Gender Based Violence as a Continuum of Human Rights Violations in Russia and the Czech Republic

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Gender-based violence as a continuum of human rights violations in Russia and the Czech Republic

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Table of Contents

1. Abstract

2. Chapter 1 Introduction

3. Chapter 2 Review of the Literature: How my research adds to the field

4. Chapter 3 Human Trafficking

5. Chapter 4 Domestic Violence

6. Chapter 5 Gender-based Violence in Russia

7. Chapter 6 Gender-based Violence in the Czech Republic

8. Chapter 7 Government Response to Gender-based Violence in Russia and the Czech Republic
   - Prosecution
   - Protection
   - Prevention

9. Chapter 8 Conclusion
   - Policy recommendations for Russia

10. Bibliography

11. Annex 1

12. Annex 2

13. Annex 3

14. Annex 4

15. Annex 5
Abstract

Gender-based violence can take various forms – physical, sexual, psychological, and economic. Violence against women is a global public health problem and not only violates human rights, but also hampers productivity, reduces human capital, and undermines economic growth. Since the collapse of the Soviet Union in 1991, human trafficking for sexual exploitation and domestic violence have become a significant problem in post-communist countries. The fall of the Soviet Union also shaped national gender policies in post-communist countries. Despite the common challenges they face, success in implementing anti-trafficking procedures and measures against domestic violence varies from country to country.

According to the U.S. Department of State annual reports, Russia has been recognized as a country with an extremely low level of government effort to eliminate human trafficking since 2005. In June 2013, Russia was downgraded to the lowest possible Tier 3 ranking, which means that it might be subjected to certain sanctions. Russia is identified as a country of origin, transit, and destination for both victims of sex and labor trafficking. On the contrary, the Czech Republic has been ranked in Tier 1 before 2011 and again for three years in a row since 2012 which is a rare high ranking for a former post-communist country.

Annually over fourteen thousand women in Russia are murdered by their current or former intimate partners. It literally means that every two hours three women in Russia die because of domestic violence. Despite alarming statistics, federal legislation to combat domestic violence is lacking in Russia. In a contrast, the Czech government introduced a comprehensive multilevel mechanism of protection of victims of domestic
violence. Through comparison of policies against human trafficking and domestic violence in Russia and the Czech Republic, I attempt to evaluate recognition of gender-based violence and a strategy for fighting it in selected countries.
Chapter 1 Introduction

Violence against women can take various forms – physical, sexual, psychological, and economic. The United Nations Declaration on Elimination of Violence against Women defines violence against women as any act of gender-based violence that results in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or in private life.¹

Violence against women is a global public health problem and not only violates human rights, particularly a right to bodily integrity², but also hampers productivity, reduces human capital, and undermines economic growth.³ Gender-based violence includes domestic violence, forced marriage, dowry-related killings, human trafficking, and violence against women in humanitarian and conflict settings. Physical violence might appear in extreme forms such as female genital mutilation, wife inheritance, the practice when a widow marries a kinsman of her husband, often his brother, and sati, the practice of burning a widow on the funeral pyre of her husband.⁴

In this thesis, I will examine human trafficking and domestic violence in the post-communist Europe, with an emphasis on Russia and the Czech Republic. Since the collapse of the Soviet Union in 1991, human trafficking for sexual exploitation and domestic violence have become a significant problem in post-communist countries. The

³ UN Women - Concept Note: Prevention of Violence against Women and Girls, 8 May 2013, p. 5
fall of the Soviet Union also shaped national gender policies in post-communist countries. Despite the common challenges they face, success in implementing anti-trafficking procedures and measures against domestic violence varies from country to country.

According to the U.S. Department of State annual reports, Russia has been recognized as a country with an extremely low level of government effort to eliminate human trafficking since 2005. In June 2013, Russia was downgraded to the lowest possible Tier 3 ranking\(^5\), which means that it might be subjected to certain sanctions. Russia is identified as a country of origin, transit, and destination for both victims of sex and labor trafficking. On the contrary, the Czech Republic has been ranked in Tier 1 before 2011 and again for three years in a row since 2012 which is a rare high ranking for a former post-communist country.

Annually over fourteen thousand women in Russia are murdered by their current or former intimate partners.\(^6\) It literally means that every two hours three women in Russia die because of domestic violence. Despite alarming statistics, federal legislation to combat domestic violence is lacking in Russia. In a contrast, the Czech government introduced a comprehensive multilevel mechanism of protection of victims of domestic violence. Through comparison of policies against human trafficking and domestic violence in Russia and the Czech Republic, I attempt to evaluate recognition of gender-based violence and a strategy for fighting it in selected countries.


\(^6\) Концепция (Обоснование) необходимости принятия федерального закона «О предупреждении и профилактике семейно-бытового насилия» и внесении изменений в федеральное законодательство, стр. 1 (Rationale behind adoption of the federal law on prevention of domestic violence and making changes to the current federal legislation, p. 1)
I argue that Russia has one of the worst records in the world on sex trafficking and domestic violence which are a continuum of gender-based human rights violations, and I also argue that the Russian government would be able to put an end to violence if it prioritizes respect for human rights as it was done in the Czech Republic.

To begin with, I will define human trafficking and domestic violence and the scope of the problem in the world, in the region, and in selected countries. Moreover, I will research the historical background of gender-based violence and look into existing international and national anti-trafficking and domestic violence legislation in Russia and the Czech Republic. I will examine what has been done by the political leadership to tackle human trafficking and domestic violence, focusing on the “3 P’s”: suspect’s prosecution, victim’s protection, as well as trafficking and domestic violence prevention. Finally, I will make suggestions on measures to be implemented in order to reduce human trafficking and domestic violence in Russia.

Structures of the paper/Questions about the topic:

- Definitions - What is human trafficking and what is domestic violence?
- Overview of trafficking for sexual exploitation and domestic violence in the world, in the region, in Russia, and the Czech Republic. Statistics, reasons, routes, patterns;
- Historical background of gender-based violations in Russia and the Czech Republic;
- Recognition of the problem in Russia and the Czech Republic: prosecution, protection, prevention;
- What can be done to improve the situation in Russia? – Policy recommendations.
In order to test my hypothesis, I rely on data provided in the Trafficking in Persons Reports issued annually by the U.S. Department of State’s Office to Monitor and Combat Trafficking in Persons since 2000. In addition, I analyze information collected by international organizations such as the United Nations, Amnesty International, Human Rights Watch, International Organization of Migration, as well as by Russian-based nonprofits such as ANNA National Center of Prevention of Violence, MiraMed, Angel Coalition and Czech-based nonprofits such as ROSA and DONA. As a part of my methodology, I observed global contexts such as 2014 Commission on the Status of Women in New York. In my research, I will also rely on information provided by Joy Ziegeweid, attorney at Sanctuary for Families, who works with Russian-speaking victims of human trafficking in New York and who was awarded the fellowship to research gender equality in Russia in March 2014 within the US-Russia Social Expertise Exchange.
Chapter 2 Review of the Literature: How my research adds to the field

One of the authors I will appeal to in my thesis research is Janet Elise Johnson, an Associate Professor of Political Science and Women’s Studies at Brooklyn College, City University of New York and an expert on gender-based violence in the post-communist countries, with an emphasis on Russia.

In *Gender Violence in Russia: The Politics of Feminist Intervention* Johnson raises a question of whether foreign intervention can help women in Russia live free from gender violence. In this context, she addresses three questions: whether intervention fosters women’s mobilization and activism, cultivates a public awareness of violence against women, and shifts policy and practice toward recognizing violence against women as a human rights violation. To test her argument, she compares various types of intervention into three different gender violence issues: sexual assault, domestic violence, and trafficking in women from the early 1990s until 2007. Through examination of different types of intervention, she comes to the conclusion that foreign intervention into sexual assault was carried out by transnational feminist networks allied with human rights organizations; intervention into domestic violence added foreign assistance from international donors; intervention into trafficking in women was initiated by the United States and other Western countries through diplomatic pressure and threats of economic sanctions.

The analysis shows that foreign financial assistance contributes to greater awareness of gender violence and more responsiveness, as well as that achieving global feminist objectives is more likely when transnational and local activists are both involved in the intervention process.
Johnson argues that Russian patriarchal heritage is not a reason for the widespread violence against women and the lack of state response in the country. On the contrary, one of the key reasons is the Soviet legacy where ignorance of domestic violence by the authorities and the police originated. The Soviet housing system, regulated through a system of residential permits (propiski) instead of property ownership, and lack of apartments\(^7\) aggravate the problem. The author underlines that the implicit marginalization of women and the explicit sexism at high political levels illustrate the obstacles that face activists combating gender violence in Russia.\(^8\)

The article “Twenty-First-Century Feminisms under Repression: Gender Regime Change and the Women’s Crisis Center Movement in Russia” by Janet Elise Johnson and Aino Saarinen examines the evolution of feminist activism under the semi-authoritarian regime of Vladimir Putin in Russia. The authors focus on the women’s crisis center movement as the most recognizable example of feminist activism in post-communist Russia.

Looking at the nature of Putin’s regime, Johnson and Saarinen argue that the patriarchal gender ideology was fostered after the collapse of the Soviet Union. It was accompanied by the shift in masculinism which presented challenges for women’s activism. According to the authors, women’s crisis centers, besides providing social services, also advocate for social and political change. Indeed, most of them were established with the help of Western activists. However, under Putin’s regime the ability of women’s rights activists to accept international funding became limited, and governmental crisis centers were created. As a result of the inhospitable regulatory

\(^7\) Janet Elise Johnson, *Gender Violence in Russia*, p. 24

\(^8\) Ibid, preface
environment and the decreased donor support, the women’s crisis center movement was reduced to one-half of its previous size\(^9\), while the governmental centers started playing a greater role.

