

**Department of Economic and Social Affairs  
Division for the Advancement of Women**



**Handbook for legislation  
on violence against women**

*Advance version*



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## DAW/DESA

The Division for the Advancement of Women in the Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the United Nations Secretariat supports the work of the Commission on the Status of Women, the Economic and Social Council and the General Assembly of the United Nations on gender equality and the empowerment of women. For more information, see [www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/](http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/)

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## FOREWORD

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Across the world -- in rich and poor countries alike -- women are being beaten, trafficked, raped and killed. These human rights abuses not only inflict great harm and suffering on individuals - they tear at the fabric of entire societies.

The world is responding. We see a growing global momentum to stop violence against women. In 2008, the Secretary-General launched a multi-year global campaign called *UNiTE to End Violence against Women*. He is appealing to all partners to join forces to eliminate this scourge. The Campaign recognizes the power of the law: one of its five key goals is for all countries to adopt and enforce, by 2015, national laws that address and punish all forms of such violence, in line with international human rights standards.

This *Handbook for legislation on violence against women*, prepared by the Department of Economic and Social Affairs/Division for the Advancement of Women (DESA/DAW), is intended to assist States and other stakeholders to enhance existing, or develop new laws to protect women. I highly recommend the contents of this Handbook, and I am thankful to the members of the Expert Group Meeting for their valuable work in producing the report upon which this Handbook is based.

The recommendations it provides in the model framework for legislation on violence against women serve as a useful tool in supporting efforts to provide justice, support, protection and remedies to victims and to hold perpetrators accountable. The commentaries which accompany the recommendations highlight promising examples from laws worldwide.

Over the past two decades, many States have adopted or improved legislation to prevent and respond to violence against women. Laws increasingly criminalize such violence, ensure the prosecution and punishment of perpetrators, empower and support victims, and strengthen prevention. Victims are also benefiting from civil remedies.

But significant gaps in legal frameworks remain. States throughout the world are still failing to live up to their international obligations and commitments to prevent and address violence against women. Too many perpetrators are not held accountable. Impunity persists. Women continue to be re-victimized through the legal process.

Comprehensive legislation provides the foundation for a holistic and effective response. Such legislation must be consistently enforced and monitored, and adequate resources must be allocated to address the problem. Personnel and officials working in the field must have the skills, capacity and sensitivity to apply the spirit and letter of the law. Laws must inform a concerted effort that includes education, awareness raising and community mobilization. They must also contribute to tackling discriminatory stereotypes and attitudes, and they must mandate the research and knowledge-building that are necessary to support policy development.

I truly hope that this informative *Handbook for legislation on violence against women* will greatly contribute to fully realizing the goals of the Secretary-General's campaign *UNiTE to End Violence against Women*, and I commend it to interested policy-makers and concerned individuals everywhere.

Asha-Rose Migiro  
Deputy Secretary-General  
United Nations  
July 2009

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

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This Handbook is based on the results of an expert group meeting on good practices in legislation to address violence against women, convened by the United Nations Division for the Advancement of Women, in cooperation with the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, in May 2008. The meeting reviewed and analyzed experiences, approaches and good practices in legislation on violence against women from around the world, and developed a model framework for legislation on violence against women.

The Division for the Advancement of Women acknowledges with appreciation the work of the participants of the expert group meeting of May 2008, namely: Carmen de la Fuente Mendez (Spain), Sally F. Goldfarb (United States of America), Rowena V. Guanzon (Philippines), Claudia Herrmannsdorfer (Honduras), Pinar Ilkharacan (Turkey), P. Imrana Jalal (Fiji), Olufunmilayo (Funmi) Johnson (United Kingdom), Naina Kapur (India), Rosa Logar (Austria), Flor de María Meza Tananta (Peru), Njoki Ndungu (Kenya), Theodora Obiageli Nwankwo (Nigeria), Renée Römken (Netherlands), Karen Stefiszyn (Canada/South Africa), and Cheryl A. Thomas (United States of America). The following representatives of United Nations entities, inter-governmental organizations, and non-governmental organizations also participated in the meeting: Gloria Carrera Massana (Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights, OHCHR), Dina Deligiorgis (United Nations Development Fund for Women, UNIFEM), Tanja Dedovic (International Organization for Migration, IOM), Kareen Jabre (Inter-Parliamentary Union, IPU), Dubravka Šimonović (Chairperson, Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women), Richard Pearshouse (Canadian HIV/AIDS Legal Network), and Nisha Varia (Human Rights Watch).

For further information regarding the expert group meeting, including expert papers, please visit the following website:

[http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/egm/vaw\\_legislation\\_2008/vaw\\_legislation\\_2008.htm](http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/egm/vaw_legislation_2008/vaw_legislation_2008.htm)

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

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Comprehensive legislation is fundamental for an effective and coordinated response to violence against women. States have clear obligations under international law to enact, implement and monitor legislation addressing all forms of violence against women. Over the past two decades, many States have adopted or revised legislation on violence against women.<sup>1</sup> However, significant gaps remain.<sup>2</sup> Many States still do not have in place legislative provisions that specifically address violence against women and, even where legislation exists, it is often limited in scope and coverage, or is not enforced.

The adoption and enforcement of national laws to address and punish all forms of violence against women and girls, in line with international human rights standards, is one of the five key outcomes which the Secretary-General's campaign "UNiTE to End Violence against Women" aims to achieve in all countries by 2015.<sup>3</sup> This Handbook intends to provide all stakeholders with detailed guidance to support the adoption and effective implementation of legislation which prevents violence against women, punishes perpetrators, and ensures the rights of survivors everywhere. It is specifically hoped that the Handbook will be of use to government officials, parliamentarians, civil society, staff of United Nations entities and other actors in their efforts at ensuring that a solid legal basis is in place for tackling the scourge of violence against women.

The Handbook first outlines the international and regional legal and policy frameworks which mandate States to enact and implement comprehensive and effective laws to address violence against women. It then presents a model framework for legislation on violence against women, divided into fourteen chapters. Finally, the Handbook provides users with a checklist of considerations to be kept in mind when drafting legislation on violence against women. This list highlights the importance of identifying a clear legislative goal; undertaking comprehensive and inclusive consultation with all relevant stakeholders, and in particular victims/survivors; and adopting an evidence-based approach to legislative drafting.

The model framework for legislation on violence against women presents recommendations on the content of legislation, accompanied by explanatory commentaries and good practice examples. While many of the framework's recommendations are applicable to all forms of violence against women, some are specific to certain forms, such as domestic or sexual violence.

The framework covers: (a) general aspects, implementation and evaluation (3.1 – 3.3); (b) definitions of forms of violence (3.4); (c) prevention (3.5); (d) protection, support and

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<sup>1</sup> For further information regarding legislation enacted, please visit the United Nations Secretary-General's database on violence against women available online at: <http://www.un.org/esa/vawdatabase> (last accessed 8 April 2009).

<sup>2</sup> See United Nations (2006) *Ending Violence against Women: from words to action, Study of the Secretary-General (A/61/122/Add.1 and Corr.1)*. See, inter alia, pp. 96-97 setting out concerns of the international human rights treaty bodies.

<sup>3</sup> For further information regarding the Secretary-General's campaign "UNiTE to End Violence against Women" please visit the website at: <http://endviolence.un.org/>



rights of survivors (3.6-3.7); (e) investigation, prosecution and sentencing (chapters 3.8 – 3.11); and (f) issues in relation to civil law suits (3.12); and to family (3.13) and asylum law (3.14). The main issues covered are highlighted below.

**3.1** emphasizes the importance of adopting a comprehensive legislative approach, encompassing not only the criminalization of all forms of violence against women and the effective prosecution and punishment of perpetrators, but also the prevention of violence, and the empowerment, support and protection of survivors. It recommends that legislation explicitly recognize violence against women as a form of gender-based discrimination and a violation of women’s human rights.

**3.2** recommends that legislation contain provisions for its effective implementation, evaluation and monitoring. Legislation should provide an organic link to a comprehensive national action plan or strategy; mandate a budget for its implementation; provide for the elaboration of rules, regulations, and protocols necessary for the law’s full and effective implementation; and require the training of all relevant officials. Chapter II also recommends that legislation mandate the creation of specialized institutions and officials to implement legislation on violence against women.

**3.3** emphasizes the critical importance of monitoring the implementation of the law and recommends that legislation establish institutional mechanisms, such as multi-sectoral task forces or committees, or national rapporteurs, to undertake this task. It also recommends that legislation require the regular collection of statistical data and research to ensure an adequate knowledge base for effective implementation and monitoring.

**3.4** calls for the enactment in legislation of broad definitions of all forms of violence against women in accordance with international human rights standards, and provides specific recommendations as to how domestic violence and sexual violence should be defined.

**3.5** recommends that the law prioritize prevention and provide for a range of measures to be undertaken to this end, including awareness-raising campaigns, sensitization of the communications media, and inclusion of material on violence against women and women’s human rights in educational curricula.

**3.6** focuses on the need for legislation to provide for the empowerment, support and protection of the victim/survivor. It recommends the enactment of legislative provisions that ensure survivors’ access to comprehensive and integrated support services and assistance.

**3.7** recommends that specific legal provisions be enacted to guarantee the rights of immigrant women who are victims/survivors of violence.

**3.8** emphasizes the importance of legislating specific duties of police and prosecutors in cases of violence against women.

**3.9** provides detailed recommendations with the aim of preventing the secondary victimization of the victim/survivor throughout the legal process. The chapter addresses evidentiary rules, the collection of evidence, legal procedure, and the rights of victims/survivors during legal proceedings.

**3.10** gives substantial guidance on how to legislate for protection orders in cases of violence against women. It calls for the criminalization of any violation of such an order.

**3.11** calls for legislation to ensure that sentences in cases of violence against women are consistent with the gravity of the crime committed. It recommends the elimination of exemptions or reductions in sentencing granted to perpetrators of violence against women in certain circumstances, such as when a rapist marries his victim or in cases of so-called honour crimes.

**3.12** highlights the valuable role that civil law suits may play as a supplement or alternative to criminal prosecution, civil protection orders, and other available legal remedies.

**3.13** recommends that family law be examined and amended to ensure the sensitive and appropriate consideration of violence against women in family law proceedings. It notes particular areas for attention, including issues of alimony and the right to remain in the family dwelling.

**3.14** acknowledges that violence against women may constitute persecution and that complainants/survivors of such violence should constitute “a particular social group” for the purposes of asylum law.

A PowerPoint presentation on the model framework for legislation, a video dialogue between two experts highlighting key recommendations of the model framework and commenting on their practical importance, and an electronic version of the Handbook, are available on the website of the Division for the Advancement of Women at the following location: <http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/vaw/v-handbook.htm>. These resources are intended to provide the user with further tools for understanding and utilizing the model framework for legislation.

Users of this Handbook may also wish to refer to the Model Law Against Trafficking in Persons developed by UNODC for specific legislative provisions on trafficking in persons.<sup>4</sup>

For further information, including resolutions on violence against women adopted by United Nations inter-governmental bodies, as well as links to the work of United Nations entities and other organizations on violence against women, please visit the Division for the Advancement of Women’s webpage on violence against women at: <http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/vaw>.

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<sup>4</sup> Available online at: <http://www.unodc.org/unodc/en/human-trafficking>.

## **2. INTERNATIONAL AND REGIONAL LEGAL AND POLICY FRAMEWORK**

Over the past two decades, violence against women has come to be understood as a form of discrimination and a violation of women's human rights. Violence against women, and the obligation to enact laws to address violence against women, is now the subject of a comprehensive legal and policy framework at the international and regional levels.

### **2.1. International legal and policy instruments and jurisprudence**

#### ***2.1.1. International human rights treaties***

Over time, the treaty bodies established to monitor implementation of the international human rights treaties have increasingly taken up States parties' obligations to address violence against women. In its general recommendation No. 19 (1992) on violence against women, the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women confirmed that "[u]nder general international law and specific human rights covenants, States may ... be responsible for private acts if they fail to act with due diligence to prevent violations of rights or to investigate and punish acts of violence, and for providing compensation."<sup>5</sup> In relation to national legal frameworks, the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women recommended that States parties:

- ensure that laws against family violence and abuse, rape, sexual assault and other gender-based violence give adequate protection to all women, and respect their integrity and dignity;<sup>6</sup> and
- take all legal and other measures that are necessary to provide effective protection of women against gender-based violence, including effective legal measures, including penal sanctions, civil remedies and compensatory provisions to protect women against all kinds of violence.<sup>7</sup>

The Committee also requested that States parties include information on legal measures that have been taken to overcome violence against women, and the effectiveness of such measures, in their reports under the Convention.<sup>8</sup> The Human Rights Committee has similarly requested that States parties provide "information on national laws and practice with regard to domestic and other types of violence against women, including rape" in their reports under the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights.<sup>9</sup> Accordingly, it is now the practice of States parties to provide relevant information on violence against women to the human rights treaty bodies.

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<sup>5</sup> Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women, general recommendation No. 19 (1992) on violence against women, para. 9.

<sup>6</sup> Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women *supra* note 5 para. 24(b).

<sup>7</sup> Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women *supra* note 5 para. 24(t).

<sup>8</sup> Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women *supra* note 5 para. 24(v)), see also Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women general recommendation No. 12 (1989) para. 1.

<sup>9</sup> Human Rights Committee general comment No. 28 (2000) on article 3 (equality of rights between women and men).

During their review of States parties' reports, the treaty bodies have expressed concern where the States parties' legal systems lack specific legislation or legislative provisions to criminalize violence against women and/or retain discriminatory laws that increase women's vulnerability to violence. They have also expressed concern about problems with existing legislation, including scope and coverage, and the lack of effective implementation of such legislation. Furthermore, in countries where customary law prevails alongside codified law, treaty bodies have been concerned about the use of discriminatory customary law and practice, despite laws enacted to protect women from violence.

In light of these concerns, treaty bodies, and in particular the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women, have called upon States parties to ensure that:

- violence against women is prosecuted and punished;
- women victims of violence have immediate means of redress and protection; and
- public officials, especially law enforcement personnel, the judiciary, health-care providers, social workers and teachers, are fully familiar with applicable legal provisions and sensitized to the social context of violence against women.

The Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women has also addressed the obligation of States parties to enact, implement and monitor legislation to address violence against women in its work under the Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women. In the case of *AT v Hungary*,<sup>10</sup> the Committee found that the lack of specific legislation to combat domestic violence and sexual harassment constituted a violation of human rights and fundamental freedoms, particularly the right to security of person. In the cases of *Sahide Goekce (deceased) v. Austria*,<sup>11</sup> and *Fatma Yildirim (deceased) v. Austria*,<sup>12</sup> the Committee recommended that the State party “[s]trengthen implementation and monitoring of the Federal Act for the Protection against Violence within the Family and related criminal law, by acting with due diligence to prevent and respond to such violence against women and adequately providing for sanctions for the failure to do so”.<sup>13</sup> In its inquiry under article 8 of the Optional Protocol into the abduction, rape and murder of women in and around Ciudad Juárez, State of Chihuahua, Mexico, the Committee recommended that Mexico “sensitize all state and municipal authorities to the need for violence against women to be regarded as a violation of fundamental rights, in order to conduct a substantial revision of laws from that standpoint”.<sup>14</sup>

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<sup>10</sup> *A.T. v Hungary*, communication No. 2/2003, views adopted 26 January 2005. See [http://www2.ohchr.org/english/law/docs/Case2\\_2003.pdf](http://www2.ohchr.org/english/law/docs/Case2_2003.pdf).

<sup>11</sup> *Sahide Goekce (deceased) v. Austria*, communication No. 5/2005, views adopted 6 August 2007. See <http://daccessdds.un.org/doc/UNDOC/GEN/N07/495/43/PDF/N0749543.pdf?OpenElement>.

<sup>12</sup> *Fatma Yildirim (deceased) v. Austria*, communication No. 6/2005, views adopted 6 August 2007. See <http://daccessdds.un.org/doc/UNDOC/GEN/N07/495/37/PDF/N0749537.pdf?OpenElement>.

<sup>13</sup> *Sahide Goekce (deceased) v. Austria*, supra note 8, para. 12.3(a) and *Fatma Yildirim (deceased) v. Austria* supra note 9, para. 12.3(a).

<sup>14</sup> Report on Mexico produced by the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women under article 8 of the Optional Protocol to the Convention, and reply from the Government of Mexico,

### 2.1.2. *Other international treaties*

In addition to the international human rights treaties, other international instruments create obligations for States parties to enact legislation addressing violence against women. These instruments include the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (the Palermo Protocol), and the Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court (the Rome Statute).

The *Palermo Protocol* requires States parties to:

- adopt necessary legislative and other measures to establish trafficking in persons as a criminal offence when committed intentionally (article 5);
- ensure that their domestic legal or administrative system contains measures that provide to victims information on court and administrative proceedings and assistance to enable their views and concerns to be presented and considered during criminal proceedings against offenders (article 6);
- ensure that their domestic legal systems contain measures that offer victims the possibility of obtaining compensation for damage suffered (article 6);
- adopt or strengthen legislative or other measures to discourage the demand that fosters all forms of exploitation of persons, especially women and children, that leads to trafficking (article 9); and
- consider adopting legislative or other measures that permit victims of trafficking to remain in their territory, temporarily or permanently, in appropriate cases (article 7).

