

MASTERARBEIT | MASTER'S THESIS

Titel | Title

Revealing weaknesses: protection of human rights and violence
against women in the Philippines and Cambodia

verfasst von | submitted by

Polina Kanakhina

angestrebter akademischer Grad | in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of
Master of Arts (MA)

Wien | Vienna, 2024

Studienkennzahl lt. Studienblatt | Degree
programme code as it appears on the
student record sheet:

UA 066 864

Studienrichtung lt. Studienblatt | Degree
programme as it appears on the student
record sheet:

Masterstudium East Asian Economy and Society

Betreut von | Supervisor:

Univ.-Prof. Mag. Dr. Rüdiger Frank

Table of Contents

<u>ABBREVIATIONS</u>	<u>3</u>
<u>LIST OF FIGURES</u>	<u>4</u>
<u>LIST OF TABLES</u>	<u>4</u>
<u>I. INTRODUCTION</u>	<u>6</u>
1.1. OVERVIEW OF THE PHENOMENON	6
1.2. RELEVANCE AND THE RQ	7
<u>II. LITERATURE REVIEW</u>	<u>11</u>
2.1. VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN AND HUMAN RIGHTS FRAMEWORK	11
2.2. LEGAL FRAMEWORK	16
2.3. INTER-SECTORAL MECHANISM FOR MONITORING	18
2.4. DATA COLLECTION	20
2.5. TRAINING AND CAPACITY-BUILDING	21
2.6. BUDGET	23
2.7. PREVENTION	24
2.8. PROTECTION	29
2.8.1. SHELTERS	29
2.8.2. RAPE CRISIS CENTERS AND COUNSELING CENTERS	31
2.8.3. HELPLINES	33
2.8.4. HEALTH RESPONSE	34
2.8.5. WOMEN POLICE STATIONS AND SPECIALIZED COURTS	36
2.8.6. PROTECTION ORDERS	38
<u>III. ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK</u>	<u>42</u>
<u>IV. EMPIRICAL PART</u>	<u>51</u>
4.1. NATIONAL LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK	51
4.1.1. LAWS	51
4.1.2. NAPS	59
4.2. IMPLEMENTATION	67
4.2.1. INTER-SECTORAL MECHANISM	67
4.2.2. DATA COLLECTION	73
4.2.3. TRAINING AND CAPACITY-BUILDING	86
4.2.4. BUDGET	90
4.3. PREVENTION	93
4.4. PROTECTION	97
4.4.1. COMPREHENSIVE AND INTEGRATED SUPPORT SERVICES	97
4.4.2. HEALTH SECTOR	100
4.4.3. POLICE UNITS AND SPECIALIZED COURTS	105
4.4.4. PROTECTION ORDERS	111

<u>V. ANALYTICAL PART.....</u>	<u>114</u>
5.1. NATIONAL LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK.....	114
5.1.1. LAWS	114
5.1.2. NAPS	115
5.2. IMPLEMENTATION	116
5.2.1. INTER-SECTORAL MECHANISM	116
5.2.2. DATA COLLECTION	117
5.2.3. TRAINING AND CAPACITY-BUILDING	118
5.2.4. BUDGET.....	119
5.3. PREVENTION.....	119
5.4. PROTECTION	120
5.4.1. COMPREHENSIVE AND INTEGRATED SUPPORT SERVICES	120
5.4.2. HEALTH SECTOR	121
5.4.3. POLICE UNITS AND SPECIALIZED COURTS	122
5.4.4. PROTECTION ORDERS	122
<u>VI. DISCUSSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....</u>	<u>123</u>
6.1. NATIONAL LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK.....	123
6.1.1. LAWS	123
6.1.2. NAPS	124
6.2. IMPLEMENTATION	124
6.2.1. INTER-SECTORAL MECHANISM	124
6.2.2. DATA COLLECTION	125
6.2.3. TRAINING AND CAPACITY-BUILDING	126
6.2.4. BUDGET.....	126
6.3. PREVENTION.....	126
6.4. PROTECTION	127
6.4.1. COMPREHENSIVE AND INTEGRATED SUPPORT SERVICES.....	127
6.4.2. HEALTH SECTOR	127
6.4.3. POLICE UNITS AND SPECIALIZED COURTS.....	128
6.4.4. PROTECTION ORDERS	129
<u>LIMITATIONS</u>	<u>129</u>
<u>RELEVANCE OF THE FINDINGS</u>	<u>130</u>
<u>CONCLUSION.....</u>	<u>131</u>
<u>REFERENCES</u>	<u>133</u>
<u>ANNEXES</u>	<u>182</u>

Abbreviations

CEDAW - Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women
DepED - Department of Education
DEVAW - Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women
DILG - Department of the Interior and Local Government
DoH - Department of Health
DoJ - Department of Justice
DSWD - Department of Social Welfare and Development
DV - Domestic Violence
GAD - Gender and Development
IACAT - Inter-Agency Council Against Trafficking
IACVAWC - Inter-Agency Council on Violence Against Women and Their Children
IPV - Intimate Partner Violence
MoH - Ministry of Health
MoI - Ministry of Interior
MoJ - Ministry of Justice
MoSVY - Ministry of Social Affairs, Veterans and Youth Rehabilitation
MoWa - Ministry of Women's Affairs
NAP - National Action Plan
NBJ - National Bureau of Jail Management and Penology
NGO - Non-Governmental Organization
NIS - National Institute of Statistics
NVAWDocSys - National VAW Documentation System
NWM - National Women's Machinery
OHCHR - Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights
OSCC - One-Stop Crisis Center
PCW - Philippine Commission on Women
PDoWa - Provincial Department of Women's Affairs
PNP - Philippine National Police
PO - Protection Orders
PSA - Philippine Statistic Authority
RA9262 - Republic Act No. 9262
RCC - Rape Crisis Center
SART - Sexual Assault Response Team
SV - Sexual Violence
TWG-G - Technical Working Group on Gender
TWGG-GBV - Technical Working Group on Gender-Based Violence
VAC - Violence Against Children
VAW - Violence Against Women
VAWG - Violence Against Women and Girls
WCPC - Women and Children Protection Center
WCPD - Women and Children Protection Desk
WCPU - Women's and Children's Protection Unit
WFS - Women Friendly Spaces
WPS - Women's Police Stations

List of Figures

Figure 1. The multiplier effect of VAWG on the economy.	9
Figure 2. Violence and abuse against women	12
Figure 3. A set of criteria for effective coordinative bodies	19
Figure 4. Methodology of the hierarchical level of the machineries.	20
Figure 5. An approach to defining levels of prevention concerning VAW.....	24
Figure 6. Typology of VAW prevention programs.	25
Figure 7. The examples of prevention programs across social ecology.....	26
Figure 8. Systems of referral.	35
Figure 9. Example of the Implementation Matrix of the NAP 2007-2010.	61
Figure 10. Example of the Implementation Matrix of the NAP 2014-2016.	62
Figure 11. Example of the Implementation Matrix of the NAP 2017-2022.....	62
Figure 12. Implementation Matrix Structure of NAPVAW II and NAPVAW III.....	65
Figure 13. Organizational Structure of PCW.	68
Figure 14. Total approved budget of the Philippines Commission on Women 2015 to 2024..	69
Figure 15. VAW Mechanisms on multiple levels of governance in the Philippines.	70
Figure 16. Structure of IACAT.	71
Figure 17. Women and girl victim-survivors of physical, sexual or psychological abuse or sexual exploitation served by the DSWD.	79
Figure 18. Organizational Structure of Women and Child Protection mechanism in the Philippines.....	102
Figure 19. The trend of families having domestic violence, 2010-2016.....	111

