



Violence against women and the role of gender equality, social inclusion and health strategies

Social Europe



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Violence against women and the role of gender equality, social inclusion and health strategies

Synthesis Report
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Glossary of acronyms

DV	Domestic violence
EEA/EFTA	European Economic Area/European Free Trade Association
FGM/C	Female genital mutilation/cutting
FRA	Fundamental Rights Agency
GBV	Gender-based violence
HRV/HRC	Honour-related violence/honour-related crime
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IPV	Intimate partner violence
IOM	International Organisation for Migration
NAP	National action plan
NSR	National strategy report
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
OHCHR	Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights
SGBV	Sexual and gender-based violence
THB	Trafficking in human beings
UN	United Nations
UNECE	United Nations Economic Commission for Europe
UNHCR	United Nations Refugee Agency
Unicef	United Nations Children's Fund
UNICRI	UN Interregional Crime and Justice Research Institute
UNODC	United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime
VAW	Violence against women
WHO	World Health Organisation

Country abbreviations

AT	Austria	IT	Italy
BE	Belgium	LI	Liechtenstein
BG	Bulgaria	LT	Lithuania
CY	Cyprus	LU	Luxembourg
CZ	Czech Republic	LV	Latvia
DE	Germany	MT	Malta
DK	Denmark	NL	Netherlands
EE	Estonia	NO	Norway
EL	Greece	PL	Poland
ES	Spain	PT	Portugal
FI	Finland	RO	Romania
FR	France	SE	Sweden
HR	Croatia	SI	Slovenia
HU	Hungary	SK	Slovakia
IE	Ireland	TR	Turkey
IS	Iceland	UK	United Kingdom

Executive summary

Violence against women is the single most prevalent and universal **violation of human rights**. It knows no geographical boundaries, no age limit, no class distinction, no cultural or racial differences and it has strong implications for gender equality, social inclusion and health.

The elimination of gender-based violence is a priority area of the European Commission's Women's Charter adopted in March 2010 and of its Strategy for equality between women and men adopted in September 2010⁽¹⁾, which express the Commission's commitment to propose an effective and comprehensive strategy to fight violence against women. While the primary responsibility to combat violence against women is of the Member States, the European Union has a strong role to play via Council conclusions⁽²⁾, resolutions by the European Parliament⁽³⁾, funding support, awareness-raising activities and the promotion of exchanges of good practices, to name but a few of its undertakings. In European countries the political commitment to combating violence against women has increased over the last decade, thanks to the strong commitment and actions of the international institutions, women's movements and NGOs. This is evident in the improvements in both data availability and the legislative and policy measures adopted in the 33 countries considered in this report. However, there are still many weaknesses and loopholes in the way violence against women is presented in the social and political debate and in the ways it is addressed.

The purpose of this study is to provide a systematic analysis and insight into the social aspects of violence against women, considering all types of violence (e.g. physical, psychological and sexual) and focusing primarily on analysis of gender equality, social inclusion and health strategies, as well as the action plans available to combat violence, and paying specific attention to the three angles of prevention, treatment, and reintegration of victims into society. The goal is to present a clear picture of what takes place in these domains within the 27 Member States, the three EEA/EFTA countries and the three candidate countries (Croatia, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia and Turkey). The information in this report was mainly provided by the national experts of the EGGSI network of experts in gender equality, social inclusion, healthcare and long-term care⁽⁴⁾.

The report is organised in three chapters: the first summarises the main features of violence against women in Europe. The second chapter gives an overview of policies addressing violence against women from the perspective of prevention, support for the victim and social reintegration. The final chapter presents some general conclusions.

The lack of reliable data

Across Europe several sources of information on violence against women are available at the national level, but they are inadequate for the purposes of comparative and trend analysis. Most of the data available are not comparable, nor collected on a regular basis, which makes it difficult to measure changes over time and determine the dimension of the phenomenon.

Data collection is made difficult by the lack of a common Europe-wide definition of violence against women and by the changes that have occurred in the attitude towards reporting them to the police. This poses serious problems of interpretation in comparisons across countries and over the years.

⁽¹⁾ Gender-based violence was also one of six priority areas of the European Commission's Roadmap for equality between women and men for the 2006-2010 period.

For the Women's Charter, see: <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=COM:2010:0078:FIN:EN:PDF>

For the Strategy for equality between women and men 2010-2015, see: <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=COM:2010:0491:FIN:EN:PDF>

For the Roadmap for equality between women and men 2006-2010, see: <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=COM:2006:0092:FIN:EN:PDF>

⁽²⁾ Recent Council conclusions on the eradication of violence against women in the European Union were adopted in March 2010 (see http://www.consilium.europa.eu/uedocs/cms_data/docs/pressdata/en/lsa/113226.pdf); and Council conclusions on improving prevention to tackle violence against women and care to its victims within the scope of law enforcements in April 2010 (see http://www.consilium.europa.eu/uedocs/cms_Data/docs/pressdata/en/jha/114015.pdf). A 2009 report from the Swedish Presidency on Beijing +15 provides up-to-date information on developments concerning the 12 critical areas of the Beijing Platform for Action, including violence against women (see <http://www.sweden.gov.se/content/1/c6/13/58/75/9f23c20f.pdf>).

⁽³⁾ Recent resolutions by the European Parliament in the domain were adopted in 2009, one concerning 'The elimination of violence against women' (P7_TA(2009)0098) (see <http://www.europarl.europa.eu/sides/getDoc.do?pubRef=-//EP//TEXT+TA+P7-TA-2009-0098+0+DOC+XML+V0//EN>); and another on 'Combating female genital mutilation in the EU' (P6_TA(2009)0161) (see <http://www.europarl.europa.eu/sides/getDoc.do?type=TA&reference=P6-TA-2009-0161&language=EN>).

⁽⁴⁾ EGGSI is the European Commission's network of 33 national experts (EU-27, EEA and the candidate countries of Croatia, former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia and Turkey) in the fields of gender equality and social inclusion, health and long-term care issues. The network is coordinated by the Istituto per la Ricerca Sociale and Fondazione Giacomo Brodolini, undertakes an annual programme of policy-oriented research and reports to the Employment, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities DG.

The EGSI national reports have shown that not only do the definitions of the various forms of violence differ in each country, but also that the instruments and modalities to quantify them are greatly varied, from quite loose concepts relying on the respondents' views to strictly defined ones based on international sets of questions. Moreover, data collection techniques, sample size and design differ all over Europe.

Under-reporting by women is another particularly relevant problem. A significant barrier to reporting is women's lack of faith in the criminal justice system — police, prosecutors and the courts — which is related to the risk of secondary victimisation of women during the course of the investigation, especially if the violence occurs within a family, and to lack of confidence in the police being truly interested in solving cases of this nature⁽⁵⁾. The available data show that sexual assault on women, in particular, is the crime least reported to the police. Across Europe estimates range from 1–12 % of cases of rape being reported to the police⁽⁶⁾.

In addition, violence-related data on women is a relatively new field of information that cuts across traditional areas of statistical production. Even where data are collected regularly, no specific attention is as yet being paid to the consequences of violence in particular in terms of health, but also in relation to the economic and health costs. Specific attention to the short-term and long-term consequences of violence is lacking in most European countries.

No comprehensive set of international indicators on violence against women has so far been developed, although this would facilitate the collection of comparable data. Some international institutions such as the United Nations⁽⁷⁾, the US Agency for International Development (USAid)⁽⁸⁾ and the

European Union⁽⁹⁾ have addressed these issues and have proposed several indicators, but no harmonised system of data collection is as of yet in place across the EU until now.

The different forms of violence against women

Domestic violence is the most common form of violence against women. There is no internationally agreed definition of domestic violence that addresses the issue in its entirety, but the main definitions agree that domestic violence is violence occurring in the family or domestic unit, including, inter alia, physical aggression/battering; mental, emotional and psychological aggression/abuse; rape and sexual abuse between spouses, regular or occasional partners and cohabitants.

According to the data available provided by the EGSI national experts of the Czech Republic, Estonia, Germany, Greece, Hungary and Italy, the incidence of domestic violence ranges from 25 % of women living in Germany (referring to women that have experienced physical or sexual violence, or both, inflicted by their current or previous partners⁽¹⁰⁾) to 51 % in Estonia (referring to women aged 15–74 years that have experienced some kind of violence in their relationship⁽¹¹⁾); to 28 % of women who reported violent action in their present or previous relationship in Hungary⁽¹²⁾, and to 31.9 % of women between 16 and 70 years of age that are estimated to be victims of physical or sexual violence during their lifetime in Italy⁽¹³⁾; while in the Czech Republic 37.7 % of the women experienced violence from their partner at least once in their life⁽¹⁴⁾. In Greece,

⁽⁵⁾ Kelly, Liz (2000), *A war of attrition: reviewing new research on rape*, London.

⁽⁶⁾ Regan, Linda and Kelly, Liz (2001), *Rape: the forgotten issue? — A European research and networking project*. Child and Woman Abuse Studies Unit, University of North London, London.

⁽⁷⁾ The proposed indicators include physical, sexual and intimate partner violence, harmful practices and some additional proposals on qualitative data. See also United Nations (2007), *Indicators to measure violence against women*. Report of the Expert Group Meeting held on 8 to 10 October 2007, organised by the United Nations Division for the Advancement of Women, United Nations Economic Commission for Europe, United Nations Statistical Division, Geneva (http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/egm/IndicatorsVAW/IndicatorsVAW_EGM_report.pdf).

⁽⁸⁾ Bloom, Shelah S. (2007), *Violence against women and girls. A compendium of monitoring and evaluation indicators*. Washington (<http://www.awid.org/Issues-and-Analysis/Library/Violence-against-Women-and-Girls-a-Compendium-of-Monitoring-and-Evaluation-Indicators>).

⁽⁹⁾ <http://register.consilium.europa.eu/pdf/en/02/st14/st14578.en02.pdf> and <http://register.consilium.europa.eu/pdf/en/04/st15/st15202.en04.pdf>

⁽¹⁰⁾ Bundesministerium für Familie, Senioren, Frauen und Jugend (2004), *Lebenssituation, Sicherheit und Gesundheit von Frauen in Deutschland*, Berlin (<http://www.bmfsfj.de/Kategorien/Publikationen/Publikationen,did=20530.html>).

⁽¹¹⁾ Statistics Estonia (2010), *Statistical database: Social life: Justice and security: Intimate partner abuse* (http://pub.stat.ee/px-web.2001/L_Databas/Social_Life/07JUSTICE_AND_SECURITY/07JUSTICE_AND_SECURITY.asp).

⁽¹²⁾ Tóth, Olga (1999), *Erőszak a családban*, TÁRKI, Társadalompolitikai Tanulmányok.

⁽¹³⁾ ISTAT (2007), *Violenza e maltrattamenti contro le donne dentro e fuori la famiglia*, Rome (http://www.istat.it/salastampa/comunicati/non_calendario/20070221_00/testointegrale.pdf).

⁽¹⁴⁾ Pikáľková, S. (ed.) (2004), *Mezinárodní výzkum násilí na ženách — Česká republika/2003: příspěvek k sociologickému zkoumání násilí v rodině*. Sociologické studie 04:2. Praha: Sociologický ústav AV ČR (http://studie.soc.cas.cz/upl/texty/files/200_04-2%20opr%20zformatovany%20text%204%20pro%20tisk.pdf).

according to a victimisation survey on 1 200 women (2003), 56 % often experience abusive behaviour from their husbands⁽¹⁵⁾. These figures cannot be read in a comparative way, due to the inherent differences in the methodologies, definitions and reference year used, as already evidenced.

Traditional practices harmful to women (such as crimes committed in the name of honour, female genital and sexual mutilation, forced marriages, dowry-related violence) are usually carried out within the family or in the wider community context.

Tradition-based violence is the most common form of community-based violence. Female genital mutilation (FGM), the most striking of all, as stated by the European Parliament resolution of 24 March 2009 on combating female genital mutilation in the EU⁽¹⁶⁾, is to be considered a 'violation of women's and girls' rights as enshrined in various international conventions, is prohibited under the criminal law of the Member States and in breach of the principles laid down in the Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union. (...) Any form of FGM, of whatever degree, is an act of violence against women which constitutes a violation of their fundamental rights, particularly the right to personal integrity and physical and mental health, and of their sexual and reproductive health; such violations can under no circumstances be justified by respect for cultural traditions of various kinds or initiation ceremonies'. According to estimates provided by the European Parliament⁽¹⁷⁾, 500 000 women and girls living in Europe have been subjected to FGM, and every year approximately 180 000 female emigrants in Europe undergo, or are in danger of undergoing, FGM.

Violence at the workplace may take several forms: threats and insults, mobbing or other forms of psychological aggression; sexual or racial harassment. There are large country differences in work-related violence: differences in the countries' socio-economic conditions, such as the general levels of

crime, economic and social change, the presence and, in some countries, the growth of the informal economic sector could have an impact on types and levels of violence at work⁽¹⁸⁾. Some professions are more exposed, such as professions in the health and social service sectors (nurses, social workers)⁽¹⁹⁾. In European countries there is a much wider awareness of the various forms of violence against employees in companies, while a hidden but widespread form of violence is that occurring within households, where psychological violence, humiliation and threats are very common situations. Because of their subordinate status both as migrants and as women, female migrant workers are highly vulnerable to exploitation and ill-treatment.

Human trafficking affects especially vulnerable groups of women and children, and there is a close link between sexual exploitation and high levels of poverty. A 2006 study for the European Commission⁽²⁰⁾ showed that the phenomenon targets economically and socially deprived young women in particular. For instance, women who are trafficked from and within central and eastern European countries are usually poorly educated, and many come from deprived regions with high levels of unemployment. The assessment of the level of trafficking throughout Europe is, however, limited by the lack of data and the absence of standardised guidelines for data collection at EU level⁽²¹⁾.

Even though violence against women knows no geographical, cultural or ethnic barriers, several studies have demonstrated that specific groups of women are particularly affected: migrant and ethnic minority women, female asylum seekers, refugees, disabled women, women living in institutions, prostitutes, trafficked women, etc. These groups, besides being more likely to

⁽¹⁵⁾ Αρτινοπούλου Β. (2006), Ενδοοικογενειακή κακοποίηση γυναικών, Αθήνα. [Artinopoulou V., Papatheodorou Th. (2006), Sexual harassment at work, Athens].

⁽¹⁶⁾ European Parliament resolution on combating female genital mutilation in the EU (2008/2071(INI)), 24 March 2009 (<http://www.europarl.europa.eu/sides/getDoc.do?pubRef=-//EP//TEXT+TA+P6-TA-2009-0161+0+DOC+XML+V0//EN>).

⁽¹⁷⁾ European Parliament resolution on combating female genital mutilation in the EU (2008/2071(INI)), 24 March 2009 (<http://www.europarl.europa.eu/sides/getDoc.do?pubRef=-//EP//TEXT+TA+P6-TA-2009-0161+0+DOC+XML+V0//EN>).

⁽¹⁸⁾ Di Martino, V., Hoel, H. and Cooper, C. L. (2003), Preventing violence and harassment in the workplace, European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions (<http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/pubdocs/2002/109/en/1/ef02109en.pdf>).

⁽¹⁹⁾ Jaspard, M. et l'équipe Enveff (2001), 'Nommer et compter les violences envers les femmes: une première enquête nationale en France', Populations & sociétés, No 364, January.

⁽²⁰⁾ Fagan, C., Urwin, P. and Melling, K. (2006), Gender inequalities in the risks of poverty and social exclusion for disadvantaged groups in thirty European countries. Report prepared for the European Commission, Directorate-General for Employment, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities, Luxembourg (http://www.libertysecurity.org/IMG/pdf_Gender_inequalities.pdf).

⁽²¹⁾ Europol (2009), Trafficking in human beings in the European Union. A Europol perspective (http://www.europol.europa.eu/publications/Serious_Crime_Overviews/Trafficking%20in%20Human%20Beings%20June%202009.pdf).

experience violence, are also often restricted in their access to escape routes and support services.

Migrant women face multidimensional vulnerability: they may be more subject to violence due to their community culture, or due to their particular frailty in terms of legal and economic position, but they can also be more exposed to violence exerted by native perpetrators. In addition, their status as migrants may restrict their access to escape routes, services and information. Migrant women from non-EU countries depending on their husbands with regard to both residence permits and work permits are in fact a particularly vulnerable group as they may be prevented from reporting domestic violence or resorting to divorce as they risk losing their residence permit. Migrant women may also experience violence in profoundly patriarchal communities, where they can be subject to FGM and forced marriages; they may experience violence as care workers, as nurses attending difficult patients, and also as irregular workers.

Violence against elderly and disabled women, and women with learning difficulties can take on forms not only of active violence (in terms of physical, sexual or psychological abuse), but the women may also experience violence due to negligence, when needed support is not provided. Violence against older women may also take the form of financial exploitation or neglect by family members or other caregivers. Women with disabilities may also experience violence in institutional settings, perpetrated by family members, caretakers or strangers. Women with alcohol- and drug-related problems are also more likely to be victims of violence.

Women suffering economic vulnerability: in some European countries studies have evidenced that the number of women victims of domestic violence in a partner relationship is significantly higher for the unemployed with low incomes, than for employed women. Women living in households facing economic difficulties experience violence at home considerably more than the others. Low income and/or the financial dependence of women on their husbands/partners also limits the possibility to escape violence, and job precariousness significantly increases exposure to violence. Women may find themselves in an extremely vulnerable economic situation after the violence due to a variety of reasons: (a) traumatising and health problems related to the violence, which

may lead to job loss; (b) economic dependence on the husband/partner, which may result in a loss of sustenance; (c) the conclusion of a violent relationship, which in many cases implies becoming a lone parent, particularly exposed to poverty.

Lesbian women may be victims of additional social prejudices because of their sexual orientation.

Social awareness and political debate

According to Unicef⁽²²⁾ there is no one single factor to account for violence perpetrated against women: 'several complex and interconnected institutionalised social and cultural factors have kept women particularly vulnerable to the violence directed at them, all of them manifestations of historically unequal power relations between men and women.'

Ingrained socio-cultural attitudes that make violence against women tolerated and considered a private matter are the main cause behind violence and in many EU countries this is evident in the scant social awareness of the issue and its high costs, far short of the actual extent of the phenomenon.

Since 1990 in most EU countries, thanks to the role played by NGOs, feminist organisations and international pressure, violence against women (VAW) has gained salience in national policy agendas. As expected, the role of the media is particularly important: in some cases in raising the awareness and sensitivity of society to the issue of violence, but, in other cases, in reinforcing negative gender stereotypes concerning the role of women in society, contributing to the construction of a particular female stereotype that is degrading to the image of women.

Mention must be made of a strong link between public awareness and attitudes to reporting violence. UN statistics collected in the context of its various surveys⁽²³⁾ on crime levels and criminal justice trends indicate significant variations in victimisation rates across Europe, with low rates in the southern and candidate countries and higher rates in the Nordic

⁽²²⁾ Unicef (2000), 'Domestic violence against women and girls', Innocenti Digest, Vol. 6, June 2000, Innocenti Research Centre, Florence, Italy (http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/domesticviolencecampaign/Source/PDF_Innocenti_digest.pdf).

⁽²³⁾ See, for instance, the UNECE gender database on crime and violence statistics (<http://w3.unece.org/pxweb/DATABASE/STAT/30-GE/07-CV/07-CV.asp>) or the UNICRI website (<http://www.unicri.it>).

countries: as pointed out in this present report, the figures per se often have limited relevance in terms of the incidence of the phenomenon, only offering some clues as to the level of awareness of the problem among the population and the different reporting attitudes in EU countries.

Policy approaches in European countries

Although international awareness-raising campaigns and debates have contributed considerably to the sensitisation of policymakers and the general public, and common trends are detectable in policies addressing violence against women, there are still differences among European countries reflecting the countries' cultural attitude and social awareness of the problem and their different welfare systems.

On the basis of the national reports of the EGGSI network and available literature, the usual classification of European countries provides a good starting point to analyse differences in approaches across countries. The Nordic and western European countries have a longer tradition of legislative intervention and specialised services to support women victims of violence and are increasingly focusing on tradition-based forms of violence and on vulnerable groups of women, such as ethnic minority and migrant women, disabled women and lesbians. In the southern and eastern European countries and in the three candidate countries (Croatia, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia and Turkey), on the other hand, violence against women has become a public issue more recently. The increasing commitment in these countries has been influenced on the one hand by European recommendations and resolutions on the issue and on the other hand by pressure from national women's movements and NGOs.

Overall, the national approaches adopted have been following a common path, initially focusing on legal reforms, police training and the establishment of specialised services for victims and, in more recent years, on awareness-raising and prevention measures and the enhancement of actions to support victims and their social integration.

An extensive body of legislation has been implemented since the 1980s to address the different forms that violence against women may take.

Sexual violence and physical domestic violence are now penalised in all the countries considered in this report, but there are still loopholes in the protection of women in some countries, for example when the victim's request is necessary in order to proceed (as in the case of domestic violence in some countries), or when the violent act might not be punishable if perpetrated with the 'consent' of the injured party or of her parent/guardian (a consent that may be extorted or derive from cultural and family pressures as in the case of sexual violence, genital mutilation, or forced marriage). Also, in most countries there are still low rates of prosecution and conviction for domestic violence and rape.

Besides legislative measures, nearly all European countries have in recent years adopted comprehensive policy strategies to fight violence against women either through multi-year comprehensive national action plans (NAPs) addressing all forms of violence against women or separate action plans for specific forms of violence (such as domestic violence, trafficking, or tradition-based forms of violence), or have included targeted measures in other strategic action plans (such as in gender equality plans, social inclusion action plans, or national security plans). Nonetheless, only a few plans provide an adequate framework for effectively combating violence against women, as they often do not clearly specify the national agencies responsible and the role of the different organisations involved in the strategy, the concrete actions to be implemented, the budget allocated, the benchmarks to be achieved and the time frame. There is also little knowledge of the outcome of interventions, as only a few countries have monitored and evaluated the activities implemented.

Domestic violence and trafficking of human beings still represent the forms of violence against women that are most addressed by NAPs: 27 countries have or have had in the recent past specific action plans addressing human trafficking, and 23 domestic violence. Other forms of violence have been subject to increasing attention only in very recent years and in a smaller number of countries. Few countries address in their NAPs tradition-based forms of violence, sexual harassment in the workplace, stalking, or violence in institutional environments.

As for the types of interventions, in all the countries considered there is increasing attention to prevention measures and support services, while

reintegration programmes specifically targeted to the needs of women victims of violence are less widespread or address disadvantaged population groups more in general, and not directly women affected by violence.

Besides the general programmes promoting gender equality and measures to support data collection and the development of indicators on violence against women, the main preventive measures adopted in the countries considered are: awareness-raising programmes (in the fields of healthcare and at schools, workplaces, etc.); professional training and education aimed at practitioners entering into contact with (potential) victims (such as the police, social and health workers, judges, lawyers, school teachers, media professionals); and treatment programmes for abusers. Prevention programmes are increasingly involving men, teenagers, religious authorities and employers' organisations, in order to induce peer effects and change deeply rooted behaviours.

Immediate support for women victims of violence is provided by women's shelters and helplines, available in all the countries considered. These shelters usually provide temporary accommodation, psychological treatment and legal assistance to women victims of violence and their children. Dedicated health treatments are also fairly widespread, while specialised support services for victims of sexual assault and rape and for victims of tradition-based violence affecting ethnic minority and immigrant women in particular are less common. The provision of women's shelters has increased in all countries, but still does not cover the needs in most of them. Overall, only 37.5 % of the places needed are available according to the Council of Europe's standards⁽²⁴⁾, with only four countries (Luxembourg, Malta, the Netherlands and Norway) fulfilling the recommendations of at least one family place⁽²⁵⁾ in a women's shelter per 10 000 inhabitants. Six other countries — Austria, Slovenia, the Czech Republic, Germany, Liechtenstein and Croatia — are close to doing so. Coverage

is particularly low in most southern and eastern European countries⁽²⁶⁾.

In addition, even though increasing in recent years, still little attention is paid to the specific needs of hard-to-reach groups of women such as disabled, ethnic minority and immigrant women. Besides their scarce diffusion, especially in southern and eastern European countries, other major shortcomings in the provision of women's shelters and crisis centres are: their concentration in urban areas, which greatly reduces accessibility for women living in rural and peripheral areas; the lack of stable funding, which reduces the continuity of service and prevents long-term planning; the lack of national guidelines on service quality standards.

Measures for the social reintegration of women victims of violence include support in accessing affordable housing and employment and training services. Less widespread are income support provisions for women who do not dispose of an income of their own. In most countries, reintegration services are usually provided by the regional and local authorities and NGOs. The main weakness of these interventions is, again, insufficient funding (which is likely to be further reduced in the future, due to the economic and financial recession) and the poor coverage of the needs.

The design and implementation of measures to combat violence against women usually involve different actors and stakeholders: national and local public institutions, service providers, NGOs and women's movements. NGOs play an important role in setting up and managing shelters, hotlines and services to support victims and in lobbying for legislation and intervention. In some countries (such as Cyprus, the Czech Republic, Latvia) NGOs are in fact the only providers of support services. Due to their long-standing experience, in many countries NGOs and women's institutions are also involved in consultation processes during the drafting of legislation and action plans.

The need to adopt a multidimensional approach, coordination and networking both within public institutions and between public institutions and NGOs, is increasingly recognised. In all the

⁽²⁴⁾ Council of Europe (2002), Recommendation Rec(2002)5 of the Committee of Ministers to member countries on the protection of women against violence adopted on 30 April 2002.

⁽²⁵⁾ A 'family place' requires a bed space for the mother and the average number of children in the country. See Council of Europe (2008), Combating violence against women: minimum standards for support services, Directorate-General of Human Rights and Legal Affairs, Strasbourg (<http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/domesticviolencecampaign/Source/EG-VAW-CONF%282007%29Study%20rev.en.pdf>).

⁽²⁶⁾ Data source: EGSI national reports 2010 and WAVE (2009), Country report 2009 — Reality check on European services for women and children victims of violence. A right for protection and support?, Vienna (http://www.wave-network.org/images/doku/wave_countryreport_2009_1.pdf).

countries considered there is increasing awareness and progress in developing broad and multi-agency policy frameworks and partnerships both at the national and local level, in some cases individualising a coordinating body for implementation and monitoring.

Interesting forms of international partnerships among European countries have also been implemented, often financed by European funds and programmes (such as the Daphne programme). Many projects relate to awareness-raising measures and the fight against trafficking. These projects appear very important in supporting the diffusion of good practices and institutional learning and are also an important source of financial support for the women's NGOs working in the field of violence against women.

Lessons learned and policy implications

The multiplicity of causes of violence against women (cultural, economic, legislative, political, personal) requires a multidimensional policy approach integrating: legislative action, preventive action, protection of victims, as well as support and reintegration services covering different areas of intervention and addressing the entire population, as well as prosecution and treatment of the perpetrators.

Comparative analysis of the dimensions and extent of violence against women and of the policy approaches adopted in European countries highlights improvements but also shortcomings, calling for increased commitment on the part of international and national institutions.

The main weaknesses relate to:

- the fragmentation of interventions and funds, with little coordination within a comprehensive long-term strategy;
- the lack and insecurity of funding: the main services supporting women victims of violence (shelters and hotlines, but also healthcare and police services) are underfunded and managed on a voluntary basis in most countries. The insecurity of funding, which is usually provided on a year-

to-year basis, makes long-term commitments and planning impossible. Even in those countries where dedicated NAPs do exist, the amount of resources earmarked for combating gender-related violence is still very limited and fragmented;

- the lack of systematic training of service providers, which may result in low levels of professionalism, especially among the police, the judiciary system, and the healthcare, social and educational systems;
- the scant attention to tradition-based violence, violence in the workplace and psychological forms of violence which are particularly difficult to detect and address, and the scarcity of services addressing vulnerable groups of women in particular;
- the lack of comparable and reliable data and indicators together with the lack of monitoring and evaluation provisions to assess the effectiveness and impacts of the measures adopted.

In order to overcome these weaknesses, the countries' experience and evaluation studies underline some factors which appear to be relevant in supporting the effectiveness of intervention.

- The first is the importance of implementing integrated and multilevel policy responses, combining different measures (legal, economic, social and cultural) at different levels. To avoid the fragmentation of interventions and to overcome the limitations due to the scarce financial resources available, measures to combat VAW have to be encompassed in a comprehensive strategy, considering all the relevant dimensions involved (e.g. health, social, economic, juridical issues).
- Integrated programmes require good governance and coordination capacities able to mobilise local resources and involve a wide range of stakeholders to generate innovations in policymaking and changes in social attitudes.
- Targeting measures to the specific needs of different groups of women often difficult to reach (such as ethnic minority and migrant women, trafficked women, the elderly, disabled women, teenagers) is another condition for effectiveness. This implies good knowledge of their specific needs and the capacity to find appropriate solutions.

- International institutions and, especially, the Council of Europe and the European Union have had and will probably continue to have a very important role in supporting awareness-raising and interventions to combat violence against women. It is important for the EU institutions to place VAW among the core priorities of their intervention and promote a comprehensive approach in preventing and combating violence against women based on:
 - the development of a consolidated and operational definition of the various forms of violence, allowing for the elaboration and implementation of specific indicators, common at least for all EU countries;
 - support for data-gathering and monitoring/evaluation tools, which are essential for the implementation of effective policies and legislation, through a learning process. The monitoring and evaluation of the effects of interventions combating VAW would be improved by the definition and dissemination of specific guidelines, the development and diffusion of specific indicators and tools to evaluate the (potential) impact of interventions and the capacity to reach targets. Qualitative monitoring activities should also be implemented, to derive lessons on how and why results are (not) reached. *Ex-post* evaluations and participative evaluations, involving a broad range of key stakeholders, could offer support by drawing conclusions on how to overcome the critical aspects arising from the implementation of the planned interventions;
 - promoting the adoption of an integrated approach, including legislation, awareness-raising, training and other prevention measures, victim protection, support and reintegration services, as well as prosecution of perpetrators and their treatment. Putting forward dedicated national action plans that: (1) address all forms of VAW; (2) clearly indicate the goals to be achieved, the actions to be adopted, the resources earmarked, the time frame and the data, indicators and monitoring systems to be implemented; and (3) identify a coordinating body with a clear mandate, would improve policy coherence. General standards and adequate resources for services providing assistance and protection to the victims are further needed. Cooperation and networking of all the relevant actors (police, courts, social and health services, housing services, educational institutions, women's organisations) would contribute to long-lasting effects.
- In order to improve institutional learning and policymaking, the promotion of EU-level transnational networking and the exchange of experiences for institutional learning with specific EU-wide programmes and funds are important. The dissemination of useful information on existing experiences is a way to support institutional learning.
- Support from EU financial instruments to training and support measures, together with awareness-raising campaigns on violence against women, are important in order to draw public attention and stigmatise violence against women, its causes and damaging effects for both the victims and the community.

Résumé

La violence envers les femmes est la **violation des droits humains** la plus répandue et la plus universelle. Elle ne connaît pas de frontière géographique, de limite d'âge, de distinction de classe, de différence culturelle ou raciale et a de fortes implications sur l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes, l'inclusion sociale et la santé.

L'élimination de la violence envers les femmes est un chapitre prioritaire de la Charte des femmes de la Commission européenne, adoptée en mars 2010, et de sa Stratégie pour l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes, adoptée en septembre 2010⁽²⁷⁾ – ce qui traduit l'engagement de la Commission de proposer une stratégie efficace et globale de lutte contre la violence envers les femmes. Bien que la responsabilité première de la lutte contre la violence envers les femmes incombe aux États membres, l'Union européenne a un rôle important à jouer au travers des conclusions du Conseil⁽²⁸⁾, des résolutions du Parlement européen⁽²⁹⁾, d'un soutien financier, de campagnes de sensibilisation et de la promotion d'échanges de bonnes pratiques, pour ne nommer que quelques activités. Dans les pays européens, la volonté politique de combattre la violence envers les femmes s'est accrue cette dernière décennie, grâce à un engagement fort et aux actions des institutions internationales, aux mouvements de femmes et aux ONG. Cette évolution est frappante en ce qui concerne l'amélioration des données disponibles et des mesures législatives et politiques adoptées dans les 33 pays étudiés dans ce rapport. Cependant, beaucoup de

faiblesses et de lacunes sont encore présentes dans la façon dont la violence envers les femmes apparaît dans les discussions politiques et sociales et dans les différentes manières d'aborder cette question.

Le but de cette étude est de fournir une analyse systématique et un aperçu des aspects sociaux de la violence envers les femmes. Tous les types de violence (physique, psychologique et sexuelle) sont pris en compte dans cette étude et elle se concentre essentiellement sur une analyse de l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes, de l'inclusion sociale et des stratégies de santé, ainsi que sur les plans d'action disponibles pour lutter contre la violence. Une attention particulière est également accordée aux trois axes que sont la prévention, le traitement et la réinsertion des victimes dans la société. L'objectif est de présenter une image claire de ce qui se passe dans ces domaines dans les 27 États membres, les 3 pays EEE/AELE et dans les 3 pays candidats à l'adhésion (la Croatie, l'ancienne République yougoslave de Macédoine et la Turquie). Les informations contenues dans ce rapport ont été principalement fournies par les experts nationaux de l'EGGSI - Réseau d'experts dans le domaine de l'égalité des sexes, l'inclusion sociale, l'insertion sociale, et des questions de santé et de soins de longue durée.⁽³⁰⁾

Ce rapport s'organise en trois chapitres. Le premier chapitre résume les principales caractéristiques de la violence envers les femmes en Europe. Le deuxième chapitre donne un aperçu des politiques traitant de la violence envers les femmes du point de vue de la prévention, du soutien aux victimes et de la réinsertion sociale. Le dernier chapitre présente quelques conclusions générales.

Le manque de données fiables

En Europe, plusieurs sources d'information sur la violence envers les femmes sont disponibles au niveau national, mais elles sont insuffisantes pour une analyse comparative et une analyse des tendances. La plupart des données disponibles ne sont pas comparables,

⁽²⁷⁾ La violence liée au sexe était également un des six domaines prioritaires de la Feuille de route pour l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes de la Commission européenne pour la période 2006-2010. Pour la Charte des femmes, voir: <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=COM:2010:0078:FIN:FR:PDF>. Pour la Stratégie pour l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes 2010-2015, voir: <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=COM:2010:0491:FIN:FR:PDF>. Pour la Feuille de route pour l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes 2006-2010, voir: <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=COM:2006:0092:FIN:FR:PDF>

⁽²⁸⁾ Récentes conclusions du Conseil concernant l'éradication de la violence à l'égard des femmes dans l'Union européenne ont été adoptées en mars 2010, voir: http://www.consilium.europa.eu/uedocs/cms_data/docs/pressdata/en/lsa/113226.pdf ; et les conclusions du Conseil sur l'amélioration de la prévention de la violence à l'égard des femmes et de l'assistance aux victimes de cette violence dans le cadre de l'action répressive en avril 2010, voir: http://www.consilium.europa.eu/uedocs/cms_data/docs/pressdata/fr/jha/114016.pdf. Un rapport de la Présidence suédoise sur Pékin +15 fourni une information mise à jour sur les développements relatifs aux 12 domaines critiques de la Plateforme d'action de Pékin, y compris la violence contre les femmes, voir: <http://www.sweden.gov.se/content/1/c6/13/58/75/9f23c20f.pdf>.

⁽²⁹⁾ Récentes résolutions du Parlement européen dans ce domaine furent adoptées en 2009, une concernait l'élimination de la violence à l'égard des femmes (P7_TA(2009)0098), voir: <http://www.europarl.europa.eu/sides/getDoc.do?pubRef=-//EP//TEXT+TA+P7-TA-2009-0098+0+DOC+XML+V0//FR>.

⁽³⁰⁾ EGGSI est le Réseau de la Commission Européenne réunissant 33 experts nationaux (pays de l'UE et de l'EEE et les 3 pays candidats la Croatie, l'ancienne République yougoslave de Macédoine et la Turquie) dans les domaines de l'égalité des sexes et de l'insertion sociale, et des questions de santé et de soins de longue durée. Ce Réseau est coordonné par l'Istituto per la Ricerca Sociale et la Fondazione Giacomo Brodolini, et il met en œuvre un programme annuel de recherche à caractère stratégique et en rend compte à la Direction générale Emploi, affaires sociales et égalité des chances.

ni collectées sur une base régulière, ce qui rend difficile la mesure des changements dans le temps et la détermination de la dimension de ce phénomène.

La collecte des données est difficile en l'absence d'une définition commune de la violence envers les femmes à l'échelle européenne et à cause des changements de comportement relatifs à la dénonciation de ces actes à la police. Cela pose de sérieux problèmes d'interprétation dans les comparaisons entre pays et dans le temps.

Les rapports nationaux EGGSI ont montré que non seulement les définitions des diverses formes de violence diffèrent d'un pays à l'autre, mais aussi que les instruments et les modalités utilisés pour les quantifier sont très variés, allant de concepts vagues, s'appuyant sur les réponses des personnes interrogées, à des concepts définis sur la base d'une liste de questions déterminées au niveau international. En outre, les techniques de collecte de données, la taille des échantillons et la forme des études menées sont différentes à travers l'Europe.

Le faible niveau de dénonciation par les femmes d'actes de violence à leur égard est un autre problème particulièrement pertinent. Un obstacle important à la dénonciation est leur manque de confiance dans le système judiciaire pénal (police, procureurs et tribunaux). Ce manque de confiance est lié au risque de victimisation secondaire au cours de l'enquête, surtout si la violence se produit au sein d'une famille, ainsi qu'aux doutes quant à l'intérêt réel de la police à la résolution des cas de ce genre.⁽³¹⁾ Les données disponibles montrent que l'agression sexuelle sur les femmes, en particulier, est le crime le moins signalé à la police. Partout en Europe on estime entre 1 à 12% les cas de viol actuellement dénoncés à la police.⁽³²⁾ De plus, les données relatives à la violence envers les femmes sont un domaine d'information relativement nouveau qui croise les domaines traditionnels de la production statistique. Même dans les pays où les données sont recueillies régulièrement, aucune attention particulière n'est accordée aux conséquences de cette violence que ce soit en termes de santé, mais aussi de coûts sanitaires et de coûts économiques.

⁽³¹⁾ Kelly, Liz (2000), *A war of attrition: reviewing new research on rape* (Une guerre d'usure: l'examen de nouvelles recherches sur le viol), Londres.

⁽³²⁾ Regan, Linda / Kelly, Liz (2001), *Rape: The Forgotten Issue? A European research and networking project. Child and Woman Abuse Studies* (Le viol: la question oubliée? Un projet de recherche européen et de travail en réseau. Etudes sur la maltraitance des enfants et des femmes) University of North London, Londres.

Une attention particulière aux conséquences à court et long terme de la violence fait défaut dans la plupart des pays européens.

Jusqu'à présent, aucun ensemble complet d'indicateurs internationaux sur la violence envers les femmes n'a été développé, bien que cela faciliterait la collecte de données comparables. Certaines institutions internationales telles que l'Organisation des Nations Unies⁽³³⁾, l'Agence américaine pour le Développement International (USAid)⁽³⁴⁾ et l'Union européenne⁽³⁵⁾ ont abordé ces questions et ont proposé plusieurs indicateurs, mais pour l'instant aucun système harmonisé de collecte des données n'est en place à travers l'UE.

Les différentes formes de violence envers les femmes

La violence domestique est la forme la plus courante de violence envers les femmes. On ne trouve aucune définition internationalement acceptée de la violence domestique, qui couvrirait le sujet dans son intégralité. Les principales définitions conviennent que la violence domestique est la violence perpétrée au sein de la famille ou au sein du foyer, y compris, entre autre, l'agression physique, les mauvais traitements, l'agression ou l'abus mental, émotionnel et psychologique, le viol et les sévices sexuels entre époux, partenaires habituels ou occasionnels, et les cohabitants.

Selon les données disponibles fournies par les experts nationaux de l'EGGSI de la *République Tchèque, d'Estonie, d'Allemagne, de Grèce, de Hongrie et d'Italie*, l'incidence de la violence domestique varie de 25% pour les femmes vivant en *Allemagne* (pour

⁽³³⁾ Les indicateurs proposés incluent la violence physique, sexuelle et entre partenaires intimes, des pratiques nuisibles et des propositions supplémentaires sur des données qualitatives. Voir aussi: Nations Unies (2007), *Indicators to measure violence against women*, (Les indicateurs pour mesurer la violence envers les femmes), Rapport de la réunion du Groupe d'experts tenue du 8 au 10 Octobre 2007, organisé par la Division des Nations Unies pour la promotion de la femme, Commission économique des Nations Unies pour l'Europe, Division statistique des Nations Unies, Genève. http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/egm/IndicatorsVAW/Indicators-VAW_EGM_report.pdf

⁽³⁴⁾ Bloom, Shelah S. (2007), *Violence against women and Girls. A Compendium of Monitoring and Evaluation Indicators* (la violence envers les femmes et les jeunes filles. Un recueil d'indicateurs de suivi et d'évaluation), Washington. <http://www.awid.org/Issues-and-Analysis/Library/Violence-against-Women-and-Girls-a-Compendium-of-Monitoring-and-Evaluation-Indicators>

⁽³⁵⁾ <http://register.consilium.europa.eu/pdf/en/02/st14/st14578.en02.pdf>
<http://register.consilium.europa.eu/pdf/en/04/st15/st15202.en04.pdf>

des femmes ayant subi des violences physiques ou sexuelles, ou les deux, de la part de leur partenaire actuel ou précédent⁽³⁶⁾ à 51% pour celles vivant en *Estonie* (femmes âgées de 15-74 ans ayant connu certaines formes de violence dans leur relation⁽³⁷⁾; à 28% de femmes qui ont dénoncé des actions violentes dans leur relation antérieure ou actuelle en *Hongrie*⁽³⁸⁾, et à 31,9% de femmes entre 16 et 70 ans estimées victimes de violences physiques ou sexuelles au cours de leur vie en *Italie*⁽³⁹⁾; alors qu'en *République Tchèque* 37,7% des femmes ont été victimes de violence de la part de leur partenaire au moins une fois dans leur vie.⁽⁴⁰⁾ En *Grèce*, selon une enquête de victimation menée en 2003 sur 1.200 femmes, 56% subiraient régulièrement une forme de comportement abusif de la part de leurs maris.⁽⁴¹⁾ Ces chiffres ne peuvent être lus de manière comparative, en raison des différences inhérentes à la méthodologie, aux définitions et à l'année de référence utilisée, comme cela a été déjà mis en évidence.

Les pratiques traditionnelles néfastes aux femmes (comme les crimes commis au nom de l'honneur, les mutilations génitales et sexuelles, les mariages forcés, la violence liée à la dot) sont généralement perpétrées au sein de la famille ou dans le contexte plus large de la communauté.

La violence fondée sur les traditions est la forme la plus *courante de violence communautaire*. Les mutilations génitales féminines (MGF) en sont la manifestation la plus frappante, comme l'indique la Résolution du Parlement européen du 24 mars 2009 sur

la lutte contre les mutilations génitales féminines au sein de l'UE⁽⁴²⁾. Elles doivent être considérées comme « une violation des droits des femmes et des filles incluse dans plusieurs conventions internationales, qui est interdite en vertu du droit pénal des États membres et qui enfreint les principes de la Charte des droits fondamentaux de l'Union européenne. (...) Toute forme de MGF, quel qu'en soit le degré, est un acte de violence envers les femmes qui constitue une violation de leurs droits fondamentaux, notamment le droit à l'intégrité personnelle et à la santé physique et mentale, et de leurs droits en matière de santé sexuelle et reproductive. Ces violations ne sauraient en aucun cas être justifiées par le respect de traditions culturelles diverses ou de rites initiatiques ». Selon les estimations fournies par le Parlement européen⁽⁴³⁾, 500.000 femmes et filles vivant en Europe ont subi des MGF, et chaque année, environ 180.000 femmes émigrées en Europe subissent, ou risquent de subir, des MGF.

La violence sur le lieu de travail peut prendre plusieurs formes: menaces, insultes, harcèlement moral ou d'autres formes d'agression psychologique, ou encore harcèlement sexuel ou racial. Il existe de grandes différences entre les pays en ce qui concerne la violence liée à l'emploi : les différences dans les conditions socio-économiques des pays, tels que le niveau général de criminalité, les changements économiques et sociaux, la présence et, dans certains pays, la croissance du secteur informel de l'économie, peuvent avoir un impact sur les types et les niveaux de cette violence⁽⁴⁴⁾. Certaines professions sont plus exposées, comme celles de la santé et des services sociaux (infirmières, travailleurs sociaux).⁽⁴⁵⁾ Dans les pays européens, on a davantage conscience qu'il existe diverses formes de violence envers les salariés dans l'entreprise, alors qu'une forme de violence cachée mais répandue se manifeste au sein des ménages, où l'humiliation,

⁽³⁶⁾ Bundesministerium für Familie, Senioren, Frauen und Jugend (2004), Lebenssituation, Sicherheit und Gesundheit von Frauen in Deutschland (Situation de vie: la sécurité et la santé des femmes en Allemagne), Berlin. <http://www.bmfsfj.de/Kategorien/Publikationen/Publikationen,did=20530.html>

⁽³⁷⁾ Statistics Estonia (2010), Statistical database: Social life: Justice and Security: Intimate partner abuse (Banque de donnée statistique: la vie sociale: justice et sécurité: la violence entre partenaires intimes) http://pub.stat.ee/px-web.2001/I_Databas/Social_Life/07JUSTICE_AND_SECURITY/07JUSTICE_AND_SECURITY.asp

⁽³⁸⁾ Tóth, Olga (1999), Erőszak a családban, (La violence dans la famille), TÁRKI, Társadalompolitikai Tanulmányok

⁽³⁹⁾ ISTAT (2007), Violenza e maltrattamenti contro le donne dentro e fuori la famiglia (La violence et la maltraitance envers les femmes au sein et en de hors de la famille), Rome. http://www.istat.it/salastampa/comunicati/non_calendario/20070221_00/testointegrale.pdf

⁽⁴⁰⁾ Pikáľková, S. (ed.) 2004. Mezinárodní výzkum násilí na ženách – Česká republika/2003: příspěvek k sociologickému zkoumání násilí v rodině. Sociologické studie 04.2. Praha: Sociologický ústav AV ČR. (La recherche internationale sur la violence contre les femmes - République Tchèque, 2003: Contribution à l'étude sociologique de la violence dans la famille. Etudes Sociologiques 04.2. Prague: Institut de sociologie), http://studie.soc.cas.cz/upl/texty/files/200_04-2%20opr%20zformatovany%20text%204%20pro%20tisk.pdf

⁽⁴¹⁾ Αρτινοπούλου Β., 2006, «Ενδοοικογενειακή κακοποίηση γυναικών» (Le harcèlement sexuel au travail), Αθήνα, Νομική Βιβλιοθήκη, Athènes.

⁽⁴²⁾ Résolution du Parlement européen sur la lutte contre les mutilations génitales féminines pratiquées dans l'UE (2008/2071 (INI)), 24 Mars 2009. <http://www.europarl.europa.eu/sides/getDoc.do?pubRef=-//EP//TEXT+TA+P6-TA-2009-0161+0+DOC+XML+V0//EN>

⁽⁴³⁾ Résolution du Parlement européen sur la lutte contre les mutilations génitales féminines pratiquées dans l'UE (2008/2071 (INI)), 24 Mars 2009. <http://www.europarl.europa.eu/sides/getDoc.do?pubRef=-//EP//TEXT+TA+P6-TA-2009-0161+0+DOC+XML+V0//EN>

⁽⁴⁴⁾ Di Martino, Hoel and Cooper (2003), Preventing violence and harassment in the workplace (Prévention de la violence et du harcèlement sur le lieu de travail), European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions: <http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/pubdocs/2002/109/en/1/ef02109en.pdf>

⁽⁴⁵⁾ Jaspard M. et l'équipe Enveff (2001), "Nommer et compter les violences envers les femmes: une première enquête nationale en France", Populations & sociétés, n° 364, January.

la violence psychologique et les menaces sont des situations très communes. En raison de leur statut de subordination, en tant que migrantes et femmes, *les travailleuses migrantes sont particulièrement vulnérables à l'exploitation et aux mauvais traitements.*

La traite des êtres humains touche en particulier les femmes et les enfants, particulièrement vulnérables. Il existe un lien étroit entre l'exploitation sexuelle et les niveaux élevés de pauvreté. Une étude de 2006 réalisée pour la Commission européenne⁽⁴⁶⁾ a montré que le phénomène touche en particulier les jeunes femmes économiquement et socialement défavorisées. Par exemple, les femmes victimes du trafic sexuel à partir et au sein de l'Europe centrale et orientale sont en général peu instruites, et beaucoup d'entre elles viennent de régions déshéritées ayant un niveau de chômage élevé. Il est toutefois difficile d'évaluer le niveau de ce trafic sexuel dans toute l'Europe en raison du manque de données et de l'absence de lignes directrices standardisées pour la collecte de données au niveau de l'UE.⁽⁴⁷⁾

Même si la violence envers les femmes ne connaît pas de limite géographique, culturelle ou ethnique, plusieurs études ont démontré que certains groupes spécifiques de femmes en sont davantage victimes que d'autres : les femmes migrantes et les femmes issues des minorités ethniques, les femmes demandeuses d'asile, les réfugiées, les femmes handicapées, les femmes vivant en institution, les prostituées, les femmes victimes du trafic sexuel, etc. Ces groupes de femmes sont non seulement plus souvent susceptibles de subir des violences, mais ont également moins de possibilités d'échapper à leur condition et d'avoir accès aux services d'aide.

Les femmes migrantes font face à une vulnérabilité ayant différents aspects: elles sont plus susceptibles d'être victimes de violences à cause de leur culture communautaire ou de leur situation juridique ou économique précaire, mais elles sont également plus exposées à la violence perpétrée par des

autochtones. De plus, leur statut de migrantes peut les empêcher d'échapper à leur condition ou d'avoir accès aux services et à l'information disponibles. Les femmes migrantes venues de pays hors de l'UE, qui dépendent de leur mari pour le permis de séjour et le permis de travail, sont un groupe particulièrement vulnérable car en dénonçant les violences domestiques ou en demandant le divorce, elles risquent de perdre ces permis. Les femmes migrantes peuvent aussi être victimes de violences dans les communautés profondément patriarcales, où elles peuvent être soumises aux MGF ou au mariage forcé. Elles risquent d'être victimes de violence en tant qu'assistantes sociales, infirmières soignant des patients difficiles, ou bien encore parce qu'elles travaillent en situation irrégulière.

La violence envers *les femmes âgées et handicapées et les femmes en difficulté d'apprentissage* peut prendre la forme non seulement d'une violence active (en termes d'abus physique, sexuel ou psychologique), mais aussi d'une violence due à la négligence, lorsque le soutien nécessaire n'est pas fourni. La violence envers les femmes plus âgées peut également prendre la forme d'une exploitation financière ou de négligences par des membres de la famille ou d'un autre personnel soignant. Les femmes handicapées peuvent aussi subir la violence dans des institutions, perpétrée par des membres de la famille, des aides-soignants ou des étrangers. *Les femmes ayant des problèmes liés à l'alcool et à la drogue sont aussi plus susceptibles d'être victimes de violence.*

Les femmes souffrant de vulnérabilité économique: dans certains pays européens des études ont démontré que le nombre de femmes victimes de violences domestiques au sein d'une relation est sensiblement plus élevé pour les chômeuses à faible revenu que pour les femmes salariées. Les femmes vivant dans les ménages confrontés à des difficultés économiques font plus souvent face à la violence domestique que les autres. Le faible revenu et/ou la dépendance financière des femmes par rapport à leur mari/partenaire limitent également la possibilité d'échapper à la violence, et la précarité de l'emploi augmente de façon significative l'exposition à cette violence. Les femmes peuvent se trouver dans une situation économique extrêmement vulnérable après avoir subi des violences pour différentes raisons: a) un traumatisme et des problèmes de santé liés à la violence, qui peuvent conduire à une perte d'emploi; b) la dépendance économique envers le mari/partenaire, pouvant entraîner une perte des moyens

⁽⁴⁶⁾ Fagan, C., Urwin, P., Melling, K. (2006), Gender inequalities in the risks of poverty and social exclusion for disadvantaged groups in thirty European countries (Les inégalités homme-femme dans les risques d'inclusion sociale et de pauvreté pour les groupes désavantagés dans 30 pays européens). Rapport préparé pour la Commission européenne, Direction générale de l'emploi, des affaires sociales et égalité des chances. Luxembourg. http://www.libertysecurity.org/IMG/pdf_Gender_inequalities.pdf

⁽⁴⁷⁾ Europol (2009), Trafficking in Human Beings in the European Union. A Europol Perspective (La traite des êtres humains dans l'Union européenne. Une perspective d'Europol) http://www.europol.europa.eu/publications/Serious_Crime_Overviews/Trafficking%20in%20Human%20Beings%20June%202009.pdf

de subsistance; c) la fin d'une relation violente, qui implique dans de nombreux cas de devenir un parent isolé, particulièrement exposé à la pauvreté.

Les femmes lesbiennes peuvent être victimes de préjugés sociaux supplémentaires en raison de leur orientation sexuelle.

Conscience sociale et débat politique

Selon l'UNICEF⁽⁴⁸⁾ il n'y a pas un facteur unique à prendre en compte pour expliquer la violence perpétrée contre les femmes: « de nombreux facteurs sociaux, culturels et institutionnalisés, complexes et interconnectés, ont rendu les femmes particulièrement vulnérables à la violence. Tous ces facteurs étant la manifestation de rapports de force historiquement inégaux entre les hommes et les femmes ».

Des attitudes socioculturelles solidement ancrées, qui entraînent une tolérance de la violence subie par les femmes et la considèrent comme une affaire privée, sont la principale cause de cette violence. Ceci se révèle dans de nombreux pays européens par le peu de conscience sociale qui existe autour de cette question et son coût élevé, très éloignée de l'ampleur réelle du phénomène.

Depuis 1990, dans la plupart des pays de l'UE, la violence envers les femmes a pris de l'importance dans les agendas politiques nationaux grâce au rôle joué par les ONG, les organisations féministes et les pressions internationales. Comme on peut s'y attendre, le rôle des médias est particulièrement important : dans certains cas ils sensibilisent l'opinion publique et la société sur la question de la violence, mais, dans d'autres cas, ils renforcent les stéréotypes négatifs sur le rôle des femmes dans la société et contribuent ainsi à la construction d'un stéréotype féminin particulier, dégradant pour l'image des femmes.

Un lien étroit doit être mentionné entre la sensibilisation du public et les attitudes relatives à la dénonciation de la violence. Les statistiques de l'ONU, recueillies dans le cadre de diverses enquêtes⁽⁴⁹⁾

sur les niveaux de criminalité et les tendances de la justice pénale, montrent des variations importantes concernant les taux de victimisation en Europe, avec des taux faibles dans le sud et les pays candidats et des taux plus élevés dans les pays nordiques. Comme souligné dans ce rapport, les chiffres en soi ont souvent un intérêt limité en termes d'incidence du phénomène et n'offrent que peu d'indices sur le niveau de conscience du problème au sein de la population et sur les attitudes diverses relatives à la dénonciation dans les pays de l'UE.

Approches politiques dans les pays européens

Bien que les campagnes de sensibilisation internationales et les débats aient largement contribué à la sensibilisation des décideurs et du public, et que l'on observe des tendances communes dans les politiques de lutte contre la violence envers les femmes, il existe encore des différences entre les pays européens. Ces différences reflètent l'attitude culturelle des pays, leur niveau de conscience sociale du problème et leur système de sécurité sociale.

Sur base des rapports nationaux du réseau EGSSI et de la documentation disponible, on remarque que la classification habituelle des pays européens constitue un bon point de départ pour analyser les différences d'approche entre les pays. Les pays nordiques et d'Europe occidentale ont une plus longue tradition d'intervention législative et de services spécialisés pour aider les femmes victimes de violence et portent une attention particulière sur les formes de violence basées sur la tradition et sur les groupes de femmes vulnérables, tels que les femmes issues des minorités ethniques et les femmes migrantes, les femmes handicapées et les lesbiennes. D'un autre côté, dans les pays du sud et d'Europe orientale et dans les trois pays candidats à l'adhésion (*la Croatie, l'ancienne République yougoslave de Macédoine et la Turquie*), la violence envers les femmes n'est devenue un enjeu public que récemment. L'engagement croissant de ces pays a été influencé, d'une part, par les recommandations et les résolutions européennes sur la question, et d'autre part, par la pression des mouvements nationaux de femmes et des ONG.

Dans l'ensemble, les approches nationales adoptées suivent toutes une orientation commune, en se concentrant initialement sur les réformes juridiques, la formation des policiers et la création de services

⁽⁴⁸⁾ UNICEF (2000), *Domestic Violence Against Women and Girls* (La violence domestique envers les femmes et les filles), Centre de Recherche Innocenti, Florence, Italie, Innocenti Digest, vol. 6, Juin 2000. http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/domesticviolencecampaign/Source/PDF_Innocenti_digest.pdf

⁽⁴⁹⁾ Voir par exemple la banque de données par sexe de la CEE sur la criminalité et statistiques sur la violence, accessible à l'adresse suivante: <http://w3.unece.org/pxweb/DATABASE/STAT/30-GE/07-CV/07-CV.asp> ou le site de l'UNICRI <http://www.unicri.it>.

spécialisés pour les victimes et, ces dernières années, sur les mesures de sensibilisation et de prévention ainsi que sur la promotion des actions de soutien des victimes et de leur intégration sociale.

Un vaste arsenal législatif a été mis en œuvre depuis les années quatre-vingt pour traiter des différentes formes de violence envers les femmes. La violence sexuelle et la violence physique domestique sont maintenant sanctionnées dans tous les pays étudiés dans ce rapport, mais il existe encore des lacunes au niveau de la protection des femmes dans certains pays. Par exemple, lorsque la plainte de la victime est nécessaire pour déclencher le processus juridique (comme la violence domestique dans certains pays) ou lorsque l'acte de violence n'est pas punissable car perpétré avec le « consentement » de la victime ou de son parent/curateur (consentement qui peut être extorqué ou dériver de pressions culturelles et familiales, comme dans le cas de la violence sexuelle, de mutilations génitales ou de mariages forcés). En outre, dans la plupart des pays le taux de poursuites et de condamnations pour violences domestiques et viol est encore peu élevé.

Outre les mesures législatives, presque tous les pays européens ont adopté ces dernières années des stratégies politiques globales pour combattre la violence envers les femmes, soit par des Plans d'Action Nationaux (PAN) pluriannuels globaux portant sur toutes les formes de violence envers les femmes, soit par des plans d'action distincts concernant certaines formes de violence (telles que la violence domestique, le trafic d'êtres humains ou les formes de violence basées sur la tradition), ou bien ont intégré des mesures ciblées dans d'autres plans d'action stratégiques (tels que Plans d'Égalité des sexes, Plans d'Action d'Inclusion Sociale ou Plans Nationaux de Sécurité). Néanmoins, seuls quelques plans fournissent un cadre adéquat pour lutter efficacement contre la violence envers les femmes, car souvent ils ne précisent pas clairement les services nationaux responsables ni le rôle des différents organismes impliqués dans la stratégie, les actions concrètes à mettre en œuvre, le budget alloué, les critères d'évaluations à atteindre et les délais. On connaît peu de choses sur le résultat des interventions, car seuls quelques pays ont assuré le suivi et l'évaluation des activités mises en œuvre.

La violence domestique et le trafic d'êtres humains continuent à représenter les formes de violence envers les femmes qui sont au cœur des PAN: 27 pays ont adopté dans un passé récent des plans d'action spécifiques

portant sur *le trafic d'êtres humains* et 23 sur la *violence domestique*. D'autres formes de violence n'ont fait l'objet d'une attention croissante que très récemment et dans un nombre restreint de pays. Peu de pays traitent dans leur PAN des formes de violence basées sur la tradition, du harcèlement sexuel sur le lieu de travail, du harcèlement, ou de la violence dans les établissements.

En ce qui concerne les *types d'interventions*, on note une attention croissante portée aux mesures de prévention et de soutien dans tous les pays considérés, alors que les programmes de réinsertion spécifiquement ciblés sur les besoins des femmes victimes de violence sont moins répandus ou portent sur des groupes de population défavorisés d'une manière plus générale, et non pas directement sur les femmes touchées par la violence.

Outre les programmes généraux visant à promouvoir l'égalité entre les femmes et les hommes et les mesures pour appuyer la collecte de données et l'élaboration d'indicateurs sur la violence envers les femmes, les principales mesures de prévention adoptées dans les pays étudiés sont: les programmes de sensibilisation (dans les domaines des soins de santé et à l'école, sur le lieu de travail, etc.), la formation professionnelle et la formation continue des professionnels qui sont en contact avec des victimes (potentielles) - comme la police, les travailleurs sociaux et de la santé, les juges, les avocats, les enseignants, les professionnels des médias - et les programmes de traitement destinés aux agresseurs. Les programmes de prévention demandent de plus en plus l'implication des hommes, des adolescents, des autorités religieuses et des organisations patronales, afin de provoquer des effets de groupe et le changement de comportements profondément enracinés.

Une aide *immédiate pour les femmes victimes de violence* est fournie par les refuges pour femmes et les lignes d'assistance, disponibles dans tous les pays considérés. Ces refuges offrent généralement un logement temporaire, une assistance psychologique et juridique aux femmes victimes de violence et à leurs enfants. Des traitements de santé spécialisés sont également assez répandus, alors que les services de soutien spécialisés pour les victimes d'agression sexuelle et de viol ainsi que pour les victimes de violence fondées sur la tradition, qui touchent les femmes issues des minorités ethniques et les femmes immigrantes en particulier, sont quant à eux moins fréquents. Le nombre de refuges pour femmes a augmenté dans tous les pays, mais ne couvre toujours pas les besoins dans la plupart d'entre eux. Dans l'ensemble, seulement 37,5% des places nécessaires sont

disponibles selon les normes du Conseil de l'Europe⁽⁵⁰⁾, avec seulement quatre pays (*le Luxembourg, Malte, les Pays-Bas et la Norvège*) remplissant les conditions recommandées par le Conseil, à savoir au moins 1 place familiale⁽⁵¹⁾ pour 10.000 habitants pour chaque abri pour femmes. Six autres pays – *l'Autriche, la Slovaquie, la République Tchèque, l'Allemagne, le Liechtenstein et la Croatie* – sont proches de ce chiffre. Ce taux de couverture est particulièrement faible dans la plupart des pays du sud et de l'est de l'Europe.⁽⁵²⁾

En outre, même si elle a crû ces dernières années, l'attention accordée aux besoins spécifiques de groupes de femmes difficiles à atteindre (femmes handicapées, femmes issues des minorités ethniques et femmes migrantes) reste limitée. À côté de leur faible diffusion, en particulier dans les pays du sud et de l'est de l'Europe, d'autres lacunes existent en ce qui concerne la mise à disposition de refuges pour femmes et de centres de crise. Ces lacunes sont: la concentration dans les zones urbaines, qui réduit considérablement l'accessibilité pour les femmes vivant dans les zones rurales et périphériques, le manque de stabilité de financement, qui réduit la continuité du service et empêche la planification à long terme, et l'absence de lignes directrices nationales sur les normes de qualité des services fournis.

Les mesures de *réinsertion sociale des femmes victimes de violence* incluent l'accès à des logements abordables ainsi qu'à l'emploi et à la formation. Les dispositions en faveur d'une aide au revenu pour les femmes qui ne disposent pas d'un revenu propre sont moins répandues. Dans la plupart des pays, les services de réinsertion sont habituellement fournis par les autorités régionales et locales et les ONG. La principale faiblesse de ces interventions est, une nouvelle fois,

un financement insuffisant (susceptible d'être encore diminué à l'avenir, en raison de la récession actuelle) et la faible couverture des besoins.

La conception et la mise en œuvre de mesures visant à combattre la violence envers les femmes en général impliquent *généralement la participation de divers acteurs et intervenants* : les institutions publiques nationales et locales, les prestataires de services, les ONG et les mouvements de femmes. Les ONG jouent un rôle important pour mettre en place et gérer des refuges pour femmes, des lignes directes et des services de soutien aux victimes, et pour faire pression en faveur de législations et d'interventions. Dans certains pays (tels que *Chypre, la République Tchèque, la Lettonie*), les ONG sont en fait les seuls fournisseurs de services de soutien. Dans de nombreux pays, en raison de leur longue expérience, les ONG et les établissements pour femmes sont également impliqués dans les processus de consultation lors de l'élaboration de la législation et des plans d'action.

La nécessité d'adopter une *approche multidimensionnelle, une coordination et une mise en réseau*, que ce soit au sein des institutions publiques ou entre les institutions publiques et les ONG, est de plus en plus reconnue. Dans tous les pays étudiés, on assiste à une augmentation du niveau de sensibilisation et à des progrès dans le développement de cadres politique et de partenariats larges et qui font appel à plusieurs organismes au niveau national ou local. Dans certains cas, une identification d'un organe commun de coordination pour la mise en œuvre et le suivi est réalisée.

Des formes intéressantes de *partenariats internationaux entre les pays européens* ont également été mises en œuvre et sont souvent financés par les fonds et programmes européens (tel que le programme Daphné). De nombreux projets portent sur les mesures de sensibilisation et la lutte contre le trafic d'êtres humains. Ces projets se révèlent très importants dans le soutien à la diffusion de bonnes pratiques et l'apprentissage institutionnel et sont également une source importante de soutien pour les ONG travaillant dans le secteur de la violence envers les femmes.

Leçons retenues et implications politiques

La multiplicité des causes de la violence envers les femmes (culturelles, économiques, législatives, politiques, personnelles) nécessite une approche politique

⁽⁵⁰⁾ Conseil de l'Europe (2002), Recommandation Rec (2002) 5 du Comité des Ministres des Etats membres sur la protection des femmes envers la violence, adoptée le 30 avril 2002.

⁽⁵¹⁾ A "family place" requires a bed space for the mother and the average number of children in the country. See: Council of Europe (2008), Combating violence against Women: minimum standards for support services, Directorate General of Human Rights and Legal Affairs, Strasbourg. Un «lieu pour la famille» nécessite un lit pour la mère et le nombre d'enfants dans le pays. Voir: Conseil de l'Europe (2008), Combattre la violence envers les femmes: des normes minimales pour les services de soutien, Direction générale des Droits de l'Homme et des Affaires juridiques, Strasbourg. <http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/domestic-violencecampaign/Source/EG-VAW-CONF%282007%29Study%20rev.en.pdf>

⁽⁵²⁾ Source des données: rapports pays EGGSI 2010 et WAVE (2009), Rapport pays 2009, Reality Check on European Services for women and Children Victims of violence. A Right for Protection and Support? (Le point sur les services européens pour les femmes et les enfants victimes de violence. Un droit de protection et d'aide?) Vienne. http://www.wave-network.org/images/doku/wave_countryreport_2009_1.pdf

multidimensionnelle intégrant: action législative, action préventive, protection des victimes, ainsi que des services de soutien et de réinsertion couvrant divers domaines d'intervention et s'adressant à la population dans son ensemble, mais également la poursuite et le traitement des auteurs de ces violences.

L'analyse comparative de la dimension et de l'étendue des violences envers les femmes ainsi que des approches politiques adoptées dans les pays européens met en évidence des améliorations, mais aussi des lacunes, appelant à un engagement accru de la part des institutions internationales et nationales.

Les principales faiblesses concernent:

- la *fragmentation des interventions et des fonds*, avec peu de coordination au sein d'une stratégie globale à long terme;
- le *manque de financement et leur caractère incertain*: les principaux services de soutien aux femmes victimes de violence (refuges, permanences téléphoniques, soins de santé et services de police) sont sous-financés et gérés sur une base volontaire dans la plupart des pays. Le caractère incertain du financement, qui est généralement assuré sur une base annuelle, rend les engagements à long terme et la planification impossible. Même dans les pays où il existe des PAN dédiés à ce sujet, le montant des ressources affectées à la lutte contre les violences envers les femmes est encore limité et fragmenté;
- le *manque de formation systématique des prestataires de services*, qui peut entraîner de faibles niveaux de professionnalisme, en particulier au sein de la police, du système judiciaire et des systèmes sanitaires, sociaux et éducatifs;
- le *peu d'attention portée à la violence fondée sur la tradition*, à la violence sur le lieu de travail et aux formes de violence psychologique qui sont particulièrement difficiles à détecter et à traiter, ainsi que la rareté des services s'adressant en particulier à des groupes de femmes vulnérables;
- le *manque de données et d'indicateurs comparables et fiables* ainsi que le manque de mesures de suivi et d'évaluation qui permettraient d'évaluer l'efficacité et l'impact des mesures adoptées.

Afin de remédier à ces faiblesses, l'expérience des pays et des études d'évaluation soulignent certains

facteurs qui semblent pertinents pour appuyer l'efficacité de l'intervention:

- le premier est l'importance de la mise en œuvre de *réponses politiques intégrées et de tous niveaux*, combinant différentes mesures (juridiques, économiques, sociales et culturelles) à différents niveaux. Pour éviter la fragmentation des interventions et surmonter les limitations dues à la rareté des ressources financières disponibles, les mesures de lutte contre la violence envers les femmes doivent être intégrées dans une stratégie globale, tenant compte de toutes les dimensions pertinentes concernées (santé, social, économique, questions juridiques);
- les programmes intégrés exigent une *bonne gouvernance et une certaine capacité de coordination* permettant de mobiliser les ressources locales et d'impliquer un grand nombre d'intervenants pour générer des innovations dans l'élaboration des politiques et des changements dans les attitudes sociales;
- *cibler* les mesures pour les besoins spécifiques des différents groupes de femmes souvent difficiles à atteindre (femmes issues des minorités ethniques, les femmes migrantes, les femmes victimes du trafic d'êtres humains, femmes âgées, femmes handicapées, adolescentes) est une autre condition d'efficacité. Cela implique une bonne connaissance de leurs besoins spécifiques et la capacité à trouver des solutions appropriées.

Les institutions internationales, et notamment le Conseil de l'Europe et l'Union européenne, ont eu et continueront probablement à avoir un rôle très important dans le soutien à la sensibilisation et aux interventions pour combattre la violence envers les femmes. Il est important pour les institutions de l'UE de placer la violence envers les femmes parmi ses priorités et de promouvoir une approche globale pour prévenir et combattre la violence envers les femmes fondée sur:

- le *développement d'une définition consolidée et opérationnelle des différentes formes de violence*, qui permettrait l'élaboration et la mise en œuvre d'*indicateurs spécifiques*, communs au moins pour tous les pays de l'UE;
- le *soutien à la collecte de données et aux outils de suivi et d'évaluation*, essentiels pour la mise en œuvre de politiques et de législations efficaces, à travers

un processus d'apprentissage. Le suivi et l'évaluation des effets des interventions de lutte contre la violence envers les femmes seraient améliorés par la définition et la diffusion de lignes directrices spécifiques, le développement et la diffusion d'indicateurs et d'outils spécifiques pour évaluer l'impact (potentiel) des interventions, et la capacité à atteindre les objectifs. Des activités de surveillance qualitative devraient également être mises en œuvre, pour étudier comment et pourquoi les résultats sont atteints (ou non). Les évaluations ex-post et les évaluations participatives impliquant un large éventail d'intervenants clés, pourraient offrir un soutien en tirant des conclusions sur la façon de surmonter les aspects critiques découlant de la mise en œuvre des interventions prévues;

- *promouvoir l'adoption d'une approche intégrée*, y compris la législation, la sensibilisation, la formation et autres mesures de prévention, les services de protection des victimes, de soutien et de réinsertion, ainsi que la poursuite des auteurs et leur traitement. La mise en avant de plans d'action nationaux consacrés à la lutte contre les violences envers les femmes qui: 1) abordent toutes les formes de cette violence, 2) indiquent clairement les objectifs à atteindre, les actions à adopter, les ressources affectées, les délais et les données, les indicateurs et les systèmes de

suivi à mettre en œuvre, et 3) identifient un organe de coordination avec un mandat clair, qui permettrait d'améliorer la cohérence des politiques. Sont aussi nécessaires des normes générales et des ressources suffisantes pour fournir des services d'assistance et de protection aux victimes. La coopération et la mise en réseau de tous les acteurs concernés (police, tribunaux, services de logement social et services sanitaires, établissements éducatifs, organisations de femmes) pourraient contribuer à des effets durables;

- *pour améliorer l'apprentissage institutionnel et l'élaboration de politiques*, il est important d'encourager le travail transfrontalier en réseau et l'échange d'expériences pour l'apprentissage institutionnel au niveau de l'UE grâce à la mise en place de programmes et de financements européens spécifiques. La diffusion d'informations utiles sur les expériences actuelles est une manière de soutenir cet apprentissage institutionnel;
- *l'aide des instruments financiers de l'UE* pour la formation et les mesures de soutien, ainsi que des campagnes de sensibilisation sur la violence envers les femmes, sont importants pour attirer l'attention du public et pour stigmatiser la violence envers les femmes, ses causes et ses effets néfastes, tant pour les victimes que pour la communauté.

Gewalt gegen Frauen ist die am häufigsten vorkommende und universellste **Verletzung der Menschenrechte**. Sie kennt keine geographischen Grenzen, keine Altersbeschränkung, keinen Klassenunterschied, keine kulturellen oder Rassenunterschiede, und hat entscheidende Auswirkungen auf die Geschlechtergerechtigkeit, die soziale Eingliederung und die Gesundheit.

Die Beseitigung der geschlechterbasierten Gewalt ist ein Prioritätsbereich der Frauencharter der Europäischen Kommission, verabschiedet im März 2010, und der Strategie für die Gleichstellung von Frauen und Männern, verabschiedet im September 2010⁽⁵³⁾, Zeugen des Engagements der Kommission, eine umfassende und wirksame Strategie zur Bekämpfung von Gewalt gegen Frauen vorzuschlagen. Während die Hauptverantwortung für die Bekämpfung der Gewalt gegen Frauen bei den Mitgliedstaaten liegt, spielt die Europäische Union durch Ratsschlussfolgerungen⁽⁵⁴⁾ und Entschlüsse des Europäischen Parlaments⁽⁵⁵⁾, finanzielle Unterstützung, Sensibilisierungsmaßnahmen und Förderung des Austauschs guter Praktiken eine entscheidende Rolle, um nur einige ihrer Bereiche zu nennen. In den europäischen Ländern ist die politische Verpflichtung zur Bekämpfung der Gewalt gegen Frauen im letzten Jahrzehnt gestiegen, dank des starken Engagements und der Aktivitäten der internationalen Institutionen, der Frauenbewegungen und der Nicht-Regierungs-

organisationen (NRO). Dies wird in den Verbesserungen sowohl bei der Datenverfügbarkeit als auch bei den rechtlichen und politischen Maßnahmen in den 33 in diesem Report berücksichtigten Ländern offenkundig. Allerdings bestehen noch viele Schwachstellen und Lücken bei der Art, wie Gewalt gegen Frauen in gesellschaftlichen und politischen Debatten vorgestellt und angesprochen wird.

Zweck dieser Studie ist es, eine systematische Analyse und einen Einblick in die sozialen Aspekte der Gewalt gegen Frauen zu geben, unter Berücksichtigung aller Formen von Gewalt (z.B. körperliche, seelische und sexuelle Gewalt) unter besonderer Analyse der Gleichstellung der Geschlechter, der sozialen Eingliederung und der Gesundheitsstrategien, sowie der vorhandenen Aktionspläne zur Bekämpfung von Gewalt, und unter besonderer Berücksichtigung der drei Gesichtspunkte Prävention, Behandlung und Wiedereingliederung der Opfer in die Gesellschaft. Ziel ist es, ein klares Bild von dem zu geben, was in diesen Bereichen innerhalb der 27 Mitgliedstaaten, den 3 EFTA/EWR-Ländern und den 3 Kandidatenländern (*Kroatien, der ehemaligen jugoslawischen Republik Mazedonien und der Türkei*) geschieht. Die Informationen in diesem Bericht wurden hauptsächlich von den nationalen Experten des EGGSI Netzwerkes *von Experten der Geschlechtergleichstellung, der sozialen Integration, Gesundheit und Langzeitpflege* zur Verfügung gestellt⁽⁵⁶⁾.

⁽⁵³⁾ Geschlechtsbasierte Gewalt war auch eine der sechs Prioritätsbereiche des Fahrplans für die Gleichstellung von Frauen und Männern für den Zeitraum 2006-2010. Frauencharter der Europäischen Kommission, siehe: <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=COM:2010:0078:FIN:DE:PDF> ; Strategie für die Gleichstellung zwischen Frauen und Männern, siehe: <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=COM:2010:0491:FIN:DE:PDF> ; Fahrplan für die Gleichstellung von Frauen und Männern, siehe: <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=COM:2006:0092:FIN:DE:PDF>

⁽⁵⁴⁾ Rezente Ratsschlussfolgerung zur Beendigung der Gewalt gegen Frauen in der Europäischen Union von März 2010, siehe: http://www.consilium.europa.eu/uedocs/cms_data/docs/pressdata/en/lisa/113226.pdf; und Ratsschlussfolgerungen zur Verbesserung der Prävention, um Gewalt gegen Frauen zu bekämpfen, und Gewaltopfer bei der Rechtsdurchsetzung zu schützen von April 2010, siehe: http://www.consilium.europa.eu/uedocs/cms_Data/docs/pressdata/en/jha/114015.pdf. Ein im Jahre 2009 veröffentlichter Bericht der schwedischen Ratspräsidentschaft über Peking +15 bietet neueste Informationen über die Entwicklungen in den 12 kritischen Bereichen der Pekinger Aktionsplattform, unter anderem im Bereich Gewalt gegen Frauen. see <http://www.sweden.gov.se/content/1/c6/13/58/75/9f23c20f.pdf>.

⁽⁵⁵⁾ Rezente Entschlüsse des Europäischen Parlaments auf diesem Gebiet wurden 2009 angenommen, eine betreffend die Beseitigung von Gewalt gegen Frauen (P7_TA(2009)0098), siehe: www.europarl.europa.eu/sides/getDoc.do?pubRef=-//EP//TEXT+TA+P7-TA-2009-0098+0+DOC+XML+V0//DE und eine zweite zur Bekämpfung von Genitalverstümmelungen bei Frauen in der Europäischen Union, P6_TA(2009)0161), siehe: www.europarl.europa.eu/sides/getDoc.do?pubRef=-//EP//TEXT+TA+P6-TA-2009-0161+0+DOC+XML+V0//DE

Der Bericht ist in drei Kapitel gegliedert: das erste fasst die wichtigsten Merkmale von Gewalt gegen Frauen in Europa zusammen. Das zweite Kapitel gibt einen Überblick über politische Maßnahmen gegen Gewalt gegen Frauen aus der Sicht der Prävention, der Unterstützung für die Opfer und der sozialen Wiedereingliederung. Das letzte Kapitel stellt einige allgemeine Schlussfolgerungen vor.

Der Mangel an zuverlässigen Daten

In Europa sind auf nationaler Ebene verschiedene Informationsquellen zu Gewalt gegen Frauen vorhanden, die aber für Vergleichs- und Trendanalysen unzu-

⁽⁵⁶⁾ EGGSI ist ein Netzwerk der Europäischen Kommission mit 33 nationalen Experten (EU und EEA countries und den drei Kandidatenländern Kroatien, der ehemaligen jugoslawischen Republik Mazedonien und der Türkei) im Bereich der Geschlechtergleichstellung, soziale Integration, Gesundheit und Langzeitpflege. Das Netzwerk wird von dem Istituto per la Ricerca Sociale und der Stiftung Giacomo Brodolini, koordiniert und führt jährlich ein Programm zur politisch-orientierten Forschung durch, die an die Generaldirektion Beschäftigung, Soziale Angelegenheiten und Chancengleichheit geliefert wird.

reichend sind. Die meisten der verfügbaren Daten sind weder vergleichbar noch auf einer regelmäßigen Basis gesammelt, was es schwierig macht, Veränderungen über die Zeit zu messen und die Dimension des Phänomens zu bestimmen.

Die Datenerhebung wird durch das Fehlen einer gemeinsamen europaweiten Definition von Gewalt gegen Frauen sowie durch die Veränderungen in der Berichterstattung gegenüber der Polizei erschwert. Dies wirft gravierende Interpretationsprobleme beim Vergleich zwischen den Ländern und im Laufe der Jahre auf.

Die nationalen EGGSI Berichte haben gezeigt, dass sich nicht nur die Definitionen der verschiedenen Formen von Gewalt in jedem Land unterscheiden, sondern auch, dass die Instrumente und Modalitäten, diese zu quantifizieren, sehr vielfältig sind und von ziemlich lockeren Konzepten, die auf den Auffassungen der Befragten basieren, bis hin zu streng definierten und auf international festgelegten Fragebögen reichen. Darüber hinaus unterscheiden sich innerhalb Europas die Techniken der Datensammlung, die Stichprobengröße und Konzeption.

Ein weiteres, besonders relevantes Problem ist die Dunkelziffer. Ein erhebliches Hindernis für die Berichterstattung ist der Vertrauensmangel der Frauen in die Strafjustiz - Polizei, Staatsanwälte und Gerichte – bedingt durch die Gefahr der sekundären Viktimisierung der Frauen im Laufe der Untersuchung, insbesondere wenn die Gewalt innerhalb einer Familie auftritt, sowie das mangelnde Vertrauen in die Polizei wirklich Interesse an der Aufklärung solcher Fälle zu haben.⁽⁵⁷⁾ Die verfügbaren Daten zeigen, dass insbesondere sexuelle Nötigung gegenüber Frauen das bei der Polizei am seltensten gemeldete Verbrechen ist. Schätzungen zufolge werden nur 1 bis 12 % der Vergewaltigungen bei der Polizei gemeldet⁽⁵⁸⁾.

Darüber hinaus sind gewaltbezogene Daten über Frauen ein relativ neues Informationsfeld, das sich quer durch die traditionellen Bereiche der statistischen Produktion zieht. Selbst dort, wo Daten regelmäßig erhoben werden, wird bisher insbesondere den Folgen von Gewalt auf die Gesundheit keine besondere

Aufmerksamkeit geschenkt, aber auch nicht in Bezug auf die wirtschaftlichen und gesundheitlichen Kosten. In den meisten europäischen Ländern fehlt auch das besondere Augenmerk auf die kurz- und langfristigen Folgen von Gewalt.

Bisher sind keine umfassenden internationalen Indikatorensätze zu Gewalt gegen Frauen entwickelt worden, obwohl dies die Erhebung vergleichbarer Daten erleichtern würde. Einige internationale Institutionen, wie die Vereinten Nationen⁽⁵⁹⁾, die U.S. Agentur für Internationale Entwicklung (USAID⁽⁶⁰⁾) und die Europäischen Union⁽⁶¹⁾, haben diese Thema angesprochen und verschiedene Indikatoren vorgeschlagen, jedoch ist bislang kein einheitliches System zur Datenerhebung innerhalb der EU entwickelt worden.

Die verschiedenen Formen der Gewalt gegen Frauen

Häusliche Gewalt ist die häufigste Form von Gewalt gegen Frauen. Es gibt keine international vereinbarte Definition von häuslicher Gewalt die das Problem in seiner Gesamtheit erfasst, aber Einigkeit besteht in den wichtigsten Definitionen darüber, dass häusliche Gewalt die Gewalt innerhalb der Familie oder im häuslichen Bereich umfasst, und, unter anderem, physische Aggression/Schlagen, mentale, emotionale und psychologische Aggression/Missbrauch, Vergewaltigung und sexueller Missbrauch zwischen Ehegatten, ständigen oder gelegentlichen Partnern oder Lebensgefährten, und Mitbewohnern beinhaltet.

Nach den, von den nationalen Experten des EGGSI Netzwerkes zur Verfügung gestellten Daten für die *Tschechische Republik, Estland, Deutschland, Griechenland, Ungarn, und Italien* liegt die Häufigkeit von häuslicher Gewalt bei 25% der in Deutschland

⁽⁵⁷⁾ Kelly, Liz (2000), *A war of attrition: reviewing new research on rape* [Ein Zermürbungskrieg: Überprüfung neuer Forschungen zu Vergewaltigung], London.

⁽⁵⁸⁾ Regan, Linda und Kelly, Liz (2001), *Rape: the forgotten issue? — A European research and networking project* [Vergewaltigung: ein vergessenes Thema? Ein europäisches Forschungs- und Vernetzungsprojekt] Institut für Studien zur Misshandlung von Kindern und Frauen, University of North London, London.

⁽⁵⁹⁾ Die vorgeschlagenen Indikatoren umfassen physische, sexuelle und physische Gewalt, Gewalt durch den Lebenspartner, schändliche Praktiken und einige zusätzliche Vorschläge für qualitative Daten. Siehe: United Nations (2007), *Indicators to measure violence against women* [Indikatoren zur Messung von Gewalt gegen Frauen], Bericht des Sitzung der Expertengruppe vom 8 zum 10 Oktober 2007, organisiert von den der Abteilung für die Verbesserung der Frauen der Vereinten Nationen, Bereich Wirtschaftliche Kommission für Europa, Unterabteilung für Statistik, Genua (http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/egm/IndicatorsVAW/IndicatorsVAW_EGM_report.pdf).

⁽⁶⁰⁾ Bloom, Shelah S. (2007), *Violence against women and girls. A compendium of monitoring and evaluation indicators* [Gewalt gegen Frauen und Mädchen, Handbuch zu Monitoring- und Evaluierungsindikatoren], Washington (<http://www.awid.org/Issues-and-Analysis/Library/Violence-against-Women-and-Girls-a-Compendium-of-Monitoring-and-Evaluation-Indicators>).

⁽⁶¹⁾ <http://register.consilium.europa.eu/pdf/en/02/st14/st14578.en02.pdf> und <http://register.consilium.europa.eu/pdf/en/04/st15/st15202.en04.pdf>

lebenden Frauen (in Bezug auf Frauen, die physische oder sexueller Gewalt oder beides durch ihren aktuellen oder früheren Partner zugefügt bekamen⁽⁶²⁾) bis hin zu 51% in Estland (in Bezug auf Frauen im Alter von 15-74 Jahre, die irgendeine Art von Gewalt in ihrer Beziehung erlebt haben⁽⁶³⁾); bei 28% der Frauen in *Ungarn*, die von gewalttätigen Handlungen in ihrer gegenwärtigen oder früheren Beziehung berichteten⁽⁶⁴⁾, und in *Italien* 31,9% der Frauen zwischen 16 und 70 Jahren, die im Laufe ihres Lebens als Opfer von physischer oder sexueller Gewalt eingeschätzt werden⁽⁶⁵⁾; während in der *Tschechischen Republik* 37,7% der Frauen mindestens einmal Gewalt durch ihren Partner in ihrem Leben erfahren haben⁽⁶⁶⁾. In *Griechenland* haben, entsprechend einer Umfrage bei 1,200 Frauen (2003), 56% häufig ein missbräuchliches Verhalten durch ihren Ehemann erlebt⁽⁶⁷⁾. Diese Zahlen können, wie bereits gesagt, aufgrund der inhärenten Unterschiede in den Methoden, Definitionen und der Bezugsjahre, nicht verglichen werden.

Schädliche traditionelle Praktiken an Frauen (wie Verbrechen im Namen der Ehre, Beschneidung weiblicher Genitalien und sexuelle Verstümmelung, Zwangsehen, Gewalt im Zusammenhang mit Mitgift) werden meist innerhalb der Familie oder in der weitergefassten Gemeinschaft durchgeführt.

Traditionsbedingte Gewalt ist die häufigste Form von *gemeinschaftsbasierter Gewalt*. Weibliche Genitalverstümmelung (FGM), die hervorstechendste von allen, ist, wie durch die Entschließung des Europäischen Parlaments vom 24. März 2009 über die Bekämpfung

der Genitalverstümmelung von Frauen in die EU⁽⁶⁸⁾ ausgeführt wird, stellt eine „Verletzung der in mehreren internationalen Übereinkommen festgeschriebenen Rechte von Frauen und Mädchen dar, die nach dem Strafrecht der Mitgliedstaaten verboten ist und gegen die Prinzipien der Charta der Grundrechte der Europäischen Union verstößt. (...) Jegliche Form der FGM stellt, unabhängig von ihrem Ausmaß, ein Gewaltakt gegen die Frau dar und ist ein schwerer Angriff auf ihre Grundrechte, insbesondere auf das Recht der Unversehrtheit der Person und der körperlichen und geistigen Gesundheit, sowie ihrer sexuellen und reproduktiven Gesundheit; ein solcher Angriff kann keinesfalls mit der Achtung kultureller Traditionen unterschiedlicher Art oder mit Initiationszeremonien gerechtfertigt werden“ (eigene Übersetzung). Nach Schätzungen des Europäischen Parlaments⁽⁶⁹⁾, sind 500.000 in Europa lebende Frauen und Mädchen von Genitalverstümmelung betroffen, und jedes Jahr sind etwa 180.000 weibliche Migranten in Europa von FGM betroffen, oder in Gefahr beschnitten zu werden.

Gewalt am Arbeitsplatz kann verschiedene Formen annehmen: Drohungen und Beleidigungen, Mobbing oder andere Formen psychischer Aggression, sexuelle oder rassistische Belästigung. Zwischen den Ländern gibt es große Unterschiede bei arbeitsbezogener Gewalt: Unterschiede der sozioökonomischen Bedingungen in den Ländern wie das allgemeine Kriminalitätsniveau, wirtschaftliche und soziale Veränderungen, der vorhandene und, in einigen Ländern, wachsende informelle Wirtschaftssektor, könnten Auswirkungen auf die Formen und Höhe der Gewalt am Arbeitsplatz haben⁽⁷⁰⁾.

Einige Berufe sind mehr betroffen, wie z. B. Berufe im Gesundheits- und sozialen Dienstleistungssektor (Krankenschwestern, Sozialarbeiter)⁽⁷¹⁾. In den europäischen Ländern besteht ein viel breiteres

⁽⁶²⁾ Bundesministerium für Familie, Senioren, Frauen und Jugend (2004), Lebenssituation, Sicherheit und Gesundheit von Frauen in Deutschland, Berlin (<http://www.bmfsfj.de/Kategorien/Publikationen/Publikationen,did=20530.html>).