In this context, the shift in competency of crisis centers is explored as well. The research conducted through the questionnaire revealed that a majority of women’s crisis centers decreased their political activities such as lobbying political decision makers and launching political campaigns. In a contrast, most of them worked in collaboration with local or regional authorities to provide social services and to conduct awareness campaigns in the media. However, the prevalence of the governmental centers led to the gender-neutral approach to domestic violence that recognizes violence against women as a part of family conflicts, not gender-based inequality.\(^10\) It is noteworthy that women’s crisis centers and governmental centers tend to provide counseling on different subjects. For instance, governmental centers focus on counseling on alcohol, while women’s crisis centers consult on sex trafficking.

Olga Avdeyeva in the article “When Do States Comply with International Treaties: Policies on Violence against Women in Post-Communist Countries” endeavors to evaluate the impact of international human rights law on national gender policies in post-communist countries. It is argued that states’ formal ratification of international human rights treaties does not necessary lead to the improvement of states’ human rights practices.\(^11\) In order to test her argument, Avdeyeva examines the government's

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\(^9\) Janet Elise Johnson and Aino Saarinen, “Twenty-First-Century Feminisms under Repression: Gender Regime Change and the Women’s Crisis Center Movement in Russia,” *Signs*, vol. 38, no.3, 2013, p. 553

\(^10\) Ibid, p. 561

compliance with the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) and the Beijing Platform for Action provisions on violence against women in 25 post-communist states. The government’s compliance was assessed along three sets of criteria: institutional supervision, legislation change, and the implementation of several policy components, namely provision of training, awareness-raising campaigns, and support of non-governmental organizations (NGOs). The analysis reveals that compliance with these treaties is not typical for the post-communist countries and was achieved in some of them under social pressure.

In this context, three mechanisms of social influence on states are explored: coercion, persuasion, and acculturation. According to the principles of coercion, recognized under the realist and neoliberal theory, states ratify and comply with only those international agreements they find beneficial. However, taking into consideration that many repressive states ratify international human rights treaties and do not change their repressive practices, Avdeyeva suggests that coercion does not provide a sufficient explanation to why states ratify treaties that they do not have the capacity or interest in enforcing.\textsuperscript{12} Coercion, in the form of externally imposed material sanctions and incentives, leads to high level and low durability of state’s compliance with international law. The mechanism of persuasion, emphasized by constructivism, does not explain why states ratify treaties that they do not normatively accept\textsuperscript{13} and induces highly durable compliance with the norms of international law only in case of the norm’s acceptance. Finally, under the logic of acculturation, which implies that states as social actors are driven by cognitive pressures to form associational ties with each other, they are not

\begin{flushleft}
\textsuperscript{12} Ibid, p. 880
\textsuperscript{13} Ibid, p. 881
\end{flushleft}
obliged to act upon the norms externally imposed on them. Acculturation also illustrates how and why states that are vulnerable to social pressure could be brought into compliance with international treaties they have ratified.\textsuperscript{14}

In my thesis research, I also refer to \textit{Trafficking (In)Justice: Law Enforcement’s Response to Human Trafficking in Russia} by Lauren A. McCarthy. Assistant Professor of Political Science in Legal Studies at University of Massachusetts Amherst, she focuses on “street-level bureaucrats”, namely police and prosecutors, and argues that they are prosecuting human traffickers, but not human trafficking.\textsuperscript{15} To put it differently, human trafficking cases in Russia are being investigated under statues covering prostitution and related crimes, instead of Criminal Code articles specifically on human trafficking laws passed in 2003. McCarthy emphasizes conservatism of Russian law enforcement’s organizational culture and its resistance to change existing practices.\textsuperscript{16} According to McCarthy, Russian system of law enforcement promotion and assessment discourages officials to investigate human trafficking cases. Because the promotion is based on the number of opened and closed cases, investigators seem to be unwilling to open a case unless they feel like they can close it. The older generation agents who are established and are not focused on career advancement tend to be more interested in trying out the human trafficking laws rather than the younger agents who hesitate to take risks on uncertain cases.\textsuperscript{17} The younger agents are also unlikely to investigate more complex crimes. McCarthy examines the historical background of passing the law on human

\textsuperscript{14} Ibid, p. 882
\textsuperscript{15} Lauren A. McCarthy, \textit{Trafficking (In)Justice: Law Enforcement’s Response to Human Trafficking in Russia} (Ann Arbor: UMI, 2011), p. 3
\textsuperscript{16} Ibid, p. 160
\textsuperscript{17} Ibid, p. 159
trafficking, looks at the process of uncovering, investigating, and prosecuting a human trafficking case and comes to the conclusion that the behavior of police and prosecutors on human trafficking in Russia is largely shaped by organizational structure and division of law enforcement functions.

Although the topic of gender-based violence in post-communist countries, particularly in Russia, has been researched by many scholars, existing studies do not provide a comprehensive picture. To begin with, trafficking for sexual exploitation and domestic violence are usually examined as two unrelated issues. Existing studies on domestic violence in Russia are based on the outdated material. In my thesis, I refer to the survey that was conducted in Russia in 2010 which provides the first official statistical data on domestic violence in Russian families. Moreover, I examine trafficking for sexual exploitation and domestic violence in Russia as part of a larger phenomenon called gender-based violence and as a continuum of human rights violations. Through comparison of state’s responses to gender-based violence in Russia and the Czech Republic I argue that Russia could put an end to violence if it prioritizes respect for human rights as it was done in the Czech Republic.
Chapter 3 Human Trafficking

According to the United Nations Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, human trafficking is defined as:

the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harboring or receipt of persons, by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation. Exploitation shall include, at a minimum, the exploitation of the prostitution of others or other forms of sexual exploitation, forced labor or services, slavery or practices similar to slavery, servitude or the removal of organs.  

This Protocol which is also called the Palermo Protocol was adopted by the United Nations to supplement the Convention against Transnational Organized Crime in 2000 and currently serves as a key document to address human trafficking phenomenon at the international level. Palermo Protocol provides a comprehensive strategy and recommendations for signatory states based on the “3Ps”: protection, prevention, and prosecution and obligates them to implement their own domestic legislation. As follows from the definition, three elements are required in order for human trafficking to be identified: act, means, and purpose, unless individuals under age of 18 are involved when no means are required.

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19 Lauren A. McCarthy, Trafficking (In)Justice, p. 49
20 Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, p. 43
Human trafficking is often referred to as the “modern day slave trade” and “white slavery”.21

It is important to differentiate human trafficking from smuggling of migrants. Both smuggling and trafficking are forms of irregular migration. The main difference is that smuggling involves crossing international borders illegally by voluntarily using services of smugglers which leads to perpetrating a crime against the state.22 Moreover, smuggled individuals are considered violators of immigration law and subject to arrest and deportation, while trafficked persons are victims and in some countries are entitled to special protection. As opposed to smuggled individuals, trafficked persons are not able to exercise self-determination and find themselves in a situation of exploitation. However, smuggled individuals who reside illegally in the country can eventually become victims of human trafficking.

Although in this thesis I focus on international trafficking, internal or domestic trafficking occurs as well and is often more frequent than international trafficking.23 Since human trafficking takes place over a period of time, it should be viewed as a process that consists of a number of stages such as recruitment, transportation, exploitation of a victim, victim’s disposal, and laundering of criminal proceeds.24 During these stages different criminal activities take place against individuals and states. The first four stages impact a victim through crimes that include but are not limited to fraud, forced prostitution, violence, extortion, deprivation of liberty, theft of documents, assault,

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21 Lauren A. McCarthy, *Trafficking (In)Justice*, p. 7
23 Ibid, p. 7
24 Ibid, p. 9
rape, and murder.\textsuperscript{25} Crimes against the state that are committed throughout the process of human trafficking include document forgery, government corruption, money laundering, and tax evasion.\textsuperscript{26}

Factors that drive migration can be divided into two groups: “push” and “pull” factors.\textsuperscript{27} Push factors consist of the reasons why people leave their country of origin. Migration traditionally takes place from developing countries and countries in a state of transition to developed countries with more stable economies. Push factors include:\textsuperscript{28}

- Inadequate employment opportunities, combined with poor living conditions, a lack of basic education, and poor health services;
- Political and economic insecurity;
- Discrimination; and
- Dissolution of the family which may compel the remaining family member(s) to migrate or send children away to work and help support the family.

Pull factors consist of the reasons which make certain countries of destination more attractive than others. Pull factors include:\textsuperscript{29}

- Increased ease of travel;
- Higher salaries and standard of living;
- Established migration routes and ethnic, national communities in destination countries;

\textsuperscript{25} Ibid
\textsuperscript{27} Alexis A. Aronowitz, Human Trafficking, p. 11
\textsuperscript{29} ibid
• Active demand for migrant workers in destination countries combined with the existence of recruitment agencies and persons willing to facilitate jobs and travel; and

• High expectations of opportunities in other countries boosted by global media and Internet access and stories of returning migrants or those whose families have profited from the remittances.

Due to the clandestine nature of human trafficking, the statistics identifying trafficked victims are not reliable and accurate measures of the phenomenon.\textsuperscript{30} The available statistics underrepresent the magnitude of the problem. According to Forced Labor Statistics and the International Labor Organization, there are 21 million victims of forced labor with 4.5 million victims of forced sexual exploitation.\textsuperscript{31} In 2007, the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) conducted, in the framework of the United Nations Global Initiative to Fight Human Trafficking, a study which identified over 21,400 victims of human trafficking among 111 countries, reporting victim data for the 2006 year.\textsuperscript{32} Victims were identified through the criminal justice process and through victims’ assistance organizations. In the 52 countries where the form of exploitation was specified, sexual exploitation was the most commonly identified form of human trafficking at 79 percent.\textsuperscript{33}

Human trafficking is a form of economic activity aimed at generating a profit. Indeed, it is one of three most profitable industries of organized crime with an annual worldwide

\textsuperscript{30} Alexis A. Aronowitz, \textit{Human Trafficking}, p. 15
\textsuperscript{33} Ibid
profit estimated as USD 32 billion.\textsuperscript{34} It can be viewed as a business model that is based on the interaction between supply and demand. Like a supply chain of any business, human trafficking includes supplier (trafficker), assembly/manufacturing (preparation of a victim to perform his/her duties), service provider (victim offered for exploitation), and customer (employer/client).\textsuperscript{35}

Human trafficking is a multidimensional phenomenon. Besides the business perspective, it can be examined within the framework of migration, development, and globalization.\textsuperscript{36} It also can be studied from a law enforcement and criminal justice perspective focusing on the role of governments in preventing trafficking and punishing perpetrators or from a human rights perspective, which advocates for a victim-centered approach.\textsuperscript{37} In order to combat human trafficking efficiently, all perspectives should be taken into account.