List of Tables

Table 1. Percentages of countries, by region, with legislation for different types of violence against women.....	16
Table 2. Summary of the Analytical Framework	43
Table 3. Definitions of VAW covered in the 2009 Magna Carta of Women and RA9262.....	52
Table 4. Types and acts of domestic violence covered by the 2005 DV Law.	56
Table 5. Comparison of the scope of the DV Law and the Criminal Code.....	58
Table 6. Responsibility Allocation in NAPVAW II and III.	66
Table 7. Annual Budget Allocation for MoWa, 2021-2024.....	72
Table 8. Nationwide Crime Statistics for the Philippines: September 1-30, 2023 (Reported Cases).	75
Table 9. Statistics on VAW for the Philippines, January-December 2019.	76
Table 10. Data on violence against women and children cases generated from PNP Crime Information Reporting and Analysis System (CIRAS), Region 4-A Calabarzon, January – December 2022.	77
Table 11. National Prosecution Service: Caseload and Disposition, by Offense Category, 2010-2020.....	78
Table 12. Case dispositions in trial courts, 2019-2020.....	78
Table 13. List of statistics produced by MoJ.....	83
Table 14. List of statistics produced by MoH.	83
Table 15. List of statistics produced by MoI.	83
Table 16. List of statistics produced by MoWa.	84
Table 17. Excerpt from the core monitoring indicators of National Strategic Development Plan 2014-2018.....	84

Table 18. VAW related statistics as provided by CDBonline.	85
Table 19. Top 5 Agencies with Highest GAD Expenditure, FY 2020.....	90
Table 20. Annual Budget Allocation for MoWa, 2021-2024.....	91
Table 21. Shelters and target clientele by region in the Philippines.....	98
Table 22. Number of Women and Girls Accommodated by DSWD, 2018-2021.	99
Table 23. Distribution of WCPUs in the Philippines by region and corresponding population.	103
Table 24. Annual Data on VAW, 2011-2015 as reported to PNP.....	106
Table 25. Annual Data on VAW, 2017-2021 as reported to PNP.....	107
Table 26. Case dispositions in trial courts, 2016-2021.....	108
Table 27. Cases of domestic violence and trafficking as reported to local authorities, 2008-2010.	110

I. Introduction

1.1. Overview of the phenomenon

“Violence against women is the greatest scandal of human rights of our times”. This is how Amnesty International describes one of the most pervasive current issues of the world (Amnesty International 2004, 6). It has been widely acknowledged that violence against women is a serious violation of human rights (Krantz and Garcia-Moreno 2005, 818). Nevertheless, the prevalence of violence against women globally demands deep concern and growing attention: it is estimated that about one-third of women worldwide have experienced either physical and/or sexual intimate partner violence or non-partner sexual violence in their lifetime, as provided by the World Health Organization (WHO 2024). These figures demonstrate that it is a pandemic, and no matter the differences in geography, culture, and socioeconomic classes, the common pattern of gender-based violence still persists across various countries (Klugman 2023, 8).

The region of Southeast Asia is no exception to these statistical findings. More than one in three women above 15 years old have faced gender-based violence in their life in this part of the world (UN Women 2023). The Philippines and Cambodia both face significant challenges related to DV and IPV, which is for a big part a consequence of the male-dominated and conservative nature of these societies (Vicheika 2023). It has been found that men who support patriarchal values are more prone to justify and commit violence against women (Lomazzi 2023, 4). This phenomenon increases women's oppression in society and complicates access to rights, opportunities and resources. It is a mechanism that helps perpetuate power inequalities and entrench discrimination against women and girls (Hughes 2017, 7). Violence against women is a clear manifestation of gender inequality.

VAW hinders active participation in civic life, make it more difficult to eradicate poverty, and is a major cause of high rates of death, physical and mental health problems and disability (Rosche 2013, 2). According to the World Bank, it accounts for as many deaths and illnesses among women aged 15-44 as cancer and has a greater risk of ill health than malaria and traffic accidents combined (World Bank 1993, 50). Apart from all of this, women and girls, affected by VAW usually have an additional barrier when it comes to access to education: they might drop out of school because of abuse or find themselves in a hostile environment, which impacts their learning ability (World Bank 2015, 1).

In recent years, the issue has become more urgent after COVID-19 uncovered existing inequalities in families and society and reinforced the systemic factors that drive domestic and intimate partner violence (Karaman et al. 2022); many national reports indicate that VAW cases increased during the pandemic (UN Women 2020, 1).

In September 2015, the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development was jointly adopted by the members of the United Nations. This agenda aims to address such issues of global importance as eradicating poverty, reducing various intersecting inequalities, combating climate change, resolving conflict, and sustaining peace (Carpentier et al. 2020, 14). Notably, achieving gender equality was included among the key priorities of these goals, and eliminating violence against women was specifically identified as a target, as violence against women remains both a consequence and a cause of profound gender inequality (Burn 2010, 17; Fulu and Warner 2018, 9).

Violence against women is not just a pressing social and public health issue but is fundamentally a violation of basic human rights. Just off the top of the list, VAW constitutes a violation of such human rights as the right to life as well as equality and non-discrimination and many others (Rico 1997, 15). The human rights framework is often utilized in regard to violence against women. This framework implies that a set of human rights are inherent and violence against women is a violation of multiple human rights (Valentini 2017, 862; Rico 1997, 15). Human rights are upheld by international law.

One such international law document, the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) places an obligation on states to provide legal protection and access to justice for women. The principle of due diligence, an integral aspect of CEDAW, states that states have a responsibility to take the necessary steps to remedy human rights violations when they occur (Tekkas Kerman and Betrus 2020, 511). Under international treaties and conventions, governments are obliged to prevent, protect, prosecute, punish, and provide compensation to victims and their dependents. It lays down a foundation for the response of national legal systems (Sally 2010, 81).

1.2.Relevance and the RQ

The governments of Cambodia and the Philippines have already shown their commitment to eradicating violence against women by signing and ratifying key international documents, which include the 1979 Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women and the 1995 Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (United Nations Human Rights Treaty Bodies n.d.; Royal Government of Cambodia 2004, 1; CFO 2019, 1)

These commitments were solidified by the signing by the two Governments of the Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women and Violence against Children in ASEAN. The Declaration confirms the shared determination to eliminate violence against women and children and outlines a set of measures to achieve this goal (Association of Southeast Asian Nations 2013, 3).

Furthermore, both the Philippines and Cambodia have taken up the challenge of achieving the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). In the Philippines, the government responded to the SDGs on gender equality by releasing a policy requiring all government agencies to monitor data related to the country's progress towards achieving the SDGs (Deguma et al. 2018, 69). Similarly, the Government of Cambodia demonstrated its commitment by adapting the global goals to the national context and developing a localized set of targets known as the Cambodian SDGs (CSDGs), aligning them with a long-term vision to 2050 (Kingdom of Cambodia 2018, 1).

However, participation in international conventions and treaties does not guarantee a solution to human rights problems, as violations may continue despite such participation (Avdeyeva 2007, 877). While many governments have indeed made significant progress in addressing violence against women, there remains a group of countries unwilling to criminalize specific forms of violence, strengthen institutional mechanisms, and invest in the protection and prevention of violence against women (Htun and Weldon 2020, 155). The statistics from the Philippines and Cambodia indicate that there is still room for growth in both states.

