

# Gender Equality Index 2017

## Measurement framework of violence against women

# Report



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# Gender Equality Index 2017

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# Foreword

Violence against women is rooted in the uneven balance of power between women and men and is both a cause and an outcome of gender inequalities. It happens mostly at home, but also in the workplace, on the street and, increasingly, in cyberspace. The personal costs to victims' health and well-being are enormous, and the harm it causes extends to families and to the wider society. Violence against women has no boundaries — it is widespread and severe.

Measuring the extent of violence against women with the help of reliable and comparable data is one of the first steps towards ending it. However, since 2014 there has been no new European Union-wide data on violence against women. Understanding gender relations, social norms and patterns and the environment where violence occurs can help explain the varying prevalence of violence across countries and time as well as help plan effective measures.

The European Institute for Gender Equality's Gender Equality Index presents, for the first time, a more advanced way to measure violence against women in the European Union. It also provides a comparable score for each country. The Institute's report shows that some women are more at risk of certain types of violence and experience it differently because of various factors, such as disability, migrant status or sexual orientation. It also looks at contextual factors, such as public attitudes towards violence, victim support services and legal frameworks to gain a better understanding of the drivers and circumstances of violence.

Over time, the index aims to further define and populate all proposed indicators to enable the European Union and its Member States to monitor emerging forms of violence, such as femicide, stalking and forced marriage. It will continue to look at the complex interaction between gender equality and violence against women.

In 2017, the European Commission is focusing its efforts to combat this most coercive manifestation of gender inequality. The European Union accession to the Istanbul Convention on 13 June 2017 further reinforced this commitment. The European Institute for Gender Equality is proud to contribute to this initiative with critical research, and the domain of violence in the Gender Equality Index 2017 is a significant step forward.

On behalf of the institute, I would like to thank all institutions, organisations and experts who contributed to this special index report on violence against women. I would especially like to thank the Institute's Working Group on the Gender Equality Index, the European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights and the European Commission. In particular, the Gender Equality Unit at DG Justice and Consumers, Eurostat and my colleagues at the Institute.

**Virginija Langbakk,**  
Director

The European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE)

## Country abbreviations

<b>AT</b>	Austria
<b>BE</b>	Belgium
<b>BG</b>	Bulgaria
<b>CY</b>	Cyprus
<b>CZ</b>	Czech Republic
<b>DE</b>	Germany
<b>DK</b>	Denmark
<b>EE</b>	Estonia
<b>EL</b>	Greece
<b>ES</b>	Spain
<b>FI</b>	Finland
<b>FR</b>	France
<b>HR</b>	Croatia
<b>HU</b>	Hungary
<b>IE</b>	Ireland

<b>IT</b>	Italy
<b>LT</b>	Lithuania
<b>LU</b>	Luxembourg
<b>LV</b>	Latvia
<b>MT</b>	Malta
<b>NL</b>	Netherlands
<b>PL</b>	Poland
<b>PT</b>	Portugal
<b>RO</b>	Romania
<b>SE</b>	Sweden
<b>SI</b>	Slovenia
<b>SK</b>	Slovakia
<b>UK</b>	United Kingdom
<b>EU-28</b>	28 EU Member States

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# Executive summary

Since its inception, the Gender Equality Index has had the objective to support monitoring European Union (EU) Member States' performance on the eradication of violence as an integral part of the progress towards gender equality at large. Building on the first two editions, the 2017 edition of the index has further developed the domain of violence into a more comprehensive measurement framework to serve as a foundation for a reliable and comparable statistical assessment of the extent of violence against women in the EU. However, since the release of the Gender Equality Index 2015, no new EU-wide comparable data on the extent of violence against women have become available.

The measurement framework described in this report contains three sets of indicators: (1) **indicators for the composite measure** on the extent of violence against women reduced to several forms of violence, including its severity and disclosure, for which data are available — these data are aggregated into a single score, providing a simple and easily understandable measure of the extent of violence against women in EU Member States; (2) **additional indicators** covering a broader range of forms of violence against women; (3) **contextual factors** to support the collection of information on both the root causes of violence and the level of effort shown in each Member State to eradicate violence and support its victims.

Unlike the general score of the Gender Equality Index, for which the higher the score indicates the closer the country is to achieving equality between women and men in all areas, the interpretation of the composite measure of violence against women uses the opposite approach. The higher the value of the composite measure, the more serious the phenomenon of violence against women, as it reflects the scope of how prevalent, severe and under-reported violence is. Using a scale of 1 to 100, the metric highlights the situation of Member States against two extremes, where '1' presents a situation where violence is non-existent and where '100' means that violence against women is extremely common, highly severe and not disclosed. The best performing country is therefore the one showing the lowest score for the composite measure of violence against women.

The development of this measurement framework on violence against women has provided the following key findings.

- The score for the EU-28 stands at 27.5, highlighting the fact that violence against women remains a prevalent, severe and under-reported phenomenon. There are differences between Member States, with scores ranging from 22.1 for Poland to 44.2 for Bulgaria.
- The severity subdomain, with a score of 46.9 for the EU-28, significantly affects the overall score of the domain of violence. This subdomain measures two aspects: the health consequences experienced as a result of violence and multiple victimisation. For almost 70 % of victims, violence has health consequences <sup>(1)</sup>. In addition, in the EU-28, 37 % of women victims of sexual and/or physical violence have experienced violence by several types of perpetrators. This information provides an important addition to prevalence indicators since it highlights the fact that more than a third of victimised women have experienced violence in several contexts (for example, in a past relationship and by a non-partner).
- Almost one in two women (47 %) who have experienced sexual and/or physical violence in the EU-28 have not disclosed their experience to any institution (e.g. police, health services or social services) or to any individual <sup>(2)</sup>. This high level of non-disclosure of violence against women is alarming and indicates that women may not receive adequate support or that they will not be adequately protected from further victimisation.
- In most countries, women are more likely to disclose experiences of violence when the perpetrator is a partner (or former partner) than a non-partner. In the EU-28, the likelihood of women divulging their experience is four percentage points higher if the perpetrator is an intimate partner.
- Femicide is the extreme act of violence against women. It is the ultimate manifestation of a continuum of violence, which includes various kinds of mistreatment, harassment and killing. Data captured by Eurostat show that the majority of victims are killed by an intimate partner <sup>(3)</sup>. Despite the severity of this form of violence,

<sup>(1)</sup> Data for women having experienced physical and/or sexual violence by any perpetrator since the age of 15 (Source: EIGE's calculation, FRA, Violence against women: an EU-wide survey, 2012).

<sup>(2)</sup> Data for women having experienced physical and/or sexual violence by any perpetrator since the age of 15 (Source: EIGE's calculation, FRA, Violence against women: an EU-wide survey, 2012).

<sup>(3)</sup> Data on femicide are captured through the number of women victims of intentional homicide by 100 000 inhabitants.



data are only available for a limited number of Member States. In addition, no Member State has incorporated a definition of femicide into their criminal laws.

- Violence is something that all women are likely to experience due to their being women. It is nevertheless important to acknowledge that social factors such as ethnicity, migration, sexual orientation, age, disability, or other factors, may make women vulnerable to specific forms of violence. They may also be exposed to violence differently or disproportionately. Additionally, certain women may also have limited opportunities to escape violence or access support services (EIGE, 2012).
- For intimate partner violence (IPV), an analysis of the European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights survey shows heightened victimisation levels for some groups of women, especially non-heterosexual women <sup>(4)</sup>, women with disabilities and women who do not possess the citizenship of the country they live in. This highlights the need for support services as well as policies on the prevention of violence against women that take into account the diverse circumstances women are placed in. This is critical to ensure that women most at risk are adequately protected and supported.

While much progress towards a consistent and comprehensive measurement of violence against women has been achieved, some aspects of the measurement structure (e.g. contextual factors) still have to be further elaborated and refined. Violence against women is both a root cause of gender inequalities and a factor in reinforcing them. It represents a crucial set of social practices that force and reinforce the subordination of women to men in families, at work and in society. The availability of solid and reliable data for the measurement of contextual factors would advance the understanding of the root causes of violence against women and, even more importantly, would address practices that constitute violence against women.

The structure of the measurement framework is built around the central aspects of the Istanbul Convention. As a domain of the Gender Equality Index, it offers multiple possibilities for measuring complex interactions between gender equality and violence against women. Elaborated further, the measurement framework could not only fulfil its potential of measuring progress in gender equality, but could also support the monitoring of the implementation of the Istanbul Convention in the EU.

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<sup>(4)</sup> This data should be interpreted with caution. Data for non-heterosexual women includes women who identify as “lesbian” bisexual” or “other”. Furthermore, the survey does not provide data on the sex of perpetrators (current or former partner) of violence experienced by non-heterosexual women. Finally, women may not disclose that they are non-heterosexual.

# Introduction

Gender-based violence against women <sup>(5)</sup> is rooted in historically unequal power relations between women and men, which leads to oppressive patterns of coercive control of men over women. It is the most pervasive gender inequality of our time, undermining women's dignity and integrity, and imposing serious harm on families, communities and societies.

Violence against women is the consequence as well as a driver of structural inequalities experienced by women in all aspects of their lives, ranging from health and education to work, finances and access to decision-making and time use. Understood as a wide range of coercive, manipulative and harmful practices, violence against women keeps women in fear of perpetrators and in subordinate, unequal positions at home, at work and in the public space.

Despite decades of progress in the development of gender equality policies and strategies, women in Europe continue to be exposed to serious forms of violence, including physical and sexual violence and femicide, due to their gender. It is estimated that one in three women in the EU will be victims of male violence in their lifetime (FRA, 2014).

At the individual level, women's economic disadvantages and their lifelong economic dependency increases the risk of violence and may deprive them of the ability to leave an abusive relationship due to a lack of financial resources. Although economic independence alone does not guarantee a life free of violence, it can support women and encourage them to escape violent intimate partnerships (United Nations, 2006). Women who have experienced violence are also at a higher risk of repeated victimisation if they are not able to access adequate support and services. At the societal level, violence against women incurs public expenditure of considerable magnitude in the areas of justice, police, support and health. In the UK alone, it is estimated that almost 13 % of the costs of gender-based violence against women are associated with lost economic

output; almost 26 % of the costs are associated with the criminal justice system, health services, social welfare and civil justice system (EIGE, 2014b).

Tackling violence against women calls for a holistic approach in addressing the structural aspects and factors of discrimination, including structural and institutional gender inequalities and analysing social and economic hierarchies between women and men and also among women (United Nations, 2011; Council of Europe, 2011).

Eradicating gender-based violence is a priority of the EU and its Member States, who have taken a range of actions, in particular legal and policy measures, to criminalise violence against women and to protect and support violence survivors. The analysis of recent efforts to combat violence against women on the part of the European Union and on the part of other key multilateral institutions (United Nations and the Council of Europe) can be found in Annex 1 of this report.

Measuring the magnitude of the phenomenon of violence against women is critical to achieve progress towards its eradication. Comprehensive data are crucial to provide information on the different forms of violence against women, their causes and consequences. Detailed data are required to gauge the scope and dimensions of the problem, to establish baselines, to identify groups at high risk, to focus on intervention and prevention efforts where they are needed the most, to monitor change over time, to assess the effectiveness of interventions and to address the harm caused to victims of violence (Council of Europe, 2011; United Nations, 2013).

The European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE) has incorporated violence against women in its Gender Equality Index as a satellite domain. The index is a monitoring tool that provides a measure of the attainment of gender equality and assists in monitoring progress of gender equality across the EU over time. The Gender Equality Index captures the extent to which women and men are faring differently in six aspects of life: work, money, time, knowledge, health and power. For a solid monitoring tool, and to ensure comparability between countries and over time, the use of uniform definitions and comparable data sets is an absolute necessity.

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<sup>(5)</sup> Gender-based violence against women is violence that is directed against a woman because she is a woman or affects women disproportionately. '(...) all acts of gender-based violence that result in, or are likely to result in, physical, sexual, psychological or economic harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or in private life' (Article 3(a) of the Istanbul Convention, Council of Europe, 2011).



The status of 'satellite' domain stems from both conceptual and statistical considerations. First, conceptually, violence targeting women is a major cause and consequence of structural inequalities experienced by women in the field of work, health, money, power, education and time use. From this point of view, violence against women cannot be excluded from the Gender Equality Index. Yet, from a statistical perspective, the domain of violence cannot be treated in the same way as the core domains of the index because it does not measure gaps between women and men. Rather, it measures and analyses women's experiences of violence. Unlike other domains, the overall objective is not to reduce the gaps of violence between women and men, but to eradicate violence altogether (EIGE, 2013b). This fundamental difference between the domains of the Gender Equality Index and the domain of violence against women warrants treating this domain differently.

When the Gender Equality Index was first developed in 2013, the domain of violence was left empty due to a lack of comparable data across all EU Member States. The empty domain of violence was qualified by the authors as the largest statistical gap in measuring the progress of gender equality at EU level (EIGE, 2013b). The completion of an EU-wide survey on violence against women by the European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights (FRA) in 2012 constituted an unprecedented advancement in assessing the magnitude of the phenomenon in the EU (FRA, 2014). Since then, no new EU-wide survey data have been made available.

Building on the FRA survey findings, the second edition of the Gender Equality Index presented a first attempt at populating the domain of violence by constructing

a composite indicator of direct violence against women (EIGE, 2015b).

This report describes the measurement framework designed to capture the phenomenon of violence against women in the context of the Gender Equality Index. Because measuring and monitoring the phenomenon is a prerequisite for its eradication, a measurement framework for violence against women will support monitoring the extent of violence against women in the EU and across all EU Member States on a regular basis. More generally, it seeks to support Member States in meeting their commitments to eradicate violence. It will also be used as a basis for reaching a common agreement over definitions and of what data need to be collected within the 28 EU Member States in order to measure progress and improve policies at both national and European levels. The measurement framework is focused on the development of a limited number of the most relevant indicators, which could guide Member States in planning and implementing their actions in prevention, protection and support of victims of violence against women. It is based on the central aspects of the Istanbul Convention; therefore, if elaborated further, it could support the Member States in monitoring the convention. The initial concept of the measurement framework was developed in cooperation with Profs. Monika Schröttle and Julia Habermann.

Chapter 1 defines the key terms and presents the theoretical background of the measurement framework. Chapter 2 presents a set of indicators on the extent of violence against women, including the purpose and type of indicators, criteria for selecting indicators and relevant data sources, and Chapter 3 presents the data analysis for the different layers of measurement.

# 1. Theoretical framework

The root cause of violence against women lies in the unequal power relations between women and men, which leads to male dominance over women — a common feature of human societies throughout the world. Eliminating violence against women is a profound political challenge, because it necessitates challenging the unequal social, political and economic power held by women and men as well as the ways in which this inequality is perpetuated through institutions at all levels of society (Pickup, 2001).

The structural imbalances of power and inequality between women and men can be seen as both the context and the causes of violence against women; therefore, the links between violence against women and women's economic, social and political subordination must be acknowledged<sup>(6)</sup>. Simultaneously, violence against women is a driver of gender inequality in all areas of life. Sexual harassment at work and the overspill of domestic violence in the workplace contribute to a high turnover among women and to their slower career advancement (Showalter, 2016). As such, they perpetuate gender disparities in the work domain. Sexual assault on campuses undermines women students' academic success and can thus relate to gender disparities in the education domain (Feltes, Balloni, Czapska, Bodelon and Stenning, 2012; Jordan, Combs and Smith, 2014). Violence is the cause of significant physical and mental health problems that occur in women and can thus contribute to gender disparities in the health domain (Martinez, Schröttle et al., 2006; Agnew-Davies, 2016).

In this context, since the inception of the Gender Equality Index, violence against women has been included as one of the dimensions of gender equality to be monitored. As with the other domains of the Gender Equality Index, the main purpose of measuring violence against women is to ensure comparability between countries and to offer a monitoring tool over time. From this point of view, the use of uniform definitions, methodologies and data sets is an absolute

necessity. The Council of Europe Convention on Preventing and Combating Violence against Women and Domestic Violence (Istanbul Convention) calls for the development of such a monitoring tool and has helped to inform the theoretical framework of the measurement of violence against women (Council of Europe, 2011). Using uniform definitions, such as those in the convention and those developed by EIGE for IPV, femicide and rape (EIGE, 2017d), the objective is to ensure that there is shared understanding of all forms of violence against women across the EU Member States.

In the Istanbul Convention, violence against women is described as being rooted in gender inequality and is defined 'as a violation of human rights and a form of discrimination against women' (Article 3(a)). The definition further includes 'all acts of gender-based violence that result in, or are likely to result in, physical, sexual, psychological or economic harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or in private life'.

The Istanbul Convention includes, for the first time in a European legislative framework, a definition of gender-based violence against women: "gender-based violence against women" shall mean violence that is directed against a woman because she is a woman or that affects women disproportionately' (Article 3(d)). In particular, the convention names forms of violence that should be criminalised, which include psychological, physical and sexual violence, sexual harassment, stalking, forced marriage, female genital mutilation (FGM), forced abortion and forced sterilisation.

Furthermore, Article 42 states that the justification of crimes by reason of culture, custom, religion, tradition or honour is not acceptable. Crimes with the purpose of punishing a victim because of behaviour that the perpetrator believes, questions, criticises or actually infringes religious, traditional, social or cultural norms or customs are also not justified (Council of Europe, 2011).

For the construction of a feasible measurement framework for the domain of violence, the forms of violence against women described in the Istanbul Convention were taken into consideration and supplemented by femicide and trafficking in human beings. The analysis of these specific forms indicates the complex and multifaceted nature of violence against women.

<sup>(6)</sup> Violence against women cannot be solely attributed to individual psychological factors or socioeconomic conditions. Explanations for violence that focus primarily on interpretations of individual behaviours and personal histories, such as alcohol abuse or personal experiences of violence, overlook the broader impact of systemic gender inequalities and women's subordination. Efforts to uncover the factors that are associated with violence against women should therefore be situated within the larger social context of power relations (United Nations, 2006, p. 29).



## Forms of violence

The measurement framework includes aspects of **physical, sexual and psychological violence**. These forms of violence are often overlapping and many women are subjected to multiple forms of violence which differ in frequency and severity and entail different consequences from one individual to another. Though some forms of violence, such as FGM, involve acts of physical violence, they are often considered as a stand-alone form of violence. Whilst physical and sexual violence, for example, can occur repeatedly in a lifetime, FGM and forced sterilisation are one-time events by their very nature. Forced marriage is also more likely to be a one-time event with lifelong consequences. Furthermore, sexual violence by intimate partners is more likely to be repetitive in nature, and is often part of a pattern of IPV, whereas sexual violence by a non-partner can be a single occurrence.

**Intimate partner violence** is the most common form of violence experienced by women globally (United Nations, 2006; European Parliament, 2010). The most comprehensive definition of IPV can be found in the United Nations Secretary-General's in-depth study on all forms of violence against women (United Nations, 2006).

IPV includes a range of sexual, psychological and physically coercive acts used against adult and adolescent women by a current or former intimate partner, without her consent. Physical violence involves intentionally using physical force, strength or a weapon to harm or injure the woman. Sexual violence includes abusive sexual contact, making a woman engage in a sexual act without her consent, and attempted or completed sexual acts with a woman who is ill, disabled, under pressure or under the influence of alcohol or other drugs. Psychological violence includes controlling or isolating the woman and humiliating or embarrassing her. Economic violence includes denying a woman access to and control over basic resources (United Nations, 2006, pp. 37-38).

The Istanbul Convention refers to the concept of IPV as 'domestic violence', defined as 'all acts of physical, sexual, psychological or economic violence that occur within the family or domestic unit or between former or current spouses or partners, whether or not the perpetrator shares or has shared the same residence with the victim' (7) (Article 3(b)).

EIGE has further developed a definition of IPV for statistical purposes which refers to 'any act of physical, sexual, psychological or economic violence that occurs between former or current spouses or partners, whether or not the perpetrator shares or has shared the same residence with the victim' (EIGE, 2017d).

**Table 1: Forms of intimate partner violence**

Intimate partner violence	Physical violence	Any act which causes physical harm to the partner or former partner as a result of unlawful physical force. Physical violence can take the form of, among others, serious and minor assault, deprivation of liberty and manslaughter.
	Sexual violence	Any sexual act performed on the victim without consent. Sexual violence can take the form of rape or sexual assault.
	Psychological violence	Any act or behaviour that causes psychological harm to the partner or former partner. Psychological violence can take the form of, among others, coercion, defamation, verbal insult or harassment.
	Economic violence	Any act or behaviour that causes economic harm to the partner. Economic violence can take the form of, among others, property damage, restricting access to financial resources, education or the labour market, or not complying with economic responsibilities such as alimony.

Source: EIGE (2017d)

**Psychological violence** is defined by the Istanbul Convention as 'the intentional conduct of seriously impairing a person's psychological integrity through coercion or threats' (Council of Europe, 2011). This form of violence, especially in the context of emotional and coercive control in intimate partner relationships, is a significant form of gender-based violence for which monitoring is particularly needed (United Nations Statistical Commission, 2010; OHCHR, 2012; UNECE, 2015; EIGE, 2015b; UNSD, 2016; EIGE, 2017d). This acknowledges that forms of power other than physical violence and dominance also constitute violence and often form a precondition for or are accompanied by physical violence (8). However, psychological or emotional

(7) Economic violence means the control of all family resources by the perpetrator, not only financial resources but also time, transport, food, clothes, etc.; ensuring the dependence of the victim to the perpetrator to provide her subsistence (EIGE, 2014b).

(8) There are different forms of psychological assault, from threats of violence and harm to emotional abuse. Emotional abuse is a tactic of control based on a wide variety of verbal attacks, humiliations or neglects of affection that conform a pattern of coercive behaviours towards the woman victim. Isolation of the victim by the perpetrator and the use of children to control or punish the victim (i.e. physical or sexual attack to the children, or forcing them to witness the abuse towards their mother) are also examples of psychological violence (EIGE, 2014b).

violence against women has received less attention in research on IPV.