⁽⁶³⁾ Statistics Estonia (2010), Statistical database: Social life: Justice and security: Intimate partner abuse [Statistische Datenbank: Sozialdaten: Justiz und Sicherheit: Gewalt durch den Beziehungspartner] (http://pub.stat.ee/px-web.2001/1_Databas/Social_Life/07JUSTICE_AND_SECURITY/07JUSTICE_AND_SECURITY.asp).

⁽⁶⁴⁾ Tóth, Olga (1999), Erőszak a családban, [Gewalt in der Familie], TÁRKI Társadalompolitikai Tanulmányok.

⁽⁶⁵⁾ ISTAT (2007), Violenza e maltrattamenti contro le donne dentro e fuori la famiglia [Gewalt und Misshandlung von Frauen innerhalb und außerhalb der Familie]. Rome (http://www.istat.it/salastampa/comunicati/non_calendario/20070221_00/testointegrale.pdf).

⁽⁶⁶⁾ Pikáľková, S. (ed.) (2004), Mezinárodní výzkum násilí na ženách [Internationale Forschung zur Partnergewalt]– Česká republika/2003: příspěvek k sociologickému zkoumání násilí v rodině. Sociologické studie 04:2. Praha: Sociologický ústav AV ČR (http://studie.soc.cas.cz/upl/texty/files/200_04-2%20opr%20zformatovany%20text%204%20pro%20tisk.pdf).

⁽⁶⁷⁾ Αρτινοπούλου Β. (2006), Ενδοοικογενειακή κακοποίηση γυναικών, [Häusliche Gewalt gegen Frauen], Αθήνα.

⁽⁶⁸⁾ Resolution des Europäischen Parlaments zur Bekämpfung von weiblicher Genitalverstümmelung (2008/2071(INI)), 24. März 2009 (<http://www.europarl.europa.eu/sides/getDoc.do?pubRef=-//EP//TEXT+TA+P6-TA-2009-0161+0+DOC+XML+V0//EN>).

⁽⁶⁹⁾ Resolution des Europäischen Parlaments zur Bekämpfung von weiblicher Genitalverstümmelung (2008/2071(INI)), 24. März 2009 (<http://www.europarl.europa.eu/sides/getDoc.do?pubRef=-//EP//TEXT+TA+P6-TA-2009-0161+0+DOC+XML+V0//EN>).

⁽⁷⁰⁾ Di Martino, Hoel and Cooper (2003), Preventing violence and harassment in the workplace [Verhütung von Gewalt und Belästigung am Arbeitsplatz], European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions (<http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/pubdocs/2002/109/en/1/ef02109en.pdf>).

⁽⁷¹⁾ Jaspard, M. et l'équipe Enveff (2001), 'Nommer et compter les violences envers les femmes: une première enquête nationale en France' [Identifizierung und Erfassung von Gewalt gegen Frauen, Erste nationale Erhebung in Frankreich], Populations & sociétés, No 364, January.

Bewusstsein für die verschiedenen Formen der Gewalt gegen Mitarbeiter in Unternehmen, während die versteckte, aber weit verbreitete Form von Gewalt diejenige ist, die innerhalb von Haushalten geschieht, wo psychische Gewalt, Demütigung und Bedrohungen sehr häufig vorkommen. *Arbeitende Migrantinnen sind*, wegen ihres untergeordneten Status sowohl als Migranten als auch als Frauen, *höchst gefährdet* gegenüber Ausbeutung und Misshandlung.

Menschenhandel betrifft besonders gefährdete Gruppen von Frauen und Kindern, und es besteht ein enger Zusammenhang zwischen sexueller Ausbeutung und hoher Armut. Eine 2006 durchgeführte Studie der Europäischen Kommission⁽⁷²⁾ hat ergeben, dass besonders wirtschaftlich und sozial benachteiligte junge Frauen betroffen sind. Zum Beispiel sind vom Menschenhandel betroffene Frauen, die innerhalb der oder zwischen den mittel- und osteuropäischen Ländern gehandelt wurden, in der Regel schlecht ausgebildet und viele kommen aus benachteiligten Regionen mit hoher Arbeitslosigkeit. Die Bewertung des Ausmaßes des Menschenhandels innerhalb Europas wird jedoch durch den Mangel an Daten und dem Fehlen von einheitlichen Richtlinien für die Datenerhebung auf der EU-Ebene beschränkt.⁽⁷³⁾

Auch wenn Gewalt gegen Frauen keine geografischen, kulturellen oder ethnischen Barrieren kennt, haben mehrere Studien gezeigt, dass bestimmte Gruppen von Frauen besonders betroffen sind: Migranten und ethnische Minderheiten, Frauen, weibliche Asylbewerber, Flüchtlinge, Behinderte, Frauen, die in Einrichtungen leben, Prostituierte, Opfer von Menschenhandel usw. Diese Gruppen sind, abgesehen von der höheren Wahrscheinlichkeit Gewalt zu erleben, auch in ihrem Zugang zu Ausfluchtswegen und Unterstützungsdiensten beschränkt.

Migrantinnen sind auf vielfache Art verwundbar: sie können aufgrund ihrer gemeinschaftlichen Kultur mehr von Gewalt betroffen sein oder aufgrund ihrer besonderen Schwäche im Hinblick auf ihre rechtliche

und wirtschaftliche Lage, sie können aber auch mehr der Gewalt von einheimischen Tätern ausgesetzt sein. Darüber hinaus kann ihr Status als Migranten ihren Zugang zu Ausfluchtswegen, Dienstleistungen und Informationen beschränken. Migrantinnen aus Nicht-EU-Ländern, die sowohl im Hinblick auf Aufenthaltsgenehmigungen und Arbeitserlaubnisse stärker von ihren Ehemännern abhängig sind, sind in der Tat besonders gefährdet, denn wenn sie die häusliche Gewalt anzeigen oder auf eine Scheidung zurückgreifen, riskieren sie möglicherweise den Verlust ihres Aufenthaltstitels.

Migrantinnen können auch Erfahrungen mit Gewalt in zutiefst patriarchalischen Gemeinschaften machen, wo sie Ziel von FGM und Zwangsverheiratungen sein können; sie können Gewalt als Pflegekräfte, als Krankenschwestern mit schwierigen Patienten, und auch als irreguläre Arbeiterinnen erfahren.

Gewalt gegen *ältere und behinderte Frauen, und Frauen mit Lernschwierigkeiten* kann nicht nur in Form von aktiver Gewalt (in Form von körperlicher, sexueller oder psychischer Gewalt), sondern sie können auch Gewalt durch Vernachlässigung bei unterlassener Hilfeleistung erfahren. Gewalt gegen ältere Frauen kann auch in Form von finanzieller Ausbeutung oder Nachlässigkeit durch Familienangehörigen oder anderen Bezugspersonen geschehen. Frauen mit Behinderungen können auch Erfahrungen von Gewalt im institutionellen Umfeld machen, verübt durch Familienangehörige, Betreuer oder durch Fremde. *Frauen mit Alkohol- und Drogenproblemen* sind ebenfalls eher Opfer von Gewalt.

Frauen in wirtschaftlicher Schwächeposition: Studien haben belegt dass in einigen europäischen Ländern die Zahl der weiblichen Opfern häuslicher Gewalt in einer partnerschaftlichen Beziehung signifikant höher bei Arbeitslosen mit niedrigem Einkommen ist als bei erwerbstätigen Frauen. Frauen in Haushalten mit wirtschaftlichen Schwierigkeiten erleben häusliche Gewalt wesentlich mehr als andere. Niedriges Einkommen und/oder die finanzielle Abhängigkeit der Frauen von ihren Ehemännern/Partnern schränkt auch die Möglichkeit ein, der Gewalt zu entkommen, und ein unsicherer Arbeitsplatz erhöht deutlich die Gefahr, Gewalt ausgesetzt zu sein. Frauen können sich, aufgrund einer Vielzahl von Gründen, nach einer Gewalterfahrung, in einer äußerst prekären wirtschaftlichen Situation wiederfinden: a) Traumatisierung und gesundheitliche Probleme im Zusammenhang mit der Gewalt, die zum Verlust des Arbeitsplatzes führen kann, b) die wirtschaftliche Abhängigkeit vom

⁽⁷²⁾ Fagan, C., Urwin, P. und Melling, K. (2006), Gender inequalities in the risks of poverty and social exclusion for disadvantaged groups in 30 European countries [Geschlechtsspezifischen Ungleichheiten bei den Risiken von Armut und sozialer Ausgrenzung benachteiligter Gruppen in dreißig europäischen Ländern]. Bericht für die Europäische Kommission, Generaldirektion für Beschäftigung, soziale Angelegenheiten und Chancengleichheit. Luxemburg (http://www.libertysecurity.org/IMG/pdf_Gender_inequalities.pdf).

⁽⁷³⁾ Europol (2009), Trafficking in human beings in the European Union. A Europol perspective [Menschenhandel in der Europäischen Union. Eine Europol Perspektive] (http://www.europol.europa.eu/publications/Serious_Crime_Overviews/Trafficking%20in%20Human%20Beings%20June%202009.pdf).

Ehemann/Partner, die zu einem Verlust der Existenzgrundlage kann führen; c) das Beenden einer gewalttätigen Beziehung, was in vielen Fällen dazu führen kann, ein allein erziehender Elternteil zu werden, und damit besonders anfällig für Armut zu sein.

Lesbische Frauen können, aufgrund ihrer sexuellen Orientierung, Opfer zusätzlicher sozialer Vorurteile sein.

Soziales Bewusstsein und politische Debatte

Entsprechend UNICEF⁽⁷⁴⁾ besteht nicht nur ein einzelner Grund für Gewalt gegen Frauen: "mehrere komplexe und verbundene institutionalisierte soziale und kulturelle Faktoren haben die Frauen besonders verwundbar für gegen sie gerichtete Gewalt gemacht, alles Manifestationen der historisch ungleichen Machtverhältnisse zwischen Männern und Frauen."

Tief verwurzelte sozio-kulturelle Einstellungen, die Gewalt gegen Frauen toleriert und als eine private Angelegenheit betrachten, sind die Hauptursachen hinter der Gewalt und in vielen EU-Ländern wird dies im geringen gesellschaftlichen Bewusstsein für das Problem und den hohen Kosten deutlich, die bei weitem nicht das tatsächliche Ausmaß des Phänomens widerspiegeln.

Seit 1990 hat in den meisten EU-Ländern, dank der Rolle von NRO, feministischen Organisationen und dem internationalen Druck, das Thema Gewalt gegen Frauen in den nationalen politischen Tagesordnungen Aufmerksamkeit gewonnen. Wie erwartet, ist die Rolle der Medien besonders wichtig: In einigen Fällen haben sie eine Steigerung des Bewusstseins und der Sensibilisierung der Gesellschaft gegenüber dem Problem der Gewalt bewirkt, in anderen Fällen jedoch haben sie zur Verstärkung der negativen Geschlechterstereotypen bezüglich der Rolle der Frauen in der Gesellschaft und damit zu einem bestimmten weiblichen Stereotyp beigetragen, welches das Bild der Frauen erniedrigt.

Erwähnt werden muss auch die starke Verknüpfung zwischen der öffentlichen Wahrnehmung und dem Verhalten, Gewalt anzuzeigen. UN-Statistiken, die im Zusammenhang mit ihren verschiedenen

Erhebungen ⁽⁷⁵⁾ über Kriminalität und Trends in der Strafjustiz gesammelt wurden, zeigen bedeutende Unterschiede bei den Viktimisierungsraten innerhalb Europas, mit niedrigen Raten in den südlichen Ländern und den Kandidatenländern und höheren Raten in den nordischen Ländern: wie in dem hier vorliegenden Bericht gezeigt, haben die Zahlen an sich häufig nur begrenzt Relevanz in Bezug auf die Häufigkeit des Phänomens und bieten nur Hinweise zum Grad des Bewusstseins der Bevölkerung für das Problem und zu den unterschiedlichen Haltungen bei der Berichterstattung in den EU-Ländern.

Politische Ansätze in den europäischen Ländern

Obwohl internationale Aufklärungskampagnen und Debatten wesentlich zur Sensibilisierung von politischen Entscheidungsträgern und der allgemeinen Öffentlichkeit beigetragen haben und allgemeine Trends in der Politik zur Gewalt gegen Frauen erkennbar sind, gibt es noch immer Unterschiede innerhalb der europäischen Länder, die die kulturelle Einstellung und die soziale Wahrnehmung gegenüber dem Problem sowie die unterschiedlichen Sozialsysteme der Länder widerspiegeln.

Basierend auf den nationalen Berichten des EGGSI Netzwerkes und der verfügbaren Literatur bietet die übliche Klassifizierung der europäischen Länder einen guten Ausgangspunkt für die Analyse der unterschiedlichen Ansätze in den einzelnen Ländern. Die nordischen und westeuropäischen Länder haben eine längere Tradition von gesetzlichen Maßnahmen und spezialisierten Dienstleistungen zur Unterstützung von weiblichen Gewaltopfern, und konzentrieren sich zunehmend auf traditionsbedingte Formen von Gewalt und auf gefährdete Frauengruppen, wie beispielsweise ethnische Minderheiten und Migrantinnen, behinderte und lesbische Frauen. In den süd- und osteuropäischen Ländern und in den drei Kandidatenländern (*Kroatien, der ehemaligen jugoslawischen Republik Mazedonien und der Türkei*) ist Gewalt gegen Frauen andererseits erst in jüngster Zeit zu einem öffentlichen Thema geworden, weil es lange als eine private Angelegenheit betrachtet wurde. Das zunehmende Engagement in diesen Ländern ist, zum einen, durch die europäischen Empfehlungen

⁽⁷⁴⁾ Unicef (2000), 'Domestic violence against women and girls' [Gewalt gegen Frauen und Mädchen], Forschungszentrum Innocenti, Florence, Innocenti Digest, Vol. 6, Juni 2000 (http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/domesticviolencecampaign/Source/PDF_Innocenti_digest.pdf).

⁽⁷⁵⁾ Siehe beispielsweise die UNECE Datenbank zu Geschlechterbasierter Kriminalität und Gewaltstatistik, unter <http://w3.unece.org/pxweb/DATABASE/STAT/30-GE/07-CV/07-CV.asp> und die UNICRI Homepage <http://www.unicri.it>.

und Entschließungen zu diesem Thema und, zum anderen, durch den Druck von nationalen Frauenbewegungen und NRO beeinflusst worden.

Insgesamt haben die verabschiedeten politischen Strategien einen gemeinsamen Weg verfolgt, mit Schwerpunkt zunächst auf den rechtlichen Reformen, der Polizeiausbildung und der Einrichtung von spezialisierten Dienstleistungen für die Opfer, und, in den vergangenen Jahren, auf Sensibilisierungs- und Präventionsmaßnahmen und der Förderung von Maßnahmen zur Unterstützung von Opfern und ihrer sozialen Integration.

Ein umfangreiches Regelwerk ist seit den achtziger Jahren zu den verschiedenen Formen, die Gewalt gegen Frauen haben kann, umgesetzt worden. Sexuelle Gewalt und physische häusliche Gewalt sind inzwischen in allen in diesem Bericht berücksichtigten Ländern strafbar, aber es bestehen in einigen Ländern noch immer Gesetzeslücken beim Schutz von Frauen, beispielsweise wenn eine Anzeige des Opfers erforderlich ist, um gerichtlich vorzugehen (wie in einigen Ländern im Falle häuslicher Gewalt), oder wenn die gewalttätige Handlung möglicherweise nicht strafbar ist wenn diese mit der „Einwilligung“ der Geschädigten oder ihrer Eltern/Erziehungsberechtigten vollzogen wird (eine Einverständniserklärung, die erzwungen werden kann oder sich aus kulturellem und familiärem Druck ableitet, wie im Falle von sexueller Gewalt, Genitalverstümmelung oder Zwangsverheiratung). Immer noch bestehen in den meisten Ländern niedrige Anklage- und Verurteilungsraten bei häuslicher Gewalt und Vergewaltigung.

Neben gesetzlichen Maßnahmen haben fast alle europäischen Länder in den letzten Jahren umfassende politische Strategien zur Bekämpfung von Gewalt gegen Frauen eingeführt, entweder durch mehrjährige umfassende nationale Aktionspläne (NAP) gegen alle Formen von Gewalt gegen Frauen, oder separate Aktionspläne für bestimmte Formen von Gewalt (wie häusliche Gewalt, Menschenhandel, oder traditionsbedingte Gewaltformen), oder haben gezielte Maßnahmen in anderen strategischen Aktionsplänen eingearbeitet (wie in Pläne zur Gleichstellung, Aktionspläne zur sozialen Eingliederung, oder Nationale Sicherheitspläne). Trotzdem bieten nur wenige Pläne einen angemessenen Rahmen für die wirksame Bekämpfung von Gewalt gegen Frauen, da sie oftmals nicht klar die zuständigen nationalen Agenturen und die Rolle der verschiedenen, in die Strategie eingebundenen Organisationen, die konkreten umzusetzenden Maßnahmen, die

vorgesehene Finanzierung, Vorgaben, die zu erzielen sind sowie den Zeitrahmen benennen. Es besteht wenig Erkenntnis über die Ergebnisse der Interventionen, da nur wenige Länder die umgesetzten Aktivitäten überwachen und bewertet haben.

Häusliche Gewalt und Menschenhandel stellen nach wie vor die Formen der Gewalt gegen Frauen dar, die von den NAP am meisten angesprochen werden: 27 Länder haben oder hatten in der jüngsten Vergangenheit spezifische Aktionspläne zur Bekämpfung des Menschenhandels, und 23 zu häuslichen Gewalt. Andere Gewaltformen haben erst in den letzten Jahren und in nur einigen wenigen Ländern erhöhte Aufmerksamkeit gefunden. Wenige Länder sprechen in ihren NAP traditionsbedingte Formen der Gewalt, sexuelle Belästigung am Arbeitsplatz, Nachstellung oder Gewalt im institutionellen Umfeld an.

Was die *Arten von Interventionen* betrifft, wird in allen untersuchten Ländern immer mehr Aufmerksamkeit auf Maßnahmen zur Prävention und auf Unterstützungsdienste gerichtet, während Wiedereingliederungsprogramme, die speziell auf die Bedürfnisse von weiblichen Gewaltopfern ausgerichtet sind, weniger verbreitet sind oder ganz allgemein auf benachteiligte Bevölkerungsgruppen zielen, jedoch nicht direkt auf Frauen die von Gewalt betroffen sind.

Neben den allgemeinen Programmen zur Förderung der Geschlechtergleichstellung und Maßnahmen zur Unterstützung der Datenerhebung und Entwicklung von Indikatoren zur Gewalt gegen Frauen, sind die wichtigsten, in den berücksichtigten Ländern, eingeführten Präventionsmaßnahmen: Sensibilisierungsprogramme (in den Bereichen der Gesundheitsversorgung und an Schulen, am Arbeitsplatz, etc.), berufliche Aus- und Weiterbildung von Fachleuten die in Kontakt mit (potentiellen) Opfern treten (wie Polizei, Sozialarbeiter und Gesundheitspersonal, Richter, Anwälte, Lehrer, Medienfachleute), und Therapieprogramme für Täter. Präventionsprogramme beziehen zunehmend Männer, Jugendliche, religiöse Autoritäten und Arbeitgeberorganisationen ein, um Gruppenwirkungen herbeizuführen und tief verwurzelte Verhaltensweisen zu verändern.

Sofortige Unterstützung für weibliche Gewaltopfer wird in allen untersuchten Ländern durch Frauenhäuser und Telefondienste bereit gestellt. Diese Frauenhäuser bieten in der Regel eine vorübergehende Unterkunft, psychologische und rechtliche Unterstützung für von Gewalt betroffene Frauen und ihre Kinder. Spezielle

Gesundheitsbehandlungen sind auch relativ verbreitet, während spezialisierte Dienstleistungen zur Unterstützung von Opfern sexueller Übergriffe und Vergewaltigungen sowie für Opfer von traditionsbedingter Gewalt, die insbesondere ethnische Minderheiten und Migrantinnen betreffen, weniger verbreitet sind. Die Bereitstellung von Frauenhäusern ist in allen Ländern gestiegen, reicht aber in den meisten von ihnen noch nicht zur Deckung des Bedarfs aus. Insgesamt sind nur 37,5% der benötigten Plätze verfügbar, entsprechend dem vom Europarat festgelegten Standards⁽⁷⁶⁾, wobei nur vier Länder (*Luxemburg, Malta, die Niederlande und Norwegen*) die Empfehlungen von mindestens 1 Wohnplatz pro Familie⁽⁷⁷⁾ in einem Frauenhaus pro 10.000 Einwohner erfüllen. Sechs weitere Länder – *Österreich, Slowenien, Tschechische Republik, Deutschland, Liechtenstein und Kroatien* – sind nahe dran. Die Deckung ist besonders niedrig in den meisten süd- und osteuropäischen Ländern.⁽⁷⁸⁾

Darüber hinaus wird, wenn auch in den letzten Jahren zunehmend, immer noch wenig Aufmerksamkeit auf die spezifischen Bedürfnisse der schwer zu erreichenden Frauengruppen, wie Behinderte, ethnische Minderheiten und Migrantinnen, gerichtet. Bei der Bereitstellung von Frauenhäusern und Krisenzentren sind, neben ihrer geringen Verteilung, insbesondere in den süd- und osteuropäischen Ländern, weitere erhebliche Mängel: ihre Konzentration in städtischen Gebieten, was den Zugang für Frauen in ländlichen und peripheren Gebieten stark reduziert; das Fehlen einer stabilen Finanzierung, welche die Kontinuität der Dienstleistungen reduziert und eine langfristige Planung verhindert; das Fehlen von nationalen Leitlinien für Qualitätsstandards für Dienstleistungen.

Maßnahmen zur *sozialen Wiedereingliederung von weiblichen Gewaltopfern* umfassen die Unterstützung beim Zugang zu bezahlbarem Wohnraum, zur

Beschäftigung und zur beruflichen Ausbildung. Weniger verbreitet ist Einkommensstützung für Frauen, die nicht über ein eigenes Einkommen verfügen. In den meisten Ländern werden Dienstleistungen zur Wiedereingliederung meist von den regionalen und lokalen Behörden und von NRO angeboten. Der größte Schwachpunkt dieser Interventionen ist auch hier wieder die ungenügende Finanzierung (die wahrscheinlich auch in Zukunft aufgrund der wirtschaftlichen und finanziellen Rezession weiter reduziert wird) und die niedrige Bedarfsdeckung.

Die Entwicklung und Durchführung von Maßnahmen zur Bekämpfung von Gewalt gegen Frauen umfasst meist *unterschiedliche Akteure und Interessengruppen*: nationale und lokale öffentliche Einrichtungen, Dienstleister, NRO und Frauenbewegungen. NRO spielen eine wichtige Rolle bei der Einrichtung und Verwaltung von Frauenhäusern, Telefondiensten und Dienstleistungen zur Unterstützung von Opfern sowie in der Lobbyarbeit für die Gesetzgebung und Vermittlung. In einigen Ländern (wie in *Zypern, der Tschechischen Republik, Lettland*) sind NRO in der Tat die einzigen Anbieter von Unterstützungsdienstleistungen. Aufgrund ihrer langjährigen Erfahrung sind in vielen Ländern NRO und Fraueninstitutionen auch im Konsultationsverfahren während der Ausarbeitung von Rechtsvorschriften und Aktionsplänen beteiligt.

Die Notwendigkeit eines *mehrdimensionalen Ansatzes, der Koordinierung und Vernetzung* sowohl innerhalb öffentlicher Einrichtungen als auch zwischen öffentlichen Einrichtungen und NRO, wird zunehmend erkannt. In allen betrachteten Ländern wächst das Bewusstsein und der Fortschritt bei der Entwicklung von umfassenden und behördenübergreifenden politischen Rahmenbedingungen und Partnerschaften auf nationaler und lokaler Ebene, in einigen Fällen durch Benennung einer Koordinierungsstelle für die Umsetzung und Überwachung.

Interessante Formen der *internationalen Partnerschaften zwischen den europäischen Ländern* sind ebenfalls umgesetzt worden, oftmals von europäischen Fonds und Programmen (wie vom Daphne-Programm) finanziert. Viele Projekte beziehen sich auf Sensibilisierungsmaßnahmen und die Bekämpfung des Menschenhandels. Diese Projekte erscheinen sehr wichtig bei der Unterstützung zur Verbreitung guter Praktiken und des institutionellen Lernens und sind auch eine wichtige Quelle für die finanzielle Unterstützung für die Frauen-NRO, die im Bereich Gewalt gegen Frauen arbeiten.

⁽⁷⁶⁾ Europarat (2002), Empfehlung Rec (2002)5 des Ministerkomitees an die Mitgliedstaaten über den Schutz von Frauen vor Gewalt angenommen am 30 April 2002.

⁽⁷⁷⁾ Ein "Familienplatz" umfasst ein Schlafplatz fuer die Mutter und für die durchschnittliche Kinderanzahl in dem Land. Siehe auch: Council of Europe (2008), Combating violence against Women: minimum standards for support services [Bekämpfung der Gewalt gegen Frauen: Mindeststandards für Unterstützungsdienste], Directorate-General of Human Rights and Legal Affairs, Strasbourg (<http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/domesticviolencecampaign/Source/EG-VAV-CONF%282007%29Study%20rev.en.pdf>).

⁽⁷⁸⁾ Datenquelle sind die nationalen EGGSI Berichte 2010 und WAVE (2009), Country Report 2009 — Reality check on European services for women and children victims of violence. A right for protection and support? [Länderbericht 2009, Realitätscheck über Europäische Dienste für Frauen und Kinder Opfer von Gewalt. Ein Recht auf Schutz und Unterstützung?] Wien (http://www.wave-network.org/images/doku/wave_countryreport_2009_1.pdf).

Lehren und politische Implikationen

Die Vielzahl von Ursachen von Gewalt gegen Frauen (kulturelle, wirtschaftliche, rechtliche, politische, persönliche) erfordert einen mehrdimensionalen Politikansatz unter Einbindung von: gesetzlichen Maßnahmen, vorbeugenden Maßnahmen, Opferchutz und Unterstützungs- und Wiedereingliederungsdiensten, welche verschiedene Interventionsbereiche sowie die gesamte Bevölkerung umfassen, sowie die Verfolgung und Behandlung der Täter.

Die vergleichende Analyse des Ausmaßes und Umfangs der Gewalt gegen Frauen und der in den europäischen Ländern angenommen politischen Ansätze zeigt die Verbesserungen aber auch die Defizite auf, die mehr Engagement seitens der internationalen und nationalen Institutionen erfordern.

Die wesentlichen Schwächen beziehen sich auf:

- Die *Fragmentierung der Maßnahmen und Geldmittel*, mit wenig Koordinierung innerhalb einer umfassenden langfristigen Strategie.
 - *Fehlende und unsichere Finanzierung*: die wichtigsten Unterstützungsdienste von weiblichen Gewaltopfern (Frauenhäuser und Telefondiensten, aber auch Gesundheits- und Polizeibehörden) sind unterfinanziert und in den meisten Ländern auf freiwilliger Basis verwaltet. Die Unsicherheit der Finanzierung, in der Regel auf einer jährlichen Basis gewährt, macht langfristige Verpflichtungen und Planungen unmöglich. Selbst in jenen Ländern, in denen spezifische NAP existieren, ist die Höhe der Mittel zur Bekämpfung geschlechtsspezifischer Gewalt immer noch sehr begrenzt und aufgesplittert.
 - Das *Fehlen einer systematischen Ausbildung von Dienstleistern*, was zu einem niedrigen Niveau an Professionalität führen kann, insbesondere bei der Polizei, der Justiz, und im Gesundheits-, Sozial- und Bildungswesen.
 - Die *geringe Aufmerksamkeit gegenüber traditionsbedingter Gewalt*, Gewalt am Arbeitsplatz und den psychischen Formen von Gewalt, welche besonders schwer zu erkennen und anzugehen sind, und insbesondere der Mangel an Diensten für gefährdete Frauengruppen.
 - Das *Fehlen von vergleichbaren und zuverlässigen Daten und Indikatoren* zusammen mit dem Mangel an Überwachungs- und Bewertungsvorgaben, um die Wirksamkeit und Auswirkungen der angewendeten Maßnahmen zu beurteilen.
- Zur Überwindung dieser Schwächen, unterstreichen die Erfahrungen der Länder und Evaluierungsuntersuchungen einige Faktoren, die relevant erscheinen, die Wirksamkeit der Intervention zu unterstützen:
- Die erste ist die Notwendigkeit, *integrierte und mehrstufige politische Lösungen* umzusetzen, die verschiedener Maßnahmen (rechtliche, wirtschaftliche, soziale und kulturelle) auf verschiedenen Ebenen kombiniert. Um die Zersplitterung der Interventionen zu vermeiden und die Beschränkungen durch die knapper zur Verfügung stehenden finanziellen Ressourcen zu überwinden, müssen Maßnahmen zur Bekämpfung von Gewalt gegen Frauen in einer umfassenden Strategie, unter Berücksichtigung aller relevanten Dimensionen (z.B. Gesundheit, soziale, wirtschaftliche, rechtliche Fragen), eingebunden werden.
 - Integrierte Programme erfordern eine *gute Regierungsführung und Kapazitäten zur Koordination*, welche in der Lage sind lokale Ressourcen zu mobilisieren und ein breites Spektrum von Akteuren einzubinden, um politischen Innovationen und Veränderungen in sozialen Einstellungen zu bewirken.
 - *Ausrichtung* der Maßnahmen auf die spezifischen Bedürfnisse der verschiedenen, oftmals schwer zu erreichen, Frauengruppen (z. B. ethnische Minderheiten und Migrantinnen, vom Menschenhandel betroffene Frauen, ältere Frauen, behinderte Frauen, Jugendliche) ist eine weitere Voraussetzung für deren Wirksamkeit. Dies beinhaltet einen guten Kenntnisstand ihrer spezifischen Bedürfnisse und die Fähigkeit, angemessene Lösungen zu finden.
- Internationale Institutionen und besonders der Europarat und die Europäische Union hatten, und werden vermutlich weiterhin, eine sehr wichtige Rolle bei der Unterstützung von Bewusstseinsbildung sowie von Maßnahmen zur Bekämpfung von Gewalt gegen Frauen haben. Für die EU-Institutionen ist es wichtig, Gewalt gegen Frauen in die Kernprioritäten ihrer Intervention einzubinden und einen ganzheitlichen Ansatz bei der Verhütung und Bekämpfung von Gewalt gegen Frauen zu fördern, basierend auf:

- Der *Entwicklung einer konsolidierten und operativen Definition der verschiedenen Formen von Gewalt*, die eine Ausarbeitung und Umsetzung von *spezifischen Indikatoren* erlaubt, die zumindest für alle EU-Länder einheitlich sind;
- *Unterstützung von Datenerfassung und Überwachung/Evaluierungsinstrumenten*, die für die Umsetzung wirksamer Maßnahmen und Gesetze, durch einen Lernprozess, unerlässlich sind. Die Überwachung und Evaluierung der Auswirkungen von Interventionen zur Bekämpfung von Gewalt gegen Frauen würden verbessert werden durch die Definition und Verbreitung von spezifischen Leitlinien und der Entwicklung und Verbreitung von spezifischen Indikatoren und Instrumenten zur Evaluierung der (potenziellen) Auswirkungen der Interventionen und der Fähigkeit, die Ziele zu erreichen. Es sollten Aktivitäten zur qualitativen Überwachung eingeführt werden, um Erkenntnisse darüber zu erhalten, wie und warum Ergebnisse (nicht) erreicht wurden. Ex-post-Evaluierungen und partizipative Evaluierungen, unter Einbeziehung einer breiten Auswahl von Schlüsselakteuren, könnten durch die Entwicklung von Schlussfolgerungen, wie kritische Aspekte überwunden werden können, die sich aus der Umsetzung der geplanten Maßnahmen ergeben, Unterstützung leisten.
- *Förderung der Verabschiedung eines integrierten Ansatzes*, einschließlich Gesetze, Sensibilisierung, Ausbildung und andere Vorbeugemaßnahmen, Opferschutz, Unterstützungs- und Wiedereingliederungsdienstleistungen, sowie Verfolgung der Täter und ihr Behandlung. Das Einbringen nationaler Aktionspläne, die 1) alle Formen von Gewalt gegen Frauen ansprechen, 2) die eindeutig die Ziele festlegen, die zu erreichen sind, die einzuführenden Maßnahmen, die bereitgestellten Ressourcen, sowie Zeitrahmen und die Daten, Indikatoren und das umzusetzende Monitoringsystem festlegen, und 3) eine Koordinierungsstelle mit einem klaren Mandat benennen, würde die politische Kohärenz verbessern. Weiterhin werden allgemeine Standards und ausreichende Ressourcen für die Bereitstellung von Dienstleistungen für die Unterstützung und den Schutz der Opfer benötigt. Eine Zusammenarbeit und Vernetzung aller relevanten Akteure (Polizei, Gerichte, Sozial- und Gesundheitsdienste, Wohnungswirtschaft, Bildungsinstitutionen, Frauenorganisationen) würde zu lang anhaltenden Auswirkungen beitragen.
- *Um institutionelles Lernen und politische Entscheidungen zu verbessern*, ist die Förderung der transnationalen Vernetzung auf EU-Ebene und der Erfahrungsaustausch zu institutionellem Lernen durch spezifische EU-weite Programme und Fonds wichtig. Die Verbreitung nützlicher Informationen zu bestehenden Erfahrungen ist eine Möglichkeit, institutionelles Lernen zu unterstützen.
- *Unterstützung durch EU-Finanzierungsinstrumente* für Ausbildungs- und Fördermaßnahmen, zusammen mit Sensibilisierungskampagnen zu Gewalt gegen Frauen, ist wichtig zur Erhöhung der öffentlichen Aufmerksamkeit gegenüber Stigmatisierung von Gewalt gegen Frauen, und ihren Ursachen und negativen Auswirkungen sowohl für die Opfer als auch für die Gemeinschaft.

Introduction

'In every country, women and girls continue to be plagued by violence, causing tremendous suffering. Such violence undermines development, generates instability, and makes peace that much harder to achieve. We must demand accountability for the violations, and take concrete steps to end impunity. We must listen to and support the survivors. Our goal is clear: an end to these inexcusable crimes — whether it is the use of rape as a weapon of war, domestic violence, sex trafficking, so-called 'honour' crimes or female genital mutilation/cutting. We must address the roots of this violence by eradicating discrimination and changing the mindsets that perpetuate it.'

Message of the UN Secretary-General Ban Ki-Moon on the International Day for the Elimination of Violence against Women, 2009 ⁽⁷⁹⁾

Violence against women (VAW) is the single most prevalent and universal **violation of human rights**. It knows no geographical boundaries, no age limit, no class distinction, no cultural or racial differences. Violence against women has strong implications for gender equality, social inclusion and health.

According to the European Parliament almost one in four women in the EU suffer physical violence and more than 10 % sexual violence ⁽⁸⁰⁾.

The elimination of gender-based violence is a priority area of the European Commission's Women's Charter adopted in March 2010 and of its Strategy for equality between women and men for the 2010–15 period ⁽⁸¹⁾. While the primary responsibility to combat violence against women is the responsibility of the Member States, the European Commission has a strong role to play via funding support, awareness-raising activities and the promotion of exchanges of good practices, to name but a few of its undertakings.

The purpose of this study is to provide a systematic analysis and insight into the social aspects of violence against women, considering all types of violence (e.g. physical, psychological and sexual)

⁽⁷⁹⁾ UN— International Day for the Elimination of Violence Against Women, New York, 25 November 2009. Message of the Secretary-General for 2009 (<http://www.un.org/en/events/endviolenceday/sgmessages.shtml>).

⁽⁸⁰⁾ European Parliament. Background information for the seminar on 'Violence against women' (http://www.europarl.europa.eu/news/expert/background_page/014-70582-074-03-12-902-20100315BKG70581-15-03-2010-2010-false/default_en.htm).

⁽⁸¹⁾ The eradication of gender-based violence was also one of six priority areas of the Commission's Roadmap for equality between women and men for the 2006-2010 period, preceding its Strategy for equality between women and men.

and focusing primarily on an analysis of gender equality, social inclusion and health strategies, as well as the action plans available to combat violence, and paying specific attention to the three angles of prevention, treatment, and reintegration of victims into society. The goal is to present a clear picture of what takes place in these domains within the Member States, the EEA/EFTA countries and the candidate countries.

The information in this report covers 33 European countries (EU-27, EEA/EFTA and the candidate countries (Croatia, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia and Turkey) ⁽⁸²⁾ and was mainly provided by the national experts of the EGGSI *Network of experts in gender equality, social inclusion, healthcare and long-term care* and quantitative and qualitative desk research, considering relevant international and European documents, research reports and websites, project databases and international and European statistical databases.

The report is organised in three chapters: the first summarises the main features of violence against women in Europe. The second chapter gives an overview of policies addressing violence against women from the perspective of prevention, support for the victim and social reintegration. The final chapter presents some general conclusions.

Box 1 presents three relevant definitions of violence against women at the international level, included in the most influential policy documents issued in the last few years, that is to say the UN Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women, the Council of Europe's Recommendation Rec(2002)5 on the protection of women against violence and the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action. All of them focus on physical, sexual and psychological violence and identify three main contexts where violence can be perpetrated: the three agree on the family or domestic unit, the general community, and violence perpetrated or condoned by the state as the three main contexts. The Council of Europe evidences a fourth category of the violation of the human rights of women that takes place in armed conflict.

⁽⁸²⁾ EGGSI is the European Commission's network of 33 national experts (EU-27, EEA and the candidate countries of Croatia, former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia and Turkey) in the fields of gender equality and social inclusion, health and long-term care issues. The network is coordinated by the Istituto per la Ricerca Sociale and Fondazione Giacomo Brodolini, undertakes an annual programme of policy-oriented research and reports to the Directorate-General for Employment, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities.

Box 1 — International definitions of violence against women

Article 1 of the **UN Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women**, proclaimed by the UN General Assembly in its Resolution 48/104 of 20 December 1993⁽⁸³⁾, defines ‘violence against women’ as: ‘Any act of gender-based violence that results in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or in private life’ Three main forms of violence (even though not exhaustive) are described in Article 2:

- (a) physical, sexual and psychological violence occurring in the family: wife-battering, sexual abuse of female children in the household, dowry-related violence, marital rape, and female genital mutilation and other traditional practices harmful to women, non-spousal violence and violence related to exploitation;
- (b) physical, sexual and psychological violence occurring within the general community: rape, sexual abuse, sexual harassment and intimidation at work and educational institutions, trafficking in women and forced prostitution;
- (c) physical, sexual and psychological violence perpetrated or condoned by the state, wherever it occurs.

The **Council of Europe** in its **Recommendation Rec(2002)5**⁽⁸⁴⁾ on the protection of women against violence widens and defines more closely the main elements already present in the UN Declaration.

Violence against women is to be understood as any ‘act of gender-based violence, which results in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion, or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or private life. This includes, but is not limited to, the following:

- (a) violence occurring in the family or domestic unit, including, inter alia, physical and mental aggression, emotional and psychological abuse, rape and sexual abuse, incest, rape between spouses, regular or occasional partners and cohabitants, crimes committed in the name of honour, female genital and sexual mutilation and other traditional practices harmful to women, such as forced marriages;
- (b) violence occurring within the general community, including, inter alia, rape, sexual abuse, sexual harassment and intimidation at work, in institutions or elsewhere, trafficking in women for the purposes of sexual exploitation and economic exploitation and sex tourism;
- (c) violence perpetrated or condoned by the state or its officials;
- (d) violation of the human rights of women in situations of armed conflict, in particular the taking of hostages, forced displacement, systematic rape, sexual slavery, forced pregnancy, and trafficking for the purposes of sexual exploitation and economic exploitation.’

The **Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action**⁽⁸⁵⁾ adopted at the United Nations Fourth World Conference in 1995 contains the following definition: ‘The term “violence against women” means any act of gender-based violence that results in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or private life. Accordingly, violence against women encompasses, but is not limited to, the following:

- (a) physical, sexual and psychological violence occurring in the family, including battering, sexual abuse of female children in the household, dowry-related violence, marital rape, female genital mutilation and other traditional practices harmful to women, non-spousal violence and violence related to exploitation;
- (b) physical, sexual and psychological violence occurring within the general community, including rape, sexual abuse, sexual harassment and intimidation at work, in educational institutions and elsewhere, trafficking in women and forced prostitution;
- (c) physical, sexual and psychological violence perpetrated or condoned by the state, wherever it occurs.’

⁽⁸³⁾ UN Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women (<http://www.un.org/documents/ga/res/48/a48r104.htm>).

⁽⁸⁴⁾ Council of Europe (2002), Recommendation Rec(2002)5 of the Committee of Ministers to member countries on the protection of women against violence adopted on 30 April 2002 (http://www.coe.int/t/e/human_rights/equality/05_violence_against_women/003_rec%282002%2905.asp).

⁽⁸⁵⁾ UN Division for the Advancement of Women (<http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/beijing/platform/>).

Most of the 33 European countries refer to one of these three main definitions:

- Cyprus, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Italy, Spain, Sweden, Slovakia, Turkey and the UK to the UN Declaration;
- Croatia, Finland, Greece, Iceland, and Latvia to the Council of Europe's recommendation;
- Austria, Denmark and Portugal to the Beijing Declaration.

Some countries have an overall definition of violence (such as Austria, Bulgaria, Lithuania, the Nether-

lands, Spain) while others have more narrow definitions referring to specific forms of violence, such as domestic or family violence (such as Belgium, Croatia, Cyprus, the Czech Republic, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Malta, Poland, Slovakia, Slovenia).

In some other countries there is no specific law that regulates violence against women and punishments are imposed based on ordinary criminal law provisions (such as Estonia, Romania).

Box 2 presents specific definitions adopted in national action plans, in laws on violence against women or in relevant regulatory documents.

Box 2 — National definitions of violence against women in action plans and in the most relevant laws or regulations in 33 European countries

Austria

The Federal Ministry of Women and Civil Service defines violence against women in accordance with the Beijing Declaration: 'Violence against women is perpetrated in various forms on the physical, sexual, psychological, economic or social level. We need to distinguish between personal violence, practised directly by an acting perpetrator, and structural violence, which does not originate from an individual but is an integral part of a social system and manifests itself in an imbalance of power with accordingly unequal opportunities of women and men. Personal and structural violence are mutually dependent and complementary. Hence any effective fight against violence requires policies that address the perpetrator and support the victim while attempting to change the social inequalities between the sexes'⁽⁸⁶⁾.

The Austrian Penal Code lists a number of violent acts as punishable offences which also may occur within the private sphere. Among these are bodily harm and grievous bodily harm (StGB §83 and 84), maliciously inflicted grievous bodily harm (§87), deprivation of liberty (§99), human trafficking (§104.a), coercion and grievous coercion (§§105 and 106), dangerous threats (§107), insistent persecution (stalking) (§107.a), continued exercise of violence (§107.b), rape (§201), sexual coercion (§202), grievous sexual abuse and sexual abuse against minors (§§206 and 207). On 1 June 2009, repeated exercise of violence was added to the Austrian Penal Code as a punishable offence (§107.b).

Belgium

Violence against women is defined regarding 'violence between partners', and so within an intimate relationship. It is 'to be understood as any behaviour, act and attitude from one partner or former partners towards the other that aims to control and dominate her/him. It comprises attacks, threats, physical, verbal, sexual, moral or economic constraints that are repeated or will be repeated, detrimental to the physical integrity of the other and even to her/his socio-professional integration'⁽⁸⁷⁾.

Bulgaria

On 16 March 2005 the National Assembly adopted the Law on Protection against Domestic Violence. According to Article 2, domestic violence is: 'any act of physical, mental or sexual violence, and any attempted such violence, as well as the forcible restriction of individual freedom and of privacy, carried out against individuals who have or have had family or kinship ties or cohabit or dwell in the same home'⁽⁸⁸⁾. Rape is punishable under Article 152 of the Criminal Code, when the victim is: (1) unable to defend herself and withholds consent; (2) the act is committed with compulsion of force or threat; and (3) the act reduces her to a helpless state.

⁽⁸⁶⁾ Bundeskanzleramt Österreich (<http://www.bka.gv.at/site/6845/default.aspx>).

⁽⁸⁷⁾ Ministère de la Communauté Française - Direction de l'Égalité des Chances, Sensibilisation des jeunes à la violence dans les relations amoureuses, 2007-08 (http://www.cfwb.be/fileadmin/groups/portail_super_editor/portail_editor/AP_250.pdf).

⁽⁸⁸⁾ <http://www.stopvaw.org/Bulgaria2.html>

Sexual harassment in general is not included in Bulgaria's Criminal Code, although it finds a place in the Law on Protection against Discrimination. That law defines harassment as 'any unwanted conduct on the grounds referred to in Article 4, paragraph 1, expressed in a physical, verbal or any other manner, which has the purpose or effect of violating the person's dignity or creating a hostile, degrading, humiliating or intimidating environment, attitude or practice'. Sexual harassment is defined as 'any unwanted conduct of sexual character expressed physically, verbally or in any other manner, which violates the dignity or honour or creates hostile, degrading, humiliating or intimidating environment and, in particular, when the refusal to accept such conduct or the compulsion thereto could influence the taking of decisions, affecting the person'⁽⁸⁹⁾.

Croatia

There is no specific national definition of violence against women. Violence against women is basically covered by the Law on Protection against Family Violence⁽⁹⁰⁾, which was passed by the Croatian parliament in November 2009. The law states that all words and concepts have gender connotations and are to be applied equally to men and women. It also defines family violence as any form of physical, psychological, sexual and economic violence, and further elaborates on each category.

The national strategy of protection against family violence 2008–10⁽⁹¹⁾, although dealing in general with family violence, specifically refers to different international documents on violence against women. Following the Council of Europe Recommendation Rec(2002)5, the national strategy quoted the definition of violence against women, and on this basis formulated and implemented the 'National campaign to fight family violence against women 2006–08'.

Cyprus

According to the Violence in the Family (Prevention and Protection of Victims) Laws, violence in the family means 'any act, omission or behaviour which causes physical, sexual or mental injury to any member of the family by another member of the family and includes violence used for the purpose of having sexual intercourse without the consent of the victim as well as of restricting its freedom'⁽⁹²⁾. Violence between homosexual couples is not recognised. The law also specifically recognises children witnesses of violence as direct victims of the said violence. Defilement or attempted defilement of girls under the age of 16 are considered particularly serious and carry increased sentences. Marital rape is recognised in the law as a gender-specific offence by a husband against his wife. A new Combating Trafficking and the Exploitation of Human Beings and the Protection of Victims Law [L.87/(I)/2007] was adopted in 2007 to replace the initial law of 2000. It penalises trafficking, exploitation and child pornography, and promotes measures for the protection and support of victims and the creation of a monitoring system for the implementation of such measures. The law provides, inter alia, for cooperation between governmental services and NGOs for the identification and protection of victims and of their rights. The scope of the new law is to harmonise fully the national legislation with the European *acquis* as well as to implement better the Council of Europe Convention on Combating Trafficking in Human Beings. This new law, although more comprehensive than the previous one, does not emphasise gender equality and the demand side of trafficking is not addressed. Other forms of violence against women are covered by the Cyprus Criminal Code including female genital mutilation and rape. Honour-related violence, forced marriage and stalking are not recognised.

Czech Republic

The Czech Republic has neither a national definition of violence against women nor a typology of types of violence against women. The type of violence that is most developed from the point of view of awareness, prevention and victim treatment in connection to women is domestic violence. The Ministry of Interior defines domestic violence as 'long-term violent behaviour in the family, which includes any acts or omissions committed within the family by one of its members that undermines the life, physical or mental integrity and freedom of another member of the same family or seriously harms the development of his personality'⁽⁹³⁾. Czech law has yet to define directly the concept of domestic violence, but 2004 saw the introduction of §215a in the Criminal Code regarding crime of abuse of a person living in a common household. The second most discussed and addressed type of violence in the Czech Republic is trafficking.

⁽⁸⁹⁾ <http://www.stopvaw.org/Bulgaria2.html>

⁽⁹⁰⁾ Zakon o zaštiti od nasilja u obitelji [Law on Protection against Family Violence], Narodne novine 137/2009.

⁽⁹¹⁾ Ministarstvo obitelji, branitelja i međugeneracijske solidarnosti [Ministry of Family, Veterans' Affairs and Intergenerational Solidarity] (2008), Nacionalna strategija zaštite od nasilja u obitelji za razdoblje od 2008 do 2010 godine [National strategy of protection against family violence for the period 2008–10]. (<http://www.mobms.hr/media/991/nacionalnastrategija.pdf>).

⁽⁹²⁾ Violence in the Family (Prevention and Protection of Victims) Law 119(I) of 2000 and 212(I) of 2004.

⁽⁹³⁾ Definition of domestic violence: <http://www.magdalenium.cz/index.php?lid=CZ&nid=4875&oid=643223>

Denmark

Activities aimed at combating violence against women are based on the UN Beijing Protocol of 1995, paragraph 113, where the term 'violence against women' implies any act of gender-based violence that results in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or private life⁽⁹⁴⁾. The two Danish national action plans of 2002 and 2005 to curb violence against women contain no specific definition of 'violence against women', but base the work on the Beijing definition.

Estonia

Estonian legislation does not contain a law addressing violence against women either in general terms or any of its various forms, and the legislation provides no definitions for terms such as 'violence against women', 'abuse of women' or 'domestic violence'. Nor do the laws governing divorce or child custody address the issue of domestic violence. Without specific legal protection, women victims are treated like all other victims of crime. The Gender Equality Act entered into force on 1 May 2004 and Article 3 contains a definition of sexual harassment, but does not include any preventive or punishment measures: 'sexual harassment' occurs where, in any subordinate or dependent relationship, any form of unwanted verbal, non-verbal, or physical activity or conduct of a sexual nature occurs, with the purpose or effect of violating the dignity of a person, in particular when creating a disturbing, intimidating, hostile, degrading, humiliating, or offensive environment and the person rejects or submits to such conduct as a direct or indirect prerequisite for acquisition or maintenance of employment, participation in training, receipt of remuneration, or any other advantage or benefit'.

Finland

In the handbook for municipalities for the prevention of partner and intimate violence, published by the Ministry of Social Affairs and Health in 2005, partner and intimate violence is worded according to the WHO definition⁽⁹⁵⁾ as physical, mental, religious and sexual; it can be directed at property or it can be financial control or threatening with violence; the perpetrator can be the spouse, the ex-spouse, a child or other member of the family, a relative, or an acquaintance. A cross-administrative prevention programme for violence against women (2010–15) is under preparation⁽⁹⁶⁾. In this programme, the definition of violence against women provided by Recommendation Rec(2002)5 of the Council of Europe is used.

France

Since 1980 rape has been recognised as a crime against women or individual dignity and not just against the 'honour of the family'; its definition has been extended to all kinds of penetration (not only vaginal) and to all forms of constraints, whether by violence, force, threat, or surprise. The law of 1980 also allows courts to deal with rape within couples.

In 1992 the Law against Sexual Harassment was adopted but it only punished sexual harassment by a person having authority according to his/her hierarchical position within the organisation. Sexual harassment remaining attached to authority abuses, a peer colleague was not liable to be punished for such a crime, neither was the organisation or the firm itself for permitting an unsafe environment. The law of 17 January 2002 includes a broader definition of harassment by punishing moral harassment more generally, whether on the part of the employer or of others.

The Legislation against Violence within Couples is the most recent. While the recognition of domestic violence as an aggravating circumstance dates from 1994, recent reforms (2004, 2005 and 2006) tend to reinforce the protection of the victim and to extend the definition (and repression) of violence within couples. In 1992, the penal law entered a reforming process and the new Penal Code that came into force in 1994 covered, under the section on 'hit on personal physical or psychological integrity', crimes corresponding to the specificities of physical and psychological violence against women. By considering the position of spouse or partner of the victim to be an aggravating circumstance⁽⁹⁷⁾, French penal law took violence within couples and marital abuses into account.

⁽⁹⁴⁾ Ligestillingsministeriet (2001), Vold mod kvinder—Initiativer og anbefalinger til bekæmpelse af vold mod kvinder. Status og forslag til handlingsplan, Tværministeriel arbejdsgruppe, København.

⁽⁹⁵⁾ World Health Organisation (2002), World report on violence and health, Geneva (http://www.who.int/violence_injury_prevention/violence/world_report/en/summary_en.pdf).

⁽⁹⁶⁾ Ewalds, Helena (2009), Taustamuistio Naisiin kohdistuvan väkivallan vastaisesta toimintaohjelmasta 19.11.2009. Terveysten ja hyvinvoinnin laitos, Helsinki.

⁽⁹⁷⁾ Article 222-13-6 of the Penal Code.

Germany

There seems to be no specific national definition of violence against women. Instead, most documents, such as legal codes or national action plans, list different forms of violence, from domestic violence to forced marriages and trafficking in human beings, which prevents women from leading normal lives and is a serious violation of human rights. Thus, harassment is more clearly identified by the definition of discrimination in the General Equal Treatment Act⁽⁹⁸⁾, which came into force on 18 August 2006. (Article 3) 'Harassment shall be deemed to be a form of discrimination when unwanted conduct related to any of the grounds referred to in Article 1 takes place with the purpose or effect of violating the dignity of a person and of creating an intimidating, hostile, degrading, humiliating or offensive environment.' (Article 4) 'Sexual harassment is a form of discrimination in regard to Article 2 in cases where unwanted, sexually motivated behaviour takes place, particularly when an intimidating, hostile, degrading, humiliating or offensive environment is created.'

Greece

There is no single definition of violence against women but partial definitions are included in various legal typologies. These definitions have been promoted in order to harmonise Greek laws to the international and European legal provisions. Law 3488/2006 on sexual harassment incorporates the European Directives 2000/43/EC, 73/2002/EC and 2004/113/EC and meets relevant recommendations of the UN, the CEDAW Committee and the Council of Europe⁽⁹⁹⁾. In the same year (2006), Law 3500/2006 on domestic violence addresses the relevant recommendations of the UN, the CEDAW Committee, the UN Human Rights Committee, the UN Committee against Torture, the UN Committee on Economic, Cultural and Social Rights, as well as those by the Council of Europe⁽¹⁰⁰⁾.

Hungary

There is no specific definition of 'violence against women'; however, Hungarian law applies fully the definition of the UN classification, according to which gender-based violence refers to all types of violent actions against women (including physical, mental, verbal, economic, and/or sexual violence) that may cause physical, sexual, or mental damage or suffering to the victim⁽¹⁰¹⁾.

Iceland

In Iceland, violence against women is considered a matter of gender equality. A new act of legislation — the Act on Equal Status and Equal Rights of Women and Men, No 10/008 — was passed in Althingi in 2008. In this new legislation the terms 'gender-based harassment', 'sexual harassment' and 'gender-based violence' are defined⁽¹⁰²⁾.

The national action plans consider mainly violence in intimate partner/family relationships, sexual violence and human trafficking of women of which the main emphasis is on prevention in the form of research, information and education. The national action plan on domestic and sexual violence 2006–11 focuses on gender-based violence as a crime in the context of the criminal justice system and adapts and integrates the Council of Europe Recommendation Rec(2002)5 on the protection of women against violence.

Ireland

There is no common official national definition of violence against women. There are a number of typologies in different action plans, strategies and service provision statements. The definition of domestic violence adopted by the Government Task Force on Violence against Women⁽¹⁰³⁾ refers to 'the use of physical or emotional force or threat of physical force, including sexual violence, in close adult relationships'. The Economic and Social Research Institute (ESRI)⁽¹⁰⁴⁾ defines VAW as a pattern of physical, emotional or sexual behaviour between partners in an intimate relationship that causes or risks

⁽⁹⁸⁾ Allgemeines Gleichbehandlungsgesetz, AGG.

⁽⁹⁹⁾ Artinopoulou V., Papatheodorou Th. (2006), Sexual harassment at work, Athens, Nomiki Vivliothiki [Αρτινοπούλου Β, Παπαθεοδώρου Θ., 2006, 'Η σεξουαλική παρενόχληση στην εργασία', Αθήνα, Νομική Βιβλιοθήκη]. Council of Europe (2009), Legislation in the member states of the Council of Europe in the field of violence against women, Vol. I, December 2000.

⁽¹⁰⁰⁾ Council of Europe (2009), Legislation in the member states of the Council of Europe in the field of violence against women, Vol. I, EG(2009) 3, Strasbourg. Στρατηγάκη Μ. (2007), Το φύλο της κοινωνικής πολιτικής, Αθήνα, Μεταίχμιο, σελ. 163. Euromed, Mediterranean Institute of Gender Studies (2008), Intercultural dialogue on violence against women, Greece.

⁽¹⁰¹⁾ Ministry of Social Affairs and Labour (<http://www.szmm.gov.hu/main.php?folderID=21284>).

⁽¹⁰²⁾ Act No 10/2008 on the Equal Status and Equal Rights for Women and Men.

⁽¹⁰³⁾ Government of Ireland (1997), Report of the Task Force on Violence Against Women, Dublin (<http://www.justice.ie/en/JELR/dvreport.pdf/Files/dvreport.pdf>).

⁽¹⁰⁴⁾ Watson, D. and Parsons, S. (2005), Domestic abuse of women and men in Ireland. Report on the national study of domestic abuse in Ireland, National Crime Council and Economic and Social Research Institute ESRI, Dublin (http://www.esri.ie/pdf/BKMNEXT056_Domestic%20Abuse.pdf).

causing significant negative consequences for the person affected and distinguishes between severe abuse and minor incident. The national strategy on domestic, sexual and gender-based violence ⁽¹⁰⁵⁾ cites definitions in the Government Task Force on Violence against Women (1997). It distinguishes between domestic violence and sexual assault, stating that 'domestic and sexual violence are not identical... they share the sinister element of being hidden crimes, frequently perpetrated by persons in a position of supposed trust or complicated by close relationships' ⁽¹⁰⁶⁾. They stress a wide range of physical violence as well as isolation, use and abuse of children and economic abuse, controlling, emotional abuse and abuse of older people by carers and those in a position of trust. Sexual violence refers to a variety of forms including rape, sexual assault and sexual harassment which can be perpetrated by family members and a wide range of other known actors as well as persons in authority positions and strangers.

Italy

In Italy no generic definition of violence against women has been supplied and the definition by the United Nations — which defines it as 'any act of gender-based violence that results in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or in private life' ⁽¹⁰⁷⁾ — is generally accepted and followed. At the same time, different laws define specific crimes which — all together — form what can be understood as violence against women. Only after the approval of Law 66/1966 did sexual violence cease to be a 'crime against public morality' and become fully recognised as a 'crime against the person'. With the approval of a new Family Code in 1975 'marital authority' — which meant the power of the husband to apply 'means of correction and discipline towards his wife' — was abolished. Subsequently, in 1981 the crime of honour — which granted reduced sentences to husbands murdering their wives for reasons of infidelity — and the 'remedial marriage' — which allowed a man who had committed rape not to be condemned provided he married his victim — disappeared from the Penal Code ⁽¹⁰⁸⁾. In 2001, specific measures and restrictions ⁽¹⁰⁹⁾ on domestic violence were adopted.

Since 2006, other forms of violence such as female genital mutilation have also been addressed and prohibited by Law 7/2006 ⁽¹¹⁰⁾. In February 2009, Italy adopted an Anti-Stalking Law ⁽¹¹¹⁾ making a criminal offence, punishable with imprisonment ranging from six months up to four years, any 'continuative harassing, threatening or persecuting behaviour which: (1) causes a state of anxiety and fear in the victim(s), or (2) ingenerates within the victim(s) a motivated fear for his/her own safety or for the safety of relatives, [...], or others associated with the victim him/herself by an affective relationship, or (3) forces the victim(s) to change his/her living habits'. Standard definitions of violence against women can also be found in the national survey ⁽¹¹²⁾, fully dedicated for the first time to physical and sexual violence against women, which considered three different types of violence against women: physical; sexual and psychological violence, both inside the family (by partner or ex-partner) and outside the family (by an unknown person, acquaintances, friend, colleague, family friend, relative, etc.).

Latvia

Although Latvian policy documents contain reference to the Council of Europe Recommendation Rec(2002)5 and the typologies of 'violence against women' provided there, neither the legislation nor policy documents focus on or provide a specific explanation of these typologies. Policy documents distinguish two types of violence against women: domestic violence and human trafficking. In the national context the concept of violence is mostly viewed through the aspect of domestic violence without specifying violence against women. After re-establishing independence, Latvia signed a number of international conventions

⁽¹⁰⁵⁾ COSC (2010), National strategy on domestic, sexual and gender-based violence 2010–14. Department of Justice, Equality and Law Reform, Dublin (<http://www.cosc.ie/en/COSC/Final%20Electronic%20N5%20full%20doc%203%20March.pdf/Files/Final%20Electronic%20N5%20full%20doc%203%20March.pdf>).

⁽¹⁰⁶⁾ COSC (2010), National strategy on domestic, sexual and gender-based violence 2010–14. Department of Justice, Equality and Law Reform, Dublin (<http://www.cosc.ie/en/COSC/Final%20Electronic%20N5%20full%20doc%203%20March.pdf/Files/Final%20Electronic%20N5%20full%20doc%203%20March.pdf>).

⁽¹⁰⁷⁾ Resolutions adopted by the General Assembly 48/104. Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women 2003.

⁽¹⁰⁸⁾ Law 154/2001 'Measures against domestic violence'.

⁽¹⁰⁹⁾ See, for more details, paragraph 2.1 of this report.

⁽¹¹⁰⁾ Law 7/2006 'Provisions concerning the prevention and suppression of forms of female genital mutilation'.

⁽¹¹¹⁾ Law Decree 23 February 2009, No 11, 'Misure urgenti in materia di sicurezza pubblica e di contrasto alla violenza sessuale, nonche' in tema di atti persecutori' converted into Law 23 April 2009, No 38.

⁽¹¹²⁾ ISTAT (2007), *Violenza e maltrattamenti contro le donne dentro e fuori la famiglia*, Rome (http://www.istat.it/salastampa/comunicati/non_calendario/20070221_00/testointegrale.pdf).

regarding women's rights, but the problem of domestic violence as a policy issue appeared on the policy agenda only in 2007⁽¹¹³⁾. In policy documents, domestic violence is mostly understood as the violence of parents against their children. In the area of criminal law no legal document provides the definition of the concept 'family' or 'domestic violence'.

The Constitutional Court states⁽¹¹⁴⁾ that the concept of 'family' refers not only to relations based on marriage but may also include other *de facto* family ties — in cases when partners live together without being officially married.

Liechtenstein

In Liechtenstein the perspective on 'violence against women' is primarily in terms of criminal justice. Violence against women is defined as sexual violence which means: compelling, by force or threat of force, a person to have sexual intercourse (rape) (§200 Penal Code); sexual offence by force or threat of force against a person (§201 Penal Code); rape or other sexual offence against a woman who suffers from insanity or other mental deficiency or is unable to prevent the act or understand its significance (§204 Penal Code). This criminal justice perspective results in a rather narrow definition of violence against women. Violence against women is defined as a subset of crimes perpetrated against women (and female children) by any type of offender. The problem is that the definition excludes activities which can be very harmful to women (and female children) such as psychological or emotional abuse, deprivation and neglect, etc. There has been no discussion in Liechtenstein on extending the national definition of violence as yet. It is worth noting that in relation to the anti-stalking law, implemented in Liechtenstein since August 2007, the definition of harassment has been widened. Stalking is defined as harassment of a person lasting for an extended period that unreasonably interferes with that person's life. According to Article 107a of the Criminal Code, stalking occurs when someone harasses another person by: seeking out the person's physical proximity, entering into contact with the person by way of electronic communication or other means of communication or via a third party, using the person's personal data, ordering goods or services for the person or using the person's personal data, inducing a third party to enter into contact with the person. Interestingly, stalking has never been linked to violence against women in Liechtenstein.

Lithuania

Lithuania approved the first national strategy for the reduction of violence against women⁽¹¹⁵⁾ in 2006. Here violence against women is defined as 'any intentional physical, psychological, economic, sexual action against a family member — mostly women — which leads to economic, physical, mental or moral harm'. Lithuania recognises domestic violence against women as human rights violation and it is treated like other human rights violations: in Lithuania domestic violence is not qualified as a separate criminal act. Cases of domestic violence are usually qualified according to the consequences of offence, for example physical pain or injuries. Marital rape is not specifically defined or prosecuted in the Criminal Code. Article 2, part 5, of the Law on Equal Opportunities of Women and Men defines sexual harassment at the workplace as an offensive act. It is also referred to in the Labour Code and the Criminal Code. There is no anti-stalking law in Lithuania.

Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia

The Family Law defines domestic violence as 'violence which involves the conduct of a family member who inflicts physical injuries by force, intimidation and threats, emotional or sexual abuse, and economically, sexually and labour-wise takes advantage of another member of the family'⁽¹¹⁶⁾. Article 122, paragraph 19, of the Criminal Code defines it as 'maltreatment, rude insulting, endangering security, bodily injuring, sexual or other physical or psychological violence that induces a sense of insecurity, threat or fear toward a marital partner, parents or children or other persons that live in marriage or in extramarital couple or household, as well as towards an ex-marital partner or persons that have a child or are in very close personal relationships.'⁽¹¹⁷⁾

⁽¹¹³⁾ Ministry of Health of the Republic of Latvia (2009), Health and violence: a study on the situation in Latvia ([http://phoebe.v.m.gov.lv/misc_db/web.nsf/626e6035eadbb4cd85256499006b15a6/d607bf50bd8d4113c22573f000498c25/\\$FILE/Summary_iekslapas_v4.pdf](http://phoebe.v.m.gov.lv/misc_db/web.nsf/626e6035eadbb4cd85256499006b15a6/d607bf50bd8d4113c22573f000498c25/$FILE/Summary_iekslapas_v4.pdf)).

⁽¹¹⁴⁾ Judgment of 11 October 2004 in Case No 2004-02-010612.

⁽¹¹⁵⁾ Government of the Republic of Lithuania on 17 October 2006 by Resolution No 1020, Official Gazette, 2006, No 112-4273, 'National violence against women reduction strategy' (http://www3.lrs.lt/pls/inter3/dokpaieska.showdoc_l?p_id=289640&p_query=&p_tr2=).

⁽¹¹⁶⁾ Family Law, Article 99, Official Gazette of R. Macedonia No 19/04.

⁽¹¹⁷⁾ Criminal Code of the Republic of Macedonia, Article 122, paragraph 19, Official Gazette of R. Macedonia No 19/04.

Malta

Domestic violence as defined by the national law of Malta is: any act of violence, even if only verbal, perpetrated by a household member upon another household member, and includes any omission which causes physical or moral harm to the other. The Domestic Violence Act⁽¹¹⁸⁾ defines who is to be considered a household member. The National Commission on Domestic Violence makes explicit reference to different forms of domestic abuse either in terms of physical, psychological or sexual offence, verbal abuse, threats on the victim's life or of humiliation, restriction to freedom, restrictions on the use and access to money, impediment from the use of telecommunication methods such as cell phone and Internet⁽¹¹⁹⁾. Marital rape is not specifically defined per se but falls under the general definition of rape. Sexual harassment is prohibited in both the Employment and Industrial Relations Act (2002) (Articles 29 and 32), and the Equality for Men and Women Act (2003) (Articles 1 to 3). Specific anti-stalking provisions are found under the term 'harassment' in the Penal Code 2005 (Article 251)⁽¹²⁰⁾.

Netherlands

The concept of violence against women is employed mainly within the framework of Dutch emancipation policy. The umbrella concept of violence against women refers to domestic violence, honour-related violence, female genital mutilation, sexual violence and human trafficking. This violence is considered against the background of unequal power relations between men and women⁽¹²¹⁾. In Dutch security and healthcare policy, as well as in social work, the term domestic violence (*huiselijk geweld*) is usually employed. Domestic violence is defined as violence committed by someone from the domestic or family circle of the victim. An imbalance of power exists between perpetrators and victims who are also permanently part of each other's living environment. This violence can take on many forms: physical, sexual and/or psychological. Practically, domestic violence is understood to include abuse of (ex-)partners, children, parents and elderly people; honour-related violence, forced marriage and genital mutilation are also included⁽¹²²⁾. Honour-related violence refers to any type of physical or psychological violence which is committed on the basis of a collective mentality in reaction to a (threatening) honour violation by a man or a woman and his/her family. Female genital mutilation is an umbrella term for mutilation of the external or internal female genitalia, performed for cultural or religious reasons⁽¹²³⁾.

Over the last few years, the more general concept of violence in dependency relations (*geweld in afhankelijkheidsrelaties*) has been increasingly used. This refers to several types of violence where the victim for whatever reason is dependent on the violator and has insufficient opportunities to break through the unequal power structure. This involves not only domestic violence, but also violence against women by social workers, trainers, priests, employers and teachers, or exploitation of women in the sex industry or other social sectors, for instance household work, catering and seasonal work⁽¹²⁴⁾.

Norway

There is no specific law that regulates violence against women and punishments are imposed based on ordinary criminal law provisions. Women in fear of abuse or victims of sex crimes and domestic violence are protected through the Criminal Procedure Act, also if there is a specific reason to believe that the abuser will commit a criminal act against or otherwise violate the other person's right to be in peace. Victims of sex crimes and domestic violence are, according to the Criminal Procedure Act, entitled to the assistance of a lawyer. The lawyer shall be remunerated by the state, and is responsible for taking care of the interest of the victim in connection with the investigation and the main hearing of the case⁽¹²⁵⁾.

In the action plan against domestic violence (2008–11), such violence is broadly defined as everything from individual events to extensive long-term maltreatment. This action plan also emphasises that both men and women commit violent crimes and that both women and men can be victims, but that the repeated violence and abuse some men subject women and children to is especially serious. Also violence perpetrated by other than the partner, e.g. honour-related violence, violence towards an elderly person by a child or by grandchildren

⁽¹¹⁸⁾ Domestic Violence Act, 2005, Article 2.

⁽¹¹⁹⁾ Ministry of Social Policy (2008), Perceptions of the Maltese general public on domestic violence, Commission on Domestic Violence, Malta (http://mfss.gov.mt/documents/family/perceptions_domestic_violence_08.pdf).

⁽¹²⁰⁾ WAVE (2009), Country report 2009 — Reality check on European services for women and children victims of violence. A right for protection and support?, Vienna (http://www.wave-network.org/images/doku/wave_countryreport_2009_1.pdf).

⁽¹²¹⁾ Dutch Ministry of Education, Culture and Science (OC&W), 2008 (<http://english.minocw.nl/>, 2010).

⁽¹²²⁾ Movisie (2009), Huiselijk geweld: Cijfers en feiten. Utrecht.

⁽¹²³⁾ Dutch Ministry of Education, Culture and Science (<http://english.minocw.nl/>).

⁽¹²⁴⁾ Ministerie van Volksgezondheid, Welzijn en Sport (2007), Beschermd en weerbaar: Intensivering van de opvang en hulp bij geweld in afhankelijkheidsrelaties. Brief van 10 december 2007, Den Haag; and Movisie (2009), Huiselijk geweld: Cijfers en feiten. Utrecht.

⁽¹²⁵⁾ Homepage of the Women's Shelter Movement (<http://www.krisecenter.com/english/english.html>).

or violence within homosexual and lesbian relationships, is recognised as domestic violence in the plan. As a consequence, the action plan generally uses gender-neutral wording such as ‘domestic violence’ and ‘violence in close relationships’, while still emphasising that it is important to focus on men’s violence against women⁽¹²⁶⁾.

Poland

Currently, violence against women is considered mostly in the context of domestic violence. As a result, it does not have any official definition used in regulations or government programmes. Instead, a concept of domestic violence is widely applied. It was brought in with the Act on Counteracting Domestic Violence of 2005 and states that domestic violence is a ‘single or repeated intentional act or omission that violates rights or personal interest (of the closest relatives or other cohabitating persons or these keeping house together), which in particular put these persons at risk of losing life or health, which humiliate them or constitute an assault on them, limit their freedom, including sexual one, cause harm to their physical or psychological health, and cause suffering and moral abuse to persons suffering from violence’⁽¹²⁷⁾. This concept is actually used by all agencies dealing with domestic and/or gender-based violence.

Following the legal concept, a working definition for the wider public has also been set up. It says that ‘Domestic violence is a pattern of control that physically harms, induces fear, or violates a person’s personal and legal rights. It is characterised by: intention (domestic violence is an intentional action that is meant to control the victim and force them to submit to the aggressor); uneven distribution of power (in reality, one person has power over the other, the victim is weaker than the aggressor); it violates personal and legal rights (the aggressor takes advantage of personal strength to violate the victim’s basic rights); domestic violence causes suffering and pain (the aggressor endangers the victim’s health and life through physical violence. Sensations of suffering and pain cause the victim to be less able to defend herself)’⁽¹²⁸⁾.

Portugal

Portugal adopted the definition established in Beijing, in 1995, concerning violence against women: ‘any act of gender-based violence that results in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or private life’.

Romania

The concept of ‘violence against women’ is defined neither in the national legislation nor in documents pertaining to equal opportunities policy. The national strategy for equal opportunities between women and men 2010–12 addresses the issue under the generic promotion of the equal opportunities principle between women and men in social life⁽¹²⁹⁾. Family violence is commonly understood as a proxy for violence against women. Law 217/2003 defines it as ‘any intentional physical or verbal action perpetrated by a family member against another member of the same family, which produces a physical, psychological, sexual harm or a material loss’. The prevailing family-centred approach is complemented by a women’s human rights undertone in the second part of Article 2, which stipulates that restraining a woman from exercising her fundamental rights and liberties constitutes family violence⁽¹³⁰⁾. Rape within marriage is implicitly recognised by the Penal Code: the family relationship with the victim is considered an aggravating circumstance, which increases the punishment (5- to 18-year prison term)⁽¹³¹⁾. As in other cases of violence, criminal investigation requires prior complaint of the victim.

Sexual harassment is defined by the 2002 Law on Equal Opportunities and Treatment between Women and Men as ‘an objectionable behaviour with sexual connotations, that is expressed physically, verbally or non-verbally with the purpose or effect of damaging the dignity of a person and in particular when creating an intimidating, hostile, degrading, humiliating and offensive environment’⁽¹³²⁾.

⁽¹²⁶⁾ Justis og politidepartementet (2007), Vendepunkt, Handlingsplan mot vold i nære relasjoner 2008–11 (<http://www.regjeringen.no/upload/JD/Vedlegg/Handlingsplaner/Vendepunkt.pdf>).

⁽¹²⁷⁾ Act of 29 July 2005 on combating domestic violence, OJ No 180, item 1493, Article 2, 2 (http://fas.nazwa.pl/parpa_en/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=48&Itemid=56).

⁽¹²⁸⁾ See the website of the ‘Blue Line’ hotline (<http://www.niebieskalinia.pl/index.php?assign=przemoc>) and the English version (http://www.niebieskalinia.pl/new_pages.php?new_pagesid=66).

⁽¹²⁹⁾ Government of Romania, Official Gazette, Part I, No 242/15.IV.2010 (http://www.anes.ro/materiale/legislatie/monitor%20242_2010_strategie.pdf).

⁽¹³⁰⁾ Law No 217/2003 ‘Preventing and combating domestic violence’, published in the Official Gazette No 367, 29 May 2003 (http://legislatie.resurse-pentru-democratie.org/217_2003.php).

⁽¹³¹⁾ American Bar Association (2007), Domestic violence in Romania: the law, the court system. Central European and Eurasian law initiative (http://www.abanet.org/rol/publications/ee_romania_domestic_violence_final_report_0407.pdf).

⁽¹³²⁾ Law No 202/2002 on equal opportunities between men and women. Published in the Official Gazette, No 301 of 8 May 2002 (http://legislatie.resurse-pentru-democratie.org/202_2002.php).

Slovakia

During the period of real socialism, but in the first half of the 1990s as well, the emphasis was on the protection and support of maternity and the women's role within the family to a greater extent than on the woman as personality. This is why the issue of violence against women was, and partially still is, perceived in terms of family violence, or domestic violence. In the main government strategic material entitled 'National strategy on prevention and elimination of violence against women and in families' (adopted in 2004), the considered target groups are not only women, but also other family members (children, older people, and disabled persons regardless OF their gender). Thus, family violence is defined as any action of a family member or household against another family member if this action restricts his/her legal rights of freedom and causes him/her physical or psychological suffering and moral damage or threatens his/her physical or personal development. Hence, this notion denotes any kind of violence where the victim and the offender are, or were in the past, in a relationship⁽¹³³⁾. However, in other parts of the national strategy and in the national action plan for the prevention and elimination of violence against women (2005–08) there are references to the definition of the UN Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women (1993), where the term denotes any act of gender-based violence.

As for the other forms of violence against women, according to the Anti-discrimination Act (No 85/2008 Coll.), sexual harassment is defined as a verbal, non-verbal or physical behaviour of a sexual nature that is/can be intended to or that results/can result in violation of the dignity of a person and that creates an intimidating, humiliating, degrading, hostile and offensive environment. Very similar, but without the sexual connotation, is the definition for mobbing.

Slovenia

The most important definitions are those in the Penal Code of the Republic of Slovenia and the latest on domestic violence in the Family Violence Act (2008)⁽¹³⁴⁾. In the Penal Code (in 1999) the act of violence was defined as taking place: 'when one person insults the other; mistreats her/him; acts violently toward her/him or endangers her/his life/safety; when the listed acts pose a threat, produce feelings of shock or great fear'. The perpetrator who is proved guilty of such an act can be sentenced to two years of prison. The definition is mainly concerned with domestic violence as violence among family members and/or violence of one family member against another family member. There is differentiation between physical violence, psychological violence, sexual and economic violence⁽¹³⁵⁾. These types of violence usually overlap in practice. In Article 3 of the Family Violence Act family violence is defined as any use of physical, sexual, emotional or economic violence of one family member against another family member or neglect of a family member, regardless of their age, gender or any other personal circumstance of the victim and perpetrator of violence. In addition, each form of violence is specifically described: physical violence is any use of physical force that produces in the family member pain, fear, humiliation, regardless of actual injuries; sexual violence is any behaviour with sexual content that a family member is opposed to, is forced on the family member or of which a family member cannot comprehend the significance due to his/her developmental stage; emotional violence are acts that produce fear, humiliation, feelings of minority, danger or other psychological trauma; economic violence is unjustified control or restriction of the family member in disposing or managing the income and assets that are at the disposal of the individual family member or the management of communal assets of the family members; neglect is a form of violence when a person abandons due care of a family member who needs it due to disease, handicap, age, developmental or other personal circumstances. In Article 4 of the Family Violence Act special conditions are also mentioned for children. A child is a victim of violence also in cases when he/she witnesses domestic violence.

Spain

The Organic Law on Integral Protection Measures against Gender Violence⁽¹³⁶⁾, approved in December 2004, defines violence against women as violence that, as a manifestation of discrimination, inequality and power relations of men over women, is exerted on them by those who are or have been their spouses or those who are or have been linked to them by similar relationships of affection, even without cohabitation. Thus the gender violence referred in this act includes any act of physical and psychological violence, including sexual assaults on freedom, threats, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty. It is important to stress that the term gender violence is used for the first time in legal

⁽¹³³⁾ Ministry of Labour, Social Affairs and Family, 'National strategy for prevention and elimination of violence against women and in families' (<http://www.employment.gov.sk/index.php?SMC=1&id=1470>).

⁽¹³⁴⁾ Law on Prevention of Domestic Violence, Family Violence Act. Uradni list 16/2008, Official Gazette RS, No 16/2008 (http://zakonodaja.gov.si/rpsi/r04/predpis_ZAKO5084.html).

⁽¹³⁵⁾ Sedmak, M. and Kralj, A. (2006), *Nevarna zasebnost — nasilje v družinah v Sloveniji*, Družboslovne razprave, XXII(2006).

⁽¹³⁶⁾ Organic Law 1/2004 of 28 December.

regulation, as opposed to previous regulations referring to domestic violence: the definition explicitly refers to inequality and power relations of men over women. Title III establishes, among others, that units specialised in gender violence are created within the security forces (police); Title IV prescribes that all the legal procedures on violence against women must be judged in the same jurisdiction. Thus, a specific and special jurisdiction, the Courts on Violence against Women, were created in 2005 with competences in criminal and civil matters at the national level.

Besides, the national plan for awareness and prevention of gender violence (2007–08) states that violence against women is the extreme manifestation of inequality, evidence of a democratic deficit and one of the symptoms of incomplete citizenship of women. It is therefore the duty of the government and all the regional and local authorities to ensure the full enjoyment of fundamental rights of women, ensuring the full exercise of their citizenship.

Sweden

In 2007, the government adopted an action plan to fight violence perpetrated by men against women (2007–10), violence and oppression in the name of honour and violence in same-sex relationships⁽¹³⁷⁾. The definition of violence by men against women is based on the UN Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women. Article 1 defines violence against women as ‘any act of gender-based violence that results in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or in private life’. This implies that violence can be physical, sexual or psychological, whether in the home or in the community at large.

According to the government, violence and oppression in the name of honour has much in common with violence by men against women. However, according to an evaluation of the action plan of the Swedish National Council for Crime Prevention (*Brå Brottsförebyggande rådet*)⁽¹³⁸⁾ there is no simple and generally accepted definition of the concept ‘violence in the name of honour’. As maintained by the Swedish government, violence also occurs in relationships between people of the same sex and the problems associated with violence in same-sex relationships have much in common with violence by men against women but so far they have seldom been brought to the fore. The government has decided that this type of violence is also to be included in the action plan so as to focus attention on the needs of those at risk and not on their sexual orientation or their choice of partner.

Legislation in the abovementioned areas is gender neutral, with one exception. In 1998, a new law came into force: ‘gross violation of a woman’s integrity’ (*kvinnofridskränkning*). The law concerns women who are subjected to repeated acts of assault, unlawful threats and/or certain types of sex-related crime where the woman and the offender are or were previously married or cohabiting. The legislation takes into consideration the changes which a woman may gradually experience while being subjected to violence.

Turkey

The first national action plan for combating domestic violence against women 2007–10 was drawn up by the Directorate-General on the Status of Women. The plan adopts the UN definition of violence against women, according to which ‘any act of gender-based violence that results in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or private life’⁽¹³⁹⁾. This definition has been widely accepted by various actors ranging from NGO activists to professionals working in the field of violence against women in Turkey. However, in Turkey the issue of violence against women is generally considered in a domestic context, and efforts to end violence against women by and large concentrate on domestic violence.

In the new Turkish Penal Code passed in 2004, customary killings are defined as aggravated homicide and the reductions in the sentences of the perpetrators on grounds of ‘unjust provocation’ are cancelled⁽¹⁴⁰⁾. The Prime Ministry Circular No 2006/17 issued in 2006 on ‘Measures to be taken to prevent actions of violence against children and women and customary and honour killings’ identifies the ‘murder of women known as “customary killings” by the public’ as ‘the most

⁽¹³⁷⁾ Ministry of Integration and Gender Equality (2007), ‘Action plan for combating men’s violence against women, violence and oppression in the name of honour and violence in same-sex relationships’. Government Offices of Sweden, Stockholm (<http://www.regeringen.se/sb/d/108/a/98653>).

⁽¹³⁸⁾ Brå Brottsförebyggande rådet (2010), *Mäns våld mot kvinnor, hedersrelaterat våld och förtryck samt våld i samkönade relationer*. Rapport 2010:4, Stockholm (http://bra.se/extra/faq/?module_instance=2&action=question_show&id=540&category_id=0).

⁽¹³⁹⁾ United Nations General Assembly (20 December 1993), Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women.

⁽¹⁴⁰⁾ Turkish Penal Code, Article 82.

brutal form' of violence against women and children. In the code, sexual assault ⁽¹⁴¹⁾ is defined as all sexual acts violating a person's bodily integrity and sexual harassment ⁽¹⁴²⁾ is defined as harassment with sexual intent.

United Kingdom

The 2009 UK government's strategy (HM Government 2009, 12) uses two UN definitions of violence against women and girls (VAW/G). One is from the Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women: 'any act of gender-based violence that results in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to women'; the other is from the UN Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women: 'violence directed at a woman because she is a woman or acts of violence which are suffered disproportionately by women'.

Traditionally VAW/G policy in the UK has focused on domestic violence and has been addressed as a criminal justice issue. Increasingly it is being viewed in a more holistic way, taking into account the consequences on health, children's services, education and housing ⁽¹⁴³⁾ and social inclusion more broadly. In some cases it is framed in gender-neutral terms, as an issue of criminal justice or socioeconomic disadvantage. In other instances VAW/G is clearly framed as a gender equality issue, recognising that VAW/G is a consequence of gender inequality and that it also perpetuates gender inequality ⁽¹⁴⁴⁾.

Source: EGGSI network national reports, 2010.

⁽¹⁴¹⁾ Turkish Penal Code, Article 102.

⁽¹⁴²⁾ Turkish Penal Code, Article 105.

⁽¹⁴³⁾ Home Office (2009), Together we can end violence against women and girls: a strategy, London.

⁽¹⁴⁴⁾ Scottish Government (2009) Safer lives: changed lives. A shared approach to tackling violence against women in Scotland, Edinburgh (<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Resource/Doc/274212/0082013.pdf>).

1. Violence against women in Europe: main features and recent trends

1.1. Overview of main features of violence against women in Europe

1.1.1. Discussion of data availability and reliability

Violence-related data on women is a relatively new field that cuts across traditional areas of statistical production. Therefore many European countries still lack adequate and reliable data on the magnitude, consequences, and the economic and health costs of gender-based violence. Also, most data available are not comparable, nor collected on a regular basis, which makes it difficult to measure changes over time and determine the dimension of the phenomenon. No comprehensive set of international indicators on violence against women has so far been developed, although this would facilitate collection of comparable data. The European Union⁽¹⁴⁵⁾ and some international institutions such as the United Nations⁽¹⁴⁶⁾ and the US Agency for International Development (USAid)⁽¹⁴⁷⁾ have addressed these issues and proposed various indicators on violence against women.

National data on violence against women can be obtained from administrative and criminal data sources collected by the police, public prosecutors, courts of first instance (criminal and civil courts), healthcare services (such as cause of death), and social service agencies, etc. Administrative data and criminal statistics are usually gathered on a regular basis and are mostly comparable over time, even though the data presented might not fully reflect the real incidence of women affected, as only registered/official numbers are presented. The number, types and episodes of violence recorded within European countries also depend on the national definition, the form of data collection and the nationally defined indicators. Consequently the available national (or regional) data cannot be compared cross-countries, or only with great caution. The comparability of data is also influenced by the fact that no standardised methodology has been devel-

oped at the European level, which would support the collection of comparable data by the national statistical institutes and governmental agencies involved, as well as by private social service providers.

The second relevant source is provided by population-based surveys⁽¹⁴⁸⁾: population-based or household surveys are considered the most reliable method for obtaining information on violence against women (VAW) and to measure the extent of violence in the general population. Two types of surveys can be distinguished: (a) large-scale surveys related to broader issues (such as poverty, crime or reproductive health), which include special modules, for example on domestic violence or female genital mutilation (FGM); and (b) dedicated surveys, which gather detailed information on specific aspects of VAW, such as on causes of violence, circumstances and consequences of violence and information on perpetrators; and information which cannot be obtained from administrative or criminal data sources. Surveys are conducted by governmental bodies like ministries or national statistical institutes, as well as by independent agencies and NGOs. They may vary in extent and in the number of people interviewed.

Due to different methodologies the comparability and representativeness of data from different surveys is one of the major problems, due also to the difference in sample size, time coverage and underlying concepts of violence. As for administrative data collection, no standard methodology and instruments for surveys have been developed and implemented at the European level, although this would improve the comparability and reliability of data. Some methodologies have been proposed by international organisations. The World Health Organisation (WHO), for instance, has developed a standardised instrument for international surveys (which has been implemented only in developing countries), and so did the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) and the UN Interregional Crime and Justice Research Institute (UNICRI)⁽¹⁴⁹⁾.

⁽¹⁴⁵⁾ <http://register.consilium.europa.eu/pdf/en/02/st14/st14578.en02.pdf> and <http://register.consilium.europa.eu/pdf/en/04/st15/st15202.en04.pdf>

⁽¹⁴⁶⁾ The proposed indicators include physical, sexual and intimate partner violence, harmful practices and some additional proposals on qualitative data. See also United Nations (2007), Indicators to measure violence against women. Report of the Expert Group Meeting held on 8 to 10 October 2007, organised by the United Nations Division for the Advancement of Women, United Nations Economic Commission for Europe, United Nations Statistical Division, Geneva (http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/egm/IndicatorsVAW/IndicatorsVAW_EGM_report.pdf).

⁽¹⁴⁷⁾ Bloom, Shelah S. (2007), Violence against women and girls. A compendium of monitoring and evaluation indicators. Washington (<http://www.awid.org/Issues-and-Analysis/Library/Violence-against-Women-and-Girls-a-Compendium-of-Monitoring-and-Evaluation-Indicators>).

⁽¹⁴⁸⁾ For surveys see, for example: 'International violence against women surveys' (IVAWS), coordinated by the European Institute for Crime Prevention and Control, affiliated with the United Nations (HEUNI), or the demographic and health surveys (DHS), supported by MACRO International, conducted in many countries, which have in some countries included modules on domestic violence and on female genital mutilation/cutting.

⁽¹⁴⁹⁾ United Nations (2007), Indicators to measure violence against women. Report of the Expert Group Meeting held on 8 to 10 October 2007, organised by the United Nations Division for the Advancement of Women, United Nations Economic Commission for Europe, United Nations Statistical Division, Geneva (http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/egm/IndicatorsVAW/IndicatorsVAW_EGM_report.pdf).

Some initial multi-country initiatives for collecting international comparable statistics have been launched over the last few years, for instance by the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE)⁽¹⁵⁰⁾, UNICRI and Unicef. However, they are based on different indicators (as proposed, for instance, by the UN), do not always cover all European countries and are not always updated.

The European Commission has recently completed a Eurobarometer survey on domestic violence⁽¹⁵¹⁾, and an EU27 survey on violence against women has also been launched in 2010 by the Fundamental Rights Agency (FRA)⁽¹⁵²⁾.