The *Rome Statute* provides the broadest statutory recognition of gender-based violence as a crime under international criminal law to date. In article 7(1)(g), the Rome Statute classifies “rape, sexual slavery, enforced prostitution, forced pregnancy, enforced sterilization, or any other form of sexual violence of comparable gravity” committed “as part of a widespread or systematic attack directed against any civilian population” as crimes against humanity. These same offences are classified in article 8(2)(b)(xxii) as serious violations of the laws and customs applicable to international armed conflict and thereby classifiable as war crimes. Under the principle of complementarity established by the Statute, States parties have primary responsibility for bringing those responsible for genocide, crimes against humanity and war crimes to justice. The preamble of the Rome Statute recalls that “it is the duty of every State to exercise its criminal jurisdiction over those responsible for international crimes”. It has therefore been argued that it is “essential for all states parties, as well as other states, to amend existing legislation or enact new national legislation defining the crimes in accordance with international law.”<sup>15</sup>

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CEDAW/C/2005/OP.8/MEXICO, para. 286. See

<http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/cedaw/cedaw32/CEDAW-C-2005-OP.8-MEXICO-E.pdf>.

<sup>15</sup> Amnesty International, *International Criminal Court: Guidelines for Effective Implementation* available online at: <http://www.amnesty.org/en/library/info/IO40/013/2004/en/>.

### 2.1.3. *International policy instruments*

The international conventions and protocols outlined above have been complemented by the development of policy instruments at the international level that provide detailed guidance on the steps to be taken by States and other stakeholders to strengthen the legal framework for addressing all forms of violence against women. These instruments include declarations and resolutions adopted by United Nations bodies, and documents emanating from United Nations conferences and summit meetings. For example, article 4 of the 1993 Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women,<sup>16</sup> adopted by the General Assembly, requires Member States to:

- condemn violence against women and not invoke custom, tradition or religion to avoid their obligations to eliminate such violence;
- develop penal, civil, labour and administrative sanctions in domestic legislation to punish and redress the wrongs caused to victims;
- provide access to the mechanisms of justice and, as provided for by national legislation, to just and effective remedies; and
- ensure that the secondary victimization of women does not occur because of laws insensitive to gender considerations, enforcement practices or other interventions.

Similarly, the Beijing Platform for Action, adopted at the Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing in 1995,<sup>17</sup> calls on Governments to:

- enact and reinforce penal, civil, labour and administrative sanctions in domestic legislation to punish and redress the wrongs done to victims;
- adopt, implement and review legislation to ensure its effectiveness in eliminating violence against women, emphasizing the prevention of violence and the prosecution of offenders; and
- take measures to ensure the protection of women subjected to violence, access to just and effective remedies, including compensation and indemnification and healing of victims, and rehabilitation of perpetrators.

This call was reiterated during the five-year review of the Beijing Platform for Action in 2000.<sup>18</sup>

In recent years, the United Nations General Assembly has addressed violence against women in general, as well as specific forms and manifestations of such violence, including trafficking in women and girls, traditional or customary practices affecting the health of women and girls, crimes against women committed in the name of “honour”, and domestic violence against women.<sup>19</sup> In relevant resolutions, the General Assembly

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<sup>16</sup> General Assembly resolution 48/104 of 19 December 1993.

<sup>17</sup> *Report of the Fourth World Conference on Women*, Beijing, China, 4-15 September 1995 (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.96.IV.13), para. 124

<sup>18</sup> See General Assembly resolution S-23/3, annex, para. 69

<sup>19</sup> The functional commissions of the Economic and Social Council, including the Commission on the Status of Women, the Commission on Human Rights (replaced by the Human Rights Council) and the Commission on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice, have also regularly adopted resolutions on violence against women.

has routinely called on Member States to strengthen their legal frameworks.<sup>20</sup> For example, resolution 61/143 of 19 December 2006 on the intensification of efforts to eliminate all forms of violence against women stresses the need to criminalize all forms of violence against women, and urges States to revise or abolish all laws and regulations that discriminate against women or have a discriminatory impact on women and ensure that provisions of multiple legal systems comply with international human rights obligations. Resolution 63/155 of 18 December 2008 on the same topic urges States to use best practices to end impunity and a culture of tolerance towards violence against women, including by evaluating and assessing the impact of legislation, rules and procedures regarding violence against women; reinforcing criminal law and procedure relating to all forms of violence against women; and incorporating into law measures aimed at preventing violence against women.

## **2.2. Regional legal and policy instruments and jurisprudence**

The international legal and policy framework outlined above has been accompanied by the adoption of various legal and policy frameworks at the regional level. The *Inter-American Convention on the Prevention, Punishment and Eradication of Violence against Women*, otherwise known as the Convention of *Belém do Pará*, is the only Convention directed solely at eliminating violence against women. It requires that States parties apply due diligence to prevent, investigate and impose penalties for violence against women and contains detailed provisions regarding the obligations of States to enact legislation. Under article 7, States parties are obligated to:

- adopt legal measures to require the perpetrator to refrain from harassing, intimidating or threatening the woman;
- take all appropriate measures, including legislative measures, to amend existing laws or to modify legal or customary practices which sustain the persistence and tolerance of violence against women;
- establish fair and effective legal procedures for victims; and
- establish the necessary legal and administrative mechanisms to ensure that victims have effective access to just and effective remedies.

The *Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa* addresses violence against women within many of its provisions, and establishes obligations related to legal reform. Under the Protocol, States parties are required to:

- enact and enforce laws to prohibit all forms of violence against women (article 4(2));
- adopt legislative, administrative, social and economic measures to ensure the prevention, punishment and eradication of all forms of violence against women (article 4(2));
- take all necessary legislative and other measures to eliminate harmful practices (article 5); and

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<sup>20</sup> See, for example, General Assembly resolutions 63/155, 61/143, 59/166, 58/147 and 56/128.

- enact national legislative measures to guarantee that no marriage shall take place without the free and full consent of both parties and that the minimum age of marriage for women is 18 years (article 6).

In South Asia, the South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC) has adopted the *Convention on Preventing and Combating the Trafficking in Women and Children for Prostitution* which obligates States parties, under Article III, to take effective measures to ensure that trafficking is an offence under their respective criminal laws and punishable by appropriate penalties.

In February 2008, the *Council of Europe Convention on Action against Trafficking in Human Beings* came into force. The Convention obligates State parties to criminalize trafficking in human beings and related offences.<sup>21</sup> Legislation must ensure that the offences are punishable by “effective, proportionate, and dissuasive sanctions”.<sup>22</sup> The Convention also obligates States parties to adopt legislative or other measures to assist victims in their recovery, and provide compensation for them.<sup>23</sup>

Action has also been mandated by the Council of Europe in its Recommendation (2002)5 of the Committee of Ministers to member States on the protection of women against violence. The recommendation urges member States to ensure that:

- all acts of violence are punishable,
- swift and effective action is taken against perpetrators, and
- redress, compensation and protection and support is provided for victims.

In addition to the development of legal and policy instruments at the regional level, there is also an increasing body of jurisprudence on violence against women under the regional human rights treaties. Cases heard by the European Court of Human Rights and the Inter-American Commission on Human Rights have directed States to:

- create appropriate criminal legislation;
- review and revise existing laws and policies; and
- monitor the manner in which legislation is enforced.

In *X and Y v the Netherlands*<sup>24</sup>, the European Court of Human Rights found that the Netherlands had breached its human rights responsibilities under the European Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms (article 8) by failing to create appropriate criminal legislation applicable to the rape of a mentally handicapped young woman. The need to review and revise existing laws and policy to eliminate discrimination against women was addressed by the Inter-American

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<sup>21</sup> Council of Europe Convention on Action against Trafficking in Human Beings, Articles 18-20.

<sup>22</sup> Ibid., Articles 23(1).

<sup>23</sup> Ibid., Articles 12(1) and 15.

<sup>24</sup> *X and Y v. the Netherlands*, European Court of Human Rights 8978/80, 1985. See <http://cmiskp.echr.coe.int/tkp197/view.asp?item=1&portal=hbkm&action=html&highlight=x%20%7C%20y%20%7C%20netherlands&sessionId=21406792&skin=hudoc-en>.



Commission on Human Rights in the case of *Maria Mamerita Mestanza Chávez v Peru*<sup>25</sup> which dealt with forced sterilization. In *MC v Bulgaria*<sup>26</sup> the European Court of Human Rights highlighted the importance of monitoring the manner in which legislation is enforced. The case found that although the article prohibiting rape in Bulgaria's penal code did not mention any requirement of physical resistance by the victim, physical resistance appeared to be required in practice to pursue a charge of rape. The importance of appropriately enforcing legislation was also emphasized by the Inter-American Commission on Human Rights in the case of *Maria da Penha v Brazil*<sup>27</sup> in which the Commission found the Brazilian Government in breach of its human rights obligations due to significant judicial delay and incompetence in the investigation of domestic violence.

### 2.3. Model laws and strategies

As States' obligations to address violence against women, including through legislation, have been clarified, different stakeholders have developed model laws, strategies and measures to facilitate and encourage action. In 1996, the United Nations Special Rapporteur on violence against women, its causes and consequences, presented a framework for model legislation on domestic violence.<sup>28</sup> The framework urges States to adopt legislation which, inter alia:

- contains the broadest possible definition of acts of domestic violence and relationships within which domestic violence occurs;
- includes complaints mechanisms and duties of police officers, including that the police must respond to every request for assistance and protection in cases of domestic violence and explain to the victims their legal rights;
- provides for *ex parte* restraining orders and protection orders;
- addresses both criminal and civil proceedings; and
- provides for support services for victims, programmes for perpetrators and training for police and judicial officials.

In 1997, the United Nations General Assembly adopted model strategies and practical measures on the elimination of violence against women in the field of crime prevention and criminal justice.<sup>29</sup> Pertinent aspects of this model urge Member States to:

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<sup>25</sup> *Maria Mamerita Mestanza Chavez v Peru*, Inter-American Commission on Human Rights, Petition 12.191, Report No. 71/03, 2003. See <http://www.cidh.oas.org/annualrep/2003eng/Peru.12191.htm>.

<sup>26</sup> *MC v. Bulgaria*, European Court of Human Rights 39272/98, 4 December 2003. See <http://cmiskp.echr.coe.int/tkp197/view.asp?item=1&portal=hbkm&action=html&highlight=Bevacqua%20%7C%20bulgaria&sessionid=21408082&skin=hudoc-en>.

<sup>27</sup> *Maria da Penha v Brazil*, Case 12.051, Report No. 54/01, OEA/Ser.L/V/II.111 Doc. 20 rev. at 704 (2000). See <http://www.cidh.oas.org/women/Brazil12.051.htm>.

<sup>28</sup> Report of the Special Rapporteur on violence against women, its causes and consequences (1996) "A framework on model legislation" E/CN.4/1996/53/Add.2. See also *Fifteen Years of the United Nations Special Rapporteur on violence against women, its causes and consequences (1994-2009) – A Critical Review*, United Nations Special Rapporteur on violence against women, its causes and consequences (2009), available online at:

<http://www2.ohchr.org/english/issues/women/rapporteur/docs/15YearReviewofVAWMandate.pdf>

<sup>29</sup> Annex to General Assembly resolution 52/86, Crime prevention and criminal justice measures to eliminate violence against women.

- revise their laws to ensure that all acts of violence against women are prohibited (para.6);
- revise their criminal procedure to ensure that the primary responsibility for initiating prosecution lies with prosecution authorities, that police can enter premises and conduct arrests in cases of violence against women, that measures are available to facilitate the testimony of victims, that evidence of prior acts of violence is considered during court proceedings, and that courts have the authority to issue protection and restraining orders (para. 7);
- ensure that acts of violence are responded to and that police procedures take into account the need for safety of the victim (para. 8(c));
- ensure that sentencing policies hold offenders accountable, take into account their impact on victims and are comparable to those for other violent crimes (para. 9(a));
- adopt measures to protect the safety of victims and witnesses before, during and after criminal proceedings (para.9(h));
- provide for training of police and criminal justice officials (para. 12(b)).

Initiatives to develop model approaches in addressing violence against women have also been undertaken by the Caribbean Community secretariat (CARICOM) in 1991;<sup>30</sup> the Pan-American Health Organization (PAHO), a regional office of the World Health Organization (WHO), in coordination with the Inter-American Commission of Women (CIMI/OAS), the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA), United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM), and regional non-governmental organizations, in 2004;<sup>31</sup> by various States, such as Australia,<sup>32</sup> and by other entities, such as the National Council of Juvenile and Family Court Judges in the United States of America.<sup>33</sup>

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<sup>30</sup> Available online at:

[http://www.caricom.org/jsp/secretariat/legal\\_instruments/model\\_legislation\\_women\\_issues.jsp](http://www.caricom.org/jsp/secretariat/legal_instruments/model_legislation_women_issues.jsp)

<sup>31</sup> Available online at: <http://www.paho.org/Spanish/DPM/GPP/GH/LeyModelo.htm>.

<sup>32</sup> Partnership Against Domestic Violence (1999) *Model Domestic Violence Laws Report*, available online at: [http://www.ag.gov.au/www/agd/agd.nsf/Page/Publications\\_Modeldomesticviolencelaws-report-April1999](http://www.ag.gov.au/www/agd/agd.nsf/Page/Publications_Modeldomesticviolencelaws-report-April1999).

<sup>33</sup> Advisory Committee of the Conrad N. Hilton Foundation Model Code Project of the Family Violence Project (1994) *Model Code on Domestic and Family Violence*, available online at: [http://www.ncjfcj.org/images/stories/dept/fvd/pdf/modocode\\_fin\\_printable.pdf](http://www.ncjfcj.org/images/stories/dept/fvd/pdf/modocode_fin_printable.pdf).

### 3. MODEL FRAMEWORK FOR LEGISLATION ON VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN

#### 3.1. Human rights-based and comprehensive approach

##### 3.1.1. Violence against women as a form of gender-based discrimination

###### **Recommendation**

Legislation should:

- acknowledge that violence against women is a form of discrimination, a manifestation of historically unequal power relations between men and women, and a violation of women's human rights;
- define discrimination against women as any distinction, exclusion or restriction made on the basis of sex which has the effect or purpose of impairing or nullifying the recognition, enjoyment or exercise by women, irrespective of their marital status, on a basis of equality of men and women, of human rights and fundamental freedoms in the political, economic, social, cultural, civil or any other field; and
- provide that no custom, tradition or religious consideration may be invoked to justify violence against women.

###### **Commentary**

Over the past two decades, violence against women has come to be understood as a violation of women's human rights and a form of gender-based discrimination. Legislation on violence against women should be in conformity with the United Nations General Assembly *Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women* (resolution 48/104 of 1993), read together with article 1 of the *Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women*, and general recommendations No. 12 (1989) and 19 (1992) of the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women.

Various pieces of legislation have been developed which explicitly acknowledge violence against women as a form of discrimination and a violation of human rights. Some refer specifically to international and regional human rights instruments. For example, Article 1 of the Costa Rican *Criminalization of Violence against Women Law* (2007) states: "This Act is designed to protect the rights of victims of violence and to punish forms of physical, psychological, sexual and patrimonial violence against adult women, as discriminatory practices based on gender, and specifically in a relationship of marriage, de facto union declared or not, in compliance with the obligations undertaken by the State under the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, Law No. 6968 of October 2, 1984, as well as the Inter-American Convention on the Prevention, Punishment and Eradication of Violence Against Women, Act No. 7499, May 2, 1995." The term patrimonial violence in the Costa Rican legislation refers to the denial of property or heritage. Article 9 of the Guatemalan *Law against Femicide and other Forms of Violence against Women* (2008) states that no custom, tradition, culture or

religion may be invoked to justify violence against women or to exculpate any perpetrator of such violence.

### ***3.1.2. Comprehensive legislative approach***

#### **Recommendation**

Legislation should:

- be comprehensive and multidisciplinary, criminalizing all forms of violence against women, and encompassing issues of prevention, protection, survivor empowerment and support (health, economic, social, psychological), as well as adequate punishment of perpetrators and availability of remedies for survivors.

#### **Commentary**

To date, many laws on violence against women have focused primarily on criminalization. It is important that legal frameworks move beyond this limited approach to make effective use of a range of areas of the law, including civil, criminal, administrative and constitutional law, and address prevention of violence, and protection and support of survivors. For example, the Spanish *Organic Act on Integrated Protection Measures against Gender Violence* (2004) incorporates provisions on sensitization, prevention and detection and the rights of survivors of violence; creates specific institutional mechanisms to address violence against women; introduces regulations under criminal law; and establishes judicial protection for survivors. It is also important that legislation incorporate a multidisciplinary approach to addressing violence against women. Reforms to the Swedish Penal Code regarding violence against women, introduced by the ‘Kvinnofrid’ package in 1998, emphasize the importance of collaboration between the police, social services and health care providers.

### ***3.1.3. Equal application of legislation to all women and measures to address multiple discrimination***

#### **Recommendation**

Legislation should:

- protect all women without discrimination as to race, colour, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, marital status, sexual orientation, HIV/AIDS status, migrant or refugee status, age or disability; and
- recognize that women’s experience of violence is shaped by factors such as their race, colour, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, marital status, sexual orientation, HIV/AIDS status, migrant or refugee status, age, or disability, and include targeted measures for particular groups of women, where appropriate.