Although anyone can become a victim of human trafficking, those in need are particularly vulnerable. In terms of the nature of exploitation, the United Nations has separated sexual exploitation from labor exploitation. Labor exploitation takes place predominantly in agricultural, construction, manufacturing sectors of economy, restaurants, and sweat shops.\textsuperscript{38} The additional forms of human trafficking are child

\textsuperscript{36} Alexis A. Aronowitz, Human Trafficking, p. 23
\textsuperscript{37} Ibid
\textsuperscript{38} International Labor Organization, “ILO 2012 Global Estimate of Forced Labor: Executive Summary”
trafficking in areas of armed conflicts, organ trafficking, trafficking for forced marriages, and illegal adoptions.  

According to the U.S. Department of State, 80 percent of victims of human trafficking are women and girls. Feminization of poverty and cultural practices in certain countries contribute to the vulnerability of women and girls being trafficked. For instance, in some Asian countries female children are less desirable and valuable. Girls are viewed as an economic liability because of the necessity to produce a dowry to the groom upon marriage. Moreover, since girls are expected to leave a parental family, they are more likely to be sent out to work, instead of going to school. Indeed, in Armenia, China, and India male child preference is so widespread that pre-natal sex selection takes place. The practice of child marriage which prevails in western, Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia makes girls marketable commodities. According to the International Center for Research on Women, “one third of the world’s girls are married before the age of 18, and 1 in 9 are married before the age of 15.” Being a form of gender-based violence itself, child marriage increases the likelihood of domestic violence and sexual abuse to be perpetrated against girl brides. In some African and South Asian countries the demand for young girls is caused by the myth that sex with a virgin can cure sexually transmitted diseases, including HIV/AIDS. In some African countries families are engaged in

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39 Alexis A. Aronowitz, *Human Trafficking*, p. 103
41 Alexis A. Aronowitz, *Human Trafficking*, p. 38
44 Ibid
vidomegon, a social practice of child fosterage whereby a child, usually a daughter, is sent to serve in a wealthy family.\textsuperscript{46} Traffickers often take advantage of cultural practices and buy children from poor parents who cannot afford to take care of them. In societies where sons are more appreciated than daughters, girls become a main target for traffickers. In South Asia they can find themselves in a situation of debt bondage when children are coerced to work to repay the debt of their family members. The debt usually passes down from one generation to another and can lead to enslavement of entire families.\textsuperscript{47}

Women and children are the most vulnerable to be trafficked because of their innocence and inability to protect themselves. Other factors contributing to the trafficking of women can be divided into “individual” and “outside” risk factors.\textsuperscript{48} The first group comprises such factors as poverty, lack of economic opportunities and education, physical and sexual abuse, family dissolution, and homelessness. The outside factors include gender discrimination, objectification of women, and the high demand for sexual services.

Besides physical abuses, victims of human trafficking often experience psychological violence from their traffickers. As a result, many of them become deeply traumatized and suffer from various symptoms such as anxiety, depression, post-traumatic stress disorders (PTSD), and eating disorders\textsuperscript{49}. In case of sexual exploitation, victims are particularly vulnerable to sexually transmitted diseases, including HIV/AIDS, unwanted pregnancies, and

\textsuperscript{46} Alexis A. Aronowitz, \textit{Human Trafficking}, p. 40
\textsuperscript{47} Ibid, p. 43
\textsuperscript{48} International Human Rights Law Institute, “In Modern Bondage: Sex Trafficking In The Americas - Central America and the Caribbean” (DePaul University College of Law, 2002).
and abortions. Moreover, victims have a high prevalence of suicidal thoughts and attempts.\textsuperscript{50} The stigmatized nature of sexual exploitation contributes to the development of mental health issues and complicates the process of reintegration into society. According to the International Organization of Migration (IOM), survivors of human trafficking experience life-long psychological trauma and only 30 percent of them fully recover to live a normal life.\textsuperscript{51} The study has been conducted to identify rates of anxiety, depression, and PTSD among survivors of sex trafficking, and results are alarming. Rates of anxiety (97.7) and depression (100 percent) are higher than among internally displaced persons during an armed conflict (90.3 percent, 88.5 percent, respectively).\textsuperscript{52}

In the prosecution process cooperation between survivors of human trafficking and justice authorities is essential. However, in reality survivors often fail to recognize their victimization and refuse assistance. Failure to identify themselves as victims of human trafficking can be caused by different reasons: fear of retaliation or violence against their families, social stigma or an attempt to protect a trafficker who they may have fallen in love with.\textsuperscript{53} In case of international trafficking, fear of being imprisoned or deported deters them from turning to the police and testifying against traffickers as well. In this context, it is crucial to ensure that survivors of human trafficking are entitled to special protection, including legal, medical, and psychological support.

A number of research projects trying to identify trafficking patterns and the profile of a trafficker have been conducted. It might be assumed that human trafficking is a male

\textsuperscript{50} Alexis A. Aronowitz, \textit{Human Trafficking}, p. 47
\textsuperscript{51} International Organization for Migration, “Human Trafficking in Persons: Moldova.” \url{http://www.iom.md/faq_ht.html}.
\textsuperscript{52} Atsuro Tsutsumi and Takashi Izutsu, “Mental health of female survivors of human trafficking in Nepal,” p. 1845.
\textsuperscript{53} Alexis A. Aronowitz, \textit{Human Trafficking}, p. 49
dominated crime industry. However, the data gathered by UNODC in 46 countries in 2012 demonstrates that women are involved in human trafficking not only as victims, but also as perpetrators.\textsuperscript{54} In Europe, for instance, the proportion of females convicted for human trafficking is higher than for other crimes combined.\textsuperscript{55} According to the International Organization of Migration’s Counter Trafficking Module database received from 78 countries between 1999 and 2006, 42 percent of the 9,646 sex recruiters were women.\textsuperscript{56} Based on roles women play as perpetrators and their independence from a leading trafficker, female offenders can be divided into three groups: “supporters, partners-in-crime, and madams.”\textsuperscript{57} This division was suggested by researchers in Netherlands according to a degree of female perpetrators’ independence and the content of their activities.\textsuperscript{58} Supporters were considered to be subordinate to the leading trafficker and execute orders voluntarily or under threat. Women were regarded partners-in-crime when they voluntarily cooperated with the leading trafficker on the basis of equality. Female offenders who played a central role and coordinated trafficking activities were identified as madams.

Female perpetrators are often represented by former victims. The majority of them are involved in the recruitment phase of trafficking which is characterized by engaging victims of the same ethnical background and nationality.\textsuperscript{59} At this stage the following


\textsuperscript{55} Ibid


\textsuperscript{58} Ibid, p. 440

\textsuperscript{59} Alexis A. Aronowitz, \textit{Human Trafficking}, p. 53
methods are used: advertisements, word of mouth, fraudulent promises of marriage, employment or educational opportunities.\textsuperscript{60} Sometimes family members or friends are involved in the recruitment stage of trafficking. During the next stage victims might be transported to a destination country with a legal visa received under false pretenses or through picture substitution in passport or with forged passport.\textsuperscript{61} Exploitation stage implies use of physical and psychological means to maintain control over a victim. Physical means include use of violence or threat against victim or family, public violence against non-compliant victims, and seizure of identification documents.\textsuperscript{62} Psychological means embrace creation of debt, trauma bonding through establishment of emotional dependence, use of voodoo practices in West African countries, provision of payments, and increased freedom to a victim.\textsuperscript{63} Although psychological means are less visible, their implication is increasing.\textsuperscript{64} Another pattern revealed by legal authorities and anti-trafficking organizations is so called “prostitution carrousel,” constant rotation of victims to provide new faces to the male clientele and prevent long-lasting relations between a victim and a customer.\textsuperscript{65}

As for a trafficking organization, it varies from a solo trafficker to large international networks.\textsuperscript{66} The larger trafficking organization is defined by the more stakeholders it includes. International trafficking networks are highly sophisticated and divided into subunits with particular expertise. They also feature flexible structure that allows them to

\begin{footnotes}
\item\textsuperscript{60} Ibid, p. 55
\item\textsuperscript{61} Ibid, p. 56
\item\textsuperscript{62} Ibid, p. 58
\item\textsuperscript{63} Ibid, pp. 59-60
\item\textsuperscript{65} Alexis A. Aronowitz, \textit{Human Trafficking}, pp. 60-61
\item\textsuperscript{66} Ibid, p. 65
\end{footnotes}
rapidly adjust to changes in legislation and new market opportunities, as well as cooperate with other criminal groups. New market opportunities may include a widespread use of the internet that has led to the growth of the mail-order bride market and simplified an outreach of potential victims and customers. Among those providing criminal services are investors, recruiters, transporters, informers, guides, enforcers, debt collectors, money launderers, and supporting personnel.\textsuperscript{67} Besides traffickers, victims, and a number of intermediaries, there are often governmental officials involved. Corruption is one of the most important cost factors for traffickers.\textsuperscript{68} Corruption can be proactive when governmental officials, for example, are involved in the production of fraudulent documents or passive which is characterized by a failure to react.

In order to effectively address human trafficking, it is crucial to understand that it is a constantly changing criminal process, so a single trafficker’s or victim’s profile does not exist, as well as a single recruitment or exploitation pattern. Nevertheless, it is possible to identify certain regional trafficking patterns. According to UNODC, Albania, Belarus, Bulgaria, China, Lithuania, Nigeria, Republic of Moldova, Romania, the Russian Federation, Thailand, and Ukraine were identified as the most popular countries of origin, while Belgium, Germany, Greece, Israel, Italy, Japan, the Netherlands, Thailand, Turkey, 

\footnotesize\textsuperscript{67} Ibid, p. 68  
\footnotesize\textsuperscript{68} Council of Europe, “Trafficking in Human Beings and Corruption.” Programme against Corruption and Organized Crime in South-eastern Europe (PACO), Report on the regional seminar, Portoroz, Slovenia, 19-22 June 2002.  
\url{http://www.coe.int/t/e/legal_affairs/legal_cooperation/combating_economic_crime/3_technical_cooperation/PACO/PACOTP28rev(PortorozFinal).pdf}. 

