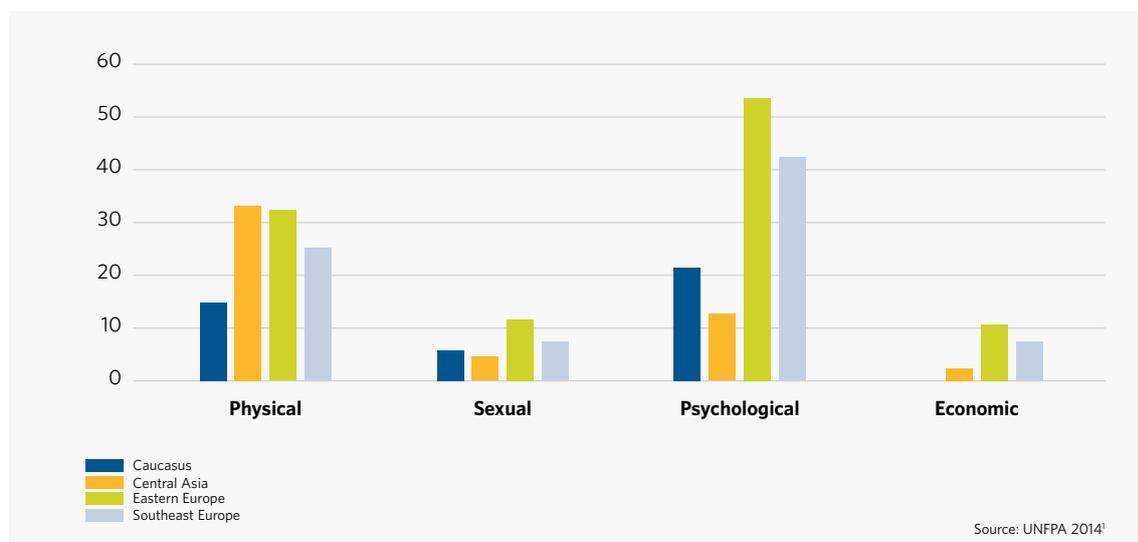


Combating violence against women and girls in Eastern Europe and Central Asia

Violence against women and girls (VAWG) is a global pandemic which affects not only its victims but also the development of entire societies and countries.*

Despite some progress in Eastern Europe and Central Asia (EECA), levels of VAWG remain high throughout the region. As the graph below shows, a large proportion of women and girls experience various forms of violence. This Issue brief explores the impact of this violence, why so many women and girls in the EECA region are affected, and why figures such as those below represent only a small proportion of the actual victims and survivors of VAWG. Finally, it provides concrete policy and practical recommendations on how to address the problem in the region.

Figure 1: Lifetime prevalence (%) of intimate partner violence and domestic violence in the Eastern Europe and Central Asia region, averaged by sub-region and form of violence



* This Issue brief focuses on forms of violence experienced by women and girls in the family, in a relationship, at work, in emergencies, in the context of migration, and in the context of ethnic minorities. UNFPA has developed a separate Issue brief on gender-biased sex selection and a summary brief on child marriage.



'Violence against women and girls directly affects individuals while harming our common humanity.'

—Ban Ki-Moon, UN Secretary-General

'We will not stop until this violence is no longer tolerated, consigned to the shameful chapter of history where it belongs.'

—Dr. Babatunde Osotimehin, UNFPA Executive Director

Women and girls experience various forms of violence

Violence impacts a large proportion of women and girls, taking several forms – including physical, sexual, psychological, and economic violence – and occurring in different contexts within the private and public spheres. This section provides an overview of how and where VAWG occurs as well as its consequences for women and girls.

Little data is available on all forms of violence experienced by women during their lifetime (prevalence rates), particularly in the EECA region. However, a recent WHO global review of available data estimates that 26 per cent of women in Eastern Europe and 23 per cent of women in Central Asia have experienced either physical and/or sexual violence by an intimate partner or sexual violence by a non-partner.² Studies conducted at a national level indicate that some EECA countries

rank among the world's highest in terms of prevalence rates of intimate partner violence (IPV). For example, 58.3 per cent of women in Tajikistan and 41.9 per cent in Turkey reported that they had experienced some form of physical and/or sexual violence by a partner.³

A comparative analysis of legislative evaluations⁴ reveals that the majority of countries in the EECA region fail to address all forms of violence in their respective legislation aimed at preventing VAWG.