According to OECD data, the prevalence of VAW in Cambodia and the Philippines as of 2023 was 19% and 14% respectively (OECD 2024). A previous study by UNFPA demonstrated, that 30% of women in Cambodia have had an experience of physical, sexual or emotional violence and 20,9% encountered IPV, while in the Philippines the latter index was a bit lower at 14.8% (Ang and Lai 2022, 1). The severity of the problem among women is emphasized by the statistics on perpetrators. Bernarte et al. (2018, 121) analyzed police administrative data from January to June 2016, which showed that out of 22,501 perpetrators of VAW in total, 98,9% were male. Regarding Cambodia, it was found in 2013 that 32.8% of men reported having committed physical and/or sexual violence against in an intimate relationship during their lifetime (Eisenbruch 2018, 318).

The high prevalence of violence against women in both countries can be attributed to the persistence of traditional attitudes deeply rooted in culture and society. In the Philippine context, cultural norms tend to dictate the superiority of men over women (Bernarte et al. 2018, 121). Similarly, Cambodia is a male-dominated society, exemplified by the "Cambodian Code of Conduct", which until relatively recently was included in the education curriculum and provided norms of behavior for ideal women (Eng et al. 2009, 239).

In addition, using different datasets on combating violence against women, it is possible to get a general idea of how seriously states take combating violence against women (Htun and Weldon 2020, 145). According to the OECD dataset on VAW laws, the Philippines scored 75 and Cambodia scored 50, whereas the score of 0 means that countries have reached a state of non-discrimination (OECD n.d.; OECD n.d.(a)).

Nevertheless, some studies on the Philippines and Cambodia have mentioned, that the countries have made some progress in this regard. According to Randhawa (2010, 2), the Philippines has one of the most robust legislative frameworks in the region, especially regarding the criminalization of violence against women. Concerning Cambodia, the country has been named a leader in the region on prevention (Belen 2021, 39). The state has been piloting evidence-based programs tackling roots of violence, engaging education, community, and men (UN Women 2021, 10; Sovann 2019, 306; Chiew Way and Siow Li 2022, 3).

Following the information provided, it can be anticipated that the countries have not sufficiently protected the human rights of women and ensured their safety from violence. Secondly, it can be presumed that the responses implemented by the governments will reveal that the Philippines has a stronger stance on criminalization and the establishment of protection networks for women, whereas Cambodia has shown promising results and placed emphasis on preventing violence.

Based on the evidence presented, the **Research Question** can be formulated as follows:

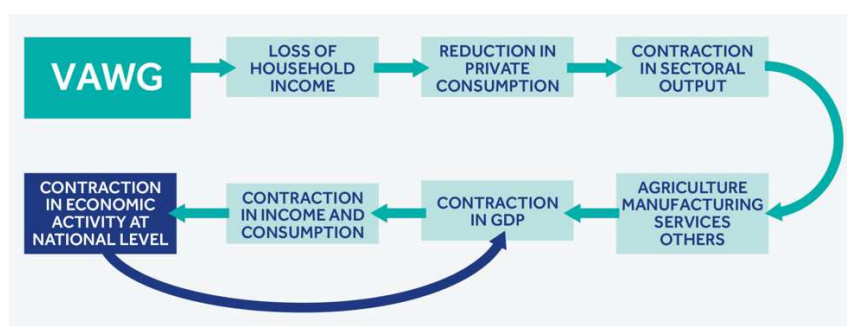
Is the response of the Philippines and Cambodia regarding the protection of women's human rights and addressing violence against women comprehensive enough when compared to the minimum standards set by international human rights law and if not, how can it be enhanced?

This thesis is relevant for **policymakers**, as they require updated data and analyses to inform their policy decisions. It is helpful to know to which extent existing legislation complies with the established minimum standards for developing public policies on VAW (Vives-Cases, Ortiz-Barreda and Gil-Gonzalez 2010, 475). The goal is to identify gaps in the legislation and

implementation steps, followed by evidence-based recommendations to guide the policy-making process, as has been done before by other works about other countries (Ali 2020, 63). In particular, the recommendations will concern the policy on budget, training, data collection, institutions behind implementation and monitoring of policy on VAW, provision of services and civil remedies, as well as prevention. The thesis will also be valuable for **agencies, responsible for M&E** of the legislation and policy of both governments.

The relevance of this thesis for **policymakers and government officials** is reinforced in the light of the immense costs brought by the issue. While violence against women is deeply alarming on its own, its consequences go far beyond the individual victims. The costs affect and burden the economy and society as a whole, which justifies interventions to reduce and eliminate violence against women even more (Walby 2009, 3). The total costs for VAW in the European Union have been estimated at €289 billion in 2019 (EIGE 2021, 22). Although it is difficult to break down the costs for the whole union, the example of the UK in 2019 shows, that most of this is coming from physical and emotional impact (55.6%), criminal justice services (20.6 %), and lost economic output (14%), while health and specialist services take up about 8% together (EIGE 2021, 21). The figure below illustrates the multiplier effect of VAW on the economy, where direct, indirect, and induced costs amplify one another.

Figure 1. The multiplier effect of VAWG on the economy.



Source: Commonwealth Secretariat 2022, 25.

So, investing in the protection of victims and the prevention of violence makes sense from both economic and ethical standpoints (Walker 2021). The need to invest in prevention has been also stressed by scholars, as it addresses the root causes of the problem and is more cost-effective than other interventions (Michau 2015, 1672; Krug et al. 2002, 1087).

Furthermore, addressing the issue of VAW is vital for tackling poverty, reducing inequality, and advancing human rights, with the potential to benefit not only **women and children** but also the **broader population** in the countries under consideration (Burn 2011, 25).

Women organizations and NGOs are and have been the motor of combat against violence, the drivers of change, and the voices of the unheard (Bunch 1990, 6). The research will provide information concerning gaps and challenges in the protection of the human rights of women in the Philippines and Cambodia, which require attention.

The increased focus on gender issues in the human rights agenda is evident, and it is a positive step. **United Nations entities** have a critical role in continuously monitoring violations

and enhancing the effectiveness of this monitoring to ensure the safeguarding of women's rights globally (Farrior 2009, 84). This thesis directly employs tools provided by OHCHR and UN Women to demonstrate their practical application. Additionally, it contributes to the monitoring process, by providing valuable data, aiding in the ongoing efforts to encourage states to adhere to their obligations regarding human rights. Promoting and strengthening compliance with international treaties and human rights mechanisms is essential (Krug et al. 2002, 1087).

This research is relevant for **scholars** as it can be a foundation for further exploration of the topic of violence against women and human rights. This research is one of the few ones, which have applied the method of OHCHR indicators to the issue of violence against women. The importance of this method lies in the fact that it goes beyond analyzing the legislative framework of governments to look at the concrete steps taken to implement the legislation. While the ultimate goal is to assess the effectiveness of these measures (Guaita-Fernández et al. 2024, 2), process indicators provide insight into whether changes have remained merely on paper or have translated into actual action (OHCHR 2012, 36). The scope of this work did not allow us to look at the pillars of investigation and punishment, which are part of the principle of Due Diligence under CEDAW (CPA UK 2021, 14). Future research can explore further into these aspects to provide a fuller understanding of states' obligations and responses to violence against women.

Lastly, this research is relevant to women in the Philippines and Cambodia. It is crucial to educate women about their rights, promote their right to safety and work towards policy changes to reduce their vulnerability to VAW (Valdez et al. 2022, 2). The research contributes to these efforts.