**Sexual harassment** refers to unwanted physical, verbal or non-verbal conduct of a sexual nature, violating the victim's dignity and creating a hostile environment (European Parliament and Council of the European Union, 2006). Acts are inclusive of, but not limited to, vulgar actions, requesting sexual favours, threatening or forcing with the purpose of gaining sexual satisfaction, and forcibly imposed sexual intimacy. The EU has legislation addressing sexual harassment, as set out in 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 (recast). Sexual harassment is defined as taking place 'where any form of unwanted verbal, non-verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature occurs, with the purpose or effect of violating the dignity of a person, in particular when creating an intimidating, hostile, degrading, humiliating or offensive environment' (Article 2(d)).

**Stalking** is an intentional conduct of repeatedly engaging in threatening conduct directed at another person, causing her or him to fear for her or his safety (Council of Europe, 2011). Awareness of stalking as a form of gender-based violence and of its effects on victims varies greatly across the EU. These differences are reflected in the level of criminalisation of this offence, as stalking is not considered a separate crime in all Member States. Some Member States have a dedicated law, while others prosecute stalking under other crimes in the criminal or penal code (EIGE, 2016c).

**Female genital mutilation** refers to all procedures involving partial or total removal of the external female genitalia or other injury to the female genital organs for non-medical reasons (WHO, 2008). In the Istanbul Convention, FGM is defined as excising, infibulating or performing any other mutilation to the whole or any part of a woman's labia majora, labia minora or clitoris (Article 38).

Research conducted in the EU in 2012 reveals a trend to recognise FGM as a criminal act. In all EU Member States, legal provisions dealing with bodily injury, mutilation and removal of organs or body tissue are applicable to the practice of FGM and may be used for criminal prosecution. In some Member States, a specific criminal law has been introduced to address FGM. A total of 592 manuals, toolkits, protocols and awareness-raising campaigns were documented across the Member States, mostly addressing prevention. Methods and tools aiming at prosecution and protection are available to a lesser extent (EIGE, 2013a).

**Forced abortion and forced sterilisation** are forms of violence that are either perpetrated or condoned by the state. They are defined in the Istanbul Convention as 'the intentional conducts (...) [of] (a) performing an abortion on a woman without her prior and informed consent; (b) performing surgery which has the purpose or effect of terminating a woman's capacity to naturally reproduce without her prior and informed consent or understanding of the procedure' (Council of Europe, 2011) <sup>(9)</sup>.

**Forced marriage** is described in the Istanbul Convention as covering two types of conduct: forcing a person to enter into a marriage and luring a person abroad with the purpose of forcing this person to enter into marriage (Council of Europe, 2011). According to the convention, forced marriage is the intentional conduct of forcing an adult or a child to enter into a marriage. The term 'forcing' refers to physical and psychological force where coercion or duress is employed (Council of Europe, 2011). In its most extreme form, forced marriage can involve threatening behaviour, abduction, imprisonment, physical violence, rape and, in some cases, femicide.

In addition to the forms referred to in the Istanbul Convention, it was considered that two other important manifestations of violence against women should be considered for measurement: human trafficking and the deaths of women as a result of violence, namely, femicide <sup>(10)</sup>.

**Trafficking in human beings** is a form of violence that takes place in multiple settings and usually involves many different actors, including families, local brokers, international criminal networks and immigration authorities. It takes place both between and within countries. The majority of the victims of trafficking in human beings are women and children, although men and boys can also be involved as victims; many are trafficked for the purposes of sexual exploitation (United Nations, 2006; United Nations, 2014b) <sup>(11)</sup>. Trafficking in human beings refers to the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons by means of threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse

<sup>(9)</sup> EIGE found that 'none of the Member States include this component within their definition of rape, either in the legislation or in its interpretation by the courts. Forced sterilisation may be prosecuted under the offence of 'injury' and in some Member States (e.g. ES, IT) it is an aggravating circumstance of this specific offence. In other Member States, forced sterilisation (e.g. PL, SE) or illegal sterilisation (e.g. SK) are separate offences' (EIGE, 2017d).

<sup>(10)</sup> For a discussion on the definition of femicide, see p. 16.

<sup>(11)</sup> According to Eurostat, in 2012 67 % of the identified victims of human trafficking were women and girls. Almost all of them were trafficked for sexual exploitation purposes (96 %).





of power or of a position of vulnerability <sup>(12)</sup>, of the giving or receiving of payments and benefits to achieve the consent of a person or of having control over another person for the purpose of exploitation (United Nations, 2000; European Parliament, 2011a). This can take the form of exploitation by prostitution or other forms of sexual exploitation, forced labour or services, slavery or practices similar to slavery, servitude or the removal of organs.

Trafficking in women is an extremely severe form of gender-based violence. It is important to note that in all cases of trafficking, women are victims of other acts of violence such as rape, assault, psychological violence and economic violence.

**Femicide** is the extreme act of violence against women in patriarchal cultures; it is the ultimate manifestation of a continuum of violence which includes various kinds of mistreatment, harassment and violence and which affects women everywhere and in all walks of life. The term was first publicly introduced in 1976 by Diana Russell while

testifying before the International Tribunal on Crimes against Women about the murder of women. Russell first defined femicide as 'the murders of women by men motivated by hatred, contempt, pleasure or a sense of ownership of women', later refining that definition to 'the killing of females by males because they are females' (United Nations, 2012, p. 6; United Nations, 2014a, p. 2). Femicide has been used to refer to a wide range of violent acts, such as so-called honour killings, female infanticide, pre-adolescent mortality of girls and dowry-related deaths (United Nations, 2012). Based on the findings of the 2016 research *Terminology and indicators for data collection: rape, femicide and intimate partner violence*, EIGE agreed on the definition of femicide as 'the killing of a woman by an intimate partner and death of a woman as a result of a practice that is harmful to women'. An intimate partner is understood as a former or current spouse or partner, whether or not the perpetrator shares or has shared the same residence with the victim (EIGE, 2017d). To date, no EU Member State has incorporated a definition of femicide into criminal law <sup>(13)</sup>.

<sup>(12)</sup> For the Directive 2011/36/EU 'a position of vulnerability means a situation in which the person concerned has no real or acceptable alternative but to submit to the abuse involved (European Parliament and Council of the European Union, 2011a).

<sup>(13)</sup> The COST Action on Femicide has recently prepared some in-depth work on definitions and systematic data collection on femicide across Europe ([www.femicide.net](http://www.femicide.net)).

## 2. Measurement framework on violence against women

To assess the extent of violence against women in the EU, it is necessary to develop a framework that includes different forms of violence against women that can be measured in a systematic way. To better understand the context and settings in which violence against women may occur, it is important to gather information on certain factors, namely the relationship of victim to perpetrator, the severity of violence, its frequency and timeframe, the location of violence and to what extent violence is disclosed. It should also include contextual factors, which would provide detailed information on the circumstances of each type of violence and would enable an analysis of the policy context and the effects of prevention, protection and prosecution measures on the extent of violence over time and across Member States.

EIGE's measurement framework provides a set of indicators that can assist Member States in assessing the extent and nature of violence against women as well as in enabling the monitoring and evaluation of the institutional response to this phenomenon. Both survey-based data and administrative data complement each other in EIGE's measurement framework and help to increase the understanding of the extent of violence against women. Each method of data collection has important shortcomings. In the case of survey-based data, the main limitation is that results are of disclosed violence, reflecting the experiences of violence that a woman is willing to share. These results are the closest proxy for estimating prevalence rates, rather than the actual extent of the problem.

Prevalence rates obtained from survey-based data are influenced by factors such as the level of awareness of the phenomenon of violence against women in a society. The consideration of violence as a private problem, tolerance of 'appropriate levels' of violence, or feelings of safety all affect prevalence rates obtained from sample surveys. It is important to note that underreporting is a typical issue faced by all surveys, regardless of the focus of the exercise. However, the crime victimisation surveys show that more people disclose victimisation in surveys than in official reports to police or other authorities that

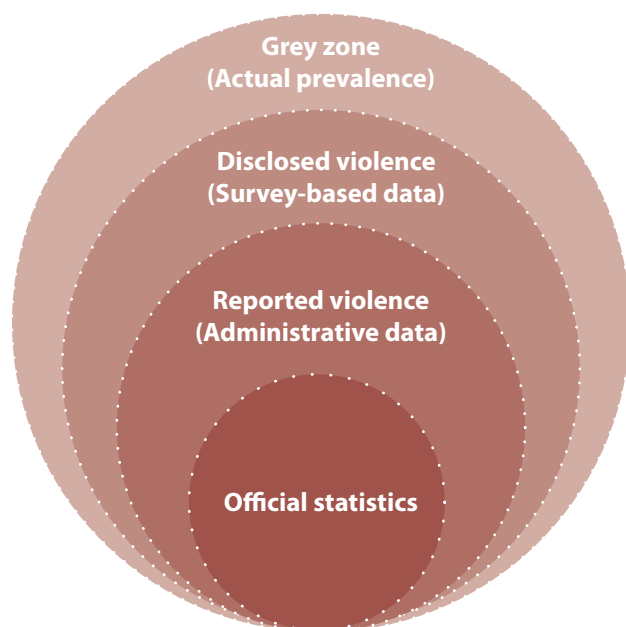
inform administrative statistics (Klein, 2012). Survey-based data can provide helpful insights, based on women's experiences, into the roots and drivers of violence against women. The magnitude of the phenomenon of violence against women cannot be fully understood without comprehensive data on the context in which interpersonal violence occurs. Additionally, policy and legal frameworks in relation to violence against women provide a picture of how well countries have operationalised their commitments regarding the eradication of violence and the provision of support to victims.

Administrative data are recorded by the institutions dealing with gender-based violence incidents as part of their activities and for their own use, mainly to implement relevant regulations. They are not originally or primarily collected for statistical purposes. These sources of data provide detailed and very valuable information on how judicial, police, health or social services providers and other institutions respond to the prevention, protection and prosecution of incidents of gender-based violence. Their main limitation lies in the fact that they reflect only what is recorded by an agency interacting with a victim and/or a perpetrator (EIGE, 2014a). Due to the high rate of unreported incidents, administrative data cannot reflect the prevalence of gender-based violence in a Member State. However, administrative data can constitute the only source of data for certain forms of violence that cannot be captured through surveys, such as femicide. Another shortcoming is related to the limited comparability of administrative data across countries due to different definitions and data collection processes. Additionally, the availability and quality of data vary greatly across the spectrum of forms of violence, with insufficient attention being paid to forms of violence targeting women with specific characteristics, such as women with disabilities or women with a migrant status (EIGE, 2016a, p. 19).

Figure 1, developed by EIGE in the context of the second edition of the Gender Equality Index, presents the layers of data sources on violence against women available theoretically.



Figure 1: Data sources on violence against women



Source: EIGE, 2015b

The measurement framework developed for the domain of violence combines information on the extent and context of violence to enable monitoring over time, using the following approach:

- to provide a user-friendly statistical tool to monitor the extent of the most common forms of violence against women in the EU in a comparable manner;
- to propose indicators on additional forms of violence in need of regular monitoring;
- to define a set of contextual factors likely to affect the extent of violence against women.

This approach will support the monitoring and evaluation of the extent of violence against women over time and across countries. It will also provide insights on the contextual factors that are likely to impact the extent of violence or could potentially alleviate the risk of being subjected to violence. This information could be used for a better understanding of the responsibility of different state institutions and actors to act with due diligence in eliminating violence against women and for identification of important areas for further advancement.

## 2.1. Measurement structure

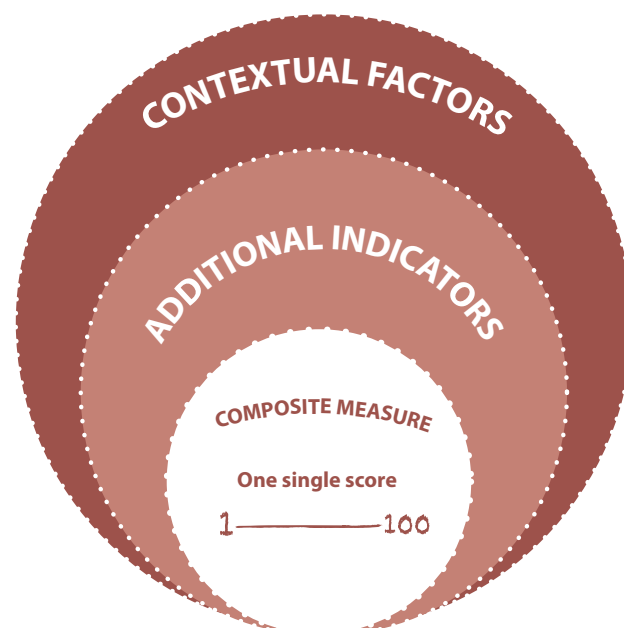
Based on the abovementioned approach, a three-tiered structure of measurement was defined as the most suitable and comprehensive measurement of violence against women in the EU:

- (1) a set of indicators on the extent of violence against women that form the **composite measure**;
- (2) a **set of additional indicators** covering a broader range of forms of violence against women;
- (3) a **set of contextual factors** that include some of the root causes of violence against women and information on governments' efforts to combat this kind of violence and provide protection and support for its victims.

The structure of the measurement framework is set out in Figure 2.

The set of indicators identified for the composite measure are aggregated to obtain a single score for each Member State. This single score enables monitoring the extent of the most common and widely criminalised forms of violence against women and highlights any downward or upward trends. In comparison to using individual

Figure 2: Structure of the measurement framework of the domain of violence



indicators, a single measure makes it possible to have more comprehensive and meaningful comparisons over time and to monitor progress made in eliminating violence against women.

Additional indicators cover various forms of violence described in the Istanbul Convention as well as trafficking in women. Acknowledging that data availability for some of those forms of violence can be low, EIGE will monitor developments on data collection and the criminalisation of forms of violence that are not yet widely covered. Should reliable, comparable and harmonised data become available for some of the forms of violence described in the additional indicator, EIGE will consider including them in the set of indicators for the composite measure in the future.

Contextual factors enable analysis over time and across countries on the extent of violence against women, in particular relating to the policy context and the effects of prevention and protection measures and prosecution efforts.

The full list of indicators and contextual factors considered for the three layers of the measurement framework is described in Table 10.

## 2.2. Indicators for the composite measure

The composite measure synthesises the complexity of the extent of violence against women into an easy-to-understand measure. The objective is to provide a comprehensive picture of (1) the prevalence of violence against women; (2) the impact of violence on women's lives; and (3) their readiness to disclose their experience. A composite measure also serves to increase awareness of the phenomenon of violence against women, to monitor change over time, if data would be available, and to call attention for holding Member States accountable to act towards the eradication of violence against women.

The structure of the composite measure, the concepts measured and specific indicators are presented in Table 2.

In addition to the very specific criteria for variables set by the Gender Equality Index (individual level, outcome based, available for all Member States) <sup>(14)</sup>, for the composite measure of violence against women, it was necessary to consider additional criteria. This led to the following criteria being applied to the selection of variables on violence against women: (1) valid and comparable data must be available; (2) the type of violence must potentially affect all

**Table 2: Structure of the composite measure of violence against women**

Subdomain	Concept measured	Indicators
Prevalence	Physical and/or sexual violence and femicide	Percentage of women (aged 18-74) having experienced physical and/or sexual violence by any perpetrator since the age of 15
		Percentage of women (aged 18-74) having experienced physical and/or sexual violence by any perpetrator in the past 12 months
		Number of women victims of intentional homicide by an intimate partner or a family member, per 100 000 inhabitants
Severity	Health consequences of violence and multiple victimisation	Percentage of women (aged 18-74) having experienced health consequences of physical and/or sexual violence since the age of 15
		Percentage of women (aged 18-74) having experienced health consequences of physical and/or sexual violence in the past 12 months
		Percentage of women (aged 18-74) having experienced physical and/or sexual violence from several types of perpetrators since the age of 15
Disclosure	Disclosure of violence to institutions and to anyone else	Percentage of women (aged 18-74) having experienced physical and/or sexual violence in the past 12 months and have not told anyone

NB: An indicator on femicide is a part of the concept of the composite measure, but it is not included in the measurement due to a lack of EU-wide official comparable data.

<sup>(14)</sup> For more details on the selection criteria deriving from the methodology of the Gender Equality Index, please refer to European Institute for Gender Equality, *Gender Equality Index: Methodological report*, 2017b.



women in the general population; (3) the inclusion of the variable must not jeopardise the statistical robustness of the composite measure; (4) the forms of violence must be widely criminalised; and (5) comparison of data between Member States should be possible. Finally, in line with guidelines on the development of composite indices, the number of variables was limited to the minimum possible (OECD, 2008).

Because of data limitations and methodological considerations, the composite measure can only include a limited number of indicators and consequently also a limited number of dimensions/types of violence. Although different in nature, physical and sexual violence are treated together, both in measuring the prevalence of violence and in assessing the dimensions of severity and disclosure. This makes it possible to incorporate both types of violence into the composite indicator without doubling the number of indicators. However, acknowledging that they are distinct, although linked, phenomena, they are treated separately in further analysis. Similarly, for statistical reasons, violence against women by an intimate partner (whether current or former) and violence by someone other than a partner (family member, someone known in the social context or working context or someone unknown) were merged into one variable but analysed separately whenever data allowed it.

The prevalence subdomain also includes femicide — the most severe form of violence against women. Other forms of violence against women were examined and discarded from the composite measure for not meeting the criteria.

The need to capture the severity and frequency of each form of violence led to the development of a severity subdomain. It seeks to reflect the intensity of violence experienced by women in their lifetime in two ways, by measuring the impact on women's physical and psychological health and by evaluating if they have repeatedly experienced violence <sup>(15)</sup>. Health consequences are not divided further into varying levels of severity, since the impact of consequences on the lives of survivors of violence is subjective and highly individual. Even mental health consequences, such as regular sleep disturbance — which could be described as a moderate consequence in comparison to attempted suicide — can have a significant

impact on affected women. Thus, the distinction is only made between mental and/or physical health consequences (including injuries) and no consequences.

For the measurement of multiple victimisation, several variables were tested and one was discarded. It sought to capture the likelihood of women experiencing violence multiple times in their social, professional or emotional lives.

The FRA questionnaire used for the EU-wide survey on violence against women is built on acts of violence (slap, kick ...), which makes it difficult to distinguish separate episodes of violence and to evaluate to what extent women have been subjected to several episodes of violence. To compute multiple victimisation, the FRA survey included women who experienced at least one violent act several times since the age of 15 or during the 12 months prior to the interview. Therefore, the only difference between multiple victimisation and prevalence was that multiple victimisation excluded the few women who responded 'only once' for all acts of violence. In other words, the majority of women victims of violence by any partner had experienced violent acts multiple times <sup>(16)</sup>. As a result, that variable was too highly correlated to variables in the prevalence subdomain for those variables to be aggregated together.

To overcome this constraint, another approach was taken to the measurement of multiple victimisation. This approach measured whether women had been victimised by several different types of perpetrators, such as a current partner, a former partner, a colleague, a family member, or someone unknown. This variable captures the average number of different types of perpetrators involved in women's experiences of violence. For this variable, the denominator is 'all women having experienced physical and/or sexual violence'.

For the measurement of disclosure, an indicator on the percentage of women who have experienced physical and/or sexual violence in the past 12 months and have not told anyone was included in the composite measure.

Indicators in the FRA survey on violence against women on prevalence, severity and disclosure of violence against women were extracted from the online database (FRA, 2014). These indicators cover physical and sexual violence.

<sup>(15)</sup> There is no consensus on the definition of multiple victimisation and this term is sometimes used interchangeably with concepts such as repeated victimisation or revictimisation (Matos et al., 2014). In this report, the term refers to the experience of two or more types of victimisation throughout life in different contexts and by different perpetrators.

<sup>(16)</sup> 64 % of victims of physical violence by any partner and 69 % of victims of sexual violence by any partner reported having experienced violent acts multiple times (Source: EIGE's calculation, FRA, Violence against women: an EU-wide survey, 2012).

Information on the indicators used to measure physical and sexual violence can be found in Table 2.

Variables within each subdomain were aggregated using an arithmetic mean. Similarly, subdomains' values were then aggregated using an arithmetic mean. The current metric is the following.

For indicators:

$$\Gamma_{(x_i)} = 1 + 99 \cdot [Y_{(x_i)}]$$

For the composite measure:

$$I_i^{violen\ ce\ against\ women} = \frac{\sum_{s=1}^3 \left( \sum_{v=1}^{n_s} \frac{\Gamma(x_{iv})}{n_s} \right)}{s}$$

$$i = 1, \dots, 28$$

$$v = 1, \dots, 7$$

$$s = 1, \dots, 3$$

$$v = 1, \dots, 7$$

$n_s$  = number of indicators in the subdomain  $s$

The composite measure provides scores for all three subdomains as well as an overall score for the domain of violence. This makes it possible to not only monitor progress made in combating violence against women overall, but also to separately measure prevalence, severity and disclosure.

More information about the computation of the Gender Equality Index and the composite measure of violence against women is presented in the *Gender Equality Index: Methodological report* (EIGE, 2017b).

## 2.3. Additional indicators

This section gives an overview of the additional indicators that were analysed separately from the composite measure because they did not fully meet the specified criteria, either due to a lack of consensus about definitions or the absence of a strong policy framework at the national or EU level.

In the case of psychological violence, the absence of a universal agreement on which an act or a combination of acts and on which frequency constitutes violence was the main reason for placing this variable among the additional indicators rather than as part of the composite measure. The absence of a common understanding and definition as well as a low level of awareness of this form of violence may account for the low level of criminalisation in the EU of psychological violence. The same applies to economic violence.