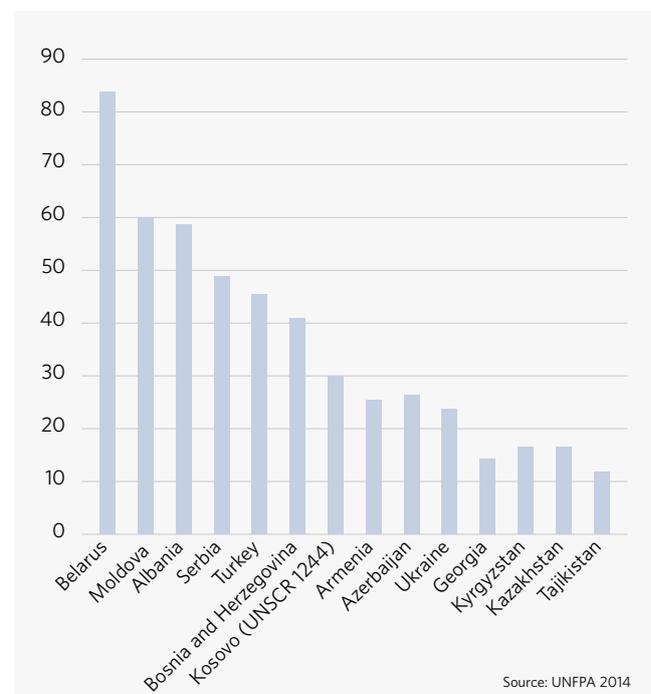
Some Eastern European and Central Asian countries rank among the world's highest in terms of prevalence rates of intimate partner violence.



What is psychological violence?

Psychological violence is often the most difficult form of violence to identify. It may include humiliating, threatening, insulting, pressuring, and expressing jealousy or possessiveness (e.g. by controlling decisions and activities).

Figure 2: Lifetime prevalence (%) of psychological violence in the Eastern Europe and Central Asia region



Violence against women and girls within multiple contexts

In the family Violence in the family remains a hidden reality for many women and girls in the EECA region. Although most countries in the region have passed legislation broadly aimed at preventing violence within a family and protecting victims and survivors, a narrow definition of the term ‘domestic violence’ appears to be widespread. A majority of such legislation does not address the various types of violence within family contexts. For example, several countries do not classify marital rape as a form of violence, and few recognise the psychological abuse of women and girls in the family context. Most laws in the region also subsume violence experienced by women and girls *outside* the family into the category of ‘domestic violence’ and hence, provide inadequate measures to prevent such violence and protect its victims and survivors.

Additionally, most EECA countries fail to collect data on perpetrators of any form of violence experienced by women and girls, making it difficult to determine the actual magnitude and scope of the problem.

What is domestic violence?

Domestic violence is committed in a household or family setting, predominantly by an intimate partner but also by other family members, such as parents or other relatives. Victims and survivors often experience more than one form of violence (i.e. physical, sexual, psychological, economic).



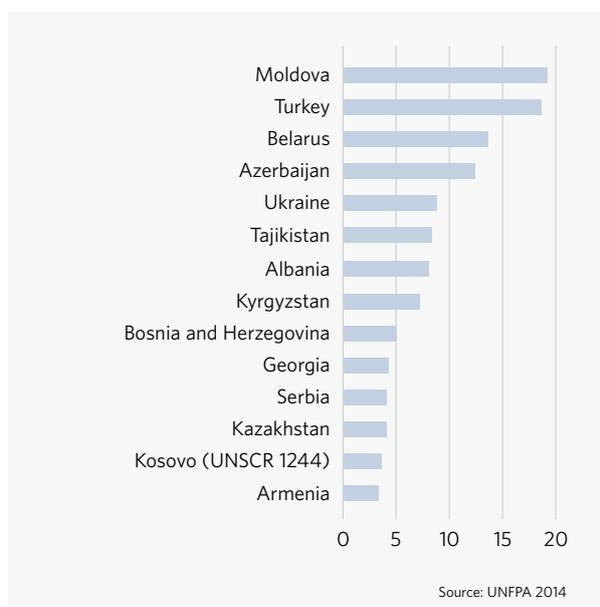
What is sexual violence?

Sexual violence is pressuring or forcing someone to perform sexual acts (from kissing to sex) against their will, or making sexual comments that make someone feel humiliated or uncomfortable. It does not matter if there has been prior consenting sexual behaviour. Sexually violent acts can take place in different circumstances and settings, including:

- Rape (within marriage and relationships, by strangers, and during armed conflict)
- Unwanted sexual advances or sexual harassment, including demanding sex in return for favours
 - Sexual abuse of children
 - Forced marriage or cohabitation

In a relationship Violence in a relationship, or intimate partner violence, is the most common form of violence experienced by women. Most victims and survivors

Figure 3: Lifetime prevalence (%) of sexual violence in the Eastern Europe and Central Asia region



experience more than one form of violence, but statistics tend to only represent physical and sexual violence, even though the latest data available for some countries in the EECA region (Figure 2) also indicate especially worrying prevalence rates for psychological violence by an intimate partner (e.g. 83.2 per cent in Belarus; 60 per cent in Moldova; and 58.2 per cent in Albania).⁵ It is worth mentioning that all forms of IPV also occur in relationships in which partners do not live together, as well as in same-sex relationships. IPV also creates a cycle that is difficult to break: According to a recent study conducted in the EU,⁶ many women tend to be vulnerable to further abuse in the aftermath of a violent relationship.

At work Physical, sexual, and psychological violence can also take place in the workplace, with higher reporting levels among women with a university degree and/or in higher occupational groups. In general, however, data collection and analysis on violence at work is inadequate, and most legislation in the region fails to address it.