International non-governmental organisations (such as Amnesty International, Terre des Femmes), NGO umbrella organisations (such as WAVE and the European Women's Lobby) or national NGOs⁽¹⁵³⁾ (such as shelters, support services, including lawyers' associations, legal aid services and advocacy organisations) also provide qualitative information and data on the incidence of domestic violence, such as the number and nationality of women living in shelters or requiring support.

Data on domestic violence

The incidence of domestic violence is a difficult field for data collection, as most of the cases are not reported to the police. The main sources are public agencies, such as the police, health centres and courts, public services, and private agencies and organisations: data deriving from police files under-represent the number of affected women, as very few women report violence, especially intimate partner violence (IPV). Thus healthcare services, NGOs and intervention centres (shelters, support services) in direct contact with women play an important role in providing information and data, helping to convey an idea of the dimensions and main features of the problem. These

⁽¹⁵⁰⁾ Gender database on crime and violence statistics (accessible at <http://w3.unece.org/pxweb/DATABASE/STAT/30-GE/07-CV/07-CV.asp>).

⁽¹⁵¹⁾ European Commission (2010), Domestic violence against women. Special Eurobarometer 344, Wave 73.2. http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/archives/ebs/ebs_344_en.pdf

⁽¹⁵²⁾ The project will include a pre-test study in 2010–11 to translate and test the questionnaire in selected Member States. The full-scale survey in the EU-27 will be carried out in 2011 and the first survey results will be released in 2012 (http://www.fra.europa.eu/fraWebsite/research/projects/proj_eu_survey_vaw_en.htm).

⁽¹⁵³⁾ See, for instance, an extensive list of NGOs involved in the WAVE network (<http://www.wave-network.org/start.asp?b=13>).

service-based data include, for instance, the number of women seeking attendance in hospitals, the shelters and support organisations; sometimes they also provide additional socioeconomic information on the women affected. Most European countries do not have a nationwide monitoring system on users of shelters and services, but data provided by NGOs serve as a basis for estimations of the number of women concerned.

In some countries surveys offer some information on intimate partner violence together with special reports and studies carried out by international organizations, governmental agencies, statistical institutes, universities and research institutes, as well as NGOs.

Data on crime — sexual assault, rape and femicide

National data on sexual assault, rape and intimate partner homicide and other types of femicide are provided by the police and criminal statistics, but data may differ from country to country due to differences in reporting and registration procedures. There are only a few international (and comparable) data on crime available, and differences in the definitions of crime and other forms of sexual abuse and assault make cross-country comparison difficult. International organisations, such as UNECE or UNICRI have undertaken surveys and collected national data⁽¹⁵⁴⁾. European data on rape are also presented in the *European sourcebook of crime and criminal justice statistics* (see Box 1.1).

International data on femicide are provided, for instance, by the UNECE statistical division database, which supplies data on victims of homicide by the relationship of the perpetrator to the victim, sex of the victim, country and year⁽¹⁵⁵⁾. But as the definitions and the distinction between intentional and unintentional homicide differ from country to country, as does the definition of attempted murder, the data presented are not comparable and are to be interpreted with caution.

⁽¹⁵⁴⁾ Van Kesteren, J., Mayhew, P. and Nieuwbeerta, P. (2001), Criminal victimisation in 17 industrialised countries: key findings from the 2000 international crime victims survey, Onderzoek en beleid series, No 187, Research and Documentation Centre (WODC) of the Dutch Ministry of Justice, Den Haag.

⁽¹⁵⁵⁾ Gender database on crime and violence statistics (accessible at <http://w3.unece.org/pxweb/DATABASE/STAT/30-GE/07-CV/07-CV.asp>).

Box 1.1 — International data on crimes referring to VAW

UNECE — UN Economic Commission for Europe

The statistical division database of the UNECE⁽¹⁵⁶⁾ provides sex-disaggregated data on sexual assault, including rape, attempted rape and indecent and sexual assault. The data are mainly from administrative data sources and refer to the number of victims of crime as reported by the police, i.e. crimes that are reported to, detected by, or otherwise drawn to the attention of the police. The data have recently been updated, including data for 2008 for most EU-27 and for the candidate countries of Croatia, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia and Turkey. Due to different legal definitions, the indicators presented are hardly comparable between the countries. UNECE is currently developing a common framework and methodology for surveying VAW in cooperation with national statistical institutions in European countries in order to improve comparability.

UNICRI — UN Interregional Crime and Justice Research Institute

UNICRI⁽¹⁵⁷⁾ has conducted the international crime victimisation survey (ICVS), a far-reaching programme of fully standardised sample surveys looking at households' experience of crime in different countries⁽¹⁵⁸⁾ (1989, 1992, 1996 and 2000). Two types of sexual incidents were measured: offensive sexual behaviour and sexual assault (i.e. incidents described as rape, attempted rape or indecent assault). The data on rape are those recorded in criminal police statistics (count and rate per 100 000).

European sourcebook of crime and criminal justice statistics

International data on rape (number of offences per 100 000, convicted persons, convicted in prison for rape, etc.) are also provided in the *European sourcebook of crime and criminal justice statistics*⁽¹⁵⁹⁾ covering the period 1995–2000. While attention has been dedicated to the presentation of comparable information, international comparison is, however, difficult because nations differ widely in the way they organise their police and court systems, the legal concepts, and the way data are collected and presented. In fact, the lack of uniform definitions of offences, of common measuring instruments and of common methodology makes comparisons between countries extremely hazardous.

⁽¹⁵⁶⁾ Gender database on crime and violence statistics (accessible at <http://w3.unece.org/pxweb/DATABASE/STAT/30-GE/07-CV/07-CV.asp>).

⁽¹⁵⁷⁾ <http://www.unicri.it>

⁽¹⁵⁸⁾ In the third edition of the sourcebook, data are available for the years 2000–03.

⁽¹⁵⁹⁾ Wetenschappelijk Onderzoek (2006), *European sourcebook of crime and criminal justice statistics — 2006, third edition*. Onderzoek en beleid series, No 241. Research and Documentation Centre (WODC) of the Dutch Ministry of Justice, Den Haag (http://www.europeansourcebook.org/esb3_Full.pdf).

Data on trafficking

Gathering statistics on the magnitude of the phenomenon of trafficking is a complex and difficult task and verified figures on victims identified and assisted are scarce in nearly all European countries. The available statistics may prove contradictory due to the covert nature of the crime (attributed to its illegal and clandestine nature), to inconsistent definitions of 'trafficking' at the national level, the invisibility of victims and high levels of under-reporting, etc. Generally there is an absence of systematic data collection, particularly data disaggregated by age, gender, nationality and forms of exploitation. Most data available are related to trafficking for sexual exploitation (of both women and girls), while only few data are available on trafficking of girls or for labour or other purposes.

National data on trafficking is provided by national criminal justice organisations (e.g. police, intelligence agencies, public prosecution departments, judicial branches) and other official national entities (such as on illegal border crossing and people smuggling). Currently, European countries are compiling data and information on trafficking in women and girls primarily from crime and judicial statistics, immigration records and victim support services (such as data on victims, investigations, prosecutions and convictions in cases of human trafficking). National information systems, observatories (Portugal) and databases (Belgium, Bulgaria and Lithuania) are available only in some countries and indicators on this issue are scarce⁽¹⁶⁰⁾.

⁽¹⁶⁰⁾ United Nations (2008), *Trafficking in women and girls*. Report of the Secretary-General. 4 August 2008. Document No A/63/215 (<http://www.unhcr.org/refworld/docid/48dcc8762.html>).

International data are collected by various international organisations, such as the European Union (e.g. Europol, Frontex and the European Commission), the Council of Europe⁽¹⁶¹⁾, the UN and its specialised agencies (such as the UNODC, UNHCR), the International Organisation for Migration

(IOM)⁽¹⁶²⁾, the Fundamental Rights Agency (FRA), the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), the International Police Organisation (Interpol), the International Labour Organisation (ILO), and the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC)⁽¹⁶³⁾ (see also Box 1.2).

Box 1.2 — Some international data collection projects on human trafficking

The **United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime** (UNODC) published (2009) the Global report on trafficking in persons, which includes data — provided by the national sources (such as reception centres, ministries of justice, social welfare systems and the police) — on the issue for all EU-27 countries, including sex-disaggregated data⁽¹⁶⁴⁾.

In November 2005, the **United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation** (Unesco) started the trafficking statistics project to collect available data, detect their sources and methodology, and evaluate their validity in order to provide information on the estimated numbers available⁽¹⁶⁵⁾.

The anti-trafficking projects of UNICRI are collecting and analysing data on trafficking patterns and modalities, routes and flows, and counter-trafficking measures⁽¹⁶⁶⁾.

The **Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights** (OHCHR) convened, together with the Unicef Innocenti Research Centre, three expert consultations on research methodologies on trafficking in persons⁽¹⁶⁷⁾.

The **International Organisation for Migration** (IOM) trafficking database includes information on the number of victims assisted, their country of origin, age, travel route, and the manner in which they were trafficked⁽¹⁶⁸⁾.

⁽¹⁶⁴⁾ United Nations (2009), Global report on trafficking in persons. Global initiative to fight human trafficking. Office on Drugs and Crime — UNODC (http://www.unodc.org/documents/Global_Report_on_TIP.pdf).

⁽¹⁶⁵⁾ Unesco trafficking statistics project (<http://www.unescobkk.org/culture/our-projects/cultural-diversity/trafficking-and-hiv-aids-project/projects/trafficking-statistics-project/>).

⁽¹⁶⁶⁾ <http://www.unicri.it>

⁽¹⁶⁷⁾ United Nations (2008), Trafficking in women and girls. Report of the Secretary-General. 4 August 2008. Document No A/63/215 (<http://www.unhcr.org/refworld/docid/48dcc8762.html>).

⁽¹⁶⁸⁾ IOM global human trafficking database — Counter Trafficking Division (http://www.iom.ch/jahia/webdav/shared/shared/mainsite/activities/ct/iom_ctm_database.pdf).

⁽¹⁶¹⁾ Europol's reports are based on information supplied by national law enforcement agencies in Member States, which, in turn, rely on local or regional law enforcement offices, which often give little priority to this issue and have scant resources for gathering data. Relatively few statistics on trafficking are produced by national police forces, thus restricting Europol's ability to produce internationally comparable statistics. See Laczko, F., Klekowski von Koppenfels, A., Barthel, J. (2002), Trafficking in women from central and eastern Europe: a review of statistical data. European Conference on Preventing and Combating Trafficking in Human Beings: Global Challenge for the 21st Century. 18–20 September 2002, Brussels (<http://www.belgium.iom.int/STOPConference/Conference%20Papers/Trafficking%20in%20Women%20from%20Central%20and%20Eastern%20Europe%20A%20Review%20of%20Statistical%20Data.pdf>).

⁽¹⁶²⁾ The International Office for Migration's (IOM) assisted voluntary return (AVR) programmes also collect data on women assisted in returning home.

⁽¹⁶³⁾ United Nations (2006), Trafficking in persons: global patterns. Office on Drugs and Crime— UNODC (http://www.unodc.org/pdf/traffickingin-persons_report_2006ver2.pdf).

Data on violence and harassment in the workplace

Violence and harassment in the workplace are new research subjects and so far there has been little experience in data-gathering, while measuring difficulties may also arise. The European working conditions

survey (European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions), conducted in 1995/96 and 2000⁽¹⁶⁹⁾, focuses on the extent and distribution of the problem rather than the individual characteristics of the victims or perpetrators. Several countries have promoted nationwide surveys in this respect.

Box 1.3 — Examples of national surveys on sexual harassment

In **Cyprus** the Research and Development Centre at Intercollege – University of Nicosia conducted a survey on sexual harassment in 1997⁽¹⁷⁰⁾. In 2007 the Equality Authority of the Office of the Commissioner for Administration in Cyprus, in cooperation with the Research Centre of the European University Cyprus, conducted another survey on this issue. The quantitative survey was conducted island-wide, among 650 working women and men aged 18–65 years and aimed to explore the attitudes of Cypriot society toward sexual harassment⁽¹⁷¹⁾.

In the **Czech Republic** in 2004 and 2005 the Institute of Sociology of the Czech Academy of Science conducted the project ‘Harassment and sexual harassment in working relations in the Czech Republic’, financed by the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs. It included a nationwide and representative survey (535 women and 490 men) on sexual harassment and two focus groups with trade union leaders and five in-depth interviews with victims of sexual harassment⁽¹⁷²⁾.

In **Greece** official data on the issue are lacking. However, according to the Mediterranean Institute of Gender Studies, 66.7 % of women have experienced some form of sexual harassment in the working environment at least once in their life, while only 1.6 % appealed to Greek justice⁽¹⁷³⁾. In a 2003 population survey (including 1 200 employed women aged 18 years and older) 10 % of the women mentioned having had personal experience of sexual harassment at the workplace at some stage of their lives⁽¹⁷⁴⁾.

Source: EGGSI network national reports, 2010.

⁽¹⁷⁰⁾ Pattihi, Anna (1997), Sexual harassment in the workplace in Cyprus. Intercollege Research and Development Centre, Nicosia.

⁽¹⁷¹⁾ European University Cyprus, Research Centre, 2007, Sexual harassment in the workplace, Nicosia, Cyprus.

⁽¹⁷²⁾ Křížková, A., Čermáková, M., Dudová R., Maříková H. and Uhde Z. (2005), Obtěžování žen a mužů a sexuální obtěžování v českém systému pracovních vztahů. Rozsah, formy, aktéři, řešení. Report for the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs (<http://www.vlada.cz/assets/clenove-vlady/ministri-pri-uradu-vlady/michael-kocab/rovne-prilezitosti-zen-a-muzu/dokumenty/obtezovani.pdf>).

⁽¹⁷³⁾ As cited in Euromed, Mediterranean Institute of Gender Studies (2008), Intercultural dialogue on violence against women, Greece (<http://www.med-instgenderstudies.org/>), pp. 32–33.

⁽¹⁷⁴⁾ Αρτινοπούλου Β., Παπαθεοδώρου Θ., 2006, ‘Η σεξουαλική παρενόχληση στην εργασία’, Αθήνα, Νομική Βιβλιοθήκη, σελ. 103–131.

Data on honour-based violence and forced marriage

Few data on honour-based violence and forced marriages are available at the national and international level, as data collection is extremely difficult. Until recently, few surveys on this issue had been carried out; most are small-scale studies which give information on single cases. None of the EU Member States has carried out a quantitative survey to determine the sociological realities of forced marriages. Some NGOs, such as the Red Cross or Terre des Femmes, provide a certain amount of data on forced marriage, but the data available are mostly indicative and do not give an adequate picture.

Data on services addressing women victims of violence

Most of the European countries do not collect nationwide data on shelters, hotlines and other types of assistance services, or indeed on the users. As a consequence, no official European-wide database is available either. Information on the numbers of shelters, crisis centres and hotlines is mostly collected by NGOs (see Box 1.4). Some international data are presented in the Council of Europe 2007 report on shelter places available, but data are available only until 2004 and are also based on different sources.

⁽¹⁶⁹⁾ <http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/ewco/surveys/index.htm>

Box 1.4 — Examples of data collections on services addressing women victims of violence

The **European Women’s Lobby** ⁽¹⁷⁵⁾, together with the European Observatory on Violence against Women based in Brussels, collects data and reports on the situation in 30 countries from the European Union and neighbouring countries as well as resources on violence against women. Since 2008, the EWL Centre on Violence against Women has been supported by the EU Daphne III programme.

The **Austrian non-governmental organisation WAVE** published a report (2008) ⁽¹⁷⁶⁾ on services (such as shelters and hotlines) available in European countries, together with qualitative and quantitative data on the incidence of violence. WAVE is coordinated by the Austrian Women’s Shelter Network, which is in charge of updating and maintaining the database. The data are collected by the 91 national and regional focal points in 44 European countries (including all EU-27). At the national level, the Association of Autonomous Austrian Women’s Shelters AÖF (Verein Autonome Österreichische Frauenhäuser), the umbrella organisation of women’s shelters in Austria, provides data on the number of women seeking shelter from domestic violence in one of the 26 women’s shelters associated in the AÖF, including the number of days spent in the shelter, the relationship to the perpetrator and some socio-demographic characteristics of victims and perpetrators (such as educational level and citizenship). At the regional level the Domestic Abuse Intervention Centre Vienna (Wiener Interventionsstelle gegen Gewalt in der Familie), operating since 1996, collects yearly data on services ⁽¹⁷⁷⁾. Also operating Daphne funding has been received by this network ⁽¹⁷⁸⁾.

In **Denmark** the national umbrella **organisation for the local crisis centres LOKK** — representing 40 crisis centres — collects data and publishes annually a statistical report on violence against women and children as reported by 36 shelters, also carrying out research projects. Comparable data are available for the last few years. The organisation receives 60 % of financial support from the Ministry of Social Affairs ⁽¹⁷⁹⁾.

Source: EGGSI network national reports, 2010.

⁽¹⁷⁵⁾ <http://www.ewlcentreonviolence.org/>

⁽¹⁷⁶⁾ WAVE (2009), Country report 2009 — Reality check on European services for women and children victims of violence. A right for protection and support?, Vienna (http://www.wave-network.org/images/doku/wave_countryreport_2009_1.pdf).

⁽¹⁷⁷⁾ Logar, R., Weiss, K. and Klein, S. (2008), Tätigkeitsbericht 2008, Wiener Interventionsstelle gegen Gewalt in der Familie, Wien (<http://www.interventionsstelle-wien.at/>).

⁽¹⁷⁸⁾ http://ec.europa.eu/justice_home/daphnetoolkit/html/organisations/dpt_org_at_1063_de.html

⁽¹⁷⁹⁾ <http://www.lokk.dk/>

1.1.2. Presentation of available data on the main types of violence grouped by context and groups of women mainly affected

The three most relevant definitions of violence, presented in the introduction (UN, Beijing and the Council of Europe), share the common frame of focusing on three main issues: the context in which the violence is perpetrated, the types of violence and the groups of women mainly affected. This section presents the main features and figures drawn from the available statistics and studies at the EU and national level discussing these elements. Studies and statistical data have been gathered to provide, where possible, an overview on prevalence, frequency and nature of the different forms of violence, and consequent types of injuries.

a. The context

Some forms of violence are perpetrated in a specific context, while others can be present in all of them. A very brief introduction on the relation between the forms of violence and their context enables a clearer comprehension of the phenomena.

The three main contexts analysed here are ⁽¹⁸⁰⁾:

1. the family or domestic unit,
2. the workplace,
3. the community.

Some of the previously mentioned forms of violence are perpetrated in a specific context, while others

⁽¹⁸⁰⁾ Violence condoned by the state is not the subject of this present report.

can be present in all of them. A very brief introduction on the relation between the forms of violence and their context enables a clearer comprehension of the main features of the forms of violence of which women across Europe are victims.

The family or domestic unit

The family or domestic unit is the most common context of violence for women. Violence against women within the family may occur throughout the life cycle, from violence before birth to violence against older women. There is no internationally agreed definition of domestic violence that addresses the issue in its entirety, but the three main definitions already cited in the introduction (Council of Europe recommendation, UN Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women and the Beijing Declaration) agree on the following: domestic violence is violence occurring in the family or domestic unit, including, inter alia, physical aggression/battering; mental, emotional and psychological aggression/abuse; rape and sexual abuse, rape between spouses, regular or occasional partners and cohabitants; traditional practices harmful to women (such as crimes committed in the name of honour, female genital and sexual mutilation, forced marriages, dowry-related violence).

Box 1.5 presents the situation experts have described in their EGGSI national reports: some focus on the dimension of the problem, others on specific local features.

According to the data available for the Czech Republic, Estonia, Germany, Greece, Hungary and Italy, the incidence of domestic violence ranges from 25 % in Germany (referring to women that have experienced physical or sexual violence, or both, inflicted by their current or previous partners)⁽¹⁸¹⁾ to 51 % in Estonia (referring to women aged 15–74 years that have experienced some kind of violence in their relationship)⁽¹⁸²⁾; in Hungary 28 % reported violent action in their present or previous relationship⁽¹⁸³⁾,

while in Italy 31.9 % of women between 16 and 70 years of age are estimated to be victims of physical or sexual violence during their lifetime⁽¹⁸⁴⁾; in the Czech Republic 37.7 % of women experienced violence from their partner at least once in their life⁽¹⁸⁵⁾. In Greece, according to a victimisation survey on 1 200 women (2002), 56 % often experience abusive behaviour from their husbands⁽¹⁸⁶⁾. These figures cannot be read in a comparative way, due to the inherent differences in the methodologies, definitions and reference years used, as already amply evidenced in other parts of the report.

Comparative figures are presented in the newest Eurobarometer survey by the European Commission on domestic violence against women (September 2010)⁽¹⁸⁷⁾: across the EU-27, 25 % of respondents say that they know a woman within their circle of friends and family who has been a victim of domestic violence. 'At the country level, a relatively high proportion of respondents reveal that they know a female victim of domestic violence within their circle of friends and family in Lithuania (48 %), Latvia (39 %), Estonia (39 %), Sweden (39 %), Finland (38 %) and the UK (38 %). The fewest people reporting victims within their family/friend circle are in Bulgaria (11 %), Italy (16 %), Germany (16 %), the Czech Republic (17 %) and Slovakia (17 %)⁽¹⁸⁸⁾.

⁽¹⁸¹⁾ Bundesministerium für Familie, Senioren, Frauen und Jugend (2004), *Lebenssituation, Sicherheit und Gesundheit von Frauen in Deutschland*, Berlin (<http://www.bmfsfj.de/Kategorien/Publikationen/Publikationen,did=20530.html>).

⁽¹⁸²⁾ Statistics Estonia (2010), *Statistical database: Social life: Justice and security: Intimate partner abuse*. (http://pub.stat.ee/px-web.2001/I_Databas/Social_Life/07JUSTICE_AND_SECURITY/07JUSTICE_AND_SECURITY.asp).

⁽¹⁸³⁾ Tóth, Olga (1999), *Erőszak a családban, TÁRKI, Társadalompolitikai Tanulmányok*.

⁽¹⁸⁴⁾ ISTAT (2007), *Violenza e maltrattamenti contro le donne dentro e fuori la famiglia*, Rome (http://www.istat.it/salastampa/comunicati/non_calendario/20070221_00/testointegrale.pdf).

⁽¹⁸⁵⁾ Pikálková, S. (ed.) (2004), *Mezinárodní výzkum násilí na ženách — Česká republika/2003: příspěvek k sociologickému zkoumání násilí v rodině. Sociologické studie 04:2*. Praha: Sociologický ústav AV ČR. (http://studie.soc.cas.cz/upl/texty/files/200_04-2%20opr%20zformatovany%20text%204%20pro%20tisk.pdf).

⁽¹⁸⁶⁾ Αρτινοπούλου Β. (2006), *Domestic violence against women*, Athens (Αρτινοπούλου Β. (2006), *Ενδοοικογενειακή κακοποίηση γυναικών*, Νομική Βιβλιοθήκη, Αθήνα), σελ. 97-148.

⁽¹⁸⁷⁾ European Commission (2010), 'Domestic violence against women' Special Eurobarometer 344, WAVE 73.2 (http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/archives/ebs/ebs_344_en.pdf).

⁽¹⁸⁸⁾ European Commission (2010), 'Domestic violence against women' Special Eurobarometer 344, WAVE 73.2 (http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/archives/ebs/ebs_344_en.pdf).

Box 1.5 — Main features and figures of domestic violence in some European countries ⁽¹⁸⁹⁾

Austria

Incidences of domestic violence can be obtained by the number of police interventions in private households when eviction and barring orders are issued on the basis of the Security Police Act: in 2007, 6 347 cases were reported by the police ⁽¹⁹⁰⁾. Two thirds of perpetrators were Austrian citizens, 27 %, non-EU citizens and 7.8 % EU citizens. In almost 80 % of the cases the male perpetrator was the husband, partner, ex-husband or ex-partner of the victim; 91 % of the victims were women, 60 % of which aged between 19 and 40 years old ⁽¹⁹¹⁾. Two thirds of the victims held Austrian citizenship, 20 % were citizens from non-EU countries and 12 % originated from EU Member States ⁽¹⁹²⁾.

Belgium

In 2006, guidelines from the Ministry of Justice made registration of family-related violence compulsory and dedicated a specific code for violence between partners ⁽¹⁹³⁾. Still only cases reported to the police are recorded. These data cover women and men victims of violence, even if the vast majority of victims are women and perpetrators are men. According to a survey ⁽¹⁹⁴⁾, in 20.9 % of the cases the perpetrator of sexual violence is the partner, in 11.1 % another family member, in 8.1 % the parents and in 1.7 % the brother or sister. In 24 % of the cases it is another known person, while in 26.6 % it is an unknown person.

Bulgaria

According to the national representative survey of the population carried out by National Centre for Public Opinion Research in 2003, 5.5 % of the respondents have experienced either physical, or, more often, psychological (12 %) abuse from their spouses/partners ⁽¹⁹⁵⁾.

Croatia

Family violence was included in the Penal Code ⁽¹⁹⁶⁾ only in 2000 and was defined for the first time as a misdemeanour offence in the Family Act from 1998 ⁽¹⁹⁷⁾. The data are scarce, and there are no data on different types of violence, or socioeconomic positions of women affected. According to the Family Act and Misdemeanour Act, 1 568 persons were condemned in 2001 and 9 121 in 2006. According to the Penal Code, 2 152 persons were accused of family violence from 2001 to 2006, and among them 97 % were men, and 3 % women. In her last available working report for 2008 ⁽¹⁹⁸⁾ the Gender Equality Ombudsman analysed in detail police statistical data on family violence. In 2008 the police received 16 885 requests for intervention in family violence cases: in order to protect victims, 6 706 persons were detained in custody.

Cyprus

According to the statistics of the Association for the Prevention and Handling of Violence in the Family, cases of violence in the family tripled over the years 2004–09 (from 397 cases in 2004 to 1 148 cases in 2009). The vast majority of victims in this period were women with 83 % in 2009 compared with 8.6 % men. Of these cases, 82 % were classified as involving psychological violence, 44 % physical violence, 0.7 % sexual violence ⁽¹⁹⁹⁾. The figures show an overlap in forms of violence, demonstrating that in many cases both physical and psychological violence were reported. This trend in forms

⁽¹⁸⁹⁾ No information provided for Luxembourg and Iceland.

⁽¹⁹⁰⁾ Wiener Interventionsstelle gegen Gewalt in der Familie (2009), Statistik 2008, Wien.

⁽¹⁹¹⁾ The Domestic Abuse Intervention Centre Vienna recorded socio-demographic details of 3019 victims of domestic violence.

⁽¹⁹²⁾ Wiener Interventionsstelle gegen Gewalt in der Familie (2009), Statistik 2008, Wien.

⁽¹⁹³⁾ These guidelines came into force in April 2006. See General Prosecutor (Col 4/2006)

⁽¹⁹⁴⁾ Bruynooghe, R., Noelanders, S. and Opdebeeck, S. (1998), Prevent, suffer and resort to violence, Limburg University Centre. Cited in: IEFH (2008), Violence: comment s'en sortir, IEFH (http://igvm-iefh.belgium.be/nl/binaries/VIOLENCE-FR-2008_tcm336-40125.pdf).

⁽¹⁹⁵⁾ OSI (2007), Violence against women: does the government care in Bulgaria? (country monitoring reports and fact sheets), Budapest, p.65 (<http://www.stopvaw.org>).

⁽¹⁹⁶⁾ Zakon o izmjenama i dopunama Kaznenog zakona (Law on Changes and Amendments of the Penal Code), Narodne novine 129/2000.

⁽¹⁹⁷⁾ Obiteljski zakon (Family Act), Narodne novine 162/98.

⁽¹⁹⁸⁾ Pravobraniteljica za ravnopravnost spolova (Gender Equality Ombudsman) (2009), Izvješće o radu za 2008. godinu [Working Report for 2008] (<http://www.prs.hr/docs/PRSizvjesce2008.pdf>).

⁽¹⁹⁹⁾ Association for the Prevention and Handling of Violence in the Family (<http://www.domviolence.org.cy>).

of violence remained more or less consistent over the period 2004–09. Criminal statistics collected by the police also show a general trend of increased reporting of violence in the family with reported cases almost doubling from 2002 to 2008 (538 and 959 cases respectively). Over this period the vast majority of cases involved physical violence (79 %), followed by psychological violence (18.5 %) and sexual violence (2.4 %). In terms of sexual violence, the fact that marital rape was recognised and penalised under the amended law on family violence in 2004 may have indirectly contributed to the increase in reported cases.

Czech Republic

According to the 'International violence against women survey' (IVAWS 2003) ⁽²⁰⁰⁾, the most general and alarming finding is that 58.9 % of Czech women experienced violence at least once in their life; 37.7 % of women experienced violence from their partner and 37.2 % of women experienced violence from somebody else outside the relationship. With regard to the types of violence, the violence outside a partner relationship is mainly sexual (for example, groping in 23.1 % or attempted sexual intercourse in 8.2 %). The violence where the perpetrator is the partner is mostly other types of physical violence or threats to use physical violence (in 23.5 % of the cases). Also forced sexual intercourse or rape is a type of violence more often experienced from the partner (in 7.1 %) than somebody else (3.5 %) ⁽²⁰¹⁾.

Denmark

Abuse is often committed by a current or former partner, but reporting of this depends very much on whether it is survey data, police records or data collected at crisis centres which attract women with a special social profile. The national self-administered surveys showed that, in around 28 000 of the cases of violence in 2005 (40 % of all cases), the abuser was reported to be a former or current male partner. Information from crisis centres, however, shows that among their clients, in 90 % of the cases, abuse was committed by a former or current partner. In cases reported to the police, only 20 % are defined as partner-related abuse. ⁽²⁰²⁾

Estonia

Violence against women in the domestic environment remains at a significant level in Estonian society. According to a recent study of the statistical office of Estonia, 51 % of women with an intimate relationship aged 15–74 years have experienced some kind of violence in their relationship ⁽²⁰³⁾; 37 % of women with relationship experience have been exposed to physical intimate partner abuse since age 15 (more than 192 000 women) and 41 % of women have experienced mental abuse from their partner, while 7 % of women (35 000 women) have experienced intimate partner sexual abuse. In the space of one year, 8 % of Estonian women with partnership experience had been exposed to some kind of violence at home — in total 44 000 women. In comparison, in terms of self-reported cases, only a small number of domestic violence incidents have been registered. Mental violence against women is slightly more prevalent in relationships than physical violence.

Finland

According to the national victimisation survey in 2006, 0.5 % of women and 0.2 % of men said they had been victims of physical violence by their partner during the past year ⁽²⁰⁴⁾. A specific survey on VAW (2006) gave a much larger number: 8 % of women had experienced violence by their partner during the past year. In 2005, one tenth of the women who had experienced violence in their partner setting had endured it for a long time; it had continued for at least seven years and the partner had still shown violent behaviour during the last year. Among women who had left their partners,

⁽²⁰⁰⁾ The International Violence Against Women Survey (IVAWS) is an international, comparative survey specifically designed to target men's violence against women, especially domestic violence and sexual assault. Participating countries include Argentina, Uruguay, Costa Rica, Trinidad & Tobago, Estonia, Serbia, Ukraine, Poland, Indonesia, Philippines, South Africa, Canada, Finland, Sweden, Denmark, Norway, Netherlands, Italy, Czech Republic, Spain, and Switzerland. See: UN division for the Advancement of women (2005), Violence against women: a statistical overview, challenges and gaps in data collection and methodology and approaches for overcoming them. Geneva. <http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/egm/vaw-stat-2005/docs/final-report-vaw-stats.pdf>

⁽²⁰¹⁾ Pikáľková, S. (ed.) (2004), Mezinárodní výzkum násilí na ženách — Česká republika/2003: příspěvek k sociologickému zkoumání násilí v rodině. Sociologické studie 04:2. Praha: Sociologický ústav AV ČR. (http://studie.soc.cas.cz/upl/texty/files/200_04-2%20opr%20zformatovany%20text%204%20pro%20tisk.pdf).

⁽²⁰²⁾ Helweg-Larsen, K., Frederiksen, M.L. (2007), Mænds vold mod kvinder. Omfang, karakter og indsats mod vold — 2007. Udgivet i et samarbejde mellem Statens Institut for Folkesundhed, Syddansk Universitet og Minister for Ligestilling. Odense SDU. (http://www.lige.dk/files/PDF/Vold/rapport_voldsdatabase_2007.pdf).

⁽²⁰³⁾ Statistics Estonia (2010), Statistical database: Social life: Justice and security: Intimate partner abuse. (http://pub.stat.ee/px-web.2001/I_Databas/Social_Life/07JUSTICE_AND_SECURITY/07JUSTICE_AND_SECURITY.asp).

⁽²⁰⁴⁾ Salmi, V., Lehti, M., Sirén, R., Kivivuori, J. and Aaltonen, M. (2009), Perheväkivalta Suomessa. Oikeuspoliittinen tutkimuslaitos, Verkkokatsauksia 12/2009 (<http://www.optula.om.fi/uploads/3ey309hz08t.pdf>).

somewhat less than a third continued to experience violence or disturbing behaviour after they had split up. Only 13 % of women who had experienced violence by their partner said they reported the most severe incident to the police, and another 3 % said the police found out even if they did not report the case themselves. Less than one in three (31 %) said they sought professional help⁽²⁰⁵⁾. In 2000, a survey conducted with clients of mother and child health clinics showed that one in five women had met with violence in their present partnership⁽²⁰⁶⁾.

France

According to the National Survey on Violence against Women (l'enquête nationale sur les Violences envers les femmes en France – Enveff)⁽²⁰⁷⁾, the national inquiry on violence against women in France, during the year 2000, among women that were or have been in a couple in the preceding 12 months, 1 out of 10 was or had been in a situation of conjugal violence. Among women who were with a partner at the moment of the interview, 9 % were concerned with violence: 2.3 % were in a 'very serious' situation (physical aggressions cumulating to psychological pressures, sometimes associated to sexual aggressions) while another 6.7 % were in a 'serious' situation (submitted to psychological pressure sometimes associated to sexual constraints).

Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia

The number of cases of domestic violence reported to the Centres for Social Work (CSW) operated by the Ministry of Labour and Social Policy, as presented in the national strategy for protection from domestic violence⁽²⁰⁸⁾, is 834 in 2005, 788 cases in 2006, and 674 cases in 2007. In addition, the strategy refers to research conducted by the Ministries' Department of Social Activities from 2005, which included 218 families some of whose members had been victims of domestic violence.

Germany

According to a representative survey with German women 'Lebenssituation, Sicherheit und Gesundheit von Frauen in Deutschland' (life situation, security and health of women in Germany)⁽²⁰⁹⁾ about 25 % of women living in Germany have experienced physical or sexual violence, or both, inflicted by their current or previous partners.

Greece

In a victimisation survey research conducted throughout Greece (2003) on a sample of 1 200 women, the perception of domestic violence by the victims themselves tends to be related to the physical and sexual forms of violence or abuse; 56 % of women often experience abusive behaviour from their husband/companion in the form of verbal or psychological violence, which they do not identify as exertion of violence. Only 3.6 % of the sample recognises that their husband or partner is abusing them physically while 3.5 % admit that they are forced to sexual intercourse much too often⁽²¹⁰⁾. Statistical analysis of available data collected by the General Secretariat of Equality, in 2002–03, shows that in a 10-month period 1 062 women victims of domestic violence had visited its agencies in Athens and Piraeus, while 2 452 women victims asked for help by telephone. Statistical evaluation of phone data (Line SOS) for 2005 indicates that denunciations amounted to 1 237 and concerned verbal violence (31 %), sexual abuse (3 %), financial violence (9.5 %), physical assault (28 %) and psychological domestic violence (28 %)⁽²¹¹⁾. Similar data are provided by EKKA (National Centre for Social Solidarity — a public agency), possessing helpline facilities⁽²¹²⁾ and the Women's Centre of Karditsa, a local government institution, provided with support facilities⁽²¹³⁾.

⁽²⁰⁵⁾ Kääriäinen, Juha (2006), Väkivalta ja apuun turvautuminen. In: Piispa, M., Heiskanen, M. Kääriäinen, J., Sirén, R (2005), Naisiin kohdistunut väkivalta. Oikeuspoliittisen tutkimuslaitoksen julkaisuja 225, Helsinki.

⁽²⁰⁶⁾ Perttu, Sirkka (2004), Naisiin kohdistuva parisuhdeväkivalta ja sen seulonta äitiys- ja lastenneuvoloissa. Sosiaali- ja terveysministeriö, Selvityksiä 2004:6, Helsinki (http://www.stm.fi/c/document_library/get_file?folderId=28707&name=DLFE-3609.pdf).

⁽²⁰⁷⁾ Jaspard, M. et l'équipe Enveff (2001), 'Nommer et compter les violences envers les femmes: une première enquête nationale en France', Populations & sociétés, No 364, January.

⁽²⁰⁸⁾ Ministry of Labour and Social Policy (2008), 'National strategy for protection from domestic violence 2008–11'. Malta (http://www.mtsp.gov.mk/WBStorage/Files/Strategija_nasilstvo.doc).

⁽²⁰⁹⁾ Bundesministerium für Familie, Senioren, Frauen und Jugend (2004), Lebenssituation, Sicherheit und Gesundheit von Frauen in Deutschland., Berlin (<http://www.bmfsfj.de/Kategorien/Publikationen/Publikationen,did=20530.html>).

⁽²¹⁰⁾ Artinopoulou, V. (2006), Domestic violence against women, Athens, Nomiki Vivliothiki (Αρτινοπούλου Β., 2006, 'Ενδοοικογενειακή κακοποίηση γυναικών', Αθήνα, Νομική Βιβλιοθήκη).

⁽²¹¹⁾ Artinopoulou, V. (2006) (full report available at www.enow.gr).

⁽²¹²⁾ Annual Report on the operations of the National Centre for Social Solidarity.

⁽²¹³⁾ Women's Centre of Karditsa, Report on activities, March 2010.

Hungary

There are no recent studies or official figures on the frequency and consequences of domestic violence. According to a sociological survey⁽²¹⁴⁾ conducted in 1998, every fourth woman (28 %) reported a violent action in her present or previous relationship. Although rape is a taboo issue, 8 % of the sample reported it in their intimate relations. It was particularly high (25 %) among divorced women. Only a small part of these cases are reported to the police, because of the shame and fear of the assaulted women. Many of the women (20 %) had experience from their own childhood of their father beating their mother⁽²¹⁵⁾. According to the national gender strategy, every fifth woman lives in an intimate relationship where she is assaulted on a regular basis⁽²¹⁶⁾. The last figure refers to physical injuries, but the proportion of women who suffer from psychological, mental injuries is considerably higher. The strategy also refers to the fact that domestic violence has a high incidence in Hungary, i.e. one woman per week, and one child per month die because of domestic violence (police registration). There are many other consequences of such violence, like suicide, serious wounding, lost working days, medical and psychiatric treatment, and mental problems. These altogether cause serious problems for thousands of endangered women and children living in an aggressive environment; 11 205 inquiries were conducted by the police in 2008. These cases represent only a small proportion of the whole population affected by domestic violence⁽²¹⁷⁾.

Ireland

The National Crime Council⁽²¹⁸⁾ (2005) found that about one in seven women have experienced severely abusive behaviour of a physical, sexual or emotional nature from a partner at some time in their lives. One woman in 11 has experienced severe physical abuse in a relationship. The survey estimates that 213 000 women in Ireland have been severely abused by a partner. Bradley et al. (2002)⁽²¹⁹⁾ found two out of five women who had been involved in a sexual relationship with a man experienced violence; 46 % reported being injured with 10 % reporting they had been punched in the face, 10 % punched or kicked in the body, arms and legs, and 9 % choked. A Rotunda Maternity Hospital 2000 survey found that, in a sample of 400 pregnant women, one in eight had experienced partner abuse while pregnant.

Italy

According to the ad hoc ISTAT survey on violence against women (2007)⁽²²⁰⁾ 31.9 % of women between 16 and 70 years of age are estimated as victims of physical or sexual violence during their lifetime; 14.3 % of women in a current relationship or in a previous one were victims of at least one episode of physical or sexual violence by their partner; considering only women with an ex-partner, the percentage rises to 17.3 %. While physical violence is more frequently perpetrated by partners (12 % against 9.8 % outside partner relations), 69.7 % of rapes are perpetrated by partners, 17.4 % by an acquaintance. Only in 6.2 % of the cases is the abuser an unknown person. The closer the relationship between perpetrator and victim the higher the risk of rape; 34.5 % of women reported having been victims of very serious violence: 21.3 % of women felt their lives to be in danger when the violence was perpetrated but only 18.2 % of them consider the domestic violence suffered a crime.

Latvia

Data collated by the Ministry of Health show that the number of domestic violence victims has been constantly growing year by year. In 2006, 252 victims of violence (girls and women) were registered; in 2007, 296; and in 2008, 315. The largest number of women victims of violence is in the 35–39 age group. Data concerning the relationship between the perpetrator and the victim in 2008 show that in the majority of cases it was the spouse or partner (in 279 cases or 60.8 %) who was violent towards the victim, while cases when parents had been violent against their children constituted the smallest number of cases (in 49 cases or 10.7 %); for other relatives the figures are 131 cases, or 28.5 %⁽²²¹⁾.

⁽²¹⁴⁾ Tóth, Olga (1999), *Erőszak a családban*, TÁRKI, Társadalompolitikai Tanulmányok.

⁽²¹⁵⁾ Tóth, Olga (1999), *Erőszak a családban*, TÁRKI, Társadalompolitikai Tanulmányok.

⁽²¹⁶⁾ Hungarian Gazette of the Government, 1004/2010 (I./21), Governmental decision on women and gender equality for enabling national strategies—Directions and goals 2010–21 (2010). Fifth year, No, p.6351 [A Kormány 1004/2010 (I./21) Korm. Határozata, a Nők és Férfiak Társadalmi Egyenlőségét Elősegítő Nemzeti Stratégia—Irányok és Célok 2010–21, Magyar Közlöny, 2010. évi 5. szám, p.6351].

⁽²¹⁷⁾ Latest data of the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, published on 9 September 2009 (<http://www.szmm.gov.hu>).

⁽²¹⁸⁾ National Crime Council/Economic and Social Research Institute (2005). Domestic abuse of women and men in Ireland. Report on the national study of domestic abuse in Ireland. ESRI.

⁽²¹⁹⁾ Bradley, F., Smith, M., Long, J and O'Dowd, T. (2002), 'Reported frequency of domestic violence: cross-sectional survey of women attending general practice', *BSJ*, February 2002.

⁽²²⁰⁾ ISTAT (2007), *Violenza e maltrattamenti contro le donne dentro e fuori la famiglia*, Rome (http://www.istat.it/salastampa/comunicati/non_calendario/20070221_00/testointegrale.pdf).

⁽²²¹⁾ The Ministry of Welfare of the Republic of Latvia, Report on situation of children in Latvia in year 2008 (2009), Riga (<http://polsis.mk.gov.lv/view.do?id=3226>).

Liechtenstein

Data from the police on domestic violence⁽²²²⁾ show that in 2008 there were 23 police interventions in cases of domestic violence. In seven cases (seven men), the police expelled the perpetrator from the home, and in two cases (two men), the perpetrator was prohibited from entering the abode. In the framework of the study 'Because walls cannot speak ... they protect perpetrators'⁽²²³⁾, 608 telephone interviews — with 304 women and 304 men — were conducted in the Austrian province of Vorarlberg, Liechtenstein, and the Swiss canton of Graubünden. 29 % of the Liechtenstein residents surveyed indicated that they had experienced violence once or more than once in their relationships.

Lithuania

Research results of the empirical survey carried out by Gunman and Palavinskiene⁽²²⁴⁾ (2002) indicated that 72.3 % of women usually suffer physical violence at home and from their spouses (39.5 %) and other family members (21.5 %).

Malta

The Malta police database for 2009⁽²²⁵⁾ provides a picture of victims of alleged domestic violence with 543 adults and 59 persons under the age of 18 years. Prevalent among both women and men as well as minors was slight bodily harm with physical force: 289 women and 80 men; 24 girls and 16 boys. The second largest number of victims of alleged domestic violence is found in the psychological harm category: 93 women and 20 men; six girls and four boys.

Netherlands

No current figures presenting a comprehensive overview of domestic violence are available⁽²²⁶⁾. The most recent representative study dates back to 1997⁽²²⁷⁾. Besides, the police and the child abuse reporting hotline and advice point (Advies en Meldpunt Kindermishandeling — AMK) annually publish systematically collected data on domestic violence. These data, however, pertain only to the reporting and registration of violence and not to its real nature and extent⁽²²⁸⁾. The results of a nationwide survey into the nature and extent of domestic violence are expected in 2010, including characteristics and care-seeking behaviour of perpetrators and victims. This survey is expected to clarify the domestic violence figures in the Netherlands⁽²²⁹⁾. As far as European comparative figures are concerned, the Netherlands is among the countries with high figures of reported and/or registered cases of domestic violence and violence in dependence situations. This reflects the high level of public awareness and the attention for and adequacy of infrastructures for notification and reporting.

Norway

The most common specific types of violence experienced by women from a partner as from the age of 15 are threats of violence (11.5 %), beating with a flat hand (17.5 %) and attempts at forced sex (9.0 %). The most severe types of partner violence were reported by 9.3 % of women with reference to violence or threats of violence in former or current relationships. Violence and threats during pregnancy were reported by 4 % of all women (interviewed in 2003/2004) participating to the nationwide survey (7 600 persons aged 20-54 years)⁽²³⁰⁾.

Poland

According to the Public Opinion Research Centre (CBOS)⁽²³¹⁾, women experience violence⁽²³²⁾ less frequently than men. In 2009, 18 % of adult women and 28 % of men declared experiencing it in the past. As the CBOS results show, violence

⁽²²²⁾ Liechtenstein national police statistics.

⁽²²³⁾ Geser-Engleitner, Erika (2003), Weil Wände nicht reden können ... schützen sie die Täter. Gewalt in Paarbeziehungen. Eine empirische Untersuchung in Vorarlberg (Österreich), Fürstentum Liechtenstein und Kanton Graubünden (Schweiz), Bregenz.

⁽²²⁴⁾ Gincman, J. and Palavinskiene, B. (2002), 'Violence against women and children in Lithuania'. Acta Medica Lithuanica. T. 9. No 2, pp. 113–119.

⁽²²⁵⁾ Malta police, police incident reporting system (PIRS). No information is provided on the different groups of women affected by domestic violence, for example migrants, disabled persons, prostitutes or trafficked women.

⁽²²⁶⁾ Lünemann, K., Goderie, M. and Tierolf, B. (2010), Geweld in afhankelijkheidsrelaties: Ontwikkelingen in vraag en aanbod van hulp en opvang. Utrecht: Verwey-Jonker Instituut.

⁽²²⁷⁾ Dijk, T. van, Flight, S., Oppenhuis, E., and Duesmann, B. (1997), Huiselijk geweld, Aard, omvang en hulpverlening. Hilversum: Intomart, Sociaal Wetenschappelijk Onderzoek. Van Dijk et al., 1997.

⁽²²⁸⁾ Lünemann, K., Goderie, M. and Tierolf, B. (2010), Geweld in afhankelijkheidsrelaties: Ontwikkelingen in vraag en aanbod van hulp en opvang. Utrecht: Verwey-Jonker Instituut.

⁽²²⁹⁾ Ministerie van Justitie [Ministry of Justice] (2008), Plan van aanpak Huiselijk geweld 'De volgende fase', Den Haag: Ministerie van Justitie.

⁽²³⁰⁾ Haaland, T., Clausen, S-E. and Skei, B. (2005), Vold i paforhold-ulike perspektiver. Resultat fra den første landsdekkende undersøkelsen i Norge, NIBR-Rapporter, 2005: 3 (<http://www.nibr.no/uploads/publications/8c7695745995ffcac1e73e454d17e63a.pdf>).

⁽²³¹⁾ Centrum Badania Opinii Społecznej, CBOS surveys (<http://www.cbos.com.pl> or <http://www.cbos.pl>).

⁽²³²⁾ Note a loose definition of violence in CBOS.

against women is predominantly a domestic phenomenon. This can be read from the information on the place of assault. Home is the only place where women are more often hit than men (2009: women 9 %, men 3 %). The opposite is true for restaurants, streets, schools, etc. Also, more women than men declare violation by their partner during a quarrel (2009: women 11 %, men 7 %; 2005: women 14 %, men 9 %). This also indicates the importance of domestic violence against women. Over time, the percentage of women experiencing physical violence from their spouse/partner has not changed dramatically.

Portugal

According to a survey (2003) (including 4 730 young adults), 30 % acknowledge having abused their partner, whether through physical (23 %), emotional (18 %) or severe physical abuse (3 %) ⁽²³³⁾.

Romania

A total of 12 461 cases ⁽²³⁴⁾ of family violence were officially registered in 2009, but the victim's sex was specified solely in 9 631 (77.28 %) of them. Women and girls add up to 4 000 cases in 2005 and to 6 804 in 2009. On average, they represent 70 % of total cases with known sex. About 60 % of registered abuses were inflicted on women within their couple relationships (marriage, cohabitation, engagement). A third of all female victims suffered abuses day after day ⁽²³⁵⁾. Surveys carried out in 2003 and 2004 found much higher rates of domestic violence. In the 2003 survey, self-reported victims who suffered at least one form of violence in the last 12 months represented 9 % of the adult female respondents. Subsequently, the estimated number of abused women reaches 800 000. Almost 18 % of them had such an experience during their life time ⁽²³⁶⁾. According to a 2004 study on reproductive health, the prevalence reaches 28 % among women in fertile age (15–45 years old) ⁽²³⁷⁾. Findings differ substantially between the two surveys due to their distinct methodological approaches (population covered, sampling technique and questionnaire design). In addition, the gap between official statistics and survey data shows that violence within the family remains hidden and under-reported for the most part.

Slovakia

At least one act of physical violence (excessive control, restriction of social contacts, isolation from friends and family, withholding access to information or support) had been experienced by 15 % of women on the part of their current partner and by 39.5 % of women on the part of their former partner. The frequency of physical aggression by an intimate partner was repeated in most of the cases. Beating with serious injuries by the current partner was experienced by 3.2 % of the women. During their life, sexual violence and rape were experienced by 9 % of women on the part of their current partner and 25.7 % of women on the part of their former partner and by 29.8 % of women in the case of non-partner. Psychological violence (including stalking, undignified behaviour, humiliation of the female partner, vulgar insults, incessant bans, orders) is the most frequent of all types of violence. During their life, 36 % of women experienced this by their current partner and 64.5 % by their former partner. Economic violence (withholding money, not sharing the household expenses, selling the things in the flat, denial of food) is experienced in their intimate relationship by 22 % of women with their current partner and 43 % of women with their former partner. Social violence (excessive control, restriction of social contacts, isolation from friends and family, withholding access to information or support) was experienced by 28.8 % of women by their current partner and 53.4 % by their former partner. In total, 21.2 % of Slovak women experienced violence perpetrated by their current partner. The prevalence on the part of the former partner is even higher ⁽²³⁸⁾.

Slovenia

In Slovenia, family violence against women and children used to be a hidden phenomenon, considered a private matter. However, feminist activists had already started to draw public attention to the problem of violence by the late 1980s. In 2008 according to national police data there were 5 064 cases of family violence ⁽²³⁹⁾, which is approximately the

⁽²³³⁾ Matos, M., Machado, C., Caridade, S. and Silva, J. (2006), *Prevenção da Violência Nas Relações De Namoro: Intervenção com Jovens em Contexto Escolar*. In *Psicologia: Teoria e Prática* 8(1): 55–75.

⁽²³⁴⁾ Victims of all ages and forms of violence.

⁽²³⁵⁾ <http://www.mmuncii.ro/pub/imagemanager/images/file/Statistica/Buletin%20statistic/2009/protectiafamiliei2009.pdf>

⁽²³⁶⁾ http://www.cpe.ro/romana/index.php?option=com_content&task=view&id=27&Itemid=48

⁽²³⁷⁾ <ftp://ftp.unfpa.ro/unfpa/SSRR2004.pdf>.

⁽²³⁸⁾ ILFR (2008), Bodnárová, Bernardína; Filadelfiová, Jarmila; Holubová, Barbora, Representative research on prevalence and experience of women with violence against women (VAW) in Slovakia.

⁽²³⁹⁾ Police report for the year 2008 (2009), Ljubljana: Ministry of Internal Affairs.

same as in the year 2007⁽²⁴⁰⁾. The victims of family violence are predominantly women (73 %). The non-governmental organisations estimate that violence is present in every fifth family in Slovenia, that every seventh woman has been raped and that only 5 % of women search for any kind of help⁽²⁴¹⁾. The number of recorded incidences of family violence has been growing over the last decade — from 1 502 in 2000, doubling up to 2006 (2 999 cases), and tripling up to 2008⁽²⁴²⁾. The rise in numbers does not necessarily mean increase in family violence in Slovenia: firstly, due to public awareness campaigns in the last decade it is more likely that people will report family violence; secondly, the laws on family violence are relatively new, and therefore are only recently being implemented in practice. This increases the likelihood of actions against perpetrators of family violence.

Spain

The evolution of violence against women in the domestic environment, as measured by the three macro-surveys carried out in 1999, 2002 and 2006, shows a falling tendency, both with respect to technical abuse⁽²⁴³⁾, which fell from 12.4 % to 9.6 % in the period 1999–2006, and to women who self-classified themselves as abused, which fell from 4.2 % to 3.6 % in the same period. The results point to a statistically significant increase in the proportion of women that reported abuse from their partner or ex-partner at some stage of their lives: whereas in 1999, 5.1 % of women reported having suffered abuse, the proportion increased to 6.2 % in 2002, and it was maintained almost constant in 2006 (6.3 %). The share of women having ‘come out’, that is, reporting having suffered abuse at some stage of their lives, but not within the last year, increased significantly, from 2.9 % in 2002 to 4.2 % in 2006. Analysis of the socioeconomic characteristics (education, income, ideological tendency, or religious belief) of abused women⁽²⁴⁴⁾ indicates that these are not decisive for a higher or lower incidence of abuse.

Sweden

Preliminary data for 2009 show that 95 women and 138 men were victims of lethal violence. In approximately 70 % of all cases, those involved were acquainted in one way or another⁽²⁴⁵⁾. Approximately half of the women victims to lethal violence are killed by a man involved in an intimate relationship with the victim at the time of the offence, or has been involved in such a relationship at some point prior to the offence, i.e. as current or former husband, common law husband, fiancé or boyfriend⁽²⁴⁶⁾. The motive is often linked to jealousy and/or separation.

Turkey

In November 2009, the Ministry of Justice stated that the number of women who had been murdered increased 1 400 % over the previous seven years, rising from 66 in 2002 to 953 in the first seven months of 2009⁽²⁴⁷⁾. The DGSW survey⁽²⁴⁸⁾, the largest Turkey-wide survey on violence against women, shows that 39 % of women interviewed had been exposed to physical violence by their husbands or partners at least once in their life; 15 % of married women reported that they had been exposed to one or more acts of sexual violence by their husbands/partners⁽²⁴⁹⁾. The Altınay-Arat research⁽²⁵⁰⁾, the second largest Turkey-wide survey on violence against women, found that the proportion of women who had ever been exposed to physical violence by their husbands was 35 %; 14 % of the women interviewed said they had been

⁽²⁴⁰⁾ Police report for the year 2008 (2009), Ljubljana: Ministry of Internal Affairs.

⁽²⁴¹⁾ Amnesty International (<http://www.amnesty.si/sl/%252Focp/pod-delov/swav>).

⁽²⁴²⁾ Ministry of Internal Affairs, Police (2009) (<http://www.policija.si/index.php/component/content/article/35-sporocila-za-javnost/1296-pri-reevanju-nasilja-v-druini-kljuno-sodelovanje-med-in>).

⁽²⁴³⁾ ‘Technical abused women’ refers to those who answer affirmatively to questions which imply that they are victims of psychological, physical, sexual, economical, structural or spiritual violence, even though these women do not consider themselves as abused.

⁽²⁴⁴⁾ In the macro-survey, the concept of ‘abused women’ is wide, including all the previous types of violence from a member of the family or/and from their partners or former partners who live in the same place or separately.

⁽²⁴⁵⁾ <http://www.bra/criminality/lethalviolence>

⁽²⁴⁶⁾ Ryding, M. (2001), English summary acts of lethal violence against women in intimate relationships. BRÅ-rapport 2001:11, Stockholm, Sweden (http://www.bra.se/extra/measurepoint/?module_instance=4name=04121011804.pdf&url=/dynamaster/file_archive/050118/f961c931eb3b6380729b7d7a53ce15/04121011804.pdf).

⁽²⁴⁷⁾ Kazete – Independent Women newspaper, (7 November 2009) : Femicide incidence increased 1400% in 7 years’ 7 yılda kadın cinayetleri% 1400 arttı’ www.kazete.com.tr/haber_detay.php?hid=3205

⁽²⁴⁸⁾ TR Prime Ministry Directorate-General on the Status of Women, Hacettepe University Institute of Population Studies, ICON-Institut Public Sector GmbH and BNB Consulting (2009), National research on domestic violence against women in Turkey 2008, Ankara (http://www.ksgm.gov.tr/tdvaw/doc/Main_report.pdf).

⁽²⁴⁹⁾ TR Prime Ministry Directorate-General on the Status of Women, Hacettepe University Institute of Population Studies, ICON-Institut Public Sector GmbH and BNB Consulting (2009), National research on domestic violence against Women in Turkey 2008, Ankara (http://www.ksgm.gov.tr/tdvaw/doc/Main_report.pdf).

⁽²⁵⁰⁾ Altınay, A. and Arat, Y. (2009), Violence against women in Turkey: a nationwide survey, Istanbul (http://www.kadinayoneliksiddet.org/KYS_ENG.pdf).

forced into sexual relations against their will at least once⁽²⁵¹⁾. Research carried out by the Ankara Medical Chamber in 2002 revealed that 58 % of women are subject to violence not only from their husbands, fiancés, boyfriends and brothers but also from their husband's family including female relatives.⁽²⁵²⁾ In 1995 the Foundation for Women's Solidarity carried out research among women living in slum areas of Ankara (the capital of Turkey) and found that 97 % of them had been exposed to physical violence by their husbands⁽²⁵³⁾.

United Kingdom

In the UK, three million women experience violence each year and many more live with the legacies of past abuse⁽²⁵⁴⁾. At least 750 000 children a year witness domestic violence⁽²⁵⁵⁾. More than one in four women in England and Wales has experienced at least one incident of domestic abuse since the age of 16. According to data on the prevalence of intimate violence since the age of 16, in 2008/09, 21 % of women had experienced non-sexual partner abuse; 9 % had experienced non-sexual family abuse; 19 % had experienced sexual assault; and 20 % had experienced stalking⁽²⁵⁶⁾. According to the British crime survey (BCS), 50 % of women had experienced multiple victimisation, that is, more than one type of intimate violence⁽²⁵⁷⁾.

Source: EGGSI network national reports, 2010.

⁽²⁵¹⁾ Altınay, A. and Arat, Y. (2009), Violence against women in Turkey: a nationwide survey, Istanbul (http://www.kadinayoneliksidet.org/KYS_ENG.pdf).

⁽²⁵²⁾ Cited in the Hürriyet newspaper's 'End domestic violence! campaign' website (<http://dosyalar.hurriyet.com.tr/aileici>).

⁽²⁵³⁾ Cited in the Hürriyet newspaper's 'End domestic violence! campaign' website (<http://dosyalar.hurriyet.com.tr/aileici>).

⁽²⁵⁴⁾ Coy, M., Kelly, L. and Foord, J. (2007), Map of the gaps: the postcode lottery of violence against women support services, End Violence Against Women and Equality and Human Rights Commission, London (http://www.endviolenceagainstwomen.org.uk/data/files/map_of_gaps.pdf).

⁽²⁵⁵⁾ HM Government (2009), Together we can end violence against women and girls: a strategy, Home Office, London (<http://www.homeoffice.gov.uk/documents/vawg-strategy-2009/end-violence-against-women2835.pdf?view=Binary>).

⁽²⁵⁶⁾ Smith, K. (ed.), Flatley, J. (ed.) et al. (2010), Homicides, firearm offences and intimate violence 2008/09, Home Office, London (<http://rds.homeoffice.gov.uk/rds/pdfs10/hosb0110.pdf>).

⁽²⁵⁷⁾ Finney, A. (2006), Domestic violence, sexual assault and stalking: findings from the 2004/05 British crime survey, Home Office, London (<http://www.homeoffice.gov.uk/rds/pdfs06/rdsolr1206.pdf>).

According to Unicef⁽²⁵⁸⁾ there is no single factor to account for domestic violence perpetrated against women: 'several complex and interconnected institutionalised social and cultural factors have kept women particularly

vulnerable to the violence directed at them, all of them manifestations of historically unequal power relations between men and women'. Table 1.1 summarises factors that perpetuate domestic violence.

⁽²⁵⁸⁾ Unicef (2000), 'Domestic violence against women and girls', Innocenti Digest, Vol. 6, June 2000, Innocenti Research Centre, Florence, Italy (http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/domesticviolencecampaign/Source/PDF_Innocenti_digest.pdf).

Table 1.1 – Factors that perpetuate domestic violence

Cultural
Gender-specific socialization
Cultural definitions of appropriate sex roles
Expectations of roles within relationships
Belief in the inherent superiority of males
Values that give men proprietary rights over women and girls
Notion of the family as the private sphere and under male control
Customs and marriage (bride price/dowry)
Acceptability of violence as a means to resolve conflict
Economic
Women's economic dependence on men
Limited access to cash and credit
Discriminatory laws regarding inheritance, property rights, use of communal lands, and maintenance after divorce of widowhood
Limited access to employment in formal and informal sectors
Limited access to education and training for women
Legal
Lesser legal status of women either by written law and/or by practice
Laws regarding divorce, child custody, maintenance of inheritance
Legal definition of rape and domestic abuse
Low levels of legal literacy among women
Insensitive treatment of women and girls by police and judiciary
Political
Under-representation of women in power, politics, the media and in the legal and medical professions
Domestic violence not taken seriously
Notions of family being private and beyond control of the state
Risk of challenge to status quo/religious laws
Limited organization of women as a political force
Limited participation of women in organized political system

Source: Heise, L. L., Pitanguy, J. and Germaine, A. (1994), Violence against women. The hidden health burden. Discussion Paper No 225, The World Bank.

According to the above-mentioned Eurobarometer on domestic violence against women (September 2010)⁽²⁵⁹⁾, among the 12 possible causes of domestic violence against women, alcoholism is the most frequently mentioned cause across the EU-27; 95 % of respondents see alcoholism as a cause of this kind of violence, followed closely by 92 % who regard drug addiction as a cause. The third and fourth most commonly cited causes of domestic violence against women across the EU are poverty or social exclusion (77 %) and unemployment (75 %). Pregnancy is quite often reported as a period activating violence.

⁽²⁵⁹⁾ European Commission (2010), 'Domestic violence against women'. Special Eurobarometer 344, WAVE 73.2 (http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/archives/ebs/ebs_344_en.pdf).

Analysing the mechanisms of domestic violence, the French national survey on violence against women (l'enquête nationale sur les violences envers les femmes en France – Enveff)⁽²⁶⁰⁾ survey shows that even though alcohol is relatively often present in violent situations, it is not necessarily its cause nor the origin of brutalities.

Children in most cases are the helpless witnesses: women who have witnessed or been victims of violence as children are three times more exposed than others to violence in the couple when

⁽²⁶⁰⁾ Jaspard, M. et l'équipe Enveff (2001), 'Nommer et compter les violences envers les femmes: une première enquête nationale en France', Populations & sociétés, No 364, January.

adults ⁽²⁶¹⁾. According to the Italian ISTAT survey on violence against women (2007), the share of men who use violence against their partners is 30 % among those who witnessed acts of violence perpetrated in their family of origin, 34.8 % among those who were victims of violence perpetrated by their father, 42.4 % among men who suffered violence perpetrated by their mother and 6 % among those who were not victims or did not witness acts of violence in their family of origin ⁽²⁶²⁾.

As the followings will also show, financial problems (job loss, low income or high debt — including high debt in high-income households) and related pressures and insecurities are also triggers for domestic violence.

The workplace

There are large country differences in violence occurring at the workplace. Country differences in the social and economic context, such as general levels of crime, economic and social change, the presence and, in some countries, growth of the informal economic sector, could have an impact on types and levels of violence ⁽²⁶³⁾.

The main types of violence, which will be analyzed in more detail under section b, occurring at the workplace may be categorized as follows:

- threats and insults or other forms of psychological aggression;
- abuse or intimidation which may include sexual or racial harassment;
- workplace bullying that can be defined, according to the European Agency for Safety and Health at Work ⁽²⁶⁴⁾, as: repeated, unreasonable behaviour

towards an employee, or group of employees creating a risk to health and safety, to victimising, humiliating, undermining security/confidence or threatening. Bullying often involves a misuse or abuse of power, where the targets can experience difficulties in defending themselves.

Some professions are specifically exposed, such as managerial and intellectual professions, intermediate professions and professionals in the medico-social sector (nurses, social workers) ⁽²⁶⁵⁾. For example in Denmark, the 2005 national survey showed that in 20 % of all the cases of violence (15 000 women) it was work related, committed by a colleague or another person at the workplace ⁽²⁶⁶⁾, while one in four Danish nurses were in 2004 exposed to violence or threats of violence ⁽²⁶⁷⁾.

An estimation of the incidence of workplace bullying by gender and occupational position is reported in the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions' survey 'Working conditions in the European Union: the gender perspective' ⁽²⁶⁸⁾. This report examines the extent of occupational segregation by gender and how it impacts on the quality of women's and men's working lives in 31 countries, including the 27 EU Member States. The survey asked respondents about their exposure to 12 social risks, including threats of physical violence from either people from the workplace or other people, bullying or harassment, unwanted sexual attention and age discrimination: as shown in Table 1.2, 'women are more likely to experience bullying or harassment, unwanted sexual attention and sexual discrimination. (...) The risk of violence from other people is particularly high for women in white-collar managerial and professional positions and for men in white-collar clerical roles. Similarly, the risks of sexual discrimination and unwanted sexual attention for women are higher in white-collar occupations, particularly in management' ⁽²⁶⁹⁾.

⁽²⁶¹⁾ Jaspard, M. et l'équipe Enveff (2001), 'Nommer et compter les violences envers les femmes: une première enquête nationale en France', *Populations & sociétés*, No 364, January.

⁽²⁶²⁾ ISTAT (2007), *Violenza e maltrattamenti contro le donne dentro e fuori la famiglia*, Rome (http://www.istat.it/salastampa/comunicati/non_calendario/20070221_00/testointegrale.pdf).

⁽²⁶³⁾ Di Martino, V., Hoel, H. and Cooper, C. L. (2003), *Preventing violence and harassment in the workplace*, European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions, Dublin (<http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/pubdocs/2002/109/en/1/ef02109en.pdf>).

⁽²⁶⁴⁾ European Agency for Safety and Health at Work (2003), *Gender issues in safety and health at work*, Luxembourg (<http://osha.europa.eu/en/publications/reports/209>).

⁽²⁶⁵⁾ Jaspard, M. et l'équipe Enveff (2001), 'Nommer et compter les violences envers les femmes: une première enquête nationale en France', *Populations & sociétés*, No 364, January.

⁽²⁶⁶⁾ Christiansen J. (2006), *Vold, intimidering, samt traumatiske oplevelser i arbejdet*. Delrapport 3. CASA, København. (www.casa-analyse.dk/files/rapport_vold_web.pdf).

⁽²⁶⁷⁾ Dansk sygeplejeråd, 2004

⁽²⁶⁸⁾ Burchell B., Fagan C., O'Brien C., Smith M. (2007), *Working conditions in the European Union: the gender perspective*, Dublin (<http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/publications/htmlfiles/ef07108.htm>).

⁽²⁶⁹⁾ Burchell, B., Fagan, C., O'Brien, C. and Smith, M. (2007), *Working conditions in the European Union: the gender perspective*, Dublin (<http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/publications/htmlfiles/ef07108.htm>).

Table 1.2 — Exposure to selected social risks, by sex, occupational category and working time status in % (of total workers), EU-27, 2005

	Physical violence from people in your workplace	Physical violence from other people	Bullying / harassment	Sexual or gender discrimination	Unwanted sexual attention
White-collar managerial workers					
Men	2	6	3	1	1
Women	1	7	6	3	6
White-collar professional workers					
Men	2	4	4	1	1
Women	3	5	7	2	3
White-collar clerical and service workers					
Men	2	8	6	1	1
Women	2	4	6	2	3
Blue-collar craft and related manual workers					
Men	1	2	3	0	0
Women	1	1	5	1	2
Blue-collar operating and labouring manual workers					
Men	2	5	5	0	0
Women	1	3	5	2	2

Source: Burchell, B., Fagan, C., O'Brien, C. and Smith, M. (2007), *Working conditions in the European Union: the gender perspective*, Dublin.

The community

Tradition-based violence is the most common form of community-based violence: its most widespread expressions in Europe are in the form of female genital mutilation, forced marriage or honour-related violence. The focus of this section is on female genital mutilation (FGM), the most striking of all. As stated by the European Parliament resolution of 24 March 2009 on combating female genital mutilation in the EU⁽²⁷⁰⁾, it is a 'violation of women's and girls' rights as enshrined in various international conventions, is prohibited under the criminal law of the Member States and in breach of the principles laid down in the Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union. (...) Any form of FGM, of whatever degree, is an act of violence against women which constitutes a violation of their fundamental rights, particularly the right to personal integrity and physical and mental health, and of their sexual and reproductive health; such violations can under no circumstances be justified by respect for cultural

traditions of various kinds or initiation ceremonies'. According to Amnesty International⁽²⁷¹⁾, FGM amounts to several human rights abuses, in particular of the right to health; freedom from discrimination on the basis of sex including violence against women; rights of the child; freedom from torture, cruel, inhuman and degrading treatments; and the right to life (when the procedure results in death).

According to estimates provided by the European Parliament⁽²⁷²⁾, 500 000 women and girls living in Europe have been subjected to FGM, and every year approximately 180 000 female emigrants in Europe undergo, or are in danger of undergoing, FGM. 'Violence against women, including FGM, derives from social structures based on inequality between the sexes and on a skewed balance of power, domination, and control in which social and family pressure leads to violation of a fundamental right, namely respect for the integrity of the human person.'

⁽²⁷⁰⁾ European Parliament resolution on combating female genital mutilation in the EU (2008/2071(INI)), 24 March 2009 (<http://www.europarl.europa.eu/sides/getDoc.do?pubRef=-//EP//TEXT+TA+P6-TA-2009-0161+0+DOC+XML+V0//EN>).

⁽²⁷¹⁾ Amnesty International (2009), Ending female genital mutilation. A strategy for the European Union institutions (http://www.endfgm.eu/content/assets/END_FGM_Final_Strategy.pdf).

⁽²⁷²⁾ European Parliament resolution on combating female genital mutilation in the EU (2008/2071(INI)), 24 March 2009 (<http://www.europarl.europa.eu/sides/getDoc.do?pubRef=-//EP//TEXT+TA+P6-TA-2009-0161+0+DOC+XML+V0//EN>).

Genital mutilation is a common tribal practice in many regions of Africa not connected to the Islamic faith per se. The Al-Azhar Supreme Council of Islamic Research, in November 2006, issued a statement saying that FGM and cutting are harmful, have no basis in core Islamic law and should not be practised,

as reported by Unicef⁽²⁷³⁾ and by the Director of the Al-Azhar University's International Islamic Centre for Population Studies and Research⁽²⁷⁴⁾.

Some examples by EGGSI experts show estimations on the dimension of the problem across Europe.⁽²⁷⁵⁾

Box 1.6 — Some figures from EGGSI reports on FGM and forced marriages

Austria

In Vienna around 160 cases — contacts involving counselling and accommodation for persons threatened or affected by forced marriage — were reported in 2008⁽²⁷⁶⁾.

Germany

The German Federal Bureau for Statistics and Terre des Femmes estimate that about 30 000 women and girls in Germany are victims of FGM or are threatened to become a victim of FGM⁽²⁷⁷⁾. The Centre for Family Planning and Sexuality sees about 6 000 girls every year in acute danger of being mutilated, while many girls are taken abroad for their maiming⁽²⁷⁸⁾. In a study of the Ministry of Family, Seniors, Women and the Youth (BMFSFJ)⁽²⁷⁹⁾ Turkish women were questioned about their marriage in order to find out the share of forced marriages. Half of the marriages were arranged by relatives; 25 % of the women concerned had not been asked for their opinion. Also one quarter of the married Turkish women did not know their husband before marriage; 75 % agreed with the choice of their relatives, 23 % would have preferred to choose their husband themselves and about 2 % gave no comment; 17 % said they felt that they were forced into marriage. A connection between forced marriage and later violence by the partner could not be proved.

Ireland

There are only preliminary estimates for FGM: 2 585 women as of April 2006⁽²⁸⁰⁾. There are no data on forced marriage⁽²⁸¹⁾.

Italy

Recent research⁽²⁸²⁾ presents some estimations. According to this around 35 000 women at present resident in Italy are estimated to have suffered genital mutilation before arriving or during their stay there; and around 1 000 young girls (under 17 years of age) are estimated to be potential victims of genital mutilation.

⁽²⁷⁶⁾ Stadt Wien (2008), Expert Conference on Forced Marriage, held in Vienna, 27 March 2008 (<http://www.wien.gv.at/menschen/frauen/pdf/konferenzband-zwangsheirat-englisch.pdf>).

⁽²⁷⁷⁾ Deutscher Bundestag, 16. Wahlperiode. Drucksache 16/9420: Wirksame Bekämpfung der Genitalverstümmelung von Mädchen und Frauen. 4.6.2008 (<http://dipbt.bundestag.de/dip21/btd/16/094/1609420.pdf>).

⁽²⁷⁸⁾ Kvinnoforum/Foundation of Women's Forum (2005), Honour-related violence, European resource book and good practice, based on the European project 'Prevention of violence against women and girls in patriarchal families', Stockholm (<http://www.iiav.nl/epublications/2005/hrv2005.pdf>), p.165.

⁽²⁷⁹⁾ Bundesministerium für Familie, Senioren, Frauen und Jugend, Berlin (2004), Lebenssituation, Sicherheit und Gesundheit von Frauen in Deutschland. Berlin (http://www.europarl.europa.eu/hearings/20050621/femm/schroettle2_de.pdf).

⁽²⁸⁰⁾ Ireland's 'National plan of action to address female genital mutilation' (<http://www.ifpa.ie/eng/Media/Files/Ireland%27s-National-Plan-of-Action-to-Address-FGM>).

⁽²⁸¹⁾ Women's Health Council (2009), Translating pain into action: a study of gender-based violence and minority ethnic women (http://www.whc.ie/documents/40_MEW_Full_Report.pdf).

⁽²⁸²⁾ Istituto Piepoli (2009), Valutazione quantitativa e qualitativa del fenomeno delle mutilazioni genitali in Italia, Milan (http://www.pariopportunita.gov.it/images/stories/documenti_vari/UserFiles/Il_Dipartimento/report_mgf_piepoli.pdf).

⁽²⁷³⁾ <http://www.un.org/apps/news/story.asp?NewsID=23125>

⁽²⁷⁴⁾ http://www.ipu.org/PDF/wop/25_en.pdf

⁽²⁷⁵⁾ Chapter 2 presents the national provisions in some European countries.

Netherlands

By estimation, each year some 50 girls are circumcised in the Netherlands⁽²⁸³⁾. A yearly structural budget of EUR 1 million is allocated to the fight against FGM and honour-related violence. FGM is mentioned in all definitions of the concept of violence against women.

Norway

A cautious estimate puts the number of women living in Norway who have been victims of FGM at about 10 000⁽²⁸⁴⁾. FGM is prohibited and punishable by law in Norway. As it is a hidden and sensitive problem, it is difficult to estimate its extent. The country has adopted a national action plan against FGM⁽²⁸⁵⁾, according to which the problem of FGM in Norway appears to be decreasing due to efficient information, counselling, extensive action plans and punishment by law⁽²⁸⁶⁾.

Romania

Arranged child marriages and groom kidnaps are established customs in some Roma communities. Traditionally, parents initiate this practice in order to preserve their daughters' virginity. In addition, poverty and marginalisation perpetuate such cultural patriarchal practices⁽²⁸⁷⁾. Premature marriages have negative consequences on Roma girls' health and educational prospects while enhancing their subordination to males.

Turkey

In Turkey the problem of customary/honour killings specifically became part of the public agenda starting in early 2000. Qualitative research was carried out in 2005 involving 195 interviews on perceptions of honour with lay people, NGO activists and professionals in the four cities that have the highest rates of honour killings across Turkey⁽²⁸⁸⁾. The interviews showed that there is a strong tendency among the respondents to relate the concept of honour with women's sexuality (chastity of all women, virginity of unmarried women and marital fidelity of married women) which entails men having control over the daily life activities of women (including work, education, choice of husband, decision about divorce, etc.) in order to defend the family, norms and traditions. According to the data provided by General Directorate of Security, between 2000 and 2005, 480 women were killed in 1 091 customary/honour killings that occurred within areas of police jurisdiction across Turkey. Most of the victims were women between 19 and 25 years old (20 % of the victims) and women between 26 and 30 years old (19 %) ⁽²⁸⁹⁾. In a survey conducted among 336 men and 94 women in the south-eastern region of Turkey, 37.4 % of the respondents stated that killing a wife who had committed adultery was justified⁽²⁹⁰⁾.

United Kingdom

In 2008 the UK's Forced Marriage Unit received 1 600 calls to its helpline on suspected incidences of forced marriage⁽²⁹¹⁾. An estimated 66 000 women in England and Wales in 2001 had been subject to genital mutilation, though the majority occurred in the country of origin. It is estimated that a further 20 000 girls are at risk⁽²⁹²⁾.

Source: EGGSI network national reports, 2010.

⁽²⁸³⁾ Website of the Ministry of Education, Culture and Science, 2010 (<http://www.minocw.nl>).

⁽²⁸⁴⁾ Vangen, S., Hoffman, R., Flo, K., Lorenzen, B. and Sand, S. (2006), Omskjæring av kvinner-komplikasjoner og behandling, Tidsskrift Norsk Legeforening, 126, 475–477.

⁽²⁸⁵⁾ Barn og likestillingsdepartementet. Handlingsplan mot kjønnslemlestelse 2008–11 (http://www.regjeringen.no/upload/BLD/Kjønnslemlestelse/Handlingsplan%20mot%20kjønnslemlestelse_net.pdf).

⁽²⁸⁶⁾ Lidén, H. and Betntzen, T. (2008), Kjønnslemlestelse i Norge, Oslo: Institutt for samfunnsforskning. Rapport 2008:8 (<http://www.regjeringen.no/upload/BLD/Kjønnslemlestelse/Kj%C3%B8nnslemlestelse%20i%20Norge%20-%20En%20kartlegging.pdf>).

⁽²⁸⁷⁾ <http://www.errc.org./cikk.php?cikk=2295>

⁽²⁸⁸⁾ Kardam, F. (2005), The dynamics of honour killings in Turkey: prospects for action. Population Association, United Nations Development programme, United Nations Population Fund, Ankara.

⁽²⁸⁹⁾ TR Prime Ministry Directorate-General on the Status of Women (2006), Töre ve Namus Cinayetleri İle Kadınlara ve Çocuklara Yönelik Şiddetin Sebeplerinin Araştırılarak Alınması Gereken Önlemlerin Belirlenmesi Amacıyla Kurulan TBMM Araştırma Komisyonu Raporu, Ankara.

⁽²⁹⁰⁾ Cited in Yakın Ertürk (5 January 2007), Report of the Special Rapporteur on violence against women, its causes and consequences: addendum, Mission to Turkey. United Nations Human Rights Council (http://www.wunrn.com/news/2007/12_07/12_17_07/121707_turkey_files/Turkey.pdf).

⁽²⁹¹⁾ HM Government (2009), Together we can end violence against women and girls: a strategy, Home Office, London.

⁽²⁹²⁾ Järvinen, J., Kall, A. and Miller, I. (2008), Hard knock life. Violence against women. New Philanthropy Capital, London (http://www.endviolenceagainst-women.org.uk/data/files/hard_knock_life.pdf).

b. Types of violence

Violence against women takes many different forms, manifested in a continuum of multiple, interrelated and sometimes recurring acts. It can include physical, sexual and psychological/emotional violence and economic abuse and exploitation. Forms and manifestations of violence against women vary depending on the specific social, economic, cultural and political setting ⁽²⁹³⁾.

Following the international and national definitions, the multifaceted forms of violence to which women are subjected have been grouped, for the purpose of the present analysis, in the following types: physical violence, sexual violence, sexual harassment, psychological/moral violence, stalking/persecution, economic violence, social violence/restriction of freedom, human trafficking.

According to the Eurobarometer survey on domestic violence against women (2010) ⁽²⁹⁴⁾, sexual and physical violence are seen as the most serious across the EU, with 85 % of respondents considering these forms of violence to be very serious; 71 % find psychological violence to be very serious, while 69 % say the same about restricted freedom and 64 % consider threats of violence to be very serious.

Physical violence

The context where women face physical violence most often is within the family. There are more research and data available on intimate partner violence and on some forms of harmful practices than on many other forms and manifestations of violence against women. Commonly identified forms of physical violence against women in the family include: battering and other forms of intimate partner violence and femicide. Women also face pervasive physical violence within the general community and the workplace, for example in terms of violence perpetrated against domestic workers. Physical violence in many cases is accompanied by sexual and psychological violence, and the three together can be daily features of women's experience. This section focuses mainly on femicide and physical abuse.

The most serious form of physical violence is femicide, which is the gender-based murder of a woman. Recent studies ⁽²⁹⁵⁾ on femicide have found that the characteristics of murders of women are very different from those of men and often involve domestic violence, extreme jealousy and possessiveness or passion, dowry disputes or issues of 'honour'.

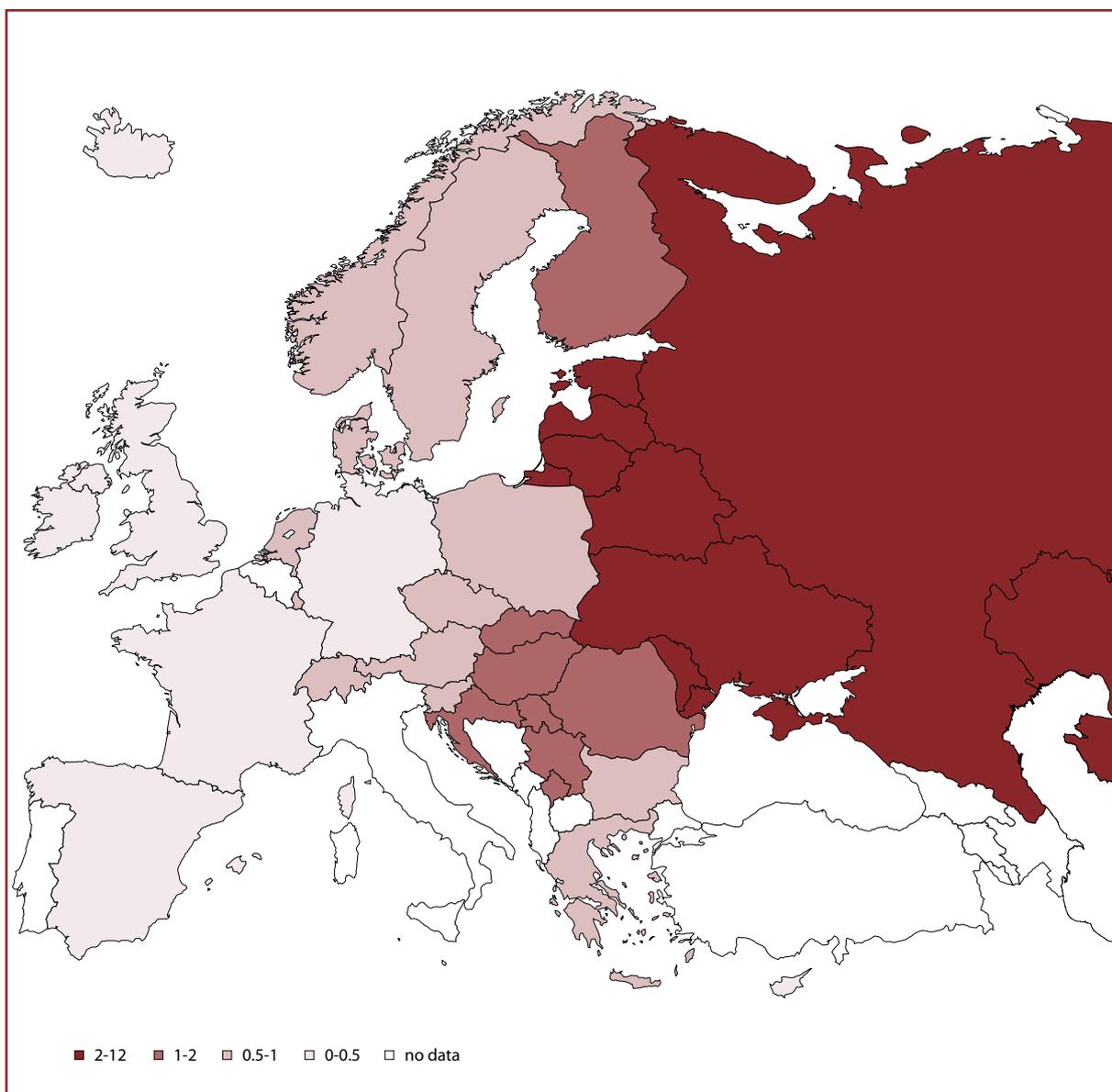
Figure 1.1 presents a clear picture of the European distribution of femicides for 2005, showing a relevant west-east gradient, with very low figures for Spain and a relevant increase moving towards eastern European countries.

⁽²⁹³⁾ United Nations (2006), In-depth study on all forms of violence against women — Report of the Secretary-General, 6 July 2006 (http://stopvaw.org/sites/3f6d15f4-c12d-4515-8544-26b7a3a5a41e/uploads/Sec_Gen_Study_VAW.pdf).

⁽²⁹⁴⁾ European Commission (2010), 'Domestic violence against women'. Special Eurobarometer 344, WAVE 73.2 (http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/archives/ebs/ebs_344_en.pdf).

⁽²⁹⁵⁾ United Nations (2006), In-depth study on all forms of violence against women — Report of the Secretary-General, 6 July 2006 (http://stopvaw.org/sites/3f6d15f4-c12d-4515-8544-26b7a3a5a41e/uploads/Sec_Gen_Study_VAW.pdf).

Figure 1.1 — Females, homicide and assault, per 100 000, 2005, standardised death rate ⁽²⁹⁶⁾



EU — 0.65

WHO European region — 3.08

Source: WHO/Europe, European mortality database (MDB), August 2009 (<http://data.euro.who.int/hfamdb/>).

Table 1.3 presents recent trends in terms of incidence of femicide in the population and absolute values. As can be seen, the Baltic countries (Latvia, Lithuania, Estonia) present figures three/four times higher than the rest of Europe. The EGGSI experts for these countries describe the phenomenon as in significant

decrease in the last few years, even though it remains seriously problematic. In all the three cases the number of homicides is lower among women than men. It has been described as a probable side effect of the economic and political transformation and the difficulties of adaptation faced by the people.

⁽²⁹⁶⁾ Age-standardised death rates (SDRs) are calculated using the direct method, i.e. they represent what the crude rate would have been if the population had the same age distribution as the European standard population.

Table 1.3 — Homicide and assault, females, standard death ratio per 100 000 and absolute value

Countries	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Absolute value (last available year)
Austria	0.79	0.62	0.82	0.6	0.54	24 (2008)
Belgium	1.55	84 (2004)
Bulgaria	1.11	0.89	0.86	43 (2006)
Croatia	1.43	1.03	1.25	...	0.89	23 (2008)
Cyprus	0.89	0.25	0.71	0.42	...	2 (2007)
Czech Republic	0.74	0.71	0.77	0.88	0.49	28 (2008)
Denmark	0.45	0.6	0.46	12 (2006)
Estonia	2.33	3.77	3.48	2.59	2.5	20 (2008)
Finland	1.12	1.15	1.07	1.54	1.53	40 (2008)
France	0.57	0.49	0.44	0.44	...	152 (2007)
Germany	0.58	0.5	0.52	229 (2006)
Greece	0.41	0.61	0.26	0.48	0.54	37 (2008)
Hungary	1.47	1.5	1.57	1.34	1.47	85 (2008)
Iceland	1.98	0	0	0	0.58	1 (2008)
Ireland	0.22	0.33	0.49	0.19	0.21	5 (2008)
Italy	0.46	0.43	...	141 (2007)
Latvia	5.95	4.95	4.32	3.39	...	46 (2007)
Lithuania	4.6	4.48	3.34	3.05	3.72	72 (2008)
Liechtenstein	—
Luxembourg	0.48	0.91	0.7	2 (2006)
Malta	1.79	0.47	0	0	0.47	1 (2008)
Netherlands	0.63	0.71	0.6	0.59	0.59	47 (2008)
Norway	0.62	0.52	1.08	0.66	...	16 (2007)
Poland	0.68	0.7	0.8	0.57	...	115 (2007)
Portugal	0.71	51 (2004)
Romania	1.85	1.38	1.27	1.2	1.45	175 (2008)
Slovakia	1.16	1.01	30 (2005)
Slovenia	1.14	0.83	0.33	0.75	...	9 (2007)
Spain	0.92	0.40	97 (2005)
Sweden	0.8	0.66	0.68	0.64	...	31 (2007)
Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	16 (2003)
Turkey	—
United Kingdom	0.2	0.2	0.19	0.25	...	78 (2007)

Source: WHO/Europe, European mortality database (MDB), August 2009 (<http://data.euro.who.int/hfamdb/>).

The available national statistical data show that female killings are relatively often committed by the partner or the ex-partner. As discussed above, extreme forms of gender-based violence that culminate in the murder

of women often take place in the domestic sphere, and can be considered a consequence of already existing violence. Some specific features of the phenomenon are described in the EGGSI national reports.