#### **Commentary**

Legislation on violence against women has sometimes contained provisions, and/or been

applied by the justice system in a manner, which discriminates between different groups of women. The reform of the Turkish Penal Code in 2004 removed provisions that imposed lesser, or no, penalties in cases of violence against unmarried or non-virgin women and now ensures that the legislation protects all women equally.

Women's experience of violence, and of the justice system, are further shaped by their race, colour, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, marital status, sexual orientation, HIV/AIDS status, migrant or refugee status, age, or disability. In many societies, women belonging to particular ethnic or racial groups experience gender-based violence as well as violence based on their ethnic or racial identity. It is important that legislation, or subsidiary legislation, where necessary, make specific provision for the appropriate and sensitive treatment of women complainants/survivors of violence who suffer from multiple forms of discrimination. Title VI of the United States of America *Tribal Law and Order Bill* (2008), if passed, would enact specific provisions regarding the prosecution and prevention of domestic violence and sexual assault against Native American women.

#### **3.1.4. Gender-sensitive legislation**

##### **Recommendation**

Legislation should:

- be gender-sensitive, not gender-blind.

##### **Commentary**

Gender-sensitivity recognizes the inequalities between women and men, as well as the specific needs of women and men. A gender-sensitive approach to legislation on violence against women acknowledges that women's and men's experiences of violence differ and that violence against women is a manifestation of historically unequal power relations between men and women and discrimination against women.

There has been a long-standing debate as to the best way to ensure gender-sensitivity in legislation on violence. Gender-specific legislation has been deemed important, particularly in Latin America, as it acknowledges violence against women as a form of gender-based discrimination and addresses the particular needs of women complainants/survivors. However, gender-specific legislation on violence against women does not allow for the prosecution of violence against men and boys and may be challenged as unconstitutional in some countries. A number of countries have adopted gender-neutral legislation, applicable to both women and men. However, such legislation may be subject to manipulation by violent offenders. For example, in some countries, women survivors of violence themselves have been prosecuted for the inability to protect their children from violence. Gender-neutral legislation has also tended to prioritize the stability of the family over the rights of the (predominantly female) complainant/survivor because it does not specifically reflect or address women's experience of violence

perpetrated against them.

Some legislation combines gender-neutral and gender-specific provisions to reflect the specific experiences and needs of female complainants/survivors of violence, while allowing the prosecution of violence against men and boys. For example, Chapter 4, Section 4a of the Swedish Penal Code, as reformed by the ‘Kvinnofrid’ package in 1998, contains a neutral offence of “gross violation of integrity” which is constituted when a perpetrator commits repeated violations, such as physical or sexual abuse, against a person with whom they have, or have had, a close relationship, as well as the gender-specific offence of “gross violation of a woman’s integrity” which is constituted by the same elements, when committed by a man against a woman. The Austrian *Code of Criminal Procedure*, since 2006, provides specific procedures and rights for women complainants/survivors of violence in the criminal justice process in order to avoid their secondary victimization.

### ***3.1.5. Relationship between customary and/or religious law and the formal justice system***

#### **Recommendation**

Legislation should state that:

- where there are conflicts between customary and/or religious law and the formal justice system, the matter should be resolved with respect for the human rights of the survivor and in accordance with gender equality standards; and
- the processing of a case under customary and/or religious law does not preclude it from being brought before the formal justice system.

#### **Commentary**

In many countries, cases of violence against women continue to be dealt with through customary and/or religious law procedures and measures, such as the provision of ‘compensation’ to the family or community of the survivor, and customary reconciliation practices of ceremonies of forgiveness. The application of such laws has proven to be problematic as they do not focus on healing of, and providing redress to, the survivor. In addition, in many instances, the use of customary and/or religious law has been seen to preclude the survivor from seeking redress within the formal justice system. On the other hand, there is some evidence of the benefits of certain informal justice mechanisms, such as “women’s courts”, which are often more accessible to women survivors of violence than the official court system, both in terms of their geographical location, and in relation to the language and manner in which court proceedings are conducted.

It is therefore important to clarify the relationship between customary and/or religious law and the formal justice system, and to codify the survivor’s right to be treated in accordance with human rights and gender equality standards under both processes. An interesting example of integration of customary law into the formal justice system is the

*Criminal Law (Compensation) Act 1991* of Papua New Guinea, which allows survivors of crimes, including sexual violence and domestic violence, to claim compensation from the perpetrator. Claiming compensation for wrongdoing is a common feature of customary law in Papua New Guinea, and the enactment of legislation on compensation was intended to reduce the occurrence of “payback” crimes.

### **3.1.6. Amendment and/or removal of conflicting legal provisions**

#### **Recommendation**

Legislation should:

- provide for the amendment and/or removal of provisions contained in other areas of law, such as family and divorce law, property law, housing rules and regulations, social security law, and employment law that contradict the legislation adopted, so as to ensure a consistent legal framework that promotes women’s human rights and gender equality, and the elimination of violence against women.

#### **Commentary**

In order to be fully effective, the adoption of new legislation on violence against women should be accompanied by a review and amendment, where necessary, of all other relevant laws to ensure that women’s human rights and the elimination of violence against women are consistently incorporated. For example, in conjunction with the *Organic Act on Integrated Protection Measures against Gender Violence* (2004) in Spain, a number of other laws were amended in order to ensure consistency, such as the Worker’s Statute, Social Offences and Sanctions Act, General Social Security Act, additional provisions of the National Budget Act, Civil Code, Criminal Code, Code of Civil Procedure, Code of Criminal Procedure, Act on Free Legal Aid, Organic Act regulating the Right of Education, General Advertising Act. In the United States of America, the *Personal Responsibility and Work Opportunity Reconciliation Act* (1996) created a Family Violence Option, which permits survivors of domestic violence to be exempted from certain employment restrictions related to receiving public assistance payments. The United States of America Department of Health and Human Services issued regulations regarding the implementation of the Family Violence Option in April 1999.

## **3.2. Implementation**

### **3.2.1. National action plan or strategy**

#### **Recommendation**

Legislation should:

- where a current national action plan or strategy on violence against women does not already exist, mandate the formulation of a plan, which should contain a set of

- activities with benchmarks and indicators, to ensure a framework exists for a comprehensive and coordinated approach to the implementation of the legislation; or
- where a current national action plan or strategy exists, reference the plan as the framework for the comprehensive and coordinated implementation of the legislation.

### **Commentary**

Legislation is most likely to be implemented effectively when accompanied by a comprehensive policy framework which includes a national action plan or strategy. The Uruguayan *Law for the Prevention, Early Detection, Attention to, and Eradication of Domestic Violence* (2002) mandates the design of a national plan against domestic violence. Article 46 of the Kenyan *Sexual Offences Act* (2006) requires that the relevant Minister prepare a national policy framework to guide the implementation and administration of the Act, and review the policy framework at least once every five years. The Mexican *Law on Access of Women to a Life Free of Violence* (2007) prioritizes the inclusion of measures and policies to address violence against women in the National Development Plan and obliges the Government to formulate and implement a national policy to prevent, address, sanction and eradicate violence against women.

### **3.2.2. Budget**

#### **Recommendation**

Legislation should:

- mandate the allocation of a budget for its implementation by:
  - creating a general obligation on Government to provide an adequate budget for the implementation of the relevant activities; and/or
  - requesting the allocation of funding for a specific activity, for example, the creation of a specialized prosecutor's office; and/or
  - allocating a specific budget to non-governmental organizations for a specified range of activities related to its implementation.

### **Commentary**

Without adequate funding, legislation cannot be implemented effectively. As a result, legislation on violence against women increasingly contains provisions requiring budgetary allocation for its implementation. For example, the Mexican *Law on Access of Women to a Life Free of Violence* (2007) establishes obligations for the State and municipalities to take budgetary and administrative measures to ensure the rights of women to a life free of violence. In the United States of America, the *Violence Against Women Act* (1994), and its reauthorizations, provides a significant source of funding for non-governmental organizations working on violence against women. It is important that any budgetary allocation be based on a full analysis of funding required to implement all measures contained in the legislation.



### 3.2.3. *Training and capacity-building for public officials*

#### **Recommendation**

Legislation should mandate:

- regular and institutionalized gender-sensitivity training and capacity-building on violence against women for public officials;
- specific training and capacity-building for relevant public officials when new legislation is enacted, to ensure that they are aware of and competent to use their new duties; and
- that such training and capacity-building be developed and carried out in close consultation with non-governmental organizations and service providers for complainants/survivors of violence against women

#### **Commentary**

It is critical to ensure that those mandated to implement legislation regarding violence against women, including police, prosecutors and judges, have an in-depth understanding of such legislation and are able to implement it in an appropriate and gender-sensitive manner. When public officials involved in the implementation of the law are not comprehensively trained regarding its content, there is a risk that the law will not be implemented effectively or uniformly. There have been many and varied efforts to train public officials, and/or to include capacity-building on violence against women in the official curricula for these professions. Such trainings and capacity-building efforts have been found to be most effective, and implemented rigorously, when they are mandated in law and developed in close collaboration with non-governmental organizations.

Article 47 of the Spanish *Organic Act on Integrated Protection Measures against Gender Violence* (2004) requires the Government and the General Council of the Judiciary to ensure that training courses for judges and magistrates, prosecutors, court clerks, national law enforcement and security agents and coroners include specific training on sexual equality, non-discrimination for reasons of sex, and issues of violence against women. Under Article 7 of the Albanian *Law on Measures against Violence in Family Relations* (2006) the Ministry of the Interior is charged with training police to handle domestic violence cases, and the Ministry of Justice is responsible for training medico-legal experts on domestic violence and child abuse and training bailiffs on service of protection orders. Section 42 of the Philippines *Anti-Violence against Women and their Children Act* (2004) requires all agencies responding to violence against women and their children to undergo education and training on a) the nature and causes of violence against women and their children; b) legal rights and remedies of complainants/survivors; c) services available; d) legal duties of police officers to make arrests and offer protection and assistance; and e) techniques for handling incidents of violence against women and their children. Draft legislation on protection orders in the Netherlands, if passed, will mandate a training programme for police.

### 3.2.4. *Specialized police and prosecutorial units*

#### **Recommendation**

Legislation/subsidiary legislation should ensure:

- the designation or strengthening of specialized police units and specialized prosecutor units on violence against women, and provide adequate funding for their work and specialized training of their staff; and
- that complainants/survivors should have the option of communicating with female police officers or prosecutors.

#### **Commentary**

Police authorities and prosecutors are of central importance to ensuring that perpetrators of violence are punished, especially with regard to investigating acts of violence against women, preserving evidence, and issuing indictments. The quality of police and prosecutor work is crucial in determining whether court proceedings are instituted or a person is convicted. However, it has been the experience in many countries that acts of violence against women are not investigated thoroughly or documented precisely, and that domestic violence continues to be regarded as a private matter and not a criminal offence, while complaints of sexual violence continue to be treated with scepticism.

There is evidence that specialized units are more responsive and effective in dealing with violence against women. Experience has shown that the establishment of such units may facilitate the development of expertise in this area and may result in an increase in the number of cases investigated and a better quality and more efficient process for the complainant/survivor. However, in some countries, experience indicates that establishment of such units may result in the marginalization of women's issues. It is therefore crucial that establishment of specialized units be accompanied by adequate funding and training of staff.

Special investigation services have been organized in many police stations in Italy to respond more adequately to women who report sexual violence. In Jamaica, a sex crimes unit has been established within the police force, with the objective of creating an environment that encourages women complainants/survivors to report incidents of sexual assault and child abuse; effectively investigating complaints of abuse; and offering counselling and therapy services. The *National Guidelines for Prosecutors in Sexual Offence Cases* (1998) of the Department of Justice in South Africa state that "a specialist prosecutor is the ideal person for this type of case."

### 3.2.5. *Specialized courts*

#### **Recommendation**

Legislation should:

- provide for the creation of specialized courts or special court proceedings guaranteeing timely and efficient handling of cases of violence against women; and
- ensure that officers assigned to specialized courts receive specialized training and that measures are in place to minimize stress and fatigue of such officers.

### **Commentary**

Experiences of complainants/survivors with court personnel in regular courts suggests that such personnel frequently do not have the necessary gender-sensitivity or comprehensive understanding of the various laws that apply to violence against women cases; may not be sensitive to women's human rights; and may be overburdened with other cases, resulting in delays and increased costs to the complainant/survivor. Specialized courts exist in a number of countries, including Brazil, Spain, Uruguay, Venezuela, the United Kingdom, and a number of states in the United States of America. Such courts have been effective in many instances as they provide a stronger possibility that court and judicial officials will be specialized and gender-sensitive regarding violence against women, and often include procedures to expedite cases of violence against women.

The specialized integrated courts established by Title V of the *Organic Act on Integrated Protection Measures against Gender Violence* (2004) in Spain and article 14 of the *Maria da Penha Law* (2006) in Brazil deal with all legal aspects of cases regarding domestic violence, including divorce and child custody proceedings and criminal proceedings. By streamlining and centralizing court processes, such integrated courts eliminate contradictory orders, improve complainant/survivor safety, and reduce the need for complainants/survivors to testify repeatedly. However, it is important to ensure that the complainant/survivor retains control over the proceedings and does not feel forced to take actions, such as divorce or separation, when she is not ready. The Spanish experience suggests that proceedings in specialized courts sometimes progress too rapidly for complainants/survivors and, as a result, some complainants/survivors withdraw from the process. It is also important to ensure that all relevant professionals are available in specialized courts. Sexual Offences Courts established as part of the anti-rape strategy in South Africa are staffed by a cadre of prosecutors, social workers, investigating officers, magistrates, health professionals and police.

### **3.2.6. Protocols, guidelines, standards and regulations**

#### **Recommendation**

Legislation should:

- require that the relevant Minister(s), in collaboration with police, prosecutors, judges, the health sector and the education sector, develop regulations, protocols, guidelines, instructions, directives and standards, including standardized forms, for the comprehensive and timely implementation of the legislation; and

- provide that such regulations, protocols, guidelines and standards be developed within a limited number of months following the entry into force of the legislation.

### **Commentary**

Without the promulgation of regulations, protocols, guidelines and standards, legislation will not be implemented comprehensively and the training of officials will not produce effective results. Sections 66 and 67 of the South African *Criminal Law (Sexual Offences and Related Matters) Amendment Act (2007)* provide detailed procedures for the development of national directives, instructions and regulations. Section 47 of the Kenyan *Sexual Offences Act (2006)* provides for the promulgation of regulations. Article 21(3) of Georgia's *Law on Elimination of Domestic Violence, Protection of and Support to its Victims (2006)* directs the Ministry of Internal Affairs to develop and approve, within one month of publication of the law, a standardized form for the emergency protection order issued by police. The Bulgarian *Law on Protection against Domestic Violence (2005)* requires the Ministers of Interior, Justice, Health and others to develop domestic violence prevention and protection programmes within six months from the entry into force of the law.

### **3.2.7. Time limit on activating legislative provisions**

#### **Recommendation**

Legislation should:

- provide a deadline regarding the length of time that may pass between its adoption and entry into force.

### **Commentary**

Experience has shown that there may be significant delays between the adoption of legislation and its entry into force. In order to address this, some countries have included a legislative provision which specifies the date on which the relevant legislation, and all of its provisions, will come into force. For example, section 72 of the South African *Criminal Law (Sexual Offences and Related Matters) Amendment Act (2007)* provides that the majority of the Act is to take effect on 16 December 2007 and specifies that Chapters 5 and 6 of the Act is to take effect on 21 March 2008 and 16 June 2008, respectively.

### **3.2.8. Penalties for non-compliance by relevant authorities**

#### **Recommendation**

Legislation should:

- provide for effective sanctions against relevant authorities who do not comply with its provisions.

## Commentary

In order to ensure that officials charged with implementing legislation on violence against women fully adhere to their responsibilities, there is a need for legislation to provide for penalties for non-compliance. Article 5 of the Costa Rican *Criminalization of Violence against Women Law* (2007) states that public officials who deal with violence against women “must act swiftly and effectively, while respecting procedures and the human rights of women affected” or risk being charged with the crime of dereliction of duty. Articles 22, 23 and 24 of the Venezuelan *Law About Violence Against Women and the Family* (1998) provide penalties for authorities in centres of employment, education and other activities, health professionals, and justice system officials who do not undertake relevant actions within the required time frame.

### 3.3. Monitoring and evaluation

#### 3.3.1. Specific institutional mechanism to monitor implementation

##### Recommendation

Legislation should:

- provide for the creation of a specific, multi-sectoral mechanism to oversee implementation of the legislation and report back to Parliament on a regular basis. The functions of such a mechanism should include:
  - information gathering and analysis;
  - interviews with complainants/survivors, advocates, attorneys, police, prosecutors, judges, probation officers and service providers regarding complainants/survivors’ access to the legal system and the effectiveness of remedies, including obstacles faced by particular groups of women; and
  - the proposal of amendments to legislation if necessary; and
- mandate adequate funding for the mechanism.