**Table 3: Additional indicators**

Concept measured	Indicators
<b>Psychological violence</b>	Percentage of women (aged 18-74) having experienced psychological violence by a partner or former partner
<b>Sexual harassment</b>	Percentage of women (aged 18-74) having experienced sexual harassment by any perpetrator
<b>Stalking</b>	Percentage of women (aged 18-74) having experienced stalking by any perpetrator
<b>Female genital mutilation</b>	Percentage of women having undergone female genital mutilation
<b>Forced marriage</b>	Number of women having experienced forced marriage per 100 000 inhabitants
<b>Trafficking in human beings</b>	Number of registered victims coming into contact with the authorities per 100 000 inhabitants
<b>Forced abortion and forced sterilisation</b>	Number of women having experienced forced abortion and/or forced sterilisation per 100 000 inhabitants

Similarly, sexual harassment and stalking are serious and common forms of violence against women that are likely to have a significant impact on women's freedom of movement, employment, educational and social opportunities as well as inflicting serious harm. Nevertheless, these forms of violence are conceptualised and understood differently across EU Member States. Definitions of sexual harassment vary widely in national legislation and it is a criminal offence in only 12 Member States (EIGE, 2016c). Not only is sexual harassment rarely, and only recently, criminalised, it is also often subject to strict limiting definitions; for example, it is often considered only within the context of employment, as opposed to a stand-alone offence, or it requires a subordinate position of the victim. Likewise, stalking is not considered a separate crime in all Member States. Some Member States have a dedicated law and some prosecute stalking under other crimes in the criminal or penal code.

Psychological violence as well as other forms of non-physical gender-based violence such as sexual harassment and stalking are analysed as additional indicators rather than included in the set of indicators for the composite measure in the absence of a strong policy framework at the national or EU level.



## 2.4. Contextualising violence against women

The inclusion of contextualising factors aims to assist with monitoring some central aspects of the Istanbul Convention and explaining variations of the extent of violence against women across countries and time. Both aspects are relevant in identifying fields of action for state policies on violence against women. On the basis of these reflections and experts' feedback, it was decided to use a structure close to that of the Istanbul Convention for the contextualising factors. A further category relating to the societal framework was also added to take into account factors such as public attitudes that might influence variations in prevalence between countries and over time.

In line with international human rights instruments, Member States have the responsibility to respect, fulfil and protect human rights. This also includes a commitment to prevent structural violence, which finds expression in, for instance, institutionalised victim-blaming attitudes that may develop in multiple victimisation processes. In its feasibility study, the European Commission (2010b) lists three obligations that are derived from human rights standards, which are referred to as 'the three Ps':

- to *prosecute*, which includes the criminalisation of acts, investigation and the right to receive a fair trial;
- to *protect* victims, which includes the right to remedy and assistance;
- to *prevent* violence, which includes addressing underlying causes and, for example, raising awareness (European Commission, 2010c; Diesen et al., 2014).

The selection of contextual factors was informed by several criteria. First, in terms of their purpose, factors should provide additional information to interpret the extent of violence against women and support monitoring the implementation of the Istanbul Convention. Second, data need to be available on a regular basis (in the short to medium term) for the majority of EU Member States and be comparable between them. Third, an overarching consideration was to keep a limited number of contextual factors to allow for differentiation as far as necessary and reduction of information as much as possible.

On the basis of the abovementioned criteria, six factors were developed for the contextual analysis:

1. policies
2. prevention
3. protection and support
4. substantive law
5. involvement of law enforcement agencies
6. societal framework.

It is important to acknowledge that the availability of information related to these categories varies greatly both in terms of volume and quality across Member States. If national policies on violence against women are usually accessible from public sources, detailed qualitative information is not always available to assess their comprehensiveness, effectiveness and level of implementation. For some categories, the measurement framework builds on minimum standards defined by the Istanbul Convention or indicators previously adopted in the context of the Beijing Platform for Action. However, due to the great variety of national situations, such standards have not been established for all categories. Concerted and integrated efforts will be required at EU and Member State level to further define a specific measurement framework for contextual indicators and to populate these indicators with quality data.

The following section presents EIGE's proposal relating to contextual factors for each of the six categories identified.

### 2.4.1. Policies

Policies on tackling violence against women are crucial to ensure the coherence and synergy of governments' initiatives to address violence against women in their societies. Contextual factors enable the measurement of the true commitment of the state and the level of enforcement of state obligations in relation to policies and data collection. Eight aspects have been identified as relevant to assess the comprehensiveness of Member States' policy and data collection framework in this field. These are presented in Table 4.

These aspects related to policy are critical to understanding the extent of overall government action in addressing violence against women.

**Table 4: Aspects for the composite measure on policies**

Do policies address the following aspects?
Continued research on violence against women supported and funded by the government
Data on violence against women publicly available
Involvement of relevant stakeholders in policy developments on violence against women
National action plan specifically addressing violence against women
Official body for coordination of policies and measures against violence against women
Official body for data collection on violence against women, monitoring and evaluation
Ratification of Istanbul Convention
Regular collection of administrative data on violence against women

## 2.4.2. Prevention

Preventing violence against women requires integrated multi-sectoral approaches addressing the phenomenon at various levels, including the legal, cultural, educational and social dimensions. Designing effective strategies to prevent violence can save many lives and help reduce the considerable human and financial toll of violence against women. This requires measures to discourage the use of coercion and violence in the first place and making men's use of violence against women less acceptable.

To measure prevention efforts, EIGE suggests building a composite measure on the comprehensiveness of the prevention framework on violence against women. To receive the maximum score of 10 points under that category, Member States should answer 'yes' to all criteria. The prevention aspects can be found in Table 5.

These dimensions help to identify some of the interventions necessary for the effective prevention of violence, which are closely linked to other dimensions of government and societal responses to violence against women (protection and support) described in the next section. However, the assessment of prevention measures is a complex task that requires further analysis and elaboration of possible indicators in the future.

**Table 5: Aspects for the composite measure for prevention of violence against women**

Do prevention efforts ...?
Address the specific risk of violence experienced by women who face multiple and intersecting discrimination
Encourage all members of society, especially men and boys, to contribute actively to preventing violence against women
Encourage the private sector, the information and communications technology sector and the media to participate in the elimination and prevention of violence against women
Fund/organise programmes/activities to reduce overall gender inequalities between women and men
Implement legislative and other measures to prevent violence against women
Include the topic of violence against women and gender equality at all levels of education
Promote changes in the social and cultural patterns of behaviour of women and men regarding violence against women
Promote awareness-raising campaigns on a regular basis
Promote training for all relevant professionals dealing with victims or perpetrators of violence against women
Provide perpetrator programmes in every region to reduce recidivism

## 2.4.3. Protection and support

Addressing the needs of women having experienced violence in a timely and adequate manner is critical to protect women's lives, avoid repeated victimisation and minimise the long-term consequences of violence on the individual's physical, mental and economic well-being and that of their children. Providing quality, accessible support services that meet the needs of all victims is therefore of paramount importance.

The explanatory report of the Istanbul Convention Article 23 recommends a minimum standard of women's shelter provision of one place per 10 000 inhabitants and furthermore adds that 'the number of shelter places should depend on the actual need' (Council of Europe, 2011, p. 81). The Women Against Violence Europe (WAVE) report for 2015 shows that only four EU Member States meet the Council of Europe's minimum standard of one (1) place per 10 000 inhabitants (Denmark, Latvia, Luxemburg and Slovenia) and two countries come within 5 % of the minimum (Malta and the Netherlands) (WAVE, 2016). This is an improvement on the previous year when only three Member States completely and one nearly fulfilled the criteria. Currently, national women's helplines exist in only 19





EU Member States; only 10 of these helplines operate 24/7 and are free to call, and only 16 offer support in multiple languages (WAVE, 2016).

The Istanbul Convention calls on states' parties to consider all victims of gender-based violence when designing their policies and measures for protection and assistance. However, there is a great need for specialised support services tailored specifically for groups of women survivors of IPV with specific needs. In order for services to be accessible to all women, it is important to ensure that they are accessible for women with physical, communications and learning disabilities, as well women requiring language support.

It is essential that these services provide an adequate level of support for women facing multiple discrimination, that they are inclusive and that they are able to deliver the appropriate support needed. EIGE's report (2012) on victim support in the EU found that only limited, specialised support for women survivors of IPV facing multiple discrimination existed and only eight Member States and Croatia provided at least one such service.

In line with the minimum standards mentioned above and building on the data collected by WAVE, EIGE has identified four aspects to enable monitoring the provision of protection and support, as shown in Table 6. This category has the potential to be expanded in the future to include a wider range of protection and support services, including housing, financial assistance, support for child witnesses of violence and others, as being relevant.

**Table 6: Aspects for the composite measure for protection and support to victims of violence against women**

Into what extent are the following protection and support services offered?
Availability of at least one 24-hour, free-of-charge hotline, available in different languages
Number of non-residential specialised support services per 10 000 inhabitants
Number of perpetrators' programmes (and uptake) per 100 000 inhabitants
Number of places in women's shelters per 10 000 inhabitants

## 2.4.4. Substantive law: criminal justice and judicial framework

This factor seeks to assess to what extent Member States' criminal justice framework has addressed violence against women and its various forms. EIGE's framework for building a composite measure on the comprehensiveness of the criminal justice framework on violence against women is made of eight items, as shown in Table 7.

In addition to the criminal justice framework, aspects included in the judicial framework on violence against women are presented in Table 8. This measures to what extent the judicial framework is responsive to the needs of victims of violence.

**Table 7: Aspects for the criminal justice framework on violence against women**

Does the law or criminal code criminalise the following forms of violence?
Female genital mutilation
Femicide
Forced abortion and forced sterilisation
Forced marriage
Trafficking in human beings
Intimate partner violence (physical, sexual, psychological or economic)
Psychological violence
Sexual harassment
Sexual violence, including rape
Stalking

**Table 8: Aspects for the judicial framework on violence against women**

Does the law or criminal code provide for the following?
Civil remedies for victims of violence against women against the perpetrator
Civil remedies for victims of violence against women against the state authorities that have failed in their duty to take the necessary preventive or protective measures
Existence of minimum standards for state compensation to those who have sustained serious bodily injury or impairment of health, to the extent that the damage is not covered by other sources
Legal measures to ensure that marriages concluded under force may be voidable, annulled or dissolved without undue financial or administrative burden placed on the victim
Legal measures to ensure that the exercise of any visitation or custody rights does not jeopardise the rights and safety of the victim or children
Legal measures to ensure that violence against women is prosecuted in the same way, irrespective of culture, custom, religion, tradition or 'honour'
Legal measures to ensure that violence against women is prosecuted in the same way, irrespective of the victim–perpetrator relationship
Legal obligation for perpetrators to provide compensations to victims for any of the offences

### 2.4.5. Involvement of law enforcement agencies

This factor seeks to gauge the enforcement of laws, prevention mechanisms and policies by measuring investigation, prosecution, procedural law and protective measures. Eight aspects have been identified and are presented in Table 9.

**Table 9: Aspects for the category of involvement of law enforcement**

Does the law enforcement collect data on ...?
Annual number of women victims of IPV
Annual number of women victims reporting rape aged 18 years and over, as recorded by police
Annual number of men sentenced for IPV against women
Annual number of men sentenced for rape
Annual number of men sentenced for IPV against women held in prison or with a sanction involving a form of deprivation of liberty
Annual number of men or persons prosecuted for IPV against women
Annual number of protection orders applied and granted in cases of IPV against women by type of courts/police/administrative jurisdiction
Women victims of femicide aged 18 and over committed by an intimate partner, as a share of the women victims of homicide aged 18 and over

### 2.4.6. Societal framework

This category helps assess the extent to which the societal framework may influence women's likelihood to disclose experiences of violence. In societies in which violence against women is tolerated, unpunished and even normalised, it is likely that fewer women will report their experience. EIGE suggests measuring two concepts: first, public attitudes related to violence against women and gender equality, and second, the general level of crime in society.

The analysis of national surveys of public attitudes shows a tendency for respondents to 'accept' violent behaviours against women, which are sometimes perceived as 'not very serious' or 'inevitable'. Such behaviours include insulting, hitting, controlling or even forced sex (European Commission, 2015a, p. 13).

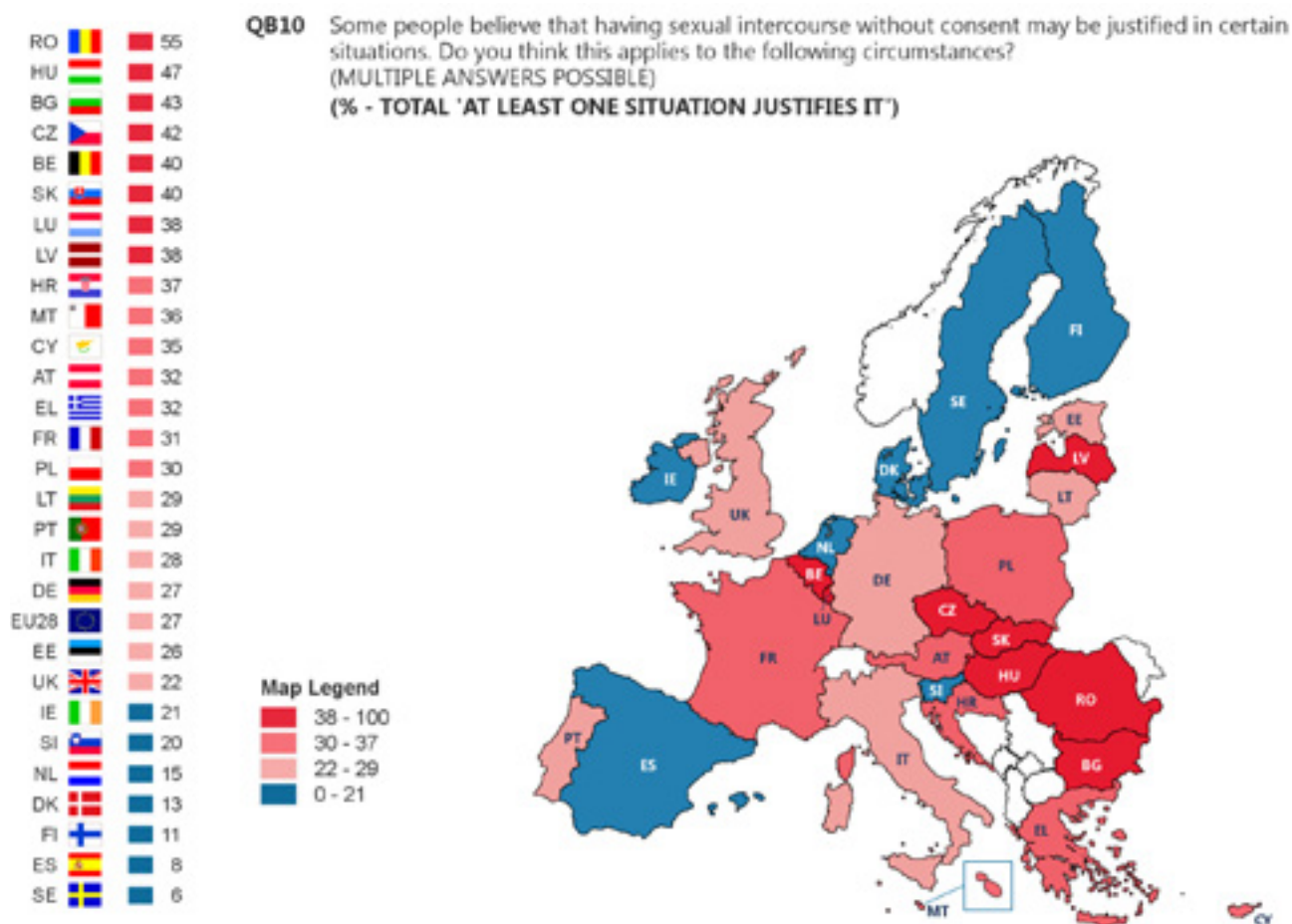
Recent Special Eurobarometer surveys on gender equality (European Commission, 2015c) and attitudes towards gender-based violence (European Commission, 2016b) provide interesting data on the level of support for gender equality as a societal value and on tolerance for violence against women. In particular, answers to the question of whether sexual intercourse without consent could be justified under certain circumstances reveal a very polarised map of the EU <sup>(17)</sup>. Figure 3 shows that while in the EU-28 only 27 % of respondents consider that sexual intercourse without consent can be justified, there are big variations across EU Member States. Eighteen Member States reveal percentages higher than the EU average <sup>(18)</sup>; the highest is found in Romania, where 55 % of the population are of the view that intercourse without consent can be justified, while the lowest share of population holding this view was found in Sweden with only 6 %.

<sup>(17)</sup> The exact question was the following: 'Some people believe that having sexual intercourse without consent may be justified in certain situations. Do you think this applies to the following circumstances? (MULTIPLE ANSWERS POSSIBLE): Wearing revealing, provocative or sexy clothing; Being drunk or using drugs; Flirting beforehand; Not clearly saying no or physically fighting back; Being out walking alone at night; Having several sexual partners; Voluntarily going home with someone, for example after a party or date; If the assailant does not realise what they were doing; If the assailant regrets his actions; None of these; Refusal (SPONTANEOUS); Don't know' (European Commission, 2016b, p. 62).

<sup>(18)</sup> BE, BG, CZ, EL, FR, HR, IT, CY, LV, LT, LU, HU, MT, AT, PL, PT, RO and SK.



**Figure 3: Population agreeing with the statement ‘Sexual intercourse without consent may be justified in at least one of situation proposed’, by EU Member State (male and female respondents aged 15 and over, %), 2016**



Source: European Commission, 2016b, Eurobarometer 449 (question QB10)

Such findings are a stark reminder that context and societal environment are of great importance when analysing data on violence against women, especially data on prevalence. More research is needed to understand the impact the societal framework — of which public attitudes are an important part — can have on the level of violence against women and on the disclosure of violent acts. Similarly, there is a dearth of information on the impact of policies, education and awareness-raising campaigns or other initiatives on public attitudes towards violence against women. An intersectional perspective could also support the identification of groups in society holding views of acceptance of violence or victim-blaming attitudes (European Commission, 2015a).

The inclusion of an aspect of crime seeks to provide information on the general level of safety and respect for the rule of law in the country. This aspect needs further elaboration as it currently bears a number of limitations. First, the indicator suggested that measuring the number of violent crimes per 100 000 inhabitants is currently insufficient in providing a meaningful idea of the level of crime in society. Second, general crime data are often at odds with statistics on gender-based violence, with sexual assault statistics often remaining stable when general crime data drop (Walby, Towers and Francis, 2016).

The full list of indicators and contextual factors for the measurement framework of violence against women are presented in Table 10.