A few considerations concerning the scope of the work must be mentioned. CEDAW imposes obligations on the governments to act with due diligence to protect women from violence (Sosa 2017, 50). In the context of violence against women, the principle of Due Diligence is divided into the obligations to prevent, investigate, punish, and provide services and reparations. With respect to due diligence, governments have to reform legislation and criminalize violent acts (Benninger-Budel 2008, 11; Ertürk 2008, 38; Sosa 2017, 50). Given the scope of this paper, covering all state obligations is not feasible. This paper therefore takes a women-centered approach, prioritizing prevention and protection over investigation and punishment, which tend to focus more on the perpetrator. This approach recognizes the close relationship between prevention and protection measures, which address the root causes of violence against women and ensure their safety and well-being.

II. Literature Review

2.1. Violence Against Women and Human Rights Framework

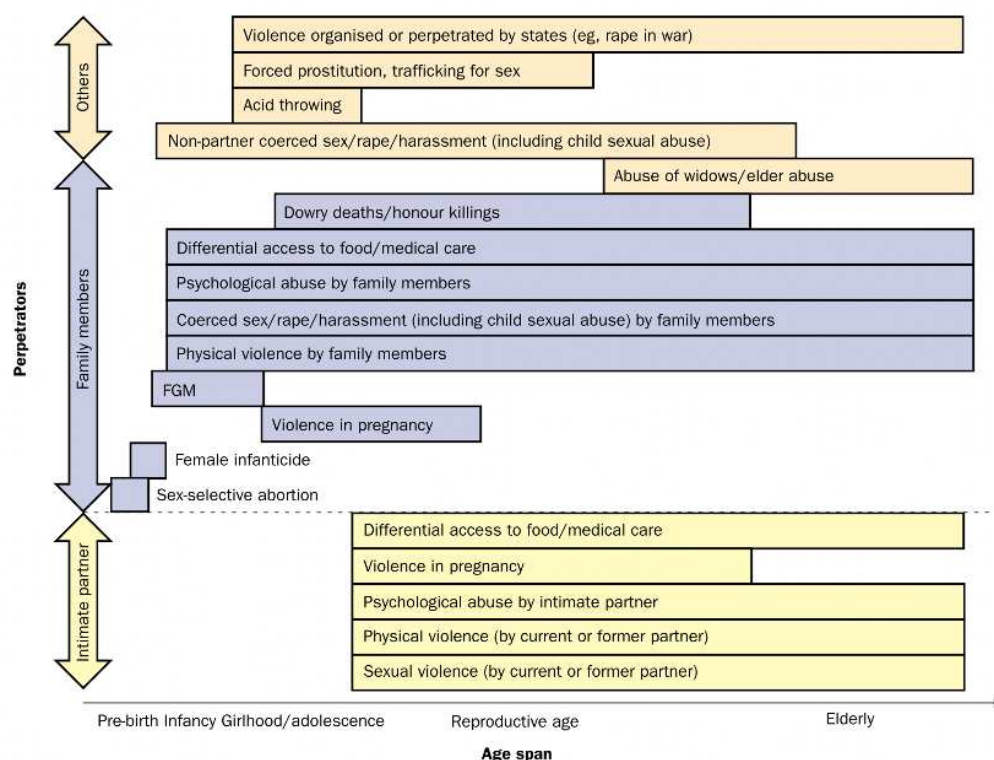
The two main parts of the Research Question are violence against women and measures to protect them. This is why the literature review will start with a brief overview of works and ideas concerning violence against women, its causes and effects. Moreover, according to Htun and Weldon (2012, 549), understanding of the causes of violence against women is crucial to identifying and implementing effective policies to address it. Understanding the consequences of violence is also crucial for effective protection and meeting the needs of survivors.

Violence against women is a complex issue. This concept can be understood differently depending on various organizational and national contexts, it can be viewed through the lens of feminism, criminology, psychology, politics, and human rights as well as through an organizational, legal, and ideological perspective (Strid et al. 2021).

Violence against women can be defined as “any act of verbal or physical force, coercion or life- threatening deprivation, directed at an individual woman or girl that causes physical or psychological harm, humiliation or arbitrary deprivation of liberty and that perpetuates female subordination”, (Ellsberg and Heise 2005, 95). Violence against women (VAW) and violence against women and girls (VAWG), differ based on the scope of the issue, another key term is used almost interchangeably - gender-based violence (UN Women, Headquarters n.d.). WHO defines violence against women as an act of gender-based violence (WHO 2021). Gender-based violence usually affects both women and men as well as LGBTQI+ populations, with women primarily being the victims (UN Women, Headquarters n.d.).

A great number of authors have been trying to provide typology for VAW. One possible is to divide it depending on who commits it: self-directed violence, interpersonal violence, and collective violence. Watts and Zimmermann (2022, 1233) divide forms of violence, based on the perpetrator and the age of the victims (Figure 2).

Figure 2. Violence and abuse against women



Source: (Watts and Zimmermann 2022, 1233)

Another way to categorize violence is based on its nature: physical, sexual, and psychological violence (Watts and Zimmerman 2002, 1235; Garcia-Moreno et al. 2005, 1283). There is a consensus on the main forms of violence, but the specific nuances and prevalence of these forms can vary depending on the setting and context: domestic violence, intimate-partner violence, femicide, sexual violence, female genital mutilation, trafficking, forced marriage, and digital violence (Garcia-Moreno et al 2005, 1283; United Nations 2015, 142-158).

In the realm of research on the risks and causes of violence against women, numerous scholars have investigated various contexts without necessarily adhering to a structured framework. However, with the introduction of the Ecological Model, a reliable method of systematizing these results has emerged. Although not all studies directly use this model, the vast majority of their ideas can be linked to its structure. Originally proposed by Heise (1998, 265), it revealed that violence against women is influenced and caused on the following levels: individual, relationship, community, and macro-social levels. Attempts to improve the framework are followed by reinterpreting or adding more levels to it: individual, relationship, community, and societal (Jewkes 2002, 1427); or a global level (Fulu, Miedema 2015, 1432).

The biological and personal history factors that increase a person's risk of either being a victim or a perpetrator of violence are encompassed in the individual level of VAW. These variables include age, level of education, and a history of abuse or trauma throughout childhood (Deyessa et al. 2009, 2; Mamdouh et al. 2012, 1119).

Research has consistently demonstrated that women with lower levels of education are more vulnerable to violence. On the other hand, married couples with about equal levels of

education and women with more educational backgrounds are less likely to face violence (Jewkes 2002, 1427). Education gives self-confidence, the capacity to use the knowledge and resources available in society, and social empowerment through social networks (Jewkes 2002, 1427). However, it is a medal with two sides. Men with conservative views are more likely to abuse women, especially if they are more educated and have liberal views, which means that they are more able to challenge traditional gender roles and women's position in society (Vyas and Watts 2009, 4; Koenig et al. 2003, 284).

A history of abuse in childhood is another risk. People who have experienced abuse or trauma as children may be more likely to experience violence in the future or to use it themselves (Abramsky et al. 2011, 13; Heise et al. 2002, 7).

The next level of analysis of risk factors for VAW is the relationship level. At this level, close relationships and household dynamics can shape behavior and experiences, which are male dominance in the family, male control of wealth in the family, marital conflict, and use of alcohol (Heise 1998, 264).

The community level of the ecological model encompasses factors such as unemployment, the isolation of women within the family, and the behaviors exhibited by peer groups (Heise 1998, 266). The risk of VAW rises with the isolation of women and the presence of peer groups that condone male violence. Specifically, male peer groups significantly influence the acceptance of intimate partner violence (Flood and Pease 2009, 132).

