutes and in public spaces. The types of violence outside home and their explanations used in the survey are provided in Table 16. It is important note that sexual harassment was explored in addition to sexual assault to capture the continuum of sexual violence that women are likely to experience outside the home.

Table 16 The types of violence outside home and their explanations

Type of violence	Explanation
Verbal violence	Someone verbally intimidated, humiliated or insulted you?
Physical violence	Someone slapped, pushed, punched, kicked, tried to burn you, pointed a gun, knife or any other weapon at you?
Sexual harassment	Someone verbally harassed you in a sexual manner? Leered at you? Made sexual jokes? Belittling/humiliating sexual comments?
Sexual assault	Someone grabbed, groped or otherwise touched you sexually without your consent Someone forced you to touch them or forced you (made you drunk, drugged you, threatened you so you could not refuse, physically forced you) to engage in sexual acts without your consent?

Workplace violence during last 12 months: Women also encountered difficult situations in their place of work from colleagues, people in authority and peers who behaved inappropriately. Out of 1381 women who are involved in economic work, 305 (31%) reported verbal violence during last 12 months, 18.5% reported physical violence, and 7.6% reported Sexual Harassment or assault. (Table 17)

Violence in school, college or university: Women also experienced violence within education institutes. Out of 101 women who were attending school, college or university at the time of the survey or had done so in the previous 12 months, 83 (81.7%) reported verbal violence, 42.1% reported physical violence, and 40.1 % reported Sexual Harassment or assault. (Table 17)

Public spaces violence during last 12 months: Women also experienced violence within public spaces. Out of 1996 women who participated in the household survey 963 (50.2 %) reported verbal violence, 36.9 % reported physical violence, and 21.2 % reported Sexual Harassment or assault. Approximately 44% of women reported experiencing physical and/or sexual violence. (see Table 17).

The reporting of sexual violence outside the home is quite high, particularly in public spaces. However it should be noted that sexual violence outside the home captures both sexual harassment, as well unwanted touching, coerced sexual interaction covering both attempted and completed rape. It is likely that the high rates of sexual violence are reflective of a wider culture of sexual harassment, as the IRC/GWI study noted: *'...women also noted that sexual harassment in the community was an increasing problem, and linked this to the increase in gang activity.'*[14]

Table 17 Prevalence of violence during last 12 months

Violence during last 12 months	Unweighted frequency	Percent	Weighted prevalence
Workplace violence during last 12 months (n=1085)			
Verbal	305	28.2	31 %
Physical	176	16.5	18.5%
Sexual	90	8.5	7.6%
Physical or sexual	202	18.8	20.2%
Any type	320	29.5	31.8 %
Violence in school, college or university (n=101)			
Verbal	83	82.2	81.7 %
Physical	42	42.4	42.1 %
Sexual	43	43.4	40.1 %
Physical or sexual	63	63.3	65.3%
Any type	83	82.2	81.7 %

[14] GWI and IRC, 2017: 31

Table 17 Prevalence of violence during last 12 months (continued)

Violence during last 12 months	Unweighted frequency	Percent	Weighted prevalence
Public spaces violence during last 12 months (n=1923)			
Verbal	963	50.5	50.2 %
Physical	665	35.1	36.9 %
Sexual	400	21.2	21.2 %
Physical or sexual	836	43.7	44.45%
Any type	1054	54.8	55.1%

Source: Women's Survey, 2016

Similar to intimate partner violence, women in urban areas had a higher risk of experiencing violence at workplaces, schools or public spaces.

Table 18 Violence outside home during last 12 months by geographical location

Violence during last 12 month	Rural		Urban		P value
	No of women experienced violence	Weighted percent out of partnered women	No of women experienced violence	Weighted percent out of partnered women %	
Workplace	200	23.7%	153	58%	0.000
Schools	42	71.2%	54	91.5%	.005
Public spaces	726	52.2%	314	62.2%	0.000

4.1.3 Correlates of violence

Statistical analysis was performed to identify correlates of Intimate partner violence.

Table 19 examines women's characteristics correlates of Intimate partner violence during last 12 months. The age of women is statistically significantly correlated with the four types of IPV. It forms a bell shaped curved correlation in which the highest rate of IPV occurs in the period between 26 and 35 years old. Ever attending school is statistically significantly correlated with higher IP sexual violence and lower IP physical violence. Engagement in unpaid family work is statistically significantly correlated with higher rate of IP economic, psychological and physical violence. Women who have school-age children living with them have statistically significantly higher rates of IP economic, psychological, physical and sexual violence.

Surprisingly, there is no relationship with level of education for any of the types of violence, which may be a reflection of the small numbers with higher educational qualifications. Further, women who are married at a younger age are more likely to face physical violence. In terms of work, there is no definite relationship except in the case of sexual violence, which was higher among those not working. Among working women those who were unpaid family workers had the highest reporting of economic, psychological and physical violence with self-employed reporting relative lower rates.

Table 19 Correlates of intimate partner violence during last 12 months (women characteristics)

	Economic violence		Psychological violence		Physical violence		Sexual violence	
	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%
Women age								
18–20	50	31.1%	72	44.7%	47	29.2%	29	18.0%
21–25	98	42.6%	138	60.0%	84	36.5%	62	27.0%
26–35	223	55.3%	296	73.4%	213	52.9%	132	32.8%
36–45	130	59.1%	149	67.7%	111	50.5%	56	25.5%
46–50	31	42.5%	39	53.4%	26	35.6%	13	17.8%
50+	24	41.4%	33	56.9%	14	24.1%	6	10.3%
P value	.000		.000		.000		.000	
Ever attended school								
Yes	226	49.6%	298	65.4%	181	39.7%	143	31.4%
No	330	48.0%	429	62.4%	314	45.6%	155	22.5%
P value	.597		.303		.047		.001	
Highest educational attainment (women)								
Preschool	4	50.0%	5	62.5%	3	37.5%	2	25.0%
Primary	131	50.2%	166	63.6%	101	38.7%	83	31.8%
Middle	28	45.2%	44	71.0%	23	37.1%	28	45.2%
Secondary	31	62.0%	41	82.0%	27	54.0%	15	30.0%
Technical	10	38.5%	14	53.8%	7	26.9%	4	15.4%
University	16	50.0%	21	65.6%	15	46.9%	10	31.3%
P value	.435		.116		.222		.133	

Table 19 Correlates of intimate partner violence during last 12 months (women characteristics) (continued)

	Economic violence		Psychological violence		Physical violence		Sexual violence	
	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%
Women involvement in any work								
Yes	366	48.4%	482	63.8%	342	45.2%	177	23.4%
No	188	49.3%	243	63.8%	151	39.6%	119	31.2%
P value	.467		.118		.171		.030	
Type of woman's work/ which one of these describes the work that you do?								
Employee	48	45.7%	67	63.8%	44	41.9%	25	23.8%
Self-employed	140	39.7%	205	58.1%	142	40.2%	80	22.7%
Unpaid	168	61.5%	200	73.3%	147	53.8%	68	24.9%
P value	.000		.000		.002		.806	
How women describe their health?								
Excellent	77	41.4%	93	50.0%	71	38.2%	45	24.2%
Good	343	48.0%	455	63.6%	309	43.2%	183	25.6%
Fair	94	55.0%	125	73.1%	83	48.5%	57	33.3%
Poor	26	65.0%	31	77.5%	21	52.5%	10	25.0%
Very poor	4	44.4%	7	77.8%	2	22.2%	0	0.0%
P value	.049		.000		.203		.060	
Women have school-age children living with them								
Yes	351	58.7%	445	74.4%	317	53.0%	174	29.1%
No	201	37.7%	278	52.2%	177	33.2%	124	23.3%
P value	.000		.000		.000		.019	
Women age at marriage or engagement								
193	50.8%	271	71.3%	202	53.2%	107	28.2%	25.0%
242	58.3%	295	71.1%	191	46.0%	130	31.3%	31.8%
P value	.033		.943		.044		.329	

Source: Women's Survey, 2016

Table 20 examines partners' characteristics correlates of Intimate Partner Violence during last 12 months. Partners' level of education correlates significantly with IP psychological and sexual violence. Partners' involvement in any work was statistically significantly correlated with higher economic, psychological, and physical violence. If the partner engages in unpaid family work there is a statistically significantly correlation with higher rates of IP economic, psychological and physical violence. Partners who have other wives are statically significantly correlated with higher IP economic and psychological violence.