**Table 10: List of indicators and contextual factors in EIGE’s measurement framework of violence against women in the EU**

	Subdomain	Concept measured	Indicators	Data source
Composite measure	Prevalence	Physical and/or sexual violence	Percentage of women (aged 18-74) having experienced physical and/or sexual violence by any perpetrator since the age of 15 Percentage of women (aged 18-74) having experienced physical and/or sexual violence by any perpetrator in the past 12 months	FRA, 2012
		Femicide	Percentage of women victims of intentional homicide by a current or former partner or a family member, per 100 000 inhabitants	Eurostat
	Severity	Health consequences of violence and multiple victimisation	Percentage of women (aged 18-74) having experienced health consequences of physical and/or sexual violence since the age of 15 Percentage of women (aged 18-74) having experienced health consequences of physical and/or sexual violence in the past 12 months Percentage of women (aged 18-74) having experienced physical and/or sexual violence from several types of perpetrators	FRA, 2012
	Disclosure	Disclosure of violence to institutions or to anyone else	Percentage of women (aged 18-74) having experienced physical and/or sexual violence in the past 12 months and have not told anyone	
		<b>Concept measured</b>	<b>Indicators</b>	
Additional indicators		Psychological violence	Percentage of women (aged 18-74) having experienced psychological violence by a current or former partner	FRA, 2012
		Sexual harassment	Percentage of women (aged 18-74) having experienced sexual harassment by any perpetrator	
		Stalking	Percentage of women (aged 18-74) having experienced stalking by any perpetrator	
		Female genital mutilation	Percentage of women having undergone female genital mutilation	To be determined
		Forced marriage	Number of women having experienced forced marriage, per 100 000 inhabitants	To be determined
		Trafficking in human beings	Number of registered victims coming into contact with the authorities, per 100 000 inhabitants	Eurostat
		Forced abortion and forced sterilisation	Number of women having experienced forced abortion and/or forced sterilisation, per 100 000 inhabitants	To be determined



	Category	Concept measured	Factors considered
Contextual factors	Policies	<b>State obligations and integrated policies/data collection mechanisms on violence against women</b>	Continued research on violence against women supported and funded by the government Data on violence against women publicly available Involvement of relevant stakeholders in policy developments on violence against women National action plan specifically addressing violence against women Official body for coordination of policies and measures against violence against women Official body for data collection on violence against women, monitoring and evaluation Ratification of Istanbul Convention Regular collection of administrative data on violence against women
	Prevention	<b>State obligations and integrated policies towards prevention under the Istanbul Convention (Articles 12-17)</b>	Policies that include the following measures: Address the specific risk of violence experienced by women who face multiple and intersecting discrimination Encourage all members of society, especially men and boys, to contribute actively to preventing violence against women Encourage the private sector, the information and communications technology sector and the media to participate in the elimination and prevention of violence against women Fund/organise programmes/activities to reduce overall gender inequalities between women and men Implement legislative and other measures to prevent violence against women Include the topic of violence against women and gender equality at all levels of education Promote changes in the social and cultural patterns of behaviour of women and men regarding violence against women Promote awareness-raising campaigns on a regular basis Promote training for all relevant professionals dealing with victims or perpetrators of violence against women Provide perpetrator programmes in every region to reduce recidivism
	Protection and support	<b>State obligations and integrated policies towards protection and support to victims of violence against women under the Istanbul Convention (Articles 18-28)</b>	Into what extent are the following protection and support services offered? Availability of at least one 24-hour, free-of-charge hotline, available in different languages Number of non-residential specialised support services, per 10 000 inhabitants Number of perpetrators' programmes (and uptake), per 100 000 inhabitants Number of places in women's shelters, per 10 000 inhabitants
	Substantive law	<b>Criminalisation of several forms of violence against women (Articles 29-48)</b>	Does the law or criminal code criminalise ...? Female genital mutilation Femicide Forced abortion and/or forced sterilisation Forced marriage Human trafficking Intimate partner violence (physical, sexual, psychological) Psychological violence Sexual harassment Sexual violence, including rape Stalking  Does the law or criminal code provide for ...? Civil remedies for victims of violence against women against the perpetrator Civil remedies for victims of violence against women against the state authorities that have failed in their duty to take the necessary preventive or protective measures Existence of minimum standards for state compensation to those who have sustained serious bodily injury or impairment of health, to the extent that the damage is not covered by other sources Legal measures to ensure that marriages concluded under force may be voidable, annulled or dissolved without undue financial or administrative burden placed on the victim Legal measures to ensure that the exercise of any visitation or custody rights does not jeopardise the rights and safety of the victim or children Legal measures to ensure that violence against women is prosecuted in the same way, irrespective of culture, custom, religion, tradition or 'honour' Legal measures to ensure that violence against women is prosecuted in the same way, irrespective of the victim-perpetrator relationship Legal obligation for perpetrators to provide compensations to victims for any of the offences

	Category	Concept measured	Factors considered
Contextual factors	Involvement of law enforcement agencies	Investigation, prosecution, procedural law and protective measures	<p>Annual number of women victims of IPV</p> <p>Annual number of women victims reporting rape aged 18 years and over, as recorded by police</p> <p>Annual number of men sentenced for IPV against women</p> <p>Annual number of men sentenced for rape</p> <p>Annual number of men sentenced for IPV against women held in prison or with a sanction involving a form of deprivation of liberty</p> <p>Annual number of men or persons prosecuted for IPV against women</p> <p>Annual number of protection orders applied and granted in cases of IPV against women by type of courts/police/administrative jurisdiction</p> <p>Women victims of intimate femicide aged 18 and over committed by an intimate partner, as a share of the women victims of homicide aged 18 and over</p>
	Societal framework	Public attitudes towards violence against women and general level of crime in society	<p>Percentage of the population who 'totally agree' with the following four statements: (1) gender equality is a fundamental right; (2) gender equality will help women become more economically independent; (3) if more women enter the labour market, the economy will grow; (4) tackling inequality is necessary to establish a fairer society.</p> <p>Percentage of the population who think that domestic violence is a private matter that should be dealt with within the family.</p> <p>Percentage of the population who think that: (1) violence against women is often provoked by the victim; (2) women often make up or exaggerate claims of abuse or rape; (3) women are more likely to be raped by a stranger than by someone they know.</p> <p>Annual number of violent crimes per 100 000 inhabitants</p>

NB: An indicator on femicide is a part of the concept of the composite measure, but it is not included in the current measurement due to a lack of EU-wide official comparable data.



## 3. Data analysis

### 3.1. Composite measure of the extent of violence

Unlike the general score of the Gender Equality Index, for which the higher the score the closer the country is to achieving equality between women and men in all areas, the interpretation of the composite measure of violence against women uses the opposite approach. This means that the higher the score of the composite measure the more serious the phenomenon of violence against women is in the country, reflecting the scope of how prevalent, severe and under-reported violence is. Using a scale of 1 to 100, the metric highlights the situation of Member States against two extremes: '1' presenting a situation where violence is non-existent, to the complete opposite situation of '100', where violence against women is extremely common, highly severe and not disclosed. As such, the best performing country in relation to the composite measure of violence against women, is the one displaying the lowest score. Figure 4 shows the overall scores for the composite measure and each of the three subdomains in EU-28. Table 11 below presents these scores for each Member State.

**Figure 4: Scores of the domain of violence and its subdomains, EU-28, 2012**



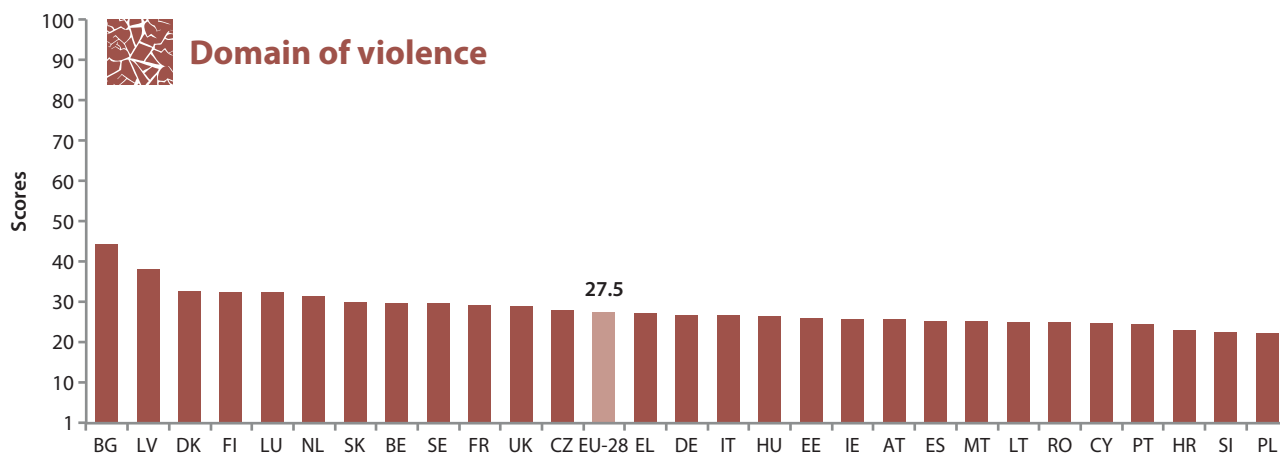
**Table 11: Scores of the domain of violence and its subdomains by EU Member State, 2012**

Country	Scores			Composite measure
	Subdomain of prevalence	Subdomain of severity	Subdomain of disclosure	
BE	24.0	50.3	14.9	29.7
BG	18.7	65.2	48.6	44.2
CZ	20.7	45.8	17.6	28.0
DK	32.4	48.5	16.7	32.6
DE	22.4	47.8	10.6	26.9
EE	19.9	42.6	15.0	25.8
IE	17.7	47.2	12.0	25.6
EL	17.1	42.9	22.1	27.4
ES	13.7	42.5	19.4	25.2
FR	28.3	45.2	13.7	29.1
HR	14.0	39.6	15.9	23.2
IT	17.9	46.6	15.8	26.8
CY	14.1	39.4	20.8	24.7
LV	23.3	58.4	32.8	38.2
LT	19.3	44.3	11.2	25.0
LU	23.1	54.2	19.5	32.3
HU	19.4	46.7	13.9	26.7
MT	14.5	52.1	9.0	25.2
NL	28.8	52.1	13.7	31.5
AT	13.2	46.9	16.6	25.6
PL	12.4	40.5	13.3	22.1
PT	15.7	39.0	18.7	24.5
RO	19.1	42.0	13.9	25.0
SI	13.4	44.6	9.3	22.4
SK	22.7	48.7	18.6	30.0
FI	29.2	53.2	14.8	32.4
SE	29.2	44.6	15.4	29.7
UK	26.9	50.9	9.2	29.0
EU-28	21.2	46.9	14.3	27.5





Figure 5: Scores of the domain of violence by EU Member State, 2012



As Figure 5 shows, the overall scores for the domain of violence range from 22.1 for Poland to 44.2 for Bulgaria, with an EU average of 27.5. Due to the complex nature of the phenomena of violence and its aspects, the interpretation of the composite measure is not straightforward. Therefore, to better understand this score, it is important to analyse the situation of countries at the subdomain and at the variable levels.

### 3.1.1. Subdomain of prevalence

The subdomain of prevalence measures the extent of physical and/or sexual violence experienced by women in their lifetime and during the 12 months prior to the interview<sup>(19)</sup>. These violent acts were committed either by a current or former partner or by a non-partner (family member, someone known in the working or social context, or someone unknown). Data originate from a population-based survey, carried out by the Fundamental Rights Agency in 2012. Considering that disclosing experiences of violence can be very difficult for victims, women’s willingness to disclose violence in the context of a survey depends on many factors, including on the interview process (WHO and PATH, 2005). It is therefore important to note that the prevalence subdomain represents disclosed violence rather than the true extent of violence in each country.

The higher the score of the subdomain, the higher the extent of disclosed violence experienced by women is. Member States’ scores vary by 20 points, where Denmark has the highest score (32.4) and Poland has the lowest (12.4), with an EU-28 score of 21.2. This is illustrated in Figure 6. The variations between Member States relate to both the extent to which women disclose violence in a survey as well as variations between the types of violence that women experience.

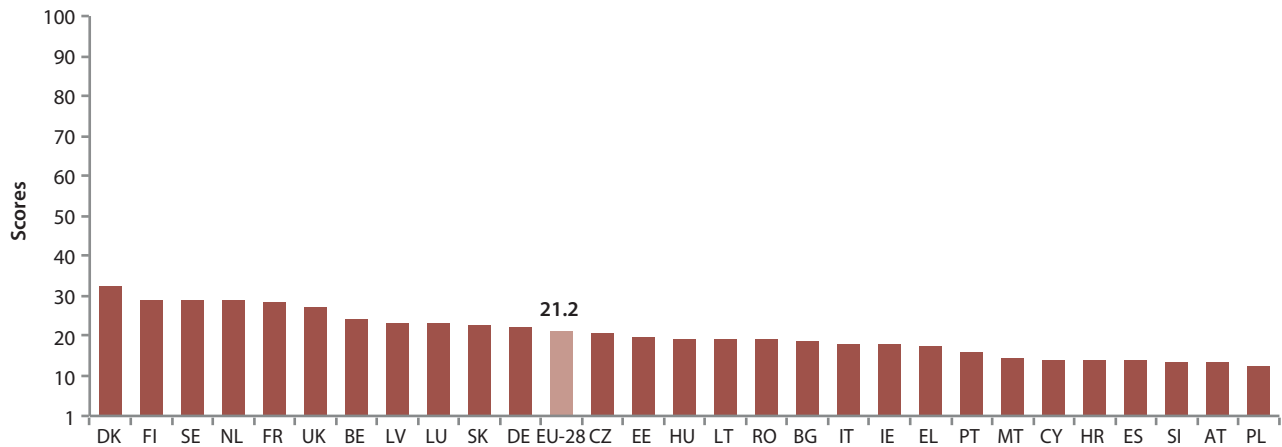
IPV is the most common form of violence experienced by women globally (United Nations, 2006; European Parliament, 2010). In this measurement framework, two aspects of IPV are described: sexual violence and physical violence.

**Sexual violence by a current or former partner** includes all forms of sexual violence, severe acts such as rape and sexual assault as well as experiences related to sexual coercion (United Nations, 2006). As Figure 7 shows, the prevalence of sexual violence by a current or former partner varies within the range of eight percentage points, from the lowest in Croatia (3 %) to the highest in the Netherlands (11 %), with an EU-28 average of 7 %. The generally low level does not necessarily reflect the real situation, but is rather a reflection of women’s willingness to disclose sexual violence. Sexual violence is strongly connected to intimacy and the decision to disclose can be influenced by social and cultural norms around sexuality and the tendency to consider IPV a private issue.

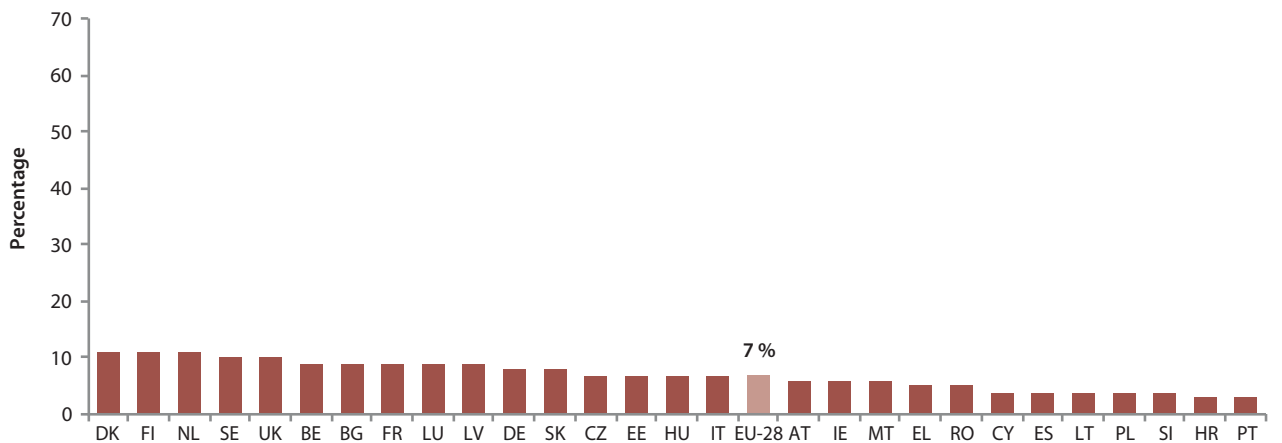
**Physical violence by a current or former partner** includes severe and minor acts of physical violence. The prevalence of physical violence, as shown in Figure 8, ranges between 12 % in Spain and Austria and 31 % in Latvia, with an EU-28 average of 20 %. The levels are higher than those for sexual violence.

<sup>(19)</sup> Femicide, although included in the theoretical framework, was excluded from current calculations of the composite measure due to a lack of EU-wide official comparable data. Femicide is an important indicator to measure severe violence against women. When good quality data are available in the future, femicide will be included in the calculation of the composite measure of violence against women in the EU.

**Figure 6: Scores of the subdomain of prevalence by EU Member State, 2012**



**Figure 7: Ever-partnered women (aged 18-74) having experienced sexual violence by a current or former partner since the age of 15, by EU Member State, (%), 2012**



Source: EIGE's calculation, FRA, *Violence against women: an EU-wide survey*, 2012

**Violence from a non-partner** is common in many settings and public places, including in education, work and leisure settings. However, available data show that women are more at risk of violence from their intimate partners than from other people. 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 sexual violence is highly stigmatised and remains an issue of deep shame for women. Statistics on rape extracted from police records, for example, show a significant underestimation of the phenomenon, due to under-reporting (EIGE, 2016a). As Figure 9 illustrates, on average in the EU-28, 6 % of women disclosed having

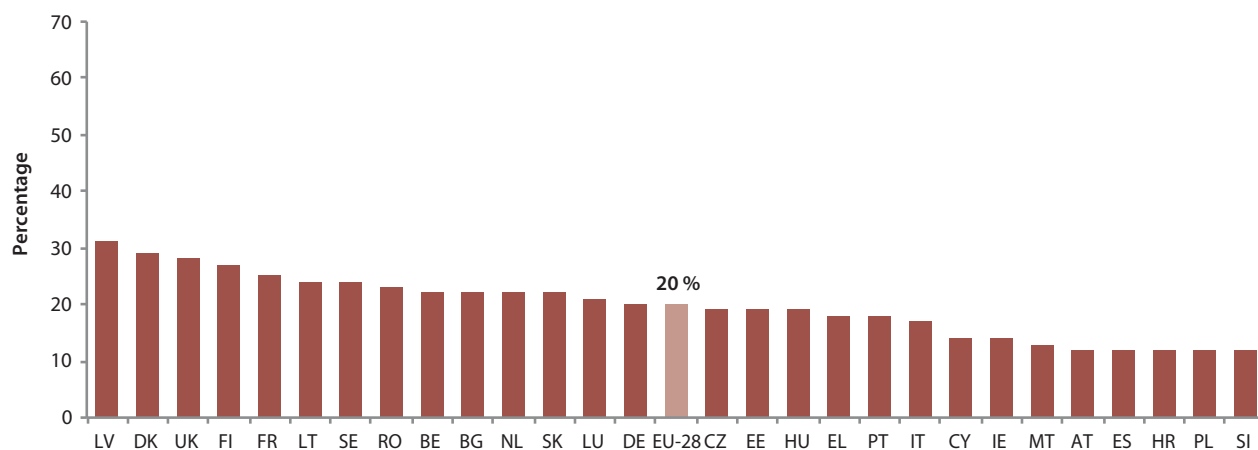
experienced sexual violence from a non-partner at some point in their lives.

**Femicide** is a phenomenon captured partially through national administrative data on intentional homicide of women by an intimate partner or by family members or relatives <sup>(20)</sup> and published on Eurostat's website for most

<sup>(20)</sup> Intentional homicide is defined as: 'Unlawful death purposefully inflicted on a person by another person. Data on intentional homicide should also include serious assault leading to death and death as a result of a terrorist attack. It should exclude attempted homicide, manslaughter, death due to legal intervention, justifiable homicide in self-defence and death due to armed conflict'. Source: Eurostat (2017), available at: [http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/Crime\\_and\\_criminal\\_justice\\_statistics](http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/Crime_and_criminal_justice_statistics).

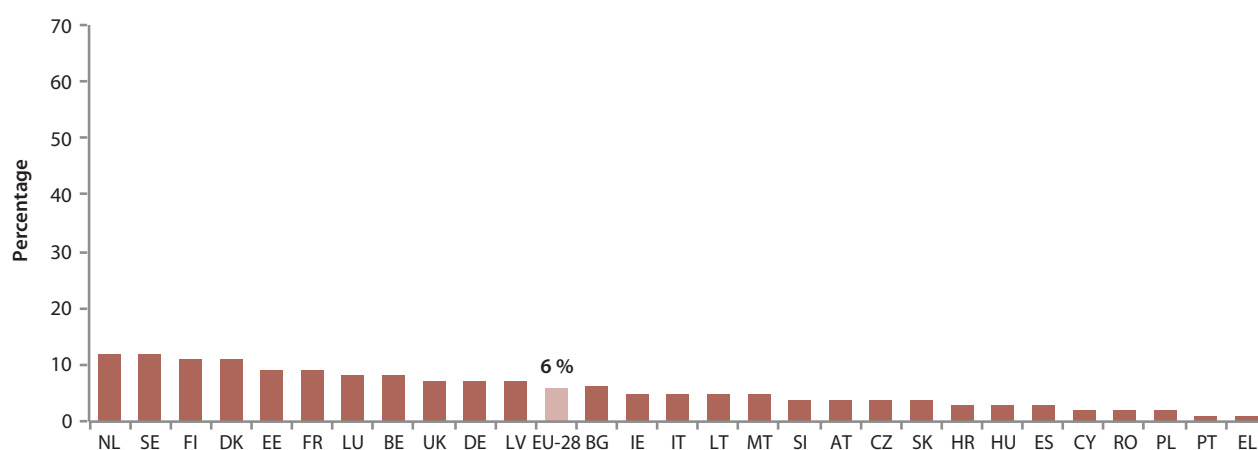


**Figure 8: Ever-partnered women (aged 18-74) having experienced physical violence by a current or former partner since the age of 15, by EU Member State, (%), 2012**



Source: EIGE's calculation, FRA, *Violence against women: an EU-wide survey*, 2012

**Figure 9: Women (aged 18-74) having experienced sexual violence by a non-partner since the age of 15, by EU Member State, (%), 2012**



Source: EIGE's calculation, FRA, *Violence against women: an EU-wide survey*, 2012

Member States. For 2014, figures on female victims of intentional homicide are available for 13 Member States <sup>(21)</sup>. Due to a lack of official comparable data for all Member States, this indicator could not be included in the current calculation of the composite measure of violence.

Intimate partner/family-related homicide disproportionately affects women: two thirds of victims globally are female (43 600 in 2012) and one third (20 000) are male. Almost half (47 %) of all female victims of homicide in 2012 were killed by their intimate partners or by family

members, compared to less than 6 % of male homicide victims (UNODC, 2013).

Figure 10 shows data on women victims of intentional homicide for the year 2014 for 13 Member States for which data are available. To allow for comparison between Member States of different population sizes, the number of women victims is shown as a percentage of the population rather than as absolute numbers. With the exception of Latvia, the majority of women's deaths were perpetrated by an intimate partner rather than by a family member or relative. Recent data from the United Kingdom show similar patterns, with 64 % of the 936 women killed by men from 2009 to 2005 killed by a partner or former partner and 8 % by a son (Women's Aid, 2017).

<sup>(21)</sup> CZ, DE, ES, HR, IT, LV, LT, HU, MT, NL, SI, SK and FI.

The data signal the importance of including femicide in the composite measure in the future, as some countries like the Netherlands have a high score on the extent of violence (Figure 5) but low rates of intentional homicide. On the contrary, Hungary and Lithuania in general score low on the extent of violence, but high in intentional homicide. The data on femicide could, to some extent, correct potentially false assumptions on the actual differences in the extent of violence against women between countries.

### 3.1.2. Subdomain of severity

The severity subdomain seeks to capture the intensity of violence experienced by women. To this end, two dimensions were explored: the health consequences of physical and/or sexual violence and multiple victimisation by any perpetrator. The latter variable measures the likelihood of women experiencing violence from several types of perpetrators in their social, professional or personal lives.