Having access to social support is crucial for women. Women who gain respect and influence through participation in society tend to be less likely to experience violence than other women. Moreover, support, especially from a woman's family, can strengthen her value by increasing her self-esteem. (Jewkes 2002, 1425).

Finally, the societal level of the ecological model includes the broader social and cultural norms. Research indicates that societies with rigid gender roles and where masculinity is closely tied to dominance and male honor are likely to experience higher rates of VAW (Alesina et al. 2021, 72). Such societies often endorse patriarchal norms that support male domination and control over women. Social norms, beliefs, and attitudes are important in how acceptable violence is (Witte and Mulla 2012, 3392). Gender roles, which uphold the subordination of women, can influence individual beliefs but can be also evident in broader societal layers. Institutions play a key role in creating these norms, as national and international bodies either endorse or challenging certain gender behaviors (Lomazzi 2023, 2). Over time, these institutional norms have a deep impact on individual and family beliefs, directing society towards either greater equality or inequality (Lomazzi 2023, 2). Gender norms that are already entrenched at the individual and societal level can result in legal systems that ignore or fail to fulfil women's rights, and economic policies that increase poverty and inequality while having a disproportionate impact on women. (Heise 1998, 279)

Researchers have noted serious physical and mental health consequences for victims, such as sexually transmitted infections, depression, anxiety, post-traumatic stress disorder and social isolation (Venis and Richard 2002, 1172; Ratsela and Chaib 2013). VAW imposes substantial costs on governments and society (Walby 2009, 23).

As mentioned above, the issue of violence against women can be viewed using a human rights perspective.

This framework implies that a set of human rights are inherent and violence against women is a violation of multiple human rights. It also can be used as a tool by various local

organizations and NGOs to hold governments accountable. Moreover, it lays down a foundation for the response of national legal systems. Human rights conventions become a part of the national legal system after a consequence of steps: ratification, implementation, and enforcement (Sally 2010, 81). Usually, the State had an obligation only before the other States, which are a part of a convention; human rights violations could have been attributed only to the States. Violence against women is perpetrated by individuals, in other words, international law stayed in the public dimension and the private dimension was not included in the scope (Bunch 1990, 490). To breach this barrier, Due Diligence Principle was established. The due diligence standard places an obligation on states to take active and effective measures to prevent, investigate, and punish violence against women, regardless of whether such violence is committed by the state or by private individuals (Tekkas Kerman and Betrus 2020, 511).

However, there is substantial criticism when it comes to the human rights framework. First, feminist theorists point out, that the human rights framework still operates in the public context and mostly cannot be applied to non-state actors (Critelli 2010, 137). It also fails to address multi-faceted structural and intersectional issues of violence against women (Pearce 2014, 7). Another point of criticism was brought by cultural relativists, in which human rights cannot be viewed as universal and some human rights contradict traditional cultural phenomena (Chinkin 1999, 5). Nevertheless, this point of view is often disregarded by scholars, as cultural diversity should not be used to excuse human rights violations (Amirthalingam 2005, 706). Finally, scholars and other stakeholders expressed concerns about the insufficient enforcement mechanisms within the international human rights legal framework (Sally 2003, 942).

The most fundamental tool of the international human rights framework is the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), adopted in 1979 (Merry 2003, 942). Although, there is no broad prohibition of VAW, Article 1 of the Convention condemns discrimination against women and condones equality between men and women (UN General Assembly 1979, 2). This core principle lays the foundation for recognizing violence against women (VAW) as a form of discrimination (Anderson 2008, 188). Meanwhile, Article 5 urges the States to eradicate gender stereotypes and roles (CEDAW 1979). By doing so, it provides a crucial mechanism for preventing such discrimination and violence (Holtmaat 2009, 64). As a category, violence against women is acknowledged by General Recommendation No. 19, issued by the CEDAW, where it is defined as violence directed against a woman because she is a woman (Human Rights Council 2017, 6). Violence against women is not explicitly specified as a violation of human rights, but as an act that impairs the enjoyment of such rights (Anderson 2008, 188).

CEDAW is supported by the 1993 Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women (DEVAW), which affirms that violence against women constitutes a violation of the rights of women (Biersack, Jolly and Macintyre 2016, 7). DEVAW puts out a principle of due diligence, according to which the states are obligated to prevent, investigate, and punish acts of violence against women (Chinkin 1995, 27). Generally, the due diligence principle is understood as the obligation to respect, protect and fulfill human rights (Fried 2003, 97). In addressing violence against women, interpretations of due diligence vary, but the most comprehensive interpretation suggests that states have an obligation to prevent, protect, and provide reparations to victims (Sosa 2017, 51). The pillar of “protection” can be further divided into the need to implement punitive measures (such as criminalization, investigation, and punishment of violence against women) and provide services to victims (Sosa 2017, 51).

For governments to be able to realize this obligation, the international human rights framework sets out a list of measures. These measures are laid out in General Recommendation No. 19, DEVAW, the 1995 Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action the 2011 Istanbul Convention, and others.

According to General Recommendation No. 19, the states have to take the following actions to eliminate violence against women:

§24(b) implementation of laws against gender-based violence, which adequately protect all women; gender-sensitivity training for law enforcement and judicial officers and other public officials;

§24(c) collection of statistics on the extent, causes, effects of VAW as well as effectiveness of measures taken;

§24(d) sensitizing of the media in relation to VAW;

§24(i.i) effective legal measures, including penal sanctions, civil remedies... for all victims of gender-based violence;

§24(i.ii) preventive measures, including public information and education programs to change attitudes concerning the roles and status of men and women;

§24(t.iii) protective measures, including refuges, counseling, rehabilitation, and support services (UN Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women 1992, 4-6).

1995 Beijing Declaration reinforces the idea that violence against women is a violation of human rights and specifies that a holistic and multidisciplinary approach is needed to combat VAW (Adams 2007, 106;). Some of the steps advised for governments overlap with those, mentioned in the previous documents, but it does introduce new strategies. It is recommended to formulate a national action plan to eliminate VAW (§124(d)), as well as allocate adequate resources within the government budget and mobilize community resources for activities related to the elimination of violence against women, including resources for the implementation of plans of action at all appropriate levels (§124 (p)) (United Nations 1995, 58). The recommendation for training programs is expanded from law enforcement and the judicial sector to medical, social, and educational personnel (§124(n)) (United Nations 1995, 58).

The 2011 Istanbul Convention presents one of the most comprehensive sets of measures for governments to address violence against women and domestic violence. Although the Convention is legally binding only for European states that have ratified it and non-European states are not obligated to adhere to its provisions unless they choose to do so voluntarily, it is still a part of the broader international human rights framework (Council of Europe 2014, 9). The Convention states that all relevant measures, aimed at the prevention and combatting of VAW should be well coordinated and comprehensive, which calls for the need to establish one or more official bodies, that would be responsible for the coordination, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation of the steps taken to eradicate VAW (Article 7; Article 10) (Council of Europe 2011, 4). It also mentions the importance of the provision of access to health care for the victims of violence (Article 20 §1) (Council of Europe 2011, 8).

While the international human rights framework recommends a more comprehensive set of measures, the measures highlighted above play a key role in preventing violence and protecting victims. Scholars emphasize that the effectiveness of these measures depends on their implementation by the government (Ellsberg 2015, 1558). Mechanisms such as **training and capacity building, budget allocation, inter-agency bodies**, and rigorous **data collection** greatly enhance the government's capacity to implement such measures.

2.2. Legal Framework

The next part of the literature review explores the essential content that should be covered in the legislative frameworks concerning VAW.