Table 20 Correlates of intimate partner violence during last 12 months (partners characteristics)

	Economic violence		Psychological violence		Physical violence		Sexual violence	
	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%
The highest level of education (husband or partner)								
Pre-school	19	51.4%	22	59.5%	20	54.1%	11	29.7%
Primary	97	49.0%	127	64.1%	82	41.4%	56	28.3%
Middle School	46	51.7%	60	67.4%	40	44.9%	34	38.2%
Secondary School	45	62.5%	58	80.6%	39	54.2%	32	44.4%
Technical/ Vocational	19	46.3%	27	65.9%	15	36.6%	12	29.3%
Higher/ University	36	53.7%	45	67.2%	26	38.8%	20	29.9%
P value	.069		.001		.278		.000	
Partner involvement in any work								
Yes	455	49.5%	595	64.7%	400	43.5%	249	27.1%
No	54	37.0%	84	57.5%	54	37.0%	33	22.6%
P value	.002		.000		.006		.094	
Which one of these describes the work that your husband or partner does?								
Employee	166	57.0%	203	69.8%	134	46.0%	97	33.3%
Self-employed	164	41.8%	237	60.5%	141	36.0%	97	24.7%
Unpaid	105	60.3%	126	72.4%	104	59.8%	44	25.3%
P value	.000		.006		.000		.033	

Table 20 Correlates of intimate partner violence during last 12 months (partners characteristics) (continued)

	Economic violence		Psychological violence		Physical violence		Sexual violence	
	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%
The husband or fiancé has other wives								
Yes	165	53.4%	216	69.9%	142	46.0%	94	30.4%
No	290	45.7%	376	59.3%	260	41.0%	166	26.2%
P value	.027		.002		.149		.172	

Source: Women's Survey, 2016

4.1.4 Economic impacts/costs:

The economic impacts as discussed earlier are experienced at the household level in terms of the expenditures incurred due to experiencing the different forms of violence reported by women, inability to undertake care work, children missing school days and women incurring productivity loss in terms of being absent from work as well as being less productive while at work.

4.1.4.1 Direct cost of violence

Injuries

Of the women who experienced intimate partner violence during the last 12 months, 40.9% reported sustaining injuries as a result of the violence. The most common reported injuries were scratches or bruises (56%), puncture wounds or bite marks (27.2%), cuts, gashes or bleeding (15.1%), Eye or ear injury (11.6%), Sprains or dislocations (9.9%), Burns (6%), or fractures (3.9%) (Table 21).

Table 21 Reported injuries as a result intimate partner violence during last 12 months

IPV during last 12 months	Count	Experienced IPV (n=577)	Weighted percent experienced IPV	All partnered women during last 12 months (n= 1145)
Injuries	232	40.2%	40.9%	20.3%
No injury or not stated	345	59.8%	59.1%	

Table 21 Reported injuries as a result of intimate partner violence during last 12 months (continued)

Type of injuries	Count	All injuries (n=232)*	Experienced IPV (n=577)	Weighted percent experienced IPV	All partnered women during last 12 months (n= 1145)
Scratches or bruises	130	56.%	22.5%	25.1%	11.4%
Wounds or bite marks	63	27.2%	10.9%	8.8%	5.5%
Cuts, gashes or bleeding	35	15.1%	6.1%	5.5%	3.1%
Eye or ear injury	27	11.6%	4.7%	3.6%	2.4%
Sprains or dislocations	23	9.9%	4.0%	4.1%	2.0%
Burns	14	6%	2.4%	1.4%	1.2%
Fractures or injuries	9	3.9%	1.6%	1.3%	0.8%

*Multiple answers possible

Direct costs of violence included the expenditure incurred for accessing medical care, legal help, seeking shelter, or replacing property damaged as a result of the violence. Women were asked in the questionnaire detailed questions on help-seeking and associated costs after in relation to each form of violence they experienced. Not unsurprisingly the percentage of women who experienced violence who reported expending money as a result of IPV, family members violence, workplace violence, educational institutions violence and public spaces violence. The cost of healthcare, filing a complaint in a Police station, filing a case in court, costs related to accommodation, food, and replacing properties were calculated following equation (1) outlined in the methodology section. (Table 22)

Table 22 Direct cost associated with violence

Cost		IPV	Family members	Workplace	Educational institutions*	Public spaces	Overall
Average Out-of-pocket cost							
Mean		1183	465	1827	121	391	1064
95% CI for Mean	**Lower**	315	172	1083	-255	89	501
	Upper	2051	758	2570	498	692	1628
No of respondents		67	12	14	2	26	113
% of women experiencing		11%	3%	4%	2%	2.5%	6.9%

*In further analysis, no separate estimates are given for educational institutions, given the small sample size.

Most women who experienced violence did not seek services and thus costs were often not reported. The proportion of women who reported OPE as a result of IPV *were 11% of respondents,* violence by family members violence *(3% of respondents)*, violence in workplaces *(4% of respondents)*, educational institutions *(2% of respondents)*, and public spaces *(2.5% of respondents)*. The most common cost reported was expenditure for health care. Overall among women who reported out of pocket expenditures for the various cost categories, an average expenditure of US$21.30 was incurred in the last 12 months.

Not surprisingly health costs were reported by women across all forms of violence with an average cost of SSPounds 918 for women experiencing violence. The average police cost was roughly equivalence at 1203 SSPounds, though far fewer women reported to police. Other types of out of pocket expenditures were incurred by very few women which is not surprising in the context of a less developed market economy. In total among women who reported out of pocket expenditure across all forms of violence, an average expenditure of SSPounds 1183 was incurred in the past 12 months.

To produce a regional estimate of direct costs incurred by violence survivors, we first applied population weight to extrapolate the total number of women experiencing different forms of violence. Second the mean expenditure for each group was calculated by averaging across the reported expenditures by women experiencing each form of violence. Multiplying by the mean expenditure reported by each group of women provides the overall direct cost for women survivors of violence.

The regional estimate of loss for households as a result of IPV is 39,274,253 SSPounds (785,485 US$): 95% CI in 209,135 to 1,361,836). When we added the cost resulted from Family Violence, and violence outside home (workplace, Schools, Public spaces), the National estimate of loss for households as a result of all type of violence is 59,973,019 SSPounds (1,199,460 US$: 95% CI in US$ 564,009 to 1,834,919) (see Table 23 below).