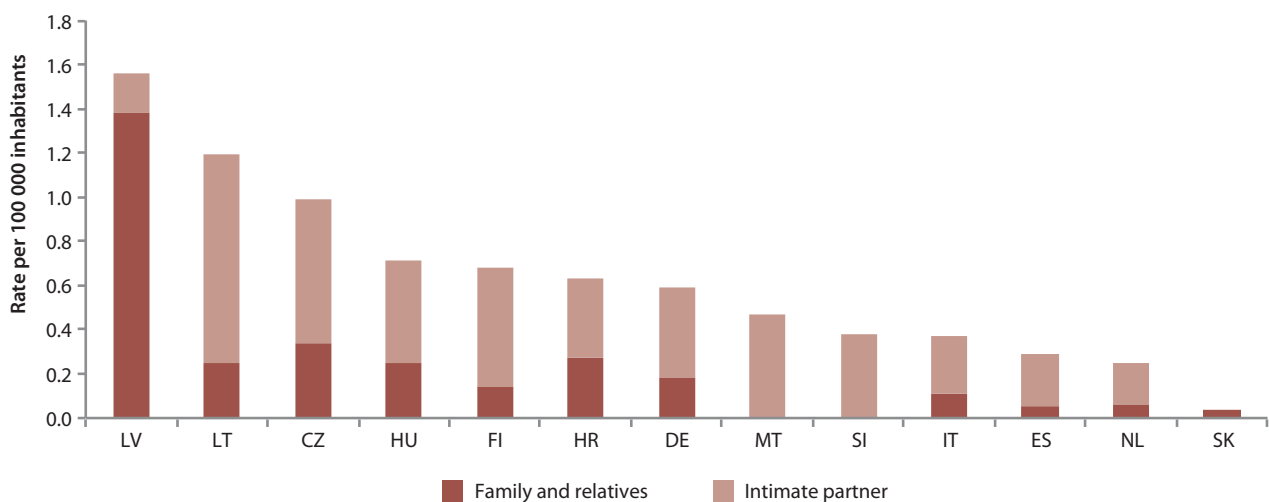
Figure 11 shows the scores for severity subdomain for the Member States, with a score of 46.9 for the EU-28.

**Health consequences** are measured through two questions in the FRA survey, namely on physical injuries resulting from violence and one on long-term psychological consequences (see Table 12: Health consequences of violence measured by the FRA survey). In both cases, women were asked about the most serious incident of violence since the age of 15.

**Table 12: Health consequences of physical and/or sexual violence measured by the FRA survey**

Physical injuries	Long-term psychological consequences
Bruises, scratches	Depression
Wounds, sprains, burns	Anxiety
Fractures, broken bones, broken teeth	Panic attacks
Concussion or other brain injury	Loss of self-confidence
Internal injuries	Feeling of vulnerability
Miscarriage	Difficulty in sleeping
Other	Difficulty in relationships
	Other

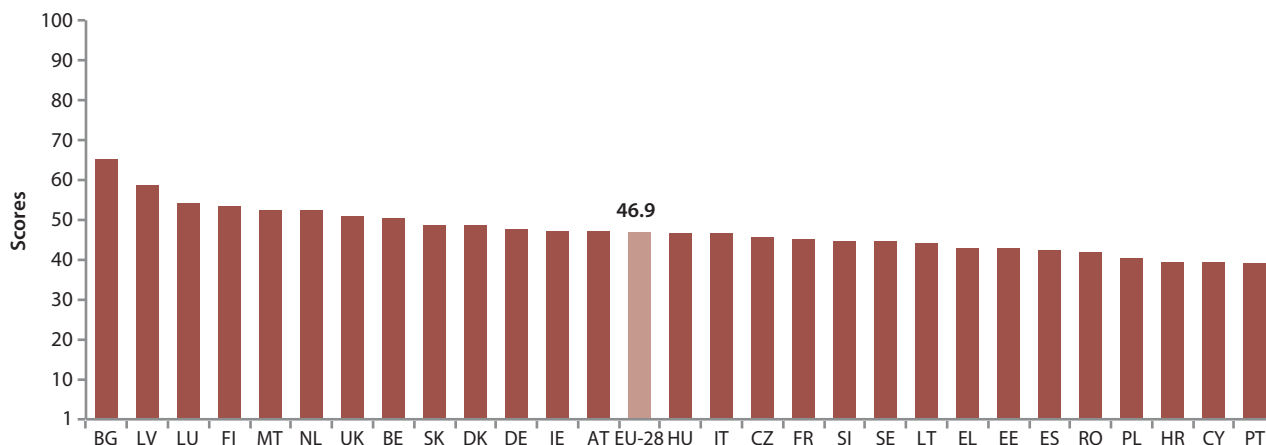
**Figure 10: Number of women victims of intentional homicide, by perpetrator and EU Member State, (rate per 100 000 inhabitants), 2014**



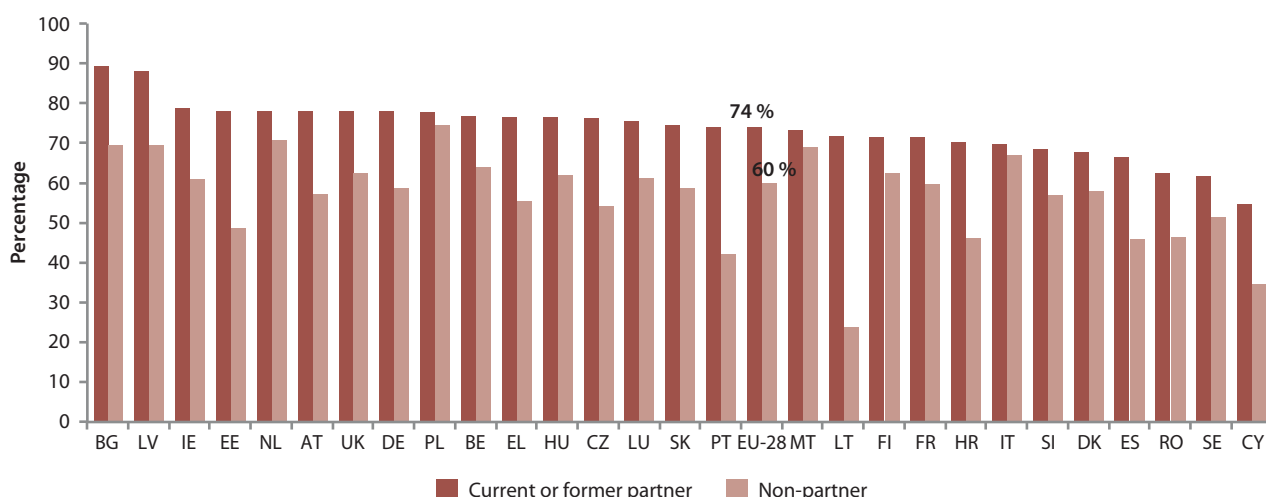
Source: Eurostat, [crim\_hom\_vrel]



**Figure 11: Scores of the subdomain of severity, by EU Member State, 2012**



**Figure 12: Women (aged 18-74) having experienced health consequences as a result of the most serious incident of violence since the age of 15, by perpetrator and by EU Member State, (%), 2012**



Source: EIGE's calculation, FRA, *Violence against women: an EU-wide survey, 2012*

The analysis of health consequences shows that, in all Member States, women who had experienced violence suffered health consequences, either physical or psychological. At the EU level, for almost 70 % of victims, violence resulted in health consequences <sup>(22)</sup>. This corroborates EIGE's previous work on the economic costs of violence against women with an estimation of EUR 225 billion yearly

in lost economic outputs, services utilisation and personal costs <sup>(23)</sup>. A third of this amount was attributed to services such as the health, social and justice sectors (EIGE, 2014b). This figure is acknowledged as being an underestimation, due to the fact that a significant share of women do not disclose violence and/or do not seek help.

<sup>(22)</sup> Data for women having experienced physical and/or sexual violence by any perpetrator since the age of 15 (FRA, 2014).

<sup>(23)</sup> This is an exercise done at EU level to estimate the costs of the three major dimensions: services, lost economic output and pain and suffering of the victims. The estimates were extrapolated to the EU from a UK case study, based on population size.

Figure 12 shows that in all EU Member States, women whose most serious incident of violence was caused by a current or former partner were more likely to experience health consequences than women for whom the perpetrator was a non-partner. It shows that across the EU, the overwhelming majority of women subjected to violence had experienced health consequences, 74 % as a result of IPV and 60 % as a result of non-partner violence.

In all Member States, health consequences were more likely to occur in situations of IPV. The difference was most marked in Lithuania, where 72 % of women experienced health consequences as a result of the most serious incident of IPV, compared to 23 % of women in situations of non-partner violence.

The very high likelihood of women experiencing health consequences from IPV (ranging from 89 % of women in Bulgaria to 54 % in Cyprus) reflects the fact that in the FRA survey, women were asked about the most serious incident of violence. This is particularly the case with IPV, which often develops gradually in a process with many different phases and escalates over time, sometimes to the point of death.

### Multiple victimisation

Although the data do not allow for analysis on the exact number of perpetrators involved in each woman's

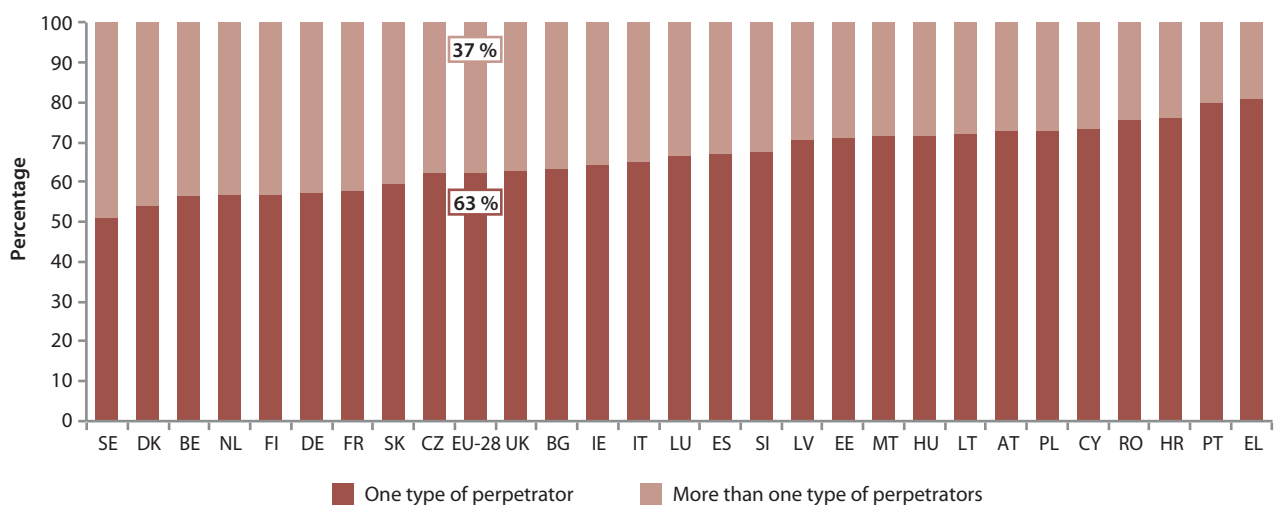
experience of victimisation, it can show the different types of perpetrators involved. The FRA questionnaire asked respondents about the following perpetrators: a non-partner, a current partner and a former partner.

Figure 13 shows the share of women victimised by only one type of perpetrator compared to women victimised by more than one type of perpetrator. In the EU-28, 37 % of women victims of sexual and/or physical violence have experienced violence by several types of perpetrators at some point in their lives. This share reaches 49 % in Sweden.

This information contributes important evidence to complement prevalence data, since it highlights the fact that more than one third of victimised women have experienced violence in several contexts (for example, in a past relationship or by a non-partner). It shows the multifaceted dimension of the phenomenon of violence against women.

Regarding the type of perpetrators involved in non-partner sexual and/or physical violence, Figure 14 shows that the largest number of reported incidents of violence were from perpetrators not known to the victim, followed by a relative/family member.

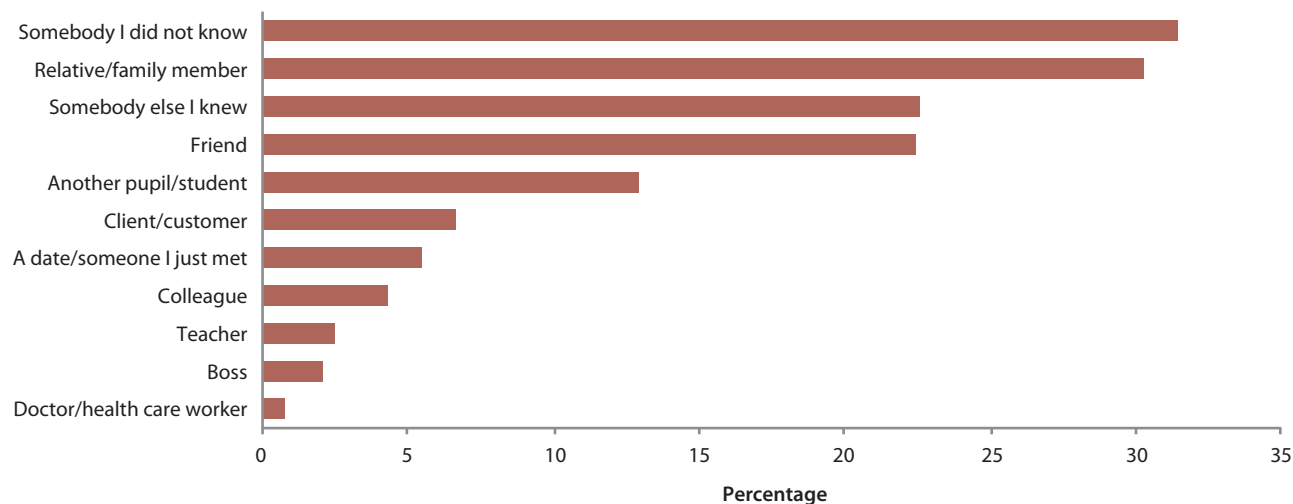
**Figure 13: Women (aged 18-74) having experienced physical and/or sexual violence from one or several types of perpetrators by the age of 15, by EU Member State, (%), 2012**



Source: EIGE's calculation, FRA, *Violence against women: an EU-wide survey*, 2012



**Figure 14: Types of perpetrators involved in non-partner physical and/or sexual violence by the age of 15, EU-28, (%), 2012**



Source: EIGE's calculation, FRA, *Violence against women: an EU-wide survey, 2012*

### 3.1.3. Subdomain of disclosure

A number of environmental factors affect women's decisions to disclose acts of violence, which are related to the broader social and cultural context (cultural and social norms, gender inequalities, impunity towards violence, trust in institutions) and to the victim's immediate environment, in particular the victim's social demographic background. There may also be variations in the extent to which women disclose violence in relation to the type of perpetrator and the type of violence, as well as other factors. Data on disclosure also provides an indication of the true extent of violence, as compared to only reported incidents.

The subdomain of disclosure includes the percentage of women who have experienced physical and/or sexual violence in the past 12 months and have not told anyone about the most serious incident<sup>(24)</sup>. The higher the score for this subdomain, the less likely women are to discuss their experiences of violence with institutions or individuals. In other words, the higher the score, the more hidden and underestimated the phenomenon of violence against women is likely to be.

When looking at sexual and/or physical violence, in the EU almost one in two (47 %) victims have not disclosed the

most serious incident to anyone<sup>(25)</sup>. As Figure 15 illustrates, the score of 14.3 for the EU-28 highlights the low level to which women victims of violence disclose their experience either to institutions (e.g. police, health services, victims support or social services, or faith-based organisations) or to individuals.

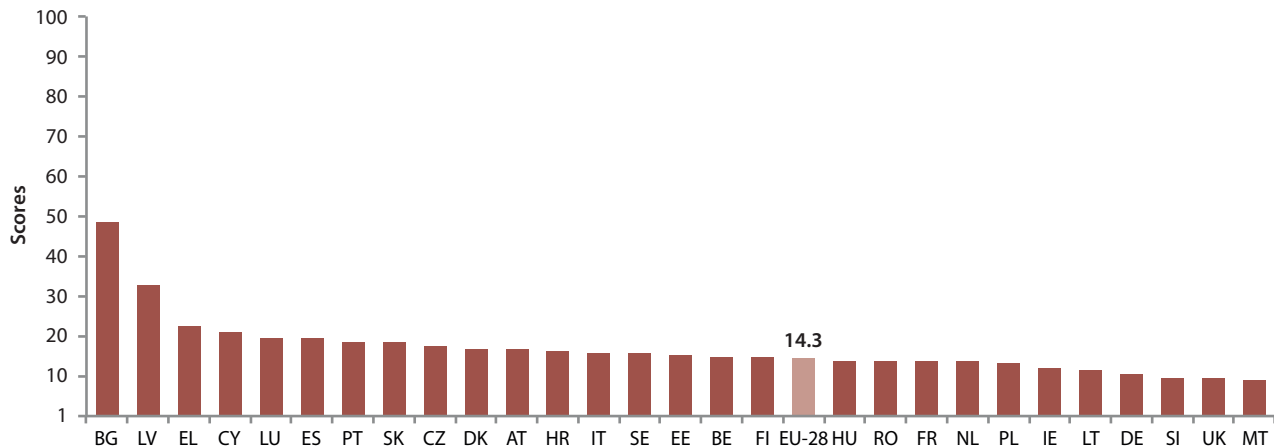
Figure 16 provides more details on the level of non-disclosure by type of perpetrator for violent acts experienced since the age of 15. In most countries, women **are more likely to disclose experiences of violence by a partner than by a non-partner**. In the EU-28, the likelihood of women divulging their experience is four percentage points higher if the perpetrator is current or former partner. The difference reaches 41 percentage points in Lithuania (74 % of women victims of violence by a non-partner have not disclosed the incident against 33 % of women victims of violence by a partner). In Germany and the UK, the type of perpetrator has little impact on women's likelihood to disclose violence, while in six countries for which under-reporting for non-partner violence is low (DK, EL, HU, NL, FI and SE), women are also less likely to disclose their experience of partner violence.

Such high levels of under-reporting of violence against women are alarming and indicate that women believe that they may not receive adequate support or be adequately protected from further victimisation if they report violence.

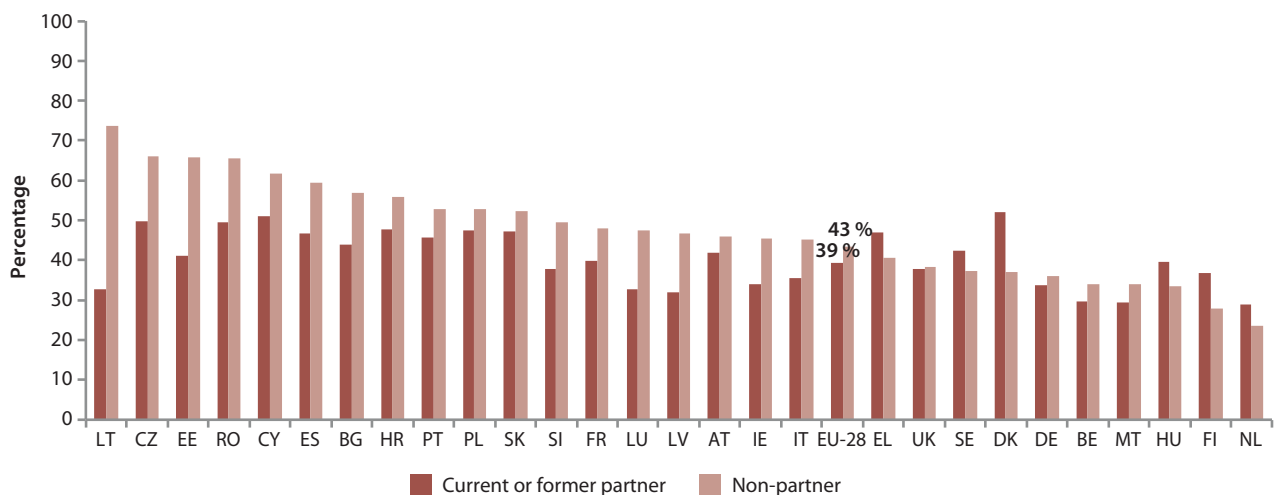
<sup>(24)</sup> The percentage of women who experienced physical and/or sexual violence by any partner since the age of 15 and have not told anyone about the most serious incident is not included in the composite measure due to statistical reasons.

<sup>(25)</sup> Data for women having experienced physical and/or sexual violence by any perpetrator since the age of 15.

**Figure 15: Scores of the subdomain of disclosure, by EU Member State, 2012**



**Figure 16: Women (aged 18-74) who have not disclosed their experience of sexual and/or physical violence to anyone since the age of 15, by perpetrator and by EU Member State, (%), 2012**



Source: EIGE's calculation, FRA, *Violence against women: an EU-wide survey*, 2012

It also means that perpetrators are not held accountable for the violent acts they inflicted. It constitutes an obstacle to a state's capacity to exercise due diligence to 'investigate, punish and provide reparation for acts of violence perpetrated by non-state actors' (Article 5, Istanbul Convention). This emphasises the need for additional efforts to prevent violent acts from occurring.

The analysis of the composite measure of violence against women provides useful insights on the most common forms of violence against women in the EU. This helps to reinforce the evidence and make more visible the prevalence of sexual and physical violence, the seriously low levels of disclosure and the severe consequences on women's lives.

### 3.2. Additional indicators

The inclusion of additional indicators in the measurement framework serves two purposes. First, to account for and raise awareness of forms of violence for which data are not yet available, comparable or of sufficient quality for inclusion in the composite measure. Second, to draw attention to persistent data gaps on serious forms of violence against women and to the need for improved methodologies on data collection across the EU. Additional indicators include forms of violence that the Istanbul Convention calls on Member States to criminalise, in addition to femicide and trafficking in human beings. In the following section, data on acts of violence committed in the context of intimate





or family relationships are presented first, and this is followed by acts of violence in a social context.