Violence against women restricts women's ability to enjoy human rights under international law and is considered discrimination under the CEDAW (Walby 2015, 118). This needs to be recognized by the legislative frameworks, as it means that the harm is not done to just one person, but VAW is a broader societal problem, that needs a systemic solution (Agarwal 2021, 18). An example of this understanding is Spain's 2005 Integral Act, which includes the concept of gender-based violence in its anti-discrimination principles (Méndez 2008, 7).

Morrison, Ellsberg and Bott (2004, 16) discussed that reform of the criminal justice sector is an essential component as the lack of punishment for VAW sends a message of tolerance. García-Moreno et al. (2014, 1687) calls for criminalization of all forms of violence. The Organic Law on the Right of Women to a Life Free of Violence in Venezuela is a good example, encompassing nineteen forms of GBV (Rivera 2022, 6). The research of Vives-Cases, Ortiz-Barreda and Gil-Gonzalez (2010, 475) mentions the necessity to include all types of VAW in legislation: physical, sexual, psychological, and economic. The study of Gomes and Avellaneda (2021, 7) puts together a comparison of laws, encompassing four types of VAW, which shows a great variety between the regions (Table 1):

Table 1. Percentages of countries, by region, with legislation for different types of violence against women.

Regions	Criminal sanction	Emotional violence	Economic violence	Physical violence	Sexual violence	Average
South Asia	88	88	75	88	88	85.4%
Latin America and the Caribbean	72	97	69	97	81	69.3%
Europe and Central Asia	39	87	74	87	83	61.7%
East Asia and Pacific	61	89	50	94	56	58.3%
OECD High Income	69	81	28	81	46	50.8%
Sub-Saharan Africa	32	46	37	49	39	33.8%
Middle East and North Africa	26	16	5	16	11	12.3%

Source: Gomes and Avellaneda 2021, 7

Such classification between types of violence is usually attributed and analyzed in the context of domestic violence (Vachhani et al. 2017, 4921). Italy's 2001 law on domestic violence extends to all family members and covers physical as well as psychological violence (EIGE 2016, 2). In contrast, the laws of Singapore and Malaysia do not distinguish domestic violence as a separate offense and define it too narrowly (Amirthalingam 2005, 688). Ideally the scope of the legislation should account for most domestic relationships, which may be subject to domestic violence (UNIFEM 2009, 19).

Domestic violence occurs across multiple relationships, including parents, children, extended family, and partners, the latter being commonly referred to as IPV, which should be acknowledged irrespective of cohabitation status. (Youngs 2015, 56; Lanchimba et al. 2023, 2). IPV and harassment can be experienced in both same-sex and heterosexual relationships, past

and present (Erez 2002, 3). Breiding et al. (2015, 11) give quite an exhaustive list of intimate partner relationships:

“spouses (married spouses, common-law spouses, civil union spouses, domestic partners), boyfriends/girlfriends, dating partners, ongoing sexual partners”.

Lastly, the law on domestic violence should indicate women as the primary focus of the legislation as well as use specific terms like “violence against women” in the titles (Ortiz-Barreda and Gil-Gonzalez 2013, 62). On the contrary, some of the laws in Southeast Asia prioritize the importance of preserving the family while also aiming to protect the victims (UNIFEM 2009, 14; Amirthalingam 2005, 686).

Concerning sexual violence, international law advises moving away from the framework, centered on sexual violence as a crime against morality, honor, public decency, family or society. Instead, sexual violence should be defined as a crime against the physical integrity and sexual autonomy of a person (Horii and Bouland 2023, 16). Such symbolic change has been highlighted by van Cleave (2007, 293) in the Penal Code of Italy, which shifted away from “a crime against public morality and decency” towards a “crime against the person”.

The importance of the concept of “consent” to the definition of sexual violence has been recognized in international law and practice of many countries. This concept comes to replace the requirement that sexual assault must be conducted using force (UN Women 2012, 24). Instead, such European countries as Ireland, Greece, Luxembourg, and many others have defined rape as an act committed to a person who does not consent as well as gave a comprehensive definition to the concept (Zamfir 2024, 26). New Zealand does not define consent in the Criminal Code but gives a list of situations not indicating consent (Mossman et al. 2009, 85). Another noticeable change, as highlighted by Regan and Kelly (2003, 15), has been extending the list of forms of penetration, included in the laws on SV.

Apart from this, the inclusion of aggravating circumstances, which increase the range of punishment for SV can be found in the legislation globally. Italy, for example, implements factors such as the age of the victim, use of drugs by the perpetrator, the perpetrator's relationship to the victim (if it's a parent or a guardian), if the perpetrator is a public official or the crime is conducted by multiple perpetrators (Cleave 2007, 294). Canada considers wounding or life endangerment of victim such a circumstance (Brennan and Taylor-Butts 2008, 7). Croatia and Spain consider the use of force or threats to be grounds for harsher penalties (Zamfir 2024, 10; 21).

To date, marital rape has been criminalized in most countries, although the methods have varied: through judicial decisions, removal of exceptions to the law, explicit mention in laws, or creation of a new crime called “marital rape”. The reason is that the assumption that marriage implies sexual consent is outdated (Banerjee and Rao 2022, 11).

Another helpful law practice involves making it easier for people to get divorced. This can reduce domestic violence because it allows victims to leave abusive relationships more easily (Brassiolo 2016, 244). In Spain, for example, such reform of divorce legislation in Spain in 2005 allowed for unilateral no-fault divorce with the option to file for divorce directly, without legal separation (Brassiolo 2016, 250).

Another vital part of legislation and policy on violence against women are national action plans (NAPs), which lay out the strategy to prevent and combat VAW. The works, which have analyzed the NAPs in different regions highlight the importance of linking forms of violence to human rights violation and discrimination (EIGE 2012, 22; Krizsan and Pap 2016,

18). Moreover, it is a good practice to have an integrated NAP, capturing all forms of violence, which can either correlate with a comprehensive legal instrument on all forms of violence or serve as a mechanism to link specific legal and policy documents on various forms of violence (Krizsan and Pap 2016, 14-18). However, there are examples of NAPs with limited scope, capturing only DV, which can be found in the EU (EIGE 2012, 22). The work of Essayag (2017, 37) concerning the region of Latin America and the Caribbean analyzed the policy focusing on this component and distinguished between specific plans on VAW and GBV; NAPs on domestic violence; NAPs with a specific component concerning VAW and countries which do not have any plans on this issue at all. Prominently, another point of analysis in this study was if the NAPs are consistent with existing legislation on VAW, which is evident in the harmonization of definitions and recognized types of violence between two types of documents (Essayag 2017, 43).

Kelly et al. (2018) have conducted a comprehensive analysis of national action plans in some European countries and have emphasized the following markers of efficiency, which should be considered while implementing a NAP:

1. The existence of a lead group or an agency to oversee the implementation of the plan;
2. Comprehensiveness (in terms of cross-ministerial engagement and inclusion of all forms of violence);
3. Inter-agency collaboration across sectors;
4. Consultation with NGOs and civil society;
5. Link to gender inequality and discrimination as well as violation of human rights;
6. Intersectionality (mention of all vulnerable groups);
7. Accountability (in terms of establishment of clear tasks and responsible ministries, timelines and expected outcomes for measures, attached funding, division of tasks between several levels of government);

(Source: Kelly et al. 2018, 38-47).

The importance of the mention of vulnerable groups and the assignment of clear tasks and responsibilities have also been found in the works of Krizsan and Pap (2016, 31) and (Ortiz-Barreda 2011, 126).