Box 1.7 — The phenomenon of femicide in some European countries

Finland

According to police statistics, 30 to 50 women die annually as victims of violence. In 2007, 42 women were killed, amounting to 36 % of all murdered victims. A large proportion of femicides are perpetrated by partners; in 2007 it came to 17 cases (40 %). More than half (60 %) of the female victims were killed in their own home⁽²⁹⁷⁾. Of all the killings in Finland, one in five is committed by men against their female partner and 4 % by women killing their male partner⁽²⁹⁸⁾. Female homicide victims are typically middle-aged; in the years 2003–07 the average age was 43 years. Unemployed women have a considerably higher risk of getting killed than employed women. Immigrant women have a higher risk than native women or immigrant men⁽²⁹⁹⁾. While killings of male victims typically take place in conflicts between marginalised alcoholic men, killings of female victims are more often related to problems in couple relation, or jealousy by the partner. Still, alcohol plays a part here too: of female victims killed in 2002–07, 40 % were categorised as alcoholics by the police. In 60 % of partner homicide, both the victim and the offender were drunk⁽³⁰⁰⁾.

Slovakia

Femicide comprises approximately 30 % of all homicides per year. Homicide as an escalation of partner violence is represented in 10 % to 20 % of the cases⁽³⁰¹⁾.

Sweden

Since 1990 each year an average of 90 persons have been killed with criminal, lethal violence. Of these, approximately one third (33) are women. Sixteen of these women are killed by a man who is involved in an intimate relationship with the victim at the time of the offence, or has been involved in such a relationship at some point prior to the offence, i.e. as current or former husband, common law husband, fiancé or boyfriend⁽³⁰²⁾. The motive is often linked to jealousy and/or separation. Lethal violence usually occurs in socially marginalised environments⁽³⁰³⁾.

Source: EGGSI network national reports, 2010.

⁽²⁹⁷⁾ Honkatukia, Päivi (2009), Naiset rikosten tekijöinä ja uhreina. In Rikollisuustilanne 2008. Rikollisuus ja seuraamusjärjestelmä tilastojen valossa. Oikeuspoliittisen tutkimuslaitoksen tutkimuksia 247, Helsinki.

⁽²⁹⁸⁾ Salmi, V., Lehti, M., Sirén, R., Kivivuori, J. and Aaltonen M. (2009), Perheväkivalta Suomessa. Oikeuspoliittinen tutkimuslaitos, Verkkokatsauksia 12/2009 (<http://www.optula.om.fi/uploads/3ey309hz08t.pdf>).

⁽²⁹⁹⁾ Lehti, Martti (2009), Naiset henkirikosten uhreina 2002–07. Oikeuspoliittinen tutkimuslaitos, verkkokatsauksia 11/2009 (<http://www.optula.om.fi/uploads/ut03717jh.pdf>).

⁽³⁰⁰⁾ Salmi, V., Lehti, M., Sirén, R., Kivivuori, J. and Aaltonen M. (2009), Perheväkivalta Suomessa. Oikeuspoliittinen tutkimuslaitos, Verkkokatsauksia 12/2009 (<http://www.optula.om.fi/uploads/3ey309hz08t.pdf>).

⁽³⁰¹⁾ Recorded homicides by the police force. Unpublished data from the Presidium of the Police Force, Ministry of Interior of Slovakia.

⁽³⁰²⁾ Ryding, M. (2001), English summary acts of lethal violence against women in intimate relationships. BRÅ-rapport11, Stockholm (http://www.bra.se/extra/measurepoint/?module_instance=4name=04121011804.pdf&url=/dynamaster/file_archive/050118/f961c931eb3b6380729b7d7a53ce15/04121011804.pdf).

⁽³⁰³⁾ [http://www.bra.se/criminality/letha violence](http://www.bra.se/criminality/letha%20violence)

Another form of physical violence is physical abuse, i.e. abuse involving contact intended to cause feelings of intimidation, pain, injury, or other physical suffering or bodily harm. It is in most of the cases accompanied by sexual and psychological violence, as appears in several EGGSI national reports.

Sexual violence

'Sexual violence includes abusive sexual contact, making a woman engage in a sexual act without her consent, and attempted or completed sex acts with a woman who is ill, disabled, under pressure or under the influence of alcohol

or other drugs'⁽³⁰⁴⁾. According to the United Nations definition, although women are more at risk of violence from their intimate partners than from other people, sexual violence by non-partners is common in many settings. 'Sexual violence by non-partners refers to violence by a relative, friend, acquaintance, neighbour, work colleague or stranger. Estimates of the prevalence of sexual violence by non-partners are difficult to establish, because in many societies, sexual violence remains an issue of deep shame for women and often for their families'⁽³⁰⁵⁾.

⁽³⁰⁴⁾ United Nations (2006), In-depth study on all forms of violence against women — Report of the Secretary-General, 6 July 2006 (http://stopvaw.org/sites/3f6d15f4-c12d-4515-8544-26b7a3a5a41e/uploads/Sec_Gen_Study_VAW.pdf).

⁽³⁰⁵⁾ United Nations (2006), In-depth study on all forms of violence against women — Report of the Secretary-General, 6 July 2006 (http://stopvaw.org/sites/3f6d15f4-c12d-4515-8544-26b7a3a5a41e/uploads/Sec_Gen_Study_VAW.pdf).

The most widespread form of sexual violence is rape. Any study on rape must begin from the recognition that most cases of rape are not reported; indeed, recent research suggests that rape is significantly more under-reported than domestic violence. Across-Europe estimates range from 1–12 % of rapes being reported to the police⁽³⁰⁶⁾. A significant barrier to reporting is women's lack of faith in the criminal justice system — police, prosecutors and the courts⁽³⁰⁷⁾. Other reasons for not reporting an assault to the police, as mentioned in EGGSI national reports, relate to the risk of secondary victimisation of women during the course of the investigation, especially if the violence occurs within the family; and to lack of confidence in the interest of the police in actually solving cases of this nature.

Tables 1.4 and 1.5 present data on rape with different sources from two different perspectives: Table 1.4 presents data on sexual assault (rape, attempted rape and indecent and sexual assault): the data are from national administrative sources compiled by UNECE. In this case the number of victims of crime refers to the number of those reported to the police or detected by the police. This table presents the number and proportion of women victims of sexual assault out of the total of victims in a given country. As can be seen, the percentage of women victims of sexual assault (referring to female and male victims) ranges from the 65.9 % in Slovakia to 100 % in Finland and the Netherlands. Here again the difference may be due to the national categorisation and to the form of registration adopted in each country.

Table 1.4 — Female victims of sexual assault, different years

	Total	% of women out of the total	Year
Austria	1 210	88.1	2008
Bulgaria	416	86.0	2008
Croatia	482	86.7	2008
Cyprus	56	87.5	2007
Czech Republic	1 148	91.2	2008
Denmark	2 020	91.0	2008
Finland	459	100	2001
Germany	13 106	94.3	2008
Hungary	537	84.3	2006
Ireland	810	74.4	2006
Latvia	92	98.9	2002
Lithuania	241	89.9	2008
Luxembourg	93	92.1	2006
Malta	91	85.0	2008
Netherlands	3 300	100	2007
Portugal	332	84.3	2005
Romania	663	90.9	2008
Slovakia	153	65.9	2008
Slovenia	217	86.8	2008
Spain	6 050	91.3	2006
Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	111	90.2	2006
Turkey	2 524	84.0	2008
United Kingdom	30 773	87.6	2001

Source: UNECE statistical division database on crime and violence, compiled from national official sources (<http://w3.unece.org/pxweb/DATABASE/STAT/30-GE/07-CV/07-CV.asp>).

Explanatory note: No data are available for Belgium, Croatia, Estonia, Greece, Iceland, Italy, Liechtenstein, Norway, Poland and Sweden.

⁽³⁰⁶⁾ Regan, Linda and Kelly, Liz (2001), Rape: the forgotten issue? — A European research and networking project. Child and Woman Abuse Studies Unit, University of North London, London.

⁽³⁰⁷⁾ Kelly, Liz (2000), A war of attrition: reviewing new research on rape, London.

Table 1.5 contains statistics reported to the United Nations in the context of its various surveys on crime levels and criminal justice trends and indicates incidents of victimisation reported to the authorities in any given country⁽³⁰⁸⁾. This table contains rates per 100 000 population⁽³⁰⁹⁾. The table clearly shows that the rate has very considerable variations across

Europe: it ranges from the 26.3 per 100 000 of Belgium (and 25.3 of Sweden) to the 2.3 per 100 000 of Turkey⁽³¹⁰⁾. However, these figures per se have limited relevance in terms of the incidence of the phenomenon: they only give some clue as to the level of awareness of the problem among the population and the different reporting attitudes in EU countries.

Table 1.5 — Total recorded cases of rape in criminal (police) statistics, including attempts to commit crimes, and rate per 100 000, 2004

	Recorded cases	Rate (per 100 000)
Austria (2002)	625	7.77
Belgium	2 723	26.29
Bulgaria	529	6.71
Croatia	165	3.66
Cyprus	41	5.08
Czech Republic	687	6.7
Denmark	562	10.45
Estonia	121	8.97
Finland	595	11.43
France	10 506	17.58
Germany	8 831	10.7
Hungary	267	2.62
Iceland	51	17.79
Ireland	446	11.34
Italy	3 734	6.45
Latvia	319	13.62
Lithuania	260	7.5
Luxembourg (2002)	39	8.78
Malta	13	3.28
Netherlands	1 800	11.2
Norway	739	16.23
Poland	2 176	5.64
Portugal	338	3.27
Romania	953	4.34
Slovakia	224	4.15
Slovenia	87	4.42
Sweden	2 261	25.31
Turkey	1 642	2.34
United Kingdom (2002)	13 395	22.62

Source for 2002 data: United Nations (2005), *Eighth United Nations survey of crime trends and operations of criminal justice systems* (<http://www.unodc.org/pdf/crime/eighthsurvey/8pv.pdf>).

Source for other data (2004): United Nations (2007), *Questionnaire for the ninth United Nations survey of crime trends and operations of criminal justice systems, covering the period 2003–04* (http://www.unodc.org/documents/data-and-analysis/CTS9_by_%20indicator.pdf).

⁽³⁰⁸⁾ In this case the statistics presented do not take into account the differences that exist between the legal definitions of offences in various countries, or the different methods of tallying, for example. Consequently, the values of the indicators must be interpreted with great caution. In particular, UN metadata specify that the use of the figures as a basis for comparison between different countries is highly problematic.

⁽³⁰⁹⁾ Rates are based on population estimates provided by the Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division, *World population prospects: the 2004 revision*.

⁽³¹⁰⁾ A recently carried-out project (financed by the Daphne programme) on reported rape cases in 11 European countries (Austria, Belgium, England and Wales, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Portugal, Scotland and Sweden) analyses the similarities and differences in attrition processes with varying juridical systems and socio-legal cultures. The research highlights different reporting rates per 100 000 in the countries considered, reaching from 46.5% in Sweden, 35% in Iceland and 26% in Scotland and England to low levels in the eastern and southern European countries. Source: Kelly, L. and Lovett, J. (April 2009), *Different systems, similar outcomes? Tracking attrition in reported rape cases in 11 countries*. Child and Women Abuse Studies Unit (http://ewlcentreonviolence.org/IMG/pdf/Summary_Findings.pdf).

Some specific features of the phenomenon can be derived from the EGGSI national reports, where local surveys are presented, pointing at the serious underestimation of official statistics on victimisation (see Box 1.8).

Box 1.8 — Sexual violence and rape incidences in some European countries

Cyprus

Rape and sexual violence are among the most seriously under-reported forms of violence. In 2008 the Mediterranean Institute of Gender Studies (MIGS) carried out a national study on date rape cases among young women, questioning 500 female students in tertiary education aged 18–24. The study revealed that 12.2 % of the women who answered the questionnaire claimed to have had an ‘unwanted sexual experience’. Of this number, the majority claimed to have given in to sexual acts due to overwhelming pressure by their partners and fear of their partners leaving them if they did not consent⁽³¹¹⁾. The inconsistency between the numbers of reported rapes and attempted rapes with ‘unwanted sexual experiences’ could be due to women not recognising rape as such: women still hold traditional beliefs that reinforce patriarchal attitudes toward them and sexuality. The focus group discussions confirm that gender stereotypes as well as societal expectations with regard to women’s and men’s behaviour (gender roles) can contribute to an atmosphere where date rape is possible and indeed acceptable⁽³¹²⁾.

Finland

43.5 % of women had at least once experienced a man’s physical or sexual violence or the threat of it after having reached 15 years of age⁽³¹³⁾. During the past 10 years, over 600 rapes have been reported to the police every year. In 2008, 915 cases were reported — 24 % more than the previous year. In about one in four cases the offender was not known to the victim, and in 13 % rape took place in a couple relationship⁽³¹⁴⁾.

France

11 % adult women have been exposed to sexual violence at some time during their life. Initially underlined by the national survey on violence against women (l’enquête nationale sur les violences envers les femmes en France – Enveff)⁽³¹⁵⁾ survey conducted in the year 2000, this figure is corroborated by the Life Events and Health survey (Événements de vie et santé, EVS survey)⁽³¹⁶⁾, which furthermore reveals the importance of the phenomenon for men as well: in 2005–06, 11 % women aged 18–75 and 3 % of their male counterparts declared that they had been victims of sexual violence during their life (and before the last 24 months). The “Living environment and security” survey (*Cadre de vie et sécurité*, CVS) also underlines the extent of rapes: 130 000 women aged 18–60 years suffered rape during the years 2005–06 (all the victims of rape were women).

Italy

Italy has only recently (2007) carried out an ad hoc survey entirely dedicated to physical and sexual violence against women. On the evidence of this survey, 6 743 000 women, between 16 and 70 years of age, had been victims of physical or sexual violence during their lifetime (31.9 % of women in the age group considered). In addition, it is to be borne in mind that the hidden part of such violence is very large because it is not generally reported to the police.

Among all the forms of sexual violence, the most widespread are physical harassment, that is to say undesired sexual contact (79.5 %), undesired sexual intercourse experienced as violence (19.0 %), attempted rape (14.0 %), rape (9.6 %) and degrading and humiliating sexual intercourse (6.1 %)⁽³¹⁷⁾.

⁽³¹¹⁾ ‘Date rape cases among young women and the development of good practices for support and prevention’, Cyprus national report, 2008.

⁽³¹²⁾ Mediterranean Institute for Gender Studies (2008), Date rape cases among young women. Strategies for support and prevention, Nicosia (http://epacvaw.org/IMG/pdf/MIGS_Date_Rape_Resource_Book_2008_1.pdf).

⁽³¹³⁾ Piispa, M., Heiskanen, M., Kääriäinen, J. and Sirén, R. (2005), Naisiin kohdistunut väkivalta. Oikeuspoliittisen tutkimuslaitoksen julkaisuja 225, Helsinki (<http://www.optula.om.fi/37928.htm>).

⁽³¹⁴⁾ Honkatukia, Päivi (2009), Naiset rikosten tekijöinä ja uhreina. In Rikollisuustilanne 2008. Rikollisuus ja seuraamusjärjestelmä tilastojen valossa. Oikeuspoliittisen tutkimuslaitoksen tutkimuksia 247, Helsinki.

⁽³¹⁵⁾ Jaspard, M. et l’équipe Enveff (2001), ‘Nommer et compter les violences envers les femmes: une première enquête nationale en France’, Populations & sociétés, No 364, January.

⁽³¹⁶⁾ The Life Events and Health survey (Événements de vie et santé, EVS) was carried out from November 2005 to February 2006, including 10,000 persons aged 18–75 years living in “households” (not included persons living in institutions), including men. Ministère de la Santé et des Sports (2007), ‘Les violences subies par les personnes âgées de 18 à 75 ans, Premiers résultats de l’enquête Événements de vie et santé (1/2)’. Etudes et résultats No 598 (<http://www.sante.gouv.fr/drees/etude-resultat/er598/er598.pdf>).

⁽³¹⁷⁾ ISTAT (2007), Violenza e maltrattamenti contro le donne dentro e fuori la famiglia, Rome (http://www.istat.it/salastampa/comunicati/non_calendario/20070221_00/testointegrale.pdf).

Ireland

Ireland has traditionally had the lowest conviction rate among countries providing data⁽³¹⁸⁾ ⁽³¹⁹⁾. In 2002, the *Sexual abuse and violence in Ireland (SAVI)* report highlighted that more than one in four female respondents had experienced some form of sexual abuse in their lifetime, and one in five women experienced sexual assault that involved physical contact as adults. The Central Statistics Office report an increase of over 4 % in sexual offences from 1 407 in 2008 to 1 464 in 2009. Rape of a male or female offences rose by over 10 %, from 342 to 377, in this 12-month period⁽³²⁰⁾.

Source: EGGSI network national reports, 2010.

⁽³¹⁸⁾ European Rape Crisis Centre Networks (2003).

⁽³¹⁹⁾ Kelly, L. and Regan, L. (1999), Rape: the forgotten issue? — A European research and networking project, supported by the European Commission Daphne programme, Project JA 1.1999/DAP/161/WC.

⁽³²⁰⁾ National Statistics Office Statutory (<http://www.cso.ie>).

The 2010 Eurobarometer survey⁽³²¹⁾ reveals broad differences at individual country level. 'In 11 Member States, at least nine out of 10 respondents consider sexual violence to be very serious. In Sweden 95 % think this, followed by the UK (94 %), France (94 %), and the Netherlands (93 %). But in nine Member States at least 20 % of respondents describe sexual violence as being only fairly serious, as opposed to very serious. These are: Lithuania (26 %), Portugal (26 %), Latvia (24 %), Poland (24 %), Slovenia (22 %), Romania (22 %), Estonia (21 %), Hungary (20 %) and Austria (20 %)'⁽³²²⁾.

A specific form of sexual violence is sexual harassment. 'The phenomenon of harassment and violence in the workplace is receiving increasing attention, especially in the context of women's raising rates of participation in the labour force and enhanced legal and regulatory provisions. European surveys have shown significant rates of sexual harassment in the workplace, with between 40 and 50 % of women in the European Union reporting some form of sexual harassment or unwanted sexual behaviour in the workplace'⁽³²³⁾.

According to the European Agency for Safety and Health at Work⁽³²⁴⁾, reporting on the third European survey on working conditions, sexual harassment had been experienced by 2 % of respondents in the previous 12 months. This figure is double in the Nordic countries, probably due to greater awareness. 'Women are subjected to these issues to a much greater extent than men (4 % compared with 2 %) and the rate is higher for temporary agency workers than for employed workers. European studies estimate that approximately 30 to 50 % of women have experienced some form of sexual harassment or unwanted sexual behaviour in the workplace compared with about 10 % of men. (...) Despite being commonplace, sexual offences at work go unreported in many cases due to factors such as fear of losing one's job, being considered the guilty party or being socially ostracised among work colleagues.'

Some EGGSI national reports, together with figures from local surveys and polls, show various situations where sexual harassment takes place.

⁽³²¹⁾ European Commission (2010), 'Domestic violence against women'. Special Eurobarometer 344, WAVE 73.2 (http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/archives/ebs/ebs_344_en.pdf).

⁽³²²⁾ European Commission (2010), 'Domestic violence against women'. Special Eurobarometer 344, WAVE 73.2 (http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/archives/ebs/ebs_344_en.pdf).

⁽³²³⁾ United Nations (2006), In-depth study on all forms of violence against women — Report of the Secretary-General, 6 July 2006 (http://stopvaw.org/sites/3f6d15f4-c12d-4515-8544-26b7a3a5a41e/uploads/Sec_Gen_Study_VAW.pdf).

⁽³²⁴⁾ European Agency for Safety and Health at Work (2003), Gender issues in safety and health at work, Luxembourg.

Box 1.9 — Some national examples of sexual harassment incidences

Croatia

Various different pieces of research, mainly carried out among university students, showed that sexual harassment is very widespread. According to one study, 36 % of female students at Zagreb University experienced different forms of sexual harassment⁽³²⁵⁾.

Cyprus

In 2006, the Cyprus Employers and Industrialists Federation (OEB) carried out a study on women's access to top management positions in banks and semi-state organisations out of a total sample of 1 407 female employees. Of all the respondents, 10 % of those working in banks had been subjected to indecent propositions while 15.72 % of women in semi-state organisations admitted that they had been victims of harassment in the workplace⁽³²⁶⁾.

Czech Republic

According to a representative national survey conducted in 2004, 13.2 % of Czech women and 3.9 % of men had personal experience of sexual harassment at work⁽³²⁷⁾. The respondents were not given any definition of sexual harassment and so the response is based on their own consideration of what it means. The research showed a still very high tolerance to forms of behaviour that could be considered sexual harassment by both men and women. However, the perpetrators are mostly male colleagues and colleagues in superior working positions.

Estonia

According to research from 2005, 11 % of working people had met with either physical or mental violence or been threatened with it in their workplace⁽³²⁸⁾. A more recent survey showed that almost 5 % of Estonian working people had experienced some kind of unwanted sexual attention from colleagues (22 %) or from clients (45 %) and that 5 % of people had been exposed to or threatened with physical violence at their workplace⁽³²⁹⁾.

Italy

The National Statistical Institute (ISTAT) has recently (September 2010) published a nationwide survey (2.6 million respondents)⁽³³⁰⁾ revealing that 12.6 % of sexual harassment occurs in the workplace. Considering all women in the labour force (either employed or looking for work), 8.9 % have suffered some form of harassment at the workplace, of which 35 % were of a sexual nature. The survey shows that (in the last three years) young women (14–34 years old) are especially at risk: 3.6 % of the 14–24 age group and 4.3 % of the 24–34 age group have suffered some form of physical or sexual violence. Interestingly, the incidence of sexual harassment is higher for women with higher educational levels (3.8 %)⁽³³¹⁾.

Source: EGGSI network national reports, 2010.

⁽³²⁵⁾ Ženska soba (2008), Seksualno nasilje: Situacija u Hrvatskoj 2007 [Sexual violence: situation in Croatia in 2007], document prepared by Maja Mamula. (http://zenskasoba.hr/docs/seksualno_nasilje_izvjestaj_2007.pdf).

⁽³²⁶⁾ OEB (2006), Women's access to top management in banks and semi-state organisations. (<http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/ewco/2006/05/CY06050191.htm>).

⁽³²⁷⁾ Křížková, A., Čermáková, M., Dudová, R., Maříková H. and Uhde Z. (2005), Obtěžování žen a mužů a sexuální obtěžování v českém systému pracovních vztahů. Rozsah, formy, aktéři, řešení. Report for the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs. (<http://www.vlada.cz/assets/clenove-vlady/ministri-pri-uradu-vlady/michael-kocab/rovne-prilezitosti-zen-a-muzu/dokumenty/obtezovani.pdf>).

⁽³²⁸⁾ Saar Poll (2005), Tööelu baromeeter 2005, OÜ Saar Poll, Tallinn. (http://www.sm.ee/fileadmin/meedia/Dokumentid/Toovaldkond/STAT_tooelu_baromeeter_2005.pdf).

⁽³²⁹⁾ Seppo, I., Järve, J., Kallaste, E., Kraut, L. and Voitka, M. (2010) Psühhosotsiaalsete riskide levik Eestis. CENTAR, Tallinn. (http://www.ti.ee/public/files/pdf_files/CENTAR_l6pparuanne.pdf).

⁽³³⁰⁾ ISTAT (2010), Le molestie sessuali, Anni 2008.2009. Statistiche in Breve, Rome. (http://www.istat.it/salastampa/comunicati/non_calendario/20100915_02/testointegrale20100915.pdf).

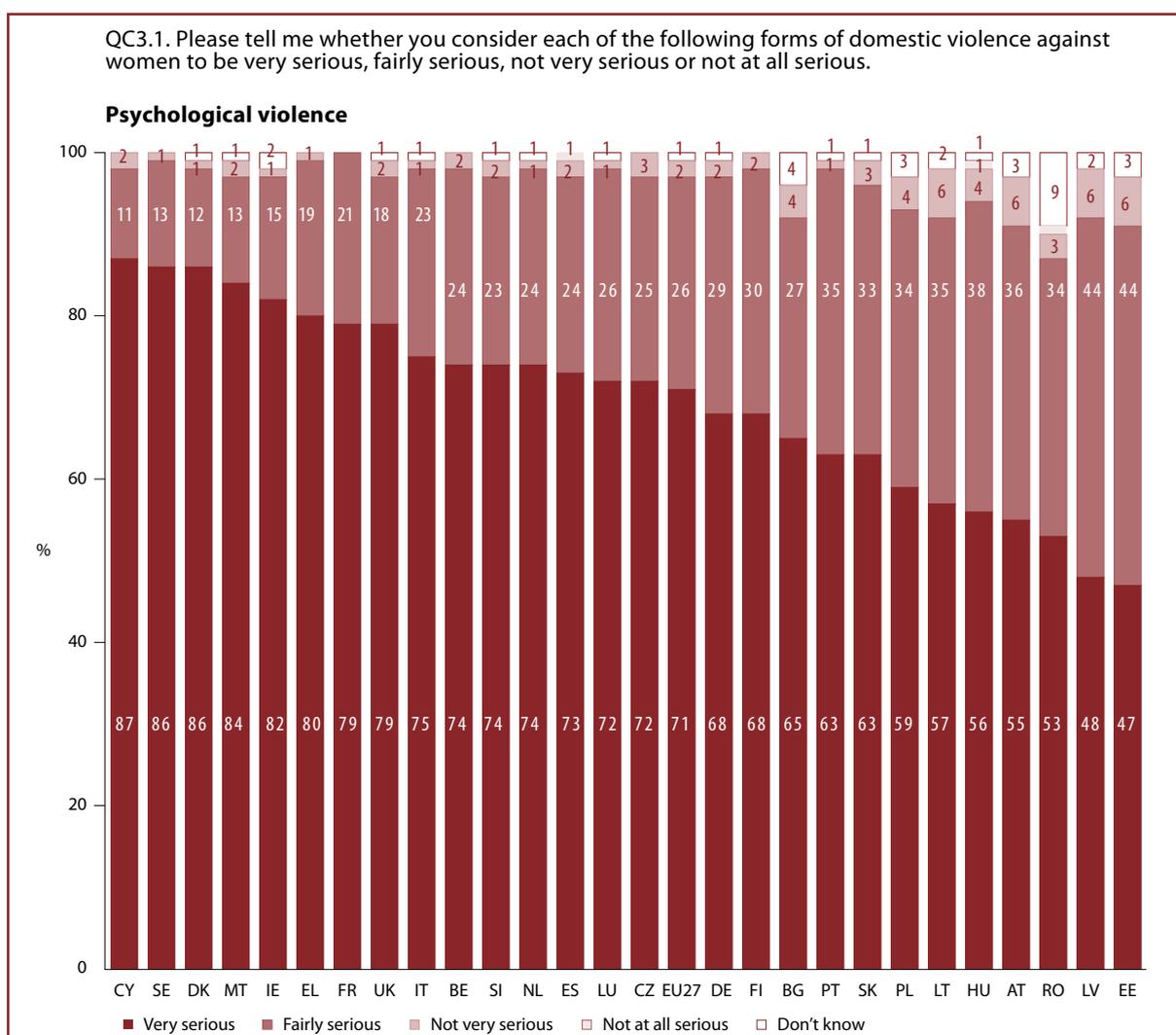
⁽³³¹⁾ ISTAT (2010), Le molestie sessuali, Anni 2008.2009. Statistiche in Breve, Rome. (http://www.istat.it/salastampa/comunicati/non_calendario/20100915_02/testointegrale20100915.pdf).

Psychological/moral violence

Every form of violence against women always means psychological violence against them, with significant and permanent consequences on their physical and mental health, and on their integration in society. According to the United Nations “Psychological violence includes controlling or isolating the woman, and humiliating or embarrassing her”.⁽³³²⁾ Psychological and moral violence can be perpetrated as a form of domestic, community and work-related violence.

Referring to the attitudes of European citizens on psychological violence, the Eurobarometer survey on violence against women (2010)⁽³³³⁾ reveals that there is a wide variation among individual Member States. ‘In some countries this form of violence is taken highly seriously, such as in Cyprus, where 87 % of respondents see it as being very serious, in Sweden (86 %), Denmark (86 %) and Malta (84 %). However, only 47 % of respondents in Estonia view this very seriously, as do 48 % in Latvia and 53 % in Romania. Indeed, in 10 Member States at least 30 % of people consider psychological violence to be only fairly serious.’

Figure 1.2 — Seriousness of domestic violence perceived in EU-27, 2010



Source: European Commission (2010), ‘Domestic violence against women’. Special Eurobarometer 344, WAVE 73.2 (http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/archives/ebs/ebs_344_en.pdf).

⁽³³²⁾ United Nations (2006), In-depth study on all forms of violence against women, Report of the Secretary-General, 6 July 2006. http://stopvaw.org/sites/3f6d15f4-c12d-4515-8544-26b7a3a5a41e/uploads/Sec_Gen_Study_VAW.pdf

⁽³³³⁾ European Commission (2010), ‘Domestic violence against women’. Special Eurobarometer 344, WAVE 73.2 (http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/archives/ebs/ebs_344_en.pdf).

Here we intend to concentrate on psychological violence in the workplace. Following the European Agency for Safety and Health at Work⁽³³⁴⁾ definition, 'Bullying, mobbing, and psychological or moral harassment are various terms used to describe intimidating behaviour between colleagues in the workplace. The third European survey on working conditions suggests that women are more likely to experience intimidation and bullying at work than men (10 % as opposed to 7 % reported experiencing it in the previous 12 months). These figures are a slight increase on the 1995 survey. There are wide differences between countries — ranging from 15 % of workers being subject to intimidation in Finland to 4 % in Portugal — which probably reflects awareness of the issue rather than reality'. Job segregation is regarded as one relevant reason for women overall being more exposed, as there appears to be a higher risk of bullying and intimidation in the female-dominated public sector compared with the private sector. 'Some surveys have shown that men are more likely to be the perpetrators of bullying, but that this is likely to be because they are more often in managerial positions'⁽³³⁵⁾. There is general agreement that factors giving rise to workplace bullying relate to workplace culture and work organisation issues⁽³³⁶⁾.

A specific form of psychological violence is stalking or persecution. In Europe some countries have only recently introduced a specific law on stalking (such as Austria, the Czech Republic, Italy and Liechtenstein). Also other countries (such as Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Ireland, Malta, the Netherlands and the UK) address stalking as one of the forms of violence in more general acts and laws on violence⁽³³⁷⁾. In Germany it is cited in the Protection against Violence Act, while in Greece, Iceland and Slovakia it is cited as a specific form of psychological

violence. The 2009 Italian Anti-Stalking Law⁽³³⁸⁾ makes a criminal offence, punishable with imprisonment ranging from six months up to four years, any 'continuative harassing, threatening or persecuting behaviour which: (1) causes a state of anxiety and fear in the victim(s), or; (2) ingenerates within the victim(s) a motivated fear for his/her own safety or for the safety of relatives or others associated with the victim him/herself by an affective relationship, or; (3), forces the victim(s) to change his/her living habits'. Some figures emerging from an Italian survey⁽³³⁹⁾ show that, among women who suffered stalking in 2006, in 68.5 % of the cases it was the partner who tried to talk to the woman in a nagging and obsessive way, against her will: 61.8 % repeatedly demanded an appointment to meet her, 57 % lay in wait for her outside home or at school or the workplace, 55.4 % sent messages, phone calls, e-mails, letters or undesired presents, 40.8 % followed her or spied on her and 11 % adopted other kinds of strategies. Almost 50 % of the women who were victims of physical or sexual violence from a previous partner had suffered stalking by the same partner, that is to say 937 000 women; 1 139 000 women, on the contrary, were victims of stalking alone, with neither physical nor sexual violence⁽³⁴⁰⁾.

Economic violence as a form of social violence and of restriction of freedom

According to the United Nations, 'economic violence includes denying a woman access to and control over basic resources'⁽³⁴¹⁾. The persistent economic inequality between women and men is given in several EGGSI national reports as the main reason at the basis of this form of violence.

- Economic violence within the family can occur, or might be aggravated, when women are financially dependent on their husbands/partners; moreover, women may find themselves in an extremely vulnerable economic situation after

⁽³³⁴⁾ European Agency for Safety and Health at Work (2003), Gender issues in safety and health at work, Luxembourg (<http://osha.europa.eu/en/publications/reports/209>).

⁽³³⁵⁾ European Agency for Safety and Health at Work (2003), Gender issues in safety and health at work, Luxembourg (<http://osha.europa.eu/en/publications/reports/209>).

⁽³³⁶⁾ European Agency for Safety and Health at Work (2003), Gender issues in safety and health at work, Luxembourg (<http://osha.europa.eu/en/publications/reports/209>).

⁽³³⁷⁾ University of Modena and Reggio Emilia (2007), Protecting women from the new crime of stalking: a comparison of legislative approaches within the European Union (http://stalking.medlegmo.unimo.it/RAPPORTO_versione_finale_011007.pdf).

⁽³³⁸⁾ Law Decree 23 February 2009, No 11, 'Misure urgenti in materia di sicurezza pubblica e di contrasto alla violenza sessuale, nonché in tema di atti persecutori' converted into law on 23 April 2009, No 38.

⁽³³⁹⁾ ISTAT (2006), Violence and abuses against women inside and outside family, Rome (<http://ewlcentreonviolence.org/spip.php?article130>).

⁽³⁴⁰⁾ ISTAT (2007), Violenza e maltrattamenti contro le donne dentro e fuori la famiglia, Rome (http://www.istat.it/salastampa/comunicati/non_calendario/20070221_00/testointegrale.pdf).

⁽³⁴¹⁾ <http://www.unece.org/stats/gender/publications/Multi-Country/Violence%20against%20Women.htm>

having experienced violence from their husbands/partners: as described in the Austrian EGGSI national report, those women are seriously threatened with poverty for a variety of reasons: (a) traumatisation and health problems since the violence experienced may lead to loss of job; (b) women economically dependent on their husbands/partners may lose sustenance of their livelihood; (c) the finalisation of a violent relationship in many cases implies becoming a lone parent, particularly exposed to poverty. Moreover, since migrant women's existence is often completely dependent on their husbands' status they are particularly likely to slide into poverty or to stay with their violent husbands after returning from the women's shelter. As described in the Polish EGGSI national report, women victims often choose to leave the house they share with a perpetrator and this inevitably leads to their material deprivation. Quite often, they flee with children, and this additionally deteriorates their economic situation. Moreover, women suffering domestic violence are often deprived by their partner of the source of income for everyday life: quite often, in fact, they need to cover all expenses for the children, while a partner/perpetrator keeps his income for his own⁽³⁴²⁾. According to the Slovakian EGGSI report, economic violence (withholding money, not sharing the household expenses, selling the things in the flat, and denial of food) is experienced in their intimate relationship by 22 % of women with their current partner and 43 % of women with their former partner⁽³⁴³⁾.

- Economic violence can also occur within the work context: the fear of dismissal in a difficult economic situation may force women to acquiesce to unacceptable working conditions or prevents them from reporting violence occurring within the workplace.

Human trafficking

Article 5(3) of the Charter of Fundamental Rights of the EU prohibits human trafficking in the context of that inviolable human dignity which is at the very core of national constitutions and international human rights instruments binding the Member States.

The Commission's communication (COM(2005) 514) on 'Fighting trafficking in human beings — an

⁽³⁴²⁾ See, for instance, Magdalena Dubrowska in the newspaper *Gazeta Wyborcza (Stołeczna)* of 4 March 2010.

⁽³⁴³⁾ ILFR (2008), Representative research on prevalence and experience of women with violence against women (VAW) in Slovakia.

integrated approach and proposals for an action plan' defines human trafficking as a serious crime against persons. It states that, even though it is not necessarily a gender-specific crime as men and, in particular, boys are also victims of sexual and labour exploitation, trafficking in women and girls especially for commercial sexual exploitation is, however, a wide reality. 'The promotion of non-discrimination including gender equality, the rights of children, indigenous people and minority groups is particularly relevant as many victims or potential victims of human trafficking are women, children and individuals belonging to ethnic and minority groups who may be subject to discrimination in their place of origin'⁽³⁴⁴⁾.

There is a close link between sexual exploitation and high levels of poverty and these situations almost always involve children and women⁽³⁴⁵⁾. A 2006 study for the European Commission⁽³⁴⁶⁾ showed that the phenomenon targets economically and socially deprived young women in particular. The women who are trafficked notably from and within central and eastern Europe are usually poorly educated, and many come from deprived regions with high levels of unemployment. Their common characteristic is the lack of family support and a dysfunctional family background where they had experienced domestic violence or their parents' divorce, or they had been rejected by parents or a boyfriend because they had become pregnant. Poor education, limited job employment prospects and the increases in unemployment are listed as the causes that make these women more open to persuasion to travel abroad on the promise of a better job. The Lithuanian EGGSI report evidences that women who are trafficked have a lower educational level than the national average for women; for example, 36 % had less than secondary-level education. More than 70 % of the victims of trafficking were in a very bad economic situation

⁽³⁴⁴⁾ European Commission (2005), 'Fighting trafficking in human beings— an integrated approach and proposals for an action plan'. Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament and the Council. COM(2005) 514 final (<http://www.oas.org/atip/Global%20Reports/European%20Union-%20Oct%202005.pdf>).

⁽³⁴⁵⁾ European Commission (2006), 'A roadmap for equality between women and men 2006–10'; European Commission Directorate-General for Employment, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities (http://europa.eu/legislation_summaries/employment_and_social_policy/equality_between_men_and_women/c10404_en.htm).

⁽³⁴⁶⁾ Fagan, C., Urwin, P. and Melling, K. (2006), Gender inequalities in the risks of poverty and social exclusion for disadvantaged groups in 30 European countries. Report prepared for the European Commission, Directorate-General for Employment, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities, Luxembourg (http://www.libertysecurity.org/IMG/pdf_Gender_inequalities.pdf).

prior to departure; half of them were unemployed, and only 14 % had temporary work; the rest had short-term contracts or were enrolled in education⁽³⁴⁷⁾. In Latvia there are no official data available on the number of victims of human trafficking, but it is to be noted that at the end of 2008 and in the first months of 2009 the state police observed an increase in the scale of human trafficking as, with the economic situation in the country deteriorating, increasingly more women started to engage in international prostitution⁽³⁴⁸⁾. According to the Romanian EGGSI report, the National Agency against Trafficking in Persons registered 421 trafficked women in 2009, representing 54 % of the total victims. The majority of these (72 %) were adults, predominantly poorly educated rural young women (18–25 years old). Sexual exploitation was forced on 63 % of the women while 26 % were forced to work in agriculture⁽³⁴⁹⁾.

Most of the European countries analysed by the United Nations Office on Drug Prevention (UNODC) *Global report on trafficking in persons* have a specific provision in their criminal code to combat trafficking in persons or at least some of its aspects. According to Europol⁽³⁵⁰⁾, the absence of any standardised guidelines for data collection at EU level accounts for the current ad hoc and fragmented approach taken by EU Member States. The result is that assessments of the level of trafficking throughout the EU are based on incomplete data or estimates. 'One estimate of the global and regional incidence of forced labour is provided by the International Labour Organisation (ILO) and gives an absolute minimum estimate of 12.3 million cases of forced labour worldwide. The same report provides an indication of the profits generated by trafficked forced labour which are estimated at [USD] 31.6 million per year. (...) It is highly lucrative and is present in some form or another in all 27 [Member States].'⁽³⁵¹⁾ On the evidence

of Europol, a concrete picture can be traced of the main characteristics of women victims of this crime.

- Most trafficked victims are women and children but men are now equally exploited in the area of labour exploitation.
- The most common form of trafficking is for sexual exploitation. Victims are moved in and around the EU, both across borders and internally, and are exploited in all environments.
- Most victims are young women, generally under 30 years old, from small towns and villages, with low levels of education or none; they are unemployed or have no permanent job, or are migrants in temporary employment.
- The women may be engaged in commercial sex work or in the entertainment and modelling industries.
- Normally they belong to socially vulnerable or marginal groups; the girls often come from at-risk families, such as families on low incomes, with problems of alcoholism, domestic violence, or other problems. They can also be single mothers with limited resources to support themselves or their families or mothers of large families. In many cases they belong to ethnic groups from the poorest countries.

1.1.3. Groups of women mainly affected

Even though violence against women unfortunately knows no geographical, cultural or ethnical barriers, several studies have demonstrated that specific groups of women are particularly affected: migrant and ethnic minority women, women asylum seekers, refugees, disabled women, women living in institutions, prostitutes, trafficked women, etc. According to the United Nations, 'factors such as women's race, ethnicity, caste, class, migrant or refugee status, age, religion, sexual orientation, marital status, disability or HIV affection will influence what forms of violence they suffer and how they experience it. In many societies, women belonging to particular ethnic or racial groups are likely to experience gender-based violence as well as violence based on their ethnic or racial identity'⁽³⁵²⁾.

⁽³⁴⁷⁾ Fagan, C., Urwin, P. and Melling, K. (2006), Gender inequalities in the risks of poverty and social exclusion for disadvantaged groups in thirty European countries. Report prepared for the European Commission, Directorate-General for Employment, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities, Luxembourg (http://www.libertysecurity.org/IMG/pdf_Gender_inequalities.pdf).

⁽³⁴⁸⁾ Office to Monitor and Combat Trafficking in Persons, Trafficking in persons interim assessment, report, 24 February 2010 (<http://www.state.gov/g/tip/rls/reports/2010/137250.htm>).

⁽³⁴⁹⁾ <http://anitp.mai.gov.ro/ro/docs/rapoarte/trafic%20de%femei%20iunie%202009.pdf>

⁽³⁵⁰⁾ Europol (2009), Trafficking in human beings in the European Union. A Europol perspective (http://www.europol.europa.eu/publications/Serious_Crime_Overviews/Trafficking%20in%20Human%20Beings%20June%202009.pdf).

⁽³⁵¹⁾ Europol (2009), Trafficking in human beings in the European Union. A Europol perspective (http://www.europol.europa.eu/publications/Serious_Crime_Overviews/Trafficking%20in%20Human%20Beings%20June%202009.pdf).

⁽³⁵²⁾ United Nations (2006), In-depth study on all forms of violence against women — Report of the Secretary-General, 6 July 2006 (<http://daccess-dds-ny.un.org/doc/UNDOC/GEN/N06/419/74/PDF/N0641974.pdf?OpenElement>).

This is the situation illustrated with some examples extracted from EGGSI national reports.

- **The multidimensional frailty of migrant women.**

Most EGGSI national reports reveal that migrant women and ethnic minority women, especially women from non-EU countries, are more exposed to violence than others, whether within or outside the household. They may be more subject to violence due to their community culture, or due to their particular frailty in terms of legal/economic position, but they can also be more exposed to violence exerted by native perpetrators.

- ♦ *Prevalence of violence against ethnic minority women.* In Denmark, police registrations show that every fourth victim of partner-related violence is a woman of ethnic minority background as compared with every 10th among women of ethnic Danish background, and surveys confirm this picture⁽³⁵³⁾. Much the same is observed in Sweden, where immigrant women tend to be particularly at risk due to factors such as poor command of Swedish and lack of awareness of the country's laws and regulations⁽³⁵⁴⁾. On the contrary, Norway's statistics⁽³⁵⁵⁾ generally show that ethnic minorities, both women and men, are not exposed to violence more than natives, although in situations of violence ethnic minority women seem to be in a more vulnerable situation than native women, which, for example, accounts for the increase in the use of shelter homes among ethnic minority women. It is interesting to note that in Norway one out of three residents (women) with minority backgrounds was exposed to violence from Norwegian men⁽³⁵⁶⁾. This is also the case in Denmark: among abused women of ethnic minority background hosted

in crises centres, every fourth perpetrator was a man of ethnic Danish background⁽³⁵⁷⁾.

- ♦ *Migrant women are the most represented in several women's shelters.* In Norway, statistics from women's shelter homes demonstrate that there has been a significant increase in the numbers of ethnic minority women among their beneficiaries: between 2001 and 2008 there was a 45 % decrease in native women, but a 73 % increase among ethnic minority women⁽³⁵⁸⁾. The presence of women with minority backgrounds among shelter residents is 10 times higher than among women of Norwegian origin⁽³⁵⁹⁾. The increase and over-representation of women with ethnic minority backgrounds in shelters seems to be related to fewer of them having their own income than their Norwegian counterparts and that more of them lack support from their networks when they want to withdraw from abusive relationships. The decline in the number of women's shelter users of Norwegian origin can be due to a general rise in the economic independence among Norwegian women, the fact that they have better knowledge of their rights, and that divorce has become more common and accepted⁽³⁶⁰⁾. In Belgium the number of women hosted in women's shelters from non-EU countries is growing, the majority being from Maghreb (Morocco, Tunisia and Algeria) and sub-Saharan countries⁽³⁶¹⁾. It is much the same in Finland, where the propor-

⁽³⁵³⁾ Helweg-Larsen, K. and Frederiksen, M. L. (2007), *Mænds vold mod kvinder. Omfang, karakter og indsats mod vold — 2007*, Udgivet i et samarbejde mellem Statens Institut for Folkesundhed, Syddansk Universitet og Minister for Ligestilling, Odense SDU (http://www.lige.dk/files/PDF/Vold/rapport_voldsdatabase_2007.pdf).

⁽³⁵⁴⁾ Ministry of Integration and Gender Equality (2007), 'Action plan for combating men's violence against women, violence and oppression in the name of honour and violence in same-sex relationships'. Government Offices of Sweden, Stockholm (<http://www.regeringen.se/sb/d/108/a/98653>).

⁽³⁵⁵⁾ Blom, S. AND Henriksen, K. (2008), *Levekår blant innvandrere i Norge, Oslo Kongsvinger Statistisk sentralbyrå, Rapporter 5/2008* (http://www.ssb.no/emner/00/02/rapp_200805/rapp_200805.pdf).

⁽³⁵⁶⁾ Jonassen and Skogøy (2010), *Et hjem for oss, et hjem for deg. En studie om endring i brukersammensetning og bruk i krisesentrene, Nasjonalt kunnskapssenter om vold og traumatisk stress, Rapport 1:2010.* (<http://www.nkvts.no/biblioteket/Publikasjoner/Ethjemforossethjemfordeg%5B1%5D.pdf>).

⁽³⁵⁷⁾ LOKK (2008) *Voksenstatistik 2007*. København (<http://www.lokk.dk/Billeder/publikationer/statistikker/Voksenstatistik2007.pdf>).

⁽³⁵⁸⁾ Jonassen and Skogøy (2010), *Et hjem for oss, et hjem for deg. En studie om endring i brukersammensetning og bruk i krisesentrene, Nasjonalt kunnskapssenter om vold og traumatisk stress, Rapport 1:2010* (<http://www.nkvts.no/biblioteket/Publikasjoner/Ethjemforossethjemfordeg.pdf>).

⁽³⁵⁹⁾ In 2007, shelter residents with minority backgrounds constituted 7.0 per 1000 of the immigrant population (women) in Norway, while residents of ethnic Norwegians constituted 0.7 per 1000 of the ethnic Norwegian female population. As a consequence, 63% of the shelter residents were ethnic minorities in 2009 and 60% of shelter residents had an ethnic minority background in 2008. See Jonassen and Skogøy (2010), *Et hjem for oss, et hjem for deg. En studie om endring i brukersammensetning og bruk i krisesentrene, Nasjonalt kunnskapssenter om vold og traumatisk stress, Rapport 1:2010* (<http://www.nkvts.no/biblioteket/Publikasjoner/Ethjemforossethjemfordeg%5B1%5D.pdf>).

⁽³⁶⁰⁾ Jonassen and Skogøy (2010), *Et hjem for oss, et hjem for deg. En studie om endring i brukersammensetning og bruk i krisesentrene, Nasjonalt kunnskapssenter om vold og traumatisk stress, Rapport 1:2010* (<http://www.nkvts.no/biblioteket/Publikasjoner/Ethjemforossethjemfordeg%5B1%5D.pdf>).

⁽³⁶¹⁾ Collectif contre les violences et les exclusions (2009), *Victimes de violences conjugales en situation précaire sur le territoire: une double violence*. Liège (<http://www.cvfe.be/doc/CVFE-EP2009-Etude-SophieKohler-Final.pdf>).

tion of immigrant women in shelters is high: for example, in the capital area, immigrants make up a third of all shelter clients, while only 4 % of the population are immigrants⁽³⁶²⁾. In Denmark, according to a national survey⁽³⁶³⁾, at the crisis centres around 50 % of users are women with ethnic minority backgrounds. In Ireland a study from 2007 highlights the vulnerability of the Traveller women, accounting for 37 % of shelter users⁽³⁶⁴⁾.

- ◆ Dependence on the husband's residence permit. Migrant women from non-EU countries depending on their husbands with regard to both residence permits and work permits are a particularly vulnerable group; they are often afraid to report domestic violence or file for divorce as they risk losing their residence permit for family members. A few examples: in Denmark women without Danish citizenship who experience violence may run the risk of being expelled from the country if they leave their partners or husbands. If the woman has a residence permit on the grounds of marriage and has lived in Denmark less than seven years, she cannot be sure of having her residence permit extended, despite a dispensation in the 1996 Act on Aliens for women who are victims of violence (§19, Article 8). If a woman can document the occurrence of violence, her connection to Denmark, and prove that it is dangerous for her to return to her country of origin, she may stay in Denmark. However, as an Amnesty International report from 2006 showed, from 1998 to 2004, only 103 of 253 women had their residence permits extended⁽³⁶⁵⁾. In Austria since 2005 women who have become victims of violence have the right to retain their current

residence status if an interim injunction has been issued or the husband convicted for violent acts against his wife had his residence permit suspended because of it. However, for this status to be extended, the woman has to meet strict requirements including a minimum income and evidence of accommodation in accordance with local custom (often unavailable due to their low income)⁽³⁶⁶⁾. In France foreign women married to French partners who came to France through family reunification risk losing their residence permit in the case of family break-up. It is also particularly worrying in the case of foreigners staying in France illegally. Many of them are poorly informed about their rights or do not dare to complain because they fear being expelled from France⁽³⁶⁷⁾. In Iceland in June 2008 a change in legislation was passed addressing the situation of women who had to divorce being victims themselves and/or their children of abuse or violence in the relationship. According to this legislation these women are now allowed to renew their residence permits⁽³⁶⁸⁾: however, women trying to make use of this provision have their applications yet to be processed. The burden of proof turns out to be difficult, in particular in the case of foreigners lacking knowledge of their rights or the procedures by which to pursue them⁽³⁶⁹⁾. Slovenian legislation (Aliens Act 2009⁽³⁷⁰⁾) recognises the specific vulnerability of victims of violence. If a woman is a foreigner from a third country and married to a European Union or Slovenian citizen, her residence permit is also valid after the divorce in certain cases, one being if she has been a victim of family violence. However, she has to have sufficient funds for self-subsistence and health insurance.

⁽³⁶²⁾ Korhonen, K. AND Ellonen, N. (2007), Maahanmuuttajanaiset väkivallan uhrina. Poliisiammattikorkeakoulun tiedotteita 60/2007, Helsinki ([http://www.poliisiammattikorkeakoulu.fi/poliisi/poliisioppilaitos/home.nsf/files/maahanmuuttajanaiset%20väkivallan/\\$file/maahanmuuttajanaiset%20väkivallan.pdf](http://www.poliisiammattikorkeakoulu.fi/poliisi/poliisioppilaitos/home.nsf/files/maahanmuuttajanaiset%20väkivallan/$file/maahanmuuttajanaiset%20väkivallan.pdf)).

⁽³⁶³⁾ Helweg-Larsen, K. AND Frederiksen, M. L. (2007), Mænds vold mod kvinder. Omfang, karakter og indsats mod vold — 2007. Udgivet i et samarbejde mellem Statens Institut for Folkesundhed, Syddansk Universitet og Minister for Ligestilling. Odense SDU (http://www.lige.dk/files/PDF/Vold/rapport_voldsdatabase_2007.pdf).

⁽³⁶⁴⁾ O'Connor et al. (2007), Housing policy and practice for women experiencing domestic violence. A report to the Eastern Regional Planning Committee on Violence against Women incorporating a survey of the six local authorities in the region (http://www.epacvaw.org/IMG/pdf/M._O_Connor_Housing_Policy_practice_women_2006.pdf).

⁽³⁶⁵⁾ Amnesty International (2006), Valget mellem vold og udvisning—dilemmaet for voldsramte familiesammenførte kvinder i Danmark. København (http://www.joan-soestrene.dk/pdf/amnesty_vold_eller_udvisning_2006.pdf).

⁽³⁶⁶⁾ Minister for Women and Civil Service (2008), Ten years of Austrian anti-violence legislation, documentation of the International Conference in the Context of the Council of Europe Campaign to Combat Violence Against Women, including Domestic Violence, 5–7 November 2007, Vienna and St Pölten (<http://www.frauen.bka.gv.at/DocView.axd?CobId=34228>).

⁽³⁶⁷⁾ Andro, A., Lesclingand, M., Cambois, E. and Cirbeau, C. (2009), Excision et handicap: mesure des lésions et traumatismes et évaluation des besoins en chirurgie réparatrice, Rapport final, Université Paris 1 et INED.

⁽³⁶⁸⁾ Act No 86/2008, a change on Act No 96/2002 on foreigners.

⁽³⁶⁹⁾ Hildur Guðmundsdóttir (2009), I don't know how I ended up here with this man: Rannsókn á aðstæðum og upplifun kvenna af erlendum upruna sem leita í Kvennaathvarfið (Research into conditions and experiences of women of foreign origin who turned to the Women's Shelter in Reykjavik). Samtök um Kvennaathvarf, október 2009. Reykjavik.

⁽³⁷⁰⁾ Aliens Act 2009. Zakon o tujcih. Official Gazette 64/2009 (available at: http://zakonodaja.gov.si/rpsi/r09/predpis_ZAKO1479.html).

- ♦ *Violence in specific communities.* As noted in the Bulgarian EGGSI report, groups of women at risk of tradition-based violence have been identified in Bulgaria among some Roma communities, Turkish communities, refugee and immigrant communities and some remote deeply patriarchal communities. Similarly, in Slovakia the cases of battered women are mostly in villages with fewer than 2000 inhabitants. On the contrary, in Estonia domestic violence against women occurs slightly more often in urban settlements where 52 % of women experienced violence from their partner as compared with 48 % in rural areas⁽³⁷¹⁾. In Ireland, a study addressing the African migrant population shows a different perception of violence in the community: psychological violence was in general not considered by women as a form of violence⁽³⁷²⁾.
- ♦ *Female genital mutilation, forced marriages and honour crimes.* Due to cultural reasons, migrant and ethnic minority women are much more exposed to these forms of community-based violence. Female genital mutilation, forced marriages and honour-related violence are global problems, but the practice is more common in certain parts of the world, such as many parts of Africa, India, Pakistan and Bangladesh. In the last years the problem has been identified as extensive in many parts of Europe as well due to migration flows⁽³⁷³⁾.
- ♦ Because of their subordinate status both as migrants and as women, *female migrant workers are highly vulnerable* to exploitation and ill-treatment. Migrant women may also experience intimate partner violence and their status as migrants may further restrict their access to escape routes, services and information. An example is that of migrant nurses in 24-hour care: Austrian studies⁽³⁷⁴⁾ point out the extremely distressing psychical and physical employment situations female migrant nurses and carers are subjected to, including deprivation of liberty and psycho-terror.
- **Violence against elderly and disabled women, and women with learning difficulties** can take on forms not only of active violence (in terms of physical, sexual or psychological abuse) but they may also experience violence due to negligence, when needed support is refused. Violence against older and disabled women may also take the form of financial exploitation or neglect by family members or other caregivers: they may experience violence also in institutional settings, perpetrated by family members, caretakers or strangers.
- Women with economic vulnerability. The financial pressure is a specific form of violence, as pointed out above. As is shown in the case presented in the Czech EGGSI report, the number of women victims of domestic violence in a partner relationship is significantly higher for the unemployed with low incomes (up to three times) than for employed women⁽³⁷⁵⁾. The Estonian EGGSI report shows that women living in households facing economic difficulties experience violence at home considerably more — 13 % of women in such households have experienced some kind of violence in one year⁽³⁷⁶⁾. On the contrary, in France, according to the Enveff survey⁽³⁷⁷⁾, diplomas and upper social position do not protect women from violence, and sexual violence is exerted in every social group; the data demonstrate that more depends on individual biography than on the fact of belonging to one social category or another. However, low income limits the possibilities to escape violence, and employment precariousness significantly increases exposure to violence.

⁽³⁷¹⁾ Statistics Estonia.

⁽³⁷²⁾ AkiDwA (2009), Domestic violence toolkit: identifying and responding to the needs of African and other migrant women experiencing domestic violence in Ireland (<http://www.akidwa.ie/DVToolkit2009.pdf>); AkiDwA (2006), Addressing the needs of black and minority ethnic women experiencing male violence: a seminar report. (http://www.epacvaw.org/IMG/pdf/Minority_women_and_VAW_report_2006.pdf).

⁽³⁷³⁾ Kvinnoforum/Foundation of Women's Forum (2005), Honour-related violence, European resource book and good practice, based on the European project 'Prevention of violence against women and girls in patriarchal families', Stockholm (<http://www.hsrc.ac.za/Document-2350.phtml>).

⁽³⁷⁴⁾ Gendera, Sandra (2007), 'Transnational care space in Mitteleuropa. Migrationsstrategien, Arbeits- und Lebensbedingungen von irregulär beschäftigten Frauen in der häuslichen Pflege', Master Thesis, University of Vienna.

⁽³⁷⁵⁾ Pikáľková, S. (ed.) (2004), Mezinárodní výzkum násilí na ženách — Česká republika/2003: příspěvek k sociologickému zkoumání násilí v rodině. Sociologické studie 04:2. Sociologický ústav AV ČR, Praha. (http://studie.soc.cas.cz/upl/texty/files/200_04-2%20opr%20zformatovany%20text%204%20pro%20tisk.pdf).

⁽³⁷⁶⁾ Statistics Estonia (2010), Statistical database: Social life: Justice and security: Intimate partner abuse (http://pub.stat.ee/pxweb.2001/l_Databas/Social_Life/07JUSTICE_AND_SECURITY/07JUSTICE_AND_SECURITY.asp).

⁽³⁷⁷⁾ L'enquête nationale sur les violences envers les femmes en France (Enveff) (http://www.unecp.org/stats/gender/vaw/surveys/France/Publicat_France.pdf).

- **Women with alcohol- and drug-related abuse.**

The statistics demonstrate that, in Finland, of the female victims killed in 2002–07, 40 % were categorised as alcoholics by the police. In 60 % of homicide cases between partners, both the victim and the offender were drunk⁽³⁷⁸⁾.

- Women may encounter violence based on social prejudices against them because of their **sexual orientation**. In Austria the city of Vienna is currently conducting a survey on violence in women's relations which is part of an EU-wide project on 'Breaking the taboo of domestic violence in lesbian partnerships'. In Denmark the statistics⁽³⁷⁹⁾ demonstrate that the risk of being exposed to violence is greater for homosexual and bisexual women than for heterosexual women, and the risk of being exposed to severe violence was far greater for bisexual than heterosexual women. The first Swedish investigation into violence in same-sex relationships⁽³⁸⁰⁾ from 2006 showed, among other things, that homo- and bisexual persons do not ask for help to the same extent as heterosexuals. Of the 2013 homo-, bi- and transsexual persons who participated in the survey, around 25 % had been subjected to psychological, physical and/or sexual violence in a present or earlier relationship. The investigation showed that lesbian women constituted the largest category that had been subjected to violence in an earlier relation. In the UK the

2008/09 British crime survey (BCS) found that people who are lesbian/gay or bisexual were more likely to have experienced domestic abuse 'in the past year' than heterosexual people (13 % compared with 5 %). Moreover, lesbian or bisexual women were more likely to be victims of domestic abuse than gay or bisexual men (17 % compared with 9 %). This is accounted for by the younger age profile of individuals identifying as lesbian, gay or bisexual. Indeed, women aged 16–24 are more likely to be victims of intimate violence than older women⁽³⁸¹⁾.

1.1.4. Trends in recent years

To assess the trend in violence against women would mean having time series of reliable data on the main aspects of the various forms it takes. Recognition of this phenomenon is, however, rapidly changing over time as different forms are considered and included as crimes in penal codes. Specific laws issued and social awareness of the different forms of violence is rapidly evolving, modifying the attitude towards reporting them to the police. Differences across countries and across years are closely related to external determinants, and pose serious problems of interpretation. Box 1.10 presents some examples from the EGGSI national reports, to show how serious the difficulties are in assessing trends and proposing comparative interpretation.

⁽³⁷⁸⁾ Salmi, V., Lehti, M., Sirén, R., Kivivuori, J. and Aaltonen, M. (2009), Perheväkivalta Suomessa. Oikeuspoliittinen tutkimuslaitos, Verkkokatsaus 12/2009 (<http://www.optula.om.fi/uploads/3ey309hz08t.pdf>).

⁽³⁷⁹⁾ Helweg-Larsen, K. and Frederiksen, M. L. (2007), Mænds vold mod kvinder. Omfang, karakter og indsats mod vold — 2007. Udgivet i et samarbejde mellem Statens Institut for Folkesundhed, Syddansk Universitet og Minister for Ligestilling. Odense SDU (http://www.lige.dk/files/PDF/Vold/rapport_voldsdatabase_2007.pdf).

⁽³⁸⁰⁾ Holmberg, C. and Stjernqvist, U. (2006), Våldsamt lika och olika — Om våld i samkönade parrelationer, Stockholm.

⁽³⁸¹⁾ Smith, K. (ed.), Flatley, J. (ed.) et al. (2010), Homicides, firearm offences and intimate violence 2008/09, Home Office, London

Box 1.10 — Trends in recent years in some European countries

Croatia

As family violence was included in the Penal Code only in 2000 there has been a very evident trend in growing numbers of persons reported, accused and convicted for penal offences of violent behaviour in the family as from 2001. The number of reported persons rose from 130 in 2001 to 1 220 in 2006, the number of accused persons from 22 in 2001 to 771 in 2006, and the number of convicted from 19 in 2001 to 630 in 2006⁽³⁸²⁾.

Czech Republic

The statistics of the Ministry of Interior presented in the government action plan for equal opportunities of men and women show that the introduction of the new legislation on domestic violence since 2004 has led statistics to focus mainly on this type of violence, bringing about a modification in overall figures.

The data presented by the Czech statistical office collected by the Police Presidium of the Czech Republic show an increase in the number of cases of rape with women victims in recent years. Also the Ministry of Interior of the Czech Republic states that there has been a distinct increase in the number of victims of trafficking⁽³⁸³⁾.

Denmark

The data trends indicate an increase in the number of women exposed to violence, possibly as a consequence of what seems to be a change in acceptance of violent episodes. Women in Denmark in recent years thus seem more likely to report episodes of violence⁽³⁸⁴⁾ the same applies to work-related violence, which seems to be on the increase, but here, too, there seems to be less acceptance of such incidences and more willingness to report cases of abuse.

Finland

Homicide statistics show that the number of women and men killed by their partner has remained at the same level during the 2000s⁽³⁸⁵⁾. At the same time, on the one hand, according to the national victimisation surveys, family violence towards women has decreased somewhat during the last few decades, while on the other hand family violence reported to the police has increased during the past decade: as surveys are considered more representative, the fact that reporting increased may not necessarily mean that the incidences also increased, but simply that awareness did. In fact the two main reasons accounting for this increase are, on the one hand, the increased readiness to report family violence, and the increased attention towards family violence by the police on the other hand.

France

Since surveys on violence against women are mostly recent and unsystematic, it is difficult to compare data and estimate recent trends. Moreover, at a time when the topic of violence against women is gaining in importance and in visibility, the attempts to better define, measure and report the phenomenon may encourage the victims or witnesses to reveal facts that previously remained hidden and undeclared. This may thus create an artificial increase in the measured phenomenon corresponding to a statistical artefact reflecting an increase in public awareness and willingness to combat the phenomenon rather than an increase in the phenomenon itself. For instance, with regard to violence within couples, if the CVS survey⁽³⁸⁶⁾ reports 2.6 % women exposed to violence within couples in 2005–06, these data cannot be compared with the 9 % of women exposed to violence in 2000 according to the Enveff survey⁽³⁸⁷⁾, which included psychological violence.

Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia

The improvement in registration of cases of violence against women in general, and in particular in the area of domestic violence, is linked to the legal recognition of domestic violence as a criminal offence (it previously featured through different types of crime), but in addition, improvement of registration is noticeable as there has been a notable increase

⁽³⁸²⁾ Državni zavod za statistiku (Central Bureau of Statistics) (2008), *Nasilje u obitelji 2001–06* (family violence 2001–06), Zagreb.

⁽³⁸³⁾ http://www.czso.cz/csu/cizinci.nsf/engkapitola/gender_uvod

⁽³⁸⁴⁾ Balvig, F. and Kyvsgaard, B. (2006), *Vold og overgreb mod kvinder. Dansk rapport vedrørende deltagelse i 'International violence against women survey' (IVAWS)*, Justitsministeriets Forskningsenhed, København.

⁽³⁸⁵⁾ Salmi, V., Lehti, M., Sirén, R., Kivivuori, J. and Aaltonen, M. (2009), *Perheväkivalta Suomessa. Oikeuspoliittinen tutkimuslaitos, Verkkokatsaus 12/2009* (<http://www.optula.om.fi/uploads/3ey309hz08t.pdf>).

⁽³⁸⁶⁾ The 'Living environment and security' survey (Cadre de vie et sécurité, CVS) is the only annual survey on violence in France (<http://www.moi.gov.mk/ShowAnnouncements.aspx?ItemID=7976&mid=1094&tabId=201&tabindex=0>).

⁽³⁸⁷⁾ The Enveff survey measures awareness of violence against women (Enquête nationale sur les violences envers les femmes en France).

in reporting, possibly due to increased awareness. Particularly with regard to registration of complaints, a Ministry of Interior digest notes an exponential, fourfold increase in the number of complaints reported in the city of Strumica in 2009 compared with 2008, for example ⁽³⁸⁸⁾.

Iceland

There is no standardised collection of data across the agencies taking care of the victims, and the available statistics therefore give no information on the prevalence of sexual violence among the female population in Iceland. However, the data give a picture of recent trends in the frequencies of certain types of violence by agency and whether and to what extent the trends indicate an increase or decrease in a particular type of violence in this particular agency. Trends at the national level within the criminal system show an increase in the number of referrals made, charges put forward and sentences passed on sexual violence against women.

Norway

Contradictory statistics can be observed referring to ethnic minority women: on the one hand, there has been a considerable increase in the number of ethnic minority women in shelters, but there also seems to be a trend towards less frequent cases of FGM, which is explained by the fear of punishment, as well as information, counselling and increased knowledge of the health consequences related to FGM ⁽³⁸⁹⁾. This trend may also be a result of increased awareness among young ethnic minority women, due to measures such as the establishment of minority advisers in upper secondary schools ⁽³⁹⁰⁾.

Source: EGGSI network national reports, 2010.

⁽³⁸⁸⁾ Ministry of Interior (2009), Analysis and situation in relation to domestic violence: measures taken in the first nine months of 2009, 16 November 2009 [Анализа и состојби во врска со семејно насилство. Превземени активности и мерки за деветте месеци од 2009, 16 ноември 2009, MBP].

⁽³⁸⁹⁾ Lidén, H. and Betntzen, T. (2008), Kjønnsmlestelse i Norge, Institutt for samfunnsforskning, Rapport 2008:8, Oslo (<http://www.samfunnsforskning.no/nor/samfunnsforskning.no/Publikasjoner/Rapporter/2008/2008-008/%28language%29/nor-NO>).

⁽³⁹⁰⁾ Ministry of Children and Equality (2008), 'Action plan against forced marriages 2008–11' (http://www.regjeringen.no/upload/BLD/Planer/2007/Tvangsekteskap_engelsk2007.pdf).

1.2. The consequences of violence on women's health and social exclusion

The Council of Europe has provided a clear picture of the overall consequences of violence against women, affecting not only the individual but the community as a whole:

'Gender-based violence has consequences for both the wider society and the individual victim. It causes pain, fear and distress, reduces the capacity of victimised women to contribute productively to the family, the economy and public life, and drains the resources of social services, the justice system, healthcare agencies and of employers — costs that must be seen both in terms of human suffering and of economic loss. In a broader view, it lowers the overall educational attainment, mobility and innovative potential of a significant proportion of the population: the women who are victimised, the children growing up witnessing the violence, and even the perpetrators who resort to destructive acts are restricted in their potential. A society that tolerates seemingly private violence will be a crippled competitor in the knowledge- and creativity-based economy of the future... The high costs of violence underline that gender-based violence is a social, a public and no longer a private problem, and that it urgently needs to be

addressed, as society as a whole, governments, individuals, organisations and businesses pay for it.' ⁽³⁹¹⁾

Many studies ⁽³⁹²⁾ have tried to calculate the costs of violence. These costs occur in a very broad range of areas: healthcare, social services, economic output, police, criminal justice and civil legal sector and housing. The costs can be either indirect or direct. The indirect costs are in the human suffering, pain and fear incurred by the victims, psychological and psychosomatic illnesses, and disruption of lives, having to abandon friends and relatives, or to change jobs or move. The direct costs are associated with the provision of a range of facilities, resources and services to women as a result of being subjected to violence.

- In Sweden a study has calculated the costs for one individual case. In this case, it was assumed that a man physically abused his female part-

⁽³⁹¹⁾ Council of Europe (2006), Combating violence against women — Stocktaking study on the measures and actions taken in Council of Europe member states, Equality Division, Directorate-General of Human Rights, Strasbourg (http://www.coe.int/T/E/Human_Rights/Equality/PDF_CDEG%282006%293_E.pdf).

⁽³⁹²⁾ Council of Europe (2006), Combating violence against women — Stocktaking study on the measures and actions taken in Council of Europe member states, Equality Division, Directorate-General of Human Rights, Strasbourg (http://www.coe.int/T/E/Human_Rights/Equality/PDF_CDEG%282006%293_E.pdf).

ner over a period of 20 years⁽³⁹³⁾. The costs were summarised at SEK 2.5 million (approx. EUR 0.25 million) of which the Swedish state financed the major part — approx. 85 %. The costs primarily consisted of payments for unemployment and health insurance systems. Abuses cost the health and medical care systems SEK 115 000 (approx. EUR 11 500). The municipality's costs amounted to around SEK 50 000 (approx. EUR 5 000) primarily for social services.

- Similar estimates have been made in the Netherlands: considering that the costs of domestic violence include costs for assistance by the authorities (police, the judicial system, healthcare and shelter), production losses, claims on social security and immaterial damage, a tentative calculation of the costs for assistance only indicates that assistance given by the Dutch authorities in relation to domestic violence costs about EUR 271 million a year⁽³⁹⁴⁾.
- In Spain some research, even though mainly regional, underlines the considerable economic costs that gender-based violence implies. Given the complexity and multidimensional nature of the phenomenon, figures vary. Research on social and economic costs in Andalusia⁽³⁹⁵⁾ calculated that direct costs (for victims, family and friends, employers, public sector and third sector) accounted for 0.9 % of the regional GDP and the indirect costs were almost double⁽³⁹⁶⁾. In Valencia, a study⁽³⁹⁷⁾ has calculated that the costs borne by the regional government are over EUR 23 million, of which almost 60 % come from the healthcare system⁽³⁹⁸⁾.

⁽³⁹³⁾ Weinehall, K., Ånggård, A., Blom, K., Ekelund, B. and Finndal, IK. (2006), *Räkna med kostnader — en fallstudie om mäns våld mot kvinnor*. Umeå University, Law Department Publication No15. Umeå, Sweden. In: Eliasson, M. and Elgrim, B. (2007), *Men's violence to women — A Swedish perspective*, Stockholm, Sweden (http://www.brs.skl.se/brsbibl/kata_documents/doc39118_1.pdf).

⁽³⁹⁴⁾ Movisie (2009), *Huiselijk geweld: Cijfers en feiten*. Utrecht.

⁽³⁹⁵⁾ Martínez, M^a I, Marcos, A., Sánchez, M. and Villagómez, E. (2003), *Los costes sociales y económicos de la violencia contra las mujeres en Andalucía*. Instituto Andaluz de la Mujer. [The social and economic costs of violence against women in Andalucía].

⁽³⁹⁶⁾ It would mean a total estimated cost of more than EUR 2.300 million.

⁽³⁹⁷⁾ Hernández, M. J., Sanmartín, J., Martínez, P. and Molina, A. (2006), *Costes de la violencia de género en las relaciones de pareja, Comunitat Valenciana* [The costs of gender violence in partner relationships, Valencia region].

⁽³⁹⁸⁾ Hernández, M. J., Sanmartín, J., Martínez, P. and Molina, A. (2006), *Costes de la violencia de género en las relaciones de pareja, Comunitat Valenciana* [The costs of gender violence in partner relationships, Valencia region].

- In the UK, Walby (2004)⁽³⁹⁹⁾ estimates the cost of domestic violence alone in 2001 at GBP 23 billion (EUR 27.7 billion), highlighting that this is an underestimate. The estimated cost to the National Health Service (NHS) of violence against women is GBP 1 220 247 000 for hospital, ambulance, GP and prescription healthcare plus GBP 176 million for mental healthcare. Another study by Järvinen (2008)⁽⁴⁰⁰⁾ puts the cost of domestic violence at GBP 20 billion (EUR 24 billion), broken down as: health and social service cost (GBP 1.6 billion); criminal justice service cost (GBP 1.2 billion); lost economic output (GBP 2.3 billion); human and emotional costs (GBP 15 billion).

In terms of EU-wide estimates, according to the Daphne II project (2006), 'Estimation du coût des violences conjugales en Europe' on the cost of domestic violence in the EU-27, the annual costs of domestic violence in the European Union could be as high as EUR 16 billion in 2006, amounting to EUR 33 per capita per annum, or EUR 1 million every half hour⁽⁴⁰¹⁾. The Daphne III project (2007), 'Estimation of intimate partner violence related mortality in Europe — IPV EU_Mortality'⁽⁴⁰²⁾, states that the costs of mortality linked to intimate partner violence in the EU-27 countries account to a yearly EUR 5.7 billion in 2006.

On the evidence of the analyses provided by EGGSI national reports, the most common and cited individual consequences of violence reported can be summarised as follows:

- health problems;
- emotional and mental consequences on women and children;
- consequences in terms of social inclusion and economic precariousness;
- death.

⁽³⁹⁹⁾ Walby, S. (2004), *The cost of domestic violence*, Women and Equality Unit, London (<http://www.equalities.gov.uk/pdf/Summ%20cost%20of%20domestic%20violence%20Sep%2004.pdf>).

⁽⁴⁰⁰⁾ Järvinen, J., Kall, A. and Miller, I. (2008), *Hard knock life. Violence against women*. New Philanthropy Capital, London (http://www.endviolenceagainstwomen.org.uk/data/files/hard_knock_life.pdf).

⁽⁴⁰¹⁾ Data source and further project details in: Daphne II (JLS/DAP/06-1/073/WY), 'Estimation du coût des violences conjugales en Europe' (http://ewlcentreonviolence.org/IMG/pdf/Estimations_du_cout_des_violences_conjugales_Europe_Psytel.pdf).

⁽⁴⁰²⁾ Daphne III Project NoJLS/2007/DAP-1/140 (http://www.psytel.eu/inc/download.php?file=2;IPV%20EU_Mortality/IPV%20EU_Mortality%20Synthese_En.pdf).

1. The *health problems* comprise injuries, physical illnesses and, more in general, bad health, as consequences of assault or FGM. Health impairments are among the most evident consequences of physical or sexual violence as bodily injuries are immediate signs of this type of assault. They range from relatively superficial (black eyes, scratches) to very serious (large wounds, fractures). Some may lead to long-term illness, disability or even death of the victim. In this respect, women are particularly vulnerable. In the context of sexual and reproductive health and rights (SRHR), gender-based violence is linked to an increased risk of unwanted pregnancies, pregnancy complications, gynaecological disorders, unsafe abortions, miscarriages and sexually transmitted infections, including HIV/AIDS. Fear of violence may also hinder women's ability to seek and access treatment and care ⁽⁴⁰³⁾. The Polish EGGSI report presents the results of a study that shows that violence against men very rarely leads to injuries which call for medical treatment: the rate of medical intervention in cases of violence comes to 5–7 % for men, while for women it reaches 42 % ⁽⁴⁰⁴⁾. In France women are more often and more repeatedly victims of physical and sexual violence than men, and face more serious health consequences. In 2005–06, 48 % of women exposed to physical or sexual violence from their partner declared injuries, as against 10 % of the men in the same situation ⁽⁴⁰⁵⁾. In Norway a nationwide representative survey from 2005 ⁽⁴⁰⁶⁾ showed that injuries caused by partner violence were reported by 30 % of those women who had ever experienced it. The most common types of injuries after the most recent assault were bruises. Serious injuries, such as fractures, injuries to internal organs and concussion, were reported by 3.1 %, 1.9 % and 3.8 % respectively of all women reporting any partner violence. The results also showed that, after the most recent

event, 13.7 % had contacted a physician or hospital because of injuries, while 11.9 % did not contact the health service even if they thought they might need assistance. The majority did not contact the health service because they assessed the injury to be minor (74.4 %). Among women reporting any partner violence, 39.7 % had at some time sought assistance (crisis telephones, shelters, social welfare, family counselling centre, lawyer, police, general practitioner, casualty department) ⁽⁴⁰⁷⁾.

A very serious health consequence reported in a Romanian study is the difficulty for abused women in controlling their pregnancies; they often resort to induced abortion during their sexually active life. About 25 % (15 % among non-victims) of the physically aggressed females had 4–10 abortions performed whereas 7 % (3 % among non-victims) had more than 10 ⁽⁴⁰⁸⁾.

Female genital mutilation is a harmful procedure with long-term physical and psychological health consequences for women. The acute complications arising from the procedure itself are major, but also the sores caused by the procedure can develop and lead to more extensive infections, which may be life-threatening and fatal. There are several long-term health-related consequences, such as painful urination and frequent urinary infections and infertility. Recent research in Norway ⁽⁴⁰⁹⁾ also indicates that women with less extensive female genital mutilation also face higher risks with respect to complications during childbirth, and the risks increase the more extensive the procedure is.

2. The *emotional and mental consequences* comprise psychological disturbances, anxiety, low self-esteem, reduction in self-assurance and abilities and resources to cope with the situation, fear of the future, depression and drug abuse ⁽⁴¹⁰⁾, as described in the Slovenian report. Beyond these direct consequences, in France the EVS survey ⁽⁴¹¹⁾ shows that the probability

⁽⁴⁰³⁾ IPPF European network (2009), Gender-based violence in Europe. Choices. Sexual and reproductive health and rights in Europe (http://www.ippfen.org/NR/rdonlyres/A20A61D0-BE5A-41E0-A8FD-090A45303814/0/ippfchoices2009_web.pdf).

⁽⁴⁰⁴⁾ Malec, Jan (2002), 'Raport — Sytuacja ofiar przestępstw w Polsce', Biuletyn RPO — Materiały No45, p.49. Quoted from Monika Platek, Przemoc w rodzinie, Materiały edukacyjne przygotowane w ramach programu Socrates Grundtvig Action 1, 'Law through experience' (http://www.psep.pl/grundtvig/5/przemoc_w_rodzynie.pdf).

⁽⁴⁰⁵⁾ Bauer, A. et al. (2007), La criminalité en France, Rapport de l'Observatoire National de la Délinquance 2007, Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique (CNRS), Observatoire National de la Délinquance (OND), Institut National des Hautes Etudes de Sécurité (INHES).

⁽⁴⁰⁶⁾ Haaland, T., Clausen, S-E. and Skei, B. (2005), Vold i paforhold-ulike perspektiver. Resultat fra den første landsdekkende undersøkelsen i Norge, NIBR-Rapporter, No 3, Oslo (<http://www.nibr.no/uploads/publications/8c7695745995ffcac1e73e454d17e63a.pdf>).

⁽⁴⁰⁷⁾ Haaland, T., Clausen, S-E., and Skei, B. (2005), Vold i paforhold-ulike perspektiver. Resultat fra den første landsdekkende undersøkelsen i Norge, NIBR-Rapporter, No 3, Oslo (<http://www.nibr.no/uploads/publications/8c7695745995ffcac1e73e454d17e63a.pdf>).

⁽⁴⁰⁸⁾ http://www.cpe.ro/romana/index.php?option=com_content&task=view&id=27&Itemid=48

⁽⁴⁰⁹⁾ Ministry of Children and Equality (2008), 'Action plan for combating female genital mutilation 2008–11' (http://www.bufetat.no/Documents/Bufetat-no-dokument/Vold_og_krisetiltak/Handlingsplan_kjnnsi_eng_net.pdf).

⁽⁴¹⁰⁾ Website of the Women's Counselling Organisation (http://www.drustvozenska-svetovalnica.si/nasilje_1.php).

⁽⁴¹¹⁾ DREES (2009), La santé des femmes en France, La Documentation française, Paris.

of attempted suicide during the life course is much higher (21 %) for women victims of sexual violence aged 18–75 than for other women (5 %) and even for male victims of sexual violence (11 % attempted suicide). In Turkey, female suicides, especially in the eastern and south-eastern regions, have recently become a concern since the male/female suicide ratio for the eastern and south-eastern region of Turkey is 0.97 to 1⁽⁴¹²⁾, meaning that more women than men commit suicide, which contrasts with worldwide and Turkey-wide male/female suicide ratios⁽⁴¹³⁾. It is suspected that some of these suicides may in fact be murders or that in some cases families may be forcing women blamed for ‘dishonourable conduct’ to commit suicide due to the fact that there are higher penalties for customary killings in the new Penal Code which came into force in 2005. There are also studies that suggest links between female suicides and patriarchal control in these regions of the country⁽⁴¹⁴⁾. According to the results of the Turkish national research on domestic violence against women in Turkey 2008⁽⁴¹⁵⁾, the proportion of women who had ever thought of committing suicide was three times higher among those who had been exposed to physical or sexual violence by their husbands or partners than for women who had never experienced such violence. Across Turkey, women who had experienced partner violence are four times more likely to have actually attempted suicide.

Another serious consequence of violence reported by the French EGGSI national report is silence and solitude: the national survey on violence against women (l’enquête nationale sur les violences envers les femmes en France – Enveff) revealed that, in the year 2000, half the women from the age of 20 to 50 that had been victims of sexual violence (attempted

or forced sexual intercourse, touching) at some time during their life had never spoken about it before the survey interview. The CSF survey conducted in 2006 corroborates these results: 46 % women (and 62 % men, aged 18 to 69 years) victims of attempted or forced intercourse mentioned the fact for the first time during the survey interview⁽⁴¹⁶⁾.

VAW has serious consequences on children. In Slovenia some organisations specifically warn about the detrimental consequences of experiencing or witnessing violence for children such as: inferiority complex, low self-esteem, poor social skills, depression, trouble sleeping, eating disorders, self-destructive behaviour, violent behaviour, chronic diseases⁽⁴¹⁷⁾. In Iceland, research published in 2007⁽⁴¹⁸⁾, based on interviews with women aged 30–65 with a history of childhood violence, shows that childhood psychological traumas, such as sexual abuse and other kinds of violence, did have very serious consequences. These were divided into the following themes: (a) experiencing the trauma, where women shut the door on a painful experience describing a sort of ‘soul murder’; (b) lack of well-being as a child and as a teenager, when they said they had lived in great distress, had psychological and physical problems and were vulnerable to repeated violence; (c) physical symptoms, which plagued their adult years: uterine problems, widespread pain and fibromyalgia, which led to disablement for most of them; (d) psychological problems, which they have had to live with all their lives, such as anxiety, depression, suicidal thoughts and suicide attempts; (e) difficulties with bonding, trusting and touching, problems relating to their spouses and children and in regard to their sex life; (f) present situation and future expectations. All the women developed symptoms of post traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), are often still living in great despair and full of hopelessness. In Portugal according to the *Relatório sobre a Situação Mundial da Infância — RSMI* (Report on childhood world situation) of 2009, conducted by Unicef⁽⁴¹⁹⁾: ‘Marriage and early pregnancy, HIV and AIDS, sexual violence, amongst other

⁽⁴¹²⁾ Yakin Ertürk (5 January 2007), Report of the Special Rapporteur on violence against women, its causes and consequences: addendum, Mission to Turkey. United Nations Human Rights Council (http://www.wunrn.com/news/2007/12_07/12_17_07/121707_turkey_files/Turkey.pdf).

⁽⁴¹³⁾ Worldwide more men than women commit suicide. In Turkey, the male/female suicide ratio is about 1.5 to 1. For a detailed discussion, see Yakin Ertürk (5 January 2007), Report of the Special Rapporteur on violence against women, its causes and consequences: addendum, Mission to Turkey. United Nations Human Rights Council (http://www.wunrn.com/news/2007/12_07/12_17_07/121707_turkey_files/Turkey.pdf).

⁽⁴¹⁴⁾ Cited in Yakin Ertürk (5 January 2007), Report of the Special Rapporteur on violence against women, its causes and consequences: addendum, Mission to Turkey. United Nations Human Rights Council (http://www.wunrn.com/news/2007/12_07/12_17_07/121707_turkey_files/Turkey.pdf).

⁽⁴¹⁵⁾ TR Prime Ministry Directorate-General on the Status of Women, Hacettepe University Institute of Population Rights Studies, ICON-Institut Public Sector GmbH and BNB Consulting (2009), National research on domestic violence against women in Turkey 2008, Ankara (http://www.ksgm.gov.tr/tdvaw/doc/Main_report.pdf).

⁽⁴¹⁶⁾ Bajos, N. and Bozon, M. (2008), ‘Enquête sur la sexualité en France. Pratiques, genre et santé’, La Découverte, INSERM, INED, ANRS, Paris.

⁽⁴¹⁷⁾ ‘Help children who are going through domestic violence’, published in the magazine CICIBANU, March 2008 (<http://www.drustvo-sos.si>).

⁽⁴¹⁸⁾ Sigrún Sigurðardóttir (2007), *Kynferðisleg misnotkun og önnur sálræn áföll í æsku og áhrif þeirra á heilsufar og líðan kvenna* [Sexual abuse and other psychological childhood traumas and their impact on women’s health and well-being]: phenomenological study, a master’s dissertation from Nursing University of Akureyri.

⁽⁴¹⁹⁾ United Nations Children’s Fund (2009). *Situação mundial da Infância*. New York (<http://www.unicef.org>).

gender-related abuses, increase the risk of school dropout for teenager girls. At the same time, this last situation strengthens the vicious cycle of gender discrimination, poverty and high rates of neonatal and maternal mortality'. Early marriages, not always wanted and, therefore, rife with violent situations, are still common within Roma communities, with greater risks for maternal and child health. Besides, teenage wives are more exposed to violence, abuse and exploitation. Teenage pregnancy is a transversal phenomenon in Portuguese society⁽⁴²⁰⁾ and, together with the losses it involves in the life course of these young girls, it implies serious forms of violence. The early school dropout of very young mothers ultimately compromises their chances in life, as well as their children's. According to the RSMI, these events increase the likelihood of social exclusion, poverty and the violence cycle continuum (the upbringing of new generations is closely correlated with the caretakers' life experiences — a beaten mother is more likely to beat her children; the son of an abusive parent will grow up to be an abusive husband).

3. *The consequences in terms of social inclusion and economic precariousness* remain largely undocumented and are in terms of employment, income and social protection. According to the Polish EGGSI report, the economic consequences of violence are at least threefold. First, the victims may face problems on the labour market because of various health impairments (physical or psychological). Second, in cases of domestic violence, problems of living arrangements often arise. Women victims often choose to leave the house they share with a perpetrator and this inevitably leads to their material deprivation. Quite often, they flee with children and this additionally aggravates their economic situation. Third, it happens that women suffering domestic violence are deprived by their partners of the source of income for everyday life. Quite often, they need to cover all the expenses for the children, while the partner/perpetrator keeps his income for himself⁽⁴²¹⁾. Sometimes this is seen as a separate type of harm, described as economic

violence⁽⁴²²⁾. In France, research⁽⁴²³⁾ underlines the high frequency of women who had been victims of marital abuse, forced marriage, violent separation, or who took flight from home, among single parent families in situations of great and persisting precariousness. The Czech EGGSI report underlines that this is an issue looming large in the country: an important national conference on the financial aspects of the problem of domestic violence has recently been held in order to improve data collection and knowledge of the 'costs' of violence on women for both society as well as at the individual 'household' level⁽⁴²⁴⁾.

Work-related violence, bullying and sexual harassment are a considerable source of negative consequences on the workers, including demotivation and reduced pride in performing their jobs, stress, negative effects on well-being and on job motivation and satisfaction, affecting work performance and career advancement. Other researches establish a relationship between violence at the workplace and social precariousness. In France a study⁽⁴²⁵⁾ on migrant women in low-paid jobs in the cleaning sector shows that precarious migrant women are particularly exposed to bad, often illegal, employer practices that constitute a form of violent economic exploitation trapping them into precariousness.

4. *Death*. The most severe consequence of violence against women is death: femicide, i.e. the murder of women by their batterers, and suicide, as a common way out of violence. According to the EGGSI national expert, of the Swedish women subjected to violence, 64 % have considered suicide. Battered women report four times as many suicide attempts as women without experience of violence. Threats have effects as strong as physical violence⁽⁴²⁶⁾.

⁽⁴²⁰⁾ Unicef (2001), 'A league table of teenage births in rich nations', Innocenti Report Card No3, July 2001. Unicef Innocenti Research Centre, Florence (<http://www.unicef-irc.org/publications/pdf/repcard3e.pdf>).

⁽⁴²¹⁾ See, for instance, Magdalena Dubrowska in the newspaper *Gazeta Wyborcza* (Stołeczna) of 4 March 2010 on the postulates of the informal group 'Polskie Kobiety 8 Marca' or PK8M presented in relation to Women's Day.

⁽⁴²²⁾ TNS Ośrodek Badania Opinii Publicznej (2007), *Polacy wobec zjawiska przemocy w rodzinie oraz opinie ofiar, sprawców i świadków o występowaniu i okolicznościach występowania przemocy w rodzinie* (Results of a survey commissioned by MPiPS), Warsaw (<http://www.mpips.gov.pl/index.php?gid=1518> and <http://www.tns-global.pl>).

⁽⁴²³⁾ Research action conducted in the city of Marseille for the regional division of the women's rights service (Délégation régionale aux droits des femmes).