### 3.2.1. Violence in the context of intimate or family relationships

**Psychological violence** is mostly measured by survey data. According to the findings of the FRA survey, psychological violence in the context of intimate relationships is common in Europe. The impact of such violence should be further investigated as multiple and repetitive forms of psychological violence by intimate partners such as coercion, intimidation or threats can undermine women’s autonomy and self-esteem. The FRA survey results, illustrated in Figure 17, show that over two in five women (43 %) disclosed experiencing some form of psychological violence by either a current or a former partner (FRA, 2014). As discussed in Section 1, psychological violence in an intimate relationship can take an economic dimension. It is estimated that 12 % of women in the EU have experienced economic violence from a partner (former or current). This is manifested by the partner preventing the woman from making independent decisions on family finances or forbidding her to work outside the home (FRA, 2014).

Despite its high prevalence and severe consequences, psychological violence is not criminalised in most of the EU Member States. The composite measure of violence against women will include this aspect in the future as soon as a common understanding of psychological

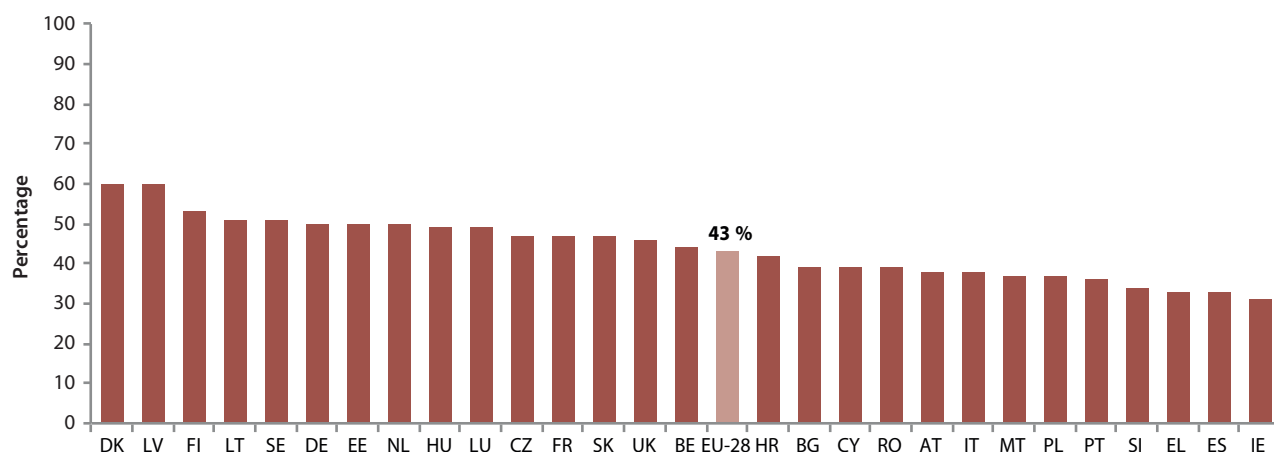
violence, its criminalisation and regular data collection are established across the EU.

**Forced marriage** is a form of violence for which there is a general lack of data in the EU, to the exception of the United Kingdom, where the Forced Marriage Unit established by the government intervened in 1 428 cases in 2016, which represented the highest number of calls for support since 2012. In 2016, 1 145 cases (80 %) concerned female victims and 283 (20 %) involved male victims (Home Office, 2016). Twelve Member States have criminalised forced marriage (European Parliament, 2016a).

**Female genital mutilation** is extremely challenging to measure and estimate in the EU. There are a number of limitations with regards to the accepted method of using the ‘extrapolation of country of origin prevalence data method’ as well as the limitations of census data. Although health professionals deal with women who have undergone FGM, very few Member States’ hospital and medical records contain information on FGM. Health professionals’ insufficient knowledge and expertise in relation to FGM, and the reluctance of the affected population to disclose their experience, impede the collection and analysis of health data.

In 2015, EIGE developed a multilayered methodological approach to estimate the number of girls at risk in all EU Member States as the basis for designing better prevention policies. Pilot studies were carried out in Ireland, Portugal and Sweden (EIGE, 2015a). Since then, Germany has

**Figure 17: Women (aged 18-74) having experienced psychological violence by a current or former partner since the age of 15, by EU Member State, (%), 2012**



Source: FRA, *Violence against women: an EU-wide survey*, 2012

applied EIGE's methodology to estimate the number of girls at risk in their national context (Czelinski et al., 2017). The findings are the following.

- **Ireland:** in 2011, a total number of 14 577 girls aged 0-18 originating from FGM risk countries (born in the country of origin or in Ireland) were residing in Ireland, of which 1 % to 11 % were likely to be at risk of FGM.
- **Portugal:** in 2011, a total number of 5 835 girls aged 0-18 originating from FGM risk countries (born in the country of origin or in Portugal) were residing in Portugal, of which 5 % to 23 % were likely to be at risk of FGM.
- **Sweden:** in 2011, a total number of 59 409 girls aged 0-18 originating from FGM risk countries (born in the country of origin or in Sweden) were residing in Sweden, of which 3 % to 19 % were likely to be at risk of FGM (ibid).
- **Germany:** in 2015, a total number of 25 325 girls aged 0-18 originating from FGM risk countries (born in the country of origin or in Germany) were residing in Germany, of which 6 % to 17 % were likely to be at risk of FGM.

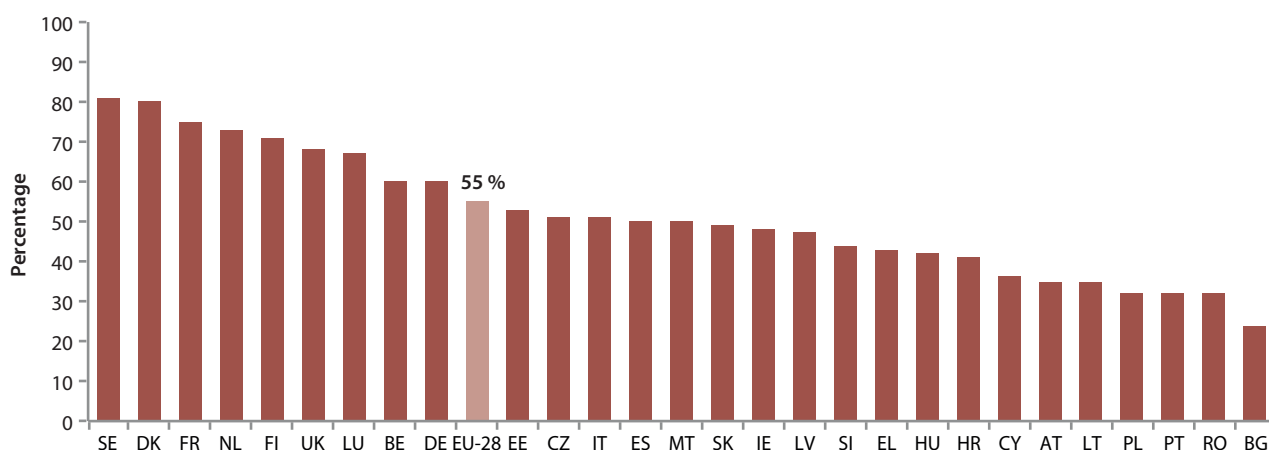
In 2017, EIGE's methodology will be further improved/ updated and applied to estimate the risk of FGM in Belgium, Greece, France, Italy, Cyprus and Malta.

FGM has multiple and long-lasting effects on the physical and psychological health and sexuality of women and girls who have experienced it, but it also has consequences on the society at large (EIGE, 2013a). In the context of the unprecedented levels of asylum requests received by EU Member States since 2014 (EASO, 2016), it is important to consider how adequate support can be provided to women and girls having undergone the practice and the protection for those at risk.

### 3.2.2. Violence in a social context

**Sexual harassment** is conceptualised and criminalised differently across the EU and is often defined on the basis of the context in which sexual harassment occurs (in the workplace or in a social context). The FRA survey shows that 55 % of women in the EU have experienced sexual harassment since the age of 15 in any situation and not limited to the workplace. As Figure 18 shows, nine Member States have prevalence rates above the EU average. Higher prevalence rates of sexual harassment in northern European countries are mirrored in other surveys, including the European working conditions survey (Eurofound, 2016).

**Figure 18: Women (aged 18-74) having experienced any form of sexual harassment since the age of 15, by EU Member State, (%), 2012**



Source: FRA, *Violence against women: an EU-wide survey, 2012*



### **Sexual harassment in the workplace**

In the context of the fifth European working conditions survey, Eurofound (2016) developed the concept of adverse social behaviour to account for different aspects of violence experienced at work (verbal abuse, unwanted sexual attention, threats or humiliating behaviours) during the month or the 12 months preceding the interview. This measure provides a comprehensive picture of exposure to violence at work, since it captures acts related to psychological, physical and/or sexual violence ranging from disrespect to criminal offences, one-off events to systematic abuse, and from different perpetrators, such as colleagues, superiors, subordinates or third parties (such as students, customers, users or patients).

In 2015, 17 % of women and 15 % of men reported being exposed to adverse social behaviour in the workplace. The gender difference is partially attributed to women's greater exposure to sexual harassment and also to the higher prevalence of adverse social behaviour in female-dominated sectors, such as health and social work (representing over 20 % of workers), transportation and storage, accommodation and food services, public administration and education (Eurofound, 2016). Eurofound also attributes the high prevalence of adverse social behaviour to complex interpersonal management and to the fact that workers in those sectors combine interaction with colleagues, superiors and subordinates as well as third parties. Furthermore, patriarchal structures and behaviours, coupled with liberal values (such as competition, profit-led activities, etc.) on the labour market have been found to trivialise male violence at work or in situations related to work, making it very difficult for women to detect and denounce such violence (European Women's Lobby, 2010).

### **Sexual harassment in the social context**

Sexual harassment and violence against girls and young women is the subject of increased research in the social context, and particularly in relation to education. Studies show that the extent of violence in schools may be significant. For example, 5 500 sexual offences were recorded in UK schools over a 3-year period, including 600 rapes (House of Commons Women and Equalities Committee, 2016). A 2010 YouGov poll of 16-18 year olds found that 29 % of girls experienced unwanted sexual touching at school and a further 71 % of 16-18-year-old boys and girls said they had heard sexual name-calling such as 'slut' or 'slag' (ibid).

Women and girls who engage in sport may face the risk of gender-based violence, exploitation and harassment

from other athletes, spectators, coaches, managers and family or community members. A recent report from the European Commission analysed 38 studies focusing on gender-based violence in sport across the EU (European Commission, 2016c). Eighteen of these studies contained data on the prevalence of sexual harassment experienced by men and women athletes ranging from 1 % to 64 %, due to the different methodologies and definitions. Most studies highlighted that female athletes (both women and girls) were significantly more at risk of sexual harassment than their male peers were. These studies further highlighted that the higher the level of athletic performance, the higher the likelihood of experiencing sexual harassment (ibid).

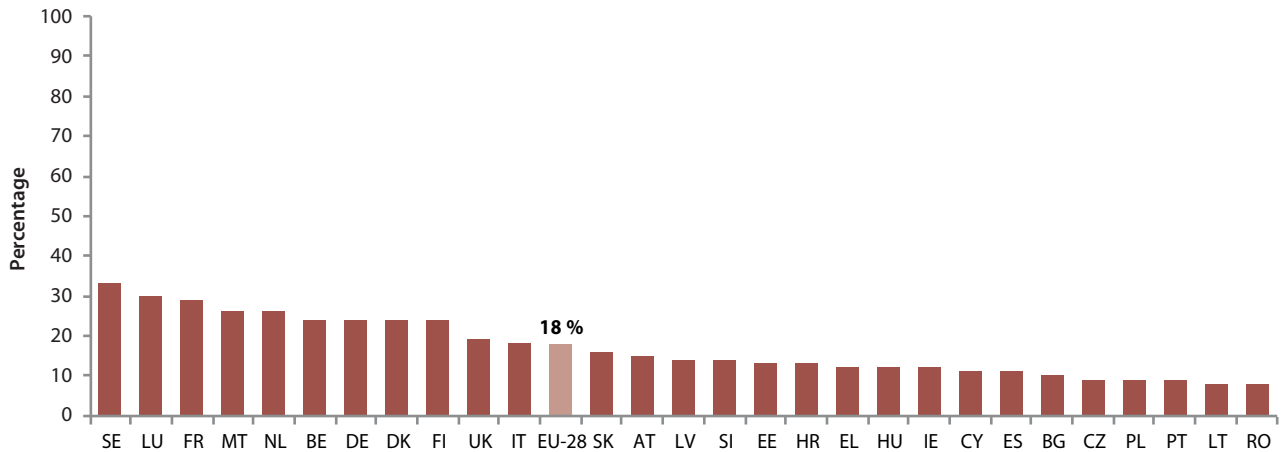
**Stalking** is measured by survey and administrative data. EIGE's study (2014a) on data sources on gender-based violence in the EU identified only a limited number of administrative sources of data on stalking. Data collected by the police were found to be the most comprehensive form of administrative data collected in 15 Member States <sup>(26)</sup>. According to the FRA survey, stalking is commonly experienced by women in the EU, where an average of 18 % of women have experienced it at some point in their adult lives. In most cases, stalking manifests itself in phone calls, receiving emails or text messages, or being followed. Social media and digital technologies are increasingly facilitating stalking (EIGE, 2017a). These data are illustrated in Figure 19.

Greater awareness and data collection are crucial for more effectively preventing stalking and other severe forms of violence, such as physical and/or sexual violence and femicide. As FRA data show, in the most cases stalking is perpetrated by a former partner or someone else known to the victim (FRA, 2014).

The limited sources of data for both sexual harassment and stalking are attributed, at least partially, to the fact that criminalisation for those two forms of violence is still low in many Member States. There is also a lack of awareness among citizens that stalking and sexual harassment are considered gender-based violence crimes that need to be reported and prosecuted by justice systems. From this perspective, greater engagement from Member States is

<sup>(26)</sup> As of 2014, EIGE highlighted that in 11 Member States (BE, CZ, DE, FR, HR, LT, NL, AT, PL, SK and SE) it is also possible to collect information from justice services (17 administrative data sources in total). In social services, only nine Member States (CZ, IE, EL, IT, LV, LT, MT, NL and SE) provide sources that are coordinated nationally and cover stalking (11 administrative data sources in total). Up to six administrative data sources record data on stalking under the category 'other', in the public sector (EL) and in civil society organisations (HU, MT and SI) (EIGE, 2014b).

**Figure 19: Women (aged 18-74) having experienced stalking since the age of 15, by EU Member State, (%), 2012**



Source: FRA, *Violence against women: an EU-wide survey, 2012*

needed to raise awareness that these are crimes based on gender and that greater levels of support are needed for organisations dealing with these forms of violence (EIGE, 2014a).

**Forced abortion and forced sterilisation** have been reported in several EU Member States, including of women from ethnic minorities, such as Roma women and girls and indigenous women, women with mental and cognitive disabilities, women from poor socioeconomic background or transwomen (Zampas and Lamačková, 2011). While no systematic quantitative studies are available, the practice of forced sterilisation has been confirmed and condemned in national courts and in the European Court of Human Rights <sup>(27)</sup>.

**Trafficking in human beings** is estimated from administrative records at the national level relating to 'registered victims'. This includes both identified and presumed victims as per the criteria set out in Directive 2011/99/EU on preventing and combatting trafficking in human beings <sup>(28)</sup>. For the year 2013, 5 189 women and girls were

registered as victims of trafficking in the 27 EU Member States that provided data (European Commission, 2016a, p. 87). Of those, 15 % were under 18 (ibid). Figure 20 shows the number of registered female victims (women and girls) of trafficking in human beings per 100 000 female population per country.

As with other forms of gender-based violence, and given the transnational nature of trafficking in human beings, these data represent a serious underestimation of the phenomenon (European Commission, 2016a).

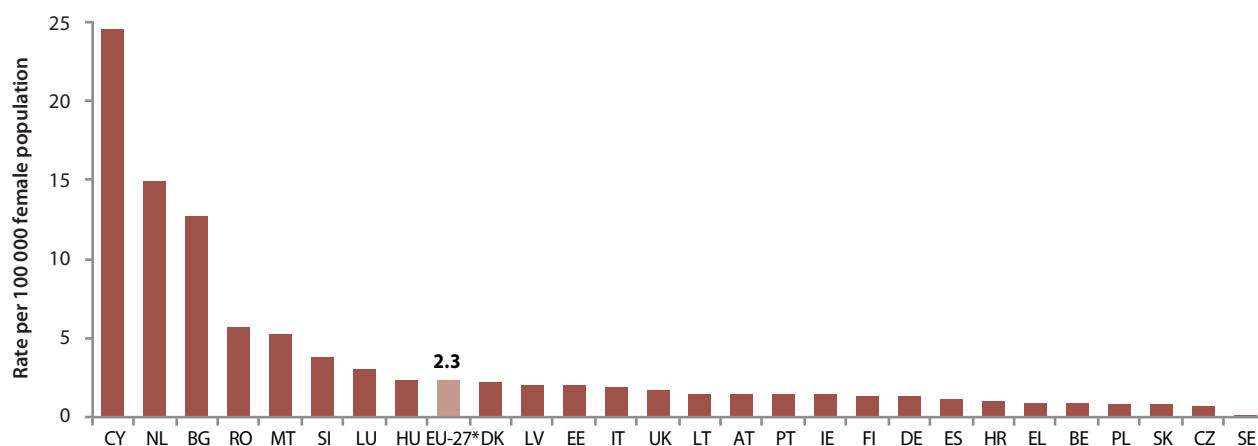
Women victims of trafficking are predominantly exploited for sexual purposes, and to a lesser extent for domestic servitude or sham or forced marriages (European Commission, 2016a). For the 2013-2014 period, women represented 76 % of all registered victims in the EU, which is consistent with earlier periods (Eurostat, 2015). The most widespread form of exploitation experienced by victims of trafficking is sexual exploitation (representing 67 % of registered victims, women and men) followed by 21 % of registered victims for labour exploitation and 12 % for other forms of trafficking in human beings, including criminal activities, organ removal, forced marriage or forced begging.

<sup>(27)</sup> Specific rulings include 'K.H. and Others v. Slovakia, No. 32881/04, ECHR 2009', 'V.C. v. Slovakia, No. 18968/07, ECHR 2011' and 'A.P., Garçon and Nicot v. France, Nos. 52471/13 and 52496/13, ECHR 2017'.

<sup>(28)</sup> In accordance with the definition in the anti-trafficking Directive 2011/99/EU, the term 'identified victim' refers to a person who has been formally identified by relevant authorities as a victim of trafficking. The term 'presumed victim' is used for a victim of trafficking who has met the criteria of the EU directive but has not formally been identified by the competent authorities as a victim or has declined to be formally and legally identified as a victim of trafficking. Some Member States have included both categories in their data collection, whereas others only included one of the two categories.



**Figure 20: Women and girls registered victims of trafficking in human beings, by EU Member State, (rate per 100 000 female population), 2013**



Source: EIGE's calculation, European Commission, 2016a

NB: Data from France are missing.

### 3.3. Intersectional analysis of violence against women

The theory of intersectionality, first named by Kimberlé Crenshaw in 1989, seeks to examine how various categories such as gender, class, sexual orientation, ethnic origin, etc. interact on multiple levels, creating a system of oppression that reflects the 'intersection' of multiple forms and dimensions of discrimination (Crenshaw, 1989). This is defined by the United Nations in the following way:

'Forms and manifestations of violence against women are shaped by social and cultural norms as well as the dynamics of each social, economic and political system. Factors such as women's race, ethnicity, caste, class, migrant or refugee status, age, religion, sexual orientation, marital status, disability or HIV status will influence what forms of violence they suffer and how they experience it' (United Nations, 2006, p. 46).

According to Rosa Logar, the president of the WAVE network, a weakness of the gender frame of analysis in the context of violence against women is that it is one-dimensional and presents gender as the sole reason for violence, while disregarding the impact of other forms of discrimination and oppression (Thiara et al., 2011). Nevertheless, recent developments have increasingly taken into account the complexity of multiple discrimination and violence such as the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms

of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) *General Recommendation No 26 on women migrant workers* (UN, 2008), which addresses the problem of the specific and multiple discriminations faced by labour migrants, and the European Parliament resolution of 26 April 2007 on the situation of women with disabilities in the EU (European Parliament, 2007). More broadly, concepts relating to intersecting inequalities such as 'multiple discrimination' or 'multiple disadvantages' are increasingly reflected in political strategies <sup>(29)</sup> and in policy documents on gender inequality at the EU level <sup>(30)</sup>. In this context, migration, age, Roma background and disability are referred to as being among the most common grounds for 'multiple discrimination'.

All women experience or might experience violence and discrimination due to their being women. At the same

<sup>(29)</sup> Attempts to develop intersectional policies culminated with the nomination of 2007 as 'European year of equal opportunities for all' and the proposal (still not adopted) from the European Commission of a single directive to combat discrimination based on religion or belief, disability, age or sexual orientation outside of the field of employment (horizontal anti-discrimination directive). In this context, the European Commission's report on tackling multiple discrimination, which defines the concept of multiple discrimination as 'a situation where discrimination takes place on the basis of several grounds operating separately. For instance, an ethnic minority woman may experience discrimination on the basis of her gender in one situation and because of her ethnic origin in another' (European Commission, 2007, p. 16).

<sup>(30)</sup> For example, *Strategic engagement for gender equality 2016-2019* (European Commission, 2015b); *European Pact for Gender Equality 2011-2020* (Council of the European Union, 2010); *Strategy for equality between women and men 2010-2015* (European Commission, 2010b); *Council conclusions of 2009 on equal opportunities for women and men: active and dignified ageing* (Council of the European Union, 2009).

time, due to social factors such as racial or ethnic origin, migrant or refugee status, sexual orientation, age, disability, or for other reasons, some women are more vulnerable to specific forms of violence or exposed to violence differently or disproportionately. As a result, 'such multiple discrimination results in very specific forms of discrimination and oppression which have to be identified, pointed out and changed' (Thiara et al., 2011, p. 39). This highlights the need to expand the 'lens' on gender-related violence in order to take into account the intersections of other categories (Schröttle and Glammeier, 2013).