A recent ILO study⁷ highlighted groups of women at particularly high risk of experiencing violence at work: child labourers, forced and bonded labourers, migrant workers, domestic workers, health services workers, and sex workers. Some workers belong to several of these groups, which increases their vulnerability.

In emergencies Women and girls in humanitarian crises, emergencies, or armed conflicts are often the targets of abuse and at risk of becoming victims of several forms of violence and exploitation due to their gender and/or status in society.

Women and girls are at the highest risk of sexual violence during the early stages of a crisis, when communities are disrupted, populations are mobile, and systems of protection are not fully in place. In later phases of a crisis and during rehabilitation and recovery, women often become victims of other forms of violence, including trafficking, honour killings, or different forms of IPV.⁸

Violence in these contexts is often underreported; nevertheless, reports from current emergency settings within the EECA region suggest that sexual violence is experienced by large percentages of women and girls affected by the crises in Ukraine⁹ and those who are forced to relocate or migrate (e.g. Syrian refugees in Turkey¹⁰ and Armenia¹¹).

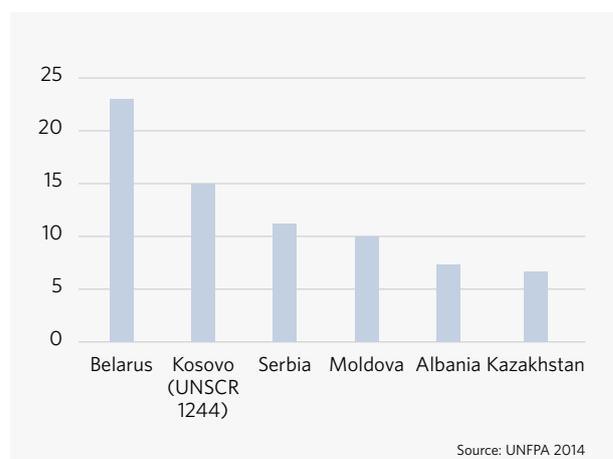
In the context of ethnic minorities While limited evidence is currently available, several studies¹² suggest that women belonging to ethnic minorities, such as the Roma, are at greater risk of experiencing all forms of IPV than the overall female population.



What is economic violence?

This form of violence involves exerting control over household resources and blackmailing or threatening to withhold resources from a partner.

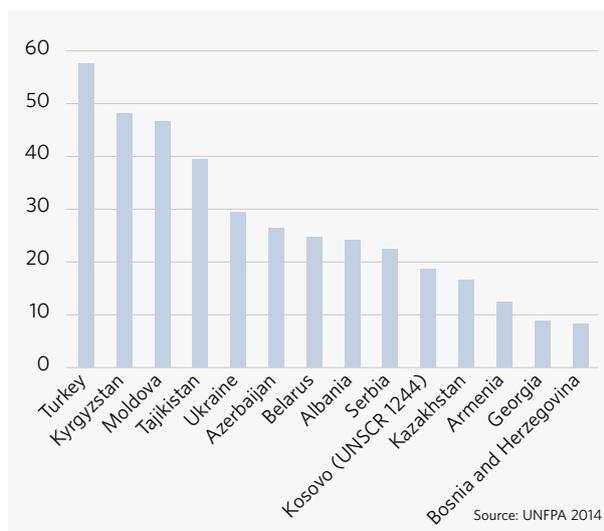
Figure 4: Lifetime prevalence (%) of economic violence in the Eastern Europe and Central Asia region



According to one of the few studies on the subject carried out in Bosnia and Herzegovina,¹³ at least 43 per cent of Roma women have suffered from physical violence and 36 per cent from psychological violence at the hands of their partners. A study in Turkey¹⁴ estimates that Roma women are three times more likely to be affected by IPV than the average Turkish female population. In addition, several human-rights bodies have observed significant obstacles particularly faced by Roma women in seeking protection from violence.

Roma women are at greater risk of experiencing all forms of intimate partner violence than the overall female population.

Figure 5: Lifetime prevalence (%) of physical violence in the Eastern Europe and Central Asia region




What is physical violence?

Physical violence means using physical force such as hitting, slapping, or pushing.

Violence has severe consequences on the health of women and girls

A recent global study conducted by WHO¹⁵ provided new evidence for the serious and multiple health consequences of IPV and non-partner sexual violence on women. The study found that IPV is a major contributor to women’s mental-health problems, particularly depression and suicidal thoughts or actions, as well as to sexual and reproductive health problems, including maternal and neo-natal health problems.

The WHO study also found that women who have experienced non-partner sexual violence are more than twice as likely to have alcohol-use disorders and depression or anxiety than women who have not experienced non-partner sexual violence. In addition, women who have been victims of rape have higher rates of utilising medical care compared to women

who have not been victims of rape, even years after the event.