## Commentary

Careful and regular monitoring is critical to ensure that legislation is implemented effectively and does not have any adverse unanticipated effects. Monitoring of the implementation of legislation may reveal gaps in the scope and effectiveness of the law, the need for training of legal professionals and other stakeholders, lack of a coordinated response, and unanticipated consequences of the law for complainants/survivors, thereby identifying areas in need of legal reform. Monitoring is most effective when conducted by the Government in collaboration with non-governmental organizations, and with the involvement of complainants/survivors of violence and service providers, in order to ensure that evaluations are reflective of how the law is experienced on the ground.

A Special Inter-institutional Commission for Monitoring the Implementation of the Law against Domestic Violence, composed of members from Government and civil society, was formed following the enactment of the *Law on Domestic Violence* (1997) in

Honduras. In 2004, the Commission proposed amendments to the law, including expansion of provisions regarding protection orders and criminalization of cases of repeated domestic violence. These amendments were approved by Congress and have been in effect since 2006. The Spanish *Organic Act on Integrated Protection Measures against Gender Violence* (2004) provides for the creation of two institutions. The Special Government Delegation on Violence against Women is charged with developing policies to address gender-based violence, promoting public awareness through national plans and campaigns, coordinating the efforts of different stakeholders, gathering data and conducting studies. The head of the Special Government Delegation is able to intervene in court proceedings to defend the rights of women. A second institution, the State Observatory on Violence against Women is charged with providing an annual report and ongoing advice to Government. In addition, the Government, in collaboration with the different regions, is to prepare a report evaluating the effectiveness of the Act three years after its entry into force and present it to the Parliament. Section 39 of the Philippines' *Anti-Violence against Women and their Children Act* (2004) provides for the creation of an Inter-Agency Council on Violence Against Women and Their Children to monitor the effectiveness of initiatives to address violence against women and develop programmes and projects to eliminate such violence.

The Uruguayan *Law for the Prevention, Early Detection, Attention to, and Eradication of Domestic Violence* (2002) provides for the creation of a National and Consultative Council in the Fight against Domestic Violence which is to promote a holistic approach to addressing the needs of complainants/survivors of violence. In Indonesia, Presidential Decree Number 181/1998 established the National Commission on Violence Against Women (Komnas Perempuan) which is an independent body tasked with promoting the enforcement of women's human rights and eliminating violence against women in Indonesia. The Nigerian *Violence Prohibition Bill*, if enacted, would create a National Commission on Violence Against Women fully funded by the Government to, amongst other things, monitor and supervise the implementation of the provisions of the Act.

### 3.3.2. *Collection of statistical data*

#### **Recommendation**

Legislation should:

- require that statistical data be gathered at regular intervals on the causes, consequences and frequency of all forms of violence against women, and on the effectiveness of measures to prevent, punish and eradicate violence against women and protect and support complainants/survivors; and
- require that such statistical data be disaggregated by sex, race, age, ethnicity and other relevant characteristics.

#### **Commentary**

The collection of data, including statistical data, is fundamental for monitoring the

efficacy of legislation. This research should include compiling data on whether and when an abuser re-offends and whether such offences involve the same or a different victim. Despite progress in recent years, there remains an urgent need to strengthen the knowledge base on all forms of violence against women to inform legal development. Where possible, it is important to engage the national statistical office in the collection of statistical data.

Some countries have responded to the need for further data collection by mandating such activities in legislation. Italy's *Financial Law* (2007) created a National Observatory on Violence against Women and allocated €3 million per year for the next three years to the Observatory. The Guatemalan *Law against Femicide and other Forms of Violence against Women* (2008) obliges the national statistical office to compile data and develop indicators on violence against women. The Albanian *Law on Measures against Violence in Family Relations* (2006) obliges the Ministry of Labour, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities to maintain statistical data on domestic violence levels. Articles 7 and 8 of the Polish *Law on Domestic Violence* (2005) require the Minister of Social Affairs to direct and fund research and analyses on domestic violence. The *Law on Access of Women to a Life Free of Violence* (2007) in Mexico mandates the creation of a national databank on cases of violence against women, including protection orders and the people subject to them. Draft legislation on domestic violence in Armenia, if passed, would require the Government to collect statistics, conduct research, monitor and fund counselling centres and shelters.

### 3.4. Definitions

#### 3.4.1. Defining forms of violence against women

##### **Recommendation**

Legislation should:

- apply to all forms of violence against women, including but not limited to:
  - domestic violence;
  - sexual violence, including sexual assault and sexual harassment;
  - harmful practices, including early marriage, forced marriage, female genital mutilation, female infanticide, prenatal sex-selection, virginity testing, HIV/AIDS cleansing, so-called honour crimes, acid attacks, crimes committed in relation to bride-price and dowry, maltreatment of widows, forced pregnancy, and trying women for sorcery/witchcraft;
  - femicide/feminicide;
  - trafficking; and
  - sexual slavery; and
- recognize violence against women perpetrated by specific actors, and in specific contexts, including:
  - violence against women in the family;

- violence against women in the community;
- violence against women in conflict situations; and
- violence against women condoned by the State, including violence in police custody and violence committed by security forces.

### **Commentary**

Forms and manifestations of violence against women vary depending on the specific social, economic, cultural and political context. However, legislation regarding violence against women has predominantly addressed intimate partner violence. A number of countries have passed specific legislation addressing other forms of violence, such as the *Acid Crime Prevention Act* (2002) and *Acid Control Act* (2002) of Bangladesh, section 304B of the Indian Penal Code which criminalizes “dowry deaths”, and the *Law on the Repression of the Practice of Female Genital Mutilation* (No. 3 of 2003) in the Republic of Benin. Other countries have passed legislation that addresses several forms of violence. For example, the Mexican *Law on Access of Women to a Life Free of Violence* (2007) addresses forms of violence in the family, in the workplace and educational institutions, in the community, in State institutions, and femicide. Femicide is an extreme form of violence that culminates in the murder of women and may include torture, mutilation, cruelty, and sexual violence.

Regardless of whether forms of violence are addressed in separate legislation or in one piece of legislation, a comprehensive legal framework must be applicable to each form, including measures for the prevention of violence, protection and support of the complainant/survivor, punishment of the perpetrator, and measures to ensure the thorough implementation and evaluation of the law.

### **3.4.2. Defining domestic violence**

#### **3.4.2.1. Comprehensive definition of types of domestic violence**

#### **Recommendation**

Legislation should:

- include a comprehensive definition of domestic violence, including physical, sexual, psychological and economic violence.

### **Commentary**

Legislation regarding domestic violence has tended to address physical violence only. However, as a more nuanced understanding of the nature of domestic violence has emerged, a number of countries have enacted and/or amended legislation to adopt definitions which include some or all of the following types of violence: physical, sexual, emotional and/or psychological, and patrimonial, property, and/or economic violence. For example, Chapter II of the Indian *Protection of Women from Domestic Violence Act* (2005) includes physical, sexual, verbal, emotional and economic abuse, and article 5 of



the Brazilian *Maria da Penha Law* (2006) states that “domestic and family violence against women is defined as any action or omission based on gender that causes the woman’s death, injury, physical, sexual or psychological suffering and moral or patrimonial damage.”

In practice however, definitions of domestic violence that include psychological and economic violence may be problematic. Experience has shown that violent offenders may attempt to take advantage of such provisions by applying for protection orders claiming that their partner psychologically abuses them. Further, many women may not expect a strong justice system response to so-called acts of psychological or economic violence against them. In addition, psychological violence is very difficult to prove. It is therefore essential that any definition of domestic violence that includes psychological and/or economic violence is enforced in a gender-sensitive and appropriate manner. The expertise of relevant professionals, including psychologists and counsellors, advocates and service providers for complainants/survivors of violence, and academics should be utilized to determine whether behaviour constitutes violence.

#### **3.4.2.2. Scope of persons protected by the law**

##### **Recommendation**

Legislation should apply at a minimum to:

- individuals who are or have been in an intimate relationship, including marital, non-marital, same sex and non-cohabiting relationships; individuals with family relationships to one another; and members of the same household.

##### **Commentary**

Laws on domestic violence have often applied only to persons in intimate relationships and, in particular, to married couples. Over time, there has been an expansion of legislation to include other complainants/survivors of domestic violence, such as intimate partners who are not married or in a cohabiting relationship, persons in family relationships and members of the same household, including domestic workers. The Spanish *Organic Act on Integrated Protection Measures against Gender Violence* (2004) defines domestic relationships broadly to include relationships with a spouse or former spouse, non marital relationships, non cohabiting relationships, romantic and sexual relationships, as well as relationships between family or household members, such as ascendants, descendents, persons related by blood, persons residing together and minors or disabled individuals under guardianship or custody. Article 5 of the Brazilian *Maria da Penha Law* (2006) includes violence committed in the “domestic unit”, defined as the permanent space shared by people, with or without family ties; in the “family”, defined as the community formed by individuals that are or consider themselves related, joined by natural ties, by affinity or by express will; and in any intimate relationship. The *Nigerian Violence Prohibition Bill*, if enacted, would define a domestic relationship broadly, so as to include spouses, former spouses, persons in an engagement, dating or customary

relationship, parents of a child, members of the family, or residents of the same household. The Indonesian *Law Regarding the Elimination of Violence in the Household* (Law No. 23 of 2004) extends to domestic workers.

In Austria, the requirement that complainants/survivors prove their relationship with the perpetrator in order to be protected under the law has sometimes resulted in the secondary victimization of the complainant/survivor. Perpetrators have denied the existence of a relationship in order to avoid being the subject of a protection order. In response, complainants/survivors have been requested to prove that a relationship existed, which has led to questions regarding what constitutes a ‘relationship’, including whether the complainant/survivor must prove she had sex with the perpetrator in order to qualify for protection.

### **3.4.3. Defining sexual violence**

#### **3.4.3.1. Defining a broad offence of sexual assault incorporating rape, including marital rape**

##### **Recommendation**

Legislation should:

- define sexual assault as a violation of bodily integrity and sexual autonomy;
- replace existing offences of rape and “indecent” assault with a broad offence of sexual assault graded based on harm;
- provide for aggravating circumstances including, but not limited to, the age of the survivor, the relationship of the perpetrator and survivor, the use or threat of violence, the presence of multiple perpetrators, and grave physical or mental consequences of the attack on the victim;
- remove any requirement that sexual assault be committed by force or violence, and any requirement of proof of penetration, and minimize secondary victimization of the complainant/survivor in proceedings by enacting a definition of sexual assault that either:
  - requires the existence of “unequivocal and voluntary agreement” and requiring proof by the accused of steps taken to ascertain whether the complainant/survivor was consenting; or
  - requires that the act take place in “coercive circumstances” and includes a broad range of coercive circumstances; and
- specifically criminalize sexual assault within a relationship (i.e., “marital rape”), either by:
  - providing that sexual assault provisions apply “irrespective of the nature of the relationship” between the perpetrator and complainant; or
  - stating that “no marriage or other relationship shall constitute a defence to a charge of sexual assault under the legislation.”

## **Commentary**

Sexual violence has often been addressed in the problematic framework of morality, public decency and honour, and as a crime against the family or society, rather than a violation of an individual's bodily integrity. Positive progress has been made in addressing this issue. A number of Latin American countries, including Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil and Ecuador, have revised their penal codes to reflect sexual violence as a violation of the complainant/survivor, instead of as a threat to her "honour" and "morality". The reform of the Turkish Penal Code in 2004 defined sexual violations as "crimes against the individual" instead of "crimes against moral customs and society" and eliminated all references to "morality", "chastity" and "honour", as did the Kvinnofrid reforms to the Swedish Penal Code in 1998.

Rape has been the main 'form' of sexual violence addressed by criminal law and definitions of rape often focused on proof of penetration. These definitions do not account for the full range of sexual violations experienced by women and the impact of such violations on the complainant/survivor. For this reason, some countries have instead included in their criminal law a broad definition of 'sexual assault' which encompasses the offence formerly classified as rape and is not dependent upon proof of penetration. For example, Canada's Criminal Code provides for the graded offences of sexual assault (section 271), sexual assault with a weapon, threats to a third party, or causing bodily harm (section 272), and aggravated sexual assault, wherein the perpetrator wounds, maims, disfigures or endangers the life of, the complainant (section 273). Article 102 of the Turkish Penal Code (2004) defines sexual assault as an offence of violating the bodily integrity of another person by means of sexual conduct; rape as the offence of violating the bodily integrity of another person, including marriage partner, by means of inserting an organ or an another object into the body.

Definitions of rape and sexual assault have evolved over time, from requiring use of force or violence, to requiring a lack of consent. For example, Canada's Criminal Code contains a positive consent standard which states: "consent" means, for the purposes of this section, the voluntary agreement of the complainant to engage in the sexual activity in question. The *Sexual Offences Act* (2004), in the United Kingdom, strengthened and modernized the law on sexual offences, improved preventative measures and the protection of individuals from sexual offenders. Three key provisions from the Act are: a statutory definition of consent, a test of reasonable belief in consent and a set of evidential and conclusive presumptions about consent and the defendant's belief in consent. However, experience has shown that definitions of sexual assault based on a lack of consent may, in practice, result in the secondary victimization of the complainant/survivor by forcing the prosecution to prove beyond reasonable doubt that the complainant/survivor did not consent. In an attempt to avoid such secondary victimization, some countries have developed definitions of rape which rely on the existence of certain circumstances, rather than demonstrating a lack of consent. For example, the definition of rape under Namibia's *Combating of Rape Act* (2000) requires

the existence of certain “coercive circumstances”, instead of proof of lack of consent. A similar definition has been adopted in the Lesotho *Sexual Offences Act* (2003). In instances where a definition based on “coercive circumstances” is adopted, it is important to ensure that the circumstances listed are expansive, and do not revert to an emphasis on use of force or violence.

Historically, rape and sexual assault were not criminalized when committed within the context of an intimate relationship. While the concept of rape within intimate relationships remains highly problematic in many countries, an increasing number of countries are removing exemptions for rape/sexual assault within an intimate relationship from their penal codes and/or enacting specific provisions to criminalize it. Lesotho, Namibia, South Africa and Swaziland have all criminalized marital rape. The Namibian *Combating of Rape Act* (2000) does so by stating: “No marriage or other relationship shall constitute a defence to a charge of rape under this Act”. In 2002, the Supreme Court of Nepal in the case of *Forum for Women, Law and Development (FWLD) vs. His Majesty’s Government/Nepal (HMG/N)* found the marital rape exemption to be unconstitutional and contrary to the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights and the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women. In 2003, the introduction of the *Criminal Code (Sexual Offences and Crimes against Children) Act 2002* in Papua New Guinea abolished marital immunity in relation to rape.

### 3.4.3.2. Defining sexual harassment

#### **Recommendation**

Legislation should:

- criminalize sexual harassment;
- recognize sexual harassment as a form of discrimination and a violation of women’s human rights with health and safety consequences;
- define sexual harassment as unwelcome sexually determined behaviour in both horizontal and vertical relationships, including in employment (including the informal employment sector), education, receipt of goods and services, sporting activities, and property transactions; and
- provide that unwelcome sexually determined behaviour includes (whether directly or by implication) physical conduct and advances; a demand or request for sexual favours; sexually coloured remarks; displaying sexually explicit pictures, posters or graffiti; and any other unwelcome physical, verbal or non-verbal conduct of a sexual nature.

#### **Commentary**

Sexual harassment has traditionally been associated solely with labour-related offences and defined as occurring only in the context of unequal power relations (such as boss against employee). As a result, sexual harassment has often been dealt with in countries’ labour codes and only applied to those who experience such behaviour in the formal

employment sector. Over time, countries have acknowledged these limitations and begun to address sexual harassment in a more comprehensive manner and in various areas of the law, such as anti-discrimination law, and criminal law. The *Anti-Discrimination Act* (1977) of the State of New South Wales, Australia, provides that sexual harassment is against the law when it takes place in employment; educational institutions; receipt of goods or services; renting or attempting to rent accommodation; buying or selling land; and sporting activities. In Turkey, one of the major reforms to the Penal Code in 2004 was the criminalization of sexual harassment. In Kenya, sexual harassment is covered in three laws: section 23 of the *Sexual Offences Act* (2006) (criminal offence for any person in a position of authority or holding public office), section 6 of the *Employment Act* (2007) (harassment by employers or co-workers), and section 21 of the *Public Officer Ethics Act* (2003) (harassment within public service and provision of public services). In the case of *Vishaka v State of Rajasthan & Ors AIR 1997 S.C.3011*, the Supreme Court of India applied articles 11, 22, and 23 of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, as well as general recommendation No. 19 of the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women, and the relevant sections of the Beijing Platform for Action (pertaining to promotion of health and safety in work), in order to create a legally binding definition of sexual harassment, invoking a broad definition of the ‘workplace’.

### **3.5. Prevention**

#### **3.5.1. Incorporation of provisions on prevention of violence against women**

##### **Recommendation**

Legislation should prioritize prevention of violence against women and should include provisions, as elaborated below in parts 5.B to 5.D of the framework, on the following measures to prevent violence against women:

- awareness-raising activities regarding women’s human rights, gender equality and the right of women to be free from violence;
- use of educational curricula to modify discriminatory social and cultural patterns of behaviour, as well as derogatory gender stereotypes; and
- sensitization of the media regarding violence against women.