⁽⁴²⁴⁾ Conference on the economic impact of domestic violence in the state budget and individual households affected by violence, held on 20 April 2010 (in Czech: *Kolik stojí domácí násilí?*) (<http://www.profem.cz/clanky/?x=2222202>).

⁽⁴²⁵⁾ Puech, I. (2006), 'Femmes et immigrées: corvéables à merci', *Travail, genre et sociétés*, No 16, November.

⁽⁴²⁶⁾ Eliasson, M. and Elgrim, B. (2007), *Men's violence to women — A Swedish perspective*, Stockholm, Sweden (http://www.brs.skl.se/brsbibl/kata_documents/doc39118_1.pdf).

Data on female and male mortality related to intimate partner violence (IPV) for 2006, collected in the framework of a Daphne project for the EU-27 countries⁽⁴²⁷⁾, show that 71 % of all death related to IPV are women (8 % are men and 5.4 % are collateral deaths⁽⁴²⁸⁾), of which 41.3 % are related to homicide and 29.6 % to suicide, while the suicide of the perpetrator makes up 15.7 % of all death). Incidences of death related to IPV are particularly high in the eastern European countries, such as Latvia, Estonia, Lithuania, Hungary and the Czech Republic (see Table 1.6).

Here again, as in all the comparative tables presented above, it is dangerous to cluster countries on interpretative patterns or to come to comparative conclusions, as the main reason for the differences presented depends on the differences in registration procedures and categorisations. Also, the available data vary in accordance with the evolution of legislative changes taking place in each of the Member States.

Table 1.6 — Mortality estimations related to intimate partner violence in EU-27, 2006

Country	Homicides women	Homicides men	Homicides collateral	Perpetrator suicides	Suicides women	Total	Per million
Austria	12	2	2	7	19	42	5.08
Belgium	35	8	10	30	46	129	12.27
Bulgaria	42	7	4	13	13	79	10.23
Cyprus	3	1	0	1	0	5	6.52
Czech Republic	80	8	8	24	20	140	13.66
Denmark	14	2	1	4	12	33	6.08
Estonia	22	7	2	7	3	41	30.49
Finland	21	6	3	2	23	55	10.47
France	137	31	14	46	232	460	7.30
Germany	278	21	28	83	160	570	6.91
Greece	16	5	2	5	6	34	3.06
Hungary	64	6	6	19	43	138	13.70
Ireland	17	3	2	5	8	35	8.32
Italy	94	9	16	42	62	223	3.80
Latvia	50	9	5	15	5	84	36.61
Lithuania	18	13	6	19	14	70	20.57
Luxembourg	2	0	0	1	2	5	10.66
Malta	2	0	0	1	0	3	7.41
Netherlands	46	6	5	14	44	115	7.04
Poland	139	24	14	42	70	289	7.57
Portugal	31	7	4	11	12	65	6.15
Romania	71	38	19	39	33	200	9.25
Slovakia	18	4	2	5	5	34	6.31
Slovenia	3	1	0	1	7	12	5.99
Spain	68	18	13	40	53	192	4.39
Sweden	31	3	3	9	31	77	8.51
United Kingdom	95	33	17	51	87	283	4.69
Total	1 409	272	186	536	1 010	3 413	6.92

Explanatory note: The data presented include direct femicides in which the perpetrators were or have been the intimate partners (husbands and current or past partners), ex-boyfriends/girlfriends, boyfriends/girlfriends and persons dating (without having necessarily an intimate relationship). Not included are deaths due to honour crimes, as yet not quantifiable. Death refer to persons 15 years and older, and for all ages concerning collateral homicides which mainly comprised children.

Source: Daphne III Project No JLS/2007/DAP-1/140

(http://www.psytel.eu/inc/download.php?file=2;IPV%20EU_Mortality/IPV%20EU_Mortality%20Synthese_En.pdf).

⁽⁴²⁷⁾ Daphne III Project No JLS/2007/DAP-1/140. 'Estimation of intimate partner violence related mortality in Europe' (http://www.psytel.eu/inc/download.php?file=2;IPV%20EU_Mortality/IPV%20EU_Mortality%20Synthese_En.pdf).

⁽⁴²⁸⁾ Collateral death include children and other family members.

2. Policies addressing violence against women

This chapter presents the main features of the policies adopted in European countries to address violence against women in a comparative perspective. The focus is on gender equality policies, social inclusion strategies and healthcare strategies, with particular attention on the following aspects: prevention, treatment and social inclusion/reintegration.

The main sources of information, besides the EGGSI national reports, are the following:

- Council of Europe, Task Force to Combat Violence against Women, including Domestic Violence, *Final Activity Report*, 2008;
- Council of Europe, *Protecting women against violence — Analytical study of the results of the second round of monitoring the implementation of Rec(2002)5 on the protection of women against violence in Council of Europe member states*, 2008;
- European Women's Lobby, *Reality check: when women's NGOs map policies and legislation in violence against women in Europe*, February 2007;
- WAVE, *Country report 2009 — Reality check on European services for women and children victims of violence. A right for protection and support?* ⁽⁴²⁹⁾.

As already discussed in Chapter 1 (Section 1.1.1), the data and information available on measures addressing violence against women must be

considered with extreme caution, especially on account of the lack of systematic and homogeneous data collection and monitoring of the interventions and services provided at the national and regional/local levels.

2.1. Social awareness and political debate

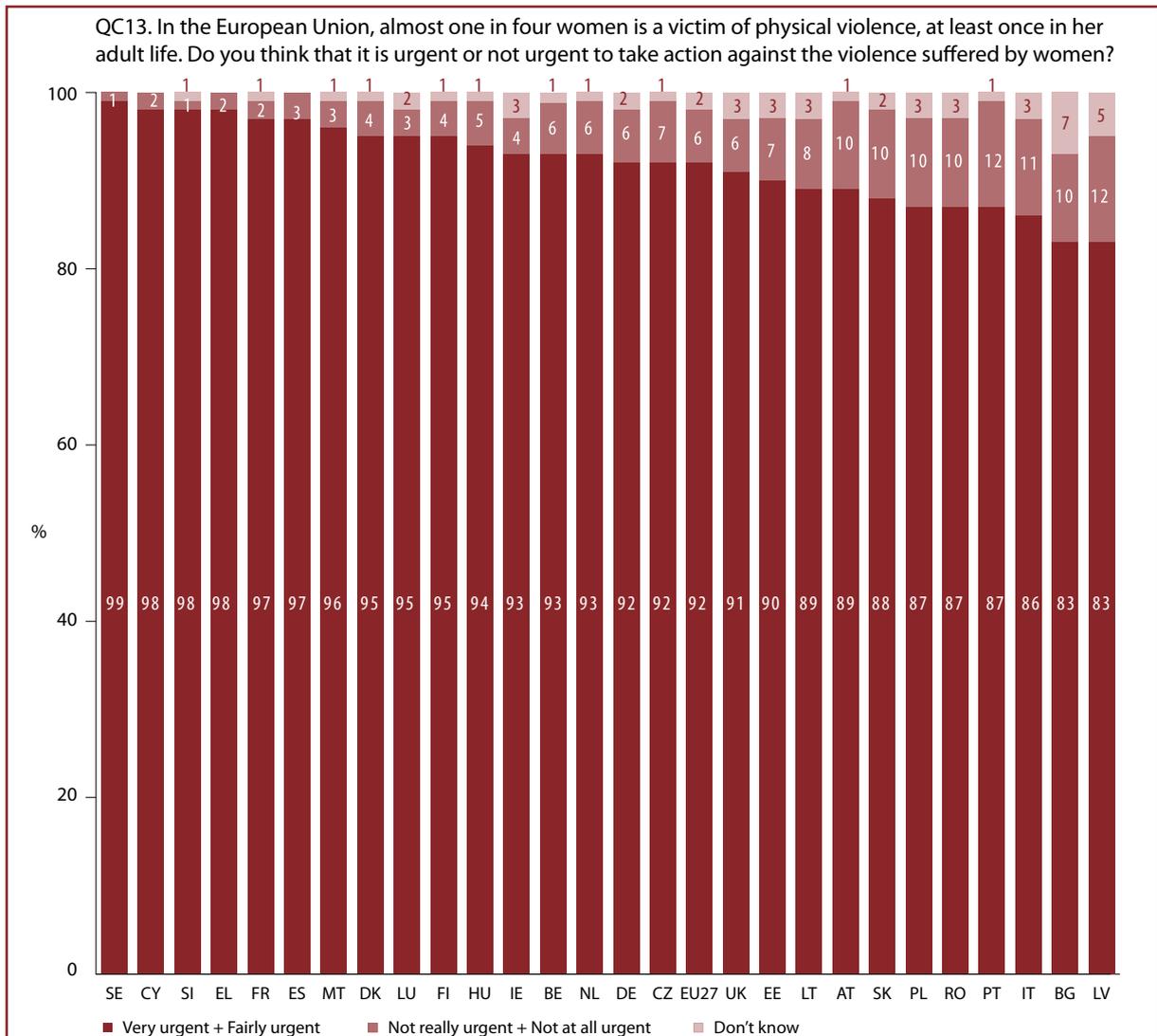
In most EU countries, social awareness of the issue does not correspond to the extent of the phenomenon itself due to ingrained socio-cultural attitudes that make violent behaviour against women tolerated and considered a private matter.

Some comparable information on the level of social awareness on violence against women may be derived from the 2009 Eurobarometer survey on gender equality ⁽⁴³⁰⁾ in the EU-27, which contains a special section on the perception of gender-based violence. The 2009 Eurobarometer survey results show that 92 % of the EU-27 respondents say it is 'urgent' to take action against the violence suffered by women. Of these 64 % think it is 'very urgent' and 28 % think it is 'fairly urgent'. As Figure 2.1 shows, across Member States the answers range from Sweden with 99 % of respondents thinking that violence against women should be 'urgently' addressed to Bulgaria and Latvia where this proportion falls to 83 %. Latvia and Portugal (12 %) with Italy (11 %) present the highest proportion of respondents who consider the issue not 'urgent'.

⁽⁴²⁹⁾ The 'WAVE country report' includes qualitative and quantitative data for 45 European countries, including the 33 countries considered in this report.

⁽⁴³⁰⁾ European Commission (2010), 'Gender equality in the EU in 2009: Special Eurobarometer 326, WAVE 72.2 (http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/archives/ebs/ebs_326_sum_en.pdf).

Figure 2.1 — Is it urgent to take action against the violence suffered by women?



Source: European Commission (2010), 'Gender equality in the EU in 2009'. Special Eurobarometer 326, WAVE 72.2 (http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/archives/ebs/ebs_326_en.pdf).

In addition, the 2010 Eurobarometer survey on domestic violence against women ⁽⁴³¹⁾ specifies that in every EU-27 country the vast majority of EU citizens (92 % of respondents on average) have heard of domestic violence against women being discussed on television. Magazines and newspapers are the next most common media in which people hear about the subject (59 %), while 41 % say they have heard about domestic violence against women on the radio and 29 % have heard about it through friends.

As is portrayed in the three following boxes, the EGGSI national reports disentangle the issue of social awareness in three different perspectives:

- awareness among citizens of the problem itself and of its importance;
- the importance attributed to the problem in policymakers' agendas;
- the importance attributed to the problem in the media.

⁽⁴³¹⁾ European Commission (2010), Domestic violence against women. Special Eurobarometer 344, Wave 73.2. (http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/archives/ebs/ebs_344_en.pdf).

Box 2.1 shows how the issue of VAW is considered by public opinion in some European countries. In many countries VAW has only recently become an issue in public discussion and the media (as, for

example, in Croatia, Estonia and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia); in others it is still seen by public opinion more as a private than a public issue (as, for example, in Bulgaria or Greece).

Box 2.1 — Awareness among citizens of the perception and relevance of the problem

In **Bulgaria** there is still a high level of tolerance toward the phenomenon of gender-based violence and particularly domestic violence, considered by half of Bulgarian society to be more of a private matter than a public policy concern.

Estonian society until quite recently was generally tolerant to violence against women, which also limited the government's preparedness and motivation to address the problem. The main causes for such tolerance were the existence of many myths in Estonian society about violence against women (for example, women tend to provoke this kind of behaviour; it is believed that they deserve it) and lack of information about the real situation of women and the hidden violence in domestic environments, and indeed about trafficking in women.

In **Croatia** violence against women is a relatively new public issue, as social response to this problem can be noted only in the last 10 years. Such violence has ceased to be treated as a family issue, and the public attitude is that it is not socially acceptable behaviour.

In **Cyprus** violence against women is one of the least reported crimes. This is due to ingrained socio-cultural attitudes that render violent behaviour acceptable, persistent economic inequalities between women and men, a lack of confidence in the ability of the relevant authorities, a total lack of resources for women victims of violence, fear of social stigmatisation, and a general victim-blaming culture in relation to violence against women.

In **Germany** policymakers as well as the media and parts of the public are aware of the fact that violence against women exists in domestic settings, in institutional contexts and as part of organised crime.

In **Greece** social awareness of VAW does not correspond to the extent of the phenomenon. One of the main factors contributing to a lack of social awareness is the more or less 'invisible' nature of violent behaviours exhibited against women, as such violence is considered a 'private' or 'family' affair. Another factor is the difficulty experienced by victims in denouncing intimate violent acts to the state authorities due to lack of confidence in them⁽⁴³²⁾. Moreover, with regard to trafficking in women, social awareness seems to be low since it involves 'the other' as 'alien'⁽⁴³³⁾.

In **Liechtenstein**, according to equality experts⁽⁴³⁴⁾, there is still a lack of public discussion on violence against women. Thus awareness-raising and information campaigns are the focus of policies in the country. The debate concentrates on sexual offences against women and in particular on domestic violence.

In the former **Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia** discussion of VAW, and in particular domestic violence, is still in its early days in society because it is considered as a private matter that should stay within the family⁽⁴³⁵⁾. However, in latter years more publicity has been given to the issue due to the continued activities of various stakeholders working in the field. In the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, the problem of domestic violence was first taken up by women's and other non-governmental organisations, introducing the first SOS lines for women and children victims of domestic violence and later focusing on their legal regulation.

⁽⁴³²⁾ Magganas, A. K. et al. (2003), 'The problem of complaint. Data from a survey', *Criminal Justice*, Vol. 6, Issue 5, pp.558–565. Μαγγανάς Α. Κ. ά. (2003), 'Το πρόβλημα της καταγγελίας — κατάδοσης. Τα δεδομένα μιας έρευνας', *Ποινική Δικαιοσύνη*, τόμος 6, τεύχος 5, σ. 558–565.

⁽⁴³³⁾ Stratigaki, M. (2006), *The gender of social policy*, Metexmio, Athens (Στρατηγάκη Μ., 2006, 'Το φύλο της κοινωνικής πολιτικής', Αθήνα, Μεταίχιμιο, σελ.).

⁽⁴³⁴⁾ Office of Equal Opportunity, Infra (Information and Contact Office for Women).

⁽⁴³⁵⁾ Chacheva, V. et al. (2007), *Life in a shadow*, Association for Emancipation, Solidarity and Equality of Women in RM (<http://www.esem.org.mk>).

In **Slovakia** gender equality and violation of women's rights are not considered a very serious problem by the public in comparison with other social and economic problems⁽⁴³⁶⁾. However, 83 % of the population perceive violence against women as a serious problem⁽⁴³⁷⁾.

In **Sweden** the level of social awareness of the issue of violence against women is relatively high. Women's organisations started to argue that it was a serious problem in the 1970s; it became a political question, seen as a problem of lack of gender equality, in the 1980s and 1990s, and the government has since allocated fairly large resources to address the problems.

Source: EGGSI network national reports, 2010.

⁽⁴³⁶⁾ ISSP (Slovak Academy of Science) (2009), Výsledky výskumu ISSP, Slovensko 2009–10 (http://www.sociologia.sav.sk/cms/uploaded/1218_attach_buncak_napatie.pdf).

⁽⁴³⁷⁾ ILFR (2008), Bodnárová, B., Filadelfiová, J. and Holubová, B., Representative research on prevalence and experience of women with violence against women (VAW) in Slovakia.

Between 1990 and 2000 in most EU countries, thanks to the role played by NGOs, feminist organisations (in the Czech Republic, Estonia, France, Iceland and Turkey, for example) and international pressure, VAW has gained salience in national policy agendas (Greece, France, Germany, Iceland, for example) (see Box 2.2).

Box 2.2 — The relevance of the problem in policymakers' agendas

In **Croatia**, in contrast to the 1980s, when the first public discussions on domestic violence emerged, in the 1990s the issue no longer appeared to be of public concern. The 2000s however brought a completely new public framework. Highly visible and potentially influential in this respect was the 'National campaign to fight family violence against women', which followed the Council of Europe recommendation and lasted from November 2006 to March 2008⁽⁴³⁸⁾. The campaign included numerous activities, and involved many public persons. In the last two years (after the campaign was over) this issue seems to have lost in appeal and media coverage again.

In **Cyprus** violence within the family has received a great level of support by the government as intimate partner violence is the most common form of violence against women. This would explain why the legislative framework, as well as policies and strategies adopted to address VAW, focus on this specific type of violence. The dominance of family violence within the violence against women agenda, however, also reveals a lack of awareness and understanding of the scope and nature of VAW. Moreover, the term 'violence in the family' is gender-neutral and covers violent behaviour perpetrated by any member of the family, which results in a lack of gender sensitivity and awareness, particularly in protection measures.

In the **Czech Republic** the level of social and political awareness of the issue was very low during the first half of the 1990s. It was mainly the activism of several Czech NGOs that brought the issue of domestic violence and trafficking to the political level. Until recently the issue of domestic violence had been new and especially sensitive, and policies do not consider VAW as a general issue, but focus on domestic violence and trafficking.

In **Estonia** public awareness is greater thanks to NGOs' awareness-raising campaigns on television. During the last few years the issue of violence against women has drawn more attention in the media and in public discussions, mainly in the context of domestic violence.

In **France** the slow adaptation of the legal framework dealing with violence against women during the 1980s and 1990s and its acceleration in the last years show that the issue of combating such violence only recently found its way to the core of policy agenda. It is only in recent years that national political debate has focused on this issue, especially with the launching of triennial plans (2005–07 and 2008–10) to fight violence against women.

⁽⁴³⁸⁾ Ministry of Family, Veterans' Affairs and Intergenerational Solidarity (2006), 'National campaign for the fight against family violence over women,' 'There is no excuse for violence,' 2006–08 [Ministarstvo obitelji, branitelja i međugeneracijske solidarnosti (2006), Nacionalna kampanja za borbu protiv obiteljskog nasilja nad ženama 'Za nasilje nema opravdanja' 2006.–08.] (<http://www.mobms.hr/media/2020/nacionalnakampanjavijeaeurope.doc>).

In **Greece** the public debate on the issue of violence against women seems to be energised by the action taken at international and European forums and is mainly generated within parliament and/or government branches⁽⁴³⁹⁾. The issue of VAW was introduced into the national political agenda when new laws were passed dealing with various aspects of violence, such as the laws on rape (1984), trafficking (2002), sexual harassment in the workplace, as well as domestic violence (2006)⁽⁴⁴⁰⁾.

In **Iceland** the issue of violence against women was brought into public debate in the 1980s by the feminist movement. From there it was pushed onto the political agenda by the Women's Alliance (*Kvennalistinn*), a political party which gained seats in parliament in 1983 and exercised political power in favour of welfare issues regarding gender equality and violence against women and children⁽⁴⁴¹⁾.

In **Poland** violence against women was clearly recognised in the first half of the 1990s. This was in part due to international initiatives, and in part resulted from the very active role of some government agencies and officials⁽⁴⁴²⁾ supported by the activists. At that time, the first government programmes with relevant components were launched and various anti-violence initiatives developed. They were promoted by a strong civic movement with the visible participation of the feminist organisations which had been growing in the meantime. In contrast, the official position has fluctuated, and currently is rather ambiguous. At present, the government places gender-based violence mostly in the context of domestic violence, and does not see it as a problem calling for a special approach. Accordingly, there is no comprehensive programme. The issue is 'spread over' a number of initiatives, including many regulations and a few national programmes, all of which seem to be 'gender blind'.

In **Turkey** the issue of violence against women first entered the public agenda in the late 1980s due to vigorous campaigns by the newly emerging feminist movement against domestic violence, forcible virginity testing and sexual harassment. These campaigns led to the transformation of the issue of violence against women, particularly domestic violence against women including customary/honour killings, into an issue of public debate taken up by the state and drawing response from the institutions in the 1990s and 2000s. The role of the women's movement in Turkey has been crucial not only in putting VAW on the state agenda, but also in providing the state with feminist models of intervention and support, through women's counselling centres and shelters opened by women's organisations, sometimes in cooperation with the municipalities.

Source: EGGSI network national reports, 2010.

⁽⁴³⁹⁾ Memorandum of the Special Permanent Committee of Equality and Human Rights of the Greek House of Parliament, addressed to the Greek Parliament/2007/IB/A (Εκθεση της ειδικής μόνιμης Επιτροπής Ισότητας και Δικαιωμάτων του Ανθρώπου της Βουλής, προς τη Βουλή των Ελλήνων, Περίοδος ΙΒ, Σύνοδος Α, 2007).

⁽⁴⁴⁰⁾ Stratigaki, M. (2006), *The gender of social policy*, Metexmio, Athens, p. 151 (Στρατηγάκη Μ., 2006, 'Το φύλο της κοινωνικής πολιτικής', Αθήνα, Μεταίχμιο, σελ.).

⁽⁴⁴¹⁾ Ministry of Social Affairs and Centre for Gender Equality (2005), *Gender equality in Iceland* (http://www.felagsmalaraduneyti.is/media/acrobat-skjol/Jafnrettisstofa_Stepping_Stones.pdf).

⁽⁴⁴²⁾ Worthy of mention is the activity of the State Agency of the Prevention of Alcohol Related Problems or — irregularly — the Government Plenipotentiary of Family and Women/Government Plenipotentiary of Equal Status of Women and Men.

As expected, in all European countries the **role of the media** is of great importance, in some cases in raising society's awareness of and sensitiveness to the issue of violence (Bulgaria, Spain, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, for example), but, in other cases, in reinforcing negative gender stereotypes

on the role of women in society (Croatia, Cyprus, Greece, Italy, Slovakia, Turkey, for example). In order to improve the documentation and information on violence against women, Spain has produced various protocols with specific recommendations for each kind of media.

Box 2.3 — Media coverage of the problem

In **Bulgaria** there is a limited number of analytical texts dedicated to the issue. In recent years some sociological studies on gender-based violence have been carried out, but due to their purely academic character they lack publicity and their results have not influenced policy analysis and formulation. Currently both the press and the electronic media in Bulgaria are actively providing information and reporting on many cases of violence against women. Their activity is a real contribution in raising general public awareness of violence against women. On an annual basis the media participate in the '16 days of activism against gender violence'. In this way they support the efforts of all stakeholders by raising the sensitiveness of society to the issue of violence. On the other hand, many of the media initiatives are only sporadic, while often seeking a sensational 'hot topic' without giving comprehensive information on the real situation of violence against women and the problems to be overcome.

A problem in **Croatia** is lack of media sensitivity in relation to victims: the 2008–10 national strategy of protection against family violence noted, in fact, that protection of the victim is not a primary concern for the media, and particularly in smaller communities it happens that the media publish a picture of the victim, and the victim becomes an object of mockery, laughter and even banishment.

In **Cyprus** the media have been largely ignored by the government in initiatives to combat violence against women. According to a study carried out by the Mediterranean Institute of Gender Studies, the Cyprus media largely portray and discuss women in ways which support gender inequality⁽⁴⁴³⁾. The media reinforce negative gender stereotypes, and this is equally true when reporting issues related to violence against women and trafficking. Emphasis is usually placed on reporting 'shocking' events regarding the abuse and/or exploitation of women rather than raising awareness and there is rarely any media follow-up on cases of violence against women. However, it must be acknowledged that in recent years the issue of violence against women has taken a more prominent place in media reporting — particularly in the press. Journalists, particularly young women journalists, are taking an increasing interest in human rights issues, including women's rights and gender equality.

In **Greece** the role of the media is described as complex and multi-faced concerning both levels, the level of information (social reality) and the level of spectacle (social imagery)⁽⁴⁴⁴⁾. As regards the definition and promotion of the image of women in society, the Greek media contribute to construct a particular female stereotype, often degrading the image of women and stressing their social inferiority. In doing so, the media also exert a form of psychological violence against the female audience and the general public. As regards the representation of violence against women as violation of women's human rights, the Greek media over-project violent issues with homicide and rape⁽⁴⁴⁵⁾; in so doing they produce new violations of human rights concerning the means and ways of approaching and representing the views of the victim and those of her social environment⁽⁴⁴⁶⁾.

In **Italy**, with regard to the level of social awareness and political debate on the issue, it can be said that violence against women — especially domestic violence — tends to disappear in representations of social reality conveyed by the mass media. The lack of social and institutional representation of the problem of abuse contributes to what in literature has been defined secondary victimisation: women pay the price of others' ignorance and of the common clichés about the phenomenon. This often means not being believed and/or being considered co-responsible for the violence. Recently many cases of rape have been blamed on foreigners, especially Romanians, and this has caused attempts to enforce police state measures as some sort of supposed response to recent incidents of sexual violence, reinforcing the idea of the risk of immigrants and only immigrants committing violence against women.

⁽⁴⁴³⁾ Mediterranean Institute of Gender Studies (2005), *The gender and media handbook: promoting equality, diversity and empowerment*, Nicosia, Cyprus.

⁽⁴⁴⁴⁾ Alygizakis, E. and Panousis, G. (2008), 'Rape as a public spectacle', in Giotakos, O. and Tsiliakou, M. (eds), *The cycle of abuse*, pp. 83–105 [original Αλυγιζάκης Ε.— Πανούσης Γ., 2008, 'Ο βιασμός ως δημόσιο θέαμα', στο Γιωτάκος Ο. — Τσιλιάκου Μ. (επιμ.), 'Ο κύκλος της κακοποίησης', σελ. 83–105]; and Lambropoulou, E. and Arfaras, A. (2000), 'The press and criminality', in: Daskalaki, H. et al. (eds), *Criminals and victims in the eve of the 21st century*, Athens, EKKE, pp. 431–444 [Λαμπροπούλου Ε. — Αρφαράς Α., 2000, 'Τύπος και Εγκληματικότητα', στο Δασκαλάκη Η., κ. ά. (επιμ.), 'Εγκληματίες και θύματα στο κατώφλι του 21ου αιώνα', Αθήνα, ΕΚΚΕ, σελ. 431–444].

⁽⁴⁴⁵⁾ Lambropoulou, E. and Arfaras A. (2000), 'The press and criminality', in: Daskalaki, H. et al. (eds), *Criminals and victims in the eve of the 21st century*, Athens, EKKE, pp. 431–444 [Λαμπροπούλου Ε. — Αρφαράς Α., 2000, 'Τύπος και Εγκληματικότητα', στο Δασκαλάκη Η., κ. ά. (επιμ.), 'Εγκληματίες και θύματα στο κατώφλι του 21ου αιώνα', Αθήνα, ΕΚΚΕ, σελ. 431–444].

⁽⁴⁴⁶⁾ Milioti, P. (2000), 'The media factor', in *Violence against women— Zero tolerance*, conference proceedings, Athens, Progressive Women's Movement, pp. 64–70 [Μηλιώτη Π., 2000, 'Μέσα Μαζικής Ενημέρωσης', στο 'Βία κατά των Γυναικών — Ανοχή Μηδέν', Πρακτικά Συνεδρίου, Αθήνα, Κίνηση Δημοκρατικών Γυναικών].

In 2002, the NGO **Lithuania's Women Association** completed research on 'Attitudes of the media towards VAW'⁽⁴⁴⁷⁾ sponsored by the Open Society Fund–Lithuania. The findings of the research showed that journalists do not consider violence against women to be an important issue. It becomes important only in the extremely cruel cases of violent crime or murder. Emotional violence is considered a minor problem. Journalists define physical and emotional violence against children as the most important issue to transmit to society.

In the **former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia**, with respect to trafficking in women, the Macedonian Institute for Media produced a *Report on the monitoring of the media coverage of human trafficking issues in [the former Yugoslav Republic of] Macedonia*. The final conclusion was that there has been some improvement in the quality of data, particularly with respect to the protection of the victims' identity, but that much still needs to be done to improve reporting on human trafficking overall⁽⁴⁴⁸⁾. Also in reporting VAW campaigns the role of the media is limited to dissemination of information and does not involve comprehensive analysis of the phenomenon.

In **Slovakia** monitoring exercises of media coverage of VAW conducted 10 years ago pointed to a largely victimising, insensitive, sexist and myth-creating approach to the issue of partner violence and trafficking in women⁽⁴⁴⁹⁾. In comparison to the past years, more up-to-date monitoring exercises confirm a slight improvement in the correctness of information on VAW, but, in general, stereotypical images of women continue to be reproduced (predestination of women to maternity, seeing women as sex objects, doubting women's success)⁽⁴⁵⁰⁾. VAW cases are not presented in the media as violations of human rights and gender-based violence. Very often, the cases are approached as crime news, stories to boost circulation, and women are described as passive victims.

In **Spain**, there was a turning point in the treatment of issues related to violence against women in the year 1997, after the murder of a woman killed by her husband after reporting abuse in a television show. This case led the media to focus attention on the reality of violence against women, which until then had been considered only in the realm of pure privacy. The media made a commitment to reflect the cases of violence against women resulting in death or serious injury, in order to give the problem due prominence and make society aware of its seriousness. Article 14 of the Organic Law on Integral Protection Measures against Gender Violence, approved in 2004, states that the media will 'promote the protection and safeguarding of equality between men and women by avoiding any discrimination between the sexes'. As a result, various protocols have been developed to produce and publish information on violence against women, with specific recommendations for each kind of media, applicable to all information in this area.

In **Turkey** in recent years VAW has become more visible as the mass media, and in particular *Hürriyet*, a mainstream national daily newspaper, launched an awareness-raising campaign in 2004 entitled 'End domestic violence!' as part of its corporate social responsibility activities⁽⁴⁵¹⁾. The women's movement, while appreciating the mass media's stand against domestic violence, however adopts a critical attitude towards the continued portrayal of women in stereotypical roles and to the sensationalised coverage of cases of violence against women reported in newspapers and on the television.

Source: EGGSI network national reports, 2010.

⁽⁴⁴⁷⁾ Lietuvos Moterų Draugija (2002), Sociologinio tyrimo 'Žiniasklaidos darbuotojų požiūris į smurtą prieš moteris' ataskaita [Report on the sociological research by the Lithuanian Women's Association].

⁽⁴⁴⁸⁾ Report on the monitoring of the media coverage of human trafficking issues in [the former Yugoslav Republic of] Macedonia, Macedonian Institute for Media, pp. 1, 7.

⁽⁴⁴⁹⁾ Ester mirror project realised by Fenestra in 1999. Press monitoring was repeated also in 2000 and 2001, Salingová, A. (2005) in ILFR (2009).

⁽⁴⁵⁰⁾ Bútorová, Z. et al. (2008), She and he in Slovakia. Gender and age in the period of transition. Institute for Public Affairs (http://www.ivo.sk/buxus/docs/publikacie/subory/She_and_He.pdf). The book is the fruit of a project called 'Plus for women 45+' within the EU's EQUAL initiative.

⁽⁴⁵¹⁾ Hürriyet Gazetesi Aileiçi Şiddete Son! Kampanyası (Hürriyet newspaper's 'End domestic violence!' campaign) (<http://www.ipra.org/detail.asp?articleid=66>).

Social awareness remains an area that requires greater response and public action: as stated by the Council of Europe (2009) ⁽⁴⁵²⁾, awareness-raising programmes and campaigns should be launched in all Member States to draw public attention to violence against women, and more specifically to its causes and damaging effects for both the victims and the community. In particular, ‘these awareness-raising programmes and campaigns should also emphasise the fact that these problems are not private matters, but are in fact a human rights violation. Awareness-raising activities and/or programmes should, in the long term, pursue the aim of altering ideas, attitudes and prejudices which persist, and which constitute factors which lead to violence’ ⁽⁴⁵³⁾. The report concludes that the role of the media in raising awareness of violence against women and in challenging prevailing stereotypes in gender roles should also be explored.

2.2. A brief overview of the European framework

The international recognition of violence against women as a human rights violation is the result of years of dedicated campaigning by women’s rights activists, feminist movements and survivors of violence, who have played a crucial role in including this issue in the national and international political agenda. While in the 1980s and 1990s violence against women was mostly addressed as a human rights violation, since then progress has been made in considering VAW also as a type of gender-related violence, which has its roots in a long-prevailing discrimination of women, socioeconomic gender inequalities and cultural prejudices on gender roles. Currently, this issue is addressed both as a human rights violation and as a specific gender-related form of violence, to be separated from other forms of violence which might affect both men and women.

Since the 1990s several international conferences have addressed this issue, and recommendations, declarations and resolutions have been produced to pave the way for European institutions and Member States to address the problem. The General Recommendation 19 of the CEDAW Committee (1992), the United Nations Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women (1993), the World Conference on Women (Beijing) 1995, are considered landmarks in recognising the problem of VAW at international level, providing further inputs to reinforce work on the issue at the European level. In 1994, the UN introduced the first Special Rapporteur on violence against women, its causes and consequences to investigate the issue and produce recommendations ⁽⁴⁵⁴⁾.

This section provides a brief overview of the relevant European — legally binding and non-binding — instruments addressing issues related to VAW adopted by the Council of Europe and the European Union. These instruments have also served as a basis for adapting national legislation to European standards — a process which is still under way.

The Council of Europe has, since 1985, addressed the problem of violence against women, producing recommendations and resolutions, guidelines and minimum standards for prevention and support services, emphasising the need to implement an adequate legislative framework, support services, data collection, and awareness-raising, information and education. The most relevant instrument as regards addressing violence against women produced by the Council of Europe is Recommendation Rec(2002)5 on the protection of women against violence, adopted by the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe in April 2002 (see Box 2.4).

⁽⁴⁵²⁾ Council of Europe (2009), Interim Report (http://www.coe.int/t/dghl/standardsetting/violence/CAHVIO_2009_4%20FIN_en%20_2.pdf).

⁽⁴⁵³⁾ Council of Europe (2009), Interim Report (http://www.coe.int/t/dghl/standardsetting/violence/CAHVIO_2009_4%20FIN_en%20_2.pdf).

⁽⁴⁵⁴⁾ [http://www.unhchr.ch/Huridocda/Huridoca.nsf/0/d90c9e2835619e79c1256ce00058c145/\\$FILE/G0310100.pdf](http://www.unhchr.ch/Huridocda/Huridoca.nsf/0/d90c9e2835619e79c1256ce00058c145/$FILE/G0310100.pdf)

Box 2.4 — Recommendation Rec(2002)5 on the protection of women against violence

Recommendation Rec(2002)5 on the protection of women against violence was the first European legal document to frame a comprehensive approach towards overcoming violence against women. It set up the general principles and described the necessary measures in services, legislation, policing, intervention with perpetrators, awareness-raising, education and training, and data collection⁽⁴⁵⁵⁾. It also covers all forms of gender-based violence. The recommendation also calls on the member countries to inform the Council of Europe on the follow-up activities undertaken at the national level. To monitor the progress of implementation of the recommendations, a monitoring framework was drawn up and sent to member countries for the first time in 2005. The results were presented in the study *Combating violence against women — Stocktaking study on the measures and actions taken in Council of Europe member states* (2006)⁽⁴⁵⁶⁾. Important activities were also carried out in the member countries, such as international campaigns, seminars and conferences involving governmental and non-governmental representatives and members of parliament focusing on legal measures, data collection, the role of men and the provision of services in the field of violence against women. Of great importance for awareness-raising was the ‘Campaign to combat violence against women, including domestic violence’, launched in Madrid on 27 November 2006 by the Council of Europe and concluded in June 2008, when assessment of national measures to combat violence against women and recommendations for future action in this field were presented⁽⁴⁵⁷⁾.

Source: EGGSI network national reports, 2010.

⁽⁴⁵⁵⁾ Council of Europe (2007), Protecting women against violence. Analytical study on the effective implementation of Recommendation Rec(2002)5 on the protection of women against violence in Council of Europe member states. Equality Division, Directorate-General of Human Rights, Strasbourg (http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/domesticviolencecampaign/Source/EN_CDEG_2007_3_complete.pdf).

⁽⁴⁵⁶⁾ Council recommendation of 31 May 2007 on the prevention of injury and the promotion of safety (http://epacvaw.org/IMG/pdf/Copy_of_NAP-final-feb07.pdf).

⁽⁴⁵⁷⁾ <http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/DOMESTICVIOLENCECAMPAIGN/>

The Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe recently (April 2009) set up an Ad Hoc Committee on Preventing Violence against Women (CAHVIO) — an expert group whose task is to prepare a legally binding instrument to prevent and combat domestic violence at the European level. At its most recent meeting (February 2010), the Committee completed the first reading of the Draft Council of Europe Convention on Preventing and Combating Violence against Women and Domestic Violence, which is expected to be presented by the end of 2010. The envisaged activities include the establishment of EU-wide minimum standards⁽⁴⁵⁸⁾.

At the European Union level, the main legislative binding instruments to apply to VAW-related issues are presented in Box 2.5. These instruments address discrimination based on sex or sexual orientation, sexual harassment, trafficking for labour and sexual exploitation. The European Union has not, as of yet, on the basis of its competencies, issued a generally binding instrument on the protection of women against gender-based violence as such.

⁽⁴⁵⁸⁾ Council of Europe (2009), Fact sheet on combating violence against women, Strasbourg (http://www.coe.int/t/dghl/standardsetting/equality/02factsheets/Facsheet-VAW_en.pdf).

Box 2.5 — European Union main binding legislative instruments on VAW-related issues ⁽⁴⁵⁹⁾

- Directive 97/80/EC on the burden of proof in cases of discrimination based on sex
- Directive 2000/78/EC establishing a general framework for equal treatment in employment and occupation, recast by Directive 2006/54/EC on the implementation of the principle of equal opportunities and equal treatment of men and women in matters of employment and occupation
- Council Framework Decision 2001/220/JHA of 15 March 2001 on the standing of victims in criminal proceedings
- Directive 2002/73/EC amending Council Directive 76/207/EEC on the implementation of the principle of equal treatment for men and women as regards access to employment, vocational training and promotion, and working conditions
- Framework Decision 2002/629/JHA on combating trafficking in human beings
- Directive 2004/81/EC on the residence permit for third-country victims of trafficking who cooperate with the authorities
- Directive 2004/83/EC on minimum standards for the qualification and status of third-country nationals or stateless persons as refugees or as persons who otherwise need international protection and the content of the protection granted
- Directive 2004/113/EC of 13 December 2004 implementing the principle of equal treatment between men and women in the access to and supply of goods and services
- Directive 2004/80/EC relating to compensation to crime victims

Source: Summary of 8 March 2010, Council of the European Union 3000th Employment and Social Policy Council meeting, conclusions on the eradication of violence against women in the European Union (http://www.europa-eu-un.org/articles/en/article_9553_en.htm); and Bellander Todino, Ingrid (2009), 'Current work and initiatives to combat violence against women at EU level'. European Commission, Justice, Freedom and Security DG (http://www.se2009.eu/polopoly_fs/1.24003!menu/standard/file/Presentation%20EU%20perspective_VAW%20conference%209%20November%202009.pdf).

⁽⁴⁵⁹⁾ CAHVIO (2009), Compilation of international legal instruments. Committee on Preventing and Combating Violence against Women and Domestic Violence (http://www.coe.int/t/dghl/standardsetting/violence/compilation_en.pdf).

Legally binding instruments have been adopted promoting gender equality and non-discrimination in employment and in the access to and supply of goods and services, which explicitly prohibit sexual harassment as a form of discrimination. Such is the case for Directive 2002/72/EC on the implementation of the principle of equal treatment for men and women as regards access to employment, vocational training and promotion, and working conditions (recast Directive 2006/54/EC on the implementation of the principle of equal opportunities and equal treatment of men and women in matters of employment and occupation), and Directive 2004/113/EC implementing the principle of equal treatment between men and women in the access to and supply of goods and services.

In addition, a framework decision on the standing of victims of criminal proceedings (Council Framework Decision 2001/220/JHA)⁽⁴⁶⁰⁾ was adopted in 2001, which is important for women victims of violence seeking criminal justice, because it

⁽⁴⁶⁰⁾ Council Framework Decision 2001/220/JHA of 15 March 2001 on the standing of victims in criminal proceedings (http://europa.eu/legislation_summaries/justice_freedom_security/judicial_cooperation_in_criminal_matters/jl0027_en.htm).

provides measures to ensure that victims are treated with respect, receive information on all aspects of criminal proceedings and on their rights, and are supported by specialised services.

Trafficking in human beings is addressed by Framework Decision 2002/629/JHA on sexual exploitation. The protection of migrant and ethnic minority women who might be victims of trafficking⁽⁴⁶¹⁾ is addressed by Directive 2004/81/EC on the residence permit issued to third-country nationals who are victims of trafficking⁽⁴⁶²⁾. Since December 2009, human trafficking and sexual exploitation of women and children are also explicitly considered in the Lisbon Treaty⁽⁴⁶³⁾ extending the European Union's competence for the harmonisation of criminal law.

⁽⁴⁶¹⁾ COM(2008) 359 (<http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=COM:2008:0359:FIN:EN:PDF>).

⁽⁴⁶²⁾ Council Directive 2004/81/EC of 29 April 2004 on the residence permit issued to third-country nationals who are victims of trafficking in human beings or who have been the subject of an action to facilitate illegal immigration, who cooperate with the competent authorities.

⁽⁴⁶³⁾ Articles 79(2) and 83(1) of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union (TFEU) (http://www.europarl.europa.eu/meetdocs/2004_2009/documents/pr/728/728952/728952en.pdf).

Since the late 1990s, European Union institutions have renewed their commitment in fighting VAW, which has led to the production of several recommendations and declarations addressing VAW and the promotion of more effective EU-wide and national strategies; a commitment which is largely envisaged by the EU citizens. According to the most recent Eurobarometer survey on domestic violence against women (2010), 87 % of the EU-27 citizens support the EU's involvement for eradicating domestic violence against women, feeling that the EU should be probably or definitely involved⁽⁴⁶⁴⁾. This was the result already in the earlier 2009 Eurobarometer on gender equality, according to which 61% of respondents consider that decisions on the issue should be taken jointly⁽⁴⁶⁵⁾. However, very few people (14 %) are familiar with the specific EU measures to tackle the problem⁽⁴⁶⁶⁾.

The Swedish (July-December 2009) and Spanish (January-June 2010) Presidencies of the Council of the European Union put the fight against VAW among their priorities⁽⁴⁶⁷⁾. The Stockholm Programme (2010-2014) adopted under the Swedish Presidency includes the commitment to better fight violence against women and children, including domestic violence and female genital mutilation⁽⁴⁶⁸⁾, while under the Spanish Presidency (January-June 2010) relevant Council Conclusions were adopted: 1) the March 2010 Council Conclusions on the "Eradication of Violence Against Women in the European Union"⁽⁴⁶⁹⁾ set the road for further measures to effectively combat violence against women, calling for exchange of best practices and the establishment of a network of national contact points to improve cooperation, as well as the establishment of a European Observatory for better data collection and exchange, and the implementation of an EU-wide telephone number for victims of such violence (116); 2) the April 2010 Council Conclusions address the issue of "Improving prevention to tackle

violence against women and care to its victims within the scope of law enforcement"⁽⁴⁷⁰⁾.

The European Parliament has had an important role in supporting activities against VAW. It has adopted various resolutions and called on Member States to 'make domestic violence against women, including rape within marriage and sexual mutilation, a criminal offence and to set up services to help women who are victims of this kind of violence'⁽⁴⁷¹⁾. It has also been calling upon the European Commission and Member States to consider violence against women as a human rights violation and to introduce specific legislation to protect victims in criminal proceedings and in the family and 'to include concrete measures to prevent all forms of violence, protect victims and prosecute perpetrators'⁽⁴⁷²⁾.

The European Parliament's resolutions have addressed, amongst others, the current situation in combating violence against women and any future action (P6_TA(2006)0038), the elimination of violence against women (P7_TA(2009)0098), as well as female genital mutilation (2001/2035(INI) and P6_TA(2009)0161).

The European Commission's most relevant policy documents for promoting gender equality and fighting violence against women are the Strategy for equality between women and men 2010–15⁽⁴⁷³⁾, which follows the Women's Charter⁽⁴⁷⁴⁾ and the Roadmap for equality between women and men 2006–10⁽⁴⁷⁵⁾. The EU guidelines on violence against women and girls and combating all forms of discrimination against them (2008) are an important tool for action⁽⁴⁷⁶⁾.

⁽⁴⁶⁴⁾ European Commission (2010), Domestic violence against women. Special Eurobarometer 344, Wave 73.2. (http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/archives/ebs/ebs_344_en.pdf).

⁽⁴⁶⁵⁾ European Commission (2010), Gender equality in the EU in 2009. Special Eurobarometer 326, Wave 72.2. (http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/archives/ebs/ebs_326_sum_en.pdf).

⁽⁴⁶⁶⁾ European Commission (2010), 'Domestic violence against women'. Special Eurobarometer 344, WAVE 73.2 (http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/archives/ebs/ebs_344_en.pdf).

⁽⁴⁶⁷⁾ http://www.womenlobby.org/site/1Template1.asp?DocID=2741&v1ID=&RevID=&namePage=&pageParent=&DocID_sousmenu=

⁽⁴⁶⁸⁾ http://www.se2009.eu/en/the_presidency/about_the_eu/justice_and_home_affairs/1.1965

⁽⁴⁶⁹⁾ Council conclusions on the eradication of violence against women in the European Union, see: http://www.consilium.europa.eu/uedocs/cms_data/docs/pressdata/en/lisa/113226.pdf

⁽⁴⁷⁰⁾ Council conclusions on improving prevention to tackle violence against women and care to its victims within the scope of law enforcements in April 2010, see: http://www.consilium.europa.eu/uedocs/cms_Data/docs/pressdata/en/jha/114015.pdf

⁽⁴⁷¹⁾ According to the resolution on the report from the Commission to the Council, the European Parliament, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions on the state of women's health in the European Community (COM(97) 0224 C4-0333/97) (OJ C 175, 21.6.1999), the European Parliament (<http://www1.umu.edu/humanrts/svaw/domestic/laws/regional.htm>).

⁽⁴⁷²⁾ European Parliament resolution of 26 November 2009 on the elimination of violence against women (P7_TA(2009)0098)) (<http://www.europarl.europa.eu/sides/getDoc.do?pubRef=-//EP//NONSGML+TA+P7-2009-0098+0+DOC+PDF+V0//EN>).

⁽⁴⁷³⁾ European Commission (2010), 'Strategy for equality between women and men 2010–15'. COM(2010)078, Brussels. <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=CELEX:52010DC0078:EN:NOT>

⁽⁴⁷⁴⁾ European Commission (Women's Charter), COM(2010) 078, Brussels (<http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=CELEX:52010DC0078:EN:NOT>).

⁽⁴⁷⁵⁾ http://europa.eu/legislation_summaries/employment_and_social_policy/equality_between_men_and_women/c10404_en.htm and <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=CELEX:52006DC0092:EN:NOT>

⁽⁴⁷⁶⁾ <http://www.consilium.europa.eu/uedocs/cmsUpload/16173cor.en08.pdf>

The Women's Charter (adopted in March 2010), representing a strengthened commitment for equality between women and men, identified the eradication of gender-based violence as one of its five priority areas for the term of the Barroso II Commission⁽⁴⁷⁷⁾, following in the footsteps of its roadmap for equality between women and men for 2006–10. This charter announces the creation of a comprehensive strategy to fight violence against women, which is also included in the action plan 'Implementing the Stockholm programme'. It envisages putting in place 'a comprehensive and effective policy framework to combat gender-based violence as well as measures, including criminal law, within the limits of its powers, to eradicate FGM across Europe'⁽⁴⁷⁸⁾, a commitment reiterated in the strategy for equality between women and men 2010–15 (adopted in September 2010).

The European Commission also plays an important role in the promotion and financial support of research and activities for prevention, treatment and social integration measures at national and local level. The Daphne initiative (Daphne, Daphne II and Daphne III programmes) has since 1997 supported NGOs and local governments in the implementation of measures to prevent and combat violence against children, young people and women (see Box 2.6)⁽⁴⁷⁹⁾. Several European-wide and national campaigns have been launched in the last decade to raise awareness of the issues, with particular focus on domestic violence, which were financed by the Daphne programmes⁽⁴⁸⁰⁾.

Box 2.6 — The European Daphne programme

Daphne is an EU programme to prevent and combat all forms of violence against children, young people and women in Europe and to support victims. The general objective of the current Daphne III programme is to contribute to the protection of children, young people and women against all forms of violence and to attain a high level of health protection, well-being and social cohesion. Since its implementation in 1997 it has become an important instrument for the implementation of transnational actions by NGOs and local authorities (grant funding), the Commission's own initiated actions (contracts) and operating grants to NGOs. No definition of violence has been provided by the Daphne programme, as it sought to explore violence as understood by the people of Europe themselves — leaders, partners, participants and beneficiaries of Daphne funded actions — and thus to map out the whole gamut of actions, structures, frameworks and attitudes that are 'violence' in Europe⁽⁴⁸¹⁾. Since its creation, Daphne has funded a wide range of activities to combat all kinds of violence against children, women and young people⁽⁴⁸²⁾. The programme has produced the *Daphne booklets* which give an overview of eight specific forms of violence in Europe and detail lessons emerging from Daphne-funded projects⁽⁴⁸³⁾.

⁽⁴⁸¹⁾ European Commission (2003), *The Daphne experience 1997–2003*, p. 19 (http://ec.europa.eu/justice/funding/2004_2007/daphne/doc/daphne_experience/daphne_experience_en.pdf).

⁽⁴⁸²⁾ An extensive list of all finalised projects funded by the Daphne programme, including summaries and outputs, is available in the Daphne toolkit (http://ec.europa.eu/justice_home/daphnetoolkit/html/welcome/dpt_welcome_en.html).

⁽⁴⁸³⁾ http://ec.europa.eu/justice_home/daphnetoolkit/html/booklets/dpt_booklets_en.html

⁽⁴⁷⁷⁾ http://ec.europa.eu/commission_2010-2014/president/news/documents/2010/03/20100305_2_en.htm

⁽⁴⁷⁸⁾ European Commission (2010), 'Strategy for equality between women and men 2010–15', COM(2010) 491 final, Brussels (<http://ec.europa.eu/social/BlobServlet?docId=5770&langId=en>).

⁽⁴⁷⁹⁾ See, for instance, Kane, June (2008), *Family violence, Daphne booklets: Issues and experiences in combating violence against children, young people and women* (http://ec.europa.eu/justice_home/daphnetoolkit/files/others/booklets/05_daphne_booklet_5_en.pdf) and the Daphne database (http://ec.europa.eu/justice_home/daphnetoolkit/).

⁽⁴⁸⁰⁾ See also Daphne — Campaign messages and materials from Daphne programme projects: 'Campaigns on domestic violence' and 'Campaigns against sexual abuse and exploitation of children and women' (http://ec.europa.eu/justice_home/daphnetoolkit/html/europe_violence/dpt_europe_violence_en.html).

The first activities of the Daphne initiative in the period 1997 until 1999 were carried out on an annual basis. Since then the European Commission has continued the activities with Daphne I (2000–03)⁽⁴⁸⁴⁾, Daphne II (2004–08) (with a budget of EUR 50 million) and Daphne III (2007–13) (with a budget of EUR 116 million). The ongoing Daphne III finances the following types of actions: assisting and encouraging NGOs and other organisations active in this field; developing and implementing targeted awareness-raising actions; disseminating results obtained under the previous Daphne programmes; actions contributing to positive treatment of people at risk; setting up and supporting multi-disciplinary networks; expansion of the knowledge base and exchange, identification and dissemination of information and good practice; designing and testing awareness-raising and educational materials; studying phenomena related to violence and its impact; developing and implementing support programmes for victims and people at risk and intervention programmes for perpetrators⁽⁴⁸⁵⁾.

⁽⁴⁸⁴⁾ European Commission (2003), The Daphne experience 1997–2003 (http://ec.europa.eu/justice/funding/2004_2007/daphne/doc/daphne_experience/daphne_experience_en.pdf).

⁽⁴⁸⁵⁾ http://ec.europa.eu/justice/funding/daphne3/funding_daphne3_en.htm

2.3. Policy approaches adopted in European countries

In the European countries, political commitment to combat violence against women has been increasing in the last decade, thanks to the dedication and actions of the international institutions (as described above), women's movements and NGOs.

Overall, the government approaches adopted have followed a common path. The 'first wave of activity has generally involved elements of legal reform, police training and the establishment of specialised services for victims'⁽⁴⁸⁶⁾. However, in many countries legal and policy reforms have little effect without a change in social attitudes towards violence against women and in the institutional culture and practice. For these reasons, in more recent years the focus has been on awareness-raising and prevention measures and on the enhancement of actions to support victims and their social integration.

The contribution of international organisations and European programmes has been especially relevant for supporting institutional learning, particularly in southern and eastern European countries and in candidate countries.

After a brief introduction to the evolution of legislative measures under national laws, this section focuses on the main policy approaches adopted in the 33 countries considered in this report, identifying the strategies promoted at national level to fight violence against women, the main forms of violence addressed, the type of measures and groups of women most considered.

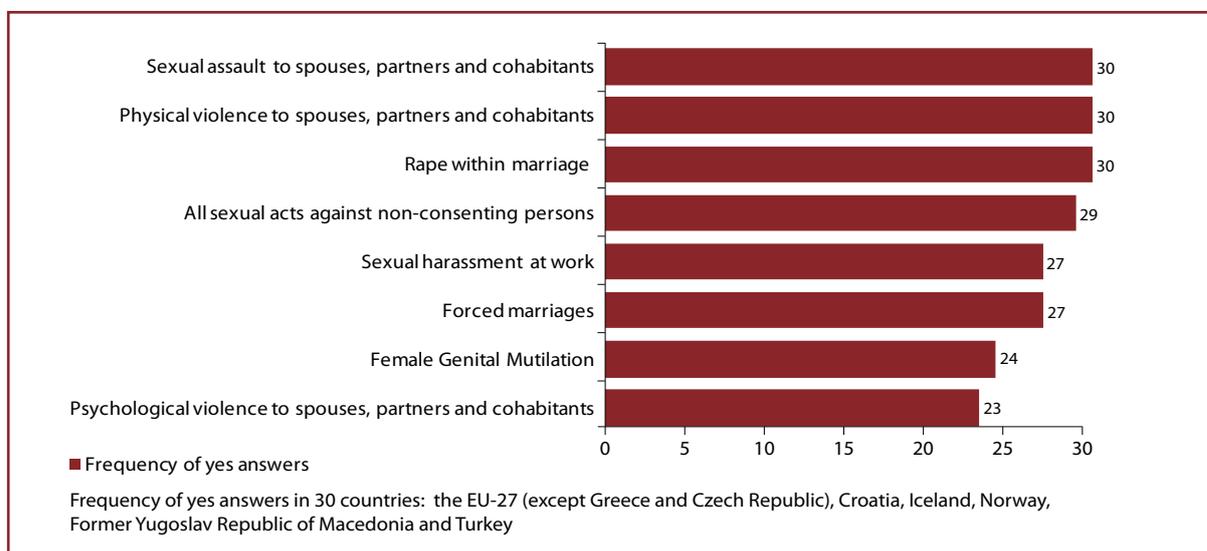
2.3.1. Evolution of legislation and national action plans

An extensive body of legislation has been brought in to address the different forms that violence against women may take. Monitoring data of the Council of Europe⁽⁴⁸⁷⁾ summarised in Figure 2.2 show that all the 33 European countries considered in the present report for which information is available have implemented specific legislative measures addressing violence against women both in criminal and civil law. The main forms of violence that are penalised are sexual violence and physical domestic violence. On the other hand, female genital mutilation and psychological domestic violence are penalised in fewer countries⁽⁴⁸⁸⁾.

⁽⁴⁸⁷⁾ Council of Europe (2008), Protecting women against violence — Analytical study of the results of the second round of monitoring the implementation of Recommendation Rec(2002)5 on the protection of women against violence in Council of Europe member states, Strasbourg (http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/domesticviolencecampaign/Source/CDEG%20%282008%29%20rev_en.pdf).

⁽⁴⁸⁸⁾ According to the Council of Europe (2008), FGM is not penalised in Finland, Hungary and Romania (no information available for Slovenia, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia and Turkey); psychological domestic violence is not penalised in Hungary, Iceland, Latvia, the Netherlands and Turkey (no information for Austria and Ireland); forced marriage is not penalised in Finland and the Netherlands (no answer for Slovenia); harassment at work is not penalised in Ireland and the Netherlands (no answer for Austria).

⁽⁴⁸⁶⁾ WHO (2002), World report on violence and health, edited by Etienne G. Krug, Linda L. Dahlberg, James A. Mercy, Anthony B. Zwi and Rafael Lozano (http://whqlibdoc.who.int/publications/2002/9241545615_eng.pdf).

Figure 2.2 — Acts of violence penalised in European countries

Source: Council of Europe (2008), Protecting women against violence. Analytical study of the results of the second round of monitoring implementation of Recommendation Rec(2002)5 on the protection of women against violence in Council of Europe member states, Strasbourg ([http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/domesticviolencecampaign/Source/CDEG %20 %282008 %29 %20rev_en.pdf](http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/domesticviolencecampaign/Source/CDEG%20%282008%29%20rev_en.pdf)).

However, in most countries 'some of the less common forms of violence against women are often assumed to be covered by more general criminal acts'⁽⁴⁸⁹⁾ and this leaves loopholes in the protection of women, especially when the victim's request or consent is required in order to proceed (as is still the case in the prosecution of domestic violence in some countries)⁽⁴⁹⁰⁾, or when violence is difficult to document (as in the case of psychological violence), or when the violence is not punishable if perpetrated with the 'consent' of the injured party or of her parent/guardian (consent that may be extorted or derive from cultural and family pressures, as in the cases of sexual violence, genital mutilation, or forced marriage).

It is notable that female genital mutilation has only recently been considered in specific provisions of criminal law by an increasing number of countries including Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Italy, Spain,

Sweden and the UK⁽⁴⁹¹⁾. An extensive provision is included in the Austrian criminal law amendment, which ensured that consent cannot be given to 'mutilation or wounding of the genitals that is intended to bring about a permanent impairment of sexual sensation'. Such clarification could be a model of good practice. In other countries FGM is not considered a specific (gender-related) crime but is subject to general criminal law⁽⁴⁹²⁾ as bodily harm. This means that FGM in some countries is not punishable if perpetrated with the 'consent' of the injured party or her parent/guardian.

Besides loopholes in penalisation of certain forms of violence against women, another common problem in many European countries are the low rates of prosecution and of conviction for domestic violence and rape. To contrast this problem, the Council of Europe indicates as examples of good practice the creation in the UK and Spain of specialised courts for gender violence (UK) or domestic violence (Spain), accompanied by specific awareness-raising and training programmes for the judiciary and police systems.

⁽⁴⁸⁹⁾ Council of Europe (2008), Protecting women against violence. Analytical study of the results of the second round of monitoring the implementation of Recommendation Rec(2002)5 on the protection of women against violence in Council of Europe member states ([http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/domesticviolencecampaign/Source/CDEG%20 %282008%29%20rev_en.pdf](http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/domesticviolencecampaign/Source/CDEG%20%282008%29%20rev_en.pdf)).

⁽⁴⁹⁰⁾ A detailed discussion of the different typologies of domestic violence law in European countries is presented in: Council of Europe (2009), Typology of domestic violence laws in Council of Europe member states— A preliminary overview. Ad Hoc Committee on Preventing and Combating Violence against Women and Domestic Violence (CAHVIO), Strasbourg (http://www.coe.int/t/dghl/standardsetting/violence/CAHVIO%20_2009_13%20%20e.pdf).

⁽⁴⁹¹⁾ Council of Europe (2008), Protecting women against violence. Analytical study of the results of the second round of monitoring the implementation of Recommendation Rec(2002)5 on the protection of women against violence in Council of Europe member states ([http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/domesticviolencecampaign/Source/CDEG%20 %282008%29%20rev_en.pdf](http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/domesticviolencecampaign/Source/CDEG%20%282008%29%20rev_en.pdf)).

⁽⁴⁹²⁾ Amnesty International, 'End FGM' European campaign (<http://www.endfgm.eu>).

Finally, legislation and criminal law, while important to define the victims' rights to safety, protection and rehabilitation and to prosecute and punish the perpetrators, are not sufficient without adequate prevention and victim support programmes and services. A comprehensive strategy is necessary to guide and coordinate legal measures, policies and programmes, services and research, involving all the relevant stakeholders.

Recent years have seen increased commitment on the part of the European countries to adopt comprehensive policy strategies addressing violence against women within multi-year national

action plans and other national strategies. Table 2.1 offers an overview of the diffusion of national action plans (NAPs) or other relevant policy documents on violence against women on the basis of the EGGSI national reports and of the UN Secretary-General's database on violence against women⁽⁴⁹³⁾

The existence and contents of national action plans on violence against women⁽⁴⁹⁴⁾ and other such documents representing political commitment to combating violence against women provide useful information on the approach adopted in different European countries and also represent a necessary prerequisite⁽⁴⁹⁵⁾ for effective strategies.

Table 2.1 — National action plans on violence against women and period of validity

Country	National action plans (NAPs) on VAW						Other documents and national plans including provisions on VAW			
	All forms of violence against women (VAW)	Trafficking in human beings (THB)	Domestic violence (DV), intimate partner violence (IPV), family violence	Female genital mutilation (FGM)	Forced marriage	Violence against children and teenagers	NAPs on equal opportunity	NAPs for social inclusion	National security plans	Other strategic documents
Austria		2007–08 2009–11		2007–11						
Belgium	2001–03 2010–14 (draft)	2008–11	2004–07 2008–09			Yes		Yes	Yes	
Bulgaria		2007 2008 2009–10	2007–08				Yes			Yes
Croatia		2005–08 2009–11	2005–07 2008–10				Yes			Yes
Cyprus		2010–12 2005	2010–15				Yes			Yes
Czech Republic		2008–11	2009–13 (draft)				Yes			
Denmark	2002–05	2002–06 2007–10	2005–08 2009–12		2003–05		Yes			Yes
Estonia	2010–14	2006–09								Yes
Finland	1998–2002 2007–08	2008	2004–07				Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
France	2005–07 2008–10			2010 (draft)			Yes (draft)			

⁽⁴⁹³⁾ <http://webapps01.un.org/vawdatabase/home.action>

⁽⁴⁹⁴⁾ Council of Europe (2008), Protecting women against violence. Analytical study of the results of the second round of monitoring the implementation of Recommendation Rec(2002)5 on the protection of women against violence in Council of Europe member states (http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/domesticviolencecampaign/Source/CDEG%20%282008%29%20rev_en.pdf).

⁽⁴⁹⁵⁾ European Women's Lobby (2007), Reality check: when women's NGOs map policies and legislation on violence against women in Europe (http://epacvaw.org/IMG/pdf/Copy_of_NAP-final-feb07.pdf).

Country	National action plans (NAPs) on VAW						Other documents and national plans including provisions on VAW			
	All forms of violence against women (VAW)	Trafficking in human beings (THB)	Domestic violence (DV), intimate partner violence (IPV), family violence	Female genital mutilation (FGM)	Forced marriage	Violence against children and teenagers	NAPs on equal opportunity	NAPs for social inclusion	National security plans	Other strategic documents
Germany	1999–2006 2007					2003				Yes
Greece	2009–13									Yes
Hungary		2008–12						Yes		Yes
Iceland	Draft	2009	2006–11							Yes
Ireland	2010–14	2009–12	2010–14	2008						Yes
Italy										Regional action plans
Latvia		2009–13	2008–11				Yes			Yes
Liechtenstein		2009	2006–08							
Lithuania		2002–04 2005–08	2007–09 2010–12				Yes	Yes		Yes
Luxembourg							Yes			
Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia		2006	2008–11				Yes	Yes		
Malta	2007–08 (not implemented)		2008–09					Yes		Yes
Netherlands		2004	2008–11				Yes	Yes		Yes
Norway	2000–03	2003–05 2006–09	2000–03 2004–07 2008–11	2000–07 2008–11	2008–11		Yes		Yes	
Poland		2005–06 2007–08 2009–10	2006–16							Yes
Portugal		2007–10	1999–2003 2003–06 2007–10	2009				Yes		Yes
Romania		2006–10 2006–07 2008–10	2005–07 2009–13 (draft)			2005–07	Yes			Yes
Slovakia	2005–08 2009–12	2006–07 2008–10	2004			2008–01	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Slovenia		2004–06 2007 2008–09 2010–11	2009–14				Yes			Yes
Spain	2007–08	2009–12	1998–00			2006–09	Yes			
Sweden	2007–10	2008–10		2003–05		1998				Yes
Turkey		2003 2010	2007–10 2006							Yes
United Kingdom (including Northern Ireland)	2007 2008–11	2007 2006	2003–05 2005	2007						Yes

Source: EGGSI national reports, 2010, and the UN Secretary-General's database on violence against women ⁽⁴⁹⁶⁾.

⁽⁴⁹⁶⁾ <http://webapps01.un.org/vawdatabase/home.action>

According to the EGGSI national reports, 30 out of the 33 countries considered (except Hungary, Italy and Luxembourg) currently either have a dedicated NAP addressing all forms of violence against women, or separate national plans for specific forms of violence⁽⁴⁹⁷⁾. Hungary and Luxembourg do not have any dedicated NAPs addressing violence against women, but some measures to fight such violence are included in their strategy to promote gender equality, while in Italy action plans on VAW are in place in some regions. In early 2010 Hungary published a resolution on gender policy, called the 2010–21 national gender strategy⁽⁴⁹⁸⁾. The structure of the national gender strategy follows precisely the composition and the topics of the gender equality roadmap of the European Commission for the years 2006–10⁽⁴⁹⁹⁾, where the question of combating violence against women is one of the six priority areas. In order to meet the targets, the Hungarian strategic priorities support the development of a legal framework, the creation of crisis intervention centres for victims of violence and prevention activities.

The existing dedicated NAPs are very diverse. In many cases they do not clearly specify the agencies responsible to achieve the goals and the role of the different organisations involved in the strategy, the concrete actions to be implemented, the budget allocated, the benchmarks to be achieved and the time frame. In addition only a few countries (for example, Belgium and Sweden) have monitored and evaluated outcomes.

Seven countries (Estonia, France, Greece, Ireland, Slovakia, Sweden, the UK) currently have a comprehensive action plan addressing most forms of violence against women, and five have had a comprehensive NAP in the past (Denmark, Finland, Germany, Norway, Spain), while Belgium, Iceland and Malta are currently preparing one.

Box 2.7 presents examples of comprehensive action plans on (most) forms of violence against women.

Box 2.7 — Examples of comprehensive NAPs addressing most forms of violence against women

In **Estonia**, the first action plan on VAW for 2010–14 (adopted in April 2010)⁽⁵⁰⁰⁾ includes measures on violence in close relationships and trafficking in human beings, implemented by the Ministry of Social Affairs and updated yearly with a three-year perspective. The plan includes measures for preventing and combating intimate partner abuse through improved services for victims, increased competence of experts and prevention activities to change attitudes and raise awareness, and measures to combat human trafficking through prevention and improved services for victims, including shelters⁽⁵⁰¹⁾. Violence against women is also considered in the 2004 Gender Equality Act (including sexual harassment in the workplace and in schools), and the national health plan for 2009–20⁽⁵⁰²⁾ refers to the issue of family violence.

In **France** NAPs to fight violence against women have been launched since 2005. They cover wide-ranging issues. The plans contain prevention programmes addressing a wide range of persons: not only the general public and women victims, but also specific targets (young people, migrant women, witnesses of violence) and male perpetrators.

⁽⁵⁰⁰⁾ Council of Europe Conference of Ministers responsible for equality between women and men (http://www.coe.int/t/dghl/standardsetting/equality/05conferences/ministerial-conferences/7th-Ministerial%20Conference/MEG7%282010%298_Estonia_en.pdf).

⁽⁵⁰¹⁾ Ministry of Social Affairs' action plan 2010–14.

⁽⁵⁰²⁾ Ministry of Social Affairs (2008), 'National health plan 2009–20', Tallinn (http://www.sm.ee/fileadmin/meedia/Dokumentid/ASO/RTA/National_Health_Plan_2009_2020.pdf).

⁽⁴⁹⁷⁾ This is consistent with the results of the Council of Europe monitoring carried out in 2008.

⁽⁴⁹⁸⁾ Gazette of the Hungarian Government 1004/2010 (I./21), 'Governmental decision on women and gender equality for enabling national strategies— Directions and goals 2010–21' [A Kormány 1004/2010. (I./21) Korm. Határozata, a Nők és Férfiak Társadalmi Egyenlőségét Elősegítő Nemzeti Stratégia— Irányok és Célok 2010–21, Magyar Közlöny, 2010. évi 5. Szám].

⁽⁴⁹⁹⁾ European Commission (2006), 'A roadmap for equality between women and men 2006–10', European Commission Directorate-General for Employment, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities (http://europa.eu/legislation_summaries/employment_and_social_policy/equality_between_men_and_women/c10404_en.htm).

Recently (March 2010) the helpline (number 3919) was extended to address all kinds of violence (conjugal violence, mutilation and forced marriage, sexual aggression and rape and violence at work).

In **Germany**, two national action plans have been issued — one in 1999 and the second in 2007. The first plan followed a comprehensive approach by focusing on prevention, legislation, cooperation between institutions and projects, international cooperation, building networks between assistance services, working with perpetrators, and awareness-building among experts and the public at large. The core of the first NAP was the introduction of legal acts to enhance criminal prosecution of violence, especially domestic violence, and to launch the first representative survey on violence against women offering insight into the quantitative and qualitative dimensions of violence against women. The second NAP undertakes to implement about 130 measures in 10 relevant areas: prevention, legislation, cooperation between institutions and projects, building networks between assistance services, working with perpetrators, awareness-raising among experts and the public at large, and international cooperation. In addition, research, improving counselling services and support for women abroad are included as targets of the second action plan. Empirical studies on special groups of women — women with disabilities and older women — will also be commissioned by the Ministry of Family, Seniors, Women and the Youth (BMFSFJ).

Greece adopted its first integrated action programme on violence against women only in 2009 for the period 2009–13. Before, measures addressing VAW were included in the national action plan for equality. The new plan considers most dimensions of violence against women (legal, psychosocial, economic, health, development, human rights and gender equality), and addresses in particular trafficking, domestic violence, homicide against women, honour killings and abuse of women. The plan identifies eight areas of action: (1) improvement of the legal system; (2) establishment of new structures for counselling and shelters; (3) development of support services, legal help and electronic information; (4) prevention by sensitising public opinion; (5) vocational training of public servants; (6) supporting documentation and research; (7) support of civil society organisations for gender equality; (8) creation of institutional frameworks for inter-ministerial cooperation and empowerment of the existing National Observatory on Combating Violence against Women.

In **Ireland**, based on the experience acquired in implementing the 2002–04 action plan, the national strategy on domestic, sexual and gender-based violence (2010–14) will pay particular attention not only to women, the main target group, but also to other vulnerable groups, such as ethnic minority women, children and young people, as well as men. Actions include support for victims, activities aimed at perpetrators and professionals, and diffusion of knowledge and information. Special initiatives aim at combating: (1) sexual violence and rape; (2) forced marriages, semi-forced marriages and arranged marriages; (3) violence against children⁽⁵⁰³⁾.

In **Slovakia** the national action plan for prevention and elimination of violence against women 2009–12 considers most types of violence (physical and psychological, among others) against women and girls in the family, in the workplace, in schools or in other institutions. It makes provision for activities in various different areas: modification of the criminal and civil law framework (such as implementation of VAW responsibility at the regional level with regional action plans and implementation of the VAW agenda in community planning); improvement in the supply of social services with the creation of intervention centres and women's shelters; sensitisation in schools, data-gathering and activities with the violent perpetrators.

In **Spain** measures on sensitisation, prevention and detection in the fields of education, healthcare as well as publicity and the media are coordinated by the national plan for awareness and prevention of gender-based violence (2007–08)⁽⁵⁰⁴⁾. Moreover, growing understanding of gender-based violence and its consequences has led to the adoption of the comprehensive plan to combat trafficking in human beings for the purpose of sexual exploitation (2009–11)⁽⁵⁰⁵⁾.

⁽⁵⁰³⁾ http://www.epacvaw.org/IMG/pdf/NAP_to_stop_men_s_domestic_violence_against_women_children_2005-08_EN.pdf

⁽⁵⁰⁴⁾ Ministerio de Trabajo y Asuntos Sociales, Plan nacional de sensibilización y prevención de la violencia de género. Marco conceptual y ejes de intervención (http://213.27.203.194/ss/Satellite?blobcol=urldata&blobheader=application%2Fpdf&blobheadervalue1=Content-disposition&blobheadervalue1=inline&blobkey=id&blobtable=MungoBlobs&blobwhere=1244651908207&ssbinary=true&http://www.migualdad.es/ss/Satellite?cid=1193049893463&pagename=MinisterioIlgualdad%2FPage%2FMIGU_SinContenido).

⁽⁵⁰⁵⁾ Gobierno de España (2009), 'Comprehensive plan to combat trafficking in human beings for the purpose of sexual exploitation', Madrid (<http://www.migualdad.es/ss/Satellite?blobcol=urldata&blobheader=application%2Fpdf&blobheadervalue1=Content-disposition&blobheadervalue1=inline&blobkey=id&blobtable=MungoBlobs&blobwhere=1244652363433&ssbinary=true>).

In **Sweden**, the government adopted an action plan to combat men's violence against women, violence and oppression in the name of honour and violence in same-sex relations in November 2007. Altogether, over SEK 900 million is being invested in 56 different measures up to the end of 2010. Overall, the action plan looks into the circumstances and situations that make women especially vulnerable to violence, such as physical and psychological disabilities, substance abuse problems, immigrant background, belonging to a national minority and being elderly. It also addresses different types of violence against women: men's violence against women, violence and oppression in the name of honour, violence in same-sex relations, prostitution and human trafficking for sexual purposes. The measures in the action plan for combating men's violence against women, etc. cover six areas of action: (1) greater protection and support for those exposed to violence; (2) greater emphasis on preventive work; (3) higher standards and greater efficiency in the judicial system; (4) stronger measures targeting violent offenders; (5) increased cooperation; and (6) improved knowledge.

In the **UK**, the government's 2009 national strategy on VAW emphasises the importance of an effective criminal justice system for victims of violence, improving reporting and conviction rates and rehabilitating offenders. Since the election of the Labour government in 1997, political debate, strategies and policy initiatives have brought violence against women more into the mainstream. This has been aided by the establishment of the Women's Unit (now Equalities Unit) and the portfolio of Minister for Women. The Home Office report *Living without fear: an integrated approach to tackling violence against women*, published in 1999, was the first document to set out comprehensively the scope of the problem of violence against women. More recently the Home Office published *Together we can end violence against women and girls: a strategy in 2009* ⁽⁵⁰⁶⁾.

Source: EGGSI network national reports, 2010.

⁽⁵⁰⁶⁾ HM Government (2009), *Together we can end violence against women and girls: a strategy*, Home Office, London.

The other countries have one or several separate action plans, each addressing one specific form of violence, and/or action plans on gender equality or action plans on social inclusion which usually make reference to some forms of violence against women not addressed in specific action plans.

Indeed, linking strategies to fight violence against women with gender equality and social inclusion strategies presents some risks: the lack of a specific strategy on this issue may reduce the attention to, and the budget earmarked for, policies combating gender-based violence and support provided to victims of violence.

In Belgium and Malta action plans have been drawn up or are under preparation, but are yet to be implemented. In Estonia the 2010–14 NAP includes domestic violence and trafficking, while some measures to fight violence against women are also included in the action plan for social inclusion (2010–14) and the national healthcare plan (2009–10). Cyprus also lacks a comprehensive action plan on violence against women, but the NAP on gender equality makes reference to all forms of violence against women and

dedicated NAPs on domestic violence and trafficking have recently been implemented.

Belgium, Finland and Norway had a comprehensive NAP in the past, but then developed separate action plans for different forms of violence against women. In Belgium the new action plan 2010–14 to be adopted will focus on violence between partners (and ex-partners) as well as other forms of domestic and family violence such as honour crimes, genital mutilation and forced marriage. Finland did have comprehensive action plans in the past, but subsequently measures to fight violence against women were included in the general mainstream action plan for gender equality (2008–11). At present Norway is in the midst of its third action plan to combat domestic violence; in addition, there are three other action plans in operation to curb violence against women, i.e. an action plan against human trafficking, an action plan against female genital mutilation and an action plan against forced marriages.

Box 2.8 presents examples of countries where separate action plans exist for different forms of VAW or where VAW is addressed in other NAPs.

Box 2.8 — Examples of non-comprehensive action plans

In **Belgium**, 2001 was a turning point, with the adoption of the first national action plan to combat violence against women (2001–03). The document recognised for the first time the importance of a common plan in the field of justice, equality, health, home affairs and social affairs. The plan covered all fields of violence against women: sexual harassment, violence between partners, human trafficking, sexual exploitation, etc. Following upon evaluation highlighting the lack of concrete results achieved by the plan and suggesting narrowing its scope, a second national action plan was adopted in 2004 (2004–07). This plan focused exclusively on violence between partners (intra-family violence) and was extended to all institutions (federal and federate levels) in 2006, ensuring common political commitment to fight violence against women and better coordination of efforts. A major outcome of this plan was the adoption in 2006 of the guidelines of public prosecutors that set the rules for intervention by the police services and the public prosecutors and define violence between partners as being physical, but attacks, threats, physical, verbal, sexual, moral or economic constraints were also included. The most recent NAPs (2004/07 and 2008/09) focus exclusively on violence between partners, and family-related violence from the gender perspective. A new NAP on violence against women has been proposed for the 2010–14 period which will cover all forms of violence.

In **Malta**, a national action plan on combating domestic violence for 2007/08 based on the Council of Europe blueprint for the 'Campaign to eliminate violence against women' was discussed and drawn up by the Maltese Commission on Domestic Violence, but has never been adopted⁽⁵⁰⁷⁾. However, until the NAP is adopted, the Commission on Domestic Violence continues to work in accordance with the blueprint of the Council of Europe 'Campaign to combat violence against women, including domestic violence'⁽⁵⁰⁸⁾.

In **Finland**, the first national programme for the prevention of violence against women and prostitution (1998–02) was part of the Finnish governmental plan of action for the promotion of gender equality, launched by the Ministry of Social Affairs and Health⁽⁵⁰⁹⁾. Since then, government action plans for gender equality have been the main context for addressing the problem. It was the aim of the action plan on gender equality (2004–07) to include the prevention of violence against women in all relevant national action plans. As a result, a national programme for reducing violence (2007–08), targeted at intimate partner and family violence as well as violence against children, was included in the first national action plan on internal security⁽⁵¹⁰⁾. This programme addresses many kinds of violence and also includes violence against women. A cross-administrative programme for prevention of violence against women (2010–15) is currently under preparation (based on Recommendation Rec(2002)5)⁽⁵¹¹⁾. Forms of violence addressed are: domestic violence including, inter alia, physical and mental aggression, emotional and psychological abuse, rape and sexual abuse, incest, rape between spouses, regular or occasional partners and cohabitants, crimes committed in the name of honour, female genital and sexual mutilation, and other traditional practices harmful to women, such as forced marriages.

In **Norway** there have so far been three NAPs to combat domestic violence⁽⁵¹²⁾. In the most recent action plan against domestic violence (2008–11), such violence is broadly defined as anything from a single violent event to extensive long-term maltreatment. This action plan points out that both men and women commit violent crimes and that both men and women can be victims of violent crimes. However, the action plan also argues that the repeated violence and abuse that women and children are subjected to by some men is particularly serious. In addition, violence perpetrated by someone other than the partner, e.g. honour-related violence, violence against an elderly family member by a child or by grandchildren or violence within homosexual relationships, is recognised as domestic violence in

⁽⁵⁰⁷⁾ WAVE (2008), Country report 2008 — Reality check on European services for women and children victims of violence. A right for protection and support?. WAVE Coordination Office/Austrian Women's Shelter Network, Vienna (http://www.wave-network.org/images/doku/wave_country_report_2008.pdf).

⁽⁵⁰⁸⁾ Ministry of Social Policy (2008), Annual Report 2008–09, Commission on Domestic Violence, Malta, p.10.

⁽⁵⁰⁹⁾ http://www.surt.org/gvei/docs/national_report_finland_def.pdf

⁽⁵¹⁰⁾ Riski, Taina (2009), Naisiin kohdistuva väkivalta ja tasa-arvopolitiikka. Sosiaali- ja terveysministeriön selvityksiä 2009:50, Helsinki (http://www.stm.fi/c/document_library/get_file?folderId=1082856&name=DLFE-10918.pdf).

⁽⁵¹¹⁾ Ewalds, Helena (2009), Taustamuistio Naisiin kohdistuvan väkivallan vastaisesta toimintaohjelmasta 19.11.2009. Terveysten ja hyvinvoinnin laitos, Helsinki.

⁽⁵¹²⁾ Ministry of Children and Equality, Lifting domestic violence from the private to the public sphere (<http://www.regjeringen.no/en/dep/bld/BLD-arbeider-for-at/Organisation/Departments/Department-of-Family-Affairs-and-Gender-Equality/Director-General-Arni-Hole/Lifting-Domestic-Violence-from-the-Priva.html?id=481305>).

the plan. As a consequence, the latest NAP generally uses gender-neutral wording, such as ‘domestic violence’ and ‘violence in close relationships’, even though it continues to emphasise the importance of focusing upon the violence that men perpetrate against women⁽⁵¹³⁾. Violence in close relationships also includes female genital mutilation and forced marriages. Although the terms ‘violence in close relationships’ or ‘domestic violence’ are more generally used, the government and the police clearly state that in this kind of violence it is women who are most often the victims⁽⁵¹⁴⁾. Due to an increased share of ethnic minority women in shelter homes and the work that has been and continues to be done to combat female genital mutilation and forced marriages, violence against ethnic minority women has now become a priority for the police⁽⁵¹⁵⁾. In the latest action plan (2008–11) there is also an increased focus on children living in families where domestic violence occurs⁽⁵¹⁶⁾.

Source: EGGSI network national reports, 2010.

⁽⁵¹³⁾ Justis og politidepartementet. Vendepunkt: Handlingsplan mot vold i nære relasjoner 2008–11 (<http://www.regjeringen.no/upload/JD/Vedlegg/Handlingsplaner/Vendepunkt.pdf>).

⁽⁵¹⁴⁾ Justis og politidepartementet. Vendepunkt Handlingsplan mot vold i nære relasjoner 2008–11 (<http://www.regjeringen.no/upload/JD/Vedlegg/Handlingsplaner/Vendepunkt.pdf>).

⁽⁵¹⁵⁾ Barne- og likestillingsdepartement Handlingsplan mot tvangsekteskap halvårsrapport pr., September 2009 (<http://www.regjeringen.no/upload/BLD/Tvangsekteskap/Rapport%20høst%2009%20nett%20endelig.pdf>).

⁽⁵¹⁶⁾ Justis og politidepartementet. Vendepunkt Handlingsplan mot vold i nære relasjoner 2008–11 (<http://www.regjeringen.no/upload/JD/Vedlegg/Handlingsplaner/Vendepunkt.pdf>).

2.3.2. Types of violence against women addressed in national action plans

In the European countries, national action plans address different types of violence against women, including domestic violence, trafficking in human beings and female genital mutilation. Some countries emphasise stalking and/or harassment in the workplace in specific action plans or more general NAPs.

Domestic violence and trafficking of human beings still represent the forms of violence against women most addressed by NAPs: 23 countries have or have had in the recent past specific action plans addressing domestic violence, and 27 human trafficking (see Table 2.1 above).

The approach adopted to combat domestic violence varies among the countries considered, even though all include awareness-raising campaigns, training measures for those professionals entering in contact with (potential) victims, counselling and empower-

ment services, temporary shelters and programmes for the rehabilitation of victims, and, in an increasing number of countries, also programmes for the treatment of abusers to prevent further violence.

In some countries (as in the Czech Republic) the approach to domestic violence is, however, still gender-blind, and focuses not so much on violence against women in the family as family violence in general (including, for instance, children or the elderly), and this reduces the potential effectiveness of the measures adopted. Measures might not take into consideration the special needs of women (or children or the elderly), such as care obligations, economic dependency on the husband or legal dependency in case of migrant women. Norway has also shifted to more gender-neutral wording, recognising violence in homosexual relationships, even though it continues to emphasise the focus on violence against women. Box 2.9 provides some examples of NAPs addressing domestic violence against women or domestic violence in families.

Box 2.9 — Examples of national action plans on domestic violence

In **Bulgaria** in accordance with the Law on Protection against Domestic Violence (adopted in March 2005), a national programme on prevention and protection against domestic violence was approved for the period 2007–08. At the same time there is no publicly available report on its implementation or information on the current situation. The document envisages the elaboration of specialised curricula and training programmes for all levels and types of education. Guidebooks and information materials were also produced and widely distributed. Awareness and media campaigns were also implemented. The NAP also adopts programmes for the rehabilitation of victims, containing two measures: legal and psychological consultation and temporary shelters.

In **Cyprus** a national action plan on the prevention and combating of violence in the family (2010–15) has been recently adopted by the Council of Ministers and thus is in the very early stages of implementation. The aim of the NAP is to: monitor the extent of violence in the family in Cyprus; raise awareness and sensitise the public as well as relevant professionals using various mediums, including special conferences and seminars and information campaigns and programmes; promote scientific research on violence in the family; promote services dealing with all aspects of the problem and specifically for support and protection of victims; monitor the effectiveness of services and the enforcement of the relevant legislation.

In the **Czech Republic**, a Committee for the Prevention of Domestic Violence was established by the Government Council for Equal Opportunities to prepare a national action plan for the prevention of domestic violence (2009–13)⁽⁵¹⁷⁾. The action plan is still under preparation. The Committee aims to develop an integrated strategy to prevent and combat violence against women, based on international recommendations and also reflecting the situation in the country. The working group identified five major areas for the action plan: (1) support for people at risk of domestic violence; (2) children at risk of domestic violence; (3) working with violent persons; (4) activities aimed at helping professions; (5) workplace and domestic violence.

In **Denmark** the first national action plan to combat violence against women (2002–05) and the second action plan to combat men's domestic violence against women and children (2005–08) focused on (male) partner violence. The main goal was to provide the necessary support to victims, put an end to the violence, provide abuser treatment, enhance the cross-disciplinary activities, and increase the public awareness of and level of information on the phenomenon.⁽⁵¹⁸⁾ Both NAPs targeted the perpetrators, while the second NAP also included activities addressing marginalised groups of women (disabled, migrants, addicted) via information campaigns and the production of pocket cards with multilingual information on where to seek support. In both NAPs to stop violence against women, 2002⁽⁵¹⁹⁾ and 2005, Denmark was in line with the other EU Member States in focusing on domestic violence against women, and mainly women over 18 years of age. Recently the focus has, however, also been turned to young women aged 16–24 suffering from abuse from a partner, as part of a violence and dating adolescents campaign. The focus is mainly on domestic violence committed by a former or current partner, although it is now realised that violence in the home is partner-related in only half of the cases. Also the new national strategy to combat violence in intimate relationships (2009–12) focuses on domestic violence.

In **Iceland**, in 2003, following a conference and a public awareness campaign organised by the Women's Movement, the Minister for Social Affairs appointed a committee with the remit to draft a national action plan on domestic and sexual violence for the period 2006–11. This NAP was approved by the government in September 2006 and is supposed to be revised by the end of 2010. On 5 March 2010 the government decided to set work in motion to start the revision of this national action plan and draft a new plan for 2011–15. The current national action plan focuses mainly on research into the nature and scope of violence in intimate partner and family relationships and training and education of professionals. A report with further recommendations will be delivered to the government early next year. In April 2010 there was an information and educational campaign based on preliminary findings from this research. The new national action plan will focus on gender-based violence as a crime in the context of the criminal justice system, i.e. the charges put forward and how they are followed up within the criminal justice system. Also, the focus of this new national action plan will be on the adaptation and integration of the Council of Europe Recommendation Rec(2002)5 on the protection of women against violence. The proposed new national action plan is foreseen to be delivered on 24 October 2010.

In **Norway** three NAPs have so far been launched. The first action plan to combat domestic violence covered the period 2000–03, the second 2004–07, while the third, launched in 2008, covers the period 2008–10⁽⁵²⁰⁾. In the most recent

⁽⁵¹⁷⁾ Original name in Czech: Národní akční plán prevence domácího násilí.

⁽⁵¹⁸⁾ Voldsobservatoriet (2008), *Anbefalinger af Voldsobservatoriet til bekæmpelse af mænds vold mod kvinder*. København: Kvinderådet (<http://www.kvinderaadet.dk/files/anbefalinger.pdf>).

⁽⁵¹⁹⁾ The Danish government's action plan to stop violence against women, 2002 (http://www.lige.dk/files/pdf/vmk_uk.pdf).

⁽⁵²⁰⁾ Ministry of Children and Equality, 'Lifting domestic violence from the private to the public sphere'. Speech by the Director-General Arni Hole (<http://www.regjeringen.no/en/dep/bld/BLD-arbejder-for-at/Organisation/Departments/Department-of-Family-Affairs-and-Gender-Equality/Director-General-Arni-Hole/Lifting-Domestic-Violence-from-the-Private.html?id=481305>).

action plan against domestic violence (2008–11), such violence includes a single violent event or extensive long-term maltreatment of women and men. The action plan also sees the repeated violence and abuse that women and children are subjected to by some men as particularly serious. In addition, violence perpetrated by someone other than the partner, e.g. honour-related violence, family violence against an elderly family member or violence within homosexual relationships, is also recognised. As a consequence, the latest action plan generally uses gender-neutral wording, such as ‘domestic violence’ and ‘violence in close relationships’, even though it continues to emphasise the importance of focusing upon the violence that men perpetrate against women⁽⁵²¹⁾. While the first two action plans had a much greater focus upon the violence perpetrated against women, the last NAP focuses upon the situation of children to a much greater degree than did the former action plans.