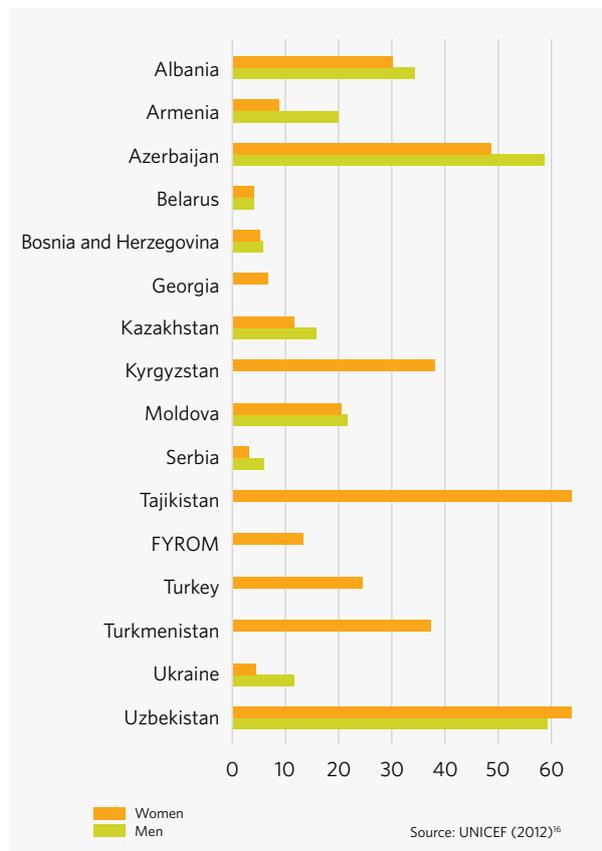
‘INTIMATE PARTNER VIOLENCE IS A MAJOR CONTRIBUTOR TO WOMEN’S MENTAL HEALTH PROBLEMS AS WELL AS TO SEXUAL AND REPRODUCTIVE HEALTH PROBLEMS.’

- WHO 2013

Why are so many women and girls affected by violence?

Prevailing social norms Despite greater awareness of VAWG in the EECA region, cultural acceptance of violence – especially in the family but also in society as a whole – remains unacceptably high. Patriarchal attitudes and stereotypes of the perceived role of women in society are common across the region, and such attitudes, beliefs, and behaviours are entrenched in deeply rooted social norms. Furthermore, a re-emerging conservatism regarding stereotyped gender norms and roles of women and men has been observed in the EECA region and has contributed to the reinforcement of strict gender roles.

Figure 6: Men and women who believe a husband is justified in beating his wife (%)



Strict and perceived gender roles are responsible for encouraging impunity of perpetrators and for discouraging victims from reporting violence.

The socialisation of strict masculine and feminine gender identities contributes to the reinforcement of men's entitlement to engage in aggressive behaviour and act as the power holder and predominant decision-maker. Strict gender roles correspond to impunity of perpetrators and discourage victims from reporting violence. These norms also make it more difficult for women to leave violent situations.

Social acceptance of VAWG in the EECA region is manifested in the responses to such violence:

- Victims and survivors are blamed when they report violence
- Mediation — often further endangering the victim and/or survivor — is promoted
- State officials and institutions are not held accountable for their failure to prevent VAWG, nor to protect its victims and survivors
- Victims and survivors are sometimes arrested when they report violence

These frequently encountered responses show why measures to address discriminating social norms and notions of masculinity are essential to prevent and eliminate VAWG.

Special attention should be paid to the need for laws to address all forms of violence.

Insufficient and/or ineffective legislation

Specific legislation and/or strategies or programmes around the issue of domestic or gender-based violence (GBV) exist in most countries of the EECA region,¹⁷ but most of these laws do not address other forms of violence, such as rape (including marital rape) or sexual

abuse. Harassment in schools and workplaces is also not addressed by most legislation. Moreover, human-rights bodies¹⁸ have highlighted that violence against women in conflict has not been sufficiently addressed in the region.

Ineffective social services

Lack of shelters and corresponding social services for female victims and survivors of violence is a major challenge in all countries in the EECA region. Crisis centres and shelters generally only exist in urban areas, leaving most rural populations without protection or the possibility to escape violent situations, especially domestic violence.

In addition, those crisis centres that do exist often focus on encouraging family reconciliation and are poorly resourced and hence ill-equipped to deal with all forms of violence. Some countries have centres for social work to provide front-line services to victims of violence; however, staff at these centres are often poorly capacitated and promote inadequate safety measures and family-centred mediation that can lead to unreported violence.

Most shelters tend to be run by nongovernmental organisations (NGOs) whose work is primarily funded by external donors, is project-based, and is not sustainable in the long term. The same applies to other front-line services such as psychological counselling, self-help groups, legal aid, and toll-free helplines which are common throughout the region, but are not available 24/7. Minimum standards for the provision of services do not exist; the number of advocacy, counselling centres, and specialised rape crisis centres is insufficient; and long-term support for victims and survivors is generally non-existent.

Several other factors hinder the provision of quality essential social services, including staff burnout, partly due to poor recognition/value of their work; and poor integration/coordination with the health, police, and justice sectors, necessary to address the multiple needs of victims and survivors.