Table 23 National estimate of direct OPE incurred by women survivors of violence, last 12 Months

	No of women*	Mean	Total sspounds	Total in USD***	95% confidence intervals (USD)	
					Lower	Upper
IPV	33,198	1183	39,274,253	785,485	209,135	1,361,836
FV	5905	465	2,747,310	54,946	20,322	89,570
WPV	7023	1827	12,828,389	256,568	152,149	360,985
PSV	12,769	391	4,987,389	99,748	22,851	176,645
Any Violence**	56,341	1064	59,973,019	1,199,460	564,009	1,834,919

* No of women have been rounded off for display but not for estimation

** Any violence includes a small number of women who reported OPE due to violence experienced in educational institutions

***Average exchange rate during the study period was 1 USD= 50 SSP

In a context where the majority of the population live in poverty, the financial costs due to violence places a significant burden on the economic security of the households. The loss of 1.2 million dollars represents 3% of annual income of women experiencing any violence and reported out-of-pocket expenditure.[15]

4.1.4.2 Indirect weighted costs of violence

The survey also explored with women the impacts of violence on their economic work and care work as well as the impact on children. After each form of violence women were asked if they had to miss work, if the number of days they fully or partially stopped undertaking specific activities unpaid care activities, and the number of days their children missed school. Table 24 shows the percentage of women who experienced violence and who reported Missed Work , Children Missing School, Missed Care Work as a result of IPV, family members violence, workplace violence, educational institutions violence and public spaces violence. To avoid small cell sizes, the analysis is undertaken across the three categories of intimate partner violence (IPV), non-partner violence (NPV) that covers violence by non-partners within the family, workplace, or public spaces, and any violence covering any form of violence, including a small number of women reporting violence experience in schools.

Table 24 Mean missed work days, care work days and school days reported by women, last 12 months

		IPV	NPV	Overall (IPV, NPV or both)
Missed work	*Mean*	7.46	7.74	8.11
95 % confidence intervals	*Lower*	5.24	4.57	6.04
	Upper	9.68	10.92	10.19
Sample size		42	24	62
% of women missing work out of total working women experiencing the particular form of violence		9.77%	2.35%	5.23%
Missed care work	*Mean*	54.68	36.27	50.22
95 % confidence intervals	*Lower*	36.00	20.36	35.49
	Upper	73.36	52.18	64.96
Sample size		74	54	119
% of women missing care work out of total women experiencing the particular form of violence		11.85%	3.82%	7.27%
Missed school days	*Mean*	4.49	5.50	5.34
95 % confidence intervals	*Lower*	2.50	na	3.14
	Upper	6.49	na	7.53

[15]This is based on the figure of US$691/ GNI per capita in 2016 applied to the total number of women experiencing any violence and reported incurring out-of-pocket expenditure. The GNI per capita figure is from the report by National Bureau of Statistics on GDP Estimates released in 2017 (see http://ssnbss.org/sites/default/files/2017-10/Final%20GDP%202016.pdf)

Table 24 Mean missed work days, care work days and school days reported by women, last 12 months (continued)

		IPV	NPV	Overall (IPV, NPV or both)
Sample size		28	8	32
% of women whose children missed school out of total women living with school going children experiencing the particular form of violence		16.45%	2.57%	8.80%

About 10% of women who were working and experienced IPV reported that they missed work as a consequence of the IPV experienced. Interestingly women experiencing other forms of violence were less likely to report missing work and thus overall about 5% of women reported missing work as a result of any violence. The overall estimate of missed days for any violence comes to 216000 days (see Table 25). The number of missed days is probably low given that majority of women may not necessarily miss work. To explore whether there is an impact of violence on productivity we used an alternate method which is elaborated in the section on Economic impacts of violence on Absenteeism, Tardiness and Presenteeism (see Section 4.1.4.4)

Table 25 Total estimate of missed workdays, last 12 months

Number of women	Mean	Number of women missing work	Total number of workdays missed
IPV	7.46	18,065	134,763
NPV	7.74	10,325	79,919
Any Violence	8.11	26,657	216,190

Nearly 12% of women experiencing IPV reported missing care work. For these women, an average of 55 days was missed each in the last 12 months. In terms of any violence, about 7% of women reported missing care work for 50 days.[16] Extrapolating to the covered population by applying population weight, nearly three million days of care work are potentially lost country wide in a year (see Table 26).

Table 26: Regional estimate of days of missed care work by form of violence, last 12 months

	No of women	Mean	Total
IPV	7.46	18,065	134,763
NPV	7.74	10,325	79,919
Any Violence	8.11	26,657	216,190

Source: Women's survey, 2016

[16] The lower average number of days lost by women who experienced any form of violence compared to those who experienced IPV is an outcome of the greater impact of IPV on productivity. Given that IPV often consists of multiple or on-going incidents rather than once-off incidents this finding is understandable.

16% of women living with school going children and experiencing IPV reported that their children missed, on an average, four days of school in the past 12 months. This amounts to approximately 62,000 school days lost in the covered regions annually. Across women reporting any violence in the surveyed regions, in total children missed approximately 83,000 days (see Table 27).

Table 27: Regional estimate of missed school days by children in covered regions in last 12 months

	No of women	Mean	Total
IPV	13,886	4	62,406
NPV	3831	6	21,068
Any violence	15,641	5	83,474

While the number of missed days is not very high it is still a matter of concern given that many children are unable to attend school in normal circumstance. In fact, 53% of women experiencing IPV and living with school aged children in the survey reported that children were not attending school, reflecting the hard reality of families caught in widespread conflict with limited social infrastructure such as schools. Thus, in a context in which children already may experience challenges attending school due to the effects of insecurity and poverty, violence experienced by their mothers imposes another barrier to their school attendance. The impact of women's experiences of violence on their children is important to unpack more fully if efforts to expand the human capital of the next generation are to be fully realized.

4.1.4.3 Effects on children as result of intimate partner violence

In addition to the reported missed school days given in Table 24 and Table 25, more than half of women (56.8%) who have children reported a psychological impact on their children as a result of IPV during last 12 months among. (Table 28)

Table 28 Effects on children as result of IPV during last 12 months among women who have children (n=333)

	Frequency	Percent	Weighted percent
None reported	**181**	**54.3%**	**43.2%**
Impact on children	**152**	**45.6%**	**56.8%**
Felt scared	95	28.5%	27.1%
Felt confused	64	19.2%	16.2%
Asked lots of questions	38	11.4%	10.1%

Table 28 Effects on children as result of IPV during last 12 months among women who have children (n=333) (continued)

	Frequency	Percent	Weighted percent
None reported	**181**	**54.3%**	**43.2%**
Impact on children	**152**	**45.6%**	**56.8%**
Wet the bed	9	2.7%	2%
Had nightmares	2	0.6%	0.6%
Physically shook	12	3.6%	2.2%
Did not want to play	35	10.5%	11.3%

These various impacts have longer term effects on children's cognitive development affecting their academic performance.

4.1.4.4 Economic impact of violence on absenteeism, tardiness and presenteeism

To further substantiate the reported missed work days, we explored productivity loss due to the experiences of violence. Productivity loss was measured along three dimensions as outlined below.