In **Portugal**, driven by the action of feminist associations, in parallel with awareness of the destructive consequences of this social problem, the government has issued a national action plan against domestic violence (1999–2003)⁽⁵²²⁾. The third national action plan against domestic violence (2007–10) focuses on violence against women within intimate relationships, marital or comparable, current or past. The plan proposes stepping up prevention and the fight against domestic violence policy, promoting an equality and citizenship culture, extending training and information campaigns, and supporting victims of violence.

In the **Netherlands** a new ‘Action plan on domestic violence, the next phase until 2011’ was published in 2008⁽⁵²³⁾. In this plan, three causes of domestic violence are described: intergenerational transmission of the use of violence, invisibility of the use of violence, and gender-related power differences between perpetrators and victims. Consequently, policies are directed towards combating the intergenerational transmission, promoting openness on the issue and a gender-specific approach to domestic violence. With their gender-specific analysis (power differences) and approach, the policies are again linked directly to emancipation policies⁽⁵²⁴⁾. The central objective is to prevent and combat domestic violence applying an ongoing continuous approach (prevention, signalling and intervention) for all target populations. The approach is comprehensive: criminal justice measures and assistance should be mutually reinforcing, and the organs of criminal justice and the social services should work closely together⁽⁵²⁵⁾.

In **Spain** the Women’s Institute has promoted a new Protocol for the Detection of Domestic Violence Cases, introduced in various regional administrations, together with training courses for health professionals, in order to acquire a better understanding of the physical and psychological evidence of this phenomenon.

In **Turkey**, the first national action plan on combating domestic violence against women (2007–10) was prepared by the Directorate-General on the Status of Women in cooperation with relevant public institutions, NGOs and women’s study centres in universities, and in compliance with Prime Ministry Circular No 2006/17. The NAP and the Ministry Circular are the key documents to address the problem of violence against women, particularly in its domestic form. Prime Ministry Circular No 2006/17 lists measures regarding violence against children, violence against women and customary/honour killings under separate headings. Activities include preventive measures, institutional services, legal measures and measures related to health, education and awareness-raising⁽⁵²⁶⁾. Also the 2008–13 national action plan for gender equality includes domestic violence.

Source: EGGSI network national reports, 2010.

⁽⁵²¹⁾ Justis og politidepartementet. Vendepunkt: Handlingsplan mot vold i nære relasjoner 2008–11 (<http://www.regjeringen.no/upload/JD/Vedlegg/Handlingsplaner/Vendepunkt.pdf>).

⁽⁵²²⁾ Government of Portugal, III national action plan against domestic violence, 2007–10 (<http://www.portugal.gov.pt>).

⁽⁵²³⁾ Ministerie van Justitie (2008), Plan van aanpak Huiselijk geweld ‘De volgende fase’, Den Haag.

⁽⁵²⁴⁾ See also Merens, A. and Hermans, B. (2009), Emancipatiemonitor 2008, Den Haag: Sociaal en Cultureel Planbureau/Centraal bureau voor de statistiek.

⁽⁵²⁵⁾ Ministerie van Justitie (2008), Plan van aanpak Huiselijk geweld ‘De volgende fase’, Den Haag.

⁽⁵²⁶⁾ Directorate-General on the Status of Women (2007), ‘Combating domestic violence against women’ national action plan 2007–10, Ankara (<http://www.ksgm.gov.tr/Pdf/kyais-uep-eng.pdf>).

As for trafficking in human beings, besides awareness-raising, training for professionals and services to support the victims, the action plans usually include measures to promote international cooperation in order to better detect cases of exploitation and prevent trafficking (as in Greece, Iceland and Spain). However, in some countries (such as Austria and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia) the legislation and the action plan do not distinguish between trafficking and smuggling or illegal immigration, and this may mean less protection guaranteed to trafficked women. While in Austria, smuggling implies the migrant's 'consent to be illegally transported from the country of

origin to country of destination' and also 'an end of the relationship between the smuggler and migrant upon entry into the country of destination, without deliberate placement into an exploitative situation'; trafficking 'implies a non-voluntary process, with an explicit purpose of exploitation and a continuing relationship between victim and trafficker'⁽⁵²⁷⁾. Although female migration must not be confused with trafficking in women, almost every woman affected by trafficking had migrated in search of a job.

Box 2.10 shows the NAPs on trafficking implemented in some European countries.

Box 2.10 — Examples of national action plans on trafficking

In **Austria**, an action plan on combating trafficking in human beings was ratified in 2006. A task force on human trafficking has been established accordingly. It aims at coordination of stakeholders at the national level, prevention, victim protection, criminal prosecution and international cooperation. What is interesting is the declared official support for victim protection: if investigation into human trafficking is launched, the state authorities grant a 30-day 'stabilisation' period for victims, which is not made conditional on the victim's ability or willingness to cooperate with the authorities. Once it is determined that the person is a victim of human trafficking, temporary residence permits can be provided for six months.

In **Croatia**, trafficking is addressed in particular by the national plan for combating trafficking in human beings for the period 2009 to 2011⁽⁵²⁸⁾, taking into account, for instance, legal aspects, measures for prevention and international cooperation. The national programme for the protection and promotion of human rights (2008–11)⁽⁵²⁹⁾ also considers gender equality, domestic violence and trafficking in human beings.

In **Cyprus** a national action plan on combating trafficking in persons (2010–12) was recently adopted by the Council of Ministers. This new plan has replaced a previous NAP for the coordination of actions on combating trafficking in human beings and sexual exploitation of children which was never effectively implemented⁽⁵³⁰⁾. The national action plan includes chapters on prevention, recognition of victims, victim support and protection, prosecution, research and data collection, education and training, international cooperation, and monitoring and evaluation of implementation. Although gender is not taken specifically into account and language is gender-neutral, the NAP does include actions to address the demand side of trafficking, which is a positive step in tackling the root causes of trafficking.

In **Denmark**, a specific national action plan against trafficking of women (2002–06) has been adopted, mainly with the focus on sexual abuse. The women involved are therefore not considered in the NAPs combating violence against women, but are considered a special vulnerable group. Trafficking of children was not included in the NAP against the trafficking of women. Based on the experiences of the NAP, the target group was extended in the action plan to combat trafficking in human beings (2007–10), considering women, men and children⁽⁵³¹⁾.

⁽⁵²⁸⁾ Government of the Republic of Croatia — Office for Human Rights, National programme for combating trafficking in human beings for the period from 2009 to 2011 [Vlada Republike Hrvatske — Ured za ljudska prava (2007), Nacionalni program za suzbijanje trgovanja ljudima za razdoblje od 2009. do 2011. godine] (<http://www.ljudskaprava-vladarh.hr/lgs.axd?t=16&id=1328>).

⁽⁵²⁹⁾ Government of the Republic of Croatia — Office for Human Rights, National programme for the protection and promotion of human rights 2008–11 [Vlada Republike Hrvatske — Ured za ljudska prava (2007), Nacionalni program zaštite i promicanja ljudskih prava od 2008. do 2011. godine] (<http://www.ljudskaprava-vladarh.hr/lgs.axd?t=16&id=1239>).

⁽⁵³⁰⁾ National action plan on combating trafficking in persons 2010–12, Nicosia, Cyprus (http://moi.gov.cy/admin/sections/filedepot/uploaded/file/PDF_FILES/SxedioDrasiskataTisEmporiasProsoponFinal.pdf).

⁽⁵³¹⁾ http://uk.lige.dk/files/PDF/Handel/Menneskehandel_4K.pdf

⁽⁵²⁷⁾ Dowling, S., Moreton, K. and Wright, L. (2007), Trafficking for the purposes of labour exploitation: a literature review, Home Office Online Report 10/07 (<http://rds.homeoffice.gov.uk/rds/pdfs07/rdsolr1007.pdf>).

In **Estonia** in 2006–09 there existed a national development plan for combating trafficking in human beings. Based on this plan, the Ministry of Justice is planning a consolidated development plan for combating human trafficking, reducing juvenile delinquency and also for reducing domestic violence⁽⁵³²⁾. Trafficking in women as a form of violence against them is not defined in Estonian legislation. Although the Estonian Penal Code does not directly specify trafficking in human beings as a criminal offence, there are several articles prohibiting activities linked to human trafficking, e.g. enslavement, abduction, etc.

In **Greece**, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs in cooperation with the European Network of Women⁽⁵³³⁾ promoted a programme on the illegal trafficking and trading of women (2006–08). Moreover, the same ministry in cooperation with the NGO 'Centre for research and support for victims of maltreatment and social exclusion' (Ε.Κ.Υ.Θ.Κ.Κ.Α) (2005–06) developed an international programme with NGOs in Ukraine to create a database for trafficking victims repatriated to Ukraine and to offer aid and accommodation for the victims.

In **Iceland** a national action plan on human trafficking was approved by the government in March 2009 and will be revised by the end of 2012. This national action plan has nine main strategies including 25 actions. The nine main strategies include the commitment to adapt and fulfil international agreements, implementation of an operating expert and coordination team responsible for maintaining a holistic view on human trafficking, provisions for education of professionals and civil servants, protection of victims, commitment of the police, fight against prostitution and pornographic products, increase of international cooperation, set-up of an emergency number and data collection. All of the actions have a dedicated location of responsibility.

In **Italy** penalisation of trafficking in human beings was introduced in 2003 (Law 228/2003 — 'Measures against trafficking in persons'), with exploitation of minors or of victims in the sex market as aggravating circumstances. The text complies with the Palermo Protocol⁽⁵³⁴⁾ and represents a great advance for the Italian legal system. At the same time, the Immigration Consolidation Act also states that any person, who facilitates the illegal entry of persons into the country so that they may be sexually exploited, shall be punished. Other offences have been and are applied by the Italian public prosecutors and judges to punish trafficking in human beings for sexual exploitation. In addition to repression, the legislation provides for prevention and victims' protection measures.

In the **former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia** the government adopted a national programme to combat human trafficking in 2002. Subsequently a strategy for combating trafficking in human beings and illegal migration and a national action plan were adopted in 2006. The national plan does not, however, make any differentiation between trafficking in persons and illegal migration⁽⁵³⁵⁾. The strategy sees trafficking in persons and illegal migration as mainly criminal phenomena without, however, discussing the broader social, cultural and gender-related circumstances. The strategic objectives include prevention by raising awareness and education, and support for and protection of victims of trafficking and witnesses. Furthermore, the monitoring body has adopted standard operative procedures and a *Handbook for combating human trafficking* for the training of civil servants, judges and employees in the non-governmental sector, with special emphasis on the human rights and status of the victims after identification as victims of human trafficking. In order to combat trafficking in persons effectively, the national authorities also established the National Commission for Combating Trafficking in Human Beings and Illegal Migration in the [former Yugoslav] Republic of Macedonia, with a government decision in 2001 to monitor and analyse the situation regarding trafficking and illegal migration in the country⁽⁵³⁶⁾. The direct response for protection of victims of trafficking involves the national referral mechanism which is coordinated by the Ministry of Labour and Social Policy, Transit Centre for Foreigners managed by the International Organisation for Migration (IOM) and the Ministry of Interior and the NGO 'Open/Gate La Strada'. This NGO has signed a memorandum of understanding with the Ministry of Labour and Social Policies and plays an important role in the operation of the national referral mechanism.

⁽⁵³²⁾ Estonian Ministry of Justice.

⁽⁵³³⁾ <http://www.enow.gr>

⁽⁵³⁴⁾ The Palermo Protocol is a United Nations Convention against Transnational Organised Crime, adopted by General Assembly Resolution 55/25 of 15 November 2000 in Palermo and in force since 2003. It is a major international instrument to 'Prevent, suppress and punish trafficking in persons, especially women and children', and combat transnational organised crime. It is also the first global legally binding instrument with an agreed definition on trafficking in persons (see also <http://www.unodc.org/unodc/en/treaties/CTOC/index.html>).

⁽⁵³⁵⁾ Askola, Heli (2007), Legal responses to trafficking in women for sexual exploitation in the EU, 'Feminism, prostitution and trafficking: a complex approach', p. 21.

⁽⁵³⁶⁾ Decision to establish the National Commission for Combating Human Trafficking and Illegal Migration in the [former Yugoslav] Republic of Macedonia (Official Gazette No 18, 5.3.2001).

In **Latvia**, the programme for the prevention of human trafficking for 2009–13 includes preventive measures related to public awareness-raising, informing about the problems of human trafficking through the Internet, information campaigns and information material in the State Employment Agency on jobseekers who find employment abroad.

In **Lithuania**, the programme for the prevention and control of trafficking in human beings for 2005–08⁽⁵³⁷⁾ addressed the problems related to trafficking in human beings and the prevention and control of prostitution. The aim of the prevention programmes and projects was to raise awareness in society of the issues of domestic violence, trafficking in human beings and prostitution. NGOs as well as policy stakeholders such as ministries or city councils publish information on the services provided by their institutions, thematic reports and information leaflets. There are also educational programmes. Workshops and sensitisation courses are permanently offered by women's organisation for schools, the police, policy stakeholders and professionals. One of the recent examples of the media campaign 'They sell you like a doll' was targeted at the trafficking of women. The aim of this campaign was to raise awareness of young women and girls of the threat of becoming illegally involved in prostitution.

In **Norway**, the action plan against human trafficking plays an important part in efforts to combat violence against women. The action plan against human trafficking (2006–09) included 36 measures to curb various forms of human trafficking. A significant part of the measures were to curb prostitution, and to support and help prostitutes, especially in finding a way out of prostitution. This action plan emphasised increased knowledge for health personnel in order to identify human trafficking, including prostitution or other kinds of sexual abuse against women, or against children under 18 years of age⁽⁵³⁸⁾.

In **Slovakia**, the national action plan against human trafficking for 2008–10⁽⁵³⁹⁾ aims at establishing a framework for staff and administrative support, international cooperation and coordination of stakeholders. In the area of prevention, public awareness campaigns are planned. Support and protection of victims should be secured with the methods of identification, recovery periods, victim-witness protection and reintegration. Criminal prosecution is to be improved with special investigation methods, international cooperation, compensation of victims and anti-corruption measures.

In **Spain**, human trafficking has been treated specifically in the comprehensive plan to combat trafficking in human beings for the purpose of sexual exploitation, approved in January 2009. It envisages a series of joint measures to combat trafficking in human beings and addresses the phenomenon of sexual exploitation, focusing on women and girls. The plan outlines the need for enhanced collaboration and coordination between public administrations, institutions and civil society as well as stressing the significant role of non-governmental organisations and associations working with women. Moreover, the plan fosters cooperation at the international level with the aims of better detecting cases of exploitation, defining and gaining greater insight into the problem and making clear progress in preventing trafficking. To do so, the plan bolsters the operational response of the state police and security forces by intensifying their action, fine-tuning their organisational structures, increasing the number of specialised personnel, financial means and other resources so as to detect more swiftly situations of trafficking, effectively investigating these while protecting victims and transferring the latter to suitable institutions and organisations for help.

In July 2008 the **Swedish** government adopted an action plan to combat prostitution and human trafficking for sexual purposes. A total of SEK 213 million is being invested in 36 measures up to the end of 2010⁽⁵⁴⁰⁾. The action plan focuses specifically on the exposed person's need for protection and support. Special measures targeting children and young people are included. The plan covers five priority areas. These areas are: (1) greater protection and support for people at risk; (2) more emphasis on preventive work; (3) higher standards and efficiency in the justice system; (4) increased national and international cooperation; and (5) higher levels of knowledge.

In **Turkey** the first national action plan on the fight against human trafficking was implemented by the Prime Ministry in 2003 and prepared by the National Task Force on the Fight against Human Trafficking, which consists of representatives from several ministries, NGOs and international organisations. The plan stipulated the tasks of the relevant ministries in

⁽⁵³⁷⁾ <http://www.vrm.lt/index.php?id=567&lang=2>

⁽⁵³⁸⁾ Justis og politidepartementet: Stopp.menneskehandelen. Regjeringens handlingsplan mot menneskehandel 2006–09 (http://www.regjeringen.no/upload/JD/Vedlegg/Stopp_menneskehandelen.pdf).

⁽⁵³⁹⁾ http://www.radaeuropy.sk/swift_data/source/dokumenty/ikre/aktivty/Obchodovanie%20s%20ludmi/Narodny_program.doc

⁽⁵⁴⁰⁾ Action plan for combating prostitution and human trafficking for sexual purposes. Government Offices of Sweden. Stockholm (<http://www.regeringen.se/sb/d/108/a/110628>).

combating human trafficking. In addition, the 2006⁽⁵⁴¹⁾ and 2007⁽⁵⁴²⁾ reports on *Combating human trafficking in Turkey* were prepared by the Technical Working Group established under the coordination of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs with the participation of the General Directorate of Security, General Command of Gendarmerie, General Directorate of International Law and Foreign Relations, and General Directorate of Judicial Records and Statistics under the Ministry of Justice as well as the Human Resources Development Foundation, the Foundation for Women's Solidarity and the International Organisation for Migration (IOM) Turkey Office⁽⁵⁴³⁾.

Source: EGGSI network national reports, 2010.

⁽⁵⁴¹⁾ 2006 Report on combating human trafficking in Turkey, Ankara (http://www.mfa.gov.tr/data/DISPOLITIKA/2006_human_trafficking.pdf).

⁽⁵⁴²⁾ 2007 Report on combating human trafficking in Turkey, Ankara (<http://www.mfa.gov.tr/data/DISPOLITIKA/2007-human-trafficking-eng.pdf>).

⁽⁵⁴³⁾ <http://www.mfa.gov.tr/turkey-on-trafficking-in-human-beings.en.mfa>

Other forms of violence have been subject to increasing attention in recent years, as also noted by the Council of Europe⁽⁵⁴⁴⁾, and the scope of NAPs has increased, extending the forms of violence addressed. There has been a significant increase in the number of countries addressing rape and sexual violence in their NAPs and, to a lesser extent, tradition-based forms of violence against women, probably related to the increasing migration flows of recent years.

However, as shown in Figure 2.3, based on 2008 Council of Europe data⁽⁵⁴⁵⁾, even though increasing, still few countries address in their NAPs tradition-based forms of violence, such as female genital mutilation, forced marriage and killing in the name of honour (particularly relevant in the case of ethnic minority women), sexual harassment in the workplace, stalking, violence in institutional environments (which usually involves the disabled and the elderly), violence in conflict and post-conflict situations, and failure to respect freedom of choice.

According to the EGGSI national reports, only four countries currently have a dedicated action plan on female genital mutilation⁽⁵⁴⁶⁾: Austria, Norway⁽⁵⁴⁷⁾,

Ireland (2008) and Portugal (2009)⁽⁵⁴⁸⁾. According to the Council of Europe, in nine countries (Belgium, Bulgaria, Finland, Germany, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Spain and the UK) this issue is addressed in other NAPs on VAW⁽⁵⁴⁹⁾.

In Belgium the new proposed plan on violence against women (2010–14), expected to be adopted in 2010 (first semester), includes genital mutilation. Also France is at present preparing a national strategy to combat FGM and Finland has announced that it is preparing one.

Some countries did have a NAP on FGM in the past but this issue is not included in future strategies; in some cases this may be due to the introduction of new legislation on the issue. Such is the case of Sweden, where there was a national action plan against genital mutilation between 2003 and 2005, which has not been updated, but FGM is now forbidden by law and punishable even if the act has taken place in another country. In Luxembourg FGM was present in the action plan for equal opportunities (2006–08)⁽⁵⁵⁰⁾ but has not been integrated in the new action plan (2009–14); however, the 'Loi relative à l'aide d'enfance et à la Famille'⁽⁵⁵¹⁾, of December 2008, includes FGM.

⁽⁵⁴⁴⁾ Council of Europe (2008), Protecting women against violence. Analytical study of the results of the second round of monitoring the implementation of Recommendation Rec(2002)5 on the protection of women against violence in Council of Europe member states, Strasbourg (http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/domesticviolencecampaign/Source/CDEG%20%282008%29%20rev_en.pdf).

⁽⁵⁴⁵⁾ Council of Europe (2008), Protecting women against violence. Analytical study of the results of the second round of monitoring the implementation of Recommendation Rec(2002)5 on the protection of women against violence in Council of Europe member states, Strasbourg (http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/domesticviolencecampaign/Source/CDEG%20%282008%29%20rev_en.pdf).

⁽⁵⁴⁶⁾ According to the EGGSI national experts. See also Table 2.1.

⁽⁵⁴⁷⁾ Norwegian Ministries, 2008–11 action plan for combating female genital mutilation (http://www.regjeringen.no/upload/BLD/Kjonnsllestelse/Handlingsplan_kj%C3%B8nnseng_net.pdf).

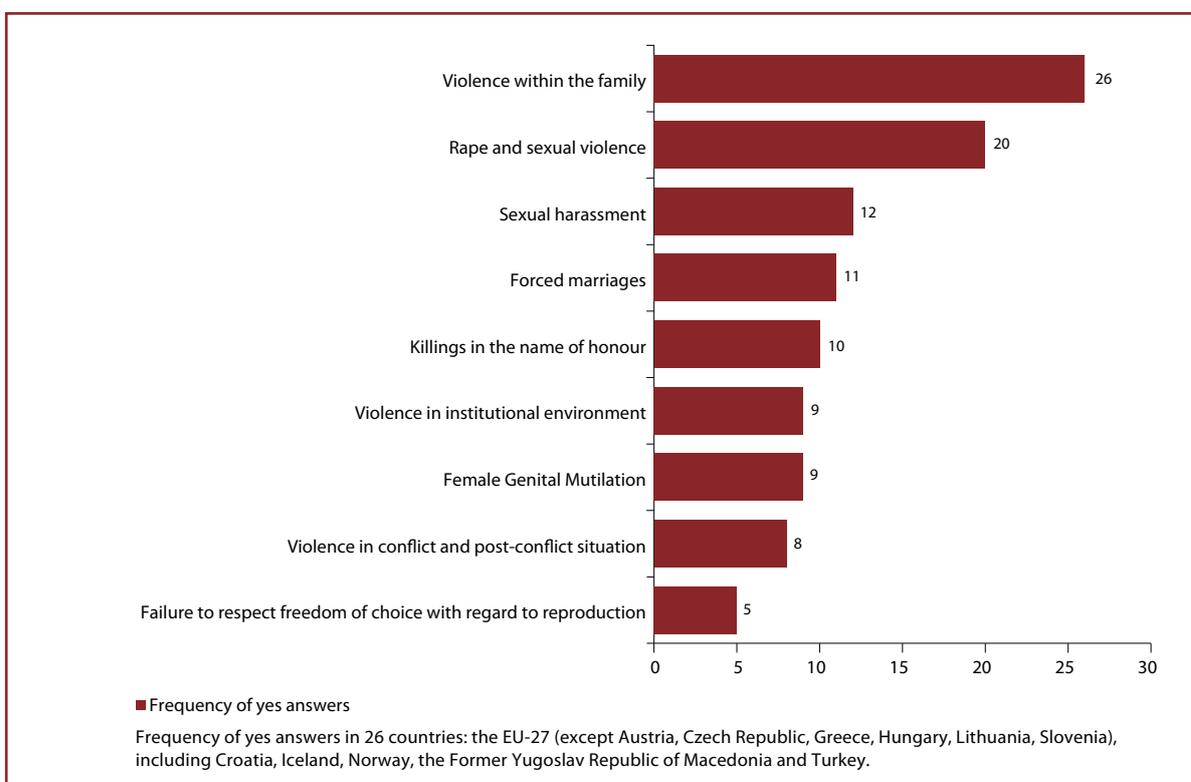
⁽⁵⁴⁸⁾ Programa de Acção para a Eliminação da Mutilação Genital Feminina no âmbito do III Plano Nacional para a Igualdade — Cidadania e Género (2007–10) (http://195.23.38.178/cig/portal/bo/documentos/Mutilacao_Genital_Feminina.pdf).

⁽⁵⁴⁹⁾ Council of Europe (2008), Final activity report. Council of Europe Task Force to Combat Violence against Women, including Domestic Violence (EG-TFV). Gender Equality and Anti-Trafficking Division, Directorate-General of Human Rights and Legal Affairs, Strasbourg (http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/domesticviolencecampaign/Source/Final_Activity_Report.pdf).

⁽⁵⁵⁰⁾ http://www.mega.public.lu/publications/1_brochures/2006/pan_egalite/PAN.pdf

⁽⁵⁵¹⁾ [http://webapps01.un.org/vawdatabase/uploads/Luxembourg%20-%20Loi%20relative%20a%20l%20aide%20a%20l%20enfance%20et%20a%20la%20famille%20\(2008\).pdf](http://webapps01.un.org/vawdatabase/uploads/Luxembourg%20-%20Loi%20relative%20a%20l%20aide%20a%20l%20enfance%20et%20a%20la%20famille%20(2008).pdf)

Figure 2.3 — Forms of violence against women addressed in action plans



Source: Council of Europe (2008), Protecting women against violence. Analytical study of the results of the second round of monitoring the implementation of Recommendation Rec(2002)5 on the protection of women against violence in Council of Europe member states, Strasbourg ([http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/domesticviolencecampaign/Source/CDEG %20%282008%29%20rev_en.pdf](http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/domesticviolencecampaign/Source/CDEG%20%282008%29%20rev_en.pdf)).

In Germany FGM is treated as a form of violence and the government committed itself to combating it within the second national action plan on violence against women as from 2009. In other countries there are specific provisions prohibiting FGM, such as in the Netherlands and the UK⁽⁵⁵²⁾. In Ireland a partial plan was launched in 2010.

Some countries do not have national action plans or specific provisions on the matter: such is the case, for example, of Bulgaria, Cyprus, the Czech Republic, Finland, Liechtenstein, Malta, Poland and Spain (where FGM is treated as gender-based violence, although it is not mentioned in the law, or even by the social and health services)⁽⁵⁵³⁾.

Box 2.11 presents the main contents of existing NAPs on FGM.

⁽⁵⁵²⁾ <http://www.meisjesbesnijdenis.nl/supernavigatie/english?pagina=1>

⁽⁵⁵³⁾ According to the Council of Europe (2008), the issue is not addressed in the NAPs of HR, CY, DK, EE, FR, IS, IT, LT, LI, MT, RO, SK, ES, former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia.

Box 2.11 — Examples of action plans on female genital mutilation

In **Austria**, a national action plan for the prevention and elimination of FGM has been implemented, covering the period 2007–11. It was prepared under the Daphne project 'Developing national action plans to prevent and eliminate female genital mutilation (FGM) in the European Union', presented in 2008⁽⁵⁵⁴⁾.

In **Ireland** there is a national plan of action to address female genital mutilation (2008) which aims to improve the health and well-being of women and girls affected by FGM in Ireland and to prevent the practice in Ireland⁽⁵⁵⁵⁾.

In **Norway** female genital mutilation is prohibited and punishable by law. A modest estimate is that there are about 10 000 women in Norway who have been victims of FGM⁽⁵⁵⁶⁾. The country has adopted a national action plan against female genital mutilation (2008–11)⁽⁵⁵⁷⁾. Activities to combat FGM include efficient information, counselling, extensive action plans and punishment by law⁽⁵⁵⁸⁾. The plan involves various different stakeholders (including national and local authorities, religious institutions, ethnic minority communities, schools and cultural institutions, health services and the police) and provides training and information to girls and women risking genital mutilation, women who have been violated, the police, health workers and other groups of employers who might be in touch with women risking genital mutilation.

In **Portugal**, the first national action plan for combating FGM was presented to the public on the International Day against FGM (6 February 2009). For its design various different stakeholders were consulted. The measures include activities for sensitising the general public, and also training activities for experts working with women involved, such as healthcare workers, social assistants, cultural mediators, etc. in order to elaborate further indicators to identify affected women better⁽⁵⁵⁹⁾. Also a special seminar was held involving different governmental representatives to present initial evaluation of the national campaign against FGM. During this seminar, affected women were also invited.

Source: EGGSI network national reports, 2010.

⁽⁵⁵⁴⁾ <http://webapps01.un.org/vawdatabase/searchDetail.action?measureId=29876&baseHREF=country&baseHREFId=164>

⁽⁵⁵⁵⁾ <http://www.ifpa.ie/eng/Media-Info-Centre/Publications/Publications-Reports/Ireland%E2%80%99s-National-Plan-of-Action-to-Address-Female-Genital-Mutilation2>

⁽⁵⁵⁶⁾ Vangen, S., Hoffman, R., Flo, K., Lorenzen, B. and Sand, S. (2006), Omskjæring av kvinner-komplikasjoner og behandling, Tidsskrift Norsk Legeforening, 126, 475–477.

⁽⁵⁵⁷⁾ Barn og likestillingdepartementet. Handlingsplan mot kjønnslemlestelse 2008–11 (http://www.regjeringen.no/upload/BLD/Kjonnsllestelse/Handlingsplan%20mot%20kjonnsllestelse_net.pdf).

⁽⁵⁵⁸⁾ Lidén, H. and Betnzen, T. (2008), Kjønnslemlestelse i Norge, Oslo: Institutt for samfunnsforskning. Rapport 2008:8 (<http://www.regjeringen.no/upload/BLD/Kjonnsllestelse/Kj%C3%B8nnslemlestelse%20i%20Norge%20-%20En%20kartlegging.pdf>).

⁽⁵⁵⁹⁾ http://dn.sapo.pt/inicio/portugal/interior.aspx?content_id=1489590

According to the Council of Europe (2008), **forced marriage** is penalised in all the countries considered in this report except Finland and the Netherlands, and addressed in the action plans of 11 countries (Bulgaria, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Italy, Malta, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, Turkey, the UK)⁽⁵⁶⁰⁾. Currently, only Norway has developed a dedicated NAP on forced marriages (2008–11), while Denmark had one for the period 2004–05.

As described in Box 2.12, interesting projects/programmes have been implemented in the UK, where a special unit to treat forced marriage has been set up to provide services for girls more at risk, and in Germany, where international partnerships have been promoted to stop forced marriages.

⁽⁵⁶⁰⁾ No information provided for Slovenia.

Box 2.12 — Examples of measures on forced marriage

In **Austria**, the crisis and prevention work of the 'Orient Express', a migrant women's counselling, information and training centre in Vienna, offers support in cases of forced marriages — in Austria a punishable criminal offence according to the Penal Code. The organisation offers, for instance, a prevention workshop, 'Help! I don't want to marry yet', for young people and parents with migrant background. What is needed, according to 'Orient Express', is expansion of services and resources and accommodation options providing long-term assistance and care as well as the establishment of a specialised family counselling facility, and counselling locations for young men⁽⁵⁶¹⁾.

In **Norway** the action plan against forced marriages was adopted in June 2007. This plan contains 40 measures involving eight ministries. The principal aims are to prevent young people from being forced to subject themselves to forced marriages and to provide better assistance and protection to young people who have been victimised or who are in danger of victimisation as well as increasing awareness of violence in close relationships⁽⁵⁶²⁾. The government recognises that combating forced marriages necessitates a broad-based approach, because good results are particularly contingent upon the success of policies promoting equality and social inclusion. Since forced marriages may cause individual trauma, health personnel are in a key position to identify, prevent and treat victims of forced marriages. Hence, the plan increased emphasis upon strengthening the existing expertise at regional resource centres to prevent forced marriages, including the development of mental healthcare for victims of such marriages. Another important measure was to enhance the expertise of municipal health services, so that they be better able to identify and follow up women who are victims of forced marriages⁽⁵⁶³⁾. The action plan has been followed up by bi-annual status reports⁽⁵⁶⁴⁾.

In the case of **Germany** the Department for Foreign Countries and the German Embassy in Ankara cooperated with a German/Turkish women's organisation 'Flying broom/Uçan Süpürge' against forced marriages in 2006. Violence against women is a topic with which the Federal Ministry of Economic Cooperation and Development and different aid organisations are dealing with.

In the **UK** the Foreign and Commonwealth Office and the Home Office run a Forced Marriage Unit. Established in 2000, this provides confidential advice and support for those settled in the UK but who are at risk of being sent overseas for forced marriage or who have already been married against their will. The services it provides are: awareness-raising; advice; international assistance for missing people; evaluation of visa applications for overseas spouses; survivor support and training and guidance for professionals⁽⁵⁶⁵⁾. In 2009 the Forced Marriage Unit gave advice or support in 1 682 cases, 86 % of which were represented by women.

Source: EGGSI network national reports, 2010.

⁽⁵⁶¹⁾ Municipal Department 57, Promotion and Coordination of Women's Issues 2009, p.56.

⁽⁵⁶²⁾ Barne- og likestillingsdepartement: Handlingsplan mot tvangsekteskap halvårsrapport pr. september 09 (<http://www.regjeringen.no/upload/BLD/Tvangsekteskap/Rapport%20høst%202009%20nett%20endelig.pdf>).

⁽⁵⁶³⁾ Norwegian Ministry of Children and Equality: action plan against forced marriages 2008–11 (http://www.regjeringen.no/upload/BLD/Planer/2007/Tvangsekteskap_engelsk2007.pdf).

⁽⁵⁶⁴⁾ Barne- og likestillingsdepartement: Handlingsplan mot tvangsekteskap halvårsrapport pr. september 09 (<http://www.regjeringen.no/upload/BLD/Tvangsekteskap/Rapport%20høst%202009%20nett%20endelig.pdf>).

⁽⁵⁶⁵⁾ <http://www.fco.gov.uk/en/travel-and-living-abroad/when-things-go-wrong/forced-marriage>

Only very recently has stalking been explicitly considered a form of violence in the criminal code in some countries: Austria (2006), the Czech Republic (2008), Italy (2009) and Liechtenstein (2007). In other countries it is often associated with sexual harassment, which is addressed in the action plans of 12 countries

(Bulgaria, Finland, Germany, Italy, Malta, the Netherlands, Portugal, Romania, Slovakia, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Turkey and the UK)⁽⁵⁶⁶⁾. In Box 2.13 some examples are given where measures for protecting women against stalking have been implemented.

⁽⁵⁶⁶⁾ According to the monitoring data of the Council of Europe (2008), Final activity report. Council of Europe Task Force to Combat Violence against Women, including Domestic Violence (EG-TFV). Gender Equality and Anti-Trafficking Division, Directorate-General of Human Rights and Legal Affairs, Strasbourg (http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/domesticviolencecampaign/Source/Final_Activity_Report.pdf).

Box 2.13 — Examples of legal provisions on stalking

In **Austria** an Anti-stalking Act under the term 'insistent persecution'⁽⁵⁶⁷⁾ entered into force in 2006 as well as the amended Code of Criminal Procedure, under which victims are granted the right to psychosocial and legal court assistance.

In the **Czech Republic** since 2008 dangerous stalking has been penalised with the Criminal Code amendment to the Penal Code. It is applicable to partners or ex-partners not living together. The law was brought in partly as a reaction to the law on domestic violence which does not cover cases of violence (mainly against women) from partners after separation/divorce (or) not living in the same household.

In **Liechtenstein**, in its June 2007 session the parliament adopted a new explicit criminal provision against stalking (§107a of the Criminal Code). The perpetrator may be sentenced to imprisonment of up to one year. The definition of harassment has been widened with the Anti-stalking Law. Interestingly, stalking is not explicitly linked to violence against women in Liechtenstein.

Italy adopted a Law against Stalking in February 2009. Since then, stalking has been punishable with imprisonment ranging from six months to four years. Nationwide information and awareness-raising campaigns have been promoted by the Ministry of Gender Equality.

In **Malta** anti-stalking provisions are found under the term 'harassment' in the Penal Code 2005 (Article 251), as the law uses the more generic term 'harassment' (*fastidju*) in order not to exclude any aspect of stalking⁽⁵⁶⁸⁾. It is expected that a broader interpretation could prove to be a better tool for the judiciary when encountering any new variations of the same crime. The reaction of the victim is considered as a qualifying element of the offence of stalking⁽⁵⁶⁹⁾.

Source: EGGSI network national reports, 2010.

⁽⁵⁶⁷⁾ If a person insistently persecutes another person for a relatively long period of time against their will and thus impairs the person's way of living in an intolerable way, this is called stalking. Stalking includes, for example, repeated persecution, harassment through telephone calls, e-mails or other means of communication. Placing purchase orders by using the data of a person or inducing a third person to establish contact with the victim are also punishable offences.

⁽⁵⁶⁸⁾ WAVE (2009), Country report 2009 — Reality check on European services for women and children victims of violence. A right for protection and support?, Vienna (http://www.wave-network.org/images/doku/wave_countryreport_2009_1.pdf).

⁽⁵⁶⁹⁾ University of Modena and Reggio Emilia (2007), Protecting women from the new crime of stalking: a comparison of legislative approaches within the European Union (http://stalking.medlegmo.unimo.it/RAPPORTO_versione_finale_011007.pdf).

Harassment at work is very difficult to identify, being linked with gender discrimination in the workplace and comprising various forms of violence ranging from bullying and psychological violence to sexual harassment. European surveys have shown significant rates of sexual harassment in the workplace, with between 40 and 50 % of women in the European Union reporting some form of sexual harassment or unwanted sexual behaviour in the workplace⁽⁵⁷⁰⁾.

Sexual harassment at work is penalised in all the countries here considered. Where harassment at work is

explicitly considered in gender equality and/or anti-discrimination acts, protection for working women is greater than when, as in the majority of cases, harassment at work is not considered as a gender-related form of violence. In some cases, as in Cyprus, the social partners have been directly involved in actions to address this form of violence. In Belgium on the other hand, since the second national action plan on domestic violence (2004–07), sexual harassment has not been included in the plan.

Box 2.14 reports on some relevant actions taken by the countries considered according to the EGGSI experts.

⁽⁵⁷⁰⁾ Background documentation for: 61st session of the General Assembly — Item 60(a) on advancement of women — Secretary-General's study on violence against women (<http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/vaw/violenceagainstwomestudydoc.pdf>).

Box 2.14 — Examples of measures on harassment at work

Belgium — The issue of sexual harassment was already being addressed in the 90s and was also part of the 2001 first action plan on violence against women. The service in charge of Gender equality, attached to the Ministry of Employment, launched an awareness-raising campaign to combat sexual harassment at work (*Sexe collègue, ex-collègue*). During these years, a network of gender focal points at the level of ‘provinces’⁽⁵⁷¹⁾ was also supported by the service in charge of gender equality. The Institute for Gender Equality co-financed two persons per province as gender focal points, one person being in charge of actions towards violence against women. The second plan (2004–07), and the following plans, do not include sexual harassment in their actions. The issue is covered through existing health and safety at work regulations and legislation on gender equality, which considers sexual harassment as gender discrimination. However, a new law on gender equality adopted in 2007 specifies that workers in the private sectors can only rely on the health and safety regulations and no longer on the gender equality legislation. This has an effect on the quality of the protection as the health and safety regulation requires longer procedures in cases of harassment and allocates lower compensation for damages.

Cyprus — There is no specific NAP on sexual harassment, but this issue is included in the 2007–13 NAP on gender equality. However, the Employers and Industrialists Federation (OEB) has issued a code of practice aimed at addressing sexual harassment at work on the basis of International Labour Organisation standards and European Union principles. This initiative is part of an OEB framework of action for promoting the principle of gender equality at work and combating all forms of gender-based discrimination. In promoting and facilitating the broadest possible adoption of the code, the OEB believes that it is of vital importance to introduce a provision in the existing legislation stating that the existence and implementation of the code would serve to defend those employers against whom complaints are lodged relating to instances of sexual harassment⁽⁵⁷²⁾.

Czech Republic — Sexual harassment is defined by law in work relationships as a form of discrimination. A survey carried out among employees showed a still very high tolerance to forms of behaviour that could be considered sexual harassment by men and women⁽⁵⁷³⁾.

Estonia — The Gender Equality Act, which explicitly prohibits direct and indirect discrimination against women, came into force on 1 May 2004; it also contains a definition of sexual harassment, but does not include any preventive or punishment measures.

Germany — The General Equal Treatment Act (AGG), which came into force in 2006, encompasses protection against sexual harassment in the workplace. The new regulations in the AGG provide extensive protection, because the definition of sexual harassment is now broader than was the case with the previous Act to Protect Employees against Sexual Harassment at Work.

In **Ireland** sexual harassment is prohibited by law (Equality Acts, 1998, 2000 and 2004). The Employment Equality Acts 1998–08 define harassment as ‘unwanted conduct’. Sexual harassment is any form of ‘unwanted verbal, non-verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature’. In both cases it is defined as conduct which ‘has the purpose or effect of violating a person’s dignity and creating an intimidating, hostile, degrading, humiliating or offensive environment for the person’ and it is prohibited under the acts⁽⁵⁷⁴⁾. However, Irish law relies on the individual to take a case and there is no statutory duty or private duty requiring employers to act to prevent sexual harassment in the workplace.

Lithuania — Criminal acts and punishment for violence against women are defined in the Criminal Code of Lithuania. Article 2, part 5, of the Law on Equal Opportunities of Women and Men defines sexual harassment at the workplace as an offensive act. It is also referred to in the Labour Code and the Criminal Code. A problem with the prosecution of sexual harassment is that the burden of proof rests on the person affected.

⁽⁵⁷¹⁾ Subregional level, 10 provinces in Belgium plus the Brussels region. Authority operating between the regions and the local level.

⁽⁵⁷²⁾ <http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/eiro/2004/07/inbrief/cy0407101n.htm>

⁽⁵⁷³⁾ Křížková, A., Čermáková, M., Dudová, R., Maříková, H. and Uhde, Z. (2005), *Obtěžování žen a mužů a sexuální obtěžování v českém systému pracovních vztahů. Rozsah, formy, aktéři, řešení* (Report for the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs on sexual harassment) (<http://www.vlada.cz/assets/clenove-vlady/ministri-pri-uradu-vlady/michael-kocab/rovne-prilezitosti-zen-a-muzu/dokumenty/obtezovani.pdf>).

⁽⁵⁷⁴⁾ http://www.citizensinformation.ie/categories/employment/equality-in-work/harassment_at_work

Malta — Sexual harassment is prohibited in both the Employment and Industrial Relations Act (2002) (Articles 29 and 32), and the Equality for Men and Women Act (2003) (Articles 1 to 3)⁽⁵⁷⁵⁾. The Malta Management Personnel Office in collaboration with the National Commission for the Promotion of Equality (NCPE) compiled a set of guidelines on sexual harassment for heads of department and public officers in the public service. Moreover, the NCPE encourages private and public entities to formulate and adopt a sexual harassment policy to ensure that employees and clients of any company are treated with respect and dignity. Employees are informed and educated through formal and informal training programmes that raise awareness on abusive behaviour and on ways of redress for victims of sexual harassment.

Romania — Sexual harassment is defined by the 2002 Law on Equal Opportunities and Treatment between Women and Men⁽⁵⁷⁶⁾. Cases of sexual harassment at work as well as those perpetrated outside work can be settled according to either penal law or civil law provisions. The victim's complaint is a prerequisite for any inquiry.

Slovakia — The prohibition of sexual harassment and harassment at work is defined by the Anti-discrimination Act and the national action plan for prevention and elimination of violence against women (2009–12), which pays special attention to violence in the workplace. Measures planned include for instance awareness-raising and educational activities on violence in the workplace and monitoring of the complaints about sexual harassment⁽⁵⁷⁷⁾.

Slovenia — Sexual harassment at the workplace is defined in the Employment Relationship Act (adopted in 2002) which has clearly defined anti-discrimination practices and obligations of employers. It specifically prohibits discrimination due to gender, race, skin colour, age, health status or handicap, religious, political or other beliefs, union membership, national or social background, family status, wealth, sexual orientation or other personal circumstances. The latest adaptations of the Employment Relationship Act in 2008 have adopted more precise definitions and prohibitions of sexual harassment.

Turkey — The new Turkish Penal Code which came into effect in 2005 criminalises, among other things, sexual harassment in the workplace⁽⁵⁷⁸⁾. Under this law, sexual harassment by both supervisors and co-workers in the workplace is considered an aggravated offence and punishable by up to three years' imprisonment if it involves the exploitation of a hierarchical or work relationship⁽⁵⁷⁹⁾.

Source: EGGSI network national reports, 2010.

⁽⁵⁷⁵⁾ WAVE (2008), Country report 2008 — Reality check on European services for women and children victims of violence. A right for protection and support?, WAVE Coordination Office/Austrian Women's Shelter Network, Vienna (http://www.wave-network.org/images/doku/wave_country_report_2008.pdf).

⁽⁵⁷⁶⁾ http://legislatie.resurse-pentru-democratie.org/202_2002.php

⁽⁵⁷⁷⁾ http://www.gender.gov.sk/get_file.php?sID=63e6346c7b55ec4567a436031385b325&SMC=1&id=668

⁽⁵⁷⁸⁾ Turkish Penal Code, Article 105.

⁽⁵⁷⁹⁾ <http://www.stopvaw.org/Turkey.html>

2.3.3. Increasing attention to prevention and support measures and to the needs of vulnerable groups of women

As for the types of intervention, in all the European countries considered there is increasing attention to prevention measures and support services, while reintegration programmes specifically targeted to the needs of women victims of violence are less widespread.

Awareness-raising programmes addressing the population have been implemented in all European countries, often spurred by the Council of Europe campaign (launched in 2006). Training programmes on violence against women aimed at practitioners entering in contact with (potential) victims, such as the judiciary and the police, healthcare and social service providers as well as the educational system,

are also widespread in the countries considered. More recently, measures for the treatment of men perpetrators of violence have been implemented in many countries. Recent trends also show increasing attention to data collection and monitoring, and, even if still limited, to the monitoring and evaluation of the effectiveness of specific programmes.

The need for a multidimensional approach and coordination and partnerships both within public institutions and between public institutions and NGOs is also increasingly recognised, as is networking among NGOs.

A positive development in recent years is the increasing attention in many European countries to the needs of specific vulnerable groups of women, who are more at risk of being victims of violence and discrimination, such as ethnic minority and

immigrant women, prostitutes and women victims of trafficking, women with disabilities, young and elderly women, lesbians, women living in rural and peripheral areas. In some countries, however (for example, Cyprus and the Czech Republic), attention to specific vulnerable groups is still lacking.

Ethnic minority and migrant women (including Roma) are particularly vulnerable when affected by violence. Not only are the forms of discrimination and violence against migrant women manifold, but immigrant and ethnic minority women are also often economically and legally dependent on their husbands' status, especially when they do not hold an independent residence permit. Furthermore, language or cultural

barriers reduce access to support institutions⁽⁵⁸⁰⁾. The increasing presence of migrant and ethnic minority women in European countries has increased attention to their specific needs in the design of information and awareness-raising campaigns, as well as in support and reintegration services. In some countries services for immigrants have been set up in violence prevention and treatment centres in consideration of their culture, and the multi-language counselling services for victims who contact the women's phone helpline have been expanded.

Box 2.15 presents some examples of measures to prevent violence against highly vulnerable groups, such as ethnic minorities and immigrant women.

Box 2.15 — Examples of measures for ethnic minority and immigrant women

In **Austria**, over recent years, the share of migrant women living in women's shelters has risen to almost 60 %. Therefore, many of the women's shelters provide counselling for women affected by violence in their own mother tongue⁽⁵⁸¹⁾. In one of the women's shelters in Vienna, basic computer courses with a duration of 12 months were organised to make access to the labour market easier, especially for the immigrant residents of the shelters. This pilot project turned out to be highly successful, but due to financial reasons the project was not continued. The Centre FEM South is in particular specialised in providing general health treatment for women facing barriers to accessing service provisions such as single mothers, women with low educational achievement or low income and migrant women⁽⁵⁸²⁾. The centre is located in an area particularly inhabited by persons with migrant background; counselling is also provided in Bosnian/Croatian/Serbian and Turkish. The team is characterised by its multi-cultural and multi-professional orientation and consists of psychologists, pharmacists, physicians, nurses and social workers. To reduce thresholds, 'the doors are always open', and the work is characterised by un-bureaucratic procedures and flexibility to reach women not consulting conventional health institutions. In 2003, the percentage of clients with a migrant background was 40 %⁽⁵⁸³⁾. In 2007, the Vienna women's health programme supported the establishment of a counselling centre for women's health and genital mutilation, also provided by FEM South offering low-threshold mother-tongue support.

In **Denmark** violence against ethnic minority women seems to have gained a more prominent position in the second NAP on domestic violence (2005–08) and has resulted in several information campaigns in multiple languages about where to seek support, with information distributed through the emergency wards, hairdressers, police and libraries, and also the production of informative films, targeting these women, as well as the creation of a website (<http://www.voldmodkvinder.dk>) where information is given in various languages in addition to Danish.

In **Spain**, the National Observatory on Violence against Women has created task forces to assess specific vulnerable groups affected by violence. These include migrant and rural women, Roma women and disabled women⁽⁵⁸⁴⁾. The elderly and young women are also considered. These groups are also taken into account in the present NAP⁽⁵⁸⁵⁾.

Source: EGGSI network national reports, 2010.

⁽⁵⁸¹⁾ Federal Minister for Women and Civil Service (Bundesministerin für Frauen und öffentlichen Dienst) (2008), Ten years of Austrian anti-violence legislation, Vienna.

⁽⁵⁸²⁾ Women's Health Centre FEM South (Frauengesundheitszentrum FEM Süd) (http://www.fem.at/FEM_Sued/femsued.htm).

⁽⁵⁸³⁾ Women's Health Centre FEM South (Frauengesundheitszentrum FEM Süd) (http://www.fem.at/FEM_Sued/femsued.htm).

⁽⁵⁸⁴⁾ <http://eurosocialsalud.eu/files/docs/00570.pdf>

⁽⁵⁸⁵⁾ http://www.observatorioviolencia.org/upload_images/File/DOC1179995963_PlanNacional_prevencion.pdf

⁽⁵⁸⁰⁾ Chiara Crepaldi, Manuela Samek Lodovici, Marcella Corsi, Sandra Naaf et al. (2009), Access to health and long-term care, equal for women and men?, final synthesis report prepared for the Employment, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities DG (<http://ec.europa.eu/social/BlobServlet?docId=5590&langId=en>).

Another important aspect of migrant women's particularly vulnerable situation is human trafficking. In many EU countries there are specific measures to support *women victims of trafficking*. Some examples are presented in Box 2.16.

Box 2.16 — Examples of measures for women victims of trafficking

In **Austria**, state authorities grant a 30-day 'stabilisation' period for victims of trafficking, which is not made conditional on the victim's ability or willingness to cooperate with the authorities. Temporary stay permits can be provided for six months. The LEFÖ-IBF and other NGOs provide legal assistance, medical and psychosocial services, and housing and shelter to support victims. The IBF also provides counselling and accompaniment for women in deportation detention centres; international and national lobbying against trafficking in women; distribution of information about trafficking in women and female migration to the Austrian population and specific target groups (police, judges, public prosecutors and NGOs).

In **Cyprus**, the national approach is less oriented on prevention and integration but is more oriented on protection and prosecution. A significant provision of the national action plan on combating trafficking in persons (2010–12) was the establishment of a State Shelter for the Protection of Victims of Trafficking, run by the social welfare services which are the legal guardians of victims of trafficking. However, the maximum number of victims that could be placed at the shelter is 15, and according to the Mediterranean Institute of Gender Studies/STIGMA, there are no specific programmes for their integration, no psychosocial support, and a lack of vocational training among other things. One reason for this could be the fact that the persons employed at the shelter are not specialised psychologists or therapists.

In **Greece** an important programme is 'ASPIDA', which was promoted from 2006 to 2008, aiming at the operation of a hostel for trafficking victims, advanced education for professionals, providing psychological, legal and counselling support⁽⁵⁸⁶⁾.

In **Liechtenstein**, since the beginning of May 2009 dancers employed at Liechtenstein bars and nightclubs have been required to participate in an information event at which representatives of the authorities and the Victims Assistance Office inform the women about their legal situation pertaining to work, their stay in Liechtenstein, social and health insurances, and services for victims of human trafficking. This event aims to help prevent potential exploitative circumstances that cannot be ruled out in the milieu, and to give potential victims of human trafficking access to counselling and victims assistance offices. Because of the high rate of turnover in this industry, the events take place each month.

In **Malta**, the government has boosted prevention activities over the last years, with awareness-raising campaigns on human trafficking, information about identifying potential victims and outlets for assistance. The brochures were also distributed in entertainment areas to target potential clients of the sex trade.

In **Poland**, the IRIS project 'Social and vocational inclusion of women victims of trafficking in persons' (2004–08) provided social and vocational training services for women victims of trafficking, but only to those of Polish nationality. The project was carried out by the NGO La Strada in a private–public partnership involving five organisations. La Strada ran a hostel for victims of trafficking in persons and provided emergency interventions (including medical, psychological and legal consultations, as well as shelter), training courses (activation, education) and internships⁽⁵⁸⁷⁾.

In **Romania**, women victims of family violence and trafficking are among the potential beneficiaries of a three-year project (ESTHIA network of pilot centres for women) financed by the European Social Fund and coordinated by the National Agency for Equal Opportunities. It aims at improving the support network for vulnerable women. Six pilot (three fixed and three mobile) centres will be created in different regions providing information, vocational and job orientation as well as skills development in order to help women in their integration/reintegration in the labour market.

⁽⁵⁸⁶⁾ National Observatory for Combating Violence Against Women, 2009, Second national report on Greece (http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/egm/IndicatorsVAW/IndicatorsVAW_EGM_report.pdf).

⁽⁵⁸⁷⁾ <http://www.kcik.pl/en/index.html>

Additionally, victims of violence and trafficking will receive legal assistance as well as support services to overcome their psychological and social vulnerability⁽⁵⁸⁸⁾. The programme is still running, but there is no information or monitoring available on its progress.

In **Slovakia**, the 'Return and reintegration programme for trafficked persons', co-funded by the EQUAL programme in 2006, provided: assistance for return to the country of origin, reintegration assistance, psychological counselling, medical treatment, temporary accommodation, educational courses and job integration to Slovakian citizens trafficked to another country and citizens of another country trafficked to Slovakia⁽⁵⁸⁹⁾.

In **Slovenia**, a reintegration programme for victims of trafficking, co-financed by the European Social Fund (ESF), offered counselling services, help in getting necessary documents, and support for personal and professional growth (such as education or support in finding employment)⁽⁵⁹⁰⁾.

In **Italy**, programmes to support the social integration of victims of trafficking are carried out at the local level by provinces and municipalities in collaboration with NGOs.

Source: EGGSI network national reports, 2010.

⁽⁵⁸⁸⁾ <http://www.anes.ro/index.php?page=programeSiProiecte>

⁽⁵⁸⁹⁾ National programme of the fight against trafficking in human beings for the period 2008 - 2010. <http://www.iom.sk/sk/aktivita/obchodovanie-s-ludmi/dokumenty?download=9>

⁽⁵⁹⁰⁾ <http://drustvo-kljuc.si/re-integracija.php>

Girls and young women, and especially ethnic minority and immigrant girls and girls victims of trafficking, are the target of awareness-raising and training campaigns, also involving boys and young men, and of counselling and empowerment programmes like those carried out

in Denmark and Norway and presented in Box 2.17. Peer effects are particularly considered in the implemented initiatives, as evaluation and research have found the importance of directly involving young people for improving the effectiveness of dedicated measures.

Box 2.17 — Examples of measures for girls and young women

In **Cyprus** and **Malta** a Daphne II programme entitled 'Date rape cases among young women and the development of good practices for support and prevention' was implemented in the period 2006–08 in cooperation with **Latvia**, **Lithuania** and **Greece**⁽⁵⁹¹⁾. Its main aim was to investigate the prevalence and incidence of date rape among female college students, and assess the attitudes, behaviours and level of awareness among young women as well as relevant stakeholders. The projects also promoted awareness through the publication of leaflets, a press conference, a final conference, and the publication of a resource book that included the research results, good practice examples, as well as policy recommendations targeting policymakers and NGOs at the national and European level⁽⁵⁹²⁾.

In **Denmark**, policy initiatives in the 2005–08 NAP included a focus on youngsters, as violence in young couples seems to be particularly widespread. A special report on dating violence⁽⁵⁹³⁾, above all important for young people, has been published, and the seventh periodic report by the government of Denmark on the Implementation of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (2007) also includes a section dedicated to the young.

In **Ireland** the issue of violence against younger and older women in institutional settings is of growing public concern as there is greater awareness of historical and present failure that impacts on elder women who have suffered institutionalised abuse, vulnerable at-risk small girls who suffer inadequate care and girls with the status of unaccompanied minors in the asylum and refugee system. A key issue in service provision is the ongoing need for support, counselling, advocacy, legal redress and compensation for women victims of institutional abuse.

⁽⁵⁹¹⁾ Mediterranean Institute of Gender Studies (2008), Date rape cases among young women: strategies for support and prevention, University of Nicosia Press, Nicosia, Cyprus (http://epacvaw.org/IMG/pdf/MIGS_Date_Rape_Resource_Book_2008_1.pdf).

⁽⁵⁹²⁾ Mediterranean Institute of Gender Studies (2008), Date rape cases among young women: strategies for support and prevention, University of Nicosia Press, Nicosia, Cyprus (http://epacvaw.org/IMG/pdf/MIGS_Date_Rape_Resource_Book_2008_1.pdf).

⁽⁵⁹³⁾ http://www.si-folkesundhed.dk/upload/english_summary-dating_violence_in_denmark.pdf

In the **Netherlands**, the 'Pretty woman' campaign has been promoted since 1996 by a local municipality (Utrecht) and NGOs to prevent girls from entering into abusive relationships and prostitution, but also to give assistance to girls who are in risk situations or prostitution. It is implemented in the city and partly also the province of Utrecht, by a few local NGOs together with the youth protection agency. Besides individual and group assistance, awareness-raising campaigns have been undertaken.

In **Norway**, the MiRA Resource Centre for immigrant and refugee women operating from 1989 onwards has a network group of young girls. They arrange meetings and seminars on subjects particularly relevant to their situation. The girls mobilise other girls, and build up the support groups. The background for the MiRA Centre is to give an increased number of women the capacity and opportunity to participate in the social debate. The centre also gives assistance in legal and social matters to immigrant and refugee women as well as young girls with minority backgrounds. It deals with economic or marital problems, immigration legislation and deportations or conflicts within the family.

In **Slovakia**, the programme on 'Prevention of trafficking in human beings for teachers and students of secondary schools', implemented in 2007 by IOM, aimed to increase the awareness of young people and students (age 14–19) of the danger of human trafficking and the possibilities of avoiding it through discussions at secondary boarding schools. The project also tested the new form of prevention within the group of young people through so-called peer activists who are able, based on their training, to spread the preventive information in the form of work in peer groups in college or schools⁽⁵⁹⁴⁾.

Source: EGGSI network national reports, 2010.

⁽⁵⁹⁴⁾ National programme of the fight against trafficking in human beings for the period 2008–10.

Disabled women (and women with disabled children) and *elderly women* are particularly at risk of being victims of violence not only at home, but also in institutions and require attention being paid to their specific needs in the design of measures. According to the European Parliament, about 80 % of disabled women have been victims of physical or psychological violence, including also neglect, deprived living conditions and maltreatment. They are also more difficult to reach for preven-

tion programmes due to often more isolated living conditions and their specific needs⁽⁵⁹⁵⁾.

The Council of Europe indicates that violence in institutional environments is specifically addressed in the action plans of only nine countries among those considered in this report (Finland, Germany, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Portugal, Romania and Sweden). The EGGSI national reports also review only few actions addressing these groups of women, as shown in Box 2.18.

Box 2.18 — Examples of measures supporting disabled women and elderly women

In **Austria** the NGO NINLIL⁽⁵⁹⁶⁾ offers counselling for women with learning difficulties or multiple disabilities who have been affected by sexual violence as well as counselling for acquaintances. Training for staff working in institutions for people with disabilities or in organisations concerned with the protection of women victims of violence is also carried out. In addition, seminars to strengthen the possibly affected women through self-determined acting and empowerment are provided. The contents of the seminars include for instance: 'My body is mine' or 'Saying NO is allowed!'. The seminars are structured for women with different kinds of disabilities and are offered free of charge.

⁽⁵⁹⁶⁾ NINLIL — Gegen sexuelle Gewalt an Frauen mit Lernschwierigkeiten oder Mehrfachbehinderung — Empowerment, Beratung Vernetzung [Against sexual violence against women with learning difficulties or multiple disabilities — Empowerment — Counselling — Networking] (<http://www.ninlil.at/beratung.html>).

⁽⁵⁹⁵⁾ European Parliament, 2004/2004(INI) Equal opportunities for people with disabilities: A European Action Plan (<http://www.europarl.europa.eu/meetdocs/committees/femm/20040330/509903en.pdf>)

In **Denmark**, a three-year research programme was initiated in 2005 in order to investigate how crisis centres could increase physical accessibility for women with disabilities and women with children with disabilities. Another group of women which received special attention were addicts, in order to ensure that the crisis centres could provide more holistic treatment programmes to address the needs of this particular user group. A sum of DKK 9 million (EUR 1.2 million) was earmarked for a three-year project to develop methods regarding physically disabled women staying at shelters (2005–07).

In **Germany**, the second NAP on violence against women (2007) promoted empirical studies on women with disabilities and older women. In 2009, a representative study on the extent and scope of violence against disabled women and girls (aged 16–65) in ambulant and patient services as well as in the domestic sphere has been commissioned by the Federal Ministry of Family Affairs, Senior Citizens, Women and Youth in order to provide the first empirically grounded information and data on this phenomenon.

In **Norway**, the recent action plan against domestic violence (2008–11)⁽⁵⁹⁷⁾ emphasises the importance of recognising at-risk groups of women who are less likely to seek help in case of domestic violence, such as disabled women, women with poor language skills, women that have been living in Norway for a short period and women with poor integration in the labour market, as well as women with a history of drug abuse or with mental health problems. The central goal of this new action plan is to offer them a secure and independent life situation. A crisis centre for women is to be implemented. Training will also be provided for the personnel at the women's crisis centre to address special needs for disabled women, women with a history of drug abuse and women with poor language skills⁽⁵⁹⁸⁾.

Slovenia's strategy for the care of the elderly until 2010 and the resolution on the social assistance programme (2006–10) address violence against the elderly — mainly the problem of family violence, but also violence in institutional settings (homes for the elderly). Since elderly women are a more numerous population than elderly men, this could be seen as an important policy addressing violence against women. The strategy for the care of the elderly until 2010 mentions several activities and programmes, among them: raising awareness of violence and giving information to the elderly on self-protection; informing the elderly in institutions on their rights; developing networks of volunteers to raise the quality of life of the elderly; training of the staff in institutions as well as family caregivers; and developing advocacy bodies for the elderly. Similarly, the resolution on the social assistance programme (2006–10) lists as one of its priorities the development of programmes to prevent and help the elderly suffering violence and abuse. Disabled women are mentioned as a particularly vulnerable group in the resolution of the national programme of family violence protection (2009).

A cross-country partnership project financed by Daphne III is 'Breaking the taboo: empowering health professionals to combat violence against older women within families' (2007–09). The eight-country study (Austria, Belgium, Finland, France, Germany, Italy, Poland and Portugal) aimed to develop and promote specific support for older people, and especially women, who are recipients of home-care services and experience domestic violence. The project has two core target groups: the general population, to be reached by means of an awareness campaign; and professional care/counselling staff, for which a specific checklist was developed for detecting and dealing with elder abuse⁽⁵⁹⁹⁾.

Source: EGGSI network national reports, 2010.

⁽⁵⁹⁷⁾ Ministry of Justice and the Police (2004), 'Action plan domestic violence (2004–07)', Norway (http://www.regjeringen.no/upload/kilde/jd/reg/2004/0028/ddd/pdfv/227003-action_plan_domestic_violence_2004_2007.pdf).

⁽⁵⁹⁸⁾ Ministry of Justice and the Police (2007), Vendepunkt, Handlingsplan mot vold i nære relasjoner 2008–11 Norway (<http://www.regjeringen.no/upload/JD/Vedlegg/Handlingsplaner/Vendepunkt.pdf>).

⁽⁵⁹⁹⁾ <http://www.isis-sozialforschung.de/download/breaking-the-taboo-flyer-ger.pdf> and http://www.inthenameofthemothers.com/doc/Report_elder_abuse_in_Italy.pdf

Women living in rural areas who are victims of violence are particularly difficult to reach and require specific targeted programmes which, however, still receive little attention in European countries. Exceptions are,

for instance, Austria, Slovenia and Poland, where they have been recognised as a vulnerable group and in some cases specific actions have addressed this target group, as described in Box 2.19.

Box 2.19 — Examples of measures supporting women in rural areas

In **Austria**, women on farms often find it hard to separate from their place of work. In cooperation with other women's shelters in Lower Austria and the farmers concerned, a special pilot project for farmers was developed by the Women's Shelter at Amstetten. Approximately 1 700 women participated in the information events and workshops that were designed especially for women farmers and supported by the Lower Austrian Chamber of Agriculture ⁽⁶⁰⁰⁾.

In **Poland**, a special training programme in the south-east region was aimed at women from rural areas, mainly on legal and practical aspects related to gender-based violence; 120 women of 13 municipalities (*gminas*) and 42 professionals (including teachers, police officers and social workers) were trained. The project was considered very well prepared, and strictly implemented. The topic of gender-related violence has remained one of the main issues covered by the activities of 'Our chance' Association until the present ⁽⁶⁰¹⁾.

In **Slovenia** the resolution of the national programme of family violence protection (2009) mentions, among groups considered as being more vulnerable and receiving less aid (due to poorer access to exiting programmes): the disabled (problem of physical access to help, dependence on family members) and the rural population (more difficult access to organisations helping victims of violence).

Source: EGGSI network national reports, 2010.

⁽⁶⁰⁰⁾ Federal Minister for Women and Civil Service (Bundesministerin für Frauen und öffentlichen Dienst) (2008), Ten years of Austrian anti-violence legislation, Vienna

⁽⁶⁰¹⁾ <http://szansa.bieszczady.info.pl/>

2.4. Main stakeholders and partnerships

Given the multidimensional nature of violence against women and the multiple consequences that it may generate, the design and implementation of measures to combat violence against women involves different actors and stakeholders and the capacity to create partnerships between different actors and institutional levels is particularly relevant for the effectiveness of the actions implemented.

As described in Section 2.2, international organisations such the United Nations, the World Health Organisation, the Council of Europe and the European Union, have had, and still have, a very important role in placing the issue up in the political agenda, in developing recommendations and guidelines, and in supporting (also financially) and monitoring the legislative and policy actions undertaken at the national and local level by governments, public institutions and NGOs ⁽⁶⁰²⁾. The EGGSI national reports well describe the importance of this role, especially for southern European, eastern European and candidate countries. Indicative in this respect is the case of Turkey, where, along with the intense lobbying carried out by the women's move-

ment, the country's accession process to the European Union has been a major factor in the state's increasing attention to the issue of violence against women in the 1990s and 2000s ⁽⁶⁰³⁾.

In most countries, different government sectors at different levels are usually involved in policies combating violence against women. As such, violence cuts across all government sectors, including the criminal justice system and the healthcare, education, social and employment services. At the national level the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs and the Ministry of Justice are often the lead institutions in promoting legislation and action plans to combat violence against women. Where it does exist, the ministry or department for gender equality has an important role in both policy promotion, design and implementation (coordinating the different actors involved) and in monitoring. In some countries (such as Estonia, Finland, Lithuania, Norway and Slovakia) the Ministry of Health also plays a significant role in promoting specific healthcare measures for women victims of violence.

In those countries where policymaking is decentralised at the local level, the role of municipalities and local governments is relevant both in policy design and in the provision of financial support to NGOs operating at the local level. In these countries the provision of

⁽⁶⁰²⁾ The European Women's Lobby (EWL) is the largest umbrella organisation of women's associations in the EU with member organisations in all 27 Member States of the EU and in three candidate countries (see also (http://www.womenlobby.org/site/1Template1.asp?DocID=1&v1ID=&RevID=&namePage=&pageParent=&DocID_sousmenu=)).

⁽⁶⁰³⁾ The Helsinki European Council of December 1999 granted the status of candidate country to Turkey. Accession negotiations were opened in October 2005.

services and accessibility is highly differentiated, especially where no national standards are defined.

Service providers are very important actors in the implementation of prevention and support measures. The judiciary system (courts, police departments, etc.), healthcare services (especially emergency wards and family doctors), schools and social services are directly involved in the provision of services for victims and in supporting the prosecution of abusers.

Civil society, and particularly women's organisations and NGOs, has played and still plays a relevant role in all countries in launching awareness-raising campaigns, in directly providing support to victims, in supporting legal reform and in forcing the issue up on the political agenda, as well as monitoring the implementation of policies addressing violence against women.

In most countries, indeed, the issue of violence against women first entered the public agenda in the late 1980s due to vigorous campaigns by women's and feminist movements. These campaigns led to the transformation of the issue of violence against women, particularly domestic violence, including honour killings, into a matter of public debate, drawing response from international and national institutions.

In Austria the issue of domestic violence was brought into the public political agenda by the women's movements. After years of public debates and awareness-raising measures, the collective fight against domestic violence led to the Federal Act on Protection Against Domestic Violence, which came into force in May 1997⁽⁶⁰⁴⁾. In the meantime there have been several amendments to the laws concerned and in 2009 a comprehensive second violence protection law package was implemented⁽⁶⁰⁵⁾.

Another example is the women's movement in Turkey, which has been crucial not only in putting violence against women on the state agenda, but also in providing the state with feminist models of intervention and support, through women's counselling centres and shelters opened by women's organisations, sometimes in cooperation with municipalities. The reform of the Civil Code and the Penal Code in 2001 and 2004 respectively

is the result of vigorous nationwide campaigns carried out by the women's movement against the gender discriminatory spirit and for reforming the provisions of the old Civil Code and Penal Code⁽⁶⁰⁶⁾.

In all the countries considered, NGOs are usually involved in the setting up and managing of shelters, hotlines and services to support victims and in lobbying for legislation and intervention. In some countries (Cyprus, the Czech Republic, Latvia) NGOs are indeed the only providers of support services⁽⁶⁰⁷⁾.

Due to their long-standing experience, NGOs and women's institutions, besides directly running most of the support services provided for women victims of violence, are in many countries also involved in consultation processes during the drafting of legislation and action plans. However, according to the European Women's Lobby⁽⁶⁰⁸⁾, only in Belgium, Croatia, Denmark, Estonia, France, Germany, Ireland⁽⁶⁰⁹⁾ and Lithuania, is their involvement in the consultation process formalised⁽⁶¹⁰⁾. In other countries there is either a partial consultation process or a lack of formal consultation procedures and discontinuity in the involvement of NGOs and women's institutions.

The shortcomings of not involving all the relevant institutional bodies and actors in the design of strategies to combat violence against women is described in the case of Cyprus, where the drafting of the NAP for 'the coordination of actions on combating trafficking in human beings and sexual exploitation of children', did not involve the Ministry of Health and the Labour Department. This resulted in the lack of employment integration and health policies, measures or strategies, in the plan⁽⁶¹¹⁾.

⁽⁶⁰⁴⁾ Federal Ministry of the Interior, The Austrian Act on the Protection against Domestic Violence (http://www.weisser-ring.at/GeSCHG2002_eng.pdf).

⁽⁶⁰⁵⁾ Initiated by the Women's Minister Johanna Dohnal and in close cooperation with Caspar Einem, then Minister of the Interior, an interministerial working group was convoked, composed of the staff of women's shelters, police officers, judges and lawyers and resulting in the Federal Act on Protection Against Domestic Violence (Federal Chancellery — Federal Minister for Women and Civil Service 2008, 12ff).

⁽⁶⁰⁶⁾ For a detailed account of the campaign carried out by the women's movement for the reform of the Turkish Civil Code and Turkish Penal Code, as well as the old and new provisions of both codes, see Women for women's human rights — New ways (2005), Turkish Civil and Penal Code reforms from a gender perspective: the success of two nationwide campaigns, Istanbul (<http://www.wwhr.org/files/CivilandPenalCodeReforms.pdf>).

⁽⁶⁰⁷⁾ European Women's Lobby (2007), Reality check: when women's NGOs map policies and legislation on violence against women in Europe (http://epacvaw.org/IMG/pdf/Copy_of_NAP-final-feb07.pdf).

⁽⁶⁰⁸⁾ European Women's Lobby (2007), Reality check: when women's NGOs map policies and legislation on violence against women in Europe (http://epacvaw.org/IMG/pdf/Copy_of_NAP-final-feb07.pdf).

⁽⁶⁰⁹⁾ Governance practice in Ireland is not necessarily 'best practice' but there are attempts to bring stakeholders together in regional committees and local action areas. The new 2010 national plan is not clear regarding commitment to continuing this regional and local governance process.

⁽⁶¹⁰⁾ i.e. representatives from NGOs are invited to participate in the preparation process.

⁽⁶¹¹⁾ European Women's Lobby (2007), Reality check: when women's NGOs map policies and legislation on violence against women in Europe (http://epacvaw.org/IMG/pdf/Copy_of_NAP-final-feb07.pdf).

Both the Council of Europe (2008) and EGGSI national reports indicate an increasing awareness and progress in developing broad and multi-agency policy

frameworks and partnerships both at the national and local level, in some cases individuating a coordinating body for implementation and monitoring.

Box 2.20 — Examples of partnerships within countries

In **Austria**, to ensure the effective implementation of the Protection Against Violence Bill introduced in 1997, training for almost all police officers as well as for family courts, was provided. Women's NGOs established intervention centres in each of the nine Austrian provinces in order to make sure that all victims of violence receive support. These are financed by the government. These centres provide support to the victims and their children in all matters concerning their protection and the securing of their rights, in civil as well as in criminal lawsuits. The intervention centres follow a proactive approach: the victim is called by the social workers of the Centre, who explain what the eviction order means, what rights she has, and where she can get support.

In **Cyprus** a multi-disciplinary group was recently created, coordinated by the Minister of the Interior and composed by all relevant authorities such as the Ministry of Justice, the police, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the Welfare Department, the Ministry of Labour and Social Security and two NGOs. The aim of this group is to review, monitor and evaluate the national action plan, monitor and evaluate the national referral system, and collect and exchange information and data among the members of the coordinating group in relation to offences provided in the law and protection of victims. Further, it aims to draft educational material and manuals on good practices that should be followed by all services as well as advancing suggestions and proposals on amending the current law, the organisation of seminars, training and awareness-raising activities.

In the **Czech Republic** the NGO ROSA, an organisation offering shelter, counselling and helplines, has used its experience to draw up a 'Manual for effective interdisciplinary collaboration in cases of domestic violence'⁽⁶¹²⁾ to enhance cooperation among the various different stakeholders

In **Finland**, the Parliamentary Council for Equality has representatives from political parties as well as expert members: it has been one of the most active actors at the national level in initiating policy reforms. Recently collaboration with municipalities and provinces has also been strengthened. More than half of municipalities compiled a local prevention plan, appointed a contact person and a multi-professional working group, and created practices to help the victims and perpetrators of violence. There is still, however, a considerable lack of professional know-how in early intervention in violence against women at the local level⁽⁶¹³⁾. In the recommendation for local actors in social and healthcare (of 2008), the Ministry of Social Affairs and Health and the Association of Finnish Local and Regional Authorities provided guidelines for organising services for improved prevention of violence⁽⁶¹⁴⁾. No criteria for quality of services were, however, specified⁽⁶¹⁵⁾, so that access to services and the quality of services provided varies according to place of residence: there are only a few shelters in eastern and northern Finland. There is a lack of national guidelines for shelters, and licences are granted with no uniform set of norms⁽⁶¹⁶⁾. To overcome these problems, in 2008 the main responsibility for coordinating actions to prevent violence in close relationships and families was given to Stakes (National Research and Development Centre for Welfare and Health under the Ministry of Social Affairs and Health) which was merged with the National Public Health Institute in 2009 to become the National Institute for Health and Welfare (THL). A cross-administrative group of civil servants from four different ministries was appointed for the period 2008–11 by the Ministry of Social Affairs and Health to concentrate on these questions. Non-governmental women's organisations and human rights organisations have been active participants in designing and implementing policies related to violence.

⁽⁶¹²⁾ Original name of the project in Czech: Manuál pro efektivní interdisciplinární spolupráci v případech domácího násilí (<http://www.rosa-os.cz/o-nas/publikace/>).

⁽⁶¹³⁾ Riski, Taina (2009), Naisiin kohdistuva väkivalta ja tasa-arvopoliittikka. Sosiaali- ja terveysministeriön selvityksiä 2009:50, Helsinki (http://www.stm.fi/c/document_library/get_file?folderId=1082856&name=DLFE-10918.pdf).

⁽⁶¹⁴⁾ STM (2008), Tunnista, turvaa ja toimi. Lähisuhde- ja perheväkivallan ehkäisyyn suositukset sosiaali- ja terveystoimelle paikallisen ja alueellisen toiminnan ohjaamiseen ja johtamiseen. Sosiaali- ja terveysministeriön julkaisuja 2008:9, Helsinki (http://www.stm.fi/c/document_library/get_file?folderId=28707&name=DLFE-3513.pdf).

⁽⁶¹⁵⁾ Riski, Taina (2009), Naisiin kohdistuva väkivalta ja tasa-arvopoliittikka. Sosiaali- ja terveysministeriön selvityksiä 2009:50, Helsinki (http://www.stm.fi/c/document_library/get_file?folderId=1082856&name=DLFE-10918.pdf).

⁽⁶¹⁶⁾ Laine, Terhi (2010), Lähisuhde- ja perheväkivallan uhreille tarjottavat turvakotipalvelut. Selvityshenkilöraportti, Sosiaali- ja terveysministeriön selvityksiä 2010:1, Helsinki (http://www.stm.fi/c/document_library/get_file?folderId=1082856&name=DLFE-10958.pdf).

against women. The organisations have been represented in state committees and working groups preparing policies, and they have organised various projects to prevent violence against women, for example through awareness-raising campaigns and training social and healthcare professionals⁽⁶¹⁷⁾. For example, several NGOs joined forces in the 'Home peace' campaign⁽⁶¹⁸⁾ in 2008 to increase knowledge, change attitudes and strengthen opposition against violence.

Denmark represents an interesting case for the involvement of the Danish Confederation of Trade Unions, which is the largest national trade union confederation in Denmark, and Dannerhuset, the largest crisis centre in Denmark, in a campaign against violence against women. The two organisations have illustrated and provided information about how the employer and colleagues can assist women who are abused⁽⁶¹⁹⁾.

In **Germany**, the federal government has developed a comprehensive concept for all governmental and non-governmental agencies in drafting programmes of action to combat violence against women. In order to effectively combat trafficking in women for the purpose of sexual exploitation, the federal government convened a federal/Länder working group (Bund-Länder-Arbeitsgruppe, B-L-AG) in 1997. All of the responsible federal ministries, the Länder, the federal criminal office and a number of specialised counselling institutions are represented in this working group. The goals of the B-L-AG are to create a strong focus on the women in question as victims, and to find more effective measures to combat trafficking in women. In 2000, a joint working group was established at the federal/Länder level to consider questions of 'domestic violence'; it was based on the model of the similar Working Group on Trafficking in Women established in 1997. Members of this working group are recruited from the federal ministries, conferences of Länder ministries responsible for such questions and from non-governmental organisations. The measures called for by the programmes of actions have, in the meantime, been implemented. In 2007, the Ministry of Family, Senior, Women and Youth published a 15-page paper⁽⁶²⁰⁾ which provides information on the state of the joint Working Group on Trafficking in Women and replaces the former recommendations from 1999. The working group aims at combating trafficking in women by raising awareness of this issue among the various different actors at the different levels (police, counselling centres, etc.). In order to bring culprits to court, victims of human trafficking who give evidence against involved persons are to be included into a programme which protects victims.

In the **Netherlands**, in 2009 an alliance of 10 organisations set up the programme 'Partnership approach to sexual violence' to improve the prevention of violence against women and the approach to sexual violence through a closer collaboration of national organisations working in the field. Activities aim at a more effective exchange of knowledge and better mutual use of expertise. More in practice the activities include: the creation of front offices for reporting sexual violence; training for professionals concerning 'signalling and treatment of sexual violence'; the development and introduction of empowerment programmes for schools; in all relevant professional training curricula; and integration of sexual violence in the report protocol (meldcode) on violence in dependence situations. These activities at national level intend to create favourable conditions and support better cooperation at local level.

In **Sweden** the integrated domestic violence programme in Malmö was developed in 1997 jointly by Malmö City Council, Malmö Police District, Malmö University General Hospital, the Prison and Probation Service, the Prosecution Service, Malmö Women's Shelter and other voluntary organisations. The programme has resulted in a number of initiatives: (1) the creation of crisis centres for women, for men and for children and youths; (2) the development of a special programme for the provision of medical treatment by the women's clinic at the University Clinic in connection with sexual assault and the opening of a specialist clinic for honour-related violence; (3) the prison and probation service has developed a programme to influence the behaviour of men convicted of violent crimes in the context of intimate relationships; (4) the police have created a special domestic violence division and the prosecution service has established special domestic violence prosecutors to encourage more women to report violence to the police and increase the likelihood that the perpetrators will be convicted; (5) a joint professional handbook has been formulated by the agencies involved in the programme.

⁽⁶¹⁷⁾ Riski, Taina (2009), Naisiin kohdistuva väkivalta ja tasa-arvopoliittikka. Sosiaali- ja terveysministeriön selvityksiä 2009:50, Helsinki (http://www.stm.fi/c/document_library/get_file?folderId=1082856&name=DLFE-10918.pdf).

⁽⁶¹⁸⁾ <http://www.kotirauha.fi>

⁽⁶¹⁹⁾ LOLI (2010), Sexchikane og vold mod kvinder (http://www.loli.dk/fagpolitisk_arkiv/sexchikane.aspx).

⁽⁶²⁰⁾ Bundesministerium für Familie, Senioren, Frauen und Jugend (2007), Bund-Länder-Arbeitsgruppe Frauenhandel, Kooperationskonzept für die Zusammenarbeit von Fachberatungsstellen und Polizei für den Schutz von Opferzeugen/innen von Menschenhandel zum Zweck der sexuellen Ausbeutung. (<http://www.bmfsfj.de/RedaktionBMFSFJ/Abteilung4/Pdf-Anlagen/gewalt-kooperationskonzept,property=pdf,bereich=rwb=true.pdf>).

In the **UK and Wales**, multi-agency risk assessment conferences (MARACs) provide an improved response to high-risk victims of domestic violence, through multi-agency data sharing and coordinated service provision. Initial evaluation and research indicates that this coordinated response is effective in reducing re-victimisation, improving the safety of staff working with perpetrators and improving information sharing ⁽⁶²¹⁾.

Source: EGGSI network national reports, 2010.

⁽⁶²¹⁾ WHO (2009), Violence prevention: the evidence: overview, Geneva (http://www.who.int/violence_injury_prevention/violence/4th_milestones_meeting/publications/en/index.html).

Interesting forms of international partnerships among European countries have been also implemented, often financed by European funds and programmes, such as the EQUAL initiative in the 2000–06 programme period and the Daphne programme (see also Box 2.6). Many

projects relate to awareness-raising measures and the fight against trafficking (see Box 2.21). These projects appear very important in supporting the diffusion of good practices and institutional learning, especially among southern and eastern European countries.

Box 2.21 — Examples of cross-country partnerships

In **Belgium** a training initiative was organised in Québec for professionals treating domestic violence, and common guidelines and exchange of practices were implemented.

In **Latvia** the project ‘Forum for the safety of women in Latvia’ (Forums par sievietes drošību Latvijā) was implemented by the Marta centre (NGO) to promote changes in policy and legal acts to reduce violence against women effectively. It was implemented with the financial support of the Embassy of the Kingdom of the Netherlands ⁽⁶²²⁾.

In **Turkey**, a project on ‘The role of religious officials in the prevention of violence against women and applicable procedures training’ is to be implemented by the Directorate-General on the Status of Women with the technical and financial support of the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) as part of the fourth country programme co-run by the Directorate-General on the Status of Women and UNFPA. The project aims to train all religious officials in Ankara on the topics of: gender equality, how traditional beliefs hinder the achievement of gender equality, violence against women and domestic violence, methods of approaching victims of violence, and information on the relevant legislation ⁽⁶²³⁾.

In **Ireland**, the ‘Dignity’ project involved a transnational partnership (Irish Immigrant Council and Dublin Employment Pact (NGOs), Health Service Executive, Garda, Sonas, Daphne, Department of Justice, international partners Glasgow Community and Safety Services, and Madrid Agencia para el Empleo) to develop quality integration services to victims of sex trafficking ⁽⁶²⁴⁾.

In **Italy**, the MUVI project ‘Developing strategies to work with men using violence in intimate relationship’ was financed by the Daphne II 2004–08 programme and involved the municipalities of Bologna (Italy), Barcelona (Spain) and Athens (Greece). The aim of the project was to raise awareness among the public and among social workers on men’s violent behaviour against women in intimate relationships, organising training sessions carried out by Norwegian experts in the treatment of violent men. A publication is available which presents the results of the project and of the interventions of the Norwegian training experts. The publication also includes an evaluation on the project development and a reflection on the interventions ⁽⁶²⁵⁾.

In **Spain** the campaign ‘Entre un hombre y una mujer, maltrato ZERO’ (‘Between a man and a woman, abuse zero’) has been implemented in cooperation with the Ibero-American General Secretary and financed by the Spanish Agency for International Cooperation and Development and the Ministry of Equality of Spain. A website for Latin American countries has been set up and has been visited by almost 100 000 people, including people from countries where the campaign had yet to be launched ⁽⁶²⁶⁾.

Source: EGGSI network national reports, 2010.

⁽⁶²²⁾ <http://www.marta.lv>

⁽⁶²³⁾ Turkey (21 January 2010), Responses to the list of issues and questions with regard to the sixth periodic report. Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women, pre-session working group, 46th session. Advance unedited version, pp. 31–32 (<http://www2.ohchr.org/english/bodies/cedaw/docs/AdvanceVersions/CEDAW-C-TUR-Q-6-Add1.pdf>).

⁽⁶²⁴⁾ <http://www.dublinpact.ie/dignity>

⁽⁶²⁵⁾ <http://www.muviproject.eu>

⁽⁶²⁶⁾ <http://www.maltratozero.com>

2.5. Resource allocation

There is very limited information on the resources allocated to policies directly addressing violence against women.

Where dedicated NAPs and gender equality institutions are present, more resources have been earmarked for measures addressing violence against women, although there is often no indication in the plans of resources allocated by the different entities, or the financing is fragmented among different governmental bodies, and it is not easy to draw any conclusion about the level of financing.

Even in those countries where dedicated NAPs do exist, the amount of resources earmarked for tackling gender-related violence is still limited. This reduces the continuity and effectiveness of interventions and, in particular, results in insecure funding for services supporting the victims. In recent years the cuts in social spending have also affected measures addressing violence against women.

According to the Council of Europe (2008) NGOs in most countries (26 out of the 30 countries considered⁽⁶²⁷⁾) are subsidised with public resources, but only to a limited extent and usually have to rely on project financing, private donations and fundraising. In some countries (as in Estonia and Finland), activities are

funded with revenues from gambling, and slot machines in the case of Finland⁽⁶²⁸⁾.

According to the 2008 Council of Europe *Report on the implementation of Rec(2002)5*⁽⁶²⁹⁾, in 26 of the 30 countries here considered⁽⁶³⁰⁾ there is funding for governmental activities at the national level and at the regional (in 12 countries) and/or local (in 16 countries) levels, while funding for NGO activities are available in 26 European countries of the 30 countries considered⁽⁶³¹⁾ at national level, in 15 at regional level and in 22 at local level. However, only 11 countries (Cyprus, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Romania, Spain, Sweden) indicate the amount of funding for governmental activities, which ranges from EUR 50 000 per year in Cyprus to EUR 212 million per year in Spain. According to the monitoring of the Council of Europe and to the EGGSI experts, Austria, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Lithuania, the Netherlands, Romania and Spain show an increase in the budget allocated to measures addressing violence against women in recent years⁽⁶³²⁾.

Especially in southern and eastern European countries, EU funds and initiatives (such as the Daphne programme) are an important source of financial support for the women's NGOs working in the field of violence against women (see Box 2.22) and for awareness-raising and financing of projects targeted at the prevention and support of women victims of violence.

⁽⁶²⁷⁾ No funding is provided at national level in Finland (but funding is provided at regional level), Italy and Turkey. Council of Europe (2008), Protecting women against violence. Analytical study of the results of the second round of monitoring the implementation of Recommendation Rec (2002) 5 on the protection of women against violence in Council of Europe member states. Strasbourg. http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/domesticviolencecampaign/Source/CDEG%20%282008%29%20rev_en.pdf

⁽⁶²⁸⁾ For instance, some temporary projects in Finland have mainly been funded by RAY (Finland's Slot Machine Association), which raises funds through gaming operations to support Finnish health and welfare organisations. The work of non-governmental organisations has not produced synergy because the NGOs compete against each other to get funding from the RAY. See Riski, Taina (2009), Naisiin kohdistuva väkivalta ja tasa-arvopolitiikka. Sosiaali- ja terveysministeriön selvityksiä 2009:50, Helsinki (http://www.stm.fi/c/document_library/get_file?folderId=1082856&name=DLFE-10918.pdf).

⁽⁶²⁹⁾ Council of Europe (2008), Protecting women against violence. Analytical study of the results of the second round of monitoring the implementation of Recommendation Rec(2002)5 on the protection of women against violence in Council of Europe member states, Strasbourg (http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/domesticviolencecampaign/Source/CDEG%20%282008%29%20rev_en.pdf).

⁽⁶³⁰⁾ No information is provided for the Czech Republic, Greece and Poland. Council of Europe (2008).

⁽⁶³¹⁾ No funding at national level is available in Finland, Italy and Turkey, while no information is provided for Bulgaria and Cyprus.

⁽⁶³²⁾ The monitoring report of the Council of Europe (2008) includes information covering the period October 2007 to February 2008.