2.3. Inter-sectoral Mechanism for Monitoring

Pavlou and Fomina's report (2023, 9), where they analyze the Istanbul Convention, emphasizes the need for strong inter-sectoral cooperation among ministries, state agencies, and civil society to address violence against women comprehensively. It advocates for the establishment of one or more coordinating bodies to ensure a unified approach in implementing, monitoring, and evaluating policies against all forms of violence.

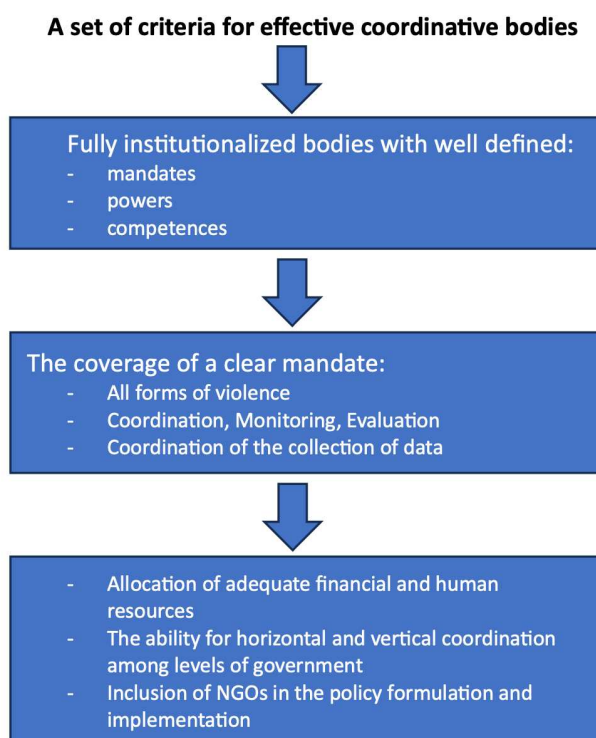
The report of Bárcena et al (2015, 75) on Latin America and the Caribbean supports the important role of institutions behind the implementation and monitoring of policy on VAW and suggests that there is a link between the existence of National Women's Machineries and the presence of a national plan on VAW.

The responsibility for monitoring and evaluation of VAW policy can be vested in a separate agency, as demonstrated by the example of "The Observatory against Domestic and Gender Violence" in Spain or be a part of the functions of a National Women's Machinery or

another Ministry as seen in Latin America and the Caribbean (Bárcena et al. 2015, 73; Walby 2016, 14).

Pavlou and Fomina (2023, 10) have cited a set of criteria for effective institutions, as depicted in the figure:

Figure 3. A set of criteria for effective coordinative bodies



Source: Pavlou and Fomina 2023, 10.

A more specific discussion of mandates and other aspects of an institutionalized entity can be found in the adjacent research field on NWMs and can be applied to VAW bodies.

The status of the NWM's shows how much importance the government places on its responsibilities, affecting its authority and scope of influence (UN 2010, 19). The status is reflected by the location within the government, structure, staffing, and budget (Byrne and Laier 1996, 14). These governmental bodies can be located either in the executive, legislative or judicial branch, or even affiliated with a political party. Alternatively, the location can be outside of the government altogether, the functions of such units are usually advisory. Concerning the executive branch, the NWM's can be either a ministry or a ministry unit or it can be placed within the office of the head of the state, which can ensure increased attention to women's issues and increase access to funding (Byrne and Laier 1996, 14).

Apart from the national level, the units can be also set up on the local level. Nordic countries provide a case of units, which are established by municipal councils or governments. This form of NWM is the most common in this region (Testolin 2001, 11).

Essayag (2017, 74) pointed out that not only the NWM is responsible for implementing policies to advance women's rights and eradicate violence against women. The goal is to

facilitate coordination and effectiveness of responses in different sectors, which can be improved if the mechanism has a higher level of authority (Essayag 2017, 74). The study incorporated ECLAC's methodology of the hierarchical level of the machineries, which is depicted below:

Figure 4. Methodology of the hierarchical level of the machineries.

Hierarchy level	Colour	Definition
High +	Green	Ministry or entity whose head has ministerial rank
Intermediate	Yellow	Entity attached to the Presidency or machinery whose head is directly responsible to the Presidency (offices attached to the presidency, secretariats, national institutes and other figures)
Low -	Red	Entities dependent on a Ministry (vice-ministries, sub-secretariats, institutes, councils and other figures)

Source: ECLAC United Nations, n.d.

Adams (2007, 177) stresses the importance of a clearly defined mandate and provision of appropriate resources. Byrne and Laier (1996, 20) point out that many NWMs do not have a clear mandate stating their powers and roles, as well as their relationship with central government bodies. Even when this is laid out, it is often formulated rather vaguely, without clear objectives, procedures, and institutional mechanisms. This demonstrates the lack of political will and the inability of most NWMs to influence development plans, budget allocation, or the activities of other ministries. It also causes a mix-up of roles. They also point out the lack of resources. The staff capacity of a unit reflects both budget allocations and departmental status, which has a significant impact on the ability of the NVM to mainstream gender into government initiatives (UN 2010, 29; UN Women 2015, 2).

Concerning the roles, Goetz (2003, 72) distinguished between advisory, and monitoring units and those which have implementation responsibilities. Advisory units promote attention to gender issues and monitoring units provide policy oversight.

2.4.Data Collection

The importance of monitoring and data collection has been stressed in various studies (Peterman and O'Donnell 2020, 1; McKool 2020, 520; García-Moreno et al 2014, 1692). The collection of data makes it possible for governments to understand the extent and nature of the problem and use it in decision-making on policy. Effective data collection should detect cases of violence against women, monitor interventions and programs as well as repeat violence, track the progression of cases through the system, and measure outcomes (UNODC 2014, 97).

There are two main methods of data collection: surveys and administrative data. Surveys provide nationally representative data and allow estimates on prevalence, causes, women's experiences, and consequences to be made, but can be costly. On the other hand, collecting data from administrative sources is a more cost-effective option because the system is already in place and data is gathered regularly, but it may not capture all incidents of violence because only those women who seek help from official services are included (Ellsberg and Heise 2005, 57; Noer et al 2021, 5). It must be noted that data on such forms of violence as femicide or sex victims of sex trafficking can be only retrieved from administrative sources (EIGE 2016, 10). Administrative data is collected from law enforcement, courts, health care facilities (private and

public), as well as specialist support services. The research on the USA shows, that data collection from the criminal justice system is more streamlined than from the healthcare system and victim services providers (Bunce 2023, 2; NIJ and BJS 1996, 11).

The WHO recommends that countries conduct at least one survey on the prevalence of intimate partner violence (IPV) between 2000 and 2018. The surveys can be conducted specifically on VAW or specific questions related to VAW can be included in the generic surveys, as it has been done in the Caribbean (Williams 2020, 12). However, with generic surveys, the VAW is only a part of a long set of questions, so the time and resources could be limited to get a full picture (Walby 2005, 197).

Walby (2016, 9) concludes, based on recommendations from the Istanbul convention, that the data collection should be systematic and contain such categories as type of violence, the sex of the victim and the perpetrator, the relationship between perpetrator and victim, the age of the victim, geographical location. As for the units of measurement, a comprehensive framework needs the following:

- number of victims (and percentage of the population that are victims)
- number of events (crimes or incidents) (and proportionate to the population size);
- number of perpetrators (and percentage of the population that are perpetrators).