Term	How it was measured
Absenteeism	Was measured as reporting missing days of work in the last four weeks for various reasons including being ill, children's illness, attending to legal matters or not having enough money for transport
Tardiness	Was measured as reporting being for work by at least 1 hour in the last four weeks for various reasons such as attending health clinic, children's ill health, or attending legal matters
Presenteeism	Was measured as reporting one of the following in the last four weeks: difficulties concentrating on the work; work much more slowly than normally would; exhausted at work; stopped work because she was worried about something; and/or stopped work because she had an accident at work

We first conducted a logistic binary regression to estimate the effect of an increase in different types of violence on productivity loss. (Table 28) A 1% increase in IPV results in an increase of 0.5% of Absenteeism, 1% of Tardiness and 0.9% of Presenteeism. Within IPV, there is a strong consistent relationship between psychological violence and absenteeism, tardiness and presenteeism. Surprisingly physical violence does not seem to impact presenteeism in contrast to sexual violence which does influence absenteeism and presenteeism. The results are fairly consistent for other forms of violence. A 1% increase in Family violence results in an increase of 0.5% of Absenteeism and 0.7% of Presenteeism. 1% increase in Workplace violence results in an increase of 0.6% of Absenteeism, 0.4% of Tardiness and 0.7% of Presenteeism. 1% increase in public spaces violence results in an increase of 0.3% of Absenteeism. Experience of any violence in the last 12months increases probability of absenteeism, tardiness and presenteeism.

Table 29 Rate of absenteeism, tardiness, presenteeism by type of violence among women involved in work, household survey

	Absenteeism			Tardiness			Presenteeism		
	B	S.E.	P	B	S.E.	P	B	S.E.	P
Intimate partner violence during last 12 months									
Economic IPV	.015	.174	.934	.360	.188	.056	.420	.190	.027
Psychological IPV	.366	.201	.069	.822	.234	.000	.991	.244	.000
Physical IPV	.352	.177	.046	.455	.189	.016	.091	.187	.627
Sexual IPV	.419	.195	.032	.245	.207	.237	.496	.204	.015
Any IPV	.516	.209	.013	1.024	.252	.000	.940	.249	.000
Violence by non partner during the last 12 months									
Family violence	.515	.168	.002	.252	.187	.177	.708	.178	.000
Workplace violence	.607	.146	.000	.401	.168	.017	.495	.167	.003
Public spaces violence	.298	.130	.021	.096	.141	.49	.106	.140	.45
Any violence (IPV/NPV or both)									
Any Violence in last 12 months	.706	.211	.001	.570	.231	0.014	.391	.199	.049

A second level of analysis was undertaken in terms of estimating days of productivity loss. Based on the algorithm for calculating days of absenteeism, tardiness and presenteeism presented in the methodology section, days of lost productivity were calculated for all working women who answered these questions. Comparison of difference in days between women who experienced IPV and not, as well as those who experienced any violence (inclusive of all forms of violence) and not, was undertaken to establish the annual days of productivity loss due to IPV or Any violence. The difference in tardiness was excluded as the days lost to tardiness were slightly higher for those not experiencing violence suggesting that tardiness was a broader problem in the context of general insecurity on a daily basis. (Table 30)

Table 30 Estimated productivity loss for all working women in the household survey

Category	Due to partner violence		Due to any violence	
	Mean days lost**	Total person days lost	Mean days lost**	Total person days lost
Absenteeism*	2.77 (p=.006)	512173	13.08 (p=.000)	6,666,844
Presenteeism*	5.52 (p=.000)	1,020,607	3.59 (p=.021)	1,829,814
Total	**8.29**	**1,532,820**	**16.67**	**8,496,658**

* Estimated number of women aged 18–60 in South Sudan = 2,607,871 (South Sudan population projection, 2018). Proportion of women covered by the sample = 38%, proportion of employed women = 61.7% from ILO estimate for 15–64 population, prevalence rate of IPV among working women = 30% and any violence = 83%. **Non-parametric Mann-Whitney test was used to establish the statistical significance of the difference in mean

The results indicate that a significant number of days of productivity are lost by working women due to violence. Given the conflict context and the high rates of violence experienced by women across different spaces, lost productivity due to any violence is nearly double the lost productivity due to IPV alone (16.67 days compared to 8.29 days as shown in Table 30). If we assume 300 working days in the year, the lost productivity due to any violence is equivalent to 28,500 full-time women workers. In other words, this means that the annual lost productivity due to violence against women is equal to 6 per cent of the employed female workforce in the covered regions not working. In a post-conflict context focused on stabilizing the economy and creating new economic opportunities, violence against women undermines these efforts through lost productivity of its female workforce.

4.1.5 Social impacts/costs:

Apart from economic consequences of violence, there are other significant social impacts on women's physical and mental health status, reproductive health outcomes and disability. In the section below these social impacts for individual women are discussed.

The analysis highlights two important points. The first is that intimate partner violence results in statistically significant negative health impacts for women. Among the different types of IPV (economic, psychological, physical and sexual) a consistent finding was the increased likelihood of being pregnant and lower use of contraceptive use, reflecting the unequal gender power balance in violent relationships. Intimate partner violence also results in consistently poor physical and mental health outcomes. Interestingly the relationship between forms of violence by non-partners is not so clear with only women experiencing public violence or workplace violence at increased risk of depression.

4.1.5.1 Impact on reproductive health

Statistical analysis was performed in the data set from the women's survey to compare the Reproductive health issues in the last 12 months between women who experienced violence and those who did not (Table 31).

Women who experienced **Economic violence by an intimate partner** during last 12 months were more likely to be pregnant during the same period (2.2 times), and to report stillbirth (1.34 times) compared to those who did not experience economic violence by Intimate partner (P value <0.05). Women who experienced **psychological violence by Intimate partner** during last 12 months were more likely to be pregnant (2.2 times), and to not use contraceptives (0.53 times) compared to those who did not experiences psychological violence by an Intimate partner (P value <0.05). Women who experienced **physical violence by Intimate partner** during last 12 months are more likely to be pregnant (2.8 times), and to not use contraceptives (0.6 times) compared to those who did not experiences physical violence by Intimate partner (P value <0.05). Women who experienced sexual violence by Intimate partner during last 12 months are more likely to have miscarried (1.9 times) compared to those who did not experience sexual violence by Intimate partner (P value <0.05).

Table 31 Reproductive health issues in relation to intimate partner violence during last 12 months among married women*

	Pregnancy rate		Miscarriage rate		Abortion rate		Stillbirths rate		Contraception rate	
	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%
Economic										
Yes	399	95%	94	23.6%	63	15.8%	67	16.8%	68	16.2%
No	320	89.6%	59	18.4%	35	10.9%	42	13.1%	56	15.7%
P value	**0.035**		**0.095**		**0.06**		**0.017**		**0.3**	
OR	**2.21**		**1.37**		**1.53**		**1.34**		**1.04**	
Psychological										
Yes	522	94.2%	117	22.4%	74	14.2%	78	14.9%	74	13.4%
No	194	88.2%	34	17.5%	22	11.3%	29	14.9%	50	22.7%
P value	**0.017**		**0.154**		**0.3**		**0.99**		**0.014**	
OR	**2.17**		**1.36**		**1.30**		**1.00**		**0.53**	
Physical										
Yes	365	95.8%	82	22.5%	57	15.6%	58	15.9%	47	12.3%
No	342	89.1%	68	19.9%	37	10.8%	48	14%	73	19%
P value	**0.005**		**0.4**		**0.06**		**0.49**		**0.022**	
OR	**2.79**		**1.17**		**1.53**		**1.16**		**0.60**	

Table 31 Reproductive health issues in relation to intimate partner violence during last 12 months among married women* (continued)

	Pregnancy rate		Miscarriage rate		Abortion rate		Stillbirths rate		Contraception rate	
	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%
Yes	221	95.7%	63	28.5%	33	14.9%	34	15.4%	34	14.7%
No	483	91%	85	17.6%	60	12.4%	70	14.5%	85	16%
P value	**0.1**		**0.001**		**0.3**		**0.75**		**0.9**	
OR	**2.20**		**1.87**		**1.24**		**1.07**		**0.90**	

*Findings significant at p< 0.05,

4.1.5.2 Impact on physical and mental health

Disability score was calculated based on Visual difficulty, Auditory difficulty, Mobility difficulty, Cognitive difficulty, and Articulation difficulty. Disability Score was statistically significantly higher among women who experienced Psychological violence by intimate partner during last 12 months (P value = 0.001) (Table 32). Disability Score was also statistical significantly higher among women who experienced violence in Work place (P value = 0.004) (Table 33).