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and the United States received high ranking as destination countries.\textsuperscript{69} The IOM adds to the list of countries of origin Mali, Kyrgyz Republic, and Uzbekistan.\textsuperscript{70}


Chapter 4 Domestic Violence

According to the World Health Organization, approximately one third of women globally have experienced physical and/or sexual violence by an intimate partner.\(^\text{71}\) In addition, 38 percent of all female homicides are committed by their current or former partner.\(^\text{72}\) As in the case of human trafficking, data on domestic violence is unreliable and underrepresents the magnitude of the problem. Moreover, various patterns of domestic violence lead to controversial data on gender of perpetrators. Indeed, according to studies utilizing national samples, males and females report equal levels of family violence, while studies employing clinical, shelter or criminal justice samples discover that 90 percent of perpetrators are men.\(^\text{73}\)

In this thesis, I examine domestic violence as an issue of male violence against women. Domestic violence is a violation of women’s human rights and a form of gender-based discrimination.\(^\text{74}\) Domestic violence refers to violence perpetrated by intimate partners and can take various forms such as physical, sexual, verbal, emotional, social, spiritual, and economic abuse.\(^\text{75}\) Intimate partner is defined as current or former spouse, boyfriend or girlfriend including same-sex relationships. Domestic violence is the patterned and repeated use of coercive and controlling behavior to limit, direct, and shape...
a partner’s thoughts, feelings, and actions." Non-physical forms of violence can be as damaging as physical abuse.

Although marital rape has been criminalized in most Western countries over 30 years ago, it remains a widespread phenomenon and in some cultures is still a norm. United Nations Children’s Fund argues that domestic violence is the most prevalent, but hidden form of violence against women and girls. Central features of domestic violence are power, control, and fear. There are many myths associated with the issue of domestic violence. The first step towards addressing gender-based violence is to understand the facts behind the myths. The most common myths are:

- Domestic violence affects a small percentage of population;
- Domestic violence occurs only in poor, uneducated, and minority families;
- Substance abuse (alcohol and drugs) causes domestic violence;
- Women provoke an abuse;
- A woman would leave, if things were too bad; and
- Men have a right to discipline their partners – domestic violence is not a crime.

In reality, domestic violence is global and can affect anyone regardless of gender, race, religion, marital status, ethnic background or socioeconomic level. Vulnerable groups in society are at high risk of experiencing domestic violence. They are easier to control and isolate. Women, children, and elder people are more likely to become victims of domestic violence. There are multiple factors that contribute to vulnerability of being

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76 Ibid, p. 1
77 ABC of Domestic and Sexual Violence, edited by Susan Bewley and Jan Welch (John Wiley @ Sons Ltd, 2014), p. xi
78 Ibid
79 Ibid, p. 37
subjected to domestic violence, particularly disability, sexual or ethnic minority status, homelessness, and uncertain migration status. However, there is no profile that defines a victim. Women subjected to violence often do not recognize themselves as victims and tend to justify abusive behavior of a perpetrator as a result of alcohol or drug’s use. As in the case of human trafficking, many women do not reveal abuse due to the fear of social stigma, retaliation or losing children. According to the statistics, the risk of death or injury to a victim is greatest when leaving abusive relationship. By no means can domestic violence be justified. Being a form of gender-based violence, it is internationally recognized as a violation of human rights, and states are responsible for combating it.

At the international level, the issue of violence against women has been addressed since the 1990s, when the Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women was adopted in 1993. In 1994, the first UN Special Rapporteur on Violence against Women was appointed to seek and receive information about violence against women around the world and to work towards its elimination. In 1995, the Fourth World Conference on Women defined prevention and elimination of violence against women as one of twelve strategic objectives and classified actions to be taken by governments, international, regional organizations and NGOs, as well as research institutions, trade unions, and private sector. In 1999, the Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women was adopted which let

80 Ibid, p. 9
81 Ibid, p. 15
ratifying states recognize the competence of the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women to receive and consider complaints from individuals or groups within its jurisdiction. Although there are certain strong mechanisms to tackle violence against women at the international level, it is not specified as one of the eight Millennium Development Goals.

Domestic violence takes different forms. Professor Michael P. Johnson, an internationally recognized expert on domestic violence, distinguished four major patterns of family violence, namely intimate terrorism, violent resistance, situational or common couple violence, and mutual violent control. The distinctions are based on general patterns of control exercised by perpetrators and their motivations. Intimate terrorism can be physical or non-physical and is caused by a wish to take general control over a partner. Intimate terrorism is most likely to escalate over time, to result in serious injuries, and to become repetitive. Moreover, it is “almost entirely male perpetrated and is strongly related to gender attitudes.” Violent resistance refers to violence used in response to intimate terrorism and is perpetrated predominantly by women. Situational or common couple violence is not embedded into a general pattern of power or control. It arises in the context of specific argument and is gender symmetric. According to Johnson, it is the

86 Ibid
88 Michael Johnson and Kathleen Ferraro, “Research on Domestic Violence in the 1990s”, p. 949
89 Ibid
most common form of family violence.\textsuperscript{90} Mutual violent control describes a situation when both partners are violent and willing to exercise control.\textsuperscript{91}

In 1979, it was found by psychologist Lenore Walker that many cases of domestic violence follow a cyclic pattern. This cycle has three stages: tension building phase, acute battering episode, and the honeymoon phase.\textsuperscript{92}

Domestic violence affects victims physically, psychologically, and socially. Physical consequences depending on the severity and frequency of abuse may include bruises, pain, broken bones, reproductive health, central nervous system and gastrointestinal disorders.\textsuperscript{93} Physical violence often is accompanied with emotional or psychological abuse which is difficult to document. Psychological impact of domestic violence can include risk of developing PTSD, eating disorders, substance abuse, depression, anxiety, low self-esteem, poor self-care, suicidal or antisocial behavior, aggression, and fear of intimacy.\textsuperscript{94} Children’s exposure to domestic violence has a tremendous health impact. It may be associated with risk behaviors such as alcohol and drug abuse, smoking, and early initiation of sexual activity. Children may exhibit a wide range of physical and psychological symptoms. In addition, children being subjected to or witnessed domestic violence tend to experience it again as adults. Often abused children grow up to become perpetrators of violence.

\textsuperscript{90} Michael Johnson, “Domestic Violence: It’s Not about Gender: Or Is It?,” p. 1129
\textsuperscript{91} Michael Johnson and Kathleen Ferraro, “Research on Domestic Violence in the 1990s,”p. 950
\textsuperscript{92} Domestic Violence Roundtable \url{http://www.domesticviolenceroundtable.org/domestic-violence-cycle.html}
\textsuperscript{93} Office for Victims of Crime, Training and Technical Assistance Center – Intimate Partner Violence, pp. 3-4
\textsuperscript{94} Office for Victims of Crime, p. 4
Researchers have been trying to explain the phenomenon of domestic violence at the individual, household, societal, and national levels. In the 1960s, domestic violence was seen as the result of mental illness or poverty. In the 1970s, it was approached at the household level by a number of experts, including William Goode who emphasized use of violence by husbands in order to retain a dominant position when they lack other resources. One of the most prominent examinations of domestic violence at the societal level was done by David Levinson at “Family Violence in Cross-Cultural Perspective.” Levinson combined resource theory that was introduced by Goode with exchange theory, culture of violence theory, and patriarchal theory. Resource theory suggests that there is an association between women’s access to educational or job-related resources and domestic violence. According to the exchange theory, domestic violence is high in the societies where the benefits to perpetrators are high and low where the costs to perpetrators are high. The culture of exchange theory argues that domestic violence is more likely to take place in violent societies since it is generally used for conflict resolution there. Patriarchal theory explains use of violence by men to exercise control over women as a continuum of their historical subordination. Women’s reproductive rights and the age difference between men and women at marriage are used as primary indicators of women’s subordinate position in the society. Christine Arthur and Roger Clark introduced modernization and economic dependency theories to analyze domestic violence at the national level. Modernization theory proposes that the greater gross domestic product per capita and the level of urbanization lead to a reduction of domestic violence. Finally, the economic dependence theory establishes a relation between the economic dependency of the country and the overall level of domestic violence there.
In order to address domestic violence effectively, multi-agency response is required, i.e. collaborative initiatives between victim service providers, health professionals, police officers, survivor-centered groups, and law enforcement authorities. The Duluth Model which was introduced in the 1980s and is based on the belief that battering is a pattern of actions used to intentionally control or dominate an intimate partner provides an effective framework to address battering.\textsuperscript{95} It has shared policies and procedures for holding offenders accountable and keeping victims safe across all agencies in the criminal and civil justice systems and prioritizes the voices and experiences of battered women in the creation of these policies and procedures.\textsuperscript{96} The Duluth Model is not a treatment program, but rather a coordinated community response of law enforcement, criminal and civil courts, and human service providers working together to make communities safer for victims.\textsuperscript{97}

\textsuperscript{95} Michael Paymar and Graham Barnes, “Countering Confusion About the Duluth Model”, \textit{Battered Women’s Justice Project} (Minneapolis, Minnesota), p. 2
\textsuperscript{96} Domestic Abuse Intervention Programs – Home of the Duluth Model \url{http://www.theduluthmodel.org/about/index.html}
\textsuperscript{97} Michael Paymar and Graham Barnes, “Countering Confusion About the Duluth Model”, pp. 14-14
Chapter 5 Gender-based Violence in Russia

Human trafficking for sexual exploitation and domestic violence in Russia has a feminine face. For the second year in a row, the U.S. State Department's 2014 Trafficking in Persons Report ranked Russia in Tier 3 which is the lowest possible rating. It means that the Russian government does not fully comply with the minimum standards for the elimination of human trafficking. Moreover, according to the report, Russian officials are involved in facilitating victims’ entry into Russia, providing protection to traffickers, and returning trafficking victims to their exploiters. This kind of protection from law enforcement agents in Russia is called “krysha”. Many prostitution operations pay a monthly monetary fee to the law enforcement agents or allow them to use prostitution services for free to ensure that their operations are not disturbed. Furthermore, traffickers use officials’ involvement as a threat to the women, saying that if they go to police they would be returned.