Box 2.22 — Examples of resource allocations

In **Austria** special national funds are assigned to combat violence against women. Besides financing intervention centres, women's helplines and women's shelters, the main task of official policy is to launch awareness campaigns, often in cooperation with women's NGOs, to sensitise the public to violence against women. In 2007 and 2008, the Federal Minister for Women, Media and Civil Service together with the Federal Minister of the Interior increased the funding of the intervention centres from EUR 3.37 million in 2006 to EUR 5.46 million (+ 62 %) in 2007, and further to EUR 5.63 million in 2008. Moreover, the funding for psycho-social and legal court accompaniment has been increased with the aim of providing victims of violence with advice and support during criminal proceedings. During the most recent funding period, the Federal Ministry of Justice granted court accompaniment to 2 606 victims and paid out some EUR 3 million in funding to 47 victim support agencies. In 2008 this amount was raised to EUR 4.5 million whereby the budgetary funding for victim assistance has been doubled⁽⁶³³⁾. However, as victim protection organisations complain, due to the increase in victim support also in civil proceedings together with spending cuts by one third in 2009, financing for the legally granted right to court accompaniment is not sufficient to cover demand⁽⁶³⁴⁾.

In the **Czech Republic**, although some NGO services are financially supported by state funding, there are no specific funds allocated at the national, regional or local governmental level, and most activities are funded through project financing. This puts the continuity of services provided at risk and makes long-term activities almost impossible. Further, only associations which are registered at the Ministry of Social Affairs are entitled to apply for state funding.

In **Denmark**, according to the Council of Europe, EUR 15 million is yearly invested for governmental actions⁽⁶³⁵⁾. A sum of EUR 8.2 million was allocated for the national action plan to combat men's domestic violence against women and children in the period 2005–08. The Ministry of Gender Equality managed the funds allocated and various initiatives received support under the NAP; a sum of EUR 1.2 million was earmarked for a three-year project to develop methods regarding physically disabled women staying at shelters (2005–07). Eight shelters (nationwide) participated in the project. Also DKK 5.8 million (EUR 800 000) was provided for the treatment of violent men in the project 'Dialogue against violence'⁽⁶³⁶⁾. Another EUR 6.6 million have been allocated for a project entitled 'Support and treatment aimed at women and children victims of domestic violence', as well as a total of EUR 2 million for the years 2007–10 to enhance treatment for violent men. The Ministry also manages the fund for the national action plan to combat trafficking in women (2007–11) (EUR 11 million). The Ministry of Refugee, Immigration and Integration Affairs finances the full costs of operating three regional helplines, an amount of EUR 335 000 annually. The 45 crisis centres which offer shelter to battered women and their children are co-funded by the state: in 2006, public funding made up EUR 10.6 million⁽⁶³⁷⁾. Funds are primarily allocated by the municipal governments, which receive 50 % state refund. The funding does not cover all costs. There is often a user fee and private foundations also contribute to the financing⁽⁶³⁸⁾. For the period 2009–12, a sum of EUR 4.8 million has been provided for in the national strategy to combat violence in intimate relationships (2009–12) in order to continue the targeted effort against domestic violence⁽⁶³⁹⁾.

⁽⁶³³⁾ Austrian final report on the Council of Europe campaign (<http://www.bka.gv.at/DocView.axd?CoblId=31757>).

⁽⁶³⁴⁾ <http://derstandard.at/1267132253987/Prozessbegleitung-Salzburg-Kein-Geld-fuer-missbrauchte-Kinder>

⁽⁶³⁵⁾ Council of Europe (2008), Protecting women against violence. Analytical study of the results of the second round of monitoring the implementation of Recommendation Rec (2002) 5 on the protection of women against violence in Council of Europe member states. Strasbourg. http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/domesticviolencecampaign/Source/CDEG%20%282008%29%20rev_en.pdf

⁽⁶³⁶⁾ <http://www.dialogmodvold.dk/>

⁽⁶³⁷⁾ Helweg-Larsen, K. and Frederiksen, M. L. (2007), Mænds vold mod kvinder. Omfang, karakter og indsats mod vold — 2007. Udgivet i et samarbejde mellem Statens Institut for Folkesundhed, Syddansk Universitet og.

⁽⁶³⁸⁾ WAVE (2008), Country report 2008 — Reality check on European services for women and children victims of violence. A right for protection and support?, WAVE Coordination Office/Austrian Women's Shelter Network, Vienna (http://www.wave-network.org/images/doku/wave_country_report_2008.pdf).

⁽⁶³⁹⁾ Ministry of Gender Equality, 2009.

In **Finland**, women's organisation have criticised the government for years for not providing sufficient resources for implementing the policies on violence against women. Prevention of violence has mainly been carried through in temporary projects with scant resources, mainly resulting from Finland's Slot Machine Association which raises funds through gaming operations to support Finnish health and welfare organisations⁽⁶⁴⁰⁾.

In the **Netherlands**, the Ministry of Justice has a yearly budget of EUR 2 million to combat domestic violence. The Ministry of Health, Welfare and Sport has a basic budget for the financing of women's relief and shelter centres in the 35 central municipalities. For 25 out of these 35 municipalities, the budget is decentralised in the framework of a more general decentralisation operation, which makes it difficult to identify the exact total budget for specific measures in the framework of domestic violence. The allocation of the budgets to the 35 centre municipalities is to a great extent historically determined, i.e. on the basis of the sum of the budgets that were formerly given directly to local women relief and shelter institutions; and a smaller part is distributed according to specific criteria. In the Ministry's 2008 and 2009 budgets, sums of respectively EUR 70 838 953 and EUR 86 194, 10 are specified for women's relief and shelter centres, advice and support centres, crisis intervention, shelters for outplaced children and support measures after eviction orders. To enhance relief and assistance in situations of violence, a sum of EUR 55 million was available until 2007. In the policy memorandum *Beschermd en Weerbaar* ('Protected and empowered') an extra yearly budget is announced: almost EUR 18 million in 2008, increasing to EUR 32 million from 2012 onwards⁽⁶⁴¹⁾.

In **Slovakia** the NAP for prevention and elimination of VAW (2009–12) is planned to be financed mainly through the national programme 'The systematic support of prevention and elimination of VAW' with EUR 2.19 million, as part of the operational employment and social inclusion programme. Other funding channels are the subvention system of the Ministry of Labour, Social Affairs and Family which supported projects dealing with VAW or related issues (domestic violence, people suffering from violence in general). In 2006, three projects for the sum of EUR 12 000 were supported and a year later four projects for EUR 28 000⁽⁶⁴²⁾. Further analyses of the subvention system showed that the sum for VAW and related issues was much higher in recent years. Approximately EUR 277 000 in 2008⁽⁶⁴³⁾ and EUR 292 000 in 2009⁽⁶⁴⁴⁾ were spent on the various projects in this area. Many of them focused on prevention activities or simply running the crises centres or hotlines.

Source: EGGSI network national reports, 2010.

⁽⁶⁴⁰⁾ Riski, Taina (2009), *Naisiin kohdistuva väkivalta ja tasa-arvopoliittikka*. Sosiaali- ja terveystieteiden tutkimuskeskus 2009:50, Helsinki (http://www.stm.fi/c/document_library/get_file?folderId=1082856&name=DLFE-10918.pdf).

⁽⁶⁴¹⁾ Ministerie van Volksgezondheid, Welzijn en Sport (2007), *Beschermd en weerbaar: Intensivering van de opvang en hulp bij geweld in afhankelijkheidsrelaties* [Protection and empowerment: Strengthening the care and help in violent relationships]. Brief van 10 december 2007, Den Haag.

⁽⁶⁴²⁾ Report on the implementation of the NAP for prevention and elimination of VAW in 2005–08 (available at ([http://www.rokovania.sk/appl/material.nsf/0/CC74C8F688936C68C12573360023FB1D/\\$FILE/vlastnymat.rtf](http://www.rokovania.sk/appl/material.nsf/0/CC74C8F688936C68C12573360023FB1D/$FILE/vlastnymat.rtf)).

⁽⁶⁴³⁾ <http://www.employment.gov.sk/index.php?SMC=1&id=14278>

⁽⁶⁴⁴⁾ <http://www.employment.gov.sk> (<http://www.employment.gov.sk/index.php?SMC=1&id=16374>).

2.6. Relevant prevention programmes

This section discusses the relevant prevention programmes and projects addressing women victims of violence promoted at the national, regional and local level, highlighting their main features and activities and the type of help provided.

Prevention programmes usually target the general population with the aim to reduce gender role stereotypes and tolerance of violence against women. In addition, specific programmes address those women who are more at risk of becoming victims of violence, providing information on the available services and encouraging them to

seek support and advice. In recent years counselling and treatment programmes for violent men and perpetrators are also increasingly being adopted, as well as awareness-raising and training programmes for the practitioners entering into contact with at-risk situations (judiciary and police system, healthcare operators, teachers, social service operators).

These programmes are usually promoted at the national level by the relevant ministries and carried out by NGOs.

Besides the general programmes promoting gender equality and measures to promote data collection and

the development of indicators on violence against women, the main measures adopted in the countries considered are:

- awareness-raising programmes (in the fields of healthcare, schools, workplaces, etc.) through information campaigns/public awareness-raising (television, posters, radio, Internet, etc.);
- professional training and education (police, social workers, psychologists and therapists, nurses and midwives, judges, lawyers, physicians, school teachers, pre-school teachers, media professionals);
- treatment programmes for abusers.

According to the EGGSI national reports and the 2008 Council of Europe report ⁽⁶⁴⁵⁾, all the countries considered here promote information and awareness-raising campaigns and special training and education programmes for professionals in the police and judiciary system, the education system, and the healthcare and social service system. Twenty-five countries have promoted treatment programmes for violent men and perpetrators, and 22 have promoted dedicated studies, surveys and guidelines.

2.6.1. Awareness-raising programmes

Awareness-raising campaigns usually have three main aims:

- to signal clearly that violence against women is not tolerated;
- to increase public awareness of the dimension and costs of violence against women;

- to provide information on the services available.

Awareness-raising campaigns have been launched in all the European countries, usually by NGOs in cooperation with public institutions at the national and local levels. In many countries, specific campaigns have been promoted, also in foreign languages.

Most of the countries considered have participated in the UN international 'White ribbon' campaign. Its basic principle is the importance of men and boys to speak out against all forms of violence against women. The UN invited governments, international organisations and NGOs to organise activities designed to raise public awareness of the problem, to be carried out on 25 November, which is the date designated by the UN General Assembly as the International Day for the Eradication of Violence against Women ⁽⁶⁴⁶⁾.

In 2007 the Council of Europe launched the European wide campaign to combat violence against women, including domestic violence. ⁽⁶⁴⁷⁾ The campaign, carried out over two years, was supported by member states' governments, parliamentarians, local and regional authorities, NGOs and civil society in the countries here considered.

Besides the use of the mass media (especially television), conferences, workshops and sensitisation courses are being offered in schools, police centres, and healthcare centres.

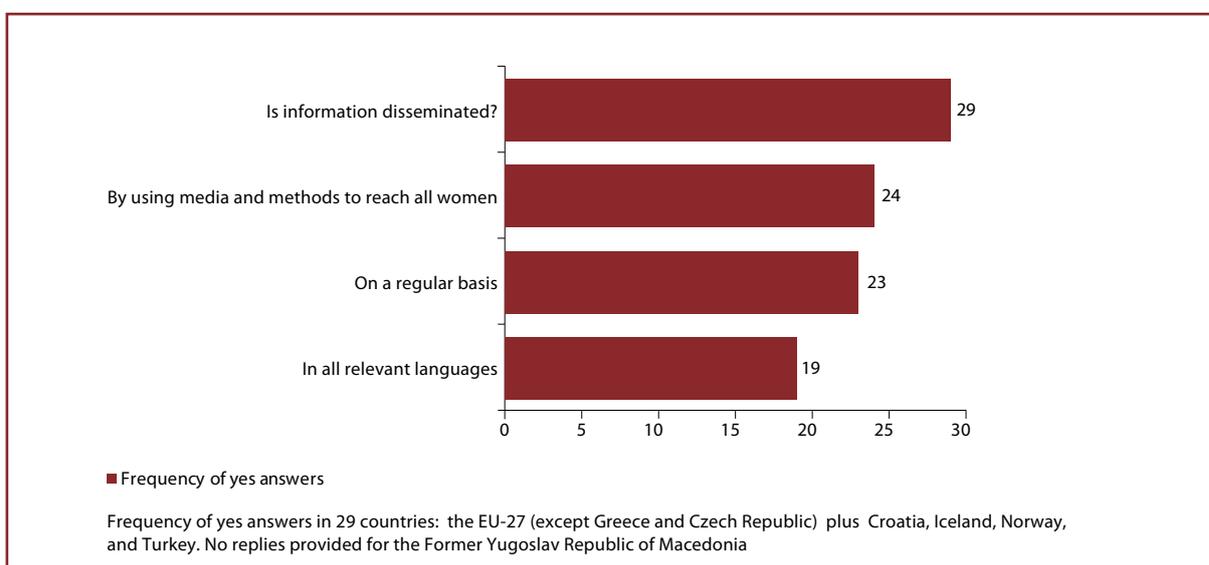
Figure 2.4 shows the number of countries providing dissemination of information on legal rights, legal and protection measures and services for victims according to the Council of Europe.

⁽⁶⁴⁵⁾ Council of Europe (2008), Protecting women against violence. Analytical study of the results of the second round of monitoring the implementation of Recommendation Rec(2002)5 on the protection of women against violence in Council of Europe member states, Strasbourg (http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/domesticviolencecampaign/Source/CDEG%20%282008%29%20rev_en.pdf).

⁽⁶⁴⁶⁾ UN Resolution 54/134.

⁽⁶⁴⁷⁾ www.coe.int/stopviolence/intergov

Figure 2.4 — Dissemination of information about women’s rights, legal and protection measures, services for victims



Source: Council of Europe (2008), Protecting women against violence. Analytical study of the results of the second round of monitoring the implementation of Recommendation Rec(2002)5 on the protection of women against violence in Council of Europe member states, Strasbourg (http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/domesticviolencecampaign/Source/CDEG%20%282008%29%20rev_en.pdf).

Prevention campaigns usually reach a large number of people, but few of them have been evaluated for their effectiveness in changing attitudes. Some interesting results come from the evaluation of the Danish campaign ‘Stop violence against women — break the silence’, which showed an increased public awareness of the phenomenon, in the sense that respondents considered that the topic was more on the public agenda⁽⁶⁴⁸⁾. Another indication was that women are more likely to define milder forms of violent acts as violence.

Examples of awareness-raising measures from the EGGSI national reports are presented in Annex 2.1. Twenty-nine of the 34 reported campaigns are carried out at the national level, usually by national institutions

and NGOs, and address trafficking and domestic violence. Most national campaigns are aimed at the general public, but some countries have implemented interesting awareness-raising campaigns actively involving men (as in Denmark, Hungary and Ireland), journalists (as in Hungary), children (as in Spain and Slovenia), footballers (as in Croatia, Austria, Lichtenstein and Turkey), the social partners (as in Cyprus) and teenagers (as in Cyprus, Denmark and Italy). The direct involvement of men and teenagers in awareness-raising campaigns is sought to induce peer effects and change deep-rooted stereotypes and behaviours.

Examples of innovative measures are presented in greater detail in Box 2.23.

⁽⁶⁴⁸⁾ Department for Gender Equality: Evaluation of the action plan (Ligestillingsafdelingen: Evaluering af handlingsplanen) (<http://www.lige.dk/files/pdf/vold/evalueringhandlingsplanvold.pdf>).

Box 2.23 — Good practices in awareness-raising campaigns

In **Denmark**, governmental initiatives have involved in particular ethnic minority men to spread the message that ‘Men say no to violence against women’⁽⁶⁴⁹⁾.

In **Estonia**, a successful programme is the special Christmas charity broadcast *Jõulutunnel* on national TV, which in 2009 was dedicated to domestic violence against women; it induced 29 000 people all over Estonia to donate EEK 1.5 million (EUR 95 847) for six women’s shelters. The daylong broadcast included informative interviews and discussions with specialists and analysis of the situation of women in Estonian families, raising one third of the total financial means needed for all women’s shelters.

In **Croatia** the most publicly visible campaign organised by the government was the ‘National campaign for the fight against family violence towards women’ which lasted from November 2006 to March 2008⁽⁶⁵⁰⁾. The campaign programme involved numerous activities which were to be carried out around key dates. Besides round tables, posters, TV or radio broadcasts, and the distribution of leaflets, the campaign included many publicly known male personalities, such as the presidents of the Republic and government, the presidents of the constitutional and high courts, and the president of the Croatian Football Federation. For example, during the football qualification game between Croatia and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia for the European Championship, all the Croatian players wore T-shirts with the campaign motto ‘There is no excuse for violence’.

In **Cyprus** the issue of female genital mutilation was brought to the fore for the first time very recently on the initiative of the Mediterranean Institute of Gender Studies (MIGS) within the framework of its partnership with Amnesty International Ireland in the implementation of the ‘End FGM’ European campaign⁽⁶⁵¹⁾. The campaign aims to put the fight against female genital mutilation on the EU agenda and to echo the voices of women and girls living with FGM and those at risk of it. Another interesting awareness-raising campaign involves teenagers in peer education: MIGS is implementing training workshops in three secondary schools in Nicosia on the issue of gender-based violence involving more than 50 teenagers in active discussion and experiential activities on this issue. Teenagers are also trained to train their peers on issues such as bullying, violence within adolescent romantic relationships and gender stereotypes. Moreover, through the workshops teenagers have the opportunity to contribute to an awareness-raising campaign by creating posters which include their own key messages addressing the issue of gender-based violence in adolescent relationships⁽⁶⁵²⁾.

In the **Czech Republic** the ‘Men against violence towards women’ campaign, organised by the League of Open Men, is an awareness-raising activity in which wearing a white ribbon symbolises opposition to violence against women and expresses a personal pledge never to commit, condone or tolerate violence against women and children.

In **Hungary** the Violet Ribbon Award (*Lila Szalag Díj*), launched in 2008, is accorded to the press every spring. The aim of the Ministry is to become acquainted with and evaluate the activity of media that contribute to the prevention of gender-based violence through balanced and authentic information. In this way they support the idea of zero tolerance, and try to avoid stereotypical thinking about violence. Editorial staff can also nominate their most committed journalist for the award. The violet ribbon symbolises the fight against gender-based violence and refers to its international day (25 November)⁽⁶⁵³⁾.

In **Italy**, three national campaigns have been run in the last few years: the national campaign against stalking; the national campaign against violence: ‘I say NO to violence’; and the national campaign against female genital mutilation⁽⁶⁵⁴⁾. The first publicised the new national law and the toll-free telephone number 1522 that links victims with police, providing psychological and legal support. The second campaign targeted young people of school age, teachers, parents and

⁽⁶⁴⁹⁾ Ligestillingsministeriet (2005), Handlingsplan til bekæmpelse af mænds vold mod kvinder og børn i familien 2005–08 København: Ligestillingsministeriet (<http://www.voldmodkvinder.dk/default.asp?id=85&Lcid=da&AjrNws=43&AjrNwsPg=1>).

⁽⁶⁵⁰⁾ Ministarstvo obitelji, branitelja i međugeneracijske solidarnosti [Ministry of Family, Veterans’ Affairs and Intergenerational Solidarity] (2006); Ministarstvo obitelji, branitelja i međugeneracijske solidarnosti [Ministry of Family, Veterans’ Affairs and Intergenerational Solidarity] (2009).

⁽⁶⁵¹⁾ Amnesty International, ‘End FGM’ European campaign (<http://www.endfgm.eu>).

⁽⁶⁵²⁾ Mediterranean Institute of Gender Studies (2009), Perspective: peer education roots for school pupils to enhance consciousness of tackling and impeding women violence in Europe (<http://www.medinstgenderstudies.org/news/perspective-peer-education-roots-for-school-pupils-to-enhance-consciousness-of-tackling-and-impeding-women-violence-in-europe/>).

⁽⁶⁵³⁾ <http://www.szmm.gov.hu>

⁽⁶⁵⁴⁾ <http://www.pariopportunita.gov.it>

university students. For this, the Ministry of Equal Opportunities promoted a one-week initiative within schools, including a contest among students for the realisation of a communication campaign on the issue 'I say NO to violence' for 2010. The third was on FGM. The Equal Opportunity Department supported activities and information campaigns at the local level with EUR 4 million. The FGM campaign 'Nessuno escluso' ('Nobody excluded') targeted immigrant parents, to prevent mutilation of their children⁽⁶⁵⁵⁾.

In **Ireland**, the NGO Ruhama — specialised in supporting activities for women affected by prostitution and other forms of commercial sexual exploitation — launched a new television advert highlighting the issue of trafficking in Ireland as well as a short film on the issue. The campaigns aimed at sensitising the general public on prostitution and human trafficking, focusing especially on men⁽⁶⁵⁶⁾.

In **Latvia**, information campaigns are implemented by the Marta Resource Centre for Women, which is, practically, the only NGO in Latvia working with women victims of violence as its target audience, and which has been working on projects to address this problem since 2006⁽⁶⁵⁷⁾. One of the areas of activities in the project named 'Support centre to women victims of domestic violence' is 'to direct the attention of the society and decision-makers to problems of domestic violence to promote systemic changes in the reduction of domestic violence in Latvia. Various public events (discussions, publications in mass media, etc.) were organised within the project 'Know your rights, stop violence' (*Zini savas tiesības, apturi vardarbību*) in 2009, to promote understanding of the issues related to domestic violence against women. Discussions with experts, representatives of NGOs, officials of local governments and public agencies were organised in cooperation with regional NGOs within the framework of the project 'Forum for the safety of women in Latvia' in five cities of Latvia; a round-table discussion is also organised with representatives of responsible ministries, the Ombudsman's Office, scholars of law and other specialists.

In **Spain**, the Women's Foundation (Fundación Mujeres)⁽⁶⁵⁸⁾ carried out a noteworthy initiative in 2006. It prepared a guide for the development of campaigns for the prevention of violence against women, aimed at institutions and advertising companies. The guide proposes guidelines and types of messages that reinforce and enhance the development made in the institutional campaigns, mostly focused on encouraging women to report the abuses⁽⁶⁵⁹⁾.

Source: EGGSI network national reports, 2010.

⁽⁶⁵⁵⁾ http://www.pariopportunita.gov.it/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=1452:contro-le-mutilazioni-genitali-femminili&catid=65:dossier&Itemid=177

⁽⁶⁵⁶⁾ <http://www.ruhama.ie/>

⁽⁶⁵⁷⁾ <http://www.marta.lv/vpage.php?lang=en&id=22&lapa=160>

⁽⁶⁵⁸⁾ Fundación Mujeres (<http://www.fundacionmujeres.es/>).

⁽⁶⁵⁹⁾ Fundación Mujeres.

From 2005 onwards, the campaign 'I am. On air against domestic violence' supported by Daphne was carried out in five countries (Italy, Germany, Portugal, Cyprus and Greece), to empower women victims of domestic violence to get help for themselves and their children. The campaign included various different activities to sensitise the general public⁽⁶⁶⁰⁾.

Another information campaign to be carried out in the framework of the Daphne III programme from January 2009 to December 2010 is the campaign 'Violence against women at work... let's talk about it', which aims to raise awareness and collect best

practices for preventing mental health problems resulting from violence and harassment against women at work⁽⁶⁶¹⁾.

2.6.2. Professional training and educational programmes

Special training programmes are carried out in all countries for workers operating in those services which may act as gateways for the identification of (potential) victims of violence and provide access to the network of services available to victims.

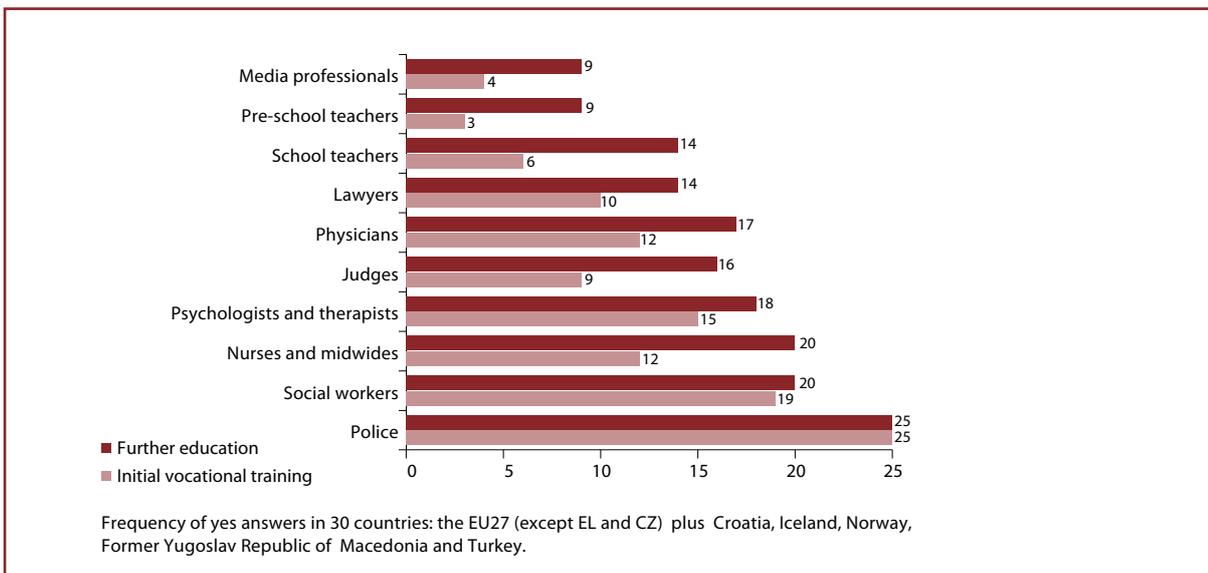
⁽⁶⁶⁰⁾ http://ec.europa.eu/justice_home/daphnetoolkit/html/projects/dpt_2005_1_309_w_en.html

⁽⁶⁶¹⁾ <http://www.mhe-sme.org/en/our-projects/current-projects/daphne-phase-III.html>

As shown in Figure 2.5, based on data from the 2008 Council of Europe monitoring report ⁽⁶⁶²⁾, almost all the countries considered have implemented specific (initial or further) training programmes for the police. However, only few programmes (Croatia, Lithuania, Sweden, Turkey) targeted media professionals. These training programmes are particularly relevant in

changing the attitudes of professionals and improving the treatment of victims of violence, as well as sensitising public opinion (the media). According to these data, there seems to be a shift of emphasis towards further education, probably with the ‘aim of ensuring that new protocols, procedures and practices are actually implemented’ ⁽⁶⁶³⁾.

Figure 2.5 — Initial and further training on violence against women



Source: Council of Europe (2008), *Protecting women against violence. Analytical study of the results of the second round of monitoring the implementation of Recommendation Rec(2002)5 on the protection of women against violence in Council of Europe member states*, Strasbourg (http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/domesticviolencecampaign/Source/CDEG%20%282008%29%20rev_en.pdf).

⁽⁶⁶²⁾ Council of Europe (2008), *Protecting women against violence. Analytical study of the results of the second round of monitoring the implementation of Recommendation Rec(2002)5 on the protection of women against violence in Council of Europe member states*, Strasbourg (http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/domesticviolencecampaign/Source/CDEG%20%282008%29%20rev_en.pdf).

⁽⁶⁶³⁾ Council of Europe (2008), *Protecting women against violence. Analytical study of the results of the second round of monitoring the implementation of Recommendation Rec(2002)5 on the protection of women against violence in Council of Europe member states*, Strasbourg (http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/domesticviolencecampaign/Source/CDEG%20%282008%29%20rev_en.pdf).

The police have been involved in further education activities on violence against women in almost all the countries considered, except for Iceland, Italy, Luxembourg and Turkey, where only initial training initiatives, but no further training initiatives, have been carried out. In Hungary, Latvia, Romania, Slovenia and Sweden only further vocational training, but no initial vocational training activities, have been carried out⁽⁶⁶⁴⁾.

Healthcare and school workers can also play important roles in early detection and immediate treatment of forms of (domestic) violence, as women and girls who have experienced violence are more likely to turn to an emergency room or to general practitioners or teachers than to counselling centres, or a women's shelter or the police. Specialised training and awareness-raising programmes for healthcare workers (especially nurses and midwives) and psychologists are also fairly widespread (18–19 countries out of 30, for which information is available)⁽⁶⁶⁵⁾, while programmes aimed at pre-school teachers (eight) and at media professionals (nine) are less represented. In many countries, specialised training has been provided to general practitioners (GPs) and emergency room personnel in order to increase their awareness regarding the physical or mental complaints of women, victims of partner abuse or domestic violence.

While targeted training programmes have been implemented in some countries, many national reports underline the difficulty in involving judges and prosecutors in special awareness-raising and training programmes on violence against women. According to the 2008 Council of Europe report⁽⁶⁶⁶⁾, only the UK and Spain, with the introduction of specialised domestic violence courts, have been successful in providing training to these categories.

Annex 2.2 presents examples of training and education measures for the prevention of violence against women reported by the EGGSI national reports. Seven out of the 18 listed programmes involve teenagers and teachers in primary and secondary schools, four aim at healthcare professionals, and one at journalists. The others involve professionals of different public services and members of civil society.

Box 2.24 provides some details of the more innovative programmes in terms of the target population or their contents and effectiveness. According to evaluation studies⁽⁶⁶⁷⁾, programmes for young people that explicitly address abuse in intimate relationships are effective in changing attitudes. The involvement of other women, especially in the health sector, in schools and in local communities, also proves effective in reaching the (potential) victims who rarely refer to police or social services workers.

Box 2.24 — Examples of good practice in the implementation of education and training measures

In several provinces of **Austria** training programmes for the medical occupations have been held in recent years, and a guidebook compiled (15 000 copies distributed). In Vienna and Lower Austria a further training programme for medical occupations was adapted and a website on VAW as a public health issue was designed⁽⁶⁶⁸⁾. The aims of further training were: (1) enhancing awareness and knowledge; (2) recognition of types and patterns of violence and their severe — acute or long-term — health consequences; (3) influencing the support procedure and the prevention of further violence; (4) taking adequate intervention steps in everyday practice (e.g. handling crisis situations, communication skills, emergency planning, knowledge about the legal situation); (5) preparing documentation and firm evidence for court procedures (such as the preparation of a trace preservation kit to ensure uniform procedures in the preservation of evidence in the case of rape and sexual abuse); (6) making use of and improving cooperation with internal services (e.g. groups for the protection of children), external organisations (healthcare institutions, women's shelters, the police, (abuse) intervention centres, counselling centres for women, and welfare offices, etc.) and established physicians. The target groups were hospital departments and outpatient

⁽⁶⁶⁸⁾ <http://www.gewaltgegenfrauen.at>

⁽⁶⁶⁴⁾ Council of Europe (2008), Protecting women against violence. Analytical study of the results of the second round of monitoring the implementation of Recommendation Rec(2002)5 on the protection of women against violence in Council of Europe member states, Strasbourg (http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/domesticviolencecampaign/Source/CDEG%20%282008%29%20rev_en.pdf).

⁽⁶⁶⁵⁾ No information available for Greece, the Czech Republic, and Croatia. See also Figure 2.5.

cal study of the results of the second round of monitoring the implementation of Recommendation Rec(2002)5 on the protection of women against violence in Council of Europe member states, Strasbourg (http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/domesticviolencecampaign/Source/CDEG%20%282008%29%20rev_en.pdf).

⁽⁶⁶⁷⁾ WHO (2002), World report on violence and health, edited by Etienne G. Krug, Linda L. Dahlberg, James A. Mercy, Anthony B. Zwi and Rafael Lozano (http://whqlibdoc.who.int/publications/2002/9241545615_eng.pdf).

departments of surgery and trauma surgery as well as gynaecology/obstetrics. Interdisciplinary courses included (trauma) surgeons, gynaecologists and other medical specialists, socio-psychiatrists and established physicians or specialist nurses, midwives, psychologists and social workers as well as persons working in addiction counselling centres.

In **Estonia**, in 2004 the Women's Studies and Resource Centre (ENUT) conducted two one-day training sessions for journalists on the issues of prostitution and trafficking in women. Both training sessions were project-based and were financed by the Nordic Council of Ministers⁽⁶⁶⁹⁾.

In **Denmark** the project 'Youth and violence', initiated in 2004 by the Ministry of Gender Equality, includes preventive measures aimed at young people. One is the campaign against dating violence, which was part of the 2005–08 NAP and aims at making young people more aware of and preventing the violence that occurs in partnerships. Its activities include the publication of magazines and teaching materials.

Another activity set up the Minister for Gender Equality's Youth Panel on Dating Violence. This effort is a follow-up to the 2008 study of partner violence among young people which was launched in order to pave the way for preventive activities targeting young people⁽⁶⁷⁰⁾. The Youth Panel consists of eight classes from schools all over the country that have made a number of recommendations to the Minister on enhanced efforts to combat dating violence. The Youth Panel has proposed, among other things, a hotline for young people, songs by famous artists, information caravans to travel to the schools, good advice for friends of victims of violence, articles in the free newspapers, and calling cards with information on provisions by the state. Since then the website (<http://www.ditforhold.dk>) has been launched with information about the phenomenon, counselling, where to seek support, and music about the phenomenon by popular artists. The initiative has not been evaluated, but seems overall to focus on a problem which is widespread and has been increasing⁽⁶⁷¹⁾.

In **Finland**, to increase the awareness of municipalities on domestic violence, the Ministry of Social Affairs and Health prepared a handbook for municipalities on the prevention of partner and intimate violence (2005) as part of the prevention project (2004–07). The main objectives were to improve services for the prevention of partner and intimate violence and to strengthen professional help in prevention work. Activities included: local pilot projects for preventing violence; establishing multi-professional coordination groups; training and advice for professionals; peer groups for victims and perpetrators; local media communications; local brochures and guidelines; a national handbook; cooperation between state and local partners; and practical models for everyday situations with case examples applicable in the various field of work.

In **Italy**, the 'I say NO campaign' was based on a one-week initiative in schools and promoted a contest among students for the realisation of a communication campaign on the issue 'I say NO to violence' for 2010. Training campuses on non-violence were also held for university students⁽⁶⁷²⁾.

In **Malta**, the Ministry of Education launched a 'Personal and social development syllabus — 2009' to raise awareness of domestic violence among students in secondary schools between the ages of 14 and 16 years, when boy–girl relationships start, along with behavioural problems and potential low self-esteem⁽⁶⁷³⁾.

In the **Netherlands**, the Memosa project, carried out in several municipalities of Rotterdam, is a mentor project in which mothers with children are trained as mentors to support other young mothers with children who suffered partner abuse and live in isolated private situations. This target group is professionally accompanied by mentors for 16 weeks. In late 2006, health personnel working in this area were approached to participate in this programme (15 women and 10 men). The participants were trained to recognise and cope with cases of domestic violence (partner abuse). In this region collaboration between general practitioners and local supportive organisations for domestic violence has improved. Another outcome of the programme is the improved case-management of domestic violence by general practitioners. The 10 mentors participating were trained by two psychologists on the issue of domestic violence and partner abuse. Evaluation reports of the mentors indicated that they improved their social support network. Furthermore, in over 55 % of

⁽⁶⁶⁹⁾ Estonian Women's Studies and Resource Centre (ENUT)(<http://www.enut.ee>).

⁽⁶⁷⁰⁾ Schütt, N. M., Frederiksen, M. L. and Helweg-Larsen, K. (2008), Unge og kærestevold i Danmark. En landsdækkende undersøgelse af omfang, karakter og følger af vold blandt 16-24-årige Statens Institut for Folkesundhed, Syddansk Universitet Ministeriet for Ligestilling, København.

⁽⁶⁷¹⁾ Council of Europe (2008), Protecting women against violence. Analytical study of the results of the second round of monitoring the implementation of Recommendation Rec(2002)5 on the protection of women against violence in Council of Europe member states, Strasbourg (http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/domesticviolencecampaign/Source/CDEG%20%282008%29%20rev_en.pdf).

⁽⁶⁷²⁾ <http://www.pariopportunita.gov.it>

⁽⁶⁷³⁾ Ministry of Social Affairs and Labour (<http://www.szmm.gov.hu/main.php?folderID=21329&articleID=42032&ctag=articlelist&iid=1>).

the cases the mentors reported that their support in (domestic) education proved very positive and improved the family situation. In some cases the partner/father asked the mentor for supportive advice. Another interesting Dutch project has been developed in the district of Malburgen (city of Arnhem), where victims, witnesses and perpetrators of domestic violence can contact a 'confidant' within the neighbourhood. The 'confidants' are volunteers specially trained for the task.

In **Turkey**, the 'Stop violence against women' campaign ⁽⁶⁷⁴⁾, launched in 2004 and lasting until 2008, among the various awareness-raising activities undertaken involved religious leaders (*imams*) to deliver speeches before Friday prayers in mosques across Turkey on women's human rights and ending violence against women.

Source: EGGSI network national reports, 2010.

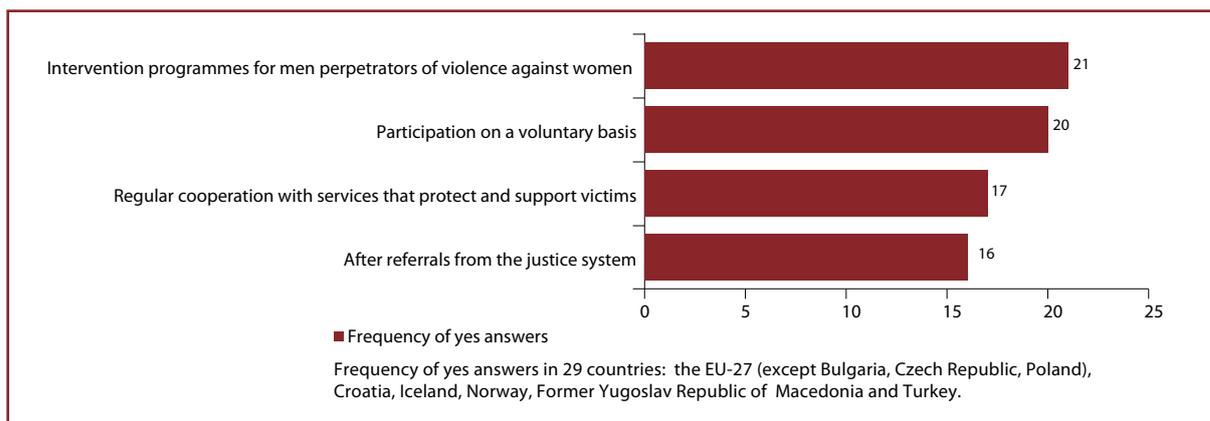
⁽⁶⁷⁴⁾ UNFPA Turkey, Advocating for gender and reproductive health issues (http://www.unfpa.org.tr/turkey/Turkey_Advocacy.htm), and Prime Ministry General Directorate on the Status of Women (May 2009), Status of women in Turkey, Ankara.

2.6.3. Treatment for abusers

In recent years increasing attention has been paid in many countries to measures treating violent men and abusers as a way to prevent further violence. As

shown in Figure 2.6 based on data from the Council of Europe's evaluation, such programmes are currently being carried out in 21 out of 31 countries for which information is available ⁽⁶⁷⁵⁾.

Figure 2.6 — Intervention programmes for men perpetrators



Source: Council of Europe (2008), Protecting women against violence. Analytical study of the results of the second round of monitoring the implementation of Recommendation Rec(2002)5 on the protection of women against violence in Council of Europe member states, Strasbourg ([http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/domesticviolencecampaign/Source/CDEG %20 %282008 %29 %20rev_en.pdf](http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/domesticviolencecampaign/Source/CDEG%20%282008%29%20rev_en.pdf)).

Men's counselling centres are increasingly widespread and are in most cases on a voluntary basis. In some countries, as in Austria, programmes focusing on the simultaneous treatment of perpetrators and support of victims have been carried out and are widely regarded as an effective practice to combat domestic violence against women and children.

Annex 2.3 presents examples of treatment programmes and projects reviewed in the EGGSI national reports. Most of these programmes provide

psychological counselling and rehabilitation services to encourage violent men to control their behaviour and anger. In Finland a project directly addresses immigrant men. Examples of good practice are presented in Box 2.25.

There is, however, no evaluation of the effectiveness of such measures, and some women's movements question the resources dedicated to these programmes, fearing a reduction in the already scarce resources available for women's shelters and support programmes.

⁽⁶⁷⁵⁾ Source: Council of Europe (2008). No information available for Bulgaria, the Czech Republic and Poland.

Box 2.25 — Examples of good practice in anti-violence treatment programmes for violent men

In **Austria**, the Vienna anti-violence training programme for violent men, in accordance with the first Violence Protection Act (1997), states that victims and perpetrators shall be integrated in an intervention system which includes the police, the intervention centres and the courts as well as the Youth and Family Offices, in cases where children are directly or indirectly affected by domestic violence. Work with violent men can be regarded as one element in this intervention system to prevent violence. The programme has been run since 1999 by the Vienna Intervention Centre Against Violence in the Family and the Men's Counselling Service Vienna, who provide counselling after conviction. The concrete objectives of the programme are changing the behaviour of the male perpetrator, and support and empowerment of the victim and their children⁽⁶⁷⁶⁾. Violent men come to the training either obligatorily or voluntarily. The Youth Office and the criminal justice authorities can oblige the violent partner to participate in the anti-violence programme within the framework of a suspended sentence with a probationary period and obligation to participate in the training, release from prison on probation, or by means of an out-of-court settlement for the offence (diversion programme) with a probationary period and liability to take part in the training. The cooperation between the Men's Counselling Service of Vienna, the Domestic Abuse Intervention Centre Vienna and the referring institutions is a good example of the advantages of coordinated programmes.

In **Croatia** a programme for the psychosocial treatment of family violence was carried out from 2003 to 2009 by the Society for Psychological Assistance with the support of courts, state attorney's offices and centres for social work. The programme provides for education for psychosocial treatment as well as psychosocial treatment of perpetrators of family violence. The activities include individual assessment through two to four meetings with perpetrators; a meeting with the victim; treatment through 16 weeks; ongoing monitoring, including contact with the victims; and final evaluation after 6 and 12 months⁽⁶⁷⁷⁾.

In **Estonia**, a voluntary rehabilitation and support group for perpetrators of domestic violence has been operating since 2005. It is financed by the Ministry of Justice and run by an NGO and provides rehabilitation services for violently behaving men who wanted to change their behaviour in order to improve their close relationships.

In **Finland**, programmes for male perpetrators of violence are also provided by non-profit organisations. The first programme was the Espoon Lyömätön Linja ('Unbeatable line in Espoo')⁽⁶⁷⁸⁾, which started in 1993 and operates under the NGO Naisten Apu Espoossa ('Help for women in Espoo'). Today, these NGOs operate the 'Stopping violence' programme for men who have been violent, and have also promoted work for immigrant men. The Federation of Mother and Child Homes and Shelters⁽⁶⁷⁹⁾ has been running the Jussi project⁽⁶⁸⁰⁾ for men in eight shelters since 1994. As part of the government's action plan for gender equality, a pilot project was started in the Mikkeli prison in 2003 to encourage prisoners to seek help to curb their violent behaviour. A model for motivating and referring potentially violent prisoners to treatment is currently being developed at the South-Eastern District Prison. Also the Lyömätön Linja developed a programme for group work against violence in the Helsinki prison in 2008. However, only a very small proportion of all perpetrators of violence against women ever get a prison sentence⁽⁶⁸¹⁾. The programme Miehen aika (Time for a man) has since 2005 targeted immigrant men and includes a telephone line, individual counselling, peer groups, as well as network meetings for professionals working with immigrant groups.

⁽⁶⁷⁶⁾ Kraus, H. and Logar, R. (2007), 'The Vienna anti-violence programme. A victim-oriented programme for perpetrators', presentation at Council of Europe campaign to combat violence against women, 9–10 May 2007, Zagreb (<http://www.maenner.at/images/doku/Das%20Wiener%20Anti-Gewalt-Programm%20English.pdf>).

⁽⁶⁷⁷⁾ Društvo za psihološku pomoć (Society for Psychological Assistance) (<http://www.dpp.hr/>).

⁽⁶⁷⁸⁾ <http://www.lyomatonlinja.fi>

⁽⁶⁷⁹⁾ <http://www.ensijaturvakotienliitto.fi>

⁽⁶⁸⁰⁾ <http://www.jussityo.fi>

⁽⁶⁸¹⁾ Riski, Taina (2009), Naisiin kohdistuva väkivalta ja tasa-arvopoliittikka. Sosiaali- ja terveystieteiden tutkimuskeskuksen selvityksiä 2009:50, Helsinki (http://www.stm.fi/c/document_library/get_file?folderId=1082856&name=DLFE-10918.pdf).

In **France**, the 2008–10 NAP on violence against women aims at reinforcing the prevention of repeated offence through a global programme to intervene with perpetrators of conjugal violence. To begin with, it plans an impact assessment of the violent spouse or partner (Law of 4 April 2006) evaluating how many injunctions have been decided, in what circumstances and what have been the consequences for victims and perpetrators. It also provides for a 'Charter of common principles in reception centres for men perpetrators of violence' to be elaborated to label member centres (60 centres are dedicated to the reception of men perpetrators in France) and to encourage networking and the mutualisation of experiences and skills. An information document for raising men perpetrators' awareness will be elaborated and distributed in gendarmeries, police stations, prison services and town halls, while accompaniment programmes for perpetrators will be developed through support groups, psychosocial accompaniment or therapeutic care.

In **Hungary** the 'Stop male violence' project engaged men in awareness-raising campaigns addressing men's violence, both in the private and public sphere. With the help of international funding, various different activities could be carried out: setting up a men's group, whose members engage in a self-critical revision of the male role; training sessions for professionals in the field of domestic violence; publication and dissemination of books and leaflets; occasional appearances at events and in the media. A gender film club has been set up, as well as the 'Stop male violence' information hotline.

In **Malta**, a perpetrators' programme (starting in 1999 and still ongoing) financed by a government agency aims to assist and rehabilitate violent or abusive men in their intimate relationships, to become aware of and take responsibility for their behaviour⁽⁶⁸²⁾. This is done through attendance of a group programme spanning 22 weeks. Prior to acceptance to the programme, perpetrators are individually assessed by a professional person as to their suitability for the group. It is hoped that through attendance in the programme, perpetrators are helped to change from being abusive to being respectful in their beliefs and, subsequently, in their behaviour. Service users are also provided with a social work service if required. After the group programme, the participants are also encouraged to receive continued support through an open support group. The service also liaises with the Domestic Violence Unit in cases where social workers from this unit are working with the perpetrator's partner, so as to provide a feedback loop regarding the progress of the perpetrator. Support on an individual basis is also provided in times of crises, and in containing a situation.

In the **Netherlands** the 'Accompanied return' project (*Begeleide Terugkeer en Bemiddeling*) supports women who want to go back home to their partners by involving them in treatment for stopping violence. Special attention is given to the perpetrator and the dynamic process within the household. The method has been used with success in different places in the Netherlands. The most important factor is the inclusion of perpetrators in the accompaniment. Since many women who are victims of domestic violence do not want to leave their partner, this methodology seems to be an important complementary professional tool.

In **Norway**, anger management programmes have been implemented to reduce violence in close relationships since 1987 on; what started as a project has expanded from the regional to the national level. In 1987 when the NGO 'Alternative to violence' (ATV) started, this was the first treatment of its kind in Europe. Today treatment is offered through eight offices that are regionally representative. In addition ATV and the anger management treatment has spread to other Nordic countries, i.e. Sweden, Denmark and Finland, and in recent years also to some southern European municipalities (Bologna, Athens and Barcelona).

Source: EGGSI network national reports, 2010.

⁽⁶⁸²⁾ http://www.appogg.gov.mt/adultandfamily_domesticviolenceservices_perpetratorsprogramme.asp

2.7. Relevant victim support/treatment programmes

To overcome the multiple consequences of violence and be able to rebuild their lives (and that of their children as well), women victims need a wide range of support and assistance. Besides a well-implemented legal framework ensuring the victim's safety and preventing further violence, women need specialised support services, including:

- women's shelters/safe housing/crisis centres;
- women's helplines;
- psychological counselling and support;
- health treatment programmes at specific departments in hospitals with specifically trained professionals;
- legal assistance services.

The Council of Europe study *Combating violence against women: minimum standards for support services*⁽⁶⁸³⁾ indicates as core support services: helplines, women's shelters, rape crisis centres and sexual assault centres with adequate geographical distribution. In addition to these core services the Council of Europe proposes that advice and advocacy services be provided either independently or within the core services.

Women's shelters and helplines are the cornerstone for the provision of immediate support to women victims of violence. According to the Council of Europe data and the EGGSI national reports, shelters and helplines are available in all the countries considered (except for Latvia), although they are often insufficient to cover demand. Dedicated health treatments are also fairly widespread, while services for victims of sexual assault and rape⁽⁶⁸⁴⁾ are less present and very few countries provide specialised services for victims of tradition-based violence such

as genital mutilation, forced marriage and crimes perpetrated in the name of honour, which largely affect ethnic minority and immigrant women.

In some countries (Belgium, the Netherlands and Spain) certain municipalities equip women at risk of domestic violence or victims of stalking with special electronic devices to guarantee immediate help and protection in case of need.

2.7.1. Women's crisis centres and shelters

The existence of shelters, the number of places available, their accessibility and quality standards are clear indicators of a state's will to protect women against violence at the immediate, practical level.

Women's shelters usually provide women victims of domestic violence and their children with a safe space and temporary accommodation for recovery. In many countries shelters also offer psychological counselling, assistance in dealing with appropriate administrative bodies like the police or social services departments, as well as information and, in some cases, support in legal matters, such as court processes, divorce and child protection issues. In some cases reintegration support is also provided through economic advice and employment training and a team of social workers, psychologists and legal advisors operate in the shelter. Accommodation is usually temporary, free of charge and available 24 hours. Permitted lengths of stay vary and reflect the residents' needs. Shelters are usually run by NGOs and financed by public and private funds (donations). Only in some countries (for example, Denmark and Finland) a small user fee is charged.

According to the Council of Europe proposed minimum standards⁽⁶⁸⁵⁾, women's shelters should be available in every region, providing one family place⁽⁶⁸⁶⁾ every 10 000 head of population. In addition, one rape crisis centre should be available for every 200 000 women and one women counselling

⁽⁶⁸³⁾ Council of Europe (2008), *Combating violence against women: minimum standards for support services*, Strasbourg (<http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/domesticviolencecampaign/Source/EG-VAW-CONF%282007%29Study%20rev.en.pdf>).

⁽⁶⁸⁴⁾ The Council of Europe Recommendation Rec(2002)5 on the protection of women against violence supports the creation of specialised services to meet the needs of victims of rape and sexual assault. Both the traumatic nature of rape and the need for immediate forensic examination to collect the evidence necessary for prosecution require special rape crisis centres with specifically trained staff on call open on a 24-hour, 7-day basis.

⁽⁶⁸⁵⁾ Council of Europe (2008), Final activity report. Council of Europe Task Force to Combat Violence against Women, including Domestic Violence (EG-TFV). Gender Equality and Anti-Trafficking Division, Directorate-General of Human Rights and Legal Affairs, Strasbourg (http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/domesticviolencecampaign/Source/Final_Activity_Report.pdf).

⁽⁶⁸⁶⁾ A 'family place' requires a bed space for the mother and the average number of children in the country. See Council of Europe (2008), *Combating violence against women: minimum standards for support services*, Directorate-General of Human Rights and Legal Affairs, Strasbourg (<http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/domesticviolencecampaign/Source/EG-VAW-CONF%282007%29Study%20rev.en.pdf>).

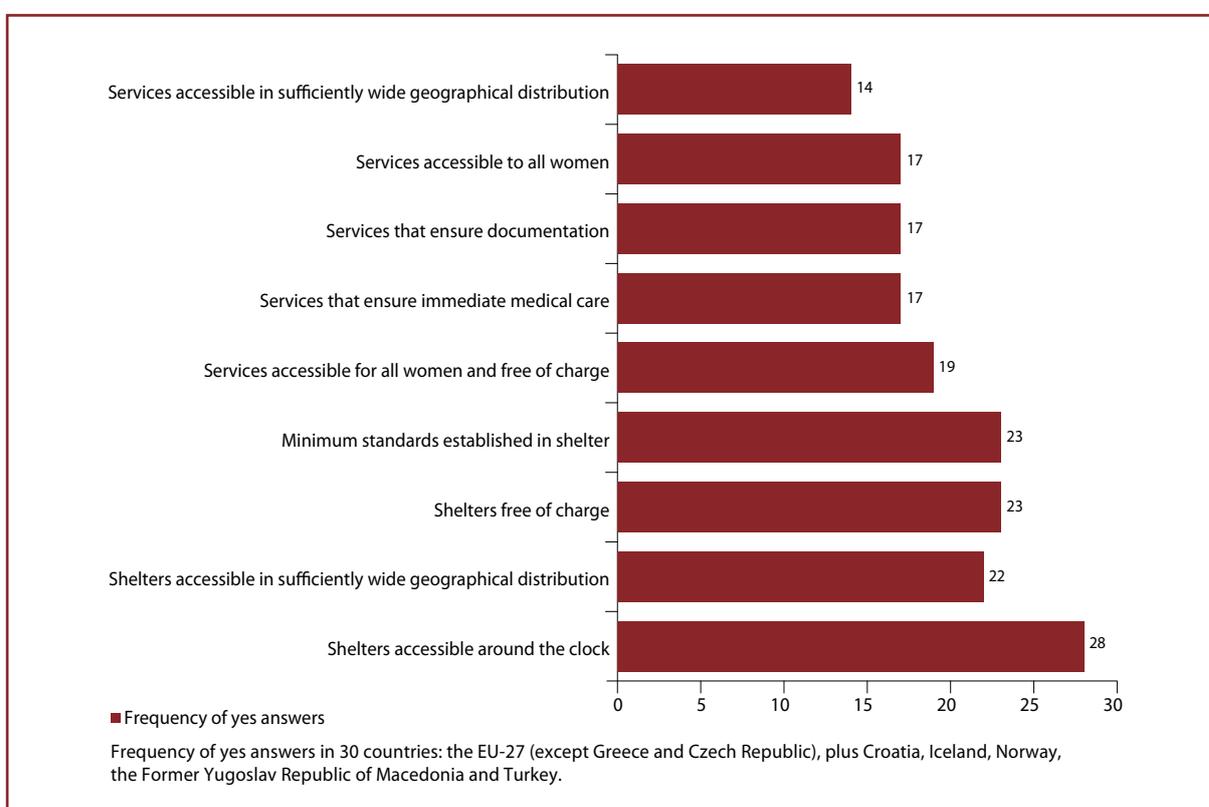
centre for every 50 000 women, to provide support to victims (and their children) of all forms of violence and to special groups including ethnic minority women, refugees and others.

run by NGO professionals. The availability and the quality of services comply with the Council of Europe standards in only a few countries and vary greatly across countries.

While women's crisis centres and shelters have been operating in almost all the countries considered since the early 1980s, most of them were originally set up by women activists and are still

Figure 2.7 presents the diffusion and accessibility of shelter places and the services provided for victims of sexual assault on the basis of data from Council of Europe monitoring ⁽⁶⁸⁷⁾ results.

Figure 2.7 — Diffusion and accessibility of shelter places and services provided for victims of sexual assault



Source: Council of Europe (2008), Protecting women against violence. Analytical study of the results of the second round of monitoring the implementation of Recommendation Rec(2002)5 on the protection of women against violence in Council of Europe member states, Strasbourg (http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/domesticviolencecampaign/Source/CDEG%20%282008%29%20rev_en.pdf).

⁽⁶⁸⁷⁾ Council of Europe (2008), Protecting women against violence. Analytical study of the results of the second round of monitoring the implementation of Recommendation Rec(2002)5 on the protection of women against violence in Council of Europe member states, Strasbourg (http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/domesticviolencecampaign/Source/CDEG%20%282008%29%20rev_en.pdf).

According to the monitoring of the Council of Europe (see Figure 2.7), almost all the countries for which information is available (28 out of 30) provide services accessible around the clock (except France and Slovenia), and 23 have established minimum standards and are free of charge. The geographical distribution of services is, however, still insufficient in many countries (such as Belgium, Croatia, Ireland, Slovenia and the UK)⁽⁶⁸⁸⁾. Less widespread are specialised services for victims of sexual assault, requiring immediate medical treatment and advocacy follow-up and long-run

counselling and psychological therapies, besides legal assistance in court proceedings. The geographical distribution of shelters is still insufficient in eight countries (Austria, Bulgaria, Cyprus, Estonia, Finland, Lithuania, Norway, Slovenia)⁽⁶⁸⁹⁾.

Table 2.2 provides an overview of the number of women's shelters and the type of support they provide in European countries on the basis of information provided by the EGGSI national experts and the WAVE 2009 report⁽⁶⁹⁰⁾.

Table 2.2 — Support services provided for women victims of violence, 2009

Country	Number of shelters	Shelter places available	Shelter places needed	Shelter places missing	Shelters with multi-lingual service	State funding per %	Proportional places per 10 000 population (2009)
Austria	30	748	834	86	30	26 shelters = 90 % 4 shelters = 100 %	0.90
Belgium	26	350	1 058	708	26	:	0.33
Bulgaria	5	59	:	709			0.07
Croatia (*)	16 (*)	328 (*)	:	116 (*)	:	100 %	0.74
Cyprus	1	12	73	ff	1	100 %	0.10
Czech Republic	57	74	1 028	954	0	:	0.86
Denmark	45 (*)	355 (*)	544	213	40	50 %	0.64
Estonia	9 (*)	65 (*)	119	74	7	80 %	0.48
Finland	21 (*)	123 (*)	527	407	1	:	0.23
France	30–40	:	6 339	:	:	:	
Germany	358	6 968	8 231	1 353	75	:	0.85
Greece	14	:	1 117	:	0	9 = 100 %	
Hungary	10	100	1 006	906	:	:	0.10
Iceland	1	20	30	10	1	75 %	0.63
Ireland	21	300	431	131	:	:	0.67
Italy	39	270	5 913	5 643	:	80 %	0.04
Latvia	0	0	228	228	:	0 %	0.00
Liechtenstein	1	3	3	0	0	70 %	0.84
Lithuania	10 (*)	200 (*)	385	385	:	0 %	0.60
Luxembourg	9	144	48	0	9	100 %	2.92
Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	7	75	204	129	0	6 = 100 %, 1 = 0 %	0.37

⁽⁶⁸⁸⁾ For Austria, Bulgaria, Cyprus, Finland, Lithuania, Malta, Romania, Slovakia and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia no information is available.

⁽⁶⁸⁹⁾ Council of Europe (2008), Protecting women against violence. Analytical study of the results of the second round of monitoring the implementation of Recommendation Rec(2002)5 on the protection of women against violence in Council of Europe member states, Strasbourg (http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/domesticviolencecampaign/Source/CDEG%20%282008%29%20rev_en.pdf).

⁽⁶⁹⁰⁾ WAVE (2009), Country report 2009 — Reality check on European services for women and children victims of violence. A right for protection and support?, Vienna (http://www.wave-network.org/images/doku/wave_countryreport_2009_1.pdf).

Country	Number of shelters	Shelter places available	Shelter places needed	Shelter places missing	Shelters with multi-lingual service	State funding per %	Proportional places per 10 000 population (2009)
Malta	4	43	40	0	4	:	1.04
Netherlands	100	2 430	1 635	0	100	100 %	1.47
Norway	51	788	468	0	51	100 %	1.64
Poland	65	1 321	3 812	2 491	some	48 = 100 %	0.35
Portugal	37	400	1 059	659	0	:	0.38
Romania	50 (*)	210	2 169	1 959	:	:	0.10
Slovakia	2	46	539	439	:	75-80 %	0.08
Slovenia	12	182	201	19	0	:	0.90
Spain	149 (*)	1 293 (*)	4 447	/	:	:	0.28
Sweden	160 (*)	:	911	/	some	:	
Turkey	52	1 297	7 256	5 959	0	27 = 100 % 25 = 50 %	0.18
UK (England)	680	3 653	6 077	2 424	680	:	0.59

Source: EGGSI national reports 2010 and WAVE (2009), Country report 2009 — Reality check on European services for women and children victims of violence. A right for protection and support?, Vienna (http://www.wave-network.org/images/doku/wave_countryreport_2009_1.pdf).

Explanatory note: Data with (*) are provided by the EGGSI network national experts. Other data are drawn from the WAVE report, including data provided from NGOs, which might be incomplete. The UK data refer to England. The number for 'Shelter places available' in Belgium refers to Flanders.

As shown in Table 2.2, of the 33 European countries only Latvia is lacking in women's shelters for victims of violence. Overall, approximately 2 077 women's shelters exist in the European countries considered in this report⁽⁶⁹¹⁾ and 21 857 places, equivalent to only 37.5 % of the places needed in order to comply with the recommendation of the Council of Europe of one family place⁽⁶⁹²⁾ in a women's shelter per 10 000 inhabitants in every country.

Of the available shelters, more than half on average provide 24-hour service and half have a multi-language service. In most of the countries considered for which information is available, state funding accounts for at least 70 %.

⁽⁶⁹¹⁾ The data presented in this report were mainly provided by the 91 WAVE focal points located in 44 different European countries (not in Andorra, Monaco, and San Marino), thus reflecting an NGO perspective. In the UK, information was only supplied by focal points from England. The missing data were taken by WAVE from the Amnesty International Report 2008 and the Open Society Institute's Violence against women fact sheets 2006. See WAVE (2009), Country report 2009 — Reality check on European services for women and children victims of violence. A right for protection and support?, Vienna (http://www.wave-network.org/images/doku/wave_countryreport_2009_1.pdf).

⁽⁶⁹²⁾ A 'family place' requires a bed space for the mother and the average number of children in the country. See Council of Europe (2008), Combating violence against women: minimum standards for support services, Directorate-General of Human Rights and Legal Affairs, Strasbourg (<http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/domesticviolencecampaign/Source/EG-VAW-CONF%282007%29Study%20rev.en.pdf>).

The provision of shelters has increased in all countries, and especially in the eastern and southern European countries which did not have extensive coverage at the beginning of this decade, but it is still insufficient to meet the needs in most countries and often too little attention is shown in trying to reach groups of vulnerable women, such as the disabled and ethnic minority and immigrant women⁽⁶⁹³⁾.

As shown in Table 2.3, only four countries — Luxembourg, Malta, the Netherlands and Norway — comply with the recommendations of the Council of Europe and six other countries (Austria, the Czech Republic, Germany, Slovenia, Liechtenstein and Croatia) are close to doing so, indicating one place for every 11 or 12 000 inhabitants. Coverage is instead very low in Turkey, Cyprus, Hungary, Romania, Slovakia, Bulgaria and Italy⁽⁶⁹⁴⁾. As already mentioned, in Latvia no shelters are provided.

⁽⁶⁹³⁾ Council of Europe (2008), Protecting women against violence. Analytical study of the results of the second round of monitoring the implementation of Recommendation Rec(2002)5 on the protection of women against violence in Council of Europe member states, Strasbourg (http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/domesticviolencecampaign/Source/CDEG%20%282008%29%20rev_en.pdf).

⁽⁶⁹⁴⁾ No information is available for Sweden.

Table 2.3 — Coverage of the needs of shelter places according to the Council of Europe recommendations (one family place per 10 000 population) ⁽⁶⁹⁵⁾

Full coverage	High coverage	Medium coverage	Low and very low coverage
Luxembourg (2.92) Norway (1.64) Netherlands (1.47) Malta (1.04)	Austria (0.9) Slovenia (0.9) Czech Republic (0.86) Germany (0.85) Liechtenstein (0.84) Croatia (0.74)	Denmark (0.64) United Kingdom (0.59) Ireland (0.67) Iceland (0.63) Lithuania (0.6) Estonia (0.48)	Portugal (0.38) Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (0.37) Poland (0.35) Belgium (0.33) Spain (0.28) ⁽⁶⁹⁶⁾ Finland (0.23) Turkey (0.18) Cyprus (0.10) Hungary (0.10) Romania (0.10) Slovakia (0.08) Bulgaria (0.07) Italy (0.04) Latvia (0.0)

Source: EGGSI national reports 2010 and WAVE (2009), Country report 2009 — Reality check on European services for women and children victims of violence. A right for protection and support?, Vienna (http://www.wave-network.org/images/doku/wave_countryreport_2009_1.pdf).

Explanatory note: Calculations done by IRS. No data available for France, Greece and Sweden.

Besides the scarce diffusion of women's shelters and crisis centres, especially in southern and eastern European countries, other major shortcomings are: their concentration in urban areas, which greatly reduces accessibility for women living in rural and peripheral areas (as only 22 out of the 30 surveyed countries ⁽⁶⁹⁷⁾ provide shelters in a sufficiently wide geographical distribution); the lack of stable funding, which reduces the continuity of service and prevents long-term planning; the lack of national guidelines on service quality standards ⁽⁶⁹⁸⁾.

In addition, in some countries the quality of accommodation and service provided is low, especially where no specific quality standard is defined. For example, in Cyprus and the Czech Republic, due to the lack of places, many women victims of violence are hosted in

asylum houses or hostels that only provide accommodation and board and are open to women (and men in the Czech Republic) with all kinds of problems. There are no programmes for psychological support and social inclusion/reintegration, nor is there any vocational training or education programmes and the staff lack the special training or background needed when treating victims of violence and/or trafficking, according to the EGGSI national experts. In Finland there are no round-the-clock free phones and no safe houses (shelters with a secret address). In other countries (such as Hungary) physical accessibility to shelters is difficult for disabled women or women with disabled children.

Annex 2.4 presents a list of 18 shelter programmes which have been surveyed in the EGGSI national reports. Almost all are targeted to victims of domestic violence and, besides temporary shelter and care, provide integrated services to help women overcome the immediate negative consequences of violence, including psychological counselling, legal support and help in getting access to the relevant public services (healthcare, social and employment services). In some cases (for example, in Denmark, Finland, Poland and Slovenia), shelters and their services are specifically targeted to victims of trafficking or migrant women. The main problem, as already mentioned, is the lack of stable and adequate funding, which results in an incapacity to provide service to all women needing it. Box 2.26 presents some examples of good practice.

⁽⁶⁹⁵⁾ A 'family place' requires a bed space for the mother and the average number of children in the country. See Council of Europe (2008), Combating violence against women: minimum standards for support services, Directorate-General of Human Rights and Legal Affairs, Strasbourg (<http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/domesticviolencecampaign/Source/EG-VAW-CONF%282007%29Study%20rev.en.pdf>).

⁽⁶⁹⁶⁾ According to the EGGSI expert also 280 flats available in 13 of the 17 autonomous communities. These are not included in the rate.

⁽⁶⁹⁷⁾ See Council of Europe (2008). Accessible not sufficient in the following countries: AT, BG, CY, EE, FI, LT, NO, SI; no information available for CZ, EL, PL.

⁽⁶⁹⁸⁾ The Council of Europe individuates core support services and minimum standards. Among the core services are: helplines, women's shelters, rape crisis centres with adequate geographical distribution, assault centres. See Council of Europe (2008), Combating violence against women: minimum standards for support services, Strasbourg (<http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/domesticviolencecampaign/Source/EG-VAW-CONF%282007%29Study%20rev.en.pdf>).

Box 2.26 — Good practice examples of women's shelters

Belgium

The 'Collectif contre les violences familiales et l'exclusion' (CFVE) is a well-being centre in Liège that offers shelter in combination with different services, such as studies and training as well as outpatient care. The centre also collects data, for example on the nationality of the women. In the city of Antwerp, the KINA network (crisis intervention network Antwerp) has arrangements with hotels to shelter women in crisis situations, which might be useful to overcome shortages in shelters.

Croatia

The Autonomous Women's House offers a combination of services to support women victims of violence. It provides shelter at a secret address, counselling and individual work with women and work with children, psychological support and therapy, legal aid and representation, counselling through helpline or individually by specialists. The organisation publishes its activities and experience through reports, and undertakes regular monitoring and lobbying in the field of violence against women, exerting strong influence on decision-makers with visible lobbying and advocating actions.

Estonia

The Tartu Naiste Varjupaik (Tartu Women's Shelter) ⁽⁶⁹⁹⁾ in the southern part of the country and the Estonian Social Programmes Centre have offered approximately 10–15 seminars on the issue of domestic violence to professionals including lawyers, doctors and the police. These seminars were financed by the Open Estonia Foundation, Phare and other sources. In 2008, medical workers received training on how to recognise violence and assist victims. Every year, one- to two-day training for victim support specialists, social and youth workers, police, etc. is provided on different issues, such as on prevention of trafficking and victim support, or gender equality issues.

In **Denmark** all crisis centres provide psychological counselling, socio-legal advice and special care for women and their children to overcome their experiences with violence. This is offered as a multilingual service and women are supported in contacting other social and healthcare services if necessary. Besides general counselling, some also offer half-way provision, after-protection and assistance to self-help groups. One shelter also offers counselling for men in special rooms ⁽⁷⁰⁰⁾.

Hungary

Since 2006 there is a Secret Shelter House for assaulted women and their children. The contact information on this shelter is totally concealed. Those women are accommodated here who have been found by their respective aggressors in the foregoing places they stayed at. For the accommodation of victims of human trafficking and prostitution, still another secret shelter is maintained.

Liechtenstein

Women's home/shelters also collect the numbers of phone calls concerning domestic violence and record data on the background of women staying in the shelter, for instance as concerns age, status of origin, data on their children but also data on the perpetrator ⁽⁷⁰¹⁾. In the annual report of the "Frauenhaus Liechtenstein", some social data on the women (age, marital status, relationship to the perpetrator) as well as on the length of stay, and other administrative data are provided ⁽⁷⁰²⁾. The report also indicates the financial use as well as a description of the yearly activities.

Lithuania

One of the biggest shelters is the Vilnius Shelter for Battered Mothers and Children (Vilnius moteru namai kriziu centras) ⁽⁷⁰³⁾. It receives full financial support from the Vilnius municipality budget to provide shelter, meals, and social, psychological, and legal consultations for victims of domestic violence. The shelter has 72 places for women with children. It is open non-stop and allows women to stay any length of time.

⁽⁶⁹⁹⁾ <http://www.naistetugi.ee/>

⁽⁷⁰⁰⁾ LOKK (2008) Voksenstatistik 2007. København (<http://www.lokk.dk/Billeder/publikationer/statistikker/Voksenstatistik2007.pdf>).

⁽⁷⁰¹⁾ <http://www.frauenhaus.li>

⁽⁷⁰²⁾ Frauenhaus Liechtenstein (2009), Jahresbericht. Veduz (http://www.frauenhaus.li/Portals/0/docs/Jahresbericht_2009_klein.pdf).

⁽⁷⁰³⁾ <http://www.javlb.org/bridges/issue6/raidis.html>

Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia

The NGO 'Open Gate — Women's Lobby on Action against Violence and Trafficking in Women' has assisted, since 2006, 65 victims of internal trafficking. Women have access to the social assistance programme which offers: long-term accommodation, covering basic needs (food, clothes or hygiene products), and adequate psychosocial treatment — for this particular purpose 24 hours a day a team of professionals such as psychologists and social workers are available, as well as medical care — organised visits to a general practitioner, gynaecologist and in certain cases psychiatric help, basic legal assistance or referring the victims to other NGOs' legal departments. The multi-disciplinarily measures available for victims ensure a wide range of services on a long-term basis ⁽⁷⁰⁴⁾.

Malta

The length of women's stay at the Ghabex shelter, run by Agenzija Appogg, is set at a maximum period of three months, after which service users will move on to a second stage shelter, or to any alternative accommodation ⁽⁷⁰⁵⁾. During these three months, the staff at Ghabex support the women in their daily needs, and will also work with them to draw up an action plan for their future. The shelter has 15 beds which are provided to women and their children. The shelter accepts female children of any age and male children under 18 years. Women are informed about the shelters through media campaigns, through social workers from the Domestic Violence Unit and through the police.

Sweden

Somaya Women's Shelter helps persons who have been physically and/or mentally abused, threatened, harassed and/or raped. It offers help in 11 different languages and has special knowledge to deal with women and girls with a foreign background and Muslim identity ⁽⁷⁰⁶⁾. Terrafem is a national helpline for immigrant women of all ages. The helpline offers support in about 35 languages ⁽⁷⁰⁷⁾. Elektra offers support to younger women in several languages ⁽⁷⁰⁸⁾.

Source: EGGSI network national reports, 2010.

⁽⁷⁰⁴⁾ <http://www.lastradainternational.org>

⁽⁷⁰⁵⁾ <http://www.appogg.gov.mt/pressreleases.asp?ID=117>

⁽⁷⁰⁶⁾ Systerjouren Somaja (<http://www.somaya.se>).

⁽⁷⁰⁷⁾ Terrafems kvinnojour (<http://www.terrafem.se>).

⁽⁷⁰⁸⁾ Elektra.nu (<http://www.elektra.nu>).

2.7.2. Dedicated helplines

The minimum standard promoted by the Council of Europe requires at least one free national helpline covering all forms of violence against women operating around the clock and providing crisis support in different languages.

Table 2.4 describes the dedicated helplines operating at the national and regional level. Helplines provide first advice services free of charge (only the cost of the call is charged in some countries as in Estonia, Liechtenstein and Poland). They are among the most important services enabling women to find immediate help and support. In most cases helplines are run by specialised NGOs with the financial support of national and local public institutions.

Table 2.4 — Helplines at national and regional level, 2009

Country	National					Regional				
	No of national helplines	Call free of charge	Helplines with 24-hour service	Helplines with multilingual service	State funding per %	No of regional helplines	Call free of charge	Helplines with 24-hour service	Helplines with multilingual service	State funding per %
Austria	1	1	1	1	100 %	6	1	1	partial	5 = 90 %, 1 = 100 %
Belgium	3	3	3	3	:	5	5	:	5	:
Bulgaria	3	3	3	0	:	3	0	:	0	:
Croatia	0	:	:	:	0 %	24	:	:	:	0 %
Cyprus	1	1	1	1	100 %	0	:	:	:	:
Czech Republic	2	0	1	0	:	6	0	2	0	:
Denmark	1	1	1	1	100 %	43	:	40	3	3 = 100 %
Estonia	1	0	0	1	90 %	0	:	:	:	0 %
Finland	2	1	0	1	:	25	0	some	1	:
France	1	0	0	1	100 %	66	:	:	:	:
Germany	0	:	:	:	0 %	74	:	:	:	:
Greece	4	4	2	1	1 = 100 %	4	4	0	0	1 = 100 %
Hungary	2	2	1	2	1 = 100 %	0	:	:	:	0 %
Iceland	2	2	1	0	75 %	0	:	:	:	0 %
Ireland	2	2	1	:	85 %	38	:	:	:	:
Italy	1	1	1	1	100 %	104	1	1	1	70 %
Latvia	0	:	:	:	0 %	0	:	:	:	0 %
Liechtenstein	1	0	1	1	70 %	0	:	:	:	0 %
Lithuania	2	2	0	2	:	2	2	0	2	0 %
Luxembourg	1	0	0	1	100 %	9	0	2	9	100 %
Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	2	1	2	2	1 = 100 %, 1 = 0 %	1	:	1	1	0 %
Malta	1	1	1	1	100 %	0	:	:	:	0 %
Netherlands	0	:	:	:	0 %	38	0	most	some	100 %
Norway	0	:	:	:	0 %	45	45	most	45	:
Poland	1	0	0	0	100 %	no data	most	:	:	:
Portugal	3	:	:	:	:	1	:	:	:	:
Romania	3	:	1	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Slovakia	6	no data	some	no data	no data	1	no data	no data	no data	no data
Slovenia	1	1	0	0	:	0	:	:	:	0 %
Spain	1	1	1	1	100 %	17	17	1	1	100 %
Sweden	1	1	1	1	:	150	150	some	some	:
Turkey	1	1	1	0	100 %	2	2	2	0	:
UK	1	:	1	1	:	20	:	most	20	:

Source: WAVE (2009), Country report 2009 — Reality check on European services for women and children victims of violence. A right for protection and support?, Vienna (http://www.wave-network.org/images/doku/wave_countryreport_2009_1.pdf). NB: Numbers in italics are approximate. The data were mainly provided by WAVE focal points (and Amnesty International Report 2008 and the Violence against women fact sheets 2006), thus reflecting an NGO perspective. Data from the NGOs might be incomplete as no sufficient resources for coordinated data collection are available. In the UK information was only supplied by focal points from England.

As described in the table, all the countries considered have at least one helpline, either at the national and/or regional level. Overall, in the 33 countries considered here there are 50 national helplines and 679 regional ones. Most countries also provide at least one (usually national) helpline operating around the clock and providing multilingual services, except for Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Iceland, Poland, Slovenia and Turkey, which do not have helplines with multilingual services, and the Czech Republic, Estonia, France, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg and Poland, which have no free-of-charge helpline. Some countries have no national helplines but assistance is provided by regional helplines (Croatia, Germany, the Netherlands, Norway).

Of the total national helplines, 57 % are free of charge, 48 % operate around the clock and 44 %

provide multilingual service, while a much lower share of regional helplines have these characteristics. A large number of helplines are present in Sweden (150 regional and 1 national helpline), Italy (100 regional), Germany (74 regional), France (66 regional and 1 national), Norway (45 regional), Denmark (43 regional and 1 national), Ireland (38 regional and 2 national) and the Netherlands (38 regional). Finland, Croatia, the UK and Spain also have a large number of regional helplines. Funding of at least one national helpline is usually covered by the state in most countries. In some countries there are helplines for children victims (or at risk) of violence.

Annex 2.5 presents examples of helplines identified by the EGGSI experts in the national reports, while Box 2.27 provides some more detailed good practice examples of helplines in some European countries.

Box 2.27 — Good practice examples of helplines

Hungary

Only the national crisis telephone hotline is fully financed by the state. The national crisis telephone information service offers information in 10 languages, in order to support the victims of trafficking who often arrive from an east European country, for example Ukraine. All of the people operating the crisis telephone services have higher educational qualifications. For the assistants, introductory, retraining sessions are prescribed, and later there are two-weekly team meetings and supervisions⁽⁷⁰⁹⁾. The service uses the International Federation of Telephonic Emergency Services' catalogue, which includes special criteria on how to deal with the clients. The other hotline is operated in the evenings between 6 and 10 p.m. by a civil organisation, called NANE Women's Rights Association⁽⁷¹⁰⁾. NANE is the only NGO running a hotline for battered women and children in Hungary. NANE started its activity in 1994, and works only with volunteers, who have to complete NANE's 60-hour training course which provides the theoretical and practical information necessary for hotline work, and a 20-hour practice session on the hotline. The first volunteers were trained by a team of highly experienced American and Croatian volunteers.

Iceland

The Women's shelter, KVENNAATHVARF, in Reykjavik, offers shelter and telephone assistance for rape victims also at the national level⁽⁷¹¹⁾.

Ireland

Women's Aid provides a national free phone helpline providing support and information to callers experiencing abuse from intimate partners. Of the 10 140 callers (in 2008) the vast majority were women (97 %)⁽⁷¹²⁾. A support services team provide more in-depth one-to-one information and support, in six Dublin city locations and in hospitals, prisons, and other locations chosen by the woman for safety reasons. There is a court accompaniment service for women, which provides advocacy and support specific for the particular needs of women seeking legal redress regarding violence by a current or former spouse or partner.

⁽⁷⁰⁹⁾ National crisis telephone information service (OKIT) (<http://www.krizistelefon.hu/index2.html>).

⁽⁷¹⁰⁾ NANE Women's Rights Association (<http://www.nane.hu>) (the translation of the association's name is: Women for Women against Violence).

⁽⁷¹¹⁾ Samtök um Kvænnaathvarf (Women's Shelter in Reykjavik) (2008), Annual Report 2008 (<http://www.kvennaathvarf.is/media/arsskyrslur/SUK-2008-low.pdf>).

⁽⁷¹²⁾ <http://www.womensaid.ie/newsevents/news/2010/05/25/womens-aid-welcomes-new-social-work-guidelines-on/>

Norway

The Norwegian Red Cross has a helpline that specialises in combating forced marriages⁽⁷¹³⁾ and there is also a special Forced Marriage Unit at the Norwegian Directorate for Integration and Diversity⁽⁷¹⁴⁾. This unit produces information in several languages, and is a contact point in cases where forced marriages have been identified. The Norwegian Directorate for Integration and Diversity is generally responsible for the implementation of various measures included in the action plan against forced marriages (2008–11)⁽⁷¹⁵⁾.

Romania

Since 2007 there has been a national anti-trafficking helpline. The service is provided by a supervisor and specialists employed by the National Agency against Trafficking. The role of the specialists is to record, verify and refer each confirmed case to the appropriate support services. Counselling to victims and their families in crisis situations and information on potential risks when travelling abroad is also provided. There were 46 reports on possible trafficking situations and 13 notifying missing persons (in 2007)⁽⁷¹⁶⁾. The helpline is well organised and connected with specialised legal assistance, health and counselling services offered by public and non-governmental organisations.

Source: EGGSI network national reports, 2010.

⁽⁷¹³⁾ Information about the Red Cross forced marriages helpline (http://www.rodekors.no/upload/DK-Oslo/%C3%85rsrapporter/RK%20Telefonen%20om%20Tvangsekteskap_2006.pdf).

⁽⁷¹⁴⁾ Homepage of the Directorate of Integration and Diversity (<http://www.imdi.no/>).

⁽⁷¹⁵⁾ Norwegian Ministry of Children and Equality: action plan against forced marriages 2008–11 (http://www.regjeringen.no/upload/BLD/Planer/2007/Tvangsekteskap_engelsk2007.pdf).

⁽⁷¹⁶⁾ <http://anitp.mira.gov.ro/en/trafic/rapoarte/raport%202007%20Engleza.pdf>

2.7.3. Dedicated treatment and protection services

Health, employment and social services can play a vital role in prevention, data collection and provision of treatment to victims of violence.

In some countries (for example, Iceland and Germany), dedicated wards for victims of violence have been created, adopting procedures for cooperation with the police (setting up systems for recording medical data and evidence) and women's support services.

Annex 2.6 presents a list of dedicated programmes providing immediate treatment and support to women victims of violence, as reported by the EGGSI national experts, while Box 2.28 presents some examples of good practice.

As shown, in many countries various initiatives have been implemented to enhance the quality of public health services (such as in Austria, Belgium, Germany and Iceland) in treating sexually and physically abused women and children.

An interesting EU-wide (EU-27) project on interpersonal violence is the EU-funded research project 'PHASE: Public health action for a safer Europe', running between 2007 and 2009. This project aimed to collect information and data on this issue, also

through an inventory of studies and public health reporting schemes as well as violence prevention programmes in Europe, in order to identify the most effective interventions⁽⁷¹⁷⁾.

Greater awareness of domestic violence within all kinds of public services, including social, health and medical services, is also present in many countries.

In some countries (Belgium, the Netherlands, Spain) certain municipalities provide electronic support devices (GPS alarm devices) to women suffering from stalking by ex-partners, in order to protect them and assure immediate help in case of need⁽⁷¹⁸⁾. Interesting programmes are also provided in the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, where special legal support is supplied to women in need of it and in the Netherlands, where mothers are involved as mentors to help other mothers who are victims of domestic violence, also in regular contact with healthcare professionals.

In Box 2.28 some good practices in the treatment and protection of women victims of domestic violence and abuse are presented.

⁽⁷¹⁷⁾ http://www.inthenameofthemothers.com/doc/Report_elder_abuse_in_Italy.pdf

⁽⁷¹⁸⁾ Actually, also in Austria, Germany, France and the UK, the implementation of electronic devices is under discussion.

Box 2.28 — Good practices in the mediate treatment and protection of women victims of domestic violence and abuse

In **Austria** the Vienna health project for victim protection in Vienna's hospitals is a multi-agency initiative to offer training courses to healthcare personnel and develop a 'curriculum' for healthcare personnel, in order to detect and adequately treat women affected by violence. Also a preservation kit was developed which sets up uniform procedures when examining victims of sexual violence⁽⁷¹⁹⁾.

In **Belgium**, in the city of Ghent, the 'Tele alarm' project offers persons who suffer serious life threats and stalking by ex-partners a personal alarm system to ensure their safety. After an initial interview with the victim she/he can submit a request to the authorities for the (free-of-cost) Tele alarm. Another project is carried out in cooperation with the Collectif contre les violences familiales et l'exclusion (CVFE) and Praxis (2009–11), which supports victims of domestic violence involving both the victim and the aggressor. Through the cooperation of the two NGOs, one working with the victims and one with the perpetrators, the project considers both points of views, in order to help the family to escape from the violence cycle.

In **Finland** the Ministry of Social Affairs and Health supported a local pilot project for intervening and preventing partner and intimate violence. The project included the elaboration of local brochures and guidelines as well as a national handbook for municipalities for the prevention of partner and intimate violence *Kenelle lyönnit kuuluvat?* ('Who is responsible for beating?')⁽⁷²⁰⁾. The handbook aims to provide information for local policymakers for the adequate provision of prevention and protection activities at local level.

In **Germany** the Signal intervention project to end violence against women⁽⁷²¹⁾ was started in 1999 in the emergency room of the Benjamin Franklin University Hospital of Berlin⁽⁷²²⁾. It provides abused women with support and treatment. Nurses and physicians have been trained to identify violence and inquire into abuse, to document injuries and health problems for use in legal proceedings, to develop a health plan and to inform and refer victims to counselling programmes and women's shelters. The project has shown the importance of emergency departments as first contact points for women who have been victims of abuse and violence. Since 2008 this project has also been active in the German region of Baden-Württemberg and has implemented a programme for the itinerant treatment of women who have experienced violence⁽⁷²³⁾.

In **Iceland**, the Emergency Unit for victims of rape at Landspítali Hospital in Reykjavik recruits specialised professionals, offering appropriate and free-of-charge services not only to the victims but also to the abusers. The programme consists of a medical examination upon arrival by a medical doctor, and a more comprehensive interview by a nurse and a medical doctor specialised in legal medicine. This is followed up by psychological treatment, support and rebuilding of self-awareness and assertiveness training provided in 10 individual sessions. Finally, the patient is appointed a legal adviser/lawyer who will follow her throughout and take care of all the necessary procedures involved in the process of the judiciary system in the event that legal action is undertaken. The great majority of the users are female, but a growing number of males are now among the users. Research indicates that the number of male victims of sexual crimes or violence might be higher, since male victims might find it more difficult to seek help⁽⁷²⁴⁾. Therefore, in order to reach and address problems of access due to gender differences, the staff give lectures, speak at conferences and run seminars for health- and social care professionals. Clinical guidelines addressing gender differences are now being developed. Since many of the victims are children under 18, the team has had to mobilise a wide range of professional social networks⁽⁷²⁵⁾.

⁽⁷¹⁹⁾ http://www.frauengesundheit-wien.at/export/sites/fsw/diesie/downloads/broschueren/Violence_Manual_2006.pdf

⁽⁷²⁰⁾ <http://www.stm.fi> and Ewalds, H. (2005), *Kenelle lyönnit kuuluvat? Kuntaopas pari- ja lähisuuhdeväkivallan ehkäisytyöhön* (http://www.stm.fi/c/document_library/get_file?folderId=28707&name=DLFE-3570.pdf).

⁽⁷²¹⁾ European Parliament (2007), *Discrimination against women and young girls in the health sector*, Directorate-General Internal Policies, by the European Institute of Women's Health, Brussels (<http://www.europarl.europa.eu/activities/committees/studies/download.do?file=16337#search=%20Discrimination%20against%20Women%20and%20Young%20Girls%20in%20the%20Health%20Sector%20>).

⁽⁷²²⁾ See also Bundesministerium für Gesundheit (<http://www.bmg.bund.de/>).

⁽⁷²³⁾ The project was implemented in Baden-Württemberg in 2008, supported by the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs. See Pflegebrief (2008), *Signal— Intervention gegen häusliche Gewalt, Modellprojekt in Baden-Württemberg*. 18.7.2008 (<http://pflegen-online.de/nachrichten/aktuelles/signal-intervention-gegen-haeusliche-gewalt.htm?nlp=20080723>).

⁽⁷²⁴⁾ Tryggvadóttir, A. B. (2008), *Eðli og alvarleiki kynferðislegs ofbeldis hjá þolendum sem leita til Neyðarmóttöku LSH: Er munur á áfengis- og/eða vímuefnatengdu og öðru kynferðislegu ofbeldi?*, University of Iceland, Social Sciences Department.

⁽⁷²⁵⁾ Agnarsdóttir, G. and Skúladóttir, S. (1994), 'A new rape trauma service at the Emergency Department of Reykjavik City Hospital', *Artic Medical Research*; Vol. 53: Suppl. 2, pp. 531–533.

In the **former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia**, the Association for Emancipation, Solidarity and Equality of Women has since 2002 been running a Legal Aid Centre and Psychological Counselling Bureau for women victims of domestic violence. It provides free legal and psychosocial assistance and support, as well as court representation for domestic violence victims. Another activity is the promotion of the domestic violence victims' protection system aimed at informing the general and expert public on the existing protection services. As of 2008, 2 232 victims of domestic violence had been legally and psychosocially supported at the Legal Aid Centre in Skopje ⁽⁷²⁶⁾.

The Memosa programme ⁽⁷²⁷⁾ in the **Netherlands** was promoted in 2006 by the regional public health authority of Rotterdam-Rijmond, together with the medical Faculty of the Radboud University Nijmegen (Women's Studies). Ten mothers with children were trained as mentors to support other young mothers with children suffering from partner abuse and living in isolated situations. For up to 16 weeks, the mentors made weekly home visits to pregnant women and mothers of children up to 12 years old who suffered abuse or were at risk of abuse, to promote professional support for depression, prevention of partner abuse, and general health and mother-child relations. The main target group was informed and supported to respond adequately to the threat of domestic violence and positively influence the behaviour of the abuser. This decreased the chances that the threat could turn into real domestic violence. In some cases, the abuser asked for the advice and support of the mentor and was subsequently referred to the mental health sector. In addition, the programme provided specific training to 25 general practitioners in order to recognise and cope with cases of domestic violence and partner abuse and to cooperate with local support organisations. The programme evaluation (for the period 2006–08) showed high participation rates of women of ethnic background. Despite the overall low number of participants, the outcomes were significant: partner abuse was reduced by 50 %; complaints of depression were reduced by 37 %; and the mentors indicated an improvement of their social support network. Furthermore, the mentors reported in over 55 % of the cases that their support in (domestic) education proved very positive and helped to improve the family situation. In some cases, the partner/father asked the mentor for supportive advice.