Acute illness score was calculated based on acute health problems, acute impairment, acute pain, consult any health care worker, headache, loss of appetite, poor sleep, anxiety, difficulty in thinking clearly, mood, crying, loss of enjoyment, difficulty in making decisions, loss of productivity, loss of interest, worthlessness and tiredness. Acute Illness Score was statistically significantly higher among women who experienced economic (P value = 0.003), Physical (P value = 0.004), and sexual violence by intimate partner violence during last 12 months (P value = 0.011) (Table 32).

Depression score was calculated based on suicidal thoughts, loss of interest, mood, poor sleep, tiredness, loss of appetite, worthlessness, and difficulty in thinking clearly. Depression Score was statistically significantly higher among women who experienced economic (P value < 0.001), Psychological (p value 0.004), Physical (P value < 0.001), and sexual violence by intimate partner violence during last 12 months (P value < 0.001) (Table 32). Depression Score was also statistically significantly higher among women who experienced violence in Public spaces (P value < 0.001) and in Work place (P value = 0.004) (Table 33)

Table 32 Physical and mental health outcome score in relation to intimate partner violence during last 12 months among partnered women

	Economic		Psychological		Physical		Sexual	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
Disability score								
Mean	0.37	0.26	0.39	0.18	0.38	0.27	0.40	0.29
Mean difference	0.11		0.21		0.11		0.11	
95% CI	-0.01	0.24	0.09	0.33	-0.01	0.24	-0.03	0.25
P value	**0.068**		**0.001**		**0.076**		**0.126**	
Acute illness score								
Mean	10.03	8.60	9.74	8.70	10.20	8.79	10.43	9.03
Mean difference	1.43		1.04		1.41		1.40	
95% CI	0.48	2.38	-0.12	2.19	0.45	2.37	0.33	2.47
P value	**0.003**		**0.078**		**0.004**		**0.011**	
Depression score								
Mean	1.77	1.27	1.65	1.26	1.79	1.30	2.00	1.35
Mean difference	0.50		0.39		0.50		0.65	
95% CI	0.25	0.74	0.12	0.65	0.24	0.75	0.35	0.96
P value	**0.000**		**0.004**		**0.000**		**0.000**	

Table 33 Physical and mental health outcome score in relation violence during last 12 months among all women

	Family member violence		Public violence		Work place violence	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
Disability score						
Mean	0.38	0.39	0.28	0.32	0.21	0.38
Mean difference	-0.01		-0.04		-0.16	
95% CI	-0.17	0.14	-0.21	0.12	-0.27	-0.05
P value	**0.858**		**0.597**		**0.04**	
Acute illness score						
Mean	10.62	10.26	10.36	11.05	9.81	9.60
Mean difference	0.36		-0.69		0.21	
95% CI	-0.73	1.44	-2.29	0.90	-0.78	1.20
P value	**0.521**		**0.394**		**0.676**	
Depression score						
Mean	1.85	1.99	2.19	1.23	1.88	1.49
Mean difference	-0.14		0.95		0.39	
95% CI	-0.45	0.16	0.59	1.31	0.12	0.65
P value	**0.354**		**0.000**		**0.004**	

These findings on the negative reproductive health outcomes, poorer physical health and greater mental stress highlight the significant social costs of violence. For the individual woman experiencing violence, these outcomes suggest that a woman's agency and capability are undermined, especially given the impact of IPV, public violence and workplace violence on women's depression score. The psychological impact of violence has multiple ramifications on women themselves as well as their interactions with their children and other family members, affecting the overall well-being of the family. In the GWI and IRC 2017 report, women reported high levels of psychological stress sometimes leading to suicide. More than 60% of the women across three sites of Rumbek, Juba and Juba POC reported that IPV had an effect on their overall well-being, with nearly half reporting a large effect (GWI and IRC, 2017:67). Furthermore, this lack of wellbeing would have an impact on women's engagement with the broader community, which in turn can affect the social fabric of the community.

4.2 Findings from the business survey

The study also undertook to explore the impact of violence on businesses as a way of exploring the impact of violence at the community level. As reported earlier 99 businesses were surveyed to understand the impact of intimate partner violence on employees productivity at the workplace. This is an unexplored area in most countries in the Global South as intimate partner violence is primarily viewed as a health issue rather than an issue with meaningful economic impacts.

4.2.1 Respondent characteristics

The business survey was completed by 323 female employees and 357 male employees from 99 companies. Table 34 provides the main respondent characteristics. The mean age of females was 28.4 years (SD=7), and for males was 29.6 years (SD=8.2). Most of them are working in their current companies for more than a year, and on a permanent contract. However it is important to note that majority of the workers have worked for less than 5 years reflecting the broader reality that the business sector is in an early stage of development. Surprisingly 60% of the employees were on permanent contract (either full-time or part-time), this maybe reflective of the fact that there has been growing legislation on streamlining working conditions.[17]

Table 34 Business survey respondent characteristics

	Female employees		Male employees	
	Count	%	Count	%
Age				
16–20	26	8.4%	30	8.6%
21–25	98	31.8%	88	25.3%
26–35	137	44.5%	167	48%
36–45	39	12.7%	44	12.6%
46+	8	2.6%	19	5.4%
Mean (SD) years	28.4 (7.0)		29.6 (8.2)	
Duration working at this company				
Less than 12 months	74	22.9%	93	26.1%
Between 1 and 2 years	95	29.4%	111	31.1%
Over 2 and up to 5 years	109	33.7%	89	24.9%
Over 5 years	43	13.3%	57	15.9%
Not stated / Don't know	2	0.6%	7	2.0%

[17] In fact in 2017, government of South Sudan passed labour code that outlined minimum working conditions for all employees including maximum hours for working day.