##### **Commentary**

Early legislative responses to violence against women tended to focus solely on criminalization and thus did not attempt to address the root causes of violence against women. Over time, however, the importance of including preventive measures in legislation has been increasingly emphasized. The recently adopted *Law against Femicide and other Forms of Violence against Women* (2008) in Guatemala states that the Government is responsible for inter-agency coordination, the promotion and monitoring of awareness-raising campaigns, generating dialogue and promoting public policies to prevent violence against women. Article 8 of the Brazilian *Maria da Penha Law* (2006) provides for integrated prevention measures, including encouraging the

communications media to avoid stereotyped roles that legitimize or encourage domestic and family violence, public educational campaigns, and emphasis, in educational curricula at all levels, on human rights and the problem of domestic and family violence against women. Chapter II of the Venezuelan *Law About Violence against Women and the Family* (1998) provides for policies on prevention of violence and assistance to survivors. The Supreme Court of India, in the case of *Vishaka v State of Rajasthan & Ors* AIR 1997 S.C.3011, required employers to ensure that appropriate conditions be established in respect of work, leisure, health and hygiene in order to prevent sexual harassment within the workplace. Italy's draft bill on *Measures of prevention and repression of the crimes against the person within the family, sexual orientation, gender and every other cause of discrimination*, if passed, would emphasize policies of prevention.

### 3.5.2. Awareness-raising

#### **Recommendation**

Legislation should mandate government support and funding for public awareness-raising campaigns on violence against women, including:

- general campaigns sensitizing the population about violence against women as a manifestation of inequality and a violation of women's human rights; and
- specific awareness-raising campaigns designed to heighten knowledge of laws enacted to address violence against women and the remedies they contain.

#### **Commentary**

Public awareness-raising campaigns are critical to expose and convey the unacceptability of violence against women. They should convey the message of zero tolerance for violence against women, include the promotion of women's human rights, emphasize societal condemnation of discriminatory attitudes which perpetuate violence against women, and address attitudes that stigmatize complainants/survivors of violence. They are also an important tool for informing women complainants/survivors about their rights and about existing laws and the remedies they contain. In many countries, non-governmental organizations play a key role in awareness-raising regarding the unacceptability of violence against women, especially through broad coalition building and effective public and media outreach. Many governments have also undertaken awareness-raising campaigns, often in collaboration with non-governmental organizations and international organizations.

Article 3 of the Spanish *Organic Act on Integrated Protection Measures against Gender Violence* (2004) provides for the launch of a National Sensitization and Prevention Plan regarding Violence against Women targeting both men and women in order to raise awareness of values based on respect for human rights and the equality of men and women. The Plan will be overseen by a Commission whose members will include survivors, members of relevant institutions, professionals working to address violence against women, and experts on the issue. Article 11 of the *Protection of Women from*

*Domestic Violence Act (2005)* of India directs the Central Government and every State Government to take measures to ensure that the provisions of the Act are given wide publicity through public media, including television, radio and print media, at regular intervals.

### 3.5.3. *Educational curricula*

#### **Recommendation**

Legislation should provide:

- for compulsory education at all levels of schooling, from kindergarten to the tertiary level, on the human rights of women and girls, the promotion of gender equality, and in particular, the right of women and girls to be free from violence;
- that such education be gender-sensitive and include appropriate information regarding existing laws that promote women’s human rights and address violence against women; and
- that relevant curricula be developed in consultation with civil society.

#### **Commentary**

One of the most effective entry points at which discriminatory attitudes regarding gender equality and violence against women can be challenged is the educational system. Initiatives to prevent violence against women will be more effective when derogatory stereotypes and discriminatory attitudes toward women are eliminated from educational curricula and when content promoting women’s human rights and gender equality, and condemning violence against women is incorporated at all levels of education. Chapter I of the Spanish *Organic Act on Integrated Protection Measures against Gender Violence (2004)* focuses on the promotion of gender equality and peaceful conflict resolution at different levels of education, including through the training of educational professionals. Article 6 of the Act requires that education authorities ensure that sexist and discriminatory stereotypes are removed from all educational materials. As a result of this provision, many books included in educational curricula have been revised. The Mexican *Law on Access of Women to a Life Free of Violence (2007)* requires the development of educational programmes at all levels of schooling that promote gender equality and a life free of violence for women. The Chilean *Law on Intrafamily Violence (1994)* states in Article 3(a) that school curricula should include content about intrafamily violence, including how to modify behaviours that enhance, encourage or perpetuate such violence.

### 3.5.4. *Sensitization of the media*

#### **Recommendation**

Legislation should:

- encourage the sensitization of journalists and other media personnel regarding violence against women.

## Commentary

Media representations significantly influence societal perceptions of acceptable behaviour and attitudes. Training journalists and other media personnel on women's human rights and the root causes of violence against women may influence the way in which the issue is reported and thereby influence societal attitudes. The Spanish *Organic Act on Integrated Protection Measures against Gender Violence* (2004) provides in article 14 that “[t]he communications media shall work for the protection and safeguarding of sexual equality, avoiding any discrimination between men and women” and that “[r]eports concerning violence against women, within the requirements of journalistic objectivity, shall do the utmost to defend human rights and the freedom and dignity of the female victims of gender violence and their children.” Article 8 of the Brazilian *Maria da Penha Law* (2006) calls for the communications media to avoid stereotyped roles that legitimize or encourage domestic and family violence.

### 3.6. Protection, support, and assistance to complainants/survivors

#### 3.6.1. *Comprehensive and integrated support services*

##### **Recommendation**

Legislation should:

- oblige the State to provide funding for, and/or contribute to establishing, comprehensive and integrated support services to assist survivors of violence;
- state that all services for women survivors of violence should also provide adequate support to the women's children;
- state that the location of such services should allow equitable access to the services, in particular by urban and rural populations; and
- where possible, establish at least the following minimum standards of availability of support services for complainants/survivors:
  - one national women's phone hotline where all complainants/survivors of violence may get assistance by phone around the clock and free of cost and from where they may be referred to other service providers;
  - one shelter/refuge place for every 10, 000 inhabitants, providing safe emergency accommodation, qualified counselling and assistance in finding long-term accommodation;
  - one women's advocacy and counselling centre for every 50, 000 women, which provides proactive support and crisis intervention for complainants/survivors, including legal advice and support, as well as long-term support for complainants/survivors, and specialized services for particular groups of women (such as specialized services for immigrant survivors of violence, for survivors of trafficking in women or for women who have suffered sexual harassment at the work place), where appropriate;
  - one rape crisis centre for every 200,000 women; and
  - access to health care, including reproductive health care and HIV prophylaxis.



## **Commentary**

Survivors of violence against women require timely access to health care and support services to respond to short-term injuries, protect them from further violations, and address longer-term needs. In many countries, such services have not been mandated by law. As a result, they are often provided by non-governmental organizations with limited financial means and with unpredictable funding from Government, resulting in limitations to availability. As a consequence, many women who have experienced violence do not receive support services, or receive services that are insufficient. However, while the State can play an important role in establishing and funding services, it is often not the most appropriate body to run the services. Where possible, services should be run by independent and experienced women's non-governmental organizations providing gender-specific, empowering and comprehensive support to women survivors of violence, based on feminist principles.

To date, the majority of services have been targeted towards survivors of intimate partner violence, while experience has shown that survivors of all forms of violence against women require access to such services. For example, in Honduras, shelters run by non-governmental organizations for survivors of domestic violence have also been approached by survivors of sexual violence.

States are increasingly providing legislative mandates for the establishment of services. Article 17 of the Guatemalan *Law against Femicide and other Forms of Violence against Women* (2008) requires the Government to guarantee survivors of violence access to integrated service centres, including by providing financial resources. The Mexican *Law on Access of Women to a Life Free of Violence* (2007) requires the State to support the installation and maintenance of shelters. In Turkey, the *Local Administration Law* requires the creation of shelters in municipalities with more than 50,000 inhabitants. Under the *Violence Protection Act* (1997) in Austria, all provinces must establish intervention centres where complainants/survivors of domestic violence are proactively offered assistance after interventions by the police. The intervention centres are run by women's non-governmental organizations and financed by the Ministry of the Interior and the Ministry of Women on the basis of five-year contracts.

### **3.6.2. Rape crisis centres**

#### **Recommendation**

Legislation should:

- provide for immediate access to comprehensive and integrated services, including pregnancy testing, emergency contraception, abortion services, treatment for sexually transmitted diseases, treatment for injuries, post-exposure prophylaxis and psycho-social counselling, for complainants/survivors of sexual violence at the expense of the State; and

- state that access to such services should not be conditional upon the complainant/survivor reporting the violation to the police.

### **Commentary**

Survivors of sexual violence require immediate access to comprehensive and integrated services. Examples of such services which have been developed over time by both governments and non-governmental organizations include rape crisis centres in the United States of America and Germany; one stop centres in Malaysia; and women friendly centres attached to hospitals in India. In some countries, access to services remains conditional upon the survivor reporting the relevant violation to the police. Such a requirement is problematic in that it may deter women from seeking medical and psychological assistance. The Philippines' *Rape Victims Assistance Act* (1998) requires the establishment of a rape crisis centre in every province or city. However, as it does not mandate the allocation of relevant funds, local governments have found it difficult to establish such centres.

### **3.6.3. Support for the survivor in her employment**

#### **Recommendation**

Legislation should:

- protect the employment rights of survivors of violence against women, including by prohibiting employers from discriminating against them or penalizing them for the consequences of their abuse.

### **Commentary**

Some survivors of violence against women have lost employment because they missed work due to injuries and other consequences of the violence, including the need to find housing or go to court. Article 21 of the Spanish *Organic Act on Integrated Protection Measures against Gender Violence* (2004) provides various employment and social security rights for survivors of violence, including the right to reduce or reorganize working hours. Under Article 43 of the Philippines' *Anti-Violence against Women and their Children Act* (2004), survivors are entitled to take a paid leave of absence up to ten days in addition to other paid leaves. Following amendments to the Honduras *Domestic Violence Act* in 2006, both public and private sector employers are required to grant permission to employees to attend related programmes, including self-support groups for survivors and re-education sessions for perpetrators.

### **3.6.4. Housing rights of the survivor**

#### **Recommendation**

Legislation should:

- prohibit discrimination in housing against survivors of violence, including by prohibiting landlords from evicting a tenant, or refusing to rent to a prospective tenant, because she is a survivor of violence; and
- permit a survivor to break her lease without penalty in order to seek new housing.

### **Commentary**

Violence against women directly affects survivors' housing. In many instances, survivors of violence have remained in situations where they are vulnerable to abuse due to an inability to find appropriate accommodation. Survivors of violence who are tenants are often evicted from housing and discriminated against in housing applications. The United States of America *Violence Against Women and Department of Justice Reauthorization Act* (2005) introduced new provisions and programmes to provide survivors of violence further housing rights. The Act amended various laws to ensure that survivors of domestic violence would not be evicted from or denied public housing because they are survivors. It also provided funding for educating and training public housing agency staff, developing improved housing admissions and occupancy policies and best practices, and improving collaboration between public housing agencies and organizations working to assist survivors of violence. In Austria, the City of Vienna assists women who have suffered violence and become homeless to rent affordable flats. Since 2001, immigrants have also been eligible for such housing.

### **3.6.5. Financial support for the survivor**

#### **Recommendation**

Legislation should:

- provide for efficient and timely provision of financial assistance to survivors in order to meet their needs.

### **Commentary**

Survivors of violence against women incur significant short-term and long-term financial costs related to pain and suffering, reduced employment and productivity, and expenditure on services. It is important that survivors of violence have access to financial assistance outside of protection order (referred to in part 8.C), family law (referred to in part 10), and sentencing proceedings (referred to in part 9.E ) due to the uncertainty regarding the duration of such proceedings and the financial assistance they may offer. Under sections 1061JA and 1061 JH of Australia's *Social Security Act*, as amended in 2006, survivors of domestic violence may qualify for a "crisis payment" from the federal welfare agency "Centrelink", where they have left the home because of violence, and/or where they remain in the home following the departure of the perpetrator and are in severe financial hardship. Depending on the legal context, such assistance could be made available through a trust fund for survivors of violence to which both the State and other actors may contribute. Section 29 of the Ghanaian *Domestic Violence Act* (2007) establishes a Victims of Domestic Violence Support Fund. The fund receives voluntary

contributions from individuals, organizations and the private sector; money approved by Parliament; and money from any other source approved by the Minister of Finance. The money from the Fund is used for a variety of purposes, including the basic material support of victims of domestic violence; any matter connected with the rescue, rehabilitation and reintegration of victims of domestic violence; the construction of shelters for survivors of domestic violence; and training and capacity building for persons connected with the provision of shelter, rehabilitation and reintegration.

### **3.7. Rights of immigrant women**

#### **3.7.1. *Independent and favourable immigration status for survivors of violence against women***

##### **Recommendation**

Legislation should:

- provide that survivors of violence against women should not be deported or subjected to other punitive actions related to their immigration status when they report such violence to police or other authorities; and
- allow immigrants who are survivors of violence to confidentially apply for legal immigration status independently of the perpetrator.

##### **Commentary**

Women survivors of domestic violence or violence in the workplace whose immigration status in a country is tied to their marital, family or employment status are often reluctant to report such violence to the police. Over time, States have developed legislation and/or subsidiary legislation which provides for the right of such survivors to apply for immigration status independently of the perpetrator. For example, the United States of America's *Violence Against Women Act* (1994) and its reauthorizations, allows survivors of domestic violence whose immigration status depends on that of a citizen/lawful permanent resident of the United States of America to self-petition for their own immigration status under certain circumstances. The Act also permits domestic violence survivors who meet certain requirements to obtain suspension of deportation proceedings and become lawful permanent residents. The Canadian *Immigration and Refugee Protection Act* (2002) allows survivors of domestic violence to apply for permanent residence status irrespective of whether their spouse supports the application, as does the Swedish *Aliens Act* (2005). In the Netherlands, proof of sexual or other violence within a relationship constitutes separate grounds for granting residence status for persons in possession of a dependent residence permit. The Netherlands' *Interim Supplement* to the *Aliens Act Implementation Guidelines* (TBV 2003/48) states that if a girl is at risk of female genital mutilation, she and her family may be granted residence status in the Netherlands. The *Domestic Violence Concession Rules* in the United Kingdom permit a woman whose residency status is dependent on a perpetrator of violence to apply for leave to remain in the United Kingdom indefinitely.

### **3.7.2. Restrictions on international marriage brokers and ensuring the rights of “mail-order brides”**

#### **Recommendation**

Legislation should include:

- measures to minimize the risks posed by international marriage brokers, including: imposing restrictions on the operations of international marriage brokers, restricting abusive men’s ability to use international marriage brokers, ensuring that women who are recruited through international marriage brokers are above the age of majority and have given voluntary and informed consent, and providing every recruited woman with information about her prospective spouse and her legal rights; and
- the right to divorce and to obtain independent immigration status for international brides who are survivors of violence.

#### **Commentary**

The international marriage broker industry poses a number of dangers to women. By “marketing” women from economically disadvantaged countries as brides for men in wealthy countries, the women frequently find themselves in situations of isolation and powerlessness, where they are dependent on a partner whom they barely know, and unaware of their legal rights. Because of their profit motive and the fact that their fees are paid by men, international marriage brokers often have an incentive to promote the satisfaction of men above the well-being of women. These factors combine to create a serious risk of domestic violence for women recruited through international marriage brokers.

Both sending and receiving countries of international brides have taken legislative action to address this issue. The Philippines’ *Act to Declare Unlawful the Practice of Matching Filipino Women for Marriage to Foreign Nationals on a Mail Order Basis and other Similar Practices* (1990), amongst other things, makes it unlawful for a person or company to establish or carry on a business which has as its purpose the matching of Filipino women for marriage to foreign nationals either on a mail order basis or personal introduction; advertise, publish, print or distribute or cause the advertisement, publication, printing or distribution of any brochure, flier or any propaganda material calculated to promote the prohibited acts. The United States of America’s *International Marriage Broker Regulation Act* (2005) requires that a foreign woman be provided with information about her prospective spouse’s criminal and marital background as well as information about the rights and resources available to domestic violence survivors in the United States of America. It requires international marriage brokers to obtain a woman’s written consent before distributing information about her and forbids the distribution of information about anyone under the age of eighteen. It also restricts the ability of a petitioner in the United States of America to seek visas for a series of fiancées.

## 3.8. Investigation

### 3.8.1. Duties of police officers

#### **Recommendation**

Legislation should provide that police officers should:

- respond promptly to every request for assistance and protection in cases of violence against women, even when the person who reports such violence is not the complainant/survivor;
- assign the same priority to calls concerning cases of violence against women as to calls concerning other acts of violence, and assign the same priority to calls concerning domestic violence as to calls relating to any other form of violence against women; and
- upon receiving a complaint, conduct a coordinated risk assessment of the crime scene and respond accordingly in a language understood by the complainant/survivor, including by:
  - interviewing the parties and witnesses, including children, in separate rooms to ensure there is an opportunity to speak freely;
  - recording the complaint in detail;
  - advising the complainant/survivor of her rights;
  - filling out and filing an official report on the complaint;
  - providing or arranging transport for the complainant/survivor to the nearest hospital or medical facility for treatment, if it is required or requested;
  - providing or arranging transport for the complainant/survivor and the complainant/survivor's children or dependents, if it is required or requested; and
  - providing protection to the reporter of the violence.