Source: EGGSI network national reports 2009

⁽⁷²⁶⁾ <http://www.esem.org.mk>

⁽⁷²⁷⁾ http://www.huiselijkgeweld.rotterdam.nl/algemeen_soorten_huiselijk_geweld_partnergeweld.htm

2.8. Relevant social inclusion/ reintegration programmes

Women victims of violence have to be guaranteed basic social and economic rights in order to have a real chance to live a life without violence. This should include the right to alimony and/or public income support for women who do not have an income of their own; the right to dedicated employment and training services, including the right to cost-free language courses for immigrant women; the right to cost-free childcare; the right to affordable housing; the right of residence for immigrant women, independently of their husbands or other family members; and the right of survivors of violence who were brought to the country through marriage, mail order ⁽⁷²⁸⁾ or trafficking, to stay in the country after separation and to be granted a humanitarian visa.

Regarding the social, political and economic rights of survivors, the United Nations Commission on

Human Rights recommends Member States: 'To take all measures to empower women and strengthen their economic independence and to protect and promote the full enjoyment of all human rights and fundamental freedoms in order to allow women and girls to protect themselves better against violence and, in this regard, to give priority to education, training, economic opportunity and political participation of women' (United Nation Commission on Human Rights 2003: para. 14c). The European Parliament calls on the Member States to take appropriate measures by 'recognising the importance of providing support to victims, whether women or children, to help them become financially and psychologically independent from the perpetrator' and by 'providing a minimum income for women who have no other resources' ⁽⁷²⁹⁾.

This section focuses on social inclusion/reintegration programmes intended to support and help women victims of violence to find a new home, a job, new social relations, etc.

⁽⁷²⁸⁾ 'Mail order' refers to women and men who seek a partner (for the purpose of marriage, dating or pen pals) through international contact, introduction or marriage agencies.

⁽⁷²⁹⁾ <http://www.europarl.europa.eu/sides/getDoc.do?pubRef=-//EP//TEXT+TA+P6-TA-2006-0038+0+DOC+XML+V0//EN>

The main forms of reintegration measures are support in getting affordable housing and employment and training services, besides income support provisions for women who do not dispose of an income of their own.

In most countries, integrated services are provided by the regional and local authorities and NGOs. The main weaknesses of these interventions, especially in the southern and eastern European countries, are insufficient funding (which is likely to be further reduced in the future, due to the economic and financial crisis) and coverage of the needs, according to the recommendation of the Council of Europe.

Annex 2.7 presents a list of reintegration measures identified in the EGGSI national reports.

Housing is a very important factor for the long-term support of women and their children victims of violence, as in many cases women may not be able to stay in their home for safety reasons or unaffordable rents. Finding permanent accommodation after leaving the women's shelters is especially difficult for

mothers, poor women, women who have no regular employment, or immigrant women and women victims of trafficking. Few countries have social housing programmes for women victims of violence or programmes supporting the payment of rents in the private housing market. According to the Council of Europe⁽⁷³⁰⁾, the situation is particularly worrisome in central and eastern Europe, where the privatisation of the housing market has led to very high price increases.

Some examples of measures supporting women victims of violence in finding a permanent accommodation after immediate care are presented in Box 2.29. In some cases (for example, in Austria, Hungary, Ireland and Malta) temporary accommodation is provided, while supporting women in completing the procedures needed to have access to social housing or to find affordable accommodation in the private housing market. Some programmes help women to return to their own home (as for instance in the Netherlands) or support their temporary accommodation in private households in order also to increase their social networks and facilitate their social integration.

Box 2.29 — Examples of programmes supporting affordable housing

In **Austria**, in 2006 the 'Transitory apartments' for women leaving the Vienna women's shelters were created to enforce and enhance the after-care of women affected by violence; 71 women and 77 children were living in 40 transition living quarters in 2008⁽⁷³¹⁾. In the course of 2010 the supply will be increased to 50 flats since demand is very high. *To move into one of the transition living quarters, the woman and her children must not be acutely in danger any longer, have to dispose of sufficient financial means and be ready to cope alone with their daily routine. The transition living quarters together with psychosocial support facilitate a soft transition to an independent flat. In 2008, more than 80 % of the women living in the shelters made use of this temporary housing, of which 78 % were able to move to an own apartment, often social housing, after completing the eligible period*⁽⁷³²⁾.

In **Hungary** a housing opportunities programme for endangered families⁽⁷³³⁾, run by NGOs and charity organisations, and financed by international charities, is organised in four stages: (1) crisis treatment in the regional crisis treatment centre; (2) temporary home for families for up to 1.5 years; (3) half-way homes (passing homes); (4) assurance of social housing or other permanent housing opportunities. The last two stages are closely connected to reintegration. The main results were: the successful integration of eight families (out of nine), motivation for other people, who are still in stage 2, stability in the children's situation, fulfilling long-lasting plans for children (finishing secondary school).

⁽⁷³¹⁾ Frauenhäuser Wien 2009, Tätigkeitsbericht 2008, p.36 (<http://www.frauenhaeuser-wien.at/images/bericht2008.pdf>).

⁽⁷³²⁾ Frauenhäuser Wien 2009, Tätigkeitsbericht 2008, p.36 (<http://www.frauenhaeuser-wien.at/images/bericht2008.pdf>).

⁽⁷³³⁾ Magyar Ökumenikus Segélyszervezet Reintegrációs Modellprogramja (Hungarian Interchurch Aid) (<http://www.segelyszervezet.hu>).

⁽⁷³⁰⁾ Council of Europe (2008), Final activity report. Council of Europe Task Force to Combat Violence against Women, including Domestic Violence (EG-TFV). Gender Equality and Anti-Trafficking Division, Directorate-General of Human Rights and Legal Affairs, Strasbourg (http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/domesticviolencecampaign/Source/Final_Activity_Report.pdf).

In **Ireland**, the Sonas Housing Association provides permanent and transitional housing in three local authority areas in the greater Dublin region⁽⁷³⁴⁾. They provide specialist 45 transitional housing services with two-year tenancy arrangements and 20 permanent housing units to women and children made homeless because of gender-based violence. They provide a level of security and safety for women and children who have ongoing support needs (and security needs) after they have been through emergency services/refuges. The service cost EUR 1 391 712 (in 2008), funded by statutory housing grants and private fundraising, and is provided in a holistic setting with counselling, work and education, debt and personal development support as well as childcare and related family services. There is significant excess demand for the service.

In **Italy**, an innovative project was promoted by the province of Venice⁽⁷³⁵⁾, integrating temporary accommodation with social inclusion in the local community. It was meant to provide temporary hospitality within families for victims of trafficking already attending a social protection programme. The project was prompted by the need to identify different alternatives to public shelters and to identify and test different ways of local communities' participation to facilitate social integration. The main aim is to create a social network within an Italian family that will help trafficked women to reach better social integration and knowledge of Italian style of life. Living in a family will not only offer a stable accommodation but will also help those women to reach greater autonomy and form friendly relationships. The social integration within a family and therefore within a local community will also help trafficked women to reach positive integration in the local labour market. The project presents different strengths related to the involvement of families that accelerate and consolidate processes related to personal autonomy and socialisation. The main innovative element of the project was that of identifying different family contexts that could match the victims' characteristics and to enhance all the resources that the local area and local community could offer

In **Malta**, Dar Qalb ta' Gesu is a second stage shelter for women escaping domestic violence⁽⁷³⁶⁾. Once the initial crisis has been dealt with, some women still require further support and emotional and practical empowerment to enable them to rebuild their lives. This second stage shelter provides them with a safe space and employment support tailored to their specific needs. The practical issues dealt with include housing, employment and training, parenting, budgeting' etc. The women are also supported emotionally and psychologically as per their needs. Any accompanying children are similarly helped.

In the **Netherlands**, a programme supports return to home for adults and young people who want to return to their partner or family after a stay in a shelter. The programme also gives assistance to partners/families who do not want to break off the relation, but are well motivated to end the violence. The accompanied return and mediation approach (*Begeleide Terugkeer en Bemiddeling*) offers specific forms of short post-institutional care⁽⁷³⁷⁾. The approach is outreaching, preventive and systemic. It is a combination of individual interviews, interviews with both partners together and contacts with children, family and other persons within the social network. If needed, follow-up accompaniment is organised. In situations of honour-related violence a mediator is often asked for assistance. Emphasis is put on the coping capacity and empowerment of users: competence-oriented, targeted and future-oriented.

Source: EGGS1 network national reports 2009

⁽⁷³⁴⁾ Sonas Housing Association NGO (<http://www.sonashousing.ie>).

⁽⁷³⁵⁾ <http://www.comune.venezia.it>

⁽⁷³⁶⁾ UN Secretary-General's database on violence against women (<http://webapps01.un.org/vawdatabase/home.action>).

⁽⁷³⁷⁾ <http://www.huiselijkgeweld.nl/doc/interventies/begeleideterugkeerprojectvoamsterdam2004.pdf> and <http://www.huiselijkgeweld.nl/interventies/nazorg/begeleidterugleewarden.html>

The provision of social, employment and training services to facilitate long-term reintegration in society is the most diffused type of reintegration measures adopted in the countries considered. In some countries (for example, in Austria and Italy) companies are involved in the provision of on-the-job training, in order to increase the employment

opportunities of women victims of violence. In many cases these measures are supported by the European Social Fund (ESF) or other European Union initiatives, such as the Daphne programmes. However, only in a few cases are these measures explicitly targeted to women victims of violence or trafficked women. Some examples are provided in Box 2.30.

Box 2.30 — Examples of programmes providing employment, training and social services

In **Austria**, the umbrella organisation of women's shelters AÖF (Verein Autonome österreichische Frauenhäuser), runs a project 'Armutsrisiko Gewalt an Frauen' ('Poverty risk violence against women')⁽⁷³⁸⁾, to raise awareness in companies of women's extremely vulnerable economic situation after experience of violence from their husbands/partners. The association offers workshops for companies to sensitise colleagues, work councils and human resource managers for detecting violence against women and recognising the particularly difficult and economically vulnerable situation of women affected by violence.

In the **Czech Republic**, the project 'Real alternatives — social inclusion for victims of trafficking' was conducted between 2006 and 2008 with the co-financing of the ESF. The aim of the project was to develop measures to support the employment and social inclusion of victims of trafficking and to build directly on the national action plan on social inclusion.

In **Croatia** there are only a few empowering programmes offered by NGOs. In its working report of 2008 the Gender Equality Ombudsman⁽⁷³⁹⁾ analysed the situation of women living in the shelter in Osijek-Baranja county, showing that among 68 women only 32 % were able to organise an independent life through renting a new home or through employment. The organisation 'Korak' from Karlovac is conducting a project for the economic empowerment of women victims of violence. Of 40 women participating in the project, 10 women were able to find employment. A similar project was conducted by the organisation BaBe, which offered IT courses, education about entrepreneurship, and different practical skills (sewing, knitting, etc.) for 80 women.

In **Finland** a social integration programme for Thai women working as prostitutes in 'massage salons' started in 2009 in cooperation by the city of Helsinki and the NGO Pro-tukipiste ('Support for prostitutes'). The programme provides training and employment services, as well as knowledge of social and healthcare services and everyday skills in Finnish society for their social inclusion⁽⁷⁴⁰⁾.

In **France**, the platform to reconcile women victims of violence with employment, experimented in 2002–04 and institutionalised in 2005, provides services to support the employment and social integration of women victims of domestic violence⁽⁷⁴¹⁾.

In **Italy**, to support the employment of trafficked persons and provide qualified medium- and long-term job opportunities, the 'On the road'⁽⁷⁴²⁾ association provides on-the-job training schemes to the persons assisted. The measures are developed within the framework of the anti-trafficking activities and labour inclusion actions carried out by the association. The integrated network strategy aims at creating close connection between policies in the field of labour, vocational training and social inclusion. The *Formazione Pratica in Impresa* (FPI) is a job-placement programme which involves local private companies available to provide on-the-job training and jobs. Practical internships (one to five months) facilitate job integration. The participant must thus confront an ordinary working environment, routine and time management. The agency running the FPI scheme covers the beneficiary's insurance and wage costs. In addition the association offers support for self-employment.

In **Malta**, between 2005 and 2006, the public Employment and Training Corporation (ETC)⁽⁷⁴³⁾ provided the empowerment skills programme for homeless women and women victims of domestic violence residing in women's shelters. The training consisted in self-empowerment and job-readiness skills. Illiterate women participating in the course were further encouraged to enrol in the ESF-funded programme 'Literacy training for those seeking employment' offered by the ETC⁽⁷⁴⁴⁾.

Source: EGGSI network national reports 2009

⁽⁷³⁸⁾ Association of Women's Shelters Austria, Poverty risk violence against women (Verein Autonome Österreichische Frauenhäuser, Armutsrisiko Gewalt an Frauen) (http://www.aoef.at/cms/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=168%3Aarmutsrisiko-gewalt-an-frauen&catid=55%3Aprojekte-der-informationsstelle-gegen-gewalt&Itemid=100&lang=de).

⁽⁷³⁹⁾ Pravobraniteljica za ravnopravnost spolova (Gender Equality Ombudsman) (2009), Izvješće o radu za 2008. godinu (Working Report for 2008) (<http://www.prs.hr/docs/PRSizvjesce2008.pdf>).

⁽⁷⁴⁰⁾ <http://www.pro-tukipiste.fi>

⁽⁷⁴¹⁾ <http://www.femmes-emploi.fr/article/une-plateforme-pour-reconcilier-les-femmes-victimes-de-violences-avec-l-emploi?page=1> and <http://www.metropole-nantaise.org/pages/plateforme-femmes-victimes-de-violences.php>

⁽⁷⁴²⁾ <http://www.ontheroadonlus.it/index.php>

⁽⁷⁴³⁾ 'Gender equality action plan 2009/10', Employment and Training Corporation, Malta (<http://www.etc.gov.mt/docs/GEAP%200910.pdf>).

⁽⁷⁴⁴⁾ http://www.msp.gov.mt/esf/measures/mes_2_3_part_18.pdf

Very few countries have income support programmes specifically aimed at women victims of violence. They are eligible for compensation granted to victims of violence either by the state or the perpetrator, and for general minimum income or income support programmes aimed at disadvantaged groups if they have no income or are below the poverty line. However, access to compensation is very low among women victims of violence.

An example of this support is available in Portugal, where the government, jointly with NGOs, provides a *Rendimento Social de Inserção (RSI)* ('Social inclusion income'), as well as care services for children, ill or elder relatives, allowing them to go back to work or maintain their jobs. This income assignment is correlated with vocational training and must be used to better adjust to reintegration in the labour market.

3. Overall conclusions and policy implications

Violence against women is the most prevalent and universal violation of human rights and has strong implications for gender equality, social inclusion and health.

This comparative study has provided an insight into the social aspects of violence against women, considering all types of violence (e.g. physical, psychological and sexual) and focusing primarily on analysis of gender equality, social inclusion and health strategies carried out at the national level, as well as the available action plans to combat violence, with specific attention to prevention, treatment and reintegration of victims into society.

In the European countries the political commitment to combat violence against women has been increasing over the last decade, thanks to the firm commitment and actions of the international institutions, women's movements and NGOs. This is evident in the improvements both in data availability and in the legislative and policy measures adopted in the countries considered. However, there are still many weaknesses and loopholes in the way violence against women is presented in the social and political debate and in the ways it is addressed.

Data availability and reliability

Across Europe several sources of information on VAW are available at both the national and the EU level, but they are inadequate for the purposes of comparative and trend analysis. Most of the data available are not comparable, nor collected on a regular basis, which makes it difficult to measure changes over time and determine the dimension of the phenomenon.

The first problem lies in the definition of violence against women, as over time different acts are being included as crimes in penal codes, specific laws are issued, and social awareness of the different forms of violence is rapidly evolving, modifying the attitude towards reporting them to the police and posing serious problems of interpretation in comparisons across countries and over the years. Under-reporting is particularly relevant, as the available data show that sexual assault on women is the crime least reported to the police. Across Europe, estimates range from 1 to 12 % of cases of rape being reported to the police. A significant barrier to reporting is women's lack of faith in the criminal justice system — police,

prosecutors and the courts⁽⁷⁴⁵⁾. Other reasons for not reporting an assault to the police as mentioned in EGGSI national reports relate to the risk of secondary victimisation of women during the course of investigation, especially if the act of violence occurs within a family, and to a lack of confidence in the interest of the police in actually solving cases of this nature.

The EGGSI national reports have shown that not only are the definitions of the various forms of violence different in each country, but also that the instruments and procedures to quantify them differ considerably, from quite loose concepts relying on the respondents' views to strictly defined ones based on international sets of questions. Moreover, data collection techniques, sample size and design differ throughout Europe.

In addition, violence-related data on women are a relatively new field of information that cuts across traditional areas of statistical production. Even where data are collected regularly, no specific attention is as yet being paid to the consequences of violence, in particular in terms of health, but also in relation to the economic and health costs. Specific attention to the short-term and long-term consequences of violence is lacking in most European countries. The quantification of individual and collective costs of violence would really help to move towards concrete mobilisation of the countries and of all the actors involved.

No comprehensive set of international indicators on violence against women have so far been developed, although this would facilitate collection of comparable data. Some international institutions such as the United Nations⁽⁷⁴⁶⁾, the US Agency for International Development (USAid)⁽⁷⁴⁷⁾ and the European Union have addressed these issues and proposed various indicators, but none have so far been developed homogeneously by EU countries.

⁽⁷⁴⁵⁾ Kelly, Liz (2000), *A war of attrition: reviewing new research on rape and sexual assault*, Trouble and Strife.

⁽⁷⁴⁶⁾ The proposed indicators include physical, sexual and intimate partner violence, harmful practices and some additional proposals on qualitative data. See also United Nations (2007), *Indicators to measure violence against women — Report of the Expert Group Meeting held on 8 to 10 October 2007*, organised by the United Nations Division for the Advancement of Women, United Nations Economic Commission for Europe, United Nations Statistical Division, Geneva (http://www.un.org/women-watch/daw/egm/IndicatorsVAW/IndicatorsVAW_EGM_report.pdf).

⁽⁷⁴⁷⁾ Bloom, Shelah S. (2007), *Violence against women and girls. A compendium of monitoring and evaluation indicators*. Washington (<http://www.awid.org/Issues-and-Analysis/Library/Violence-against-Women-and-Girls-a-Compendium-of-Monitoring-and-Evaluation-Indicators>).

The extent and different dimensions of violence against women

Domestic violence is the most common form of violence against women. There is no internationally agreed definition of domestic violence that addresses the issue in its entirety, but the main definitions agree that domestic violence is violence occurring in the family or domestic unit, including, inter alia: physical aggression/battering; mental, emotional and psychological aggression/abuse; rape and sexual abuse between spouses, regular or occasional partners and cohabitants.

Traditional practices harmful to women (such as crimes committed in the name of honour, female genital and sexual mutilation, forced marriages, dowry-related violence) are usually carried out within the family or in the wider community context. Rape and tradition-based violence are the most common forms of community-based violence.

Violence at the workplace may take several forms: threats and insults; mobbing or other forms of psychological aggression; sexual or racial harassment. There are large country differences in work-related violence: differences in the countries' socio-economic conditions, such as the general levels of crime, economic and social change, the presence and, in some countries, the growth of the informal economic sector can impact on types and levels of violence at work⁽⁷⁴⁸⁾. Some professions are more exposed, such as managerial and intellectual professions, intermediate professions and professions in the health and social service sectors (nurses, social workers)⁽⁷⁴⁹⁾. In the European countries there is a much wider awareness of the various forms of violence against employees in companies, while a hidden, but widespread form of violence, is that occurring within households, where psychological violence, humiliation and threat are very common situations.

Human trafficking affects more vulnerable groups, especially women and children. A 2006 study for

the European Commission⁽⁷⁵⁰⁾ showed that the phenomenon targets economically and socially deprived young women in particular. There is a close link between sexual exploitation and high levels of poverty. For instance, women who are trafficked from and within central and eastern European countries are usually poorly educated, and many come from deprived regions with high levels of unemployment. The assessment of the diffusion of trafficking throughout Europe is, however, limited by the lack of data and the absence of standardised guidelines for data collection at EU level⁽⁷⁵¹⁾.

Even though violence against women knows no geographical, cultural or ethnical barriers, several studies have demonstrated that specific groups of women are particularly affected: migrant and ethnic minority women, women asylum seekers, refugees, disabled women, women living in institutions, prostitutes, trafficked women, etc. These groups, besides being more likely to experience violence, are also often restricted in their access to escape routes and support services.

Migrant women face multidimensional vulnerability: they may be more subject to violence due to their community culture, or due to their particular frailty in terms of legal and economic position, but they can also be more exposed to violence exerted by native perpetrators. In addition, their status as migrants may restrict their access to escape routes, services and information. Migrant women from non-EU countries depending on their husbands with regard to both residence and work permits are in fact a particularly vulnerable group as they may be prevented from reporting domestic violence or resorting to divorce as they risk losing their residence permit. Migrant women may also experience violence in profoundly patriarchal communities, where they can be subject to FGM and forced marriages; they may experience violence as care workers, as nurses attending difficult patients, and also as irregular workers.

Violence against elderly and disabled women, and women with learning difficulties can take on forms

⁽⁷⁴⁸⁾ Di Martino, V., Hoel, H. and Cooper, C. L. (2003), Preventing violence and harassment in the workplace, European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions (<http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/pubdocs/2002/109/en/1/ef02109en.pdf>).

⁽⁷⁴⁹⁾ Jaspard, M. et l'équipe Enveff (2001), 'Nommer et compter les violences envers les femmes: une première enquête nationale en France', Populations & sociétés, No 364, January.

⁽⁷⁵⁰⁾ Fagan, C., Urwin, P. and Melling, K. (2006), Gender inequalities in the risks of poverty and social exclusion for disadvantaged groups in 30 European countries. Report prepared for the European Commission, Directorate-General for Employment, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities, Luxembourg (http://www.libertysecurity.org/IMG/pdf_Gender_inequalities.pdf).

⁽⁷⁵¹⁾ Europol (2009), Trafficking in human beings in the European Union. A Europol perspective (http://www.europol.europa.eu/publications/Serious_Crime_Overviews/Trafficking%20in%20Human%20Beings%20June%202009.pdf).

not only of active violence (in terms of physical, sexual or psychological abuse), but the women may also experience violence due to negligence, when needed support is not provided. Violence against older women may also take the form of financial exploitation or neglect by family members or other caregivers. Women with disabilities may also experience violence in institutional settings, perpetrated by family members, caretakers or strangers. Women with alcohol- and drug-related problems are also more likely to be victims of violence.

Women suffering economic vulnerability: in some European countries studies have evidenced that the number of women victims of domestic violence in the partner relationship is significantly higher for the unemployed with low incomes, than for employed women. Women living in households facing economic difficulties experience violence at home considerably more than the others. Low income and/or the financial dependence of women on their husbands/partners also limits the possibility to escape violence, and job precariousness significantly increases exposure to violence. Women may find themselves in an extremely vulnerable economic situation after the violence due to a variety of reasons: (a) traumatisation and health problems related to the violence may lead to job loss; (b) women economically dependent on their husbands/partners may lose sustenance; (c) the conclusion of a violent relationship in many cases implies becoming a lone parent, particularly exposed to poverty.

Lesbians may be victims of social prejudices because of their sexual orientation and transgender people because of their gender identity.

Social awareness and political debate

According to Unicef ⁽⁷⁵²⁾ there is no one single factor to account for violence perpetrated against women: 'several complex and interconnected institutionalised social and cultural factors have kept women particularly vulnerable to the violence directed at them, all of them manifestations of historically unequal power relations between men and women.'

Ingrained socio-cultural attitudes that make violence against women tolerated and considered a private

matter are the main cause behind violence and in many EU countries this is evident in the low social awareness of the issue, which does not correspond to the extent of the phenomenon.

Since 1990 in most EU countries, thanks to the role played by NGOs, feminist organisations and international pressure, VAW has gained salience in national policy agendas. As expected, the role of the media is very important: in some cases in raising the awareness and sensitiveness of the society to the issue of violence, but, in other cases, in reinforcing negative gender stereotypes on the role of women in society, contributing to the construction of a particular female stereotype that is degrading in terms of the image of women.

Mention must be made of a strong link between public awareness and attitudes to reporting. UN statistics collected in the context of its various surveys on crime levels and criminal justice trends ⁽⁷⁵³⁾ indicate significant variations in victimisation rates across Europe, with low rates in the southern and candidate countries and higher rates in the Nordic countries: as pointed out in the report, the figures per se often have limited relevance in terms of the incidence of the phenomenon, only offering some clue as to the level of awareness of the problem among the population and the different reporting attitudes in EU countries.

Assessing the policy approaches adopted by European countries

The multiplicity of causes of violence against women (cultural, economic, legislative, political, personal) requires a multidimensional policy approach, integrating legislative action, preventive action, protection of victims and support services covering different areas of intervention and addressing the entire population, as well as prosecution and treatment of the perpetrators.

Political commitment to combat violence against women has been increasing in the last decade, thanks to the firm commitment and actions of the international institutions, women's movements and NGOs. The contribution of international

⁽⁷⁵²⁾ Unicef (2000), 'Domestic violence against women and girls', Innocenti Digest, Vol. 6, June 2000, Innocenti Research Centre, Florence, Italy (http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/domesticviolencecampaign/Source/PDF_Innocenti_digest.pdf).

⁽⁷⁵³⁾ United Nations (2005), Eighth United Nations survey of crime trends and operations of criminal justice systems (<http://www.unodc.org/pdf/crime/eighthsurvey/8pv.pdf>), United Nations (2007), Questionnaire for the ninth United Nations survey of crime trends and operations of criminal justice systems, covering the period 2003–04 (http://www.unodc.org/documents/data-and-analysis/CTS9_by_%20indicator.pdf).

organisations and European programmes has been especially relevant in supporting institutional learning, particularly in the southern and eastern European countries and in candidate countries.

Although common trends can be detected in policies addressing violence against women, due also to the adhesion to the recommendations of international organisations and to awareness-raising campaigns and debate over the issue, there are still big differences between the European countries, which reflect their cultural attitudes and social awareness of the problem, as well as their welfare systems.

On the basis of the national reports and available literature, the usual classification of the European countries provides a good starting point to analyse differences in approaches across countries. The Nordic countries, especially, but also western ones, have a longer tradition of legislative intervention and specialised services to support women victims of violence, usually financed by public institutions at the national and local level. These countries have also shown increasing attention, in recent years, to tradition-based forms of violence and vulnerable groups of women, such as ethnic minority and migrant women, disabled women and lesbians. In the southern and eastern European countries, and in the three candidate countries (Croatia, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia and Turkey), on the other hand, attention to this issue is more recent, as is the increase in social awareness of the need to address forms of violence which have long been considered 'normal' within families, partners and institutions. In these countries women's movements, NGOs and international organisations have had a very important role in drawing the attention of politicians and the population to the issue and in supporting institutional learning in combating violence against women.

Overall the policy approach adopted has followed a common path. Initially, the focus was on legal reform, police training and the establishment of specialised services for victims. In more recent years the focus has shifted towards awareness-raising and prevention measures and the strengthening of actions to support victims and their social integration.

An extensive body of legislation has been implemented since the 1980s in the 33 countries considered in this report to address the different forms that violence against women may take. Today sexual

violence and/or physical domestic violence are penalised in all of the countries considered. This is an important improvement as, until recently, in many countries there was scant recognition of domestic violence as a criminal offence. However, in most countries some of the less common forms of violence against women are often assumed to be covered by more general criminal acts and this leaves loopholes in the protection of women. This occurs especially when the victim's request is necessary in order to proceed (as is still the case in the prosecution of domestic violence in some countries), or when violence is difficult to document (as in the case of psychological violence), or when the violence is not punishable if perpetrated with the 'consent' of the injured party or of her parent/guardian (a consent that may be extorted or come from cultural and family pressures as for sexual violence, genital mutilation, or forced marriage).

Another common problem in many European countries are the low rates of prosecution and conviction for domestic violence and rape. To address this problem, the Council of Europe indicates as examples of good practice the creation in the UK and Spain of specialised courts for gender (UK) or domestic violence (Spain), accompanied by specific awareness-raising and training programmes among the judiciary and the police systems.

Besides legislative measures, there is increased commitment among the European countries in recent years to adopting comprehensive policy strategies addressing violence against women within multi-year dedicated national action plans (NAPs) and other national strategies. All the 33 countries considered in this report, except Hungary, Italy and Luxembourg, have either adopted a comprehensive NAP directly addressing all forms of violence against women or separate plans for specific forms of violence. However, in Hungary, Italy and Luxembourg other strategic documents refer to VAW. In many cases the NAPs do not provide an adequate framework for effectively combating violence against women, as they do not clearly specify: the agencies responsible to achieve the goals and the role of the different organisations involved in the strategy; the concrete actions to be implemented; the budget allocated; the benchmarks to be achieved; and the time frame. In addition, only a few countries have monitored and evaluated outcomes.

While 27 countries have or have had in the recent past specific action plans addressing human trafficking,

and 23 domestic violence, other forms of violence have been subject to increasing attention only in very recent years and in fewer countries. Indeed, few countries address in their NAPs tradition-based forms of violence, sexual harassment in the workplace, stalking, or violence in institutional environments.

As for the types of intervention, in all the European countries considered there is increasing attention to prevention measures and support services, while reintegration programmes specifically targeted to the needs of women victims of violence are less widespread.

Among the prevention programmes, awareness-raising campaigns have been implemented in all countries, often spurred by the Council of Europe campaign (launched in 2006). Training programmes for practitioners entering in contact with (potential) victims, such as the judiciary and the police, health or social service providers and educators, are widespread in the countries considered. Interesting programmes directly involve men, teenagers, religious authorities and employers' organisations both in training and in awareness-raising campaigns in order to induce peer effects and change deep-rooted behaviours. More recently, measures for the treatment of men perpetrators of violence have been implemented in many European countries. Recent trends also show an increasing attention to data collection and monitoring, and, even if still limited, to the monitoring and evaluation of the effectiveness of specific programmes.

Women's shelters and helplines are the cornerstone for the provision of immediate support to women victims of violence. Shelters and helplines are available in all the countries considered, also providing psychological treatment and legal assistance. Dedicated health treatment is also fairly widespread, while support services for victims of sexual assault and rape are less common and very few countries provide specialised services for victims of tradition-based violence that largely affect ethnic minority and immigrant women.

The provision of shelters has increased in all countries, but is still not sufficient to cover the need in most of them, and often there is little or no attention to reaching groups of women such as disabled, ethnic minority and immigrant women, women living in rural areas. Overall, the available places cover only 37.5 % of those needed in order to

comply with the recommendation of the Council of Europe of one family place⁽⁷⁵⁴⁾ in a women's shelter per 10 000 inhabitants in every country. Only four countries — Luxembourg, Malta, the Netherlands and Norway — comply with the recommendations and six other countries — Austria, Slovenia, the Czech Republic, Germany, Liechtenstein and Croatia — are close to doing so⁽⁷⁵⁵⁾. Coverage is very low in most southern and eastern European countries. Among the available shelters, more than half on average provide 24-hour service and half have a multi-language service. In most of the countries considered for which information is available, state funding accounts for at least 70 %.

Besides their scarce diffusion, other major shortcomings in the provision of women's shelters and crisis centres are: their concentration in urban areas, which greatly reduces accessibility for women living in rural and peripheral areas; the lack of stable funding, which reduces the continuity of service and prevents long-term planning; and the lack of national guidelines on service quality standards. In addition, in some countries the quality of accommodation and service provided is low, especially where no specific quality standard is defined.

Support in accessing affordable housing and employment and training services are the main forms of reintegration measures provided in the countries considered, while income support provisions for women who do not dispose of an income of their own are less widespread. In most countries, integrated services are provided by the regional and local authorities and NGOs. The main weaknesses of these interventions are insufficient funding (which is likely to be further reduced in the future, due to the economic and financial crisis) and low coverage of the needs.

A positive development in recent years is the increasing attention in many European countries to the needs of specific vulnerable groups of women, who are more at risk of being victims of violence and discrimination, such as ethnic minority and immigrant women, prostitutes and women victims of trafficking,

⁽⁷⁵⁴⁾ A 'family place' requires a bed space for the mother and the average number of children in the country. See Council of Europe (2008), *Combating violence against women: minimum standards for support services*, Directorate-General of Human Rights and Legal Affairs, Strasbourg (<http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/domesticviolencecampaign/Source/EG-VAW-CONF%282007%29Study%20rev.en.pdf>).

⁽⁷⁵⁵⁾ According to EGGSI national reports 2010 and WAVE (2009), Country report 2009 — Reality check on European services for women and children victims of violence. A right for protection and support?, Vienna (http://www.wave-network.org/images/doku/wave_countryreport_2009_1.pdf).

women with disabilities, young and elderly women, and women living in rural and peripheral areas.

Given the multidimensional nature of violence against women and the multiple consequences that this may generate, the design and implementation of measures to combat violence against women usually involve different actors and stakeholders: national and local public institutions, service providers, NGOs and women's movements. NGOs play an important role in setting up and managing shelters, hotlines and services to support victims and in lobbying for legislation and intervention. In some countries (Cyprus, the Czech Republic, Latvia) the NGOs are in fact the only providers of support services. Due to their long-standing experience, NGOs and women's institutions in many countries are also involved in consultation processes during the drafting of legislation and action plans.

The need to adopt a multidimensional approach and systems of coordination and networking, both within public institutions and between public institutions and NGOs, is also increasingly recognised. In all the countries considered there is increasing awareness and progress in developing broad and multi-agency policy frameworks and partnerships at both the national and local level, in some cases individuating a coordinating body for implementation and monitoring.

Interesting forms of international partnerships among European countries have also been implemented, often financed by European funds and programmes. Many projects relate to awareness-raising measures and the fight against trafficking. These projects appear very important in supporting the diffusion of good practices and institutional learning, especially among the southern and eastern European countries. In these countries, EU funds and initiatives are also an important source of financial support for the women's NGOs working in the field of violence against women.

Lessons learned and policy implications

Comparative analysis of the dimensions and extent of violence against women and of the policy approaches adopted in European countries highlights improvements but also shortcomings, which call for increased commitment on the part of the international and national institutions.

The main weaknesses relate to:

- the fragmentation of interventions and funds, with little coordination within a comprehensive long-term strategy;
- the lack and insecurity of funding: the main services supporting women victims of violence (shelters and hotlines, but also healthcare and police services) are underfunded and managed on a voluntary basis in most countries. The insecurity of funding, which is usually provided on a year-to-year basis, makes long-term commitments and planning impossible. This is the main problem of policies combating violence against women. Even in those countries where dedicated NAPs do exist, the amount of resources earmarked for combating gender-related violence is still very limited and fragmented. This reduces the continuity and effectiveness of interventions and, in particular, results in insecure funding for services supporting the victims. In recent years the cuts in social spending have greatly affected measures addressing violence against women;
- the lack of systematic training of service providers, which may result in low levels of professionalism, especially among the police, the judiciary system, the healthcare and social and educational systems;
- the scant attention to tradition-based violence, violence in the workplace and psychological forms of violence, which are particularly difficult to detect and address, and the scarcity of services addressing particularly vulnerable groups of women;
- the lack of comparable and reliable data and indicators together with the lack of monitoring and evaluation provisions to assess the effectiveness and impacts of the measures adopted.

In order to overcome these weaknesses, the countries' experience and evaluation studies underline some factors which appear to be relevant in supporting the effectiveness of intervention.

- The first is the importance of implementing integrated and multilevel policy responses, combining various different measures (legal, economic, social and cultural) at different levels. To avoid the fragmentation of interventions and to overcome the limitations due to the scarce financial resources available, VAW measures have to be

addressed adopting a comprehensive strategy considering all the relevant dimensions which are involved (e.g. health, social, economic, juridical issues). Another important lesson from the countries' experience is the risk associated with shifting from specific programmes directly addressing violence against women towards general gender equality strategies.

- Integrated programmes require good governance and coordination capacities able to mobilise local resources and involve a wide range of actors to generate innovations in policymaking and changes in social attitudes.
- Targeting measures to the specific needs of different groups of women often difficult to reach (such as ethnic minority and migrant women, trafficked women, the elderly, disabled women, teenagers) is another condition for effectiveness. This implies good knowledge of the specific needs and the capacity to find appropriate solutions.

International institutions and, especially, the European Union have had and will probably continue to have a very important role in supporting awareness-raising and interventions to combat violence against women. Besides supporting a European human rights convention to prevent and combat violence against women, as proposed by the Council of Europe, it is important for the EU institutions to place VAW among the core priorities of their intervention and promote a comprehensive approach in preventing and combating violence against women, as proposed by the European Commission's Women's Charter in March 2010.

- At the basis of a comprehensive approach is the development of a consolidated and operational definition of the various forms of violence, allowing for the elaboration and implementation of specific indicators, common at least for all EU countries.
- Data-gathering, indicators and monitoring/evaluation are essential for the implementation of effective policies and legislation. Data collection and research on violence against women and its consequences at the EU level, in addition to national research, is already recognised as having significant benefits. It would be important to support investment in monitoring and evaluation tools at the EU level to sustain the planning and implementation of interventions through a learning process. The monitoring and evaluation of the

effects of interventions combating VAW would be improved with the definition and dissemination of specific guidelines, and the development and diffusion of specific indicators and tools to evaluate the (potential) impact of interventions and the capacity to reach targets. Qualitative monitoring activities should also be implemented, to derive lessons on how and why results are (not) reached. *Ex-post* evaluations and participative evaluations, involving a broad range of key stakeholders, could offer support in drawing conclusions on how to overcome the critical aspects arising from the implementation of the planned interventions.

- Promoting the adoption of an integrated approach, including awareness-raising, training and support services, should be put forward on the basis of NAPs. This means supporting the adoption of dedicated national action plans addressing all forms of VAW, clearly indicating the goals to be achieved, the actions to be adopted, the resources earmarked, the time frame and the data, indicators and monitoring systems to be implemented in order to evaluate the effectiveness of the action plan. A coordination body with a clear mandate to coordinate and implement the NAPs would probably improve policy consistency. General standards and adequate resources for services providing assistance and protection to the victims are further needed. Cooperation and networking of all the relevant actors (police, courts, social and health services, housing services, educational institutions, women's organisations) would contribute to achieving long-lasting effects.
- In order to improve institutional learning and policymaking, the promotion of EU-level transnational networking and the exchange of experiences for institutional learning with specific EU-wide programmes and funds is important. Given the wide variety of experiences across EU regions and Member States, the dissemination of useful information on these experiences could be a way to support institutional learning. The attention of institutions should be addressed on aspects that are rarely dealt with in laws and action plans.
- Continued financing from EU financial instruments is important to support the financing of training and support measures, together with awareness-raising campaigns on violence against women to draw public attention and stigmatise violence against women, its causes and damaging effects for both the victims and the community.

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Council of Europe: Country links http://www.coe.int/t/dg2/equality/domesticviolencecampaign/memberstates_en.asp

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Annexes

Annex 2.1 — Examples of awareness-raising programmes

Country	Title and year of implementation	Description	Provider and partners involved	Target group
Belgium	'Violence during pregnancy', since November 2007 ⁽⁷⁵⁶⁾ (regional)	Building a network on intra-family violence; raising awareness among the general public and among medical care providers (practical tools); aid and care to victims and offenders; actions taken in the provinces: making posters, referral materials, brochures for partners, brochures for medical care providers, websites.	NGO ZIJN; social non-profit organisations, social institutions (CAW's), etc.	General public, medical care providers, victims and offenders, vulnerable groups
Croatia	'Fight against family violence over women' ⁽⁷⁵⁷⁾ , 2006–08 (national)	Numerous activities around key dates. Besides round tables, posters, TV or radio broadcasts, distribution of leaflets, etc., the campaign included many publicly known male persons. Also during the football qualification game all Croatian players wore T-shirts with the campaign motto 'There is no excuse for violence'.	Ministry of Family, Veterans' Affairs and Intergenerational Solidarity	General public
Cyprus	Campaign for teenagers in peer education skills	Training workshops in secondary schools on gender-based violence involving teenagers in discussion and experiential activities on this issue. Teenagers are also trained to be able to train their peers on issues such as bullying, violence within adolescent romantic relationships and gender stereotypes. Workshops for creating posters which include their own key messages addressing violence in adolescent relationships ⁽⁷⁵⁸⁾ .	Mediterranean Institute of Gender Studies	Young people
Cyprus	Code of practice	Code of practice addressing sexual harassment at work on the basis of ILO standards and EU principles. This initiative is part of an OEB framework of action for promoting gender equality at work and combating all forms of gender-based discrimination. In promoting and facilitating the broadest possible adoption of the code, OEB believes that it is of vital importance to introduce a provision in the existing legislation, stating that the existence and implementation of the code would serve to defend those employers against which complaints are lodged relating to instances of sexual harassment ⁽⁷⁵⁹⁾ .	Employers and Industrialists Federation (OEB), Equality Authority	Firms
Denmark	Vold i familien ('Violence in the family'), NAP 2005–08 (local)	To increase awareness of the phenomenon of violence in the family.	Ministry of Social Affairs, professionals in public services (social and healthcare services, police, day-care services, schools)	Professionals in public services (social and healthcare services, police)

⁽⁷⁵⁶⁾ <http://www.geweldenzwangerschap.be>

⁽⁷⁵⁷⁾ Ministarstvo obitelji, branitelja i međugeneracijske solidarnosti (Ministry of Family, Veterans' Affairs and Intergenerational Solidarity) (2006); Ministarstvo obitelji, branitelja i međugeneracijske solidarnosti (Ministry of Family, Veterans' Affairs and Intergenerational Solidarity) (2009a).

⁽⁷⁵⁸⁾ Mediterranean Institute of Gender Studies (MIGS) (<http://www.medinstitutgenderstudies.org/news/perspective-peer-education-roots-for-school-pupils-to-enhance-consciousness-of-tackling-and-impeding-women-violence-in-europe/>).

⁽⁷⁵⁹⁾ <http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/eiro/2004/07/inbrief/cy0407101n.htm>

Country	Title and year of implementation	Description	Provider and partners involved	Target group
Denmark	'Be a man — Men say no to violence' ⁽⁷⁶⁰⁾	The campaign took place in August 2007 and focused on the importance of men taking responsibility for their behaviour, as well as the need for non-violent men to stand up against violence against women and break the silence. The campaign was advertised in Danish as well as foreign languages on outdoor posters, buses, trains, television and websites. The key idea of the campaign was to present the typical excuses made by perpetrators of violence and in some cases also by the victims of violence, e.g. 'My wife fell on the bathroom floor again', 'My girlfriend walked into a door again' or 'My wife fell down the stairs again'. The campaign also included role models.	Ministry of Gender Equality	Men and general public
Denmark	Website on dating violence, 2008 ⁽⁷⁶¹⁾	In order to prevent violence among young people who are dating, a website (http://www.ditforhold.dk) has been launched which includes information about dating violence, counselling possibilities for young people, where to seek support, and the music of popular artists.	Ministry of Gender Equality	Young people
Estonia	TV fundraising campaign 2009 ⁽⁷⁶²⁾ (national)	Special Christmas charity broadcast on Estonian national TV dedicated to domestic VAW. During the broadcast funds for the women's shelters were raised.	Estonian national television and Estonian Women's Shelters Union	General public
Finland	Kotirauhaa ('Home peace') 2008 ⁽⁷⁶³⁾ (national)	Public awareness-raising campaign to improve the knowledge of the issue, encourage women to report violence and sensitise the public actors.	The Family Federation, Amnesty Finland, Federation of Mother and Child Homes and Shelters, Monika-Naiset Multicultural Women's Association, Women's Helpline Naisten Linja, Rape Crisis Centre Tukinainen, Ministry of Social Affairs and Health	Men; population; decision-makers; professionals (social and healthcare, police, teachers, etc.).
France	'Don't let violence spread, react', 2008 ⁽⁷⁶⁴⁾ (national)	Information communication campaign aiming at encouraging action/reaction on the part of both women victims, witnesses and perpetrators of violence.	Ministry of Social Affairs and Labour. State institutions, expert in the field of violence against women, representatives of NGOs, professionals from the media	General public, youth, children, inhabitants of problem areas, migrant women
Hungary	Violet Ribbon Award, since 2008 ⁽⁷⁶⁵⁾ (national)	The award calls attention to the professional introduction and analysis of violence against women in the mass media.	Ministry of Social Affairs and Labour, other governmental agencies, experts, NGOs, the media/journalists	Journalists, the media

⁽⁷⁶⁰⁾ Ligestillingsministeriet (2005), Handlingsplan til bekæmpelse af mænds vold mod kvinder og børn i familien 2005–08 København: Ligestillingsministeriet (<http://www.voldmodkvinder.dk/default.asp?id=85&Lcid=da&AjrNws=43&AjrNwsPg=1> and <http://www.voldmodkvinder.dk>).

⁽⁷⁶¹⁾ Schütt et al.(2008); accounted for in Section 1.2.

⁽⁷⁶²⁾ <http://etv.err.ee/index.php?0556069&kuu=2010-04-04>

⁽⁷⁶³⁾ <http://www.kotirauhaa.fi>

⁽⁷⁶⁴⁾ <http://www.stop-violences-femmes.gouv.fr>

⁽⁷⁶⁵⁾ <http://www.szmm.gov.hu>

Country	Title and year of implementation	Description	Provider and partners involved	Target group
Hungary	'Stop male violence' project ⁽⁷⁶⁶⁾ (regional)	To engage men who want to do something against women's subordination and violence against women in their own lives or in general; training sessions for professionals; publication and dissemination of books and leaflets; media campaigns; a gender film club; a 'Stop male violence' hotline.	NGO, international partners, other feminist NGOs	Men, who are engaged in the fight against gender-based violence
Iceland	V-Day	V-Day (standing for 'victory day', it takes its original idea from the play, The Vagina Monologues) is a regular campaign using various slogans ('True men say no to rape') to raise the awareness of the risk and in particular direct the attention towards the perpetrators, their images and responsibilities.	NGO, international partners, other feminist NGOs	General public and men
Ireland	16 days — Public awareness — ongoing each year ⁽⁷⁶⁷⁾ (national)	Awareness-raising actions, creative public advocacy, fact sheets, myth busters.	Women's Aid and women's community	General public
Ireland	Ruhama — TV advertisement and video ⁽⁷⁶⁸⁾ (national)	Awareness-raising campaign on prostitution and trafficking.	Ruhama, Department of Justice Anti-Trafficking Unit, An Garda Síochána, Department of Education	Men
Italy	MUVI — Developing strategies to work with men using violence in intimate relationships ⁽⁷⁶⁹⁾ (regional)	To raise awareness of men's violent behaviour against women in intimate relationships.	Bologna municipality, Casa delle donne per non subire violenza ONLUS (local shelter)	Personnel from various public sectors, general public
Italy	One-week-long initiative within schools (national)	Initiative including a contest among students for the realisation of a communication campaign on the issue 'I say NO to violence' for 2010. Campuses of non-violence for university students.	Ministry of Equal Opportunities	Students
Italy	National campaign against stalking ⁽⁷⁷⁰⁾ (national)	Advertising the new anti-stalking national law and spreading the free telephone number 1522 that links victims with police, providing psychological and legal support.	Department for Equal Opportunities, Presidency of Council of Ministries, Carabinieri (police)	Women and men victims of persecution
Italy	'Excluding no one' ⁽⁷⁷¹⁾ (national)	Awareness-raising on FGM, including the mass media, activities at the International Day Against Female Genital Mutilation and implementation of a committee for prevention and fight against FGM.	Department for Equal Opportunities, Presidency of Council of Ministries, Minister for Internal Affairs	Migrants, women at risk and victims of female genital mutilation
Italy	'Erase the trade' 800 290 290 (national)	Sensitise on this issue and advertise the free telephone number 800 290 290 for victims of human trafficking and sexual exploitation.	Department for Equal Opportunities, Presidency of Council of Ministries, Minister for Internal Affairs	Women

⁽⁷⁶⁶⁾ <http://www.stop-ferfieroszak.hu>

⁽⁷⁶⁷⁾ <http://www.womensaid.ie>

⁽⁷⁶⁸⁾ <http://www.ruhama.ie>

⁽⁷⁶⁹⁾ <http://www.muviproject.eu>

⁽⁷⁷⁰⁾ <http://www.pariopportunita.gov.it>

⁽⁷⁷¹⁾ <http://www.pariopportunita.gov.it>

Country	Title and year of implementation	Description	Provider and partners involved	Target group
Latvia	Forum for the safety of women in Latvia, Sept. 2009–Feb. 2010 ⁽⁷⁷²⁾ (national)	To promote changes in policy and legal acts in Latvia to effectively reduce violence against women.	Marta Resource Centre (NGO) and other NGOs	Women
Lithuania	Activities related to Council of Europe 'Stop violence against women' activity ⁽⁷⁷³⁾ (national)	Vilnius Women House distributed to the Lithuanian parliament (Seimas), ministries and women NGOs publications and leaflets of the 'Stop violence against women' campaign of the Council of Europe.	Vilnius women's house (NGO); other NGOs, and Council of Europe	Women
Lithuania	Distribution of legal knowledge, April–December 2006 ⁽⁷⁷⁴⁾ (national)	Raising of public awareness to the zero tolerance of violence against women in society and family.	Vilnius women's house (NGO); other NGOs, public representatives, legal institutions, professional groups, members of local communities, mass media	Women
Malta	'White ribbon' campaign, 2007 and 2008 ⁽⁷⁷⁵⁾ (national)	The Domestic Violence Commission has headed a number of awareness-raising initiatives, including activities to mark the International Day for the Elimination of VAW.	Media	General public
Netherlands	'Pretty woman', since 1996 ⁽⁷⁷⁶⁾ (regional)	The programme offers four services to girls: individual assistance, group assistance, information and awareness-raising, and expertise development.	Foundation Stade (NGO), De Rading (NGO) and Office for Youth Care (governmental)	Girls at risk of prostitution
Poland	16 days of activism against gender-based violence ⁽⁷⁷⁷⁾ (national)	In the framework of the international campaign, activities were also carried out in Poland, for raising awareness about gender-based violence as a human rights issue at the local, national, regional and international levels, and strengthening local work.	Women's Global Leadership Institute	General public
Portugal	Project bonds and boundaries ⁽⁷⁷⁸⁾ (national)	Strengthen public understanding about human trafficking, extending its visibility to other forms of trafficking, labour exploitation (especially household work), organ trafficking/illegal adoption, other than sexual exploitation.	UMAR	General public
Romania	Awareness-raising on trafficking, 2007 ⁽⁷⁷⁹⁾ (national)	Raise awareness about trafficking-related dangers and promote the toll-free number on radio, television and three national newspapers, distribution of leaflets, flyers, etc.	Ministry of Administration and Interior/National Agency against Trafficking in Persons, media	Young people (15 to 25 years old)
Slovakia	Fifth women campaign, 2001–03 ⁽⁷⁸⁰⁾ (national)	Awareness-raising public campaign for zero tolerance of VAW.	Fenestra, Pro Familia, ProChoice, Esfem, Aspekt, Altera, Slovak Women Alliance, different media partners	General public and professionals

⁽⁷⁷²⁾ <http://www.marta.lv>

⁽⁷⁷³⁾ <http://www.vmotnam.lt/>

⁽⁷⁷⁴⁾ <http://www.vmotnam.lt/i/File/MoteruNamai.pdf>

⁽⁷⁷⁵⁾ <http://webapps01.un.org/vawdatabase/home.action>

⁽⁷⁷⁶⁾ <http://www.huiselijkgeweld.nl/interventies/hulpaanbos/PrettyWomanhulpverlening.html> and <http://www.stichtingstade.nl/Pretty-Woman-97.html>

⁽⁷⁷⁷⁾ <http://www.cwgl.rutgers.edu/16days/about.html>

⁽⁷⁷⁸⁾ <http://www.umarfeminismos.org/projectos/lacosefronteiras.html>

⁽⁷⁷⁹⁾ <http://anitp.mira.gov.ro/en/trafic/rapoarte/raport%202007%20engleza.pdf>

⁽⁷⁸⁰⁾ http://www.moznostvolby.sk/Szena/engl/index_engl.htm

Country	Title and year of implementation	Description	Provider and partners involved	Target group
Slovenia	'The adults are here to help', 2006 ⁽⁷⁸¹⁾ (national)	Increase awareness of violence against children and ensure more effective help. One-hour class dedicated to reasons for violence and its consequences and various forms of aid.	Ministry of Labour, Family and Social Affairs and Ministry of Education and Sport	Children
Spain	Ante la violencia de género: no te cortes, haz tu corto ('In front of gender violence: don't be shy, make your short movie') ⁽⁷⁸²⁾ (national)	Campaign in schools and for children outside the formal education schemes, the minors in judicial centres, who have a high risk of perpetrating and suffering violence. Active and participative methodology approach. Short movies have been made by some minors involved in judicial cases.	Fundación Mujeres; Fundación Diagrama manages the centres where the short movies have been made by the minors	Children (involved in judicial cases)
Spain	Entre un hombre y una mujer, maltrato ZERO ('Between a man and a woman, abuse zero') ⁽⁷⁸³⁾ (national)	A campaign open to everybody. Famous and regular people participate and present a common view totally opposed to gender-based violence.	Ibero-American General Secretary, Ibero-American Youth Organisation, Spanish Agency for International Cooperation and Development and the Ministry of Equality	General public
Turkey	'Stop violence against women' campaign, 2004–08 ⁽⁷⁸⁴⁾ (national)	Raising awareness on violence against women and customary/honour killings with one key priority being raising men's consciousness on the issue.	Directorate-General on the Status of Women (under the State Ministry of Women and Family Affairs)	General public
UK	Zero tolerance ⁽⁷⁸⁵⁾ (national)	Zero tolerance target campaigns and educational activities aimed at the wider public, rather than just perpetrators or victims of abuse, to raise awareness about the nature and prevalence of all forms of male violence against women and children.	Zero Tolerance Charitable Trust	General public

Source: EGGSI network national reports, 2010.

⁽⁷⁸¹⁾ <http://www.uradni-list.si/1/objava.jsp?urlid=200941&stevilka=1987>

⁽⁷⁸²⁾ <http://www.fundacionmujeres.es/>

⁽⁷⁸³⁾ <http://www.maltratozero.com>

⁽⁷⁸⁴⁾ http://www.unfpa.org.tr/turkey/Turkey_Advocacy.htm (English)

⁽⁷⁸⁵⁾ <http://www.zerotolerance.org.uk>

Annex 2.2 — Examples of training and education programmes to prevent violence against women

Country	Title and year of implementation	Description	Provider and partners involved	Target group
Austria	Curriculum 'Violence against women and children', 2001–06 ⁽⁷⁸⁶⁾ (local)	Improvement of the detection of VAW by training hospital staff.	City Councillors of Health, Women and Children/Youth, the 'Women's emergency hotline', Department of Women's Affairs, Youth and Family Offices, Vienna Hospital Association, police, Forensic Medicine Institute	Healthcare personnel
Austria	Training programmes for healthcare personnel	Guidebook, further training for medical occupations to increase awareness and knowledge, recognition of types and patterns of violence.	Multi-agency initiative	Healthcare personnel
Czech Republic	Manual for effective interdisciplinary collaboration in cases of domestic violence ⁽⁷⁸⁷⁾ (local)	The manual provides a theoretical overview, an overview of legislative measures, and the progress and work of an interdisciplinary team; translation of the manual for effective interdisciplinary cooperation in cases of domestic violence created under the Daphne 'Bridging gaps' project.	ROSA (NGO), police, Mendiků Prague 4 elementary school, lawyer, psychiatrist	Professionals
Denmark	'Youth and violence', 2004 ⁽⁷⁸⁸⁾ (national)	National awareness-raising campaign for young people, including a penal, implementation of a hotline and of a website (http://www.ditforhold.dk). At local level: publication of information material, debates in schools.	Ministry of Gender Equality, Council for the Prevention of Violence, schools	Young people
Estonia	'Social and healthcare teachers against violence', HEVI, 2008–10 ⁽⁷⁸⁹⁾ (national)	Elaboration of a teachers' guidebook and training material for awareness-raising on VAW.	Ministry of Social Affairs, Gender Equality Department, Tallinn Healthcare College, Tartu School of Healthcare	Health- and social care trainers
Estonia	Training for journalists, 2004	Two one-day training sessions for journalists on the issues of prostitution and trafficking in women. Both training sessions were project-based.	Women's Studies and Resource Centre (ENUT)	Journalists
Finland	Who is responsible for beating? — A handbook, 2005 ⁽⁷⁹⁰⁾ (national)	In order to develop operation models and action plans for the work against violence at the local level, different local pilot projects for preventing violence were implemented. A handbook was also produced for municipalities for the prevention of partner and intimate violence.	Ministry of Social Affairs and Health, the economic region of Forssa, the city of Porvoo and the municipality of Vihti	Decision-makers, local authorities, professionals

⁽⁷⁸⁶⁾ http://www.frauengesundheit-wien.at/export/sites/fsw/diesie/downloads/broschueren/Violence_Manual_2006.pdf

⁽⁷⁸⁷⁾ http://www.rosa-os.cz/fileadmin/rosa/zlom_manual.pdf

⁽⁷⁸⁸⁾ <http://www.lige.dk/ungeogvold.asp> and <http://www.ditforhold.dk/forside.aspx>

⁽⁷⁸⁹⁾ <http://www.palmenia.helsinki.fi/hevi/index.asp>

⁽⁷⁹⁰⁾ <http://www.stm.fi>

Country	Title and year of implementation	Description	Provider and partners involved	Target group
Germany	Signal — Intervention in health service ⁽⁷⁹¹⁾ since 1997	Training measures for medical staff to improve medicare for women who have experienced violence and to make professional health workers more aware of the whole issue: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • provide information on violence against women for doctors and other medical staff; • raise awareness of the topic; • increase sensibilisation of gender-specific violence and its effects on victims; • treat victims of violence in a sensitive way. 	NGO on the basis of volunteer work, members of anti-violence projects in Berlin, partners from health service and academic experts	Employees in the health sector
Iceland	Atlas of violence in intimate relationships, 2008–09 ⁽⁷⁹²⁾ (national)	A comprehensive educational handbook for teachers and educational personnel. It addresses the main issues related to VAW.	Ministry of Social Affairs and Social Security, University of Iceland, healthcare, primary and secondary schools, the police, midwives	Teachers, general public, social workers, midwives, the police and health-care personnel
Italy	'I say NO to violence!', 2010 (national)	One-week-long initiatives within schools; contest among students for the realisation of a communication campaign on the issue 'I say NO to violence'. Campuses of non-violence for university students.	Department for Equal Opportunities, Presidency of Council of Ministries, Minister for Education, University and Research, Arma dei Carabinieri, police, Telefono Azzurro and NGOs	Young people of school age, teachers, parents, university students
Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	Training for professional structures working on domestic violence ⁽⁷⁹³⁾ (national)	Increasing knowledge among professionals about the problem of DV, including information on support possibilities for victims when reporting violence; exchanging of experiences among different occupational structures; increasing coordination between institutions; training of stakeholders.	Association for Emancipation, Solidarity and Equality of Women in RM, WAVE project, Austria/Ministry of Labour and Social Policy	Professionals
Malta	Personal and social development syllabus, 2009 (national)	Awareness-raising on domestic violence as part of the educational curriculum.	State Ministry of Education, Employment and the Family, and secondary schools	Young people
Poland	'My rights are my chance', since 2007 ⁽⁷⁹⁴⁾ (local)	Training courses offered to women from rural areas mainly on legal and practical aspects related to gender-based violence	Association of Bieszczady Women 'Our Chance', Specialist Assistance Centre	Women in rural areas
Portugal	'Changes to art — Young protagonists in gender violence prevention' ⁽⁷⁹⁵⁾ (regional)	Reinforce youth's respect for differences and opportunities for equality, empowering them to grow as subjects and agents of their own change.	UMAR	Young people and parents, teachers

⁽⁷⁹¹⁾ <http://www.signal-intervention.de>

⁽⁷⁹²⁾ <http://www.felagsmalaraduneyti.is/utgefild-efni/utgafa/nr/4152>

⁽⁷⁹³⁾ <http://www.esem.org.mk>

⁽⁷⁹⁴⁾ <http://szansa.bieszczady.info.pl/>

⁽⁷⁹⁵⁾ <http://www.umarfeminismos.org/projectos/mudancascomarte.html>

Country	Title and year of implementation	Description	Provider and partners involved	Target group
Slovakia	'Pink and blue world', 2005–08 ⁽⁷⁹⁶⁾ (national)	Introduction of a gender-sensitive approach in education in Slovakia.	NGOs: Aspekt, Občan a demokracia, puppet theatre 'Na rázcestí', 'Škola základ života'; elementary school Trnava, WEGA	Secondary school teachers, students of educational programmes, general public
UK	'Reduce abuse' project (regional)	Developing of a teaching and resource pack for teaching staff and a training programme for teachers addressing violence in families.	Organisations from the statutory and voluntary sectors; education and cultural services, the police and local Women's Aid	Teachers in primary and secondary schools
UK	Respect (2001)	Teaching materials for primary (aged 9–12) and secondary (aged 14–16) school pupils and youth groups. The materials include a mixture of interactive games, puzzles, history and discussion that encourage young people to explore gender stereotypes, discrimination, power and the abuse of power, communication in relationships and how they themselves can become active in making a positive contribution to their community.	The Zero Tolerance Charitable Trust, local authorities, primary schools, secondary schools and youth groups	Children and young people aged 9–16
Turkey	'Promoting gender equality' twinning project, April 2007–October 2008 ⁽⁷⁹⁷⁾	The staff of the Directorate-General on the Status of Women received training on organisational development, internal and external communication, project management and resource mobilisation, gender equality, the EU acquis and EU policies.	Directorate-General on the Status of Women (under the State Ministry of Women and Family Affairs), Ministry of Social Affairs	Personnel from public agencies

Source: EGGSI network national reports, 2010.

⁽⁷⁹⁶⁾ <http://www.ruzovyamodrysvet.sk/>

⁽⁷⁹⁷⁾ http://www.ksgm.gov.tr/en/Project_twinning.php

Annex 2.3 — Examples of programmes for the treatment of abusers

Country	Title and year of implementation	Description	Provider and partners involved	Target group
Austria	Anti-violence programme, 1999 (national)	After eviction, the men get counselling and help to change their behaviour.	Men counselling service, Domestic Abuse Intervention Centre and referring institutions	Men and their families/partners
Croatia	Psychosocial treatment of perpetrators of family violence ⁽⁷⁹⁸⁾ (national)	Individual assessment through two to four meetings with a client; clear protocol of work, including a meeting with the victim; treatment over 16 weeks; continuing evaluation, including contacts with victims; final evaluation after 6 and after 12 months.	Society for Psychological Assistance, courts, state attorney's offices, centres for social work	Men perpetrators
Denmark	Dialogue against violence ⁽⁷⁹⁹⁾ , 2005–08 (local)	The project develops and tests a new methodology for the treatment of violent men.	Ministry of Social Affairs, local therapists	Violent men and their partners
Estonia	Rehabilitation and support groups for perpetrators, since 2005 (local)	To provide rehabilitation services for violently behaving men who want to change their behaviour in order to improve their close relationships.	Ministry of Justice and 'Free from the Violence' NGO (Vägivallast vabaks)	Men perpetrators
Finland	Stopping violence programme ⁽⁸⁰⁰⁾ (local)	To provide tools and skills for men who want to stop their violent behaviour. Combination of individual and group work according to needs; follow-up after six months to support change towards non-violent behaviour.	Lyömätön Linja Espoossa, Naisten apu Espoossa	Men/perpetrators and migrant men
Finland	Mikkeli prison, since 2003	Pilot project to encourage prisoners to seek help for their violent behaviour. A model for motivating and referring prisoners with a risk of violence to treatment is currently being developed.	Governmental agencies	Men in prison
Finland	'Time for a man', since 2005 (national)	To encourage immigrant men to seek help for violent behaviour; to develop work practices in prevention and stopping violence that take into account the needs of immigrant groups; different support measures.	NGOs: Lyömätön Linja Espoossa, Naisten apu Espoossa, Somali League in Finland; city of Espoo	Immigrant men, professionals working with migrants
Finland	Jussi project ⁽⁸⁰¹⁾ for men, 1994 (regional)	Provide emergency assistance, therapeutic conversation and advice and guidance for violent men.	Federation of Mother and Child Homes and Shelters ⁽⁸⁰²⁾	
Germany	Round table (HAIP), since 1997 ⁽⁸⁰³⁾ (regional)	The aim is to involve men in their own responsibility to end violence by providing social training.	Governmental welfare agencies and NGOs, police, justice, involving the Round Table of the City of Hanover	Men perpetrators

⁽⁷⁹⁸⁾ <http://www.dpp.hr/>

⁽⁷⁹⁹⁾ <http://www.dialogmodvold.dk/>

⁽⁸⁰⁰⁾ <http://www.lyomatonlinja.fi>

⁽⁸⁰¹⁾ <http://www.jussityo.fi>

⁽⁸⁰²⁾ <http://www.ensijaturvakotienliitto.fi>

⁽⁸⁰³⁾ http://www.hannover.de/de/buerger/gleichstellung/beratung_fhaus/hipmg.html

Country	Title and year of implementation	Description	Provider and partners involved	Target group
Hungary	'Stop male violence' project, since 2005 ⁽⁸⁰⁴⁾ (local)	Involvement of men in the fight against VAW, through the creation of a men's group, whose members engage in a self-critical revision of the male role in society.	International partners, other feminist NGOs	Men
Malta	Perpetrators' programme, 1999 (national)	Rehabilitation of violent men by individual assistance and integration into a group, receiving also social work services if required.	Agenzija Appogg (government agency), social workers in the Domestic Violence Unit	Men
Norway	Anger management treatment programmes, since 1987 (national)	Anger management treatment programmes are implemented to reduce violence in close relationships.	Violence Foundation (ATV) ⁽⁸⁰⁵⁾	Men/perpetrators
Norway	Alternative to violence for ethnic minorities ⁽⁸⁰⁶⁾ , 2005–07 (regional)	Therapeutic treatment for battered women and for battering men, which was provided in a culturally sensitive way, including both the women and the men.	Violence Foundation (ATV) ⁽⁸⁰⁷⁾	Men of ethnic minorities

Source: EGGSI network national reports, 2010.

Annex 2.4 — Examples of shelters

Country	Title and year	Description	Provider and partners involved	Target group
Belgium	Well-being centre (CFVE) ⁽⁸⁰⁸⁾	Well-being centre that offers shelter in combination with different services, such as studies and training as well as outpatient care. The centre also collects data, e.g. on the nationality of the women.	Police, judiciary	Victims of all form of violence
Croatia	Autonomous Women's House ⁽⁸⁰⁹⁾	Multidimensional services are provided, including free and anonymous legal and psychological help. Empowering of women through individual work with women and children, therapy, advocacy in legal matters. Publication of reports, lobbying activities and campaigns.	Autonomous Women's House, city of Zagreb and the government of Croatia as co-financers	Women victims of violence
Croatia	Adela Centre for Women ⁽⁸¹⁰⁾ , since 2003	Group work for women, individual work with children, support in cases connected with court procedures, accomplishment of different financial rights, support in training and employment. The centre also offers different activities focused on raising public awareness.	National Foundation for Civil Society, Ministry of Family, Veterans and Intergenerational Solidarity, Human Rights Office, Ministry of Health and Social Care, Office for Gender Equality, and others	Women connected with court procedures

⁽⁸⁰⁴⁾ <http://www.stop-ferferioszak.hu>

⁽⁸⁰⁵⁾ http://www.regjeringen.no/upload/JD/Vedlegg/Handlingsplaner/Vendepunkt_eng.pdf

⁽⁸⁰⁶⁾ Rapport fra prosjektet 'Familie vold og etnisitet 2005–07' (<http://www.atv-stiftelsen.no/filer/Fagrapport%20familievold%20og%20etnisitet%20-%20Alternativ%20til%20Vold.pdf>).

⁽⁸⁰⁷⁾ http://www.regjeringen.no/upload/JD/Vedlegg/Handlingsplaner/Vendepunkt_eng.pdf

⁽⁸⁰⁸⁾ <http://www.caw.be>

⁽⁸⁰⁹⁾ <http://www.azkz.net/>

⁽⁸¹⁰⁾ Adela centar za žene (Adela Centre for Women (<http://www.centar-adela.org/>)).

Country	Title and year	Description	Provider and partners involved	Target group
Estonia	Tartu Women's Shelter ⁽⁸¹¹⁾	Offers seminars on DV to professionals including lawyers, doctors and the police. These seminars were financed by the Open Estonia Foundation, Phare and other sources. In 2008, medical workers received training on how to recognise violence and assist victims. Every year, one- to two-day training courses for victim support specialists, social and youth workers, police, etc. take place on the prevention of trafficking and victim support, including gender equality issues.	Open Estonia Foundation, Phare	Women victims of domestic violence and their children
Denmark	Reden-STOP trafficking ⁽⁸¹²⁾	First service for female prostitutes, working from the street. Social work and counselling by social workers, free food, support and care and the possibility to stay overnight. Reden also offers to sit in on meetings with public authorities. Once a week a midwife or a doctor visits Reden to give information about contraception and to give acute medical treatment, cooperating with hospitals; provides for legal abortions with a few hours' notice.	YWCA	Prostitutes (incl. ethnic minority women and addicted women)
Denmark	Helping mothers (Mødrehjælpen) ⁽⁸¹³⁾	Offering counselling and support to families in general and abused women and their children. Economic, social and educational support is provided. There is also a national telephone helpline service, which is open during the day and run by the centre.	No information (to be revised)	Families and abused women and their children
France	Centre for Reception and Hosting — L'Escale, since 1992 ⁽⁸¹⁴⁾ (regional)	The three centres offer day and/or night reception centres. Also emergency hosting in hostels for two or three families per month is available. The organisation also participates in the departmental (Hauts de Seine) call services and coordinates lodging centres for social integration at departmental level.	Departmental direction for health and social affairs, DDASS, other related associations	Women and their children
Hungary	Secret Shelter House, 206	Secret shelter house for assaulted women and their children. The contact information for this shelter is totally hidden. Women are accommodated here who have been found by their aggressors in earlier places. Another secret shelter is maintained to accommodate victims of human trade and prostitution,	Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs	Assaulted women and their children

⁽⁸¹¹⁾ <http://www.naistetugi.ee/>

⁽⁸¹²⁾ <http://www.redeninternational.dk/> and <http://www.redenkoebenhavn.dk/?pid=29&>

⁽⁸¹³⁾ <https://www.moedrehjaelpen.dk/>

⁽⁸¹⁴⁾ <http://www.lescale.asso.fr/pages/lescale-quisommesnous.htm>

Country	Title and year	Description	Provider and partners involved	Target group
Iceland	STÍGAMÓT, a centre for education and counselling for survivors of sexual abuse and violence ⁽⁸¹⁵⁾ . (local)	Shelter, also for rape victims. Activities include legal and social work counselling for women, awareness-raising on incest, sexual violence and abuse against women, helping women to get out of abusive relationships and deal with the consequences of incest and sexual abuse in order to be able to establish a normal way of life. Annual reports on the number of women are provided. Campaigns are also organised annually.	NGO	Women victims of violence
Iceland	KVENNAATHVARF	The shelter's annual reports present some analysis on background information about the women based on questionnaires they fill in on their visits. Campaigns are also organised annually.	NGO	Women
Ireland	Sonas Housing Association	Provision of permanent and transitional housing in three local authority areas. They provide 45 specialist transitional housing services with two-year tenancy arrangements and 20 permanent housing units to women and children made homeless because of gender-based violence. They provide a level of security and safety for women and children who have ongoing support needs (and security needs) after they have been through emergency services/refuges. The services cost EUR 1 391 712 in 2008, funded by statutory housing grants and private fundraising and are provided in a holistic setting with counselling, work and education, debt and personal development support as well as childcare and related family services. There is a significant excess demand for the services.	NGO	Women and children made homeless because of gender-based violence
Liechtenstein	Women's home/shelters	Collects numbers of phone calls concerning domestic violence and data, including the background of women staying in the shelter (e.g. age, status of origin, data on their children but also data on the perpetrator). However, these data are not published.	National Police of the Principality of Liechtenstein	Victims of domestic violence
Lithuania	Vilnius Shelter for Battered Mothers and Children	One of the biggest shelters in Lithuania, it receives full financial support from the Vilnius municipality budget to provide shelter, meals, and social, psychological and legal consultations for victims of domestic violence. The shelter has 72 places for women with children. It is open non-stop and allows women to stay any length of time.	Vilnius municipality	Victims of domestic violence

⁽⁸¹⁵⁾ <http://www.stigamot.is/index.php/english>

Country	Title and year	Description	Provider and partners involved	Target group
Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	Open Gate Shelter, 2005–continuous ⁽⁸¹⁶⁾ (local)	Long-term support of victims of trafficking. Provision of access to the social assistance programme to victims of internal trafficking which offers long-term accommodation for victims of trafficking, covering basic needs (food, clothes or hygiene products), and adequate psychosocial treatment.	Various donators and Ministry of Labour and Social Policy, Open Gate La Strada	Internal victims of trafficking
Malta	Ghabex	Shelter where women can stay for a maximum period of three months, after which they can move on to a second-stage shelter, or to any alternative accommodation identified during their stay at Ghabex. During the three months, staff at Ghabex support the women in their daily needs, and also work with them to draw up an action plan for their future.	Domestic Violence Unit, Police Force	Women, female children, male children under 18 years
Poland	IRIS — Social and vocational inclusion of women victims of trafficking in persons, November 2004–February 2008 ⁽⁸¹⁷⁾ (national)	La Strada ran the hostel (unknown address) for victims of trafficking in persons; the project provided emergency interventions (including medical, psychological and legal consultations, as well as shelter), training courses (activation, education) and internships.	La Strada Foundation, within the framework of the 'Partnership for development' project, members of the partnership: Foundation La Strada, Foundation 'Centre for Promoting Women', Labour Office (Warsaw), Social Assistance Centre (Warsaw-Śródmieście), and two departments of MoLSP	Women victims of trafficking in persons (Polish nationals)
Slovenia	Project against human trafficking and sex and gender-based violence — PATS, 2004 ⁽⁸¹⁸⁾ (national)	Project for introducing mechanisms to recognise trafficking in human beings and mechanisms of help and protection for victims of trafficking and/or sex and gender-based violence in asylum procedures in Slovenia.	Ministry of Internal Affairs, Association Ključ, Association Slovenska filantropija, Asylum home, UNHCR	Migrants
Sweden	Somaya Women's Shelter ⁽⁸¹⁹⁾	Helps persons who have been physically and/or mentally abused, threatened, harassed and/or raped. Offers help in 11 languages and has special knowledge to support women and girls with a foreign background and Muslim identity. Terrafem is a national helpline for immigrant women of all ages. The helpline offers support in about 35 languages. Elektra offers support to younger women in several languages.	No information (to be revised)	Physically or mentally abused victims, threatened, harassed and/or raped victims

⁽⁸¹⁶⁾ <http://www.lastradainternational.org>

⁽⁸¹⁷⁾ <http://www.promocjakobiet.pl/eng/iris.html> and <http://www.kcik.pl/en/index.html>; national programme for combating and preventing trafficking in human beings 2007–09 (<http://www.mswia.gov.pl>).

⁽⁸¹⁸⁾ <http://drustvo-kljuc.si>

⁽⁸¹⁹⁾ Systerjouren Somaja (<http://www.somaya.se>).

Annex 2.5 — Examples of helplines

Country	Title and year of implementation	Description	Provider and partners involved	Target group
Hungary	NANE Women' Rights Association ⁽⁸²⁰⁾	Runs a hotline with volunteers; lobbying and introduction of law-amendment proposals; legal support (counselling and representation for battered/abused women); improvement of policy and public education (hotline, training, legal assistance, lobbying).	Ministries, police, NGOs, international funding organisations, shelters, etc.	Women victims of violence, general public
Hungary	National crisis telephone information service ⁽⁸²¹⁾	In cooperation with local support services, it provides primary screening, professional information services and exchange of information, assistance in contacting the competent institutions, and expert assistance; also immediate intervention in serious crisis situations, initiation of adequate authority actions, providing information on shelters, etc. It cooperates with experts from the regional crisis management network and public support institutions. A database is also maintained.	Institute for Social Policy and Labour	Victims of violence, mainly women, also trafficked and into prostitution
Norway	Helpline for forced marriage ⁽⁸²²⁾	Helpline that is specialised in combating forced marriages ⁽⁸²³⁾ ; there is also a special Forced Marriage Unit at the Norwegian Directorate for Integration and Diversity. This unit produces information in several languages, and it is contacted in cases where forced marriages have been identified.	Norwegian Red Cross	Women at risk of forced marriage
Romania	National anti-trafficking helpline, since 2007	Support is provided by a supervisor and specialists employed by the National Agency against Trafficking. The role of the specialists is to record, verify and refer each confirmed case to the appropriate support services. Counselling to victims and their families in crisis situations and information about potential risks when travelling abroad are also provided. The helpline offers specialised legal assistance, and health and counselling services offered by public and non-governmental organisations.	National Agency against Trafficking	Trafficked women and their families

⁽⁸²⁰⁾ <http://www.nane.hu>

⁽⁸²¹⁾ <http://www.krizistelefon.hu> and <http://www.szmm.gov.hu>

⁽⁸²²⁾ Homepage of the Directorate of Integration and Diversity (<http://www.imdi.no/>).

⁽⁸²³⁾ Information about the Red Cross forced marriages helpline (http://www.rodekors.no/upload/DK-Oslo/%C3%85rsrapporter/RK%20Telefonen%20om%20Tvangsekteskap_2006.pdf).

Country	Title and year of implementation	Description	Provider and partners involved	Target group
Slovenia	SOS telephone for women and children victims of violence, since 1998	The objectives of the project are to give a child a positive experience with an adult, help him/her develop self-esteem, non-violent behaviour and positive self-assertive behaviour, teach her/him non-violent ways to solve conflicts. The child regularly socialises/meets with a volunteer who is trained in dealing with victims of violence. The meetings are individual and tailored to meet the needs, wants and capabilities of the individual child.	Association against Violent Communication, centres for social work, primary schools	Children (5–18 years), victims of violence
Spain	Remote assistance programme for victims of gender-based violence ⁽⁸²⁴⁾	Prevent aggressions, promote self-confidence of victims and favour a regular life for those who suffer abuse or may suffer it in the future. Remote immediate attention 24 hours a day thanks to telecommunications technologies and monitoring if circumstances require it.	Ministry of Equality, Secretaría de Estado de Servicios Sociales, Familias y Discapacidad, and FEMP, Federación Española de Municipios y Provincias	Women

Source: EGGSI network national reports, 2010.

Annex 2.6 — Examples of treatment programmes for women victims of violence

Country	Title and year	Description	Provider and partners involved	Target group
Belgium	Tele alarm	'Tele alarm' offers persons who suffer serious life threats and stalking by ex-partners a personal alarm system to ensure their safety. Anyone in that situation can request a personal alarm.	n.a.	n.a.
Germany	Signal —Intervention in health service against violence against women ⁽⁸²⁵⁾ , since 2002	Training measures for medical staff to improve care and to make professional health workers more sensitive to the whole issue. Activities include awareness-raising, sensibilisation for gender-specific violence and its effects on victims, and treatment of victims of violence in a sensitive way.	NGO on the basis of volunteer work, members of anti-violence projects in Berlin, partners from health service and academic experts	Employees in the health sector
Netherlands	Mimosa	A mentor project in which mothers with children are trained as mentors to support other young mothers with children who suffered partner abuse and live in an isolated private situation. A mentor accompanies the mother for 16 weeks. The project directly improves the diagnosis and treatment of healthcare problems linked to domestic violence.	The regional public health authority (GGD) Rotterdam-Rijnmond, together with the Medical Faculty of Radboud University Nijmegen (women studies)	(Pregnant) women with children under 12 years of age

⁽⁸²⁴⁾ <http://www.la-moncloa.es/actualidadhome/2009-2/160210-aido.htm>

⁽⁸²⁵⁾ <http://migg-frauen.de/>

Country	Title and year	Description	Provider and partners involved	Target group
Finland	Internet help for victims of sexual abuse, 2008–11 ⁽⁸²⁶⁾ , national	The crisis centre provides a website counselling service to help raped women, providing support and guidance for women and their families. Also awareness-raising measures and consultation and training for professionals, authorities, organisations and educational institutions in a variety of fields are included. It supplements the social and health services as well as the official system in its own special field.	Tukinainen ry (NGO), Crisis Centre Tukinet, Federation of Hard of Hearing, Kuurojen liitto ry, the vocational college for students with special needs, the Family Federation	Women
Iceland	Emergency centre for victims of rape, since 1993	Offers specialised professional attendance, providing direct appropriate services as well as responses towards the perpetrators, or the criminals. It includes a medical examination, a more comprehensive analysis by a nurse and medical doctor specialised in forensic medicine, psychological treatment, support and rebuilding of self-awareness and assertiveness training provided in 10 individual sessions. Finally, the victim is appointed a legal adviser/lawyer and there are follow-up activities.	Accident and Emergency Department (A&E) at Landspítali University Hospital in Reykjavik	Women
Ireland	Dignity ⁽⁸²⁷⁾	Dignity is an interagency initiative working to deliver quality services for victims of sex trafficking. A study is carried out to identify good practices in the provision of services in the partner countries, including health services, counselling, accommodation, advocacy services, education and skills development for victims. Victim witness support and protection will also be examined, as well as victim integration and processes of safe returns to the country of origin of victims.	Dublin Employment Pact and Immigrant Council of Ireland	Victims of trafficking (prostitution)
Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	Legal Aid Centre and Psychological Counselling Bureau for women victims of domestic violence, 2002–continuous ⁽⁸²⁸⁾	Provision of free legal and psychosocial assistance and support, as well as court representation for domestic violence victims; promotion of the domestic violence victims' protection system aimed at informing the general and expert public on the existing protection services; continuous functioning of the Legal Aid Centre in Skopje (free legal aid, court representation and psychosocial help and support of domestic violence victims); continuous functioning of the Psychological Counselling Bureau in Skopje; activities promoting the Legal Aid Centre and the Psychological Counselling Bureau for women victims of domestic violence.	Association for Emancipation, Solidarity and Equality of Women in RM	Victims of domestic violence

Source: EGGSI network national reports, 2010.

⁽⁸²⁶⁾ <http://www.tukinainen.fi>

⁽⁸²⁷⁾ <http://www.dublinpact.ie/dignity>

⁽⁸²⁸⁾ <http://www.esem.org.mk>

Annex 2.7 — Social inclusion — Reintegration programmes

a. Examples of housing

Country	Title and year of implementation	Description	Provider and partners involved	Target group
Hungary	Hungarian Interchurch Aid ⁽⁸²⁹⁾ , 2005	Housing opportunities for endangered families. The organisation elaborated a reintegration model programme for families in need. The programme consists of four stages: crisis treatment in the regional crisis treatment centre; temporary homes for families; half-way homes (passing homes); assurance of social housing or other permanent housing opportunities. The last two stages are strongly connected to reintegration.	n.a.	Women at risk of threats or violence and their children
Ireland	Sonas ⁽⁸³⁰⁾ , since 1991 (local)	Transitional housing services with two-year tenancy arrangements and 20 permanent housing units to women and children made homeless because of gender-based violence.	NGO Sonas Housing Association, NGO Sonas, Dublin City Council, Fingal Council, Dunlaoghaire/Rathdown Council	Women and children who have ongoing support needs (and security needs) after they have been through emergency services/ refuges
Netherlands	Aware: Abused women's active response emergency ⁽⁸³¹⁾ (national)	Guarantees the safety of women and their children by organising immediate (crisis) intervention in situations of threat and danger by the offender (mostly partner or ex-partner), by installing an electronic alarm system at the (potential) victim's home.	Several local/regional ad hoc cooperating organisations in the field of domestic violence (both NGOs and government agencies), municipality, police, health and social welfare organisations, rehabilitation services, public prosecutor	Women at risk of threats or violence and their children
Malta	Second-stage shelter ⁽⁸³²⁾ (national)	Dar Qalb ta' Gesu is a second-stage shelter for women escaping domestic violence, providing them with a safe space and worker support as well as a programme that is tailored to their specific needs.	Government, Church, Dar Qalb ta' Gesu (NGO)	Women and their children
Austria	Transitional living quarters ⁽⁸³³⁾ , April 2006 (local)	Providing support for women to live a self-determined life and helping to find a final flat (often social housing). The programme also offers legal support for divorce, alimony, custody or counselling concerning residence entitlement and employment services.	Vienna Women's Shelter	Former inhabitants of women's shelters

Source: EGGSI network national reports, 2010.

⁽⁸²⁹⁾ <http://www.segelyszervezet.hu>

⁽⁸³⁰⁾ <http://www.sonashousing.ie>

⁽⁸³¹⁾ <http://www.huiselijkgeweld.nl/interventies/nazorg/Aware.html>

⁽⁸³²⁾ <http://webapps01.un.org/vawdatabase/home.action>

⁽⁸³³⁾ Frauenhäuser Wien 2009, Tätigkeitsbericht 2008, p.36.

b. Examples of social employment and training services

Country	Title and year of implementation	Description	Provider and partners involved	Target group
Czech Republic	Real alternatives — Social inclusion for victims of trafficking in human beings and those commercially exploited, 2006–08	Employment services for victims of trafficking and commercially exploited people.	La Strada	Victims of trafficking and commercially exploited people
Denmark	Network for women victims of violence ⁽⁸³⁴⁾ , 2003	To make visible and combat the occurrence of violence against women; to establish a network and offer support for these women; network activities, website and telephone line.	Ministry of Social Affairs, Knowledge Centre for Socially Excluded	Abused women; seems to accommodate especially more resourceful women
Finland	Saphaan 2009–13 ⁽⁸³⁵⁾ (local)	To promote the social inclusion of Thai immigrants working in massage salons by training them in the use of support services and everyday skills; education for professionals; a model for support work that can be applied to other vulnerable immigrant groups.	City of Helsinki, Pro-tukipiste (NGO)	Thai women working in massage salons; professionals in social and health-care services and employment offices
France	Platform to reconcile women victims of violence with employment, 2002–04, institutionalised in 2005	Social and occupational integration of women victims of violence.	Maison de l'emploi, employment counter, local mission, women's associations, hosting and social integration centres (CHRS), social workers	Women victims of violence
Malta	Empowerment skills programme ⁽⁸³⁶⁾ , 2005 (national)	Empowerment skills programme for homeless women and women victims of domestic violence residing in women's shelters.	Employment and Training Corporation (gov.), Domestic Violence Unit	Women victims of domestic violence
Poland	IRIS — Social and vocational inclusion of women victims of trafficking in persons', November 2004–February 2008 (national)	La Strada ran the hostel (unknown address) for victims of trafficking in persons; the project provided emergency interventions (including medical, psychological and legal consultations, as well as shelter), training courses (activation, education) and internships.	La Strada, Foundation 'Centre for Promoting Women', Labour Office (Warsaw), Social Assistance Centre, and two departments of MoLSP	Women victims of trafficking in persons (Polish nationals)
Poland	'The eyes wide open — Counteracting domestic violence' ⁽⁸³⁷⁾ , 2007 (regional)	Training programmes, with a special focus on making women participants more active and self-confident; also psychological support; wrap-up conference at the end of the violence.	Association 'Active Women' city office	Women and girls of the Silesia region

⁽⁸³⁴⁾ Netværk for voldsramte kvinder (<http://www.netvaerk.org>).⁽⁸³⁵⁾ <http://www.saphaan.fi/fi/etusivu/>⁽⁸³⁶⁾ <http://www.etc.gov.mt/docs/GEAP%200910.pdf>⁽⁸³⁷⁾ <http://aktywnekobiety.org.pl/and> <https://www.neww.org.pl/pl/news/news/1,370,3.html>

Country	Title and year of implementation	Description	Provider and partners involved	Target group
Slovakia	The return and reintegration programme for trafficked persons ⁽⁸³⁸⁾ , since 2006 (national)	Reintegration assistance: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • psychological counselling; • medical treatment; • temporary accommodation; • educational courses; • short-term internship by the employer. 	Ministry of Interior, International Organisation for Migration Slovakia (NGO)	Slovakian citizens trafficked to another country and citizens of another country trafficked to Slovakia
Slovakia	Alterná II ⁽⁸³⁹⁾ , 2007–08 (regional)	Simultaneous social and psychological empowerment counselling and support to social allowances' requirements.	Dotyk (NGO), Education Academy-Bratislava, Extras (private firm)	Socially disadvantaged groups of people and persons threatened by social exclusion
Hungary	A nők elleni erőszak áldozatainak integrált ellátása Pilot project: Integrated service for the victims of violence against women, 2006	The activities aim to facilitate cooperation between the various actors (social and state-owned institutions) dealing with victims of domestic violence, and developing the legal protection of victims.	NANE and Habeas Corpus Munkacsoport, NGOs	
Italy	On-the-job training ⁽⁸⁴⁰⁾ (regional)	The objectives of the project are to: support the labour inclusion of the assisted persons into the local job market; favour the accomplishment or improvement of (new) job skills and professional know-how; support the empowerment and the self-reliance of the assisted persons.	Association On the Road	Trafficked women mainly exploited in the sex sector

Source: EGGSI network national reports, 2010.

⁽⁸³⁸⁾ <http://www.iom.sk/sk/aktivy/obchodovanie-s-ludmi/aktualne-projekty>

⁽⁸³⁹⁾ <http://www.dotyk.sk/02-sprava/vyrocnna-sprava-2008.zip>

⁽⁸⁴⁰⁾ <http://www.ontheroadonlus.it>

European Commission

Violence against women and the role of gender equality, social inclusion and health strategies

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Although the EU has made significant strides towards achieving gender equality over recent decades, women remain the principal victims of gender-based violence. The European Commission's Synthesis Report for 2010 on violence against women and the role of gender equality, social inclusion and health strategies analyses the social aspects of such violence. It aims to present a clear picture of the situation in EU Member States, EEA/EFTA and candidate countries regarding all types of violence directed at women, be they physical, sexual or psychological. The report begins by summarising the main features of violence against women in Europe. It then gives an overview of actions addressing this form of violence, in terms of prevention, victim support and social reintegration before presenting its final conclusions and their related policy implications.

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