Lack of access to justice

Awareness of rights is an important determinant for accessing justice. Despite the progress made in legislation to eliminate VAWG in various countries in the EECA region, awareness levels of human rights for women and girls are low, as is awareness of the few support services that exist in the region.¹⁹

Human-rights bodies²⁰ have criticised the lack of due diligence in the investigation and prosecution of VAWG in

the EECA region. Police often refuse to record complaints and attempt to persuade the victim to mediate/conciliate with the perpetrator – and at times even arrest and prosecute the victim along with the perpetrator. Furthermore, investigatory techniques to examine and prosecute charges often rely on victim testimonies and force victims to drive the investigative process, and even to initiate private lawsuits. Many justice systems in the region scrutinise the testimonies of victims and survivors,

rather than looking for other supporting evidence; blame them for the violence they have been subject to; and force them to mediate or rebuild relationships with perpetrators. When perpetrators are punished, serious acts of violence often receive inappropriately light sentences.

The provision of compensation often requires the victim to go through a separate, time-intensive and expensive civil process to recover monetary compensation from

the perpetrator himself, who may not have sufficient resources. The promoting by judges of mediation makes it difficult for victims and survivors to access protection orders, which are often delayed when they are in fact issued. If a protection order is breached, the justice system often acts too late and ineffectively to ensure the safety of victims and survivors.

Ineffective implementation of laws and policies

Despite the aforementioned legal advances in many EECA countries, concerted efforts are still needed to translate legislation from de jure into de facto measures needed to prevent and eventually eliminate VAWG.

Lack of political will and coordination Political will and capacity to implement existing laws is limited, with only a few countries having specific bodies responsible for addressing VAWG. Where concrete programmes or action plans on VAWG exist, their effective implementation is often hampered by a lack of coordination between different ministries, institutions, etc. at a national level; between national and local-level state bodies; and, between state organs and non-state actors such as NGOs and religious organisations. This lack of coordination tends to be characterised by poor exchange of information and skills.

Political will and capacity to implement existing laws is limited, with only a few countries having specific bodies responsible for addressing VAWG.

Duty bearers fail to comply with their obligations

Too often in the EECA region, police fail to investigate crimes; judges hand down inappropriately light sentences to perpetrators of violence; health and social workers do not record complaints or lack the capacity to do so. Many countries in the region lack appropriate training for developing the skills and capacities of their

law enforcement and health sectors to address VAWG, though most have taken an important step with their recent commitment to reform their health systems in order to better identify and respond to such cases.

At the institutional level, state officials are still not being held accountable for their failure to address VAWG and their breach of obligations. This is mainly due to the fact that monitoring and evaluation of the implementation of respective legislation is very rarely undertaken and is not used to analyse and improve mechanisms and laws.

Insufficient funding Insufficient state funding is allocated to services and prevention programmes, and financial assistance to victims of violence. No countries have specific budget lines for addressing VAWG. Related budgeting is reportedly often delegated to local authorities without specific funding guidelines.

State-run or sponsored services, such as clinics and centres for social work, are often under-funded, under-resourced, and under-capacitated. Many services, such as shelters and helplines, are run by NGOs that receive little or no state support, making them unsustainable in the longer term. Not enough funding is allocated to training of institutions and key professionals, such as police, judges, and health and social workers, who often do not have the capacity to meet their obligations.

Inadequate data

Most data on VAWG collected in the EECA region is inadequate, mainly because of inconsistency in how different forms of violence experienced by women and girls are defined. Most countries have legislation and data collection on domestic violence, but vary greatly in how they define this, and hence, what forms of violence they collect data on. Additionally, disaggregated data (e.g. by age, urban and rural areas, and relationship between the perpetrator and victim) is currently not being collected in the EECA region.

The lack of reporting and/or under-reporting of many cases of VAWG in the region is well documented, and largely attributable to the lack of trust among victims and survivors in state-run institutions, coupled with the failure of front-line service providers (police, judges, health professionals) to report acts of violence.

Without a comprehensive understanding of the scope of the violence, it is difficult to establish effective, inclusive preventive measures and provide appropriate support to female victims and survivors of all ages.

'WITHOUT A COMPREHENSIVE UNDERSTANDING OF THE SCOPE OF THE VIOLENCE, IT IS DIFFICULT TO ESTABLISH EFFECTIVE MEASURES TO PREVENT AND ELIMINATE THE DIFFERENT FORMS OF VIOLENCE.'

- UNECE 2014

Conclusions

As this Issue brief demonstrates, women and girls experience different forms of violence which are often not recognised or criminalised in most countries of the EECA region. Such violence affects women and girls in several different contexts where they are often not protected, nor feel comfortable in reporting. Root causes

of VAWG, including prevailing cultural and patriarchal attitudes that manifest in gender- and rights-unfriendly social norms, need to be urgently addressed, as they have a multiplier effect when it comes to failing to protect victims and survivors and prevent violence from occurring.