#### **Commentary**

Police play a crucial role in any coordinated response to violence against women. However, survivors/complainants of violence against women often hesitate to call police because they fear that they might not be taken seriously or be considered to be lying and may have little confidence in the justice system. Laws increasingly include provisions on the duties of police officers in cases of violence against women. Article 7 of Ghana's *Domestic Violence Act* (2007) states that police officers must "respond to a request by a person for assistance from domestic violence and shall offer the protection that the circumstances of the case or the person who made the report requires, even when the person reporting is not the victim of the domestic violence" and article 8 goes on to elaborate upon the duties of the officer. Section 30 of the Philippine's *Anti-Violence against Women and their Children Act* (2004) imposes a fine against village officials or law enforcers who fail to report an incident of violence.

### 3.8.2. Duties of prosecutors

### **Recommendation**

Legislation should:

- establish that responsibility for prosecuting violence against women lies with prosecution authorities and not with complainants/survivors of violence, regardless of the level or type of injury;
- require that complainants/survivors, at all relevant stages of the legal process, be promptly and adequately informed, in a language they understand, of:
  - their rights;
  - the details of relevant legal proceedings;
  - available services, support mechanisms and protective measures;
  - opportunities for obtaining restitution and compensation through the legal system;
  - details of events in relation to their case, including specific places and times of hearings; and
  - release of the perpetrator from pre-trial detention or from jail; and
- require that any prosecutor who discontinues a case of violence against women explain to the complainant/survivor why the case was dropped.

### **Commentary**

Given the fear and intimidation to which complainants/survivors are subjected, it is important that public prosecutors, or their equivalent, be assigned to cases of violence against women. Such prosecutor involvement was one of the central elements of the original legal reform on domestic violence in the United States of America. In Austria *ex officio* prosecution is exercised in cases regarding all forms of violence, regardless of the level of injury. In some countries where cases of violence against women must be pursued by the complainant/survivor by private prosecution, advocates are seeking amendments to legislation in order to mandate increased prosecutor involvement.

Lack of information and/or misinformation regarding the legal process can be intimidating for the complainant/survivor; preclude her from engaging fully and completely in the case; deter her from continuing with the prosecution, particularly in cases of domestic violence; and threaten her safety. If there is a change in the perpetrator's bail and/or imprisonment status and the complainant/survivor is not informed, the complainant/survivor may not be able to keep herself safe. If the complainant/survivor is not informed of relevant court dates and proceedings, she may not understand what is happening and/or miss important dates. Section 9 of Namibia's *Combating of Rape Act* (2000) places duties on prosecutors to ensure that the complainant/survivor receives all information pertaining to the case. Reforms to the *Code of Criminal Procedure* in Austria in 2006 introduced the right of the complainant/survivor to be informed if the perpetrator is released from arrest. The Spanish *Act Regulating the Protection Order for Victims of Domestic Violence* (2003) provides complainants/survivors with the right to be constantly informed about their legal proceedings, including any change in the process and the eventual release of the offender. Section 29 of the Philippines *Anti-Violence against Women and their Children Act* (2004)

requires prosecutors and court personnel to inform the complainant/survivor of her rights and remedies.

Cases of violence against women are often dropped without any explanation to the complainant/survivor. In order to address this issue, various countries have introduced provisions in legislation, such as Instruction 8/2005 of the State's General Prosecutor Office in Spain which requires prosecutors to explain to complainants/survivors why their case has been dropped.

### **3.8.3. Pro-arrest and pro-prosecution policies**

#### **Recommendation**

Legislation should:

- provide for the application of pro-arrest and pro-prosecution policies in cases of violence against women where there is probable cause to believe that a crime has occurred.

#### **Commentary**

Despite education and training of police officers and prosecutors, many members of these professions continue to believe that violence against women, and particularly domestic violence, does not constitute a crime. Police officers often caution or reprimand perpetrators of violence against women, rather than taking more serious action, such as arrest. In many instances, prosecutors do not institute proceedings in cases of violence against women due to a perception that complainants/survivors in such cases cannot be trusted and/or due to difficulties in gathering evidence. Various policies have been adopted to address these issues, including mandatory arrest and prosecution, pro-arrest and pro-prosecution, and absent-survivor prosecution policies.

Mandatory arrest policies require that a police officer arrest the perpetrator if their assessment of a situation gives them probable cause to believe that a crime has occurred. If such a policy is in place, police may not impose an alternative penalty and the case must be prosecuted without any exception. Such policies exist in a number of countries, including various countries in the Pacific Islands. Under the *Sexual Offences Act (2006)* in Kenya, police must file each charge and only the Attorney General can withdraw the case. If passed, the Nigerian *Violence Prohibition Bill* would provide that: "No prosecutor shall (a) refuse to institute a prosecution; or (b) withdraw a charge, in respect of a contravention of section 18 (1), unless he or she has been authorised thereto, whether in general or in any specific case, by the Director of Public Prosecutions." While some have welcomed the vigour of such policies, others are concerned by the removal of agency from the complainant/survivor, particularly in cases of domestic violence.

An alternative approach is pro-arrest and pro-prosecution policies which are more flexible than the mandatory approach and retain a level of agency of the



complainant/survivor, while ensuring that the issue is treated seriously by police and prosecutors. In Spain, there is a pro-arrest and detention policy in cases where police deem there to be severe risk to the complainant/survivor or when the police witness the offender committing the crime. In Honduras, a variation of this policy was introduced by amendments to the *Law on Domestic Violence* in 2006: if a complainant/survivor wishes to drop a case, the judge cannot close it without an investigation of the reasons for which the complainant/survivor wishes to drop the case.

Mandatory and pro-arrest policies present the potential problem that victims may be arrested at the scene of an assault if a police officer is unable to identify the primary aggressor (the victim may have defended herself against assault causing injury to the offender). In response to this problem, strategies to determine the primary aggressor and corresponding police training modules have been developed in the United States of America.

### **3.9. Legal proceedings and evidence**

#### **3.9.1. Prohibition of mediation**

##### **Recommendation**

Legislation should:

- explicitly prohibit mediation in all cases of violence against women, both before and during legal proceedings.

##### **Commentary**

Mediation is promoted or offered as an alternative to criminal justice and family law processes in several countries' laws on violence against women. However, a number of problems arise when mediation is utilized in cases of violence against women. It removes cases from judicial scrutiny, presumes that both parties have equal bargaining power, reflects an assumption that both parties are equally at fault for violence, and reduces offender accountability. An increasing number of countries are prohibiting mediation in cases of violence against women. For example, the Spanish *Organic Act on Integrated Protection Measures against Gender Violence* (2004) forbids mediation of any kind in cases of violence against women.

#### **3.9.2. Encouraging timely and expedited proceedings**

##### **Recommendation**

Legislation should:

- provide for timely and expeditious legal proceedings and encourage fast-tracking of cases of violence against women, where appropriate.

### **Commentary**

Delays in the conduct of trials may increase the risk to the complainant of retaliation, particularly if the perpetrator is not in police custody. In addition, delays often deter the complainant from proceeding with prosecution. In India, the sexual harassment complaint committees mandated by the Supreme Court in *Vishaka v. State of Rajasthan AIR 1997 S.C.3011* to address sexual harassment complaints are required to establish a time-bound process. In a number of countries, including Spain, South Africa, the United Kingdom, and various states in the United States of America, procedures have been introduced to expedite (i.e. “fast-track”) cases regarding violence against women in the courts. The Spanish *Organic Act on Important Reviews of the Code of Criminal Procedure (2002)* introduced fast trials for specific offences and enables cases of domestic violence to be judged within 15 days of the offence. However, it is important to ensure that the complainant/survivor retains control over the proceedings and does not feel forced to take actions, such as divorce or separation, when she is not ready. The Spanish experience suggests that proceedings in specialized courts sometimes progress too rapidly for complainants/survivors and, as a result, some complainants/survivors withdraw from the process. It is also important to ensure that all relevant professionals are available in specialized courts.

### **3.9.3. Free legal aid, interpretation, and court support, including independent legal counsel and intermediaries**

#### **Recommendation**

Legislation should ensure that complainants/survivors have the right to:

- free legal aid in all legal proceedings, especially criminal proceedings, in order to ensure access to justice and avoid secondary victimization;
- free court support, including the right to be accompanied and represented in court by a specialized complainants/survivors’ service and/or intermediary, free of charge, and without prejudice to their case, and access to service centres in the courthouse to receive guidance and assistance in navigating the legal system; and
- free access to a qualified and impartial interpreter and the translation of legal documents, where requested or required.

### **Commentary**

Legal aid, including independent legal advice, are critical components of complainants/survivors’ access to, and understanding of, the legal system and the remedies to which they are entitled. Legal representation has proven to increase the likelihood of a positive outcome for the complainant/survivor in the legal process. For example, monitoring of Bulgaria’s *Law on Protection against Domestic Violence (2005)* has shown that, while a survivor does not need a lawyer to file for a protection order, her application is more likely to be successful with legal representation. Language barriers are a primary obstacle to immigrant survivors of violence, including migrant workers and survivors of domestic violence, when they are seeking safety for themselves and their

children, and the accountability of their abusers.

Many good practices have emerged in legislating for the provision of free legal aid and the right of the complainant/survivor to independent legal counsel and support. For example, the rape crisis centres established under the Philippines *Rape Victims Assistance Act* (1998) provide free legal aid. Article 21 of the Guatemalan *Law against Femicide and other Forms of Violence against Women* (2008) obliges the Government to provide free legal assistance to survivors. In Armenia, draft legislation mandates Government funding for counselling centres and shelters to provide free psychological, medical, legal and social assistance to domestic violence survivors. In various jurisdictions in the United States of America, Government-funded domestic abuse service centres are located in court buildings to provide efficient and easy access to legal advice and other services, in various languages, for domestic violence complainants/survivors. In Spain, any woman complainant/survivor of violence has the right to specialized and immediate legal assistance, including free legal aid to litigate in all administrative processes and judicial procedures directly or indirectly associated with the violence suffered.

In Kenya, the *Sexual Offences Act* (2006) provides for a third party to bring a case where the complainant/survivor is unable to go to the court by herself. The *Criminal Procedure Code* (1999) of Honduras provides for the possibility of the complainant/survivor being represented by a duly established organization, such as a women's rights organization. For example, the Center for Women's Rights in Honduras has acted on behalf of women complainants/survivors, in coordination with the public prosecutor in sexual violence cases.

In the United Kingdom and the United States of America, the prosecution has the responsibility to obtain and pay for an interpreter for complainants/survivors of domestic violence, once the need for one is recognized.

#### ***3.9.4. Rights of the complainant/survivor during legal proceedings***

##### **Recommendation**

Legislation should:

- guarantee, throughout the legal process, the complainant/survivor's right to:
  - decide whether or not to appear in court or to submit evidence by alternative means, including drafting a sworn statement/affidavit, requesting that the prosecutor present relevant information on her behalf, and/or submitting taped testimony;
  - when appearing in court, give evidence in a manner that does not require the complainant/survivor to confront the defendant, including through the use of in-camera proceedings, witness protection boxes, closed circuit television, and video links;

- protection within the court structure, including separate waiting areas for complainants and defendants, separate entrances and exits, police escorts, and staggered arrival and departure times;
  - testify only as many times as is necessary;
  - request closure of the courtroom during proceedings, where constitutionally possible; and
  - a gag on all publicity regarding individuals involved in the case, with applicable remedies for non-compliance; and
- cross-reference witness protection legislation, where it exists.

### **Commentary**

Legal proceedings often re-victimize complainants/survivors. It is therefore important to ensure that legal proceedings are conducted in a manner that protects the safety of the complainant/survivor and provides her with options for her participation in the process. Namibia's *Combating of Rape Act* (2000) stipulates that the complainant has the right to attend at court personally, or to request that the prosecutor present the relevant information on her behalf if the accused has applied for bail. Section 5 of the *Rape Victim Assistance and Protection Act* (1998) in the Philippines provides for closed-door investigation, prosecution or trial and for non-disclosure to the public of the name and personal circumstances of the offended party and/or the accused, or any other information tending to establish their identities. The *Domestic Violence Act* (2007) of Ghana notes in Section 13(2) that the presence of the respondent is likely to have a serious adverse effect on the victim or a witness, and that the court may take the steps it considers necessary to separate the respondent from the victim or the witness, without sacrificing the integrity of the proceedings. The Supreme Court of India, in the case of *Vishaka v State of Rajasthan & Ors AIR 1997 S.C.3011* mandated that, when dealing with complaints of sexual harassment, workplaces and other institutions should ensure that neither complainants nor witnesses are subjected to victimization or discrimination and that a complainant should have a right to seek transfer of the perpetrator or their own transfer from the workplace.

Disallowing the public access to the courtroom and/or disallowing publication of courtroom proceedings can protect the complainant/survivor from intimidation, embarrassment and potentially harmful encounters when attending court and when giving testimony. The Namibian *Combating of Rape Act* (2000) places strict restrictions on publishing the identity of the complainant to ensure that her privacy is protected. The *Sexual Offences Bill* under consideration in Mauritius would restrict dissemination of information about the complainant/survivor, declaring it an offence to “publish, diffuse, reproduce, broadcast or disclose, by any means, particulars which lead, or are likely to lead, members of the public to identify the person against whom the offence is alleged to have been committed.” Under the Kenyan *Sexual Offences Act* (2006), the gag on publications and process extends to the identity of the family. The Supreme Court of India, in *Vishaka v. State of Rajasthan AIR 1997 S.C.3011* provided for confidentiality in cases before the sexual harassment complaints committees mandated in workplaces and

other institutions. With respect to the offence of rape, the Indian *Evidence Act* was recently amended to prohibit the disclosure of the identity of a complainant in any publication (s.228).

It is important to cross-reference existing witness protection legislation, as is the case in the Kenyan *Sexual Offences Act* (2006), so as to ensure that complainants in violence against women cases are fully aware of its existence and contents.

### **3.9.5. Issues related to the collection and submission of evidence**

#### **Recommendation**

Legislation should:

- mandate proper collection and submission to court of medical and forensic evidence, where possible;
- mandate the timely testing of collected medical and forensic evidence;
- allow a complainant to be treated and/or examined by a forensic doctor without requiring the consent of any other person or party, such as a male relative;
- ensure that multiple collections of medical and forensic evidence are prevented so as to limit secondary victimization of the complainant;
- state that medical and forensic evidence are not required in order to convict a perpetrator; and
- provide the possibility of prosecution in the absence of the complainant/survivor in cases of violence against women, where the complainant/survivor is not able or does not wish to give evidence.

#### **Commentary**

The diligent collection of medical and forensic evidence is an important duty of public authorities. Various countries are applying greater diligence in the collection of evidence in cases of violence against women, and complainants are increasingly encouraged to access services where they may safely and confidentially preserve medical and forensic evidence. Under the United States of America *Violence Against Women and Department of Justice Reauthorization Act* (2005), states must ensure that survivors have access to forensic examination free of charge even if they choose not to report the crime to the police or otherwise cooperate with the criminal justice system or law enforcement authorities. In Kenya, guidelines developed under the *Sexual Offences Act* (2006) stipulate the protection of the dignity of the survivor in the gathering of evidence and require that: evidence is gathered in the least intrusive manner possible; there are a limited number of sessions; and the medical form is detailed and easily understood by all parties, including the court.

However, forensic and medical evidence may not be available in court proceedings for a variety of reasons, including complainants' lack of knowledge regarding the importance of such evidence; fear of medical examination; actions taken that may unintentionally

compromise evidence, such as washing after being sexually assaulted or time lapse in seeking services; lack of available facilities, or personnel trained in the collection of evidence in cases of violence against women in a manner sensitive to the complainant/survivor; and the nature of the violence. It is therefore important that legislation also allow for the prosecution and conviction of an offender based solely on the testimony of the complainant/survivor, as detailed in part 7.G of the framework in relation to protection orders, and part 8.J(i) on removing the corroboration rule/cautionary warning.

There will be instances in which the complainant/survivor does not wish to provide testimony and/or a written statement, due to fear caused by threats from the perpetrator, shame, or other reasons. Given the importance of the complainant/survivor's testimony to prosecution evidence in cases of violence against women, some countries have chosen to adopt a policy of mandatory complainant/survivor testimony. However, this practice may deter the complainant/survivor from contacting the police. An alternative to mandatory complainant/survivor testimony is the possibility of prosecution in the absence of the complainant/survivor. Such a prosecution indicates that the crime is taken seriously by the justice system and can also promote the safety of the complainant/survivor. In order to strengthen the agency of the complainant/survivor, it is critical to ensure that she remains informed throughout all stages of the proceedings in absent-complainant/survivor prosecutions.

### ***3.9.6. No adverse inference from delay in reporting***

#### **Recommendation**

Legislation should:

- prohibit courts from drawing any adverse inference from a delay of any length between the alleged commission of violence and the reporting thereof;
- require that the presiding judicial officer in any case of violence against women inform the jury, assessors or himself/herself that a delay in reporting should not be held against the complainant.

#### **Commentary**

Complainants/survivors of violence often delay in reporting the violation to public authorities. Such delays may be due to a number of reasons, including the complainant's/survivor's fear of stigmatization, humiliation, not being believed, and retaliation; financial or emotional dependence on the perpetrator; and distrust in, and lack of access to, responsible institutions, resulting from geographically inaccessible courts and lack of specialized criminal justice personnel. Despite these legitimate concerns, delays in the reporting of violence against women are often interpreted as demonstrating that the complainant/survivor is unreliable.