Multiple discrimination shapes the forms of violence that women experience. It exposes some women to a particularly high risk of violence with limited opportunities to escape violence or access support services (United Nations, 2006; Crepaldi and Samek, 2011). To illustrate this phenomenon, with no intention of being exhaustive, some intersecting dimensions or forms of oppression are presented in Table 13 below.

**Table 13: Violence against women who face multiple and intersecting forms of discrimination**

<b>Migration</b>
<p>The migration process puts women and girls at a heightened risk of a wider range of violence, for example harassment, sexual abuse and coercion in the detention centres and refugee settings and throughout the refugee and asylum process. According to a study conducted in 2012, '69.3 % of female migrants, including refugees, have experienced sexual violence since entering Europe and acts were often perpetrated by European professionals or citizens. This is in stark contrast to the 11 % lifetime prevalence of sexual violence among European girls and women aged over 15, and points to the possible magnitude of the issue of sexual violence against refugee women in Europe' (WHO, 2016). They may also face additional difficulties and structural barriers in overcoming violence. Chapter VII of the Istanbul Convention contains a number of obligations that aim to introduce a gender-sensitive understanding of violence against women and women asylum seekers as well as the obligation to respect the non-refoulement<sup>(31)</sup> principle with regard to victims of violence against women (Council of Europe, 2011).</p> <p>Migrant women face multidimensional vulnerability; they may be more exposed to violence due to the particular precariousness of their legal and economic position as well as that exerted by both perpetrators in the host country and those in their own community. In addition, their status as migrants may restrict their access to escape routes, services and information<sup>(32)</sup>. Migrant women may also experience violence in their communities, where they can be subject to FGM and forced marriages. Furthermore, they may experience violence as care workers and/or nurses in private households, as well as as irregular workers (Crepaldi and Samek, 2011).</p>
<b>Age</b>
<p>Older women are particularly exposed to psychological and economic violence. Studies in five EU Member States showed that almost one older woman in three (28 %) reported experiencing some form of abuse and/or neglect in the 12 months prior to the interview. Portugal was the country encountering the highest overall abuse (39.4 %), followed by Belgium (32 %), Finland (24 %), Austria (24 %) and Lithuania (22 %). When considering all five countries, emotional abuse was the most common type of abuse observed (24 %), followed by financial abuse (9 %), violation of rights (6 %), neglect (5 %), sexual abuse (3 %) and physical abuse (3 %) (Luoma et al., 2011).</p>
<b>Socioeconomic background</b>
<p>Women suffering economic vulnerability are at a higher risk of violence at home than the others. Low income and/or women's financial dependence on their husbands/partners also limits the possibility to escape violence, and job precariousness significantly increases exposure to violence (Crepaldi and Samek, 2011). EIGE's work on the gender pension gap shows that the effect of limited economic independence for women is likely to accumulate over the life course, resulting in a heightened vulnerability to poverty in older age. Considering that older women tend to receive small pensions, depend on social benefits or retrieve their entitlements from their spouses, leaving a violent partner often means facing poverty (EIGE, 2015c).</p>
<b>Religious/ethnic identity</b>
<p>Muslim women are increasingly the target of verbal and physical violence in Europe. Research carried out in eight Member States<sup>(33)</sup> by the European Network Against Racism highlighted cases of insults, attacks and physical assaults mainly in public spaces (including streets, public transports, markets and shops) and in the workplace, mostly from male perpetrators who were mostly unknown to the victims. In all countries examined, the majority of religious-driven hate crimes targeted women wearing Islamic dress. Anti-Muslim violence has been documented as increasing dramatically in the aftermath of terrorist attacks in France, with a 500 % increase in physical aggressions and a 100 % increase in verbal aggressions experienced by Muslims in the first 6 months of 2015, compared to the previous year (ENAR, 2016).</p>

<sup>(31)</sup> 'Non-refoulement' is a cornerstone principle of international law by which states commit to not expelling refugees and asylum seekers who may be refugees to a place where there is a well-founded fear that they would be threatened on account of their race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion. The principle of non-refoulement was officially enshrined in Article 33 of the 1951 Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees and reflected in several international and regional legal instruments (UN, 1951).

<sup>(32)</sup> For example, La Cimade survey (2010) found that 38 % of Parisian police stations would arrest undocumented woman reporting violence, in 5 % she couldn't even lodge a complaint (PICUM, 2012).

<sup>(33)</sup> BE, DK, DE, FR, IT, NL, SE and UK.



### Geographical location

Women in rural areas and/or remote communities face specific risks and vulnerabilities. According to Article 14 of the CEDAW general recommendation No 19, rural women are at risk of gender-based violence because of traditional attitudes regarding the subordinate role of women that persist in many rural communities. In addition, they may face structural barriers in overcoming violence. Additional needs must be addressed if they are to access support.

### Disability

Violence against women with disabilities is largely invisible. A German study on violence against women with disabilities showed that women with disabilities have experienced violence two to four times more often than women without disabilities (depending on the form of violence, the disability and the current life situation; they are the most affected group of women (Schröttle et al., 2013, Schröttle and Glammeier, 2014). The key issue in this context is dependency, whereby the greater the degree of disability, the greater the degree of dependency and vulnerability to violence (SALAR, 2007). Women with disabilities may experience violence in institutional settings and in the family, where violence is perpetrated by family members, caretakers or strangers. The exclusion and isolation of women with disabilities from society in separate schools or in residential institutions, the lack of mobility aids or assistive devices and the training needed to use them increases vulnerability to violence and also contributes to impunity (EWL, 2010). The European Parliament's *Report on the situation of women with disabilities in the European Union* (2007) states that, '... women with disabilities are three times as likely to be victims of violence than women without disabilities'. A more recent report of 2013 notes that 'estimates show that women with disabilities are 1.5 to 10 times more likely to be abused than non-disabled women' and that 'violence can manifest in various forms: forced sexual acts and rape, forced assignment to care facilities, lock up, intrusions in private spheres, forced sterilisation, forced contraception, forced abortion' (European Parliament, 2013, p. 19). The European Parliament resolution of 26 April 2007 on the situation of women with disabilities in the EU also notes that '... nearly 80 % of women with disabilities are victims of psychological and physical violence; and the risk of sexual violence is greater for them than for other women' (European Parliament, 2007).

Source: Conceptual framework of violence against women, EIGE, unpublished

The 2017 edition of the Gender Equality Index introduced a new approach to analyse how gender intersects with other social factors throughout the six domains of the index. First, this approach helps to emphasise that it is important to reach full gender equality for all women and men, not depending on their other personal characteristics such as ethnicity, disability, family composition, etc. Second, the analysis of intersecting inequalities aims to highlight how gender intersects with other axes of inequality and to identify which groups of women and men are most at a disadvantage (EIGE, 2017c). These are illustrated in Table 14.

Applying this approach to the domain of violence requires analysing the impact that such characteristics may have on women's likelihood to experience violence or on the type of violence they are experiencing. This information is critical if policies and services are to answer the needs of all victims of violence.

In the context of the FRA survey, 16 % of respondents declared experiencing bad or very bad health limitations in their everyday activities and considered themselves as disabled or belonging to a minority in their country in terms of disability. Across the EU-28, this corresponds to 31 million women. The survey results show that women who have health problems or a disability indicate a higher prevalence of various forms of violence than women who do not have similar health problems

**Table 14: Population groups included in the intersectional analysis of the Gender Equality Index**

Group	Measurement categories by gender
Country of birth	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ National born</li> <li>▪ EU-born</li> <li>▪ Non EU-born</li> </ul>
Disability	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ With disabilities</li> <li>▪ Without disabilities</li> </ul>
Education	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Low educated</li> <li>▪ Medium educated</li> <li>▪ High educated</li> </ul>
Age groups	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ 15/16-24</li> <li>▪ 25-49</li> <li>▪ 50-64</li> <li>▪ 65 and older</li> </ul>
Family type	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Single person</li> <li>▪ Lone mother/father</li> <li>▪ Living in a couple without children</li> <li>▪ Living in a couple with children</li> </ul>

Source: EIGE, 2017c

or disabilities. The difference in lifetime prevalence is 13 percentage points for all types of sexual and physical violence <sup>(34)</sup>.

<sup>(34)</sup> The difference would even be higher when all groups of disabled women were included, like women living in institutional settings or deaf women (Schröttle et al., 2013).

Across all forms of violence, the FRA survey also highlights that women who indicated they were non-citizens showed increased levels of victimisation. This heightened prevalence was most marked for psychological violence with a prevalence at 11 percentage points higher for non-citizen women (54 %) compared to women with the country's citizenship (43 %) (FRA, 2014).

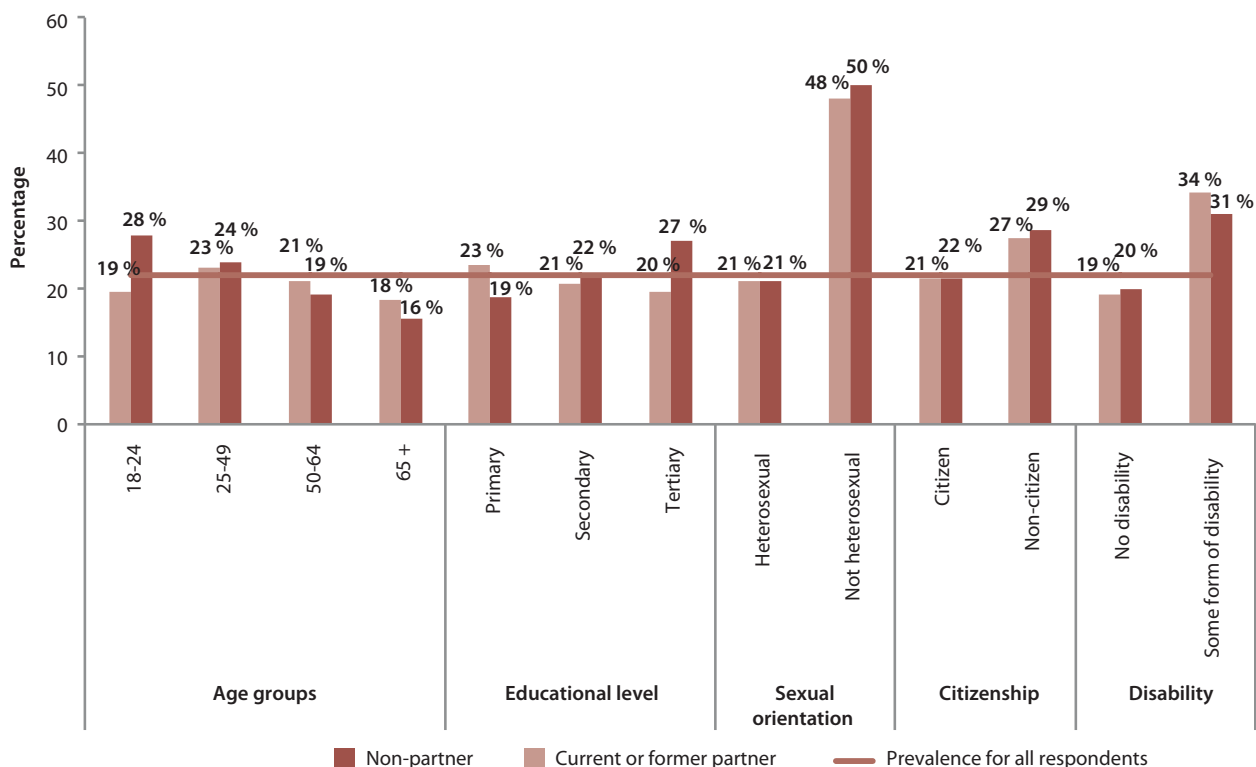
Figure 21 presents the prevalence of sexual and/or physical violence by a partner for women respondents of the FRA survey on the basis of age, education, sexual orientation<sup>(35)</sup>, country of birth and disability. The prevalence of this type of violence for all women is marked with a dark line. For partner violence, it shows evidence of heightened victimisation levels for non-heterosexual women, women with disabilities and women who do not possess the citizenship of the country they live in. For non-heterosexual women, the prevalence is more than twice higher. This data has to be interpreted with caution. Data for

non-heterosexual women includes women who identify as "lesbian" bisexual" or "other". Furthermore, the survey does not provide data on the sex of perpetrators (current or former partner) of violence experienced by non-heterosexual women. Finally, women may not disclose that they are non-heterosexual.

Young women show a heightened vulnerability than women in general. Sexual orientation and disability remain important risk factors for violence with higher prevalence rates for those categories of women compared to women in general.

These aspects highlight the need for support services, but also for policies on the prevention of violence against women to take into account the variety of situations among women and to tailor their focus to adequately protecting and supporting those most at risk.

**Figure 21: Prevalence of physical and or sexual violence since the age of 15 by a partner, by age, educational level, sexual orientation, citizenship and disability, EU-28, (%), 2012**



Source: EIGE's calculation, FRA, *Violence against women: an EU-wide survey, 2012*; prevalence for sexual orientation and disability is taken from FRA (2014), *Violence against women: an EU-wide survey*

<sup>(35)</sup> In the context of the FRA survey, respondents were asked to describe their sexual orientation using one of the four following categories: 'heterosexual/straight', 'lesbian', 'bisexual' and 'other'. 526 respondents out of the survey's 42 002 respondents indicated being lesbian, bisexual or other (FRA, 2014, p. 184).





# Conclusions

Violence hampers women's enjoyment of their fundamental freedoms and negatively affects their health and well-being and that of their families. When left unpunished, violence against women strongly hinders women's full participation in society and maintains an oppressive and coercive pattern of control of men over women. The measurement framework presented in this report is designed to assist Member States in gaining a better understanding of the phenomenon, its magnitude and the context in which violence against women occurs.

The development of a composite measure of the extent of violence has shown that with a score of 27.5, violence against women is a prevalent, severe and under-reported phenomenon in the EU <sup>(36)</sup>. The analysis at the variable level is particularly alarming. **For almost 70 % of victims, violence comes with health consequences. A third of victims have experienced violence from multiple types of perpetrators. Almost half of the victims of violence have not disclosed the incident to anyone.** An intersectional analysis also reveals the specific vulnerabilities of certain groups of women; for example, **women with disabilities are at higher risk of violence from any perpetrator than women without disabilities.** This calls for increased victim support, improved prevention and greater efforts to ensure accountability and prosecution of perpetrators.

The evidence confirms the importance of policies directly addressing coercive and violent practices. For instance, gender equality policies in the workplace need to work in conjunction with policies to end violence against women at work (sexual harassment or the overspill of domestic violence in the workplace). Violence against women may cause gender disparities or serve to maintain inequality, despite the existence of gender equality policy in other

domains. Without addressing coercive and violent practices directly, gender equality policy may remain ineffective (Klein, 2013).

The collection, analysis and processing of administrative data on various forms of violence shows that the availability and quality of data vary significantly across the spectrum of forms of violence (EIGE, 2016a). Despite recent progress, many severe forms of violence against women are still inadequately measured in the EU, resulting in an incomplete understanding of the phenomenon and possible means to address it. Human trafficking, FGM, forced marriage, psychological violence and femicide are examples of such. To this end, the European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE) has defined a set of uniform definitions and indicators to aid the collection of administrative data on rape, femicide and intimate partner violence (IPV) (EIGE, 2017d).

The structure of the measurement framework is built around the central aspects of the Istanbul Convention. The convention seeks to establish a legal and policy framework to tackle violence against women through main pillars: prevention, protection of victims and the prosecution of perpetrators. Such a holistic approach calls for policies and measures that would acknowledge and promote gender equality as part of prevention of violence against women, ensure sufficient support and services for women experiencing violence as well as directly address coercive and violent practices of perpetrators.

With the EU accession to the Istanbul Convention, a comprehensive framework for monitoring the implementation of the Istanbul Convention is needed, today more than ever. Detailed and comparable information on Member States policies, service provision, judicial and police services, criminalisation of forms of violence against women and information on the societal framework are crucial to better understanding the context and settings in which violence occurs. They also help to identify the drivers of change in the extent of violence against women and its interaction with gender inequalities. The availability of solid and reliable data for the measurement of contextual factors would advance the understanding of the root causes of violence against women and, even more importantly, address practices that constitute violence against women.

<sup>(36)</sup> As described previously in the report, unlike the general score of the Gender Equality Index, for which the higher the score the closer the country is to achieving equality between women and men in all areas, the interpretation of the composite measure of violence against women uses the opposite approach. This means that the higher the score of the composite measure the more serious the phenomenon of violence against women is in the country. Using a scale of 1 to 100, the metric highlights the situation of Member States against two extremes: '1' presenting a situation where violence is non-existent, to the complete opposite situation of '100', where violence against women is extremely common, highly severe and not disclosed.



As a domain of the Gender Equality Index, multiple possibilities for measuring complex interactions between gender equality and violence against women are offered. Elaborated further, the measurement framework could fulfil its potential of not only measuring progress in gender

equality, but also of being a solid and reliable tool for regularly monitoring progress in the efforts and measures applied for eradication of violence against women by the EU and its Member States.

# Annexes

## Annex 1: Legal and policy developments on violence against women

The United Nations (UN) system and the Council of Europe, and more recently the European Union institutions, have addressed violence against women through the application of targeted, specific policy measures, including the adoption by the Council of Europe of the Istanbul Convention (Council of Europe, 2011). This section highlights the relevant legal and policy developments from the United Nations, the EU and the Council of Europe.

### 1.1. United Nations

In 1979, the UN General Assembly adopted the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW). Although it does not explicitly address violence against women, its adoption is a milestone in the fight against violence by urging governments to achieve women's and men's full 'human rights and fundamental freedoms in the political, economic, social, cultural, civil or any other field' (United Nations, 1979). Furthermore, it acknowledges that discriminatory social and cultural patterns of conduct of men and women stem from the perception of the inferiority of women.

A decade later, CEDAW released two general recommendations on violence against women — No 12 (United Nations, 1989) and No 19 (United Nations, 1992). They addressed violence against women explicitly and demanded statistical data on different forms of violence against women and on victims. General Recommendation No 19 introduced the term 'gender-based violence', a similar definition of which was subsequently used in the Istanbul Convention. It complements General Recommendation No 12 in reiterating states' responsibility to act with due diligence in eliminating violence against women.

In 1993, the UN for the first time exclusively addressed violence against women in the Declaration on the Elimination of Violence Against Women. The declaration conceptualises violence against women as being gender based by referring to any act of violence against women that happens because the victims are women and due to historical and structural unequal power relations between women and men. However, the declaration is not a legally binding document (United Nations, 1993).

Two years later, the fourth UN World Conference on Women in 1995 marked an important step in addressing violence against women. The Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (United Nations, 1995) identified 12 critical areas of concern, one of them being violence against women. The platform identifies violence against women as 'an obstacle to the achievement of the objectives of equality, development and peace' (paragraph 112) and uses the definition of violence against women established in the Declaration on the Elimination of Violence Against women (United Nations, 1993).

More recently, the UN sustainable development goals (SDGs) include the goal to eliminate all forms of violence against all women and girls in the public and private sphere, including all harmful practices such as child, early and forced marriage and female genital mutilation (FGM). This goal forms part of the UN 2030 agenda for sustainable development, which established a set of 17 SDGs and 169 targets, agreed by UN Member States in 2015. To monitor progress, the Inter-Agency and Expert Group on SDG Indicators has proposed a global indicator framework. Several targets and indicators under SDG 5, SDG 11 and SDG 16 are relevant to violence against women. They build on the core indicators on the extent of violence against women recommended by the Friends of the Chair of the UN Statistical Commission.

The work of several UN agencies, especially UN Women, the World Health Organisation and the UN Office for Drugs and Crime, play a very significant role in assisting with the implementation of the SDGs and the monitoring of their progress.

### 1.2. Council of Europe

The Council of Europe also has a long history of addressing violence against women. In 2001, it adopted a resolution on FGM and called on the Member States to undertake a wide range of actions (Council of Europe, 2001). A year later, the Council of Europe (2002) recommended different actions to be undertaken to prevent violence against women and protect women from violence. A resolution on forced marriage and child marriage (Council of Europe, 2005) and a recommendation on combating violence



against women followed in 2005 and in 2007, respectively (Council of Europe, 2007).

The most important milestone was the adoption of the Council of Europe's Convention on Preventing and Combating Violence against Women and Domestic Violence (Istanbul Convention) in 2011. Various forms of gender-based violence and specific forms such as FGM are addressed in this comprehensive and legally binding convention, as is the need to protect victims. The Istanbul Convention defines minimum standards on the prevention of violence against women, the protection of victims and the prosecution of perpetrators. To date, 22 of the 47 Member States of the Council of Europe have ratified and 39 have signed the convention. Of the Member States of the EU, 14 have already ratified the convention (BE, DK, EE, FR, IT, MT, NL, AT, PL, PT, RO, SI, FI and SE) and several others are preparing ratification (Council of Europe, 2016a).

Article 11 of the convention highlights the need for a regular data collection, e.g. regular population-based surveys, on all forms of violence covered by the convention. In addition, the explanatory report elaborates on data collection.

'Relevant statistical data may include administrative data collected from statistics compiled by healthcare services and social welfare services, law enforcement agencies and NGOs, as well as judicial data recorded by judicial authorities, including public prosecutors' (Council of Europe, 2011, Article 11).

It acknowledges that the two main data sources — surveys and administrative data — serve different purposes. Whilst survey data informs understanding of the frequency, severity and causes of violence, administrative data addresses capacity issues and can be used to evaluate services (Council of Europe, 2011, Article 11).