Table 34 Business survey respondent characteristics (continued)

	Female employees		Male employees	
	Count	%	Count	%
Type of job contract				
Permanent contract – full-time	153	47.4%	143	40.1%
Permanent contract – part-time	36	11.1%	37	10.4%
Temporary contract – full-time	79	24.5%	73	20.4%
Temporary contract – part-time	35	10.8%	47	13.2%
I do not have a contract	17	5.3%	52	14.6%
Not stated / Don't know	3	0.9%	5	1.4%
The highest level of education				
No formal qualifications	11	3.4%	15	4.2%
Primary school	14	4.3%	23	6.4%
Secondary school	99	30.7%	129	36.1%
Undergraduate diploma	58	18.0%	52	14.6%
Bachelor degree	81	25.1%	92	25.8%
Higher diploma	50	15.5%	37	10.4%
Master's degree	8	2.5%	9	2.5%
Marital status				
Never married	125	38.7%	136	38.1%
Married	91	28.2%	108	30.3%
Unmarried – living with partner	9	2.8%	23	6.4%
Have partner but not living with them	45	13.9%	41	11.5%
Divorced or separated	26	8.0%	20	5.6%
Widowed	18	5.6%	19	5.3%
Not stated	9	2.8%	10	2.8%
Have children aged under 18				
Yes	106	78.5%	124	84.4%
No	19	14.1%	23	15.6%
Not stated	10	7.4%	0	0%

Given that the businesses spanned both traditional and non-traditional businesses (finance, internet, etc), the education levels of respondents was higher than expected with nearly 42% having education higher than undergraduate diploma. Given the younger age profile of the respondents almost 40% have not been married.

4.2.2 Prevalence of VAWG

Many women who were interviewed in the business survey experienced violence by their husband or partner. The types of IPV and the descriptions of the violence used in the survey were as same in the women's survey (previously discussed in section 4.1.2)

Table 35 The types of IPV and the descriptions of the violence used in the survey

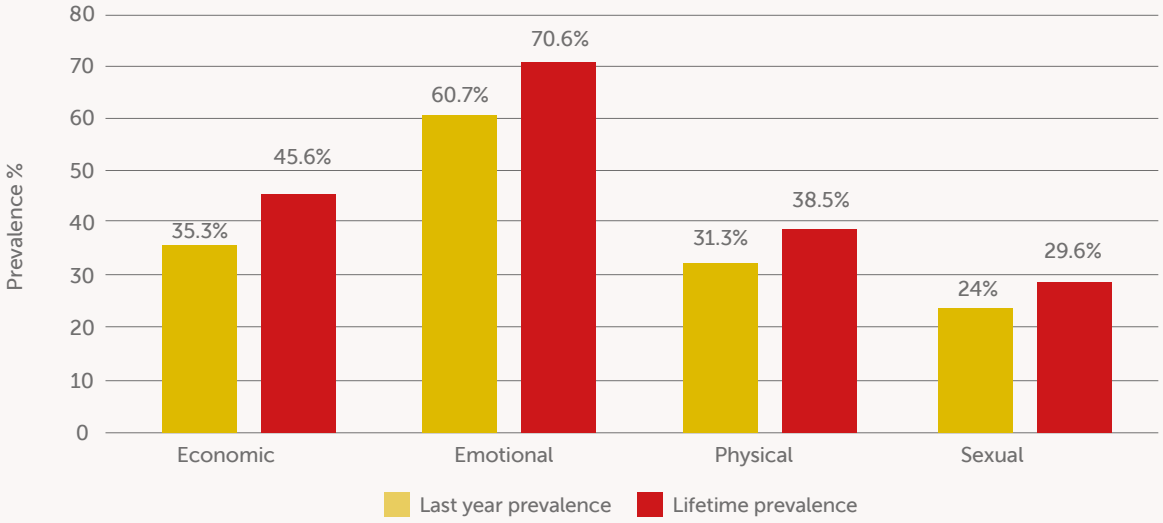
Type of IPV	Explanation
Economic violence	The intimate partners have control over women's access to economic resources, which diminishes their capacity to support themselves and forces them to depend on the perpetrators financially.
Psychological violence	The intimate partners insult women or made them feel bad, belittle and humiliate them in front of other people, scare or frighten them, or threaten to hurt them or someone they care about.
Physical violence	The intimate partners slap women or physically hurt them by hitting, kicking, dragging, beating, choking or burning them, or threaten to use or used guns, knives or other weapon against them, or throw them out of their houses.
Sexual violence	The intimate partners physically force women to have sex when they did not want to, used threats or intimidation to get them to have sex when they did not want to, or forced them to do something else sexual that they did not want to.

As in the women's survey, experience of violence was quite high among female employees underscoring the high levels of intimate partner violence in South Sudan generally. Out of 323 women who were interviewed, 114 (35.3%) reported economic violence by intimate partner during last 12 months, 60.7% reported psychological violence, 31.3% reported physical violence, and 24% reported sexual violence. (Table 36) and (Figure 4)

Table 36 Prevalence of intimate partner violence during last 12 months reported by Female employees (assaulted) (Business survey)

Female employees (assaulted)	Last year Prevalence (%)		Lifetime prevalence (%)	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Economic	114	35.3	147	45.6
Psychological	196	60.7	228	70.6
Physical	101	31.3	124	38.5
Sexual	78	24	96	29.6

Figure 4 Prevalence of IPV during last 12 months among female employees (Business survey)

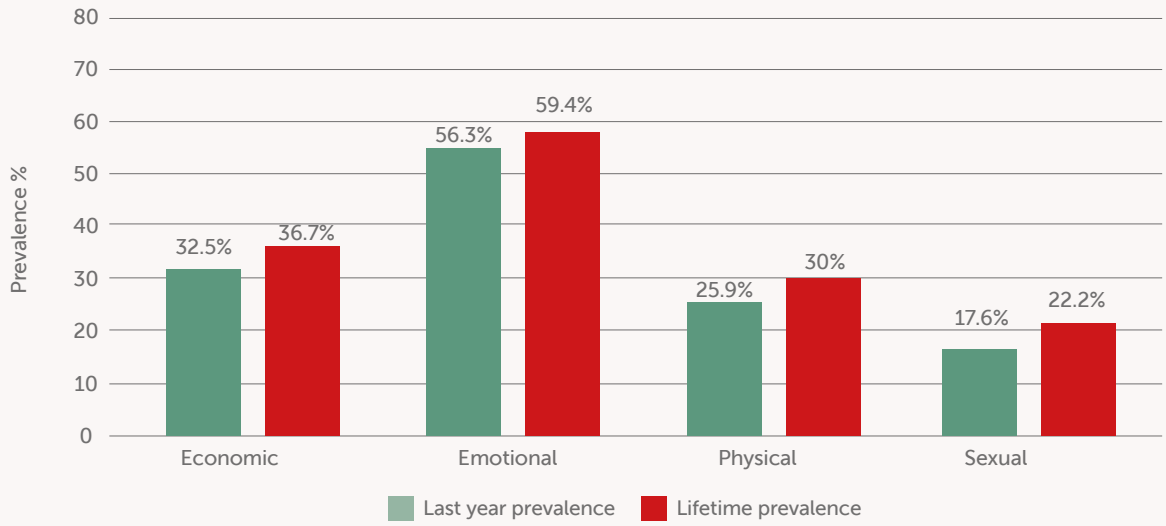


Many men who were interviewed in the business survey reported that they were violent towards their girlfriend, wife or partner during last 12 months. Out of 357 men who were interviewed 116 (32.5%) admitted that they were economically violent towards their intimate partner during last 12 months, 56.3% reported psychologically violence, 25.9% reported physical violence, and 17.6% reported sexual violence. (Table 37) and (Figure 5)

Table 37 Prevalence of perpetration of intimate partner violence during last 12 months reported by male employees (perpetrator) (Business survey)

Male employees (perpetrator)	Last year prevalence (%)		Lifetime prevalence (%)	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Economic	116	32.5	131	36.7
Psychological	201	56.3	212	59.4
Physical	92	25.9	107	30
Sexual	63	17.6	79	22.2