As stated in the Global Slavery Index 2014, the prevalence of “modern slavery” in Russia is 0.73 percent of its population or 1 million people.

In 2013, Russian women and children were subjected to sex trafficking abroad in Northeast Asia, Europe, Central Asia, Africa, and the Middle East. The report also defines Russia as a destination country to be subjected to sex trafficking for women from

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98 Lauren A. McCarthy, Trafficking (In)Justice
99 2014 Trafficking in Persons Report, p. 324
100 Lauren A. McCarthy, Trafficking (In)Justice, pp. 91-92
101 Ibid
102 The Global Slavery Index http://www.globalslaveryindex.org/findings/
103 2014 Trafficking in Persons Report, p. 324
European (predominantly Ukraine and Moldova), Southeast Asian (primarily Vietnam), African, and Central Asian countries.\textsuperscript{104}

The Russian government does not provide national statistics on violence against women. Although it is difficult to gather accurate data on the number of women who are subjected to domestic violence, the Ministry of Internal Affairs of the Russian Federation in 2008 has reported that violence takes place in every fourth family in Russia, two thirds of all intentional homicides have family argument as a motive behind them, approximately fourteen thousand women are murdered annually by their spouse, partner or family member, and up to forty percent of violent crimes take place within the family.\textsuperscript{105}

According to the research that was conducted in 2006 in four regions of the Russian Federation with support from the United Nations Population Fund, 90.7 percent of women consider domestic violence a crucial problem in Russia.\textsuperscript{106} It was specified that violence against women includes physical, sexual, verbal, and psychological violence. However, the majority of respondents thought of physical and sexual violence first rather than economic and psychological violence while being interviewed. All respondents mentioned serious health consequences they have experienced as a result of domestic violence. The survey revealed that women who have witnessed or have been subjected to violence as children are more likely to become victims of violence as adults. Indeed, 21.7

\textsuperscript{104} Ibid
\textsuperscript{105} Интервью исполняющего обязанности начальника Департамента охраны общественного порядка МВД России генерал-лейтенанта милиции М. Артамошкина (Interview of the Chief of Department of Protection of Public Order of Ministry of Interior of Russian Federation lieutenant general M. Artamoshkin), http://www.mvd.ru/news/14047/
percent of respondents reported that they have witnessed violence between parents, while
19.2 percent have been subjected to it in childhood.\textsuperscript{107} According to the survey, 38.1
percent of Russian women have been subjected to verbal violence. About 20 percent and
4 percent have reported acts of physical and sexual violence, respectively.\textsuperscript{108} The survey
showed that 20-24-year-old women are more likely to be subjected to domestic violence
than women aged 15-19 or 25-44. The same report found that women with less education
are more likely to experience violence than those with higher levels of education. Indeed,
women who dropped out of high school were more likely to become victims of verbal
and physical violence than women who completed high school. The research also
indicated that women with three or more children have experienced domestic violence
more often than women without children.

The research revealed that the majority of victims prefer to share their stories of abuse
with their friends or relatives instead of looking for professional advice. Some 87 percent
of victims neither reported cases of physical violence to police, nor sought medical
assistance.\textsuperscript{109} According to the survey, the most common reasons for not reporting
domestic violence are that women did not find their physical injuries too harmful (27
percent); they did not believe that police would do anything (23.7 percent); they were
ashamed of asking for help (16.4 percent); they did not want to get a bad reputation (8.3
percent); they were afraid of getting divorced or losing the children (5.7%), and they
feared retaliation from the abuser (5.4%).\textsuperscript{110}

\textsuperscript{107} Ibid, p. 249
\textsuperscript{108} Ibid
\textsuperscript{109} Ibid, p. 251
\textsuperscript{110} Ibid, pp. 251-252
Since 1981, Russia has been party to the CEDAW. Under CEDAW, the Russian government is obliged to take all necessary measures to combat violence against women, in both the public and private spheres, whether committed by state representatives or non-state actors.\textsuperscript{111} However, in 2010 Russia was urged by the CEDAW Committee to “give priority attention to combating violence against women and girls and to adopting comprehensive measures to address such violence.”\textsuperscript{112} In 2004, Russia was visited by Prof. Yakin Ertürk, the UN Special Rapporteur on Violence Against Women who has reported her findings on violence against women, its causes and consequences in Russia to the Economic and Social Council. According to the report, the main cause of violence against women in Russia is rooted in patriarchal norms and values. Among other factors that contribute to violence against women in Russia are gender biases and residency registration practices.\textsuperscript{113} In addition, the Special Rapporteur elaborates that low rates of political participation and underrepresentation of women in decision-making positions, high segregation of labor, and discrimination against women in the hiring process, promotion, and remuneration increase women’s dependence on men and risk of human rights violations, including violence.\textsuperscript{114}

\textsuperscript{111} In its General Recommendation 19 (1992), “Violence against women”, the CEDAW Committee confirmed that under CEDAW the term ‘discrimination’ includes violence against women www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/cedaw/recommendations/recomm.html#recom19
\textsuperscript{112} U.N. Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women, 46\textsuperscript{th} Session, Concluding observations of the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women: Russian Federation, CEDAW/C/USR/CO/7, August 16, 2010.
\textsuperscript{114} Ibid, p. 6
Gender stereotypes assigning women primary responsible for childcare and family duties are significant in Russia. There is even an ancient Russian proverb, “a beating man is a loving man!” Acceptance of violence in Russia is pervasive, even among women. About 37 percent of Russian women believe that a husband is justified in using violence against a woman for at least one of these reasons: having an affair (31.6 percent), neglecting the children (17.8 percent), not taking proper care of the house and not cooking (7.2 percent), refusing sex (5.9 percent), asking her husband about his female friends (5.3 percent), not surrendering (4.4 percent), and leaving the house without her husband’s permission (1.5 percent).

The 2006 research revealed a pattern of controlling behavior by Russian men. Almost 40 percent of women reported that their husbands want to know where they are all the time, 19.4 percent confirmed that their husbands get angry when women talk to another man, 10.3 percent stated that their husbands try to limit their time with friends and relatives, and 9.3 percent confessed that their husbands suspect an affair.

Housing dependence of women in Russia contributes to their vulnerability of being subjected to domestic violence. The housing problem can be traced back to the Soviet Union when Russians were forced to live in shared state-owned apartments which facilitated tension in families. Privatization of housing since 1992 has generated new challenges such as a lack of affordable housing, while it has not addressed old challenges such as the registration system (propiska).

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115 Ibid, p. 9
117 Ibid, p. 252
118 Janet Elise Johnson, Gender Violence in Russia, p. 24
The subordinate position of Russian women in the society is also a result of women’s underrepresentation in high-level positions within the executive, legislative, and judicial branches of government. Women in government tend to occupy administrative and assistant positions and not decision-making posts. Gender asymmetries in elected positions are more dramatic at the federal than local level, and although active in political campaigns, women are under-represented in political party lists. Only 14 percent of parliamentarians in the State Duma\(^\text{119}\) are women (64 seats out of 450 are taken by women).\(^\text{120}\) The head of the Federation Council\(^\text{121}\) is a female, however only 13 percent of seats are taken by women (23 out of total 170).\(^\text{122}\) Among 22 federal ministries only one, the Minister of Health, is female. In addition, military and defense institutions place limits on women’s entrance and career advancement.

Labor in Russia is highly segregated. Female-dominated spheres such as education, healthcare, and accounting have the lowest wage levels. Beginning with the hiring process, women are often asked about marital status and children while men are not. In some cases, women are asked to sign purported employment contracts stating that they will not become pregnant for a specific period of time. Women over the age of 35 find obtaining work extremely difficult since younger applicants are preferred. Even the Federal Employment Centers classify job openings in their databases by sex and age. Moreover, women in Russia face the phenomenon of the “glass ceiling” in which they are

\(^{119}\) State Duma (Russian: Государственная Дума) is the lower house of the Federal Assembly of Russia


\(^{121}\) Federation Council (Russian: Совет Федерации) is the upper house of the Federal Assembly of Russia

unable to advance to leadership positions.\textsuperscript{123} According to recent figures, women’s salaries are on average 64 percent of men’s which presents one of the highest gender gaps in pay among high-income countries.\textsuperscript{124}

Before 1991 domestic violence was regulated under the rubric of “hooliganism”.\textsuperscript{125} In the early 1990s, the issue of violence against women in Russia received a lot of attention from the international community, especially in the context of the Fourth World Conference on Women which was held in Beijing in 1995 and established violence against women as one of the twelve areas of central concern.\textsuperscript{126} With a total contribution over $10 million, the United States became the leading foreign donor to Russia.\textsuperscript{127} Among major donors were the U.S. Agency for International Development, the U.S. State Department, and the Ford Foundation.\textsuperscript{128} Although foreign intervention caused certain positive changes at the domestic level, it did not shift Russian policy and practices toward recognizing violence against women as a human rights violation. Positive changes included the flourishing of NGOs, recognition of domestic violence as a problem, and the introduction by the Ministry of Interior of the new term “violence in the family.” By 2004, two hundred new organizations were established in Russian regions offering hotline counseling, providing shelters, and raising awareness.\textsuperscript{129}

\begin{footnotesize}
\begin{enumerate}
\item Lyudmila Nazdracheva, “Women still deal with the glass ceiling in the workplace”, \textit{Russian & India Report}, November 29, 2013 \url{http://in.rbth.com/society/2013/11/29/women_still_deal_with_the_glass_ceiling_in_the_workplace_31265.html}
\item Andrea Atencio and Josefina Posadas, Gender gap in pay in the Russian Federation: Twenty years later still a concern”, World Bank, 2014 \url{http://www.iza.org/conference_files/worldb2014/posadas_j6007.pdf}
\item Janet Elise Johnson, \textit{Gender Violence in Russia}, p. 23
\item Ibid, p. 21
\item Ibid, p. 2
\item Ibid
\item Ibid
\end{enumerate}
\end{footnotesize}
In 2001 and 2002, Russia was rated a Tier 3 country in the Trafficking in Persons Reports.\textsuperscript{130} As a result of the lowest ranking and the Russian government’s request for assistance with developing trafficking legislation, the U.S government and other international donors provided a significant financial support to Russia at both federal and regional levels. Between years of 2003 and 2008, the U.S government dedicated over $8.75 million for anti-trafficking activities in Russia.\textsuperscript{131} There were 118 organizations reported work on trafficking in 37 regions in Russia listed in the directory compiled by American Bar Association – Central European and Eurasian Law Initiative in 2004. In 2007, the directory was updated with 54 organizations in 28 regions.\textsuperscript{132}