Many countries are now legislating to ensure that adverse inferences are not drawn from

any delay between an act of violence against women and the reporting of the violation to authorities. Section 7 of the Namibia *Combating of Rape Act* (2000) provides that: “In criminal proceedings at which an accused is charged with an offence of a sexual or indecent nature, the court shall not draw any inference only from the length of the delay between the commission of the sexual or indecent act and the laying of a complaint”. Section 59 of the South Africa *Criminal Law (Sexual Offences and Related Matters) Act* (2007) contains similar wording. Section 16 of the Philippines’ *Anti-Violence against Women and their Children Act* (2004) states that the court shall not deny the issuance of a protection order due to lapse of time between the act of violence and the filing of the application.

### **3.9.7. Removing discriminatory elements from legal proceedings regarding sexual violence**

#### **3.9.7.1. Removing the cautionary warning/corroborated rule**

##### **Recommendation**

Legislation should abolish the cautionary warning/corroborated rule in regard to complainants in cases of sexual violence by either:

- stating that “it shall be unlawful to require corroboration of the complainant’s evidence”;
- creating an assumption of the complainant’s credibility in sexual violence cases;
- stating that “the credibility of a complainant in a sexual violence case is the same as the credibility of a complainant in any other criminal proceeding”.

##### **Commentary**

The cautionary warning is a practice by which a court warns itself or the jury that it is dangerous to convict on the uncorroborated evidence of the complainant/survivor (otherwise known as the “corroboration rule”). This practice is based on the belief that women lie about rape and that their evidence should be independently corroborated. It continues to be implemented in a number of countries, particularly in common law and “Sharia” jurisdictions. However, many countries have removed the warning/rule from their legal systems. The Cook Islands *Evidence Amendment Act* (1986-7), based on New Zealand legislation, provides that, where law or practice previously required that the evidence of a rape or sexual assault survivor be supported by corroboration in order to gain a conviction, it is no longer required. Similarly, section 5 of the Namibian *Combating of Rape Act* (2000) provides that: “No court shall treat the evidence of any complainant in criminal proceedings at which an accused is charged with an offence of a sexual or indecent nature with special caution because the accused is charged with any such offence.” In sentencing a perpetrator for rape of a minor girl, a court in Honduras cited case law of the Constitutional Court of Spain to support its own decision to give probative value to testimony of the complainant/survivor when it was the only evidence

available to the judge.

### **3.9.7.2. Evidence of complainant/survivor’s sexual history not to be introduced**

#### **Recommendation**

Legislation:

- should prevent introduction of the complainant’s sexual history in both civil and criminal proceedings.

#### **Commentary**

In many countries, complainant/survivor’s prior sexual history continues to be used to deflect attention away from the accused onto the complainant. When the complainant/survivor’s past consensual sexual experience is admitted into evidence, it can be used to affect her credibility to the extent that she is not believed and the prosecution does not succeed. Evidence related to the complainant/survivor’s past sexual history has been used during sentencing of the perpetrator to reduce the severity of the sentence. Complainants/survivors of sexual violence have often been “re-victimized” when questioned by defence attorneys about details of their private sexual conduct.

Laws which prevent the introduction of evidence of a survivor’s sexual behaviour that is unrelated to the acts that are the subject of the legal proceeding can help protect women’s privacy and avoid introduction of evidence that could prejudice the judge, or jury against the survivor. The United States Federal Rule of Evidence 412, as amended by the *Violence Against Women Act* (1994), prohibits the introduction of unrelated evidence regarding the complainant’s sexual history in both civil and criminal proceedings. Section 293(2) of the New South Wales, Australia, *Criminal Procedure Act* (1986) states: “Evidence relating to the sexual reputation of the complainant is inadmissible”. The Indian *Evidence (Amendment) Act* (2003) removed the section of the former Evidence Act which allowed the impeachment of the credibility of a complainant/survivor to a rape/attempted rape. It is important to ensure that such legislation is not weakened by loopholes or unfavourable judicial interpretations.

### **3.9.8. No offence of “false accusation”**

#### **Recommendation**

Legislation should:

- not include a provision criminalizing false accusations/allegations.

#### **Commentary**

Legislation on violence against women sometimes contains a provision that falsely accusing someone under the legislation constitutes a criminal offence. Provisions of this kind may dissuade complainants/survivors from filing cases due to fear of not being



believed, and there is a high risk that such provisions may be applied incorrectly and used by the defendant/offender for purposes of retaliation. Intentionally misleading the court is commonly dealt with in other areas of the law and should not be included in legislation on violence against women. A number of more recent pieces of legislation on violence against women, such as South Africa's *Criminal Law (Sexual Offences and Related Matters) Amendment Act* (2007), therefore do not include such a provision.

### **3.10. Protection orders**

#### ***3.10.1. Protection orders for all forms of violence against women***

##### **Recommendation**

Legislation should:

- make protection orders available to survivors of all forms of violence against women.

##### **Commentary**

Protection orders are among the most effective legal remedies available to complainants/survivors of violence against women. They were first introduced in the United States of America in the mid-1970s, offering an immediate remedy to complainants/survivors of domestic violence by authorizing courts to order an offender out of the home. All States now provide for protection orders. Such orders vary greatly in their specificity regarding the length of the order, its enforceability, who may apply for and issue it, and whether financial support or other relief may be ordered.

Experience has shown that complainants/survivors of forms of violence other than domestic violence also seek protection orders and a number of recent legislative developments have extended the application of such orders accordingly. Chapter 6 of the Mexican *Law on Access of Women to a Life Free of Violence* (2007) makes protection orders available to survivors of any form of violence defined in the Act, including violence in the family, violence in the workplace or educational settings, violence in the community, institutional violence, and femicide. The *Forced Marriage (Civil Protection) Act* 2007 in the United Kingdom allows courts to issue an order for the purposes of protecting (a) a person from being forced into a marriage or from any attempt to be forced into a marriage; or (b) a person who has been forced into a marriage.

#### ***3.10.2. Relationship between protection orders and other legal proceedings***

##### **Recommendation**

Legislation should:

- make protection orders available to complainants/survivors without any requirement that the complainant/survivor institute other legal proceedings, such as criminal or divorce proceedings, against the defendant/offender;
- state that protection orders are to be issued in addition to and not *in lieu* of any other legal proceedings;

- allow the issuance of a protection order to be introduced as a material fact in subsequent legal proceedings.

### **Commentary**

The issuance of protection orders in some countries is dependent upon the complainant/survivor taking further legal action, such as bringing criminal charges and/or filing for divorce. This requirement may deter survivors from seeking protection orders and could result in complainants/survivors being penalized if they fail to comply with this requirement. Under the *Domestic Violence Act* (2007) in Ghana, individuals may apply for protection orders independently of any other proceedings, and the institution of criminal or civil proceedings does not affect the rights of an applicant to seek a protection order under the Act. In Fiji, applications for protection orders under section 202 of the *Family Law Act* (2003) may be made independently of other legal proceedings. Under the Philippines *Anti-Violence against Women and their Children Act* (2004), the complainant may apply for a protection order independently of a criminal action or other civil action.

### **3.10.3. Content and issuance of protection orders**

#### **Recommendation**

Legislation should provide:

- that protection orders may contain the following measures:
  - order the defendant/perpetrator to stay a specified distance away from the complainant/survivor and her children (and other people if appropriate) and the places that they frequent;
  - order the accused to provide financial assistance to the complainant/survivor, including payment of medical bills, counselling fees or shelter fees, monetary compensation, and in addition, *in cases of domestic violence*, mortgage, rent, insurance, alimony and child support;
  - prohibit the defendant/perpetrator from contacting the complainant/survivor or arranging for a third party to do so;
  - restrain the defendant/perpetrator from causing further violence to the complainant/survivor, her dependents, other relatives and relevant persons;
  - prohibit the defendant/perpetrator from purchasing, using or possessing a firearm or any such weapon specified by the court;
  - require that the movements of the defendant/offender be electronically monitored;
  - instruct the defendant/perpetrator *in cases of domestic violence* to vacate the family home, without in any way ruling on the ownership of such property and/or to hand over the use of a means of transportation (such as an automobile) and/or other essential personal effects to the complainant/survivor;
- for the issuance of protection orders in both criminal and civil proceedings; and
- that authorities may not remove a complainant/survivor from the home against her will.

### **Commentary**

Over time, the range of measures included in protection orders has broadened. The Spanish *Act Regulating the Protection Order for Victims of Domestic Violence* (2003) provides for a range of remedies, such as forbidding the offender to approach the complainant/survivor directly or through third persons; ordering the accused to keep a specified distance away from the complainant/survivor, her children, her family, her residence, her place of work or any other place she might visit or frequent, including the obligation to abandon the common residence; temporary child custody; vacation determination; and payment for child support and basic living expenses, including rent and insurance.

In some countries, including Albania, the Netherlands, and the United States, courts may order the perpetrator to pay child support, as well as to make payments towards the survivor's rent, mortgage and insurance as a condition in the granting of a protection order. Article 20 of the Indian *Protection of Women from Domestic Violence Act* (2005) states that: "the Magistrate may direct the respondent to pay monetary relief to meet the expenses incurred and losses suffered by the aggrieved person and any child of the aggrieved person as a result of the domestic violence."

Article 10(1) of Albania's *Law on Measures against Violence in Family Relations* (2006) authorizes the courts to order the perpetrator to leave the shared dwelling, and/or to pay rent for the permanent or temporary residence of the complainant/survivor. Under sections 33 to 41 of the *Family Law Act* (1996) in the United Kingdom, complainants/survivors may apply for an occupation order, in addition to a protection order, which would entitle her to remain in the home and 'bar' the offender from the premises or restrict him to a particular part of the home. Similar orders are provided for in section 20 of the Ghanaian *Domestic Violence Act* (2007), and section 19 of the Indian *Protection of Women from Domestic Violence Act* (2005).

#### **3.10.4. Emergency orders**

##### **Recommendation**

Where there is an allegation of immediate danger of violence, legislation should:

- provide relevant officials with the authority to order a respondent out of the home and to stay away from the survivor; and
- state that the procedure should occur on an *ex parte* basis without a hearing and should prioritize survivor safety over property rights and other considerations.

### **Commentary**

Legislation in an increasing number of countries provides for the issuance of emergency protection orders in situations where there is immediate danger of an act of violence. The procedural requirements for emergency protection orders differ from country to country.

In Austria, and some other European countries, including Germany, the Czech Republic, the Netherlands and Slovenia, police may issue *ex officio* an order that expels a person who endangers the life, health or freedom of another person from a shared dwelling for ten days. In Bulgaria under the *Law on Protection against Domestic Violence* (2005), complainants/survivors may apply for an emergency protection order through either the court or the nearest police department. Under section 14 of the Philippines *Anti-Violence against Women and their Children Act* (2004), the Punong Barangay or Kagawad (elected village officials) may issue *ex parte* protection orders of 15 days' duration. In instances where legislation allows traditional authorities to exercise quasi-judicial powers, it is important that the procedure is transparent and prioritizes the rights of the complainant/survivor over other considerations, such as the reconciliation of families or communities. Laws on domestic violence in many Latin American countries, including Brazil, Chile, Paraguay, Uruguay and Venezuela, provide for similar orders which are called "urgency" or "protection" measures. In Fiji, a court may grant an injunction under the *Family Law Act* (2003) following an *ex parte* application by the complainant/survivor.

### ***3.10.5. Post-hearing orders***

#### **Recommendation**

Legislation should:

- grant courts the authority to issue long-term, final, or post-hearing orders after notice and an opportunity for a full hearing based on allegations of violence.

#### **Commentary**

In order to promote complainant/survivor safety, some jurisdictions have introduced long-term or final protection orders. By reducing the number of times that a complainant/survivor must appear in court, such orders diminish the financial, emotional and psychological burdens carried by complainants/survivors, as well as the number of times they are forced to confront the perpetrator. For example, in the State of New Jersey, United States of America, a final protection order may be issued following a full court hearing. The final protection order stays in effect unless affirmatively dismissed by a court. Under section 14 of the *Domestic Violence Act* (2007) of Ghana, an interim protection order (of no more than three months) will become final if the respondent does not appear before the court to show cause why the interim order should not be made final.

### ***3.10.6. Standing in application for protection orders***

#### **Recommendation**

Legislation should either:

- limit standing in application for protection orders to the complainant/survivor and, in cases where the complainant/survivor is legally incompetent, a legal guardian; or

- allow other actors, such as State actors, family members, and relevant professionals to have standing in such applications, while ensuring that the agency of the complainant/survivor is respected.

### **Commentary**

Different experiences exist regarding who should apply for protection orders. Some argue that only the complainant/survivor should be able to apply, while others argue that police, social workers, and other family members should be able to apply on behalf of the complainant/survivor regardless of whether she consents. Under the *Organic Act on Integrated Protection Measures against Gender Violence* (2004) in Spain, family members living in the same house and public prosecutors are able to apply for criminal law protective orders, although the complainant/survivor's wishes must be taken into account in the full hearing by a court. Under the Philippines *Anti-Violence against Women and their Children Act* (2004) an extensive list of persons are able to apply for a protection order, including the complainant/survivor; parents, guardians, ascendants, descendants and other relatives of the complainant/survivor; social workers; police officers; village officials; and lawyers, counsellors and healthcare providers of the complainant/survivor.

Those who argue that only the complainant/survivor should be able to apply emphasize that authorizing third parties to apply for protection orders, independent of the survivor's wishes, may compromise her interests and safety. One of the original purposes of the protection order remedy was to empower the complainant/survivor. Third parties whose motivations are not in the best interests of the survivor or her children may abuse the ability to apply for a protection order. Further, survivors of violence are often the best judges of the danger presented to them by a violent partner and allowing others to apply for such orders removes control over the proceeding from them.

### ***3.10.7. Evidence of complainant/survivor sufficient for grant of protection order***

#### **Recommendation**

Legislation should state:

- that live testimony or a sworn statement or affidavit of the complainant/survivor is sufficient evidence for the issuance of a protection order; and
- no independent evidence – medical, police or otherwise – should be required for the issuance of a protection order following live testimony or a sworn statement or affidavit of the complainant/survivor.

### **Commentary**

Legislation and/or legal practice sometimes require that evidence, in addition to the complainant/survivor's statement or affidavit, must be submitted in order for a protection order to be granted. Such a requirement may compromise the complainant/survivor's safety by causing significant delays and rescheduling of hearings. Under the *Law on*

*Protection against Domestic Violence* (2005) in Bulgaria, courts may issue an emergency or regular protection order based solely upon the complainant/survivor’s application and evidence.

### **3.10.8. Issues specific to protection orders in cases of domestic violence**

#### **3.10.8.1. Mutual protection orders and citations for provocative behaviour not to be included in legislation**

##### **Recommendation**

Legislation should:

- not grant authority to State officials to cite survivors for “provocative behaviour”; and
- not authorize State officials to issue mutual orders for protection.

##### **Commentary**

Legislation in some countries allows police to issue a warning to a complainant/survivor of violence if she has allegedly committed “provocative behaviour”. Experience has shown that courts are unlikely to grant the complainant/survivor a protection order if she has been cited for “provocative behaviour”. As a result, advocates in countries where such provisions exist, including the Ukraine, are currently proposing amendments to such clauses.

In the United States of America, some judges presented with a complainant/survivor’s application for a protection order have issued mutual protection orders that restrict the conduct of both parties. These orders imply that both the complainant/survivor and the perpetrator are equally at fault and liable for violations, and can create ongoing legal problems for the complainant/survivor. While legislation discourages the granting of mutual protection orders, some judges continue to grant them.

#### **3.10.8.2. Addressing child custody in protection order proceedings**

##### **Recommendation**

Legislation should include the following provisions regarding child custody and visitation in protection order proceedings:

- presumption against award of custody to the perpetrator;
- presumption against unsupervised visitation by the perpetrator;
- requirement that, prior to supervised visitation being granted, the perpetrator must show that at least three months has passed since the most recent act of violence, that he has stopped using any form of violence, and that he is participating in a treatment programme for perpetrators; and
- no visitation rights are to be granted against the will of the child.

## Commentary

In many countries, violent offenders have used custody of children as a way to continue to abuse and gain access to survivors. In Georgia, the Law on Elimination of Domestic Violence, Protection of and Support to its Victims (2006) authorizes courts to consider the safety of the child in custody decisions in protection order proceedings. In Bulgaria, courts may temporarily relocate “the residence of the child with the parent who is the victim or with the parent who has not carried out the violent act at stake”. Section 28 of the Philippines Anti-Violence against Women and their Children Act (2004) provides that “the woman victim of violence shall be entitled to the custody and support of her child/children and “in no case shall custody of minor children be given to the perpetrator of a woman who is suffering from battered woman syndrome”.

Experience in some countries and cases suggests that custody decisions in protection order proceedings should be temporary and permanent custody issues should be dealt with only in divorce proceedings or family court. An alternative view is that courts deciding custody matters in protection order cases have a better understanding of domestic violence than courts deciding custody in the context of divorce or other family law matters, and should therefore be granted power to make permanent custody orders. Further recommendations regarding how to address child custody in family law proceedings are contained in part 10 of the framework.