Figure 5 Prevalence of IPV during last 12 months reported by male employees (perpetrator)



The survey also explored the experience and perpetration of non-partner sexual violence with female and male employees. Overall 148 women employees reported non-partner sexual violence as shown in Table 38

Table 38 Prevalence of non-partner sexual violence during last 12 months reported by women employees (assaulted) (Business survey)

Non-partner sexual violence	Number of women experiencing	Percentage of women experiencing
Had derogatory / nasty / humiliating/ belittling sexual comments made about me, received repeated unwanted sexual advances or was threatened with sexual violence	109	33.75%
Touched inappropriately without my permission	113	34.98%
Physically forced to have sex against my will	27	8.36%
Forced to do something sexual that I found humiliating or degrading	24	7.43%
Had sex when I did not want to because I felt threatened or intimidated	17	5.26%
Had sex or provided sexual favours because I was afraid I might lose my job	23	7.12%
Had sex because I was too drunk or drugged to refuse	18	5.57%
Any NPSV behaviour	148	45.82%

The quite high level of non-partner sexual violence is broadly in line with the high levels of sexual violence alluded to in the discussion of the specific context of South Sudan, with a higher level of general insecurity. Male employees were asked if they perpetrated sexual violence: touched inappropriately in a sexual way, physically forced a woman to have sex with me, and had sex with a woman who was too drunk or drugged to refuse. Overall 18% of male employees (number being 66) reported perpetrating any one of these behaviours.

4.2.3 Economic impacts/costs:

Statistical analysis was performed in the data set from the business survey to compare the rate of absenteeism, tardiness, and presenteeism between those who experienced violence and those who did not. Descriptions of the measurement for each of these is provided in the table below.

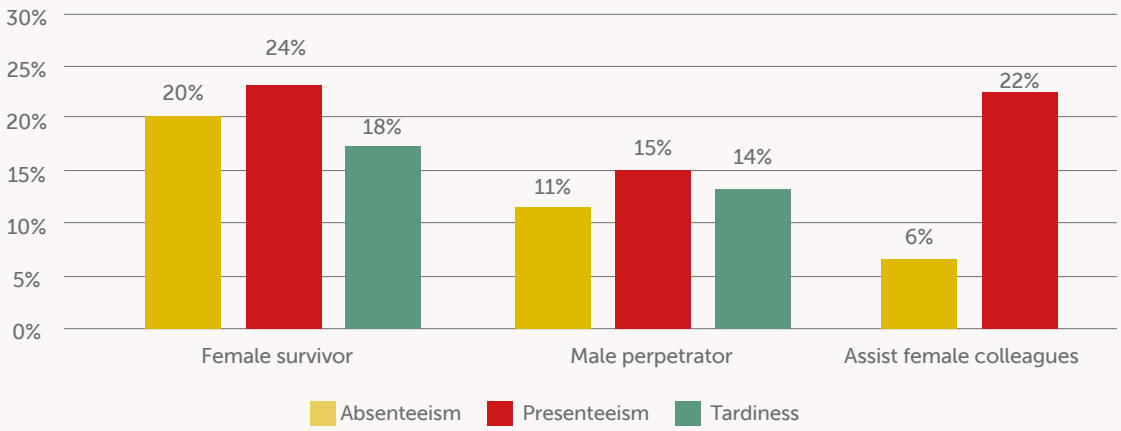
Term	How it was measured
Absenteeism	was measured as reporting missing days of work in the last four weeks.
Tardiness	was measured as reporting being for work by at least 1 hour in the last four weeks.
Presenteeism	was measured as reporting one of the following in the last four weeks: difficulties concentrating on the work; work much more slowly than normally would; exhausted at work; stopped work because she was worried about something; and/or stopped work because she had an accident at work.

Out of 323 women who were interviewed in the business survey, 59 (18%) reported tardiness (average of 7.13 hours) as a result of the violence they have experienced. 65 women (20%) reported absenteeism (average of 98.65 hours), and 79 women (24%) reported presenteeism (average of 20.5 hours (Table 39)

Table 39 Rate of absenteeism, tardiness, presenteeism among female employees because of IPV (business survey)

	Count	%	Mean hours
Tardiness	59	18%	7.13
Absenteeism	65	20%	98.65
Presenteeism	79	24%	20.5

Figure 6 Rate of absenteeism, presenteeism & tardiness as a result of IPV (business survey)



Out of 357 men who were interviewed 49 (14%) reported tardiness (average of 5.34 hours) as a result of being violent towards their current or previous girlfriend, wife or partner. 41 men (11%) reported absenteeism (average of 81.81 hours), and 43 men (12%) reported presenteeism (average of 12.58 hours). An average of 100 hours was lost per male employee perpetrator due to being violent to their intimate partner. (Table 40)

Table 40 Rate of absenteeism, tardiness, presenteeism among male employees because of violence (business survey)

	Count	%	Mean
Tardiness	49	14%	5.34
Absenteeism	41	11%	81.81
Presenteeism	54	12%	12.95

Six percent of female and male employees who provided assistance to their female colleague(s) who had experienced violence in the last 12 months reported absenteeism (average of 5 hours) and 22% reported presenteeism (average of 3 hours (Table 41)

Table 41 Rate of absenteeism, tardiness, presenteeism because of violence experienced by female work colleague (business survey)

	Count	%	Mean
Tardiness	--	--	--
Absenteeism	39	6%	5.34
Presenteeism	147	24%	3.08

In addition, the lost days of productivity due to NPSV was also queried for both female survivors and male perpetrators. Fourteen percent of female survivors of NPSV reported that they missed 92 hours because of absenteeism, with another 21% reporting being less productive for about 17.8 hours, and twelve percent reporting being tardy for 6.96 hours. A smaller percentage of male perpetrators reported being absent (3%), being less productive (6%) and being late (5%).

The total loss for the businesses surveyed was calculated by estimating the total hours for each female survivor, male perpetrator and colleague reporting tardiness, absenteeism and presenteeism to ensure that the total hours missed by each individual is captured (some of whom reported productivity loss due to more than one reason. (Table 42)

Table 42 Total loss of person days for surveyed businesses

CATEGORIES	Number reporting	% of employees	Mean	Total hours lost	Total person days lost
Violence against female colleague	150	22.06	4.4	3,616.66	401.85
IPV survivors (female)	91	28.17	92.89	46,280.58	5,142.29
IPV perpetrators (male)	69	19.33	62.53	23,623.55	2,624.84
NPSV survivors (female)	71	21.98	80.52	31,301.43	3,477.94
NPSV perpetrators (male)	28	7.84	34.14	5,232.98	581.44
Overall	**307**	**45.15**	**65.48**	**110,055.21**	**12,228.36**

* Mean days calculated on basis of 9hrs/working day. Person days are calculated assuming 300 workdays/year

Across the 99 businesses, the total employment was 3723. Assuming the same gender distribution as in the sample (47.5% female and 52.5% male) we estimated the total person days lost in last 12 months by women survivors and male perpetrators, as well as the days lost by all employees for assisting an IPV survivor. Overall 45% of employees reported IPV and NPSV related productivity loss of about 7 days each in the last 12 months. The total person days lost comes 12,228 which is equivalent to 1.1% of the total annual person days across all the surveyed businesses (Table 42).