In 2004, Russia ratified the UN Convention against Transnational Organized Crime and the Palermo Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime. However, Russia did not ratify the Council of Europe Convention on Action against Trafficking in Human Beings which entered into force on 1 February 2008.\textsuperscript{133}

As in the case of any crime occurring across international borders, investigation of trafficking crimes is extremely complicated and time-consuming. Russia has signed agreements for cooperation on criminal matters with other member-states of the

\textsuperscript{130} U.S. Department of State, Victims of Trafficking and Violence Protection Act of 2000: Trafficking in Persons Report, 2002 \url{http://www.state.gov/j/tip/rls/tiprpt/2002/10682.htm}
\textsuperscript{131} Lauren A. McCarthy, \textit{Trafficking (In)Justice}, p. 53
\textsuperscript{132} Ibid
\textsuperscript{133} Council of Europe: Status of Signature and Ratification of the Convention \url{http://www.coe.int/t/dghl/monitoring/trafficking/Flags-sos_en.asp}
Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) and mutual assistance treaties with Israel, UAE, and Spain which facilitates investigation within these countries.\textsuperscript{134}

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\textsuperscript{134} Lauren A. McCarthy, \textit{Trafficking (In)Justice}, pp. 130-131
\end{flushright}
Chapter 6 Gender-based Violence in the Czech Republic

According to the U.S. State Department’s 2014 Trafficking in Persons Report, the Government of the Czech Republic fully complies with the minimum standards for the elimination of human trafficking. Thereby, the Czech Republic is ranked in Tier 1 which is a rare high ranking for a post-communist country. Other post-communist countries ranked in Tier 1 are Armenia, Macedonia, Poland, Slovakia, and Slovenia. As stated in the Global Slavery Index 2014, the prevalence of modern slavery in the Czech Republic is 0.36 percent of its population or 38,000 people.\textsuperscript{135}

According to the National Action Plan for the Prevention of Domestic Violence, domestic violence is one of the most widespread forms of violence and an alarming society-wide problem in the Czech Republic.\textsuperscript{136} Approximately 38 percent of Czech women have experienced physical or sexual violence from their partner throughout their lives.\textsuperscript{137} The International Violence Against Women Survey shows that violence in partner relationships in the Czech Republic is more prevalent than violence outside partner relationships: around 9 percent of women experienced violence from their partner in the last 12 months, while only 6.9 percent of women experienced violence from somebody else.\textsuperscript{138} Only 10 percent of domestic violence cases were reported to the police.\textsuperscript{139} According to research conducted by STEM - STŘEDISKO EMPIRICKÝCH

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\textsuperscript{135} The Global Slavery Index \url{http://www.globalslaveryindex.org/findings/}
\textsuperscript{137} Stop Violence Against Women, Violence Against Women in the Czech Republic, 2012 \url{http://www.stopvaw.org/czech_republic2}
\end{flushleft}
VÝZKUMŮ in 2006, every second person aged over 15 has heard of a case of violence between partners and approximately 25 percent have experienced it as witness, victim or perpetrator.\textsuperscript{140} Most cases are long-term (59\%) and gradual (52\%) violence, often involving physical violence (81\%) and take place in the presence of children (57\%).\textsuperscript{141}

The Czech Republic is identified as a source, transit, and destination country for victims of human and labor trafficking. Women are trafficked to the Czech Republic from former Soviet Bloc countries - Slovakia, Romania, Bulgaria, and the former Yugoslav as well as Vietnam, the Philippines, and Thailand.\textsuperscript{142} Among the main destination countries where Czech women are being trafficked are Germany, Austria, France, Italy, Spain, the Netherlands, Switzerland, Belgium, and the United States.\textsuperscript{143} According to the UNODC, over 220 Czech victims were detected in Germany in 2005-2007.\textsuperscript{144} Experts emphasize that tourism areas such as Northern Bohemia, Western Bohemia, Northern Moravia, Southern Moravia, Prague, and Brno are the main origin localities due to high demand for sexual services and geographical proximity to the borders with Germany and Austria.\textsuperscript{145} Russian speaking organized criminal groups operate there.\textsuperscript{146} Cases of human trafficking within Chinese and Vietnamese communities

\textsuperscript{140} “STEM pro Bílý kruh bezpečí a Philip Morris ČR”, July 2006
\textsuperscript{141} Ibid
\textsuperscript{142} Institute for Criminology and Social Prevention, \textit{Trafficking in Women: The Czech Republic Perspective}, (UNODC/UNICR, Prague, April 2004), p. 8
\textsuperscript{143} Ibid, p. 10
\textsuperscript{144} UNODC, \textit{Trafficking in Persons to Europe for Sexual Exploitation}, p.4
\textsuperscript{145} Ibid, p. 10
\textsuperscript{146} Institute for Criminology and Social Prevention, \textit{Trafficking in Women}, p. 8
\textsuperscript{147} National Strategy to Combat Trafficking in Human Beings (2008-2011), p. 7
were recorded as well. In the Czech Republic, 28 percent of females convicted are traffickers as opposed to 13 percent of women convicted for all other offenses.

It has been estimated that up to 30 percent of the trafficking cases in the Czech Republic involve hidden corruption.

The Roma population is considered to be particularly vulnerable to trafficking due to social economic marginalization and social exclusion. Romani communities, whose size is believed to be between 250,000 and 300,000, constitute approximately 3 percent of the Czech population. The representation of Roma among victims of human trafficking in the Czech Republic is estimated by different NGOs from 20 to 70 percent. In 2006, at least 60,000 Roma were estimated to be socially excluded. According to the research conducted by the Government of the Czech Republic and the World Bank in 2008, more than half of working-age Roma in the country are unemployed, compared to a general unemployment rate of less than 5%. High level of unemployment is a result of poor education among Romani children. In 2010, 26 percent of Romani children were attending schools established for pupils with mild mental disabilities. As noted by the

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147 Institute for Criminology and Social Prevention, *Trafficking in Women*, p. 8
148 Ibid, p.5
149 Institute for Criminology and Social Prevention, *Trafficking in Women*, p. 13
150 European Roma Rights Center, “Parallel Submission to the Committee on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women for the Czech Republic, Article 6: Trafficking in Human Beings and Romani Women” [http://www2.ohchr.org/english/bodies/cedaw/docs/ngos/ERRC_2_CzechRepublic_CEDAW47.pdf](http://www2.ohchr.org/english/bodies/cedaw/docs/ngos/ERRC_2_CzechRepublic_CEDAW47.pdf)
151 Ibid
Czech Minister of Education, Youth and Sports Miroslava Kopicová, it is highly unlikely that the number of children of Romani origin with mental disabilities is actually this high. In addition, according to the results of research conducted by the Czech Government in April 2009, Romani girls are 20 times more likely to be transferred to a school for children with disabilities than non-Roma girls. Importantly, the Czech Republic's Decade of Roma Inclusion (2005 - 2015) National Action Plan, an action framework for the government aimed at improving the status of Roma across the region, does not contain any measures specifically intended to prevent the phenomenon of trafficking among Roma.\footnote{http://www.romadecade.org/cms/upload/file/9296_file15_czech-action-plan_engl_.pdf}
Chapter 7: Government Response to Gender-based Violence in Russia and the Czech Republic

Prosecution

The absence of a systemic approach at the government level\textsuperscript{156} to address the problem of violence against women is characterized by many experts as a major gender policy challenge in Russia. The 2014 Trafficking in Persons Report emphasizes the lack of a national action plan to combat human trafficking and a coordinating authority for anti-trafficking efforts in Russia\textsuperscript{157}. Acts of violence against women are regulated by The Criminal Code of the Russian Federation. However, it does not recognize domestic violence as a separate criminal offense. Thus, acts of violence against women like any crimes against the person are punishable under Section VII of the Criminal Code\textsuperscript{158}, specifically under:

- Article 111 (Intentional Infliction of a Grave Injury.)
- Article 112 (Intentional Infliction of Injury to Health of Average Gravity.)
- Article 115 (Intentional Infliction of Light Injury.)
- Article 116 (Battery.)
- Article 117 (Torture.)
- Article 119 (Threat of Murder or Infliction of Grave Injury to Health.)

\textsuperscript{157} 2014 Trafficking in Persons Report, p. 324
\textsuperscript{158} Criminal Code of the Russian Federation (English version)

http://www2.ohchr.org/english/bodies/cedaw/docs/ngos/ANNANCPV_RussianFederation46.pdf

In 2003, responding to international pressure and treaty obligations, the Russian government proposed amendments to the Criminal Code defining “human trafficking” and “use of slave labor” as criminal offenses under Articles 127.1 and 127.2, respectively. In spite of this, police and prosecutors, instead of using the new Criminal Code articles on human trafficking, often refer to more familiar statutes covering prostitution, migration violations, kidnapping, and/or false imprisonment. Furthermore, trafficking cases are usually uncovered in the process of investigating another crime. From 2004 through 2008, a total of 435 human trafficking cases were registered under Articles 127.1 and 127.2. However, only 10 cases had been investigated.