Recommendations

Based on the information presented in this Issue brief, several concrete recommendations can be made for countries in the EECA region in order to prevent and address VAWG:

First, in order to provide effective protection and prevention for victims and survivors, multi-sectorial response mechanisms need to be established. Primarily, this means that policies and services in all related fields should also be reviewed and assessed to adequately address the causes (e.g. prevailing cultural and patriarchal attitudes that manifest in gender- and rights-unfriendly social norms and cultural acceptance of violence), the consequences (e.g. lack of security; lack of access to justice, health, and social services sectors) and related factors (e.g. inadequate action from and capacity of service providers; lack of resources; and ineffective coordination, among others) of VAWG. The coordination of these multi-sectorial response mechanisms at all levels must be clearly defined and agreed upon. Furthermore, the establishment or strengthening of national referral mechanisms is of essential importance.

Second, some countries have specific action plans or strategies to combat VAWG; however, these plans do not address all forms of violence and must be revised to do so. Where no national actions plans exist, they should be developed, taking into account all relevant aspects needed to effectively address the causes and consequences of VAWG. It is of utmost importance that these action plans coordinate responsibilities and actions by key sectors (i.e. security, justice, health and social service providers). Furthermore, both civil society and victims and survivors should be involved in the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of these plans.

Third, when reviewing existing legislation for its adequacy in effectively preventing and eliminating VAWG, special attention must be paid to the need for laws to address all forms of violence (i.e. physical, sexual, psychological, economic). Moreover, adequate penalties for perpetrators and compensation for victims and survivors must be included. Where no laws on VAWG exist, there is an urgent need to get such laws passed and subsequently, implemented.

Good Practice: *In Kyrgyzstan, a multi-sectorial cooperation framework to prevent and respond to domestic violence at the municipal level was piloted in the capital city of Bishkek. It included the setting up of a coordination council; a local action plan consisting of sector-specific action plans; training of professionals from these sectors; the defining of forms of reporting and tracking domestic violence; regular coordination meetings; and the carrying out of awareness-raising campaigns. This pilot model was then extended to the cities of Osh and Jalal-Abad, where medical centres started registering cases of domestic violence, provided medical support and referred cases to the local police department.²¹*

Good Practice: *In 2008, Moldova adopted its law on preventing and combating domestic violence and introduced new protection measures. In 2010, the Criminal Code was amended to criminalise domestic violence and marital rape.*

Major bottlenecks in the respective legislation of each country are highlighted in the concluding observations on the implementation of the Convention to Eliminate All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW).²² For those countries that have been visited by the 'Special Rapporteur on violence against women, its causes and consequences' in recent years, reports from these country visits provide further detailed resources for necessary legislative revisions²³ which must be guided by General Recommendation No. 19 of the CEDAW Committee.²⁴

Two important conventions regarding VAWG have recently marked an important milestone in the region: the Council of Europe Convention on Preventing and Combating Violence Against Women and Domestic Violence ('Istanbul Convention')²⁵ and the Council of Europe Convention on the Protection of Children Against Sexual Exploitation and Sexual Abuse ('Lanzarote Convention')²⁶. These conventions provide detailed definitions of different forms of VAWG, including concrete articles on their prevention.

Some EECA countries that are members of the Council of Europe have already ratified both these conventions. The ratification and full application of both conventions is highly recommended for all EECA countries.

Good Practice: *As of early 2015, four countries in the EECA region have already ratified the Istanbul Convention; seven have ratified the Lanzarote Convention.*

Fourth, adequate training for law-enforcement staff and health and social workers is of utmost importance to develop capacities that can actively prevent VAWG and guarantee access to justice and services for victims and survivors. Prevention measures need to provide proactive approaches to prevent potential victimisation.

Good Practice: *The Police Academy of Georgia has specialised training courses on domestic violence for the following groups: patrol-inspectors, district inspectors, and detective-investigators, including specialised programmes for the promotion of patrol police officers.*

Fifth, sufficient funding that guarantees longer-term access to effective services for victims and survivors is an absolute necessity. These services should be adequately staffed and capacitated to prevent VAWG and protect victims and survivors. The awareness of

these services among (potential) victims and survivors needs to be raised.

Sixth, communities, including potential perpetrators and victims and survivors, must be aware of the causes and consequences of VAWG – especially the relation between gender- and rights-unfriendly social norms and health and human-rights consequences. Therefore, awareness-raising campaigns must target men and women as well as boys and girls.

Good Practice: *In Tajikistan, 'Strong Men Respect Women' is a network of male advocates dedicated to fight against VAWG in the country. The network has trained martial artists on gender equality, violence prevention, community organising, and public speaking. Equipped with these tools, they now speak out against gender inequality and violence at martial arts lessons, matches, and public gatherings. They also appeal to the public in videos and major media campaigns.²⁷ For example, the president of the National Federation of Taekwondo and Kickboxing played the lead role in one video clip which was broadcast on national TV channels and reached approximately 70 per cent of the population.²⁸*

Seventh, there is an urgent need to improve data collection systems so that they include all forms of violence and disaggregate data by age, sex, area (urban/rural), and relationship between the perpetrator and victim and/or survivor. Furthermore, indicators need to be unified²⁹ at the national level and collected accordingly at the local level.