In 2016 the Council of Europe (2016b) adopted a resolution on the systematic collection of data on violence against women. It highlights the gap between the prevalence rates captured in surveys and the official records of police and other institutions. It states that victims should be encouraged to report their experiences of violence and that their trust in official authorities should be rebuilt. The Council of Europe supports the development of a comprehensive measurement of violence against women that includes survey data as well as police crime records and reports by justice, health and support systems. In addition to capturing the extent of the phenomenon over time and across countries, data on violence against women brings visibility to the number of violent incidents reported as well as sentencing of perpetrators in the legal system. It

can also bring to light the met and unmet need for support and health systems.

### 1.3. The European Union

The EU commitment to eradicate gender-based violence is quite recent in comparison to other international bodies. Until recently, violence against women was considered to be outside the competence of the EU and there was no explicit legal basis in the EU for intervening in this field (European Commission, 2010c; European Parliament, 2010; Crepaldi and Samek, 2011). Notably, the EU's competence for the harmonisation of criminal law was extended by the Lisbon Treaty, which offered a new opportunity to develop instruments to combat violence against women. In addition, 'the institutional and substantial changes introduced by the Lisbon Treaty contribute to strengthen a multilevel human rights protection system, by reasserting as prescriptive the internationally recognised principles of protection of fundamental rights' (Spinelli, 2011, p. 54).

Since 1990, several documents have addressed violence against women or special forms of violence against women, including binding directives, conclusions by the Council of the EU, resolutions of the European Parliament and strategies from the European Commission. One of the earliest documents addressing violence against women in the EU was the resolution of the European Parliament on violence against women in 1986 (European Parliament, 1986). Similar to developments within the UN, the European Parliament addressed the issue of equal treatment for women and men, and in 2002 it demanded that the EU condemn (sexual) harassment. Further directives on equal opportunities and equal treatment for women and men followed in 2004, 2006 and 2010.

EU actions on tackling trafficking in human beings and its political commitment to address this form of violence is reflected in the large number of initiatives and measures established in the area since the 1990s<sup>(37)</sup>. Directive 2011/36/EU on preventing and combating trafficking in human beings and protecting its victims and Directive 2011/99/EU on the European protection order have adopted a gender-specific approach that focuses on

<sup>(37)</sup> Such initiatives include the Communication on trafficking in women for the purpose of sexual exploitation (COM(96) 567 final), the Communication on fighting trafficking in human beings: an integrated approach and proposals for an action plan (COM(2005) 514 final), the EU plan on best practices, standards and procedures for combating and preventing trafficking in human beings (2005/C 311/01) and the Commission working document on the evaluation and monitoring of the implementation of the EU plan (COM(2008) 657 final). Of relevance is also the Council of Europe Convention on Actions against Trafficking in Human Beings of 2005.

human rights and on the victims, and along with the EU strategy towards the eradication of trafficking in human beings 2012-2016, forms the current binding framework to counter-trafficking within the EU and beyond.

The EU's anti-trafficking strategy addresses trafficking as a complex transnational phenomenon which occurs not only in conflict and post-conflict situations, but is rooted in vulnerability to poverty, gender inequality and violence against women, lack of social integration, lack of democratic structures, lack of opportunities and employment, lack of access to education, child labour and discrimination. More importantly, the strategy states that trafficking is a gendered phenomenon as women and men are affected differently, and women are more vulnerable to certain forms of trafficking and exploitation (European Commission, 2012b; EIGE, 2016b).

To help protect victims of violence from any further harm by their attacker, the Commission also adopted Regulation (EU) No 606/2013 on the mutual recognition of protection measures in civil matters. It will ensure that victims of violence can still rely on restraint or protection orders issued against the perpetrator in case of travel or relocation to another EU country.

In 2012, minimum standards on the rights, support and protection of victims of crime were established in Directive 2012/29/EU on victims' rights (Council of the European Union, 2012). The directive focuses on the rights of victims in criminal proceedings and the avoidance of secondary victimisation in such proceedings. Article 8 (the right to access victim support services) and Article 9 (support from victim support services) in particular describe what type of support and the manner in which it should be provided to victims. As of 2017, EU Member States are required to provide data on the enforcement of those rights every 3 years, as is part of the obligation set out in all directives, which contain provisions on data collection for monitoring purposes.

The European Parliament adopted a joint resolution on ending female genital mutilation in June 2012, and the European Commission adopted the policy communication towards the elimination of female genital mutilation in November 2013, which sets out a series of actions towards the elimination of FGM, both in the EU and at the global level. The European Parliament has also recognised the seriousness of violence against women in a number of resolutions, including the need for better data. In 2011 the European Parliament called on the European Commission to provide annual statistics on gender-based violence based on data collected by Member States, which must

also include information about femicide (measured in that case by the number of women killed annually by their partners or former partner) (European Parliament, 2011). The Member States were asked to disaggregate their national statistics by the sex of the victims, the sex of the perpetrators, their relationship, age, crime scene and injuries. The need to quantify the number of women who are at risk of FGM or who have experienced FGM was expressed in a resolution in 2009 (European Parliament, 2009).

In 2014 the Council of the European Union adopted conclusions on preventing and combating all forms of violence against women and girls, including female genital mutilation, and acknowledged that data on violence against women should be 'comprehensive, comparable, reliable and regularly updated', should provide information about victims and perpetrators, and should be disaggregated by sex, age and the relationship between victim and perpetrator. Furthermore, the data should inform 'about the number of incidents reported by the victims and recorded by law enforcement authorities, on the number of convictions, and on the punishments handed down to offenders' (Council of the European Union, 2014). Relevant EU institutions, such as EIGE, the European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights and Eurostat, were invited 'to continue working with objective, reliable and comparable data on the extent of gender-based violence through EU-wide field surveys, where appropriate, and relevant crime statistics' (Council of the European Union, 2014).

Combating gender-based violence, protecting and supporting victims, including through improved data collection, has been affirmed in major gender equality policy documents of EU institutions, including the Women's Charter (European Commission, 2010a), the European Pact for Gender Equality 2011-2020 (Council of the European Union, 2010) and the European Commission's strategy for equality between women and men 2010-2015 (European Commission, 2010b), as well as the European Commission's strategic engagement for gender equality 2016-2019 (European Commission, 2015b). The aim of developing indicators of crime and criminal justice is expressed in the EU action plan 2006-2010 (European Commission, 2006) as well as in the EU action plan 2011-2015 (European Commission, 2012a). Violence against women is addressed in the first action plan, whilst the latter addresses only trafficking in human beings.

Since 2010, EIGE, the EU agency with the mandate to advance gender equality, has been actively contributing to the EU's work to increase the knowledge about the dimensions and types of gender-based violence prevalent in the EU, focusing on mapping data to measure and initiatives



to combat violence against women. To support the collection of comparable data on violence against women, EIGE recently mapped legal definitions for three forms of violence against women: rape, femicide and IPV in all Member States and proposed uniform statistical definitions and indicators to establish a common basis for the collection of comparable data (EIGE, 2017d).

Recently there has been discussion as to whether violence against women could be integrated into the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union, therefore making

coherent European legislation on violence against women possible. In this light, the European Parliament adopted a resolution in 2015 calling on the Council to integrate violence against women in Article 83(1) of the treaty (European Parliament, 2015).

Combatting violence against women is one of the European Commission's priorities of 2017. In June of the same year, the EU signed the Council of Europe Convention on Preventing and Combating Violence against Women and Domestic Violence.

## Annex 2

**Table 2.1: Scores and ranks of the domain of violence and its subdomains by EU Member State, 2012**

Country	Scores				Ranks			
	Prevalence	Severity	Disclosure	Composite measure	Prevalence	Severity	Disclosure	Composite measure
BE	24.0	50.3	14.9	29.7	22	21	13	20
BG	18.7	65.2	48.6	44.2	12	28	28	28
CZ	20.7	45.8	17.6	28.0	17	13	20	17
DK	32.4	48.5	16.7	32.6	28	19	19	26
DE	22.4	47.8	10.6	26.9	18	18	4	15
EE	19.9	42.6	15.0	25.8	16	7	14	12
IE	17.7	47.2	12.0	25.6	10	17	6	11
EL	17.1	42.9	22.1	27.4	9	8	26	16
ES	13.7	42.5	19.4	25.2	4	6	23	8
FR	28.3	45.2	13.7	29.1	24	12	8	19
HR	14.0	39.6	15.9	23.2	5	3	17	3
IT	17.9	46.6	15.8	26.8	11	14	16	14
CY	14.1	39.4	20.8	24.7	6	2	25	5
LV	23.3	58.4	32.8	38.2	21	27	27	27
LT	19.3	44.3	11.2	25.0	14	9	5	6
LU	23.1	54.2	19.5	32.3	20	26	24	24
HU	19.4	46.7	13.9	26.7	15	15	11	13
MT	14.5	52.1	9.0	25.2	7	24	1	9
NL	28.8	52.1	13.7	31.5	25	23	9	23
AT	13.2	46.9	16.6	25.6	2	16	18	10
PL	12.4	40.5	13.3	22.1	1	4	7	1
PT	15.7	39.0	18.7	24.5	8	1	22	4
RO	19.1	42.0	13.9	25.0	13	5	10	7
SI	13.4	44.6	9.3	22.4	3	10	3	2
SK	22.7	48.7	18.6	30.0	19	20	21	22
FI	29.2	53.2	14.8	32.4	26	25	12	25
SE	29.2	44.6	15.4	29.7	27	11	15	21
UK	26.9	50.9	9.2	29.0	23	22	2	18
EU-28	21.2	46.9	14.3	27.5	–	–	–	–

NB: As described previously in the report, unlike the general score of the Gender Equality Index, for which the higher the score the closer the country is to achieving equality between women and men in all areas, the interpretation of the composite measure of violence against women uses the opposite approach. This means that the higher the score of the composite measure the more serious the phenomenon of violence against women is in the country. Using a scale of 1 to 100, the metric highlights the situation of Member States against two extremes: '1' presenting a situation where violence is non-existent, to the complete opposite situation of '100', where violence against women is extremely common, highly severe and not disclosed. As such, ranking has to be interpreted as the higher the rank the more serious the phenomenon of violence against women is in the country.





**Table 2.2: Indicators used for the composite measure of the domain of violence, 2012**

Country	Indicators					
	Prevalence		Severity			Disclosure
	Percentage of women (aged 18-74) having experienced physical and/or sexual violence by any perpetrator since the age of 15	Percentage of women (aged 18-74) having experienced physical and/or sexual violence by any perpetrator in the past 12 months	Percentage of women (aged 18-74) having experienced health consequences of physical and/or sexual violence since the age of 15	Percentage of women (aged 18-74) having experienced health consequences of physical and/or sexual violence in the past 12 months	Percentage of women (aged 18-74) having experienced physical and/or sexual violence from several types of perpetrators	Percentage of women (aged 18-74) having experienced physical and/or sexual violence in the past 12 months and have not told anyone
BE	35.6	10.8	72.3	33.5	43.7	14.0
BG	27.8	8.0	83.9	74.0	36.5	48.1
CZ	32.0	7.9	67.6	30.7	37.4	16.8
DK	52.2	11.3	66.4	31.8	45.9	15.9
DE	35.1	8.2	70.6	28.4	42.8	9.7
EE	33.5	4.7	66.0	31.8	28.2	14.1
IE	26.0	7.8	72.0	31.8	36.1	11.1
EL	25.0	7.4	70.5	37.4	19.1	21.3
ES	21.9	3.6	56.9	36.1	32.9	18.5
FR	44.0	11.2	67.6	24.3	42.1	12.8
HR	21.0	5.2	60.3	32.3	24.5	15.1
IT	27.0	7.1	67.7	35.5	35.0	15.0
CY	21.6	4.8	50.5	39.7	26.2	20.0
LV	38.6	6.3	84.1	60.3	29.5	32.1
LT	31.5	5.6	55.8	47.4	28.1	10.3
LU	37.9	6.8	71.2	54.2	35.9	18.7
HU	27.7	9.4	72.4	37.9	28.2	13.1
MT	22.0	5.3	73.8	48.1	32.9	8.1
NL	44.9	11.3	76.3	35.4	43.1	12.9
AT	19.7	4.8	68.9	42.8	27.3	15.8
PL	18.6	4.4	77.9	14.8	26.9	12.4
PT	24.0	5.8	66.2	29.0	20.0	17.9
RO	29.7	6.9	58.9	41.1	24.1	13.0
SI	22.1	3.0	63.6	36.2	32.3	8.4
SK	33.9	9.9	69.9	33.9	40.6	17.8
FI	46.7	10.2	69.0	46.2	43.0	14.0
SE	45.8	11.2	61.3	21.9	48.9	14.5
UK	43.9	8.5	71.7	42.5	37.1	8.3
EU-28	33.0	7.8	68.9	32.9	37.4	13.4

Source: EIGE's calculation, FRA, Violence against women: an EU-wide survey, 2012

**Table 2.3: Prevalence of physical and sexual violence by a current or former partner and non-partner since the age of 15 (18-74), by EU Member State, (%), 2012**

Country	Ever-partnered women having experienced sexual violence by a current or former partner since the age of 15	Ever-partnered women having experienced physical violence by a current or former partner since the age of 15	Women having experienced sexual violence by a non-partner since the age of 15	Women having experienced physical violence by a non-partner since the age of 15
BE	8.9	22.1	8.0	23.0
BG	9.3	22.1	6.0	12.8
CZ	7.1	18.9	4.3	19.1
DK	11.1	29.3	11.0	36.2
DE	8.1	20.1	6.8	21.4
EE	6.8	19.0	8.8	16.6
IE	5.5	14.0	4.5	17.7
EL	5.3	18.3	1.5	9.6
ES	4.3	11.5	3.1	14.3
FR	8.9	24.6	8.9	29.6
HR	3.3	12.2	2.5	11.2
IT	7.0	17.4	4.6	15.7
CY	3.9	14.0	1.7	11.0
LV	9.3	31.0	7.1	13.9
LT	4.3	23.7	4.6	14.1
LU	9.0	20.8	7.5	23.4
HU	6.7	19.3	2.7	12.2
MT	6.1	12.7	4.7	11.8
NL	11.1	22.3	11.9	30.7
AT	5.8	11.6	4.3	9.9
PL	4.5	12.5	2.5	10.0
PT	3.4	18.4	1.0	9.6
RO	5.1	23.4	1.8	12.9
SI	3.8	12.5	4.1	13.1
SK	7.8	22.1	4.3	21.5
FI	10.7	27.4	10.7	30.4
SE	10.4	24.3	12.2	30.1
UK	10.0	28.3	6.5	27.1
EU-28	7.4	20.2	5.7	19.8

Source: EIGE's calculation, FRA, Violence against women: an EU-wide survey, 2012



**Table 2.4: Women victims of intentional homicide, by perpetrator and by EU Member State, (rate per 100 000 inhabitants), 2014**

Country	Family and relatives	Intimate partner	Total
CZ	0.34	0.65	0.99
DE	0.18	0.41	0.59
ES	0.05	0.24	0.29
HR	0.27	0.36	0.63
IT	0.11	0.26	0.37
LV	1.38	0.18	1.56
LT	0.25	0.94	1.19
HU	0.25	0.46	0.71
MT	0.00	0.47	0.47
NL	0.06	0.19	0.25
SI	0.00	0.38	0.38
SK	0.04	0.00	0.04
FI	0.14	0.54	0.68

Source: Eurostat, [crim\_hom\_vrel]

**Table 2.5: Women (aged 18-74) having experienced health consequences as a result of the most serious incident of physical and/or sexual violence since the age of 15, by perpetrator and by EU Member State, (%), 2012**

Country	Health consequences as a result of the most serious incident of physical and/or sexual violence by a current or former partner since the age of 15	Health consequences as a result of the most serious incident of physical and/or sexual violence by a non-partner since the age of 15
BE	76.6	64.0
BG	89.4	69.5
CZ	76.2	54.1
DK	67.7	58.0
DE	77.8	58.6
EE	78.1	48.8
IE	78.9	60.9
EL	76.5	55.5
ES	66.5	45.8
FR	71.5	59.6
HR	70.5	46.1
IT	69.7	66.9
CY	54.5	34.5
LV	88.0	69.3
LT	71.8	23.9
LU	75.4	61.1
HU	76.4	61.8
MT	73.2	69.0
NL	78.1	70.9
AT	77.9	57.2
PL	77.5	74.5
PT	74.0	42.0
RO	62.5	46.3
SI	68.5	57.0
SK	74.5	58.7
FI	71.5	62.3
SE	61.5	51.3
UK	77.9	62.4
EU-28	74.0	59.8

Source: EIGE's calculation, FRA, Violence against women: an EU-wide survey, 2012

**Table 2.6: Women (aged 18-74) having experienced physical and/or sexual violence from one or several types of perpetrators since the age of 15, by EU Member State, (%), 2012**

Country	One perpetrator	More than one perpetrator
BE	56.3	43.7
BG	63.4	36.6
CZ	62.5	37.5
DK	54.1	45.9
DE	57.3	42.7
EE	71.1	28.9
IE	64.1	35.9
EL	80.8	19.2
ES	67.1	32.9
FR	57.9	42.1
HR	76.0	24.0
IT	65.0	35.0
CY	73.3	26.7
LV	70.5	29.5
LT	72.2	27.8
LU	66.7	33.3
HU	71.8	28.2
MT	71.4	28.6
NL	56.9	43.1
AT	73.0	27.0
PL	73.1	26.9
PT	80.0	20.0
RO	75.9	24.1
SI	67.6	32.4
SK	59.5	40.5
FI	56.9	43.1
SE	51.2	48.8
UK	63.0	37.0
EU-28	62.6	37.4

Source: EIGE's calculation, FRA, *Violence against women: an EU-wide survey*, 2012

**Table 2.7: Types of perpetrators involved in non-partner physical and/or sexual violence since the age of 15, EU-28, (%), 2012**

Doctor/healthcare worker	0.7
Boss	2.0
Teacher	2.4
Colleague	4.3
A date/someone I just met	5.5
Client/customer	6.6
Another pupil/student	12.9
Friend	22.5
Somebody else I knew	22.6
Relative/family member	30.3
Somebody I did not know	31.5

Source: EIGE's calculation, FRA, *Violence against women: an EU-wide survey*, 2012



**Table 2.8: Women (aged 18-74) who have not disclosed their experience of sexual and/or physical violence since the age of 15 to anyone, by perpetrator and by EU Member State, (%), 2012**

Country	Women who have not disclosed their experience of sexual and/or physical violence by a non-partner to anyone	Women who have not disclosed their experience of sexual and/or physical violence by a current or former partner to anyone
BE	33.9	29.7
BG	56.9	43.9
CZ	65.9	49.8
DK	37.0	52.1
DE	35.9	33.6
EE	65.8	41.2
IE	45.4	33.9
EL	40.7	47.1
ES	59.3	46.7
FR	48.0	39.7
HR	55.8	47.7
IT	45.2	35.4
CY	61.7	51.1
LV	46.6	32.0
LT	73.6	32.7
LU	47.5	32.7
HU	33.4	39.5
MT	33.9	29.4
NL	23.6	28.9
AT	46.0	41.8
PL	52.7	47.5
PT	52.7	45.7
RO	65.6	49.4
SI	49.5	37.7
SK	52.4	47.1
FI	28.0	36.7
SE	37.3	42.3
UK	38.3	37.8
EU-28	43.5	39.3

Source: EIGE's calculation, FRA, *Violence against women: an EU-wide survey*, 2012

**Table 2.9: Additional indicators (psychological violence, sexual harassment or stalking), 2012**

Country	Percentage of women (aged 18-74) having experienced psychological violence by a current or former partner since the age of 15	Percentage of women (aged 18-74) having experienced any form of sexual harassment since the age of 15	Percentage of women (aged 18-74) having experienced stalking since the age of 15
BE	44	60	24
BG	39	24	10
CZ	47	51	9
DK	60	80	24
DE	50	60	24
EE	50	53	13
IE	31	48	12
EL	33	43	12
ES	33	50	11
FR	47	75	29
HR	42	41	13
IT	38	51	18
CY	39	36	11
LV	60	47	14
LT	51	35	8
LU	49	67	30
HU	49	42	12
MT	37	50	26
NL	50	73	26
AT	38	35	15
PL	37	32	9
PT	36	32	9
RO	39	32	8
SI	34	44	14
SK	47	49	16
FI	53	71	24
SE	51	81	33
UK	46	68	19
EU-28	43	55	18

Source: FRA, *Violence against women: an EU-wide survey*, 2012

**Table 2.10: Women and girls registered victims of trafficking in human beings, by EU Member State, (rate per 100 000 female population), 2013**

Country	Female ratio
BE	0.8
BG	12.7
CZ	0.6
DK	2.3
DE	1.3
EE	2.0
IE	1.4
EL	0.9
ES	1.1
FR	not available
HR	1.0
IT	1.8
CY	24.5
LV	2.0
LT	1.5
LU	3.0
HU	2.3
MT	5.2
NL	14.9
AT	1.5
PL	0.8
PT	1.5
RO	5.6
SI	3.8
SK	0.8
FI	1.3
SE	0.0
UK	1.7
EU-27	2.3

**Table 2.11: Prevalence of physical and/or sexual violence, by perpetrator, age, educational level, sexual orientation, citizenship and level of ability, EU-28, (%), 2012<sup>1</sup>**

Intersectionalities	Groups	Current or former partner	Non-partner
Age groups	18-24	19.4	27.9
	25-49	23.0	23.7
	50-64	21.3	19.2
	65 +	18.2	15.7
Educational level	Primary	23.4	18.9
	Secondary	20.9	22.0
	Tertiary	19.7	27.1
Sexual orientation	Heterosexual	21.0	21.0
	Not heterosexual	48.0	50.0
Citizenship	Citizen	21.4	21.7
	Non-citizen	27.3	28.6
Disability	No disability	19.0	20.0
	Some form of disability	34.0	31.0

Source: EIGE's calculation, European Commission, 2016a



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