Among the factors that contribute to lack of law enforcement in Russia to combat human trafficking are corruption, lack of political will, the failure to diffuse norms to the domestic level, and shortage of resources.

Police are often reluctant to initiate a criminal inquiry and usually claim that domestic violence does not fall within their jurisdiction. In addition, as the 2006 survey showed, many women (23.7 percent) are distrustful of police and think it would be pointless to seek help there.

The Criminal Code of the Russian Federation is not effective legislation to combat domestic violence or human trafficking. Firstly, it treats domestic violence as a private issue to be resolved at home behind closed doors. Secondly, it does not provide a victim with a protection order.

159 Lauren A. McCarthy, Trafficking (In)Justice, p. 11
160 Ibid, p. 3
161 Ibid, p. 13
162 Ibid, pp. 16-21
On the other hand, the Czech Republic has a National Strategy to Combat Trafficking in Human Beings which was approved in 2012 for the period 2012-2015 as a continuation of the previous strategies adopted in 2003 and 2005. It establishes a number of measures to address human trafficking, focusing on systematic education in the area of trafficking, ratification of important international instruments, and evaluation of the Program on Support and Protection of Victims of Trafficking in Human Beings.

For a long time, only trafficking with a purpose of sexual exploitation was considered a criminal offense in the Czech Republic. However, its Criminal Code was revised in 2010, prescribing punishment from two to fifteen years imprisonment for trafficking, including trafficking for the purpose of forced labor. In 2013, 30 alleged traffickers were prosecuted by the Czech authorities under Section 168 of the Criminal Code and 16 defendants were convicted in courts. In 2013, police identified 18 victims of human trafficking and 572 victims of domestic violence. Among the 572 victims, the largest group of 173 victims consisted of women of 31-40 years old. About 208 of the 572 were subjected to violence by their husbands while 179 – by their boyfriends. The largest number of 141 perpetrators were aged 31-40.

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164 Section 168 of the Criminal Code of the Czech Republic


49
Domestic violence was criminalized in the Czech Republic in 2004 with an amendment to the Penal Code and the introduction of the criminal offence “battering a person living in a common flat or house.” As a result of a revision of the Criminal Code in 2010, the criminal act of cruelty to a person living in common dwellings was introduced. Domestic violence is punishable under Article 119 of the Criminal Code by up to three years in prison, with longer sentences up to eight years if there were aggravating circumstances. The revision of the Criminal Code added two more Articles in relation to domestic violence: Article 354 which enables the prosecution of stalking which might be a continuation of domestic violence after issuing a protection order and Article 141 which allows a more moderate sentence in a case of a murder of a perpetrator by a victim of domestic violence.

Protection

The Soviet legacy of repression has stunted the growth of a civil society in Russia, causing apathy among women and preventing them from gathering for a political cause. Domestic violence was brought to the Russian population’s attention only in the age of glastnost, in the late 1980s. In the aftermath of the collapse of the Soviet Union, women’s rights movements were very popular and some of them developed into anti-trafficking initiatives.

However, the situation changed in 2006 when President Putin signed into law a controversial bill tightening state control over NGOs. Since then, civil society in Russia

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has been paralyzed. According to this law, foreign-funded NGOs involved in political activities must register as “foreign agents” with the Ministry of Justice.\(^{170}\) As a result, a number of NGOs closed, including the Anti-Discrimination Center (ADC) Memorial in Saint-Petersburg, two Golos election watchdogs (Golos Association and Regional Golos), JURIX (Lawyers for Constitutional Rights and Freedoms), and Side by Side LGBT Festival.\(^{171}\) In 2013, UNFPA closed its office in Russia.

Under Russian law, only citizens of the Russian Federation and citizens of counties with which Russia has an agreement specifying that country’s citizens receive all rights of Russian citizens in criminal proceedings can receive the legal status of “victim.”\(^{172}\)

Victims of gender-based violence in Russia lack social assistance. There is no system of temporary residence permits which hinders access to state-funded social services, including medical care.\(^{173}\)

Options for shelters are limited, especially at the regional level. In 2013, the eight-bed shelter for victims of human trafficking was opened in Saint Petersburg. Currently it is the only government-supported shelter in Russia. Operated by the Russian Red Cross, the shelter was partially funded through contributions from the IOM and the U.S. Government.\(^{174}\) A rehabilitation shelter for trafficking victims previously existed in Moscow but was closed due to lack of funding in 2009.\(^{175}\)

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\(^{172}\) Lauren A. McCarthy, *Trafficking (In)justice*, p. 98

\(^{173}\) Ibid, pp. 119-120


\(^{175}\) Lauren A. McCarthy, *Trafficking (In)justice*, p. 102
In Russia there is one national women’s helpline that operates 12 hours per day, seven days a week. In 2013, the helpline received 1,342 calls related to cases of domestic violence.\textsuperscript{176} There are 42 women’s shelters with approximately 400 shelter places available and 19 women’s crisis centers providing telephone and walk-in counseling services.

Contrary to the situation in Russia, the mechanism of protection of victims of human trafficking and domestic violence in the Czech Republic is quite comprehensive. In 2003, the government of the Czech Republic developed a special Program on Support and Protection of Victims of Trafficking in Human Beings of the Ministry of Interior of the Czech Republic. Victims of human trafficking cooperating with law enforcement authorities in criminal proceedings and their immediate family members are eligible to apply for a long-term residence permit for the purpose of protection and financial assistance up to the amount of the minimum cost of living.\textsuperscript{177}

There are a number of NGOs in the Czech Republic dealing with human trafficking and domestic violence. In 2013, The Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs and the Ministry of Interior allocated the equivalent of approximately $245,900 to NGOs providing care for trafficking victims and $101,500 for victim assistance and trafficking prevention projects.\textsuperscript{178} Government-funded NGOs provided shelter and care to approximately 62 victims in 2013, of whom at least 37 were newly identified during the year.\textsuperscript{179}

\begin{footnotesize}
\begin{enumerate}
\item In this context, it is important to mention that the mechanisms of protection of victims of trafficking and domestic violence in both countries are well-developed and provide comprehensive support.\textsuperscript{176} Women against Violence Europe, “Country Report 2013”, p. 172. \url{http://www.wavenetwork.org/sites/default/files/01%20Russia.pdf}  
\item 2014 Trafficking in Persons Report, p. 155  
\item Ibid
\end{enumerate}
\end{footnotesize}
DONA and ROSA. DONA helpline is available 24 hour a day. In 2013, DONA received 3,306 calls with 88 percent of women calling in regards to domestic violence.\footnote{DONA Linka \url{http://www.donalinka.cz/}} In 2014, ROSA provided telephone assistance to 3,137 women, including 277 new clients.\footnote{ROSA \url{http://rosa-os.cz/pocet-zen-ktere-hledaji-pomoc-roste/}} In addition, there are six regional helplines, two of which operate 24 hour a day.\footnote{Women against Violence Europe, “Country Report 2010”, p. 119 \url{http://www.wave-network.org/sites/wave.local/files/WAVE_COUNTRYREPORT_CzechRepublik_190611_finalfinal.pdf}}

In March 2006, the Government of the Czech Republic adopted legislation for protection against domestic violence that came into effect in January 2007. It created a legal framework for addressing domestic violence through the introduction of the barring order which allows police to expel the perpetrator from home for a period of ten days.\footnote{Alena Křížková, “Measures to fight violence against women in the Czech Republic”, p. 4} This period can be prolonged by the civil court restraining order to a maximum of one year. As a result, in 2007, the first intervention center aimed to provide psychological, social, and legal counselling to people affected by domestic violence was created.\footnote{Spondea – Intervention Centre \url{http://www.spondea.cz/odborna-verejnost/english/}} There are fifteen intervention centers functioning in all regions of the Czech Republic that were established by regional authorities.\footnote{Ibid} In the first seven months of 2013, the NGO White Circle of Safety reported that police removed 802 offenders from the home. In 2012, Czech police imposed 1,405 restraining orders.\footnote{United States Department of State, 2013: Country Reports on Human Rights Practices – Czech Republic}

Thus, the Czech Republic offers comprehensive services on helping victims recover and reintegrate back into society. The system of temporary residence permits and protection orders might be considered one of the best practices for ensuring victims’ successful rehabilitation into society. In contrast, instead of cooperating with NGOs,
Russian law enforcement does not trust NGOs, especially if they receive foreign funding, considering their activities as a threat to the regime’s stability.\textsuperscript{187} The absence of shelters in Russia makes it difficult for law enforcement to obtain the victim’s testimony that is the crucial piece of evidence in identifying human trafficking.

**Prevention**

Initially, human trafficking was perceived by the Russian government as a regional issue confined to organized crime gangs in the Caucasus and Chechnya in particular.\textsuperscript{188} In 1997, the first roundtable discussion on the trafficking of women and children took place in the Security Committee of the State Duma. It was attended by different stakeholders and set precedent for civil society organizations participating in human trafficking legislation.\textsuperscript{189} In order to create a legal basis for the prevention of human trafficking in Russia, an interagency A Working Group was established under the auspices of the Legislative Committee of the State Duma in 2002. As a result of collaborative work between Deputies, representatives of ministries, NGOs, as well as UN and EU experts, the draft Federal Law “On Prevention of Human Trafficking” was developed. Despite its discussion during the parliamentary hearings in 2003 and 2006, it was never passed.

In November 2014, a draft federal law, “On the prevention of domestic violence,” was introduced to the State Duma by Senator Anton Belyakov. A draft proposes strengthening domestic violence penalties in Russia. However, two other draft bills to address domestic violence were introduced since 1991, but they were never passed.