Finally, protection and prevention strategies should take into account the needs and vulnerabilities of particular groups, including women and girls with disabilities, members of ethnic minorities, and those impacted by a crisis. Additional efforts in the form of adapted awareness-raising and special targeted services are needed to ensure that these groups can access the necessary information, services, and protection that could prevent them from experiencing violence.

Notes on Methodology

This Issue brief draws on evidence from previous research conducted on VAWG in the region which used primary and secondary sources. Additional material was consulted to compile the information presented in this document.

For instance, the most recent Concluding Observations by the CEDAW Committee on each of the 17 countries were compared and annual thematic,³¹ regional,³² and country visit reports³³ by the 'Special Rapporteur on violence against women, its causes and consequences' were consulted; reports and policy notes produced for

the Beijing+20 Regional Review³⁴ served as important resources.

UNFPA,³⁵ UN WOMEN,³⁶ UNECE,³⁷ UNICEF,³⁸ including MICS,³⁹ and WHO⁴⁰ were the main sources for statistical data for the EECA region. Further references are quoted in the Endnotes. Good practices were identified through primary (interviews) and secondary (web search) sources.

Endnotes

- ¹ Note: Figure 1 is based on mean average values per region obtained from national surveys conducted between 2007 and 2013 in selected EECA countries. The data source distinguishes between perpetrators of violence, namely intimate partners or other family members (non-partner); for a simplified graphical presentation of the data, both data sets (partner and non-partner) have been added together in all graphs of this document which refer to this source. For data source see endnote 39.
- ² WHO (2013), Global and regional estimates on violence against women: prevalence and health effect of intimate partner violence and non-partner sexual violence, World Health Organisation, Appendix 2, page 47. Available at: <http://who.int/reproductivehealth/publications/violence/9789241564625/en>
- ³ UN WOMEN (2012) Violence against Women Prevalence Data: Surveys by Country, United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women. Available at: http://www.endvawnow.org/uploads/browser/files/vawprevalence_matrix_june2013.pdf
- ⁴ See 'Notes on Methodology'.
- ⁵ UNFPA (2014), Prevalence studies on intimate partner violence and domestic violence in the EECA region. In: *Strengthening Health System Responses to Gender-based Violence in Eastern Europe and Central Asia*; pages 24-28. Available at: <http://eeca.unfpa.org/sites/default/files/pub-pdf/WAVE-UNFPA-Report-EN.pdf>
- ⁶ EU FRA (2014), Violence against women: an EU-wide survey. Main results. Available at: http://fra.europa.eu/sites/default/files/fra-2014-vaw-survey-main-results_en.pdf
- ⁷ ILO (2011), Gender-based violence in the world of work: Overview and selected annotated bibliography, Working Paper 3. Available at: http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---gender/documents/publication/wcms_155763.pdf
- ⁸ IASC (2005), The Inter-Agency Standing Committee Taskforce on Gender in Humanitarian Assistance, Guidelines for Gender-based Violence Interventions in Humanitarian Settings: Focusing on Prevention of and Response to Sexual Violence in Emergencies. Available at: <http://www.unhcr.org/453492294.pdf>
- ⁹ E.g. Vikhrest A. (2015), 'All-enveloping silence persists around rape in Ukraine conflict.' *Women Under Siege*, 15 January. Available at: <http://www.womenundersiegeproject.org/blog/entry/all-enveloping-silence-persists-around-rape-in-ukraine-conflict>
- ¹⁰ E.g. Wolfe L. (2013), 'Syria Has a Massive Rape Crisis.' *The Atlantic*, 3 April. Available at: <http://www.theatlantic.com/international/archive/2013/04/syria-has-a-massive-rape-crisis/274583/>
- ¹¹ International Center for Human Development (2014), Women displaced from Syria seeking safe haven in Armenia. Available at: <http://ichd.org/?laid=1&com=module&module=static&id=945>
- ¹² E.g. WHO (2014), Preventing and addressing intimate partner violence against migrant and ethnic minority women: the role of the health sector, Policy Brief. Available at: http://www.euro.who.int/__data/assets/pdf_file/0018/270180/21256-WHO-Intimate-Partner-Violence_low_V7.pdf
- ¹³ Prava za sve 2011 in WHO (2014), see endnote 12.
- ¹⁴ Tokuç, Ekuklu & Avcioglu 2010 in WHO (2014), see endnote 12.
- ¹⁵ See endnote 2.
- ¹⁶ UNICEF (2012), Statistics and Monitoring. Available at: http://www.unicef.org/statistics/index_step1.php. Please note that at the time of publication, the mentioned source was the database with the most recent and comprehensive data on this indicator for the countries of the EECA region.
- ¹⁷ UNFPA Regional Office for Eastern Europe and Central Asia (2015), Multi-sectorial response to GBV: Mapping the current situation in the countries of Eastern Europe and Central Asia.
- ¹⁸ E.g. HRC (2013), Report of the 'Special Rapporteur on violence against women, its causes and consequences', Ms. Rashida Manjoo: Addendum Summary report of the regional consultations on State responsibility and violence against women (2011 to 2013). Available at: http://www.ohchr.org/Documents/HRBodies/HRCouncil/RegularSession/Session23/A-HRC-23-49-Add5_en.pdf
- ¹⁹ UNECE (2014), Preventing and eliminating violence against women and girls in the Europe and Central Asia region, ECE/AC.28/2014/7. Available at: <http://www.unece.org/fileadmin/DAM/Gender/documents/Beijing+15/ECE.AC.28.2014.7.E.pdf>
- ²⁰ E.g. CEDAW, HRC, see endnotes 18 and 22 to 24.