### ***3.10.9. Criminal offence of violation of a protection order***

#### **Recommendation**

Legislation should:

- criminalize violations of protection orders.

## Commentary

In countries where legislation does not criminalize the violation of a civil protection order, prosecutors and police have expressed frustration about their inability to arrest the perpetrator. In Spain, any violation of a protection order is criminalized and, when a protection order is violated, the survivor is entitled to a full hearing on whether aspects of the protection order should be amended, including the distance the perpetrator must keep away from the survivor, the duration of the protection order, or the use of electronic devices to track the perpetrator. In case of severe risk or great harm, the offender may be put in precautionary pre-trial detention. Violation of a protection order is a criminal offence under section 17 of the South African *Domestic Violence Act* (1998). When a court issues a protection order under that Act, it also issues a warrant for the arrest of the respondent which is suspended subject to compliance with the order. The *Domestic Violence Crime and Victims Act* (2004) of the United Kingdom specifically criminalizes breach of a protection order, and in Turkey, a perpetrator who violates a protection order may be sentenced to prison for three to six months. Under the Philippines *Anti-Violence*

against Women and their Children Act (2004), violation of a protection order is a criminal offence punishable by a fine and/or six months imprisonment. Some countries, such as Bulgaria, are in the process of considering amendments to existing legislation to criminalize violations.

### **3.11. Sentencing**

#### ***3.11.1. Consistency of sentencing with the gravity of the crime committed***

##### **Recommendation**

Legislation should provide that:

- sentences should be commensurate with the gravity of crimes of violence against women; and
- sentencing guidelines should be developed to ensure consistency in sentencing outcomes.

##### **Commentary**

Sentences imposed in cases of violence against women within countries have varied, been inconsistent and often informed by discriminatory attitudes held by justice officials regarding complainants/survivors of violence against women. Efforts have been undertaken to reduce sentencing discrepancies and to ensure that sentences in cases of violence against women are commensurate with the gravity of the crime committed. Experience shows that the introduction of sentencing guidelines may contribute to the normalization of sentences imposed in cases of violence against women. In the United Kingdom, the Sentencing Guidelines Council finalized Sentencing Guidelines on the *Sexual Offences Act* (2003) in 2007. Mandatory minimum sentences have been implemented in a number of countries in an attempt to reduce sentencing discrepancies. However, experience varies regarding their efficacy and deterrent value.

#### ***3.11.2. Removal of exceptions and reductions in sentencing***

##### **Recommendation**

Legislation should remove provisions which:

- provide reduced penalties and/or exculpate perpetrators in cases of so-called honour crimes;
- exculpate a perpetrator of violence if he subsequently marries the survivor; and
- provide for the imposition of lesser penalties in cases involving particular ‘types’ of women, such as sex workers or non-virgins.

##### **Commentary**

Legislation on violence against women in many countries continues to contain provisions which absolve and/or provide lesser sentences for perpetrators of violence against women in certain circumstances. For example, some penal codes contain provisions which state



that if a perpetrator marries the survivor of sexual violence, the perpetrator will not be liable for the crime. Many penal codes contain provisions which provide for the imposition of lesser penalties in cases of so-called honour crimes.

A number of countries have taken action to remove such provisions from their penal codes. For example, in 2003, article 462 of the Penal Code of Turkey, which previously granted sentence reductions to a person killing or wounding a family member who had committed adultery, was deleted. In 1994, Brazil amended its Penal Code by Law 8.930 so as to remove sections VII and VIII of Article 107, and in 2006 Uruguay amended article 116 of its Penal Code, each of which had exculpated perpetrators who married the survivor of sexual violence.

### ***3.11.3. Enhanced sanctions for repeated/aggravated offence of domestic violence***

#### **Recommendation**

Legislation should provide for:

- increasingly severe sanctions for repeated incidents of domestic violence, regardless of the level of injury; and
- increased sanctions for multiple violations of protection orders.

#### **Commentary**

Repeated incidents of domestic violence are common and, when the same penalty is applied for each assault, the deterrent effect is questionable. In the United States of America and some countries in Europe, more severe penalties for repeated incidents have proven to be effective. The Swedish ‘Kvinnofrid’ reform package of 1998 introduced a new offence, “gross violation of a woman’s integrity”, into the Criminal Code to address situations where a man repeatedly commits certain criminal acts against a woman with whom he is or has been married or cohabiting. The offence is punishable by imprisonment of no less than six months and at most six years. Section 215a of the Czech Republic Criminal Code provides for enhanced penalties in cases of repeated domestic violence. New amendments to laws in the United States of America provide that judges can grant protection orders that last for 50 years when a survivor has had two previous protection orders against the abuser or when the abuser has violated a protection order on two occasions.

### ***3.11.4. Considerations in imposition of fines in cases of domestic violence***

#### **Recommendation**

Legislation should state that:

- fines should not be imposed in cases of domestic violence if doing so would cause financial hardship to the survivor and/or her children; and
- when fines are imposed, they should be combined with treatment and supervision of the perpetrator through probation.

### **Commentary**

In many cases of violence against women, the perpetrator may be sentenced, in criminal proceedings, or ordered, in civil proceedings, to pay a fine. A fine is an amount of money paid by the perpetrator to the State for a breach of either criminal or civil law. The imposition of fines on perpetrators of domestic violence has been noted to potentially burden the survivor and therefore constitute an inappropriate form of punishment for the perpetrator. For this reason, some countries, such as Spain, have excluded the imposition of fines for this kind of offence. In addition, experience has suggested that fines are not a sufficient form of punishment to change the behaviour of the perpetrator.

#### ***3.11.5. Restitution and compensation for survivors***

##### **Recommendation**

Legislation should:

- provide that sentences in criminal cases may order the payment of compensation and restitution from the perpetrator to the survivor;
- state that while compensation may be an element in penalizing perpetrators of violence against women, it should not substitute for other penalties, such as imprisonment; and
- make provision for the creation of a Government-sponsored compensation programme, which entitles survivors of violence against women to apply and receive a fair amount of compensation.

### **Commentary**

An aspect of sentencing which has not been fully utilized is the possibility of requiring the perpetrator to pay compensation to the survivor. However, an increasing number of countries are enacting legislation that allows for the award of compensation in criminal cases, such as article 11 of the Guatemalan *Law against Femicide and other Forms of Violence against Women* (2008) which provides reparation proportional to the damage caused by the violence; and the United Kingdom's *Criminal Injuries Compensation Act* (1995). In Spain, a special fund for survivors of violent crimes and crimes against sexual freedom was established by the *Act Concerning Aid and Assistance to Victims of Violent Crimes and Crimes against Sexual Freedom* (1995).

#### ***3.11.6. Intervention programmes for perpetrators and alternative sentencing***

##### **Recommendation**

Legislation should:

- provide that intervention programmes for perpetrators may be prescribed in sentencing and mandate that the operators of such programmes work in close cooperation with complainant/survivor service providers;

- clarify that the use of alternative sentencing, including sentences in which the perpetrator is mandated to attend an intervention programme for perpetrators and no other penalty is imposed, are to be approached with serious caution and only handed down in instances where there will be continuous monitoring of the sentence by justice officials and women's non-governmental organizations to ensure the complainant/survivor's safety and the effectiveness of the sentence; and
- mandate careful review and monitoring of intervention programmes for perpetrators and alternative sentencing involving women's non-governmental organizations and complainant/survivors.

### **Commentary**

Alternative sentencing refers to all sentences and punishment other than prison incarceration, including community service and/or the requirement that the perpetrator attend an intervention programme for perpetrators. An increasing number of countries provide for the option of a sentence mandating that a perpetrator attend an intervention programme for perpetrators either in addition to, or in substitution for, other penalties. While there have been some positive experiences with such programmes, service providers for survivors have emphasized that, where limited funding is available, services for survivors should be prioritized over programmes for perpetrators, and that such sentences should only be imposed following an assessment to ensure that there will be no risk to the safety of the survivor. Articles 11 to 20 of the Costa Rican *Criminalization of Violence against Women Law* (2007) provide detailed instructions on when alternative sentences may be imposed and the alternatives available. In Spain, the *Organic Act on Integrated Protection Measures against Gender Violence* (2004) provides the possibility of suspension or substitution of other penalties in cases of violence against women, when the possible jail penalty would be less than two years. In cases where the sentence is suspended, the perpetrator is obliged to participate in an intervention programme. Experience has highlighted the importance of instituting well-developed programmes in order to ensure that the survivor remains safe and the perpetrator benefits from the programme. The United Kingdom has had positive experiences with the Integrated Domestic Abuse Programme as an option in sentencing. The programme runs for 26 weeks and is focused on getting perpetrators to accept responsibility for their behaviour and commit to altering their behaviour and attitudes. Accredited programmes must be associated with an organization supporting survivors, so that there is feedback from the survivor regarding whether the violence is continuing.

## **3.12. Civil lawsuits**

### **3.12.1. Civil lawsuits against perpetrators**

#### **Recommendation**

Legislation should:

- permit complainants/survivors of violence against women to bring civil lawsuits against perpetrators; and
- abolish requirements forbidding women to bring lawsuits against a husband or other family member, or requiring the consent of a husband or other family member in order for a woman to bring a lawsuit.

### **Commentary**

Civil lawsuits are a valuable supplement or alternative to criminal prosecution, civil protection orders, and other available legal remedies. Depending on the facts of the case and the law of the jurisdiction, the forms of relief available to successful plaintiffs in civil lawsuits may include compensatory damages, punitive damages, declaratory and injunctive relief, and a court order requiring the defendant to pay the prevailing plaintiff's attorney fees. In many legal systems, civil actions have advantages over criminal actions. Civil cases are governed by a lower burden of proof than criminal cases, complainants/survivors have control over the action, and some complainants/survivors consider the types of relief granted in a successful civil lawsuit more helpful than incarceration of the perpetrator. In the United States of America, recent doctrinal changes have made it easier for domestic violence complainants/survivors to bring civil suits against perpetrators. Some states have extended the statute of limitations for domestic violence claims and the ancient common law doctrine of inter-spousal tort immunity, which prohibited one spouse from suing the other, has been abandoned in most states.

### **3.12.2. Civil lawsuits against third parties**

#### **Recommendation**

Legislation should allow:

- complainants/survivors of violence against women to bring lawsuits against governmental or non-governmental individuals and entities that have not exercised due diligence to prevent, investigate or punish the violence; and
- lawsuits on the basis of anti-discrimination and/or civil rights laws.

### **Commentary**

Law suits against third parties provide an additional opportunity to hold government agencies and other institutions accountable for violence against women, and may also present a source of monetary compensation for the survivor. In the case of *Chairman Railway Board v. Chandrima Das* (MANU/SC/0046/2000), the Indian Supreme Court affirmed the unprecedented award of 10,000,000 rupees to a Bangladeshi survivor of rape by railway officials in West Bengal as compensation for the violation of the woman's fundamental right to life and equality under the Indian Constitution, irrespective of her foreign citizenship. In the case of *Thurman v. City of Torrington*, (595 F. Supp. 1521 D. Conn. 1984) a plaintiff sued the city of Torrington, Connecticut, in the United States of America, alleging that police officers repeatedly ignored her complaints about violence by her estranged husband and even stood by and watched as he brutally attacked her and

was awarded US \$2.3 million in damages by the jury. Following the case, many police departments strengthened their policies on responding to domestic violence.

A subset of civil lawsuits against perpetrators or third parties consists of lawsuits brought under anti-discrimination or civil rights laws. Depending on the law of the jurisdiction, anti-discrimination or civil rights laws may authorize criminal actions, civil actions, or both. Such lawsuits place acts of violence against women in the larger context of systemic gender inequality and make it clear that women have a right to equality as well as a right to physical safety. Violence against women is recognized in the law as a form of discrimination in several countries, including the South African *Promotion of Equality and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Ac.*, The New Zealand *Human Rights Act* (1993) defines sexual harassment as a form of discrimination and a violation of women's human rights. In the United States of America, some states and localities permit complainants/survivors of gender-based violence to file a lawsuit for the violation of their civil rights.

### 3.13. Family law

#### **Recommendation**

Legislation should guarantee the following and amend all relevant provisions in family law to reflect this:

- divorce from a violent husband and adequate alimony to women and children;
- the survivor's right to stay in the family dwelling after divorce;
- social insurance and pension rights of survivors who divorce the perpetrator;
- expedited distribution of property, and other relevant procedures;
- careful screening of all custody and visitation cases so as to determine whether there is a history of violence;
- a statutory presumption against awarding child custody to a perpetrator;
- availability, in appropriate cases, of professionally run supervised visitation centres;
- a survivor of violence who has acted in self-defence, or fled in order to avoid further violence, should not be classified as a perpetrator, or have a negative inference drawn against her, in custody and visitation decisions; and
- child abuse and neglect proceedings should target the perpetrators of violence and recognize that the protection of children is often best achieved by protecting their mothers.

#### **Commentary**

Protection from domestic violence and the right to a life free from violence should be a principle not only in legislation on violence against women but also in all relevant areas of family and divorce law. An award of child custody to a perpetrator of violence against women poses a danger to both the adult survivor and the child. The need for ongoing contact after separation to make custody and visitation arrangements is often used by the perpetrator to continue abuse of the survivor.

In the United States of America, Congress unanimously passed a resolution in 1990 urging every state to adopt a statutory presumption against awarding custody to a parent who has committed domestic violence. Some countries require that a third party oversee the exchange of children at the beginning and end of visitation by the perpetrator. However, a number of issues with this approach are apparent. Even where supervised visitation centres are available, as is the case in the United States of America, and in European countries, such as Spain and the United Kingdom, they are expensive to establish and operate and the quality of such centres is inconsistent. Furthermore, supervised visitation does not eliminate the risk that the perpetrator will use visitation as an opportunity to harm the survivor and/or her child.

In child abuse and neglect proceedings, adult survivors of violence are sometimes blamed for exposing their children to domestic violence. In the United States of America, representatives of domestic violence organizations and child protective services agencies collaborated on writing a set of recommendations directed at courts, community organizations, and others in order to protect the safety and well-being of both women and children. An evaluation showed some improvements in awareness and practices concerning domestic violence at child welfare agencies in communities that had received federal funding to implement the recommendations; however, institutional change was difficult to achieve and sustain.

### 3.14. Asylum law

#### **Recommendation**

Legislation should:

- provide that violence against women may constitute persecution and that complainants/survivors of such violence should constitute “a particular social group” for the purposes of asylum law.

#### **Commentary**

Survivors of violence should be eligible for asylum under appropriate circumstances. Positive developments in jurisprudence have increasingly acknowledged that violence against women is a basis for the granting of asylum. For example, in 1999 the English House of Lords made a landmark decision in relation to a claim of asylum based on domestic violence. The case of *R v Immigration Appeal Tribunal; Ex Parte Shah* [1999] 2 AC 629 dealt with the claims of two married Pakistani women who were forced by their husbands to leave their homes and were at risk of being falsely accused of adultery in Pakistan. The House of Lords granted the two women asylum on the basis that they were a member of a particular social group which, at its broadest, could be classified as Pakistani women who are discriminated against and as a group unprotected by the State. In the *Matter of Fauziya Kassinja*, 21 I. & N. Dec. 357, Interim Decision 3278, 1996 WL 379826 (Board of Immigration Appeals 1996), the United States of America Department

of Justice Board of Immigration Appeals granted asylum to a woman who had fled from Togo to avoid being subjected to female genital mutilation. However, this reasoning has not been consistently applied by the courts in the United States of America to all cases of gender-based violence.

#### **4. CHECKLIST OF STEPS TO BE TAKEN WHEN DRAFTING LEGISLATION ON VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN**

##### **Step 1: Define the legislative goal**

At the beginning of any legislative process a clear legislative goal must be defined. The goal of legislation on violence against women should be to prevent violence against women, to ensure investigation, prosecution and punishment of perpetrators, and to provide protection and support for complainants/survivors of violence.

##### **Step 2: Consult with relevant stakeholders**

Inclusive consultation with all stakeholders who are either affected by or will implement legislation is a key element of the preparatory process. It ensures that the realities of women who experience violence are accurately portrayed and that the legislative response is appropriate. It also enhances the potential for legislation to be implemented effectively. The following non-exhaustive list of stakeholders provides a guide as to who should be consulted in the development of legislation on violence against women:

- survivors/complainants;
- non-governmental organizations that work on violence against women, including those with experience on violence against particular groups of women, such as indigenous, immigrant, disabled, or ethnic minority women;
- providers of services to survivors/complainants;
- government departments, including all national mechanisms for the advancement of women;
- national human rights institutions;
- police and other law enforcement personnel;
- prosecutors;
- judges;
- lawyers/bar associations;
- healthcare professionals;
- forensics personnel;
- social work/counselling providers;
- teachers and other personnel of education systems;
- national statistical offices;
- prison officials;
- religious and community leaders;
- media personnel.



□ **Step 3: Adopt an evidence-based approach to legislative drafting**

An evidence-based approach ensures that the development and design of legislation is well-informed, and can enhance the quality and potential future effectiveness of legislation. Legislation should be prepared drawing on reliable evidence including data and research on the scope, prevalence and incidence of all forms of violence against women, on the causes and consequences of such violence, and on lessons learned and good practices from other countries in preventing and addressing violence against women.