5. KEY MESSAGES

1. VAWG imposes an unrecognised burden on women's physical, mental and reproductive health.

The findings from this study suggest that VAWG is imposing a significant burden of ill health on the female population of South Sudan in the regions covered, which is not adequately captured in statistics. Of the women who had experienced IPV during the last 12 months, few had accessed medical help, although 40.9% reported sustaining physical injuries as a result of the violence. Injuries included scratches or bruises, puncture wounds or bite marks, and burns and fractures. Women's mental health was also affected, with women who experienced violence scoring consistently higher on scales of disability, acute illness and depression than those who had not experienced violence. As it is generally untreated, the burden of ill-health that falls on the woman, her family and her community cannot be calculated. It is likely that various untreated health problems persist even if the violence ends.

In all cases, reproductive health outcomes for women who experience violence are worse than for those who do not. Women who experience IPV are more likely to become pregnant, to miscarry, and less likely to use contraceptives than those who do not experience IPV.

2. VAWG has a significant impact on the welfare of households.

Violence affects the ability of both female victims and male perpetrators to go out to work and to earn a wage. It additionally imposes out of pocket expenses on households, ranging from the cost of medical care and replacement of property damaged in the course of violence, through legal support, and in some cases accessing alternative accommodation.

This study estimated that the combined effect of all types of violence resulted in a regional loss of 1.2 million US$ (95% CI US$ 564,000 to 1,800,000) at the level of households as out of pocket expenditure. IPV alone resulted in out of pocket expenditure of 800,000 US$ (95% CI US$ 210,000 to 1,400,000]. This cost imposes a drain on individual households, potentially increasing poverty or the risk of poverty.

3. IPV has a negative and lasting impact on children.

Children are not immune to the impacts of violence in the home. 56.8% of respondents reported some negative impact of IPV on their children's wellbeing, including feeling frightened (27.1%); not wanting to play (11.3%); and bedwetting (2%). These negative responses in children indicate the psychological toll that witnessing violence or living in a household with violence can take. This can have a long term impact on children's physical and mental well-being.

About 16% of women with school going children who had experienced IPV reported that their children had missed time at school as a result of the violence with an average of 4.5 days missed. This study estimated that IPV resulted in 62,000 days of children missing school in the regions covered.

4. IPV has a negative impact on care work in the home.

IPV reduces productivity in the workplace and in the home. As a result of Intimate Partner Violence and its impacts, the study found numerous essential tasks in the home were not completed. These tasks include caring for children, cooking, cleaning, and fetching wood and water.

This study estimated that violence against women and girls resulted in 2,000,000 missed care work days in the regions covered. The study cannot assess to what extent the care work missed by women survivors of violence is taken by other women or girls in the household. Overall a decline in care work days, has potential ripple effect beyond the immediate 'victim', affecting the next generation's education and wellbeing.

5. IPV at home undermines productivity of the workforce in the business sector.

The impact of different experiences of violence are not easily compartmentalised by victims: physical and psychological impacts due to violence in the home accompany victims outside of the home, resulting in difficulty concentrating or focussing, and preventing them from attending work or leading to their arriving to work late. Thus, Intimate Partner Violence impacts on workforce productivity through presenteeism, absenteeism, and tardiness.

Roughly one in five women surveyed in the business survey reported tardiness, absenteeism or presenteeism as a result of VAWG. Evidence from the Women's Survey similarly found that presenteeism, absenteeism and tardiness were all significantly higher among women who experienced IPV than among women who did not. Indeed, the risk of absenteeism, presenteeism or tardiness increased between 1.5 and 3 times, depending on type of IPV experienced, compared to those who did not experience the form of violence.

In addition, the productivity impact of IPV occurs not only for victims of all types of IPV, but also perpetrators and bystander colleagues who provide assistance to victims. Of 99 businesses surveyed, 12,200 person days were lost per calendar year, equivalent to 1.1 of the annual person days in these businesses. This is a significant invisible burden carried by businesses.

6. Even businesses with a largely male workforce incur substantial productivity loss.

It is often assumed that losses to productivity due to intimate partner violence are experienced only by the female victim. Such a view may overlook significant costs of violence that are incurred due to productivity losses experienced by perpetrators. In this study it was found that not only female victims, but also male perpetrators, experience tardiness, absenteeism and presenteeism due to IPV. In total it was found that an average of 100 hours was lost per male employee who perpetrated violence towards their intimate partner, resulting in an average of 13 days of work lost in the past 12 months by male perpetrators who reported being late, absent or less productive. This evidence tells us that even in sectors with few female employees, employers are experiencing losses due to IPV and would benefit through investment in addressing IPV among their employees.

7. VAWG impacts on the economic well-being of the country.

The evidence from household survey indicates that VAWG impacts on the economic well-being of South Sudan. We estimated that VAWG resulted in a productivity loss of 8 million days in the regions covered due to absenteeism and presenteeism, equivalent to 6% of the women's employed labour force in the study area.

The evidence from the business survey indicates that IPV and Non-Partner Sexual Violence results in a loss of 1.1% of total employment in the businesses surveyed. This suggests that extrapolated to the national level, the costs of IPV and NPSV to businesses alone amounts to significant losses to the national economy and acts as a destabilizer for economic growth. The losses to businesses are only part of the picture; losses, including productivity losses, borne by individuals and families also result in reduced expenditures which ultimately lead to reduced revenue and losses to economy. VAWG is thus not only a concern of individuals/families, businesses and communities, but also for national economic stability and growth.

Recommendations

In the context of the urgency to revive and rebuild the South Sudanese economy, given the new peace agreement reached in August of 2018, this study demonstrates the negative economic consequences to families and businesses that produce an additional pressure on the economy and society that may limit the success of reconstruction processes. The findings of this research thus underline the urgency of addressing IPV as a central pillar of the peace process to ensure economic stability in the post-conflict context. Based on the findings of the study, the following recommendations are made:

5. Build VAWG prevention into national policies and budgets, and scale up current efforts to prevent VAWG, including by mainstreaming evidence-based approaches into education, health, social protection and other sectors.

Government, through its agencies at the national and local levels, should invest in violence prevention and provide dedicated resources in annual budgets. The costs associated with violence are enormous and its prevention is likely to be more cost-effective to implement than taking remedial measures after the violence has occurred. However, this does not take the place of establishing, implementing and adequately funding laws and institutions to punish violence offenders.

6. Involve business associations and chambers of commerce to invest in prevention programmes and activities for combatting VAWG.

An important stakeholder in the preventions of VAWG is the business sector. This study shows potential costs to businesses that can be averted if VAWG is prevented. Employers and business associations should integrate evidence-based prevention models, such as those evaluated through the What Works to Prevent Violence programme, into the workplace and provide support and leave to women survivors of violence as well connecting survivors to community services as recommended by the ILO.

7. Strengthen existing support services to challenge norms that limit women's help-seeking after experience of violence by partner, family member, colleagues or others.

A significant finding of this study is the very low level of help-seeking by women survivors of violence due to shame or stigma, and lack of accessibility to alternative support systems. For the effectiveness of government investment in existing support services it is imperative to consider improvements to outreach to these survivors.

8. Sensitise communities on using formal institutions to address VAWG concerns and equipping formal institutions to undertake these roles.

The findings indicate a reticence in seeking redress through formal channels by survivors since community members are often reluctant to intervene or suggest these channels even when they are available. Building trust among communities and formal agencies and institutions is needed to ensure that survivors are given the support required and perpetrators face the consequences of their actions.

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