- ²¹ UNFPA (2014), 4.1. The definition of a referral system. In: *Strengthening Health System Responses to Gender-based Violence in Eastern Europe and Central Asia*; pages 24-28. Available at: <http://eeca.unfpa.org/sites/default/files/pub-pdf/WAVE-UNFPA-Report-EN.pdf>
- ²² For all Concluding Observations by the CEDAW for each country see http://tbinternet.ohchr.org/_layouts/treatybodyexternal/TBSearch.aspx?Lang=en&TreatyID=3&DocTypeID=5
- ²³ For all country visit reports by the 'Special Rapporteur on violence against women, its causes and consequences see <http://www.ohchr.org/EN/Issues/Women/SRWomen/Pages/CountryVisits.aspx>
- ²⁴ CEDAW (1992), General Recommendation No. 19 (11th session). Available at: <http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/cedaw/recommendations/recomm.htm#recom19>
- ²⁵ Council of Europe (2011), Council of Europe Convention on Preventing and Combating Violence Against Women and Domestic Violence. Available at: <http://www.coe.int/t/dghl/standardsetting/convention-violence/convention/Convention%20210%20English.pdf>
- ²⁶ Council of Europe (2007), Council of Europe Convention on the Protection of Children against Sexual Exploitation and Sexual Abuse. Available at: <http://conventions.coe.int/Treaty/EN/treaties/Html/201.htm>
- ²⁷ UNFPA (2015), Martial artists fight gender discrimination, violence in Tajikistan. Available at: <http://eeca.unfpa.org/news/martial-artists-fight-gender-discrimination-violence-tajikistan>
- ²⁸ UNFPA (2015), Ring the bell. Video available at: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=XZfM6dTq2C0>
- ²⁹ For more information on indicators see: UNESC (2011), Report on the Friends of the Chair of the United Nations Statistical Commission on Indicators on Violence against Women, E/CN.3/2011/5. Available at: <http://unstats.un.org/unsd/statcom/doc11/2011-5-FOC-GenderStats-E.pdf>
- ³⁰ See endnote 22.
- ³¹ For all Annual Reports by the Special Rapporteur on violence against women, its causes and consequences see <http://www.ohchr.org/EN/Issues/Women/SRWomen/Pages/AnnualReports.aspx>
- ³² See endnote 18.
- ³³ See endnote 23.
- ³⁴ All policy notes produced for the UNECE Beijing+20 Regional Review Meeting can be found here: [http://www.unece.org/genderwelcome-new/meetings-and-events/beijing-platform-for-action/inter-governmental-meeting/2014/beijing-20-regional-review-meeting/beijing-20-regional-review-meeting.html#/,](http://www.unece.org/genderwelcome-new/meetings-and-events/beijing-platform-for-action/inter-governmental-meeting/2014/beijing-20-regional-review-meeting/beijing-20-regional-review-meeting.html#/) particular focus was paid to ECE/AC.28/2014/7 and ECE/AC.28/2014/3
- ³⁵ See endnote 5.
- ³⁶ See endnote 3.
- ³⁷ UNECE (2014), Gender Statistics, Crime and Violence. Female victims as percentage of both sexes. Available at: http://w3.unece.org/PXWeb2015/pxweb/en/STAT/STAT__30-GE__07-CV
- ³⁸ See endnote 16.
- ³⁹ MICS Compiler (2015), Access to Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey Data. Available at: <http://www.micscompiler.org/>
- ⁴⁰ See endnote 2.
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Regional Issue brief

- 1 **Adolescent Pregnancy** in Eastern Europe and Central Asia (*Issue brief 1, 2013*)
- 2 **Investing in Young People** in Eastern Europe and Central Asia (*Issue brief 2, 2014*)
- 3 **Child Marriage** in Eastern Europe and Central Asia (*Issue brief 3, 2014*)
- 4 **Preventing Gender-biased Sex Selection** in Eastern Europe and Central Asia (*Issue brief 4, 2015*)
- 5 **Preventing Cervical Cancer in Eastern Europe and Central Asia** (*Issue brief 5, 2015*)
- 6 **Combatting Violence Against Women and Girls in Eastern Europe and Central Asia** (*Issue brief 6, 2015*)

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Delivering a world where every
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