\textsuperscript{187} Lauren A. McCarthy, *Trafficking (In)Justice*, p. 103
\textsuperscript{188} Ibid, pp. 44-46
\textsuperscript{189} Ibid, p. 47
By contrast, in 2008, the Inter-ministerial Coordination Group was established in the Czech Republic which serves as a platform for information exchange and coordination activities in the area of the fight against trafficking in persons at national level. As a prevention measure, the Prison Service of the Czech Republic has launched a long-term therapeutic program aimed to reduce the risk of the recurrence of a violent crime, including domestic violence, after the release of a perpetrator from prison.\textsuperscript{190}

In addition, a number of Czech experts who encounter victims of domestic violence in their line of work undertook educational training, including social workers, police officers, judges, physicians, workers at social and legal bodies for the protection of children, commissions for administrative infractions, and local authorities.\textsuperscript{191} In 2009, the so called Police Act came into effect that authorized the Czech police to impose a restraining order as a preventive measure. Preliminary orders were introduced into the Code of Criminal Procedure aimed to secure judicial protection of victims of domestic violence if the risk of further violence remains.\textsuperscript{192}

In 2008, the Council for Equal Opportunities for Women and Men established a Committee for the prevention of domestic violence which in 2011 adopted the first National Action Plan for the Prevention of Domestic Violence for years 2011-2014. Representatives of ministries, NGOs, intervention centers, independent experts as well as public servants are members of the Committee in order to secure its independence and interdisciplinary participation. The National Action Plan for the Prevention of Domestic

\textsuperscript{190} Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women – Concluding observations on the fifth periodic report of the Czech Republic, adopted by the Committee at its forty-seventh session (4-22 October 2010), November 2012, p.9
\textsuperscript{191} Spondea – Intervention Centre
\textsuperscript{192} Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women
Violence is aimed at analyzing current legislation and implementing appropriate and effective procedures for the prevention and elimination of domestic violence.\textsuperscript{193} Besides support of victims of domestic violence, it also addresses help to children who witnessed violence, work with perpetrators, education of expert professions, public opinion, collection of statistical data, and improvement of legislation.\textsuperscript{194}

Despite all the measures that were taken in compliance with international obligations, the Czech Republic is one of the few members of the European Union that neither signed, nor ratified the Council of Europe Convention on preventing and combating violence against women and domestic violence.\textsuperscript{195}

\textsuperscript{193} Ibid, pp. 7-8
\textsuperscript{194} Ibid, pp. 9-14
Conclusion

Both trafficking for sexual exploitation and domestic violence are major issues of concern in Russia. Ranked as a Tier 3 country for the second year in a row, Russia is in danger of being penalized under the TVPA’s provisions\(^{196}\), unless the comprehensive legislation is in place. From the comparison with the Czech Republic I learned that

1. Both human trafficking and domestic violence are criminalized in the Czech Republic under the federal laws;
2. The Czech government has a national action plan to combat trafficking and domestic violence;
3. There is a comprehensive mechanism of victim’s protection in the Czech Republic, including a system of temporary residence permits, financial assistance for victim’s and issue of the protection order;
4. The Czech government allocates substantial funding directly to NGOs dealing with human trafficking;
5. Preventive measures are based on collaboration among different stakeholders and include educational trainings, restraining order, and programs reducing the risk of the recurrence of violence.

Through comparison of the Russian government’s response and the Czech government’s response to the problem of human trafficking and domestic violence, I demonstrated through the evidence gathered in this research that Russia has one of the worst records in the world on trafficking for sexual exploitation and domestic violence. I also proved my hypothesis that, drawing on the experience of the Czech Republic, the

\(^{196}\) TVPA – Trafficking Victims Protection Act
Russian government could put an end to gender-based violence if it prioritizes respect for human rights.

Taking into consideration the Czech approach to dealing with trafficking for sexual exploitation and domestic violence, I developed a list of policy recommendations for the Russian government:

**Policy recommendations for Russia**

1. There should be a legal definition of a victim of human trafficking in the Russian legislation. In order to address human trafficking more effectively, comprehensive domestic legislation is needed. Definition of a victim of human trafficking is absent from current legislation, which hinders victim’s identification. Clear definition would also contribute to more effective suspect’s prosecution, reducing the possibility of corruption.

2. Regulations for the provision of assistance to the victims have to be introduced into Russian legislation. In Russia, victims of human trafficking are reluctant to approach law enforcement entities and cooperate in the process of investigation due to the extreme distrust and fear that they might be returned to their traffickers. Safety of victims has to be a priority guaranteed in the Russian legislation. In addition, an instrument of protection order has to be introduced in Russian legislation to avoid revictimization of battered women.

3. A network of shelters and rehabilitation centers for victims in all regions of the country has to be created. Lack of shelters and rehabilitation facilities in Russia is an issue of major concern. In Russia, there are around 40 shelters for victims of domestic violence and only one government-supported shelter for victims of human trafficking.
4. A national action plan is needed to ensure cooperation between the government and civil society. Implementation of a victim-centered approach which places equal value on identification and stabilization of victims\(^{197}\) is crucial in Russia. It is only possible through cooperation between law enforcement and NGOs.

5. NGOs and civil society that work for women’s rights need greater protection from government repression and should be allowed to participate in and pressure for the creation of better laws to protect women in Russia from trafficking and domestic violence. There is a problem of mutual distrust between law enforcement and NGOs in Russia that has to be addressed to fight human trafficking and domestic violence effectively. The identification and further assistance of victims has to be undertaken by both law enforcement officials and NGO representatives.

6. Fund local NGOs directly and allow international funding for NGOs. Currently NGO activity in Russia is limited by the lack of financial assistance. Sufficient funding would allow NGOs to provide better victim’s support, psychological counseling, and rehabilitation services ensuring victim’s reintegration back into society.

7. Awareness raising and educational trainings for law enforcement officials, NGO representatives, court system and health care workers in the regions, especially in small towns. It is essential that issues of human trafficking and domestic violence are visible on the public radar screen. Those who by virtue of their work might come into contact with victims of trafficking need to have an understanding of the trafficking patterns and be familiar with the indicators allowing them to recognize a trafficking situation.

8. Employment firms participating in fraudulent recruitment of job candidates should be closed. Travel agencies, massage parlors, gentlemen clubs and other possible fronts for human trafficking need to be inspected by law enforcement officials on a regular basis.

9. Passage of the separate law criminalizing domestic violence at the federal level is needed. Currently law enforcement officials in Russia approach domestic violence as a private issue and often refuse to initiate criminal proceedings. According to the studies, in countries where domestic violence prevention laws have passed, the number of incidents has decreased on average by 30 percent.\(^\text{198}\)

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\(^{198}\) Daria Lyubinskaya, “Law needed to save Russian women from domestic violence”, *Russia & India Report*, April 15, 2015

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## Annex 1

Table 18.2 Percentage of women aged 15-44 currently married or ever been married who reported domestic violence incidents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Domestic violence over a lifetime</th>
<th>Domestic violence in last 12 months</th>
<th>Number of incidents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Verbal violence</td>
<td>Physical violence</td>
<td>Sexual violence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>38.1</td>
<td>19.8</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Type of settlement</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>City/town</td>
<td>38.5</td>
<td>19.6</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Village</td>
<td>37.0</td>
<td>20.4</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Location</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moscow</td>
<td>38.7</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other metropolises</td>
<td>38.7</td>
<td>18.3</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other cities/towns</td>
<td>38.4</td>
<td>20.1</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Villages</td>
<td>37.0</td>
<td>20.4</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-19</td>
<td>31.2</td>
<td>15.6</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-24</td>
<td>30.7</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-29</td>
<td>35.0</td>
<td>16.3</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-34</td>
<td>37.4</td>
<td>19.2</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-39</td>
<td>41.9</td>
<td>23.5</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-44</td>
<td>44.5</td>
<td>24.4</td>
<td>5.9</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Marital Status</strong></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>33.8</td>
<td>15.6</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not married</td>
<td>55.7</td>
<td>36.8</td>
<td>7.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Number of children</strong></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>30.4</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>39.2</td>
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<td>3.7</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>40.7</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 +</td>
<td>42.4</td>
<td>24.3</td>
<td>6.0</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Highest level of education completed</strong></td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Not completed secondary or lower</td>
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<td>30.1</td>
<td>7.6</td>
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<td>6.0</td>
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<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
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<td>38.8</td>
<td>19.2</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
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<td>3</td>
<td>39.4</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>35.8</td>
<td>17.2</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highest</td>
<td>38.4</td>
<td>20.5</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Annex 2

Table 18.3.2 Percentage of women aged 15-44 currently married or ever been married who experienced physical or sexual domestic violence and discussed this with someone or sought medical/legal help

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>% Discussed domestic violence</th>
<th>% Discussed DV with family/friends</th>
<th>Family members/friends</th>
<th>% Sought medical or legal help</th>
<th>Medical or legal help</th>
<th>Number of incidents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>72.8</td>
<td>52.7</td>
<td>43.2</td>
<td>22.8</td>
<td>21.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Type of settlement</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>City/town</td>
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<td>73.1</td>
<td>53.8</td>
<td>43.7</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>20.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Village</td>
<td>72.6</td>
<td>71.8</td>
<td>49.1</td>
<td>41.6</td>
<td>24.9</td>
<td>22.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Location</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>Moscow</td>
<td>69.7</td>
<td>68.9</td>
<td>57.3</td>
<td>37.9</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>22.9</td>
</tr>
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<td>52.4</td>
<td>38.1</td>
<td>17.0</td>
<td>21.2</td>
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<td>45.7</td>
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68
Annex 3

Table 18.3.3 Percentage of women aged 15-44 currently married or ever been married who experienced physical domestic violence and never sought medical/legal help for the following reasons

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### Annex 4

Table 18.4.1 Percentage of women aged 15-44 currently married or ever been married who reported about gender norms in their households

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<th>Husband helps in the house</th>
<th>Husband insists to know where wife is</th>
<th>Husband has the final say in decision-making</th>
<th>Husband is angry if wife talks to another man</th>
<th>Husband tries to limit wife’s contact with family and friends</th>
<th>Husband often suspects infidelity</th>
<th>Number of incidents</th>
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Annex 5

Table 18.4.2. Percentage of women aged 15-44 currently married or ever been married who were subjected or not subjected to physical and sexual domestic violence and their reasons for its justification

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<td>Husband is not satisfied with wife’s house work or cooking</td>
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<td>Wife refuses to have sex</td>
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<td>Wife asks husband about his female friends</td>
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<td>Wife doesn’t surrender</td>
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<td>Wife left the house without asking for a husband’s permission</td>
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