In her other work, Walby (2005, 195) mentions that measurement of violence has another dimension, which needs to be taken into consideration when developing indicators for VAW. The time frame of the statistics can either have a focus on lifetime experiences or incidents within the last year. While the former indicates the magnitude of the problem, the latter is used more to assess the effectiveness of policies over time.

Concerning administrative data, EIGE recommends centralizing the regulation of data collection on violence against women within one government institution in order to have harmonized and comparable data. In the EU countries, the absence of such national centralization leads to multiple institutions collecting data on VAW with varying definitions and methodologies (EIGE 2016, 11).

Collaboration between agencies collecting the data and the establishment of linkages between data collection mechanisms is also advised. Inaccuracies arise due to a lack of collaboration among agencies; for example victims seeking assistance from multiple sources may be counted multiple times (UN 2014, 124; European Parliament 2023, 6).

To collect harmonized and consistent data, Denmark and Spain have created registers that bring together different sources of administrative data. The Danish database includes information from medical, criminal, and social registries using a unique personal identification number assigned to all residents of the country (Walby 2016, 14).

2.5. Training and Capacity-Building

A common theme of the works is that all duty-bearers who directly or potentially come into contact with victims of VAW should receive ongoing training and capacity building, as such efforts increase their ability to deliver services and improve victims' experiences with agencies (Htun and Weldon 2013, 233; Dyson and Flood 2008, 10). These professions include those working in the criminal justice system, healthcare, education, social work, and specialized support services for VAW victims, including helpline personnel (Henry and Berisha 2021, 34). Competent training fosters a gender-sensitive understanding of violence and helps to eliminate

prejudices and stereotypes associated with this phenomenon, which in turn reduces the chances of secondary victimization of VAW victims by the professionals and institutions that are supposed to assist them (Krol 2017, 60).

Farrior (2009, 84) observes that the absence of training for law enforcement officers, judges, and prosecutors interferes with access to justice for victims of violence. The study of Calderon et al. (2023, 9) shows police can have a bad and judgmental attitude toward victims and sometimes don't want to work on their cases. Crowell et al. (1996, n.d.) argue that training can make the criminal justice system more responsive to survivors. As cited in Morewitz (1954, 120) training can influence arrest rates in law enforcement. For police, training should also focus on improving investigation and prevention skills, including adherence to response protocols, evidence collection, interviewing, risk assessment, and case management (Jewkes 2014, 6). Capacity-building training for judges, prosecutors, and other legal professionals should make them aware of women's human rights in general, including the CEDAW (UN 2006, 99). Kelly (2002, 38) also highlights an urgent need for training programs on sex trafficking for law enforcement agencies and support services.

Martin (2009, 45) also criticizes that various professionals lack sufficient training, especially in prevention, despite the common goal of preventing domestic and sexual violence and mainly helping victims in the aftermath of violence. This is especially vital in the system of health care. This sector has a big part in not only responding to violence but in the timely identification of victims, which requires proper education intervention and screening tools. Compulsory training on violence against women should be incorporated into the curricula of doctors, nurses, and other health professionals (Hyman 2000, 290). WHO Guidelines (2013, 7) stress the need for pre-qualification and in-service training for all clinicians, starting from primary care to those specializing in sexual and reproductive health and mental health services, as they must know how to identify signs, inquire the victim, respond to violence, and refer the women to other services.

Calderon et al. (2023, 8) found in their study on Peru, that some of the professionals lack the soft skills to handle the cases of VAW, while others did not have enough training on how to conduct sexual assault examinations and document procedures. The findings of Stewart et al. (2015, 1) show that in Latin America and the Caribbean, training is not provided to those groups of healthcare providers whom survivors typically consult the most. Moreover, the study found that 'one-off training' is not enough and there must be continuous trainings, of which there is a lack in low- and middle-income countries.

Many authors highlight the importance of the engagement of special service providers in the training. For example, Feder et al. (2011, 1789) described an intervention in London with the central role of a domestic violence advocate, who provided care to survivors and participated in the training of health care workers. Garcia-Moreno et al. (2015, 8) report on a case in India, where an NGO based at the hospital combines the provision of services and training of health professionals. This model has been also scaled to other hospitals in India. Shaw and Cambell (2011, 115) provide examples of such collaboration in other sectors: RCCs can train police officers on how to respond to rape cases, they can visit schools as well as train prosecutors to conduct investigative interviews with perpetrators and victims.

There are many examples of countries, which addressed the issue in their policies and laws. According to Vives-Cases et al. (2010, 475) Spanish law has incorporated training in health care on the resources in place to care for victims of VAW. The report of PAHO (2022,

46) states that most of the member states of this organization have included commitments to train healthcare workers in their policies.

Apart from the sectors mentioned above, public officials in charge of the implementation of laws and policies should be educated on all forms of violence and be familiarized with a gender-sensitive response (UN 2006, 97). Lomazzi (2023, 16) calls for a need to train “those who legislate and interpret laws”. All levels of the government should receive continuous gender training, including senior government officials and/or ministers, especially those who develop health policy (Garcia-Moreno et al 2014, 1; Byrne and Laier 1996, 4). Providers of special victim services should receive at least 80 hours of basic training, as well as specialized training in handling populations with serious mental health and substance use problems (Maki 2019, 4; Logar and Qosaj-Mustafa 2021, 33). The need for a training curriculum for teachers and school staff is also needed to prevent sexual violence and encourage equal gender beliefs and attitudes (UNGEI n.d.,2; Arango et al. 2015, 1).

2.6.Budget

The allocation of budget is essential for the implementation of legislation and policies, which remains a serious problem for many countries in the field of VAW, although the number of countries with legislation on domestic and other forms of violence has grown (Ellsberg et al. 2015, 1558; Gormley 2009, 20). The resources allocated to policy implementation reflect the government's commitment to addressing the issue of violence against women (PAHO 2022, 25). The main strategy on VAW, which ideally should be captured in a multisectoral national plan of action, has to include strong budgeting for the implementation of measures (Garcia-Moreno et al. 2015, 10). Kelly et al. (2018, 48) found that funding of national action plans has been a challenge in European Countries. The scholar continues to emphasize that all relevant ministries have to financially support the implementation of NPA and integrate it in their budgets. Moreover, she stresses the importance of linkage between national policy and other layers of government to ensure that budget lines and funding mechanisms can be implemented at all levels (Kelly et al. 2018, 48). While this point is particularly important for federal systems, it is also essential for unitary systems where funding is distributed among several levels of government.

According to Rosche (2013, 6), a comprehensive approach to funding the response to VAW is needed, which includes budgets for women's rights organizations, working on the prevention of VAW and support services as well as those working to promote gender equality and advancing women's rights; all relevant ministries have to include a line for VAW into their budgets and there is a recommendation to have a specific budget for the Ministry of Interior dedicated to sensitization of the key stakeholders such as the police, health care providers and the judiciary about VAW. This includes investments in both formal (police reporting systems) and informal (hotlines for survivors) reporting mechanisms (Rosche 2013, 6). Michau (2015, 1672) adds that a lot of resources should go into prevention programming and initiatives. Weldon (2002, 200) insists that it is necessary for government funding to include women's civil society, particularly independent women's organizations, and other women's institutions.

Byrne and Laier (1996, 3) note, that National Women's Machineries, which are usually in charge of the violence against women agenda, are also often underfunded and suffer the first, when there are budgetary cuts. The quality and scope of activities, and staffing have a direct

link to the resources allocated. Due to resource constraints, they often have to choose coping strategies such as focusing on a single activity, breaking off into smaller projects combined with the work of other agencies, or utilizing informal networks (Byrne and Laier 1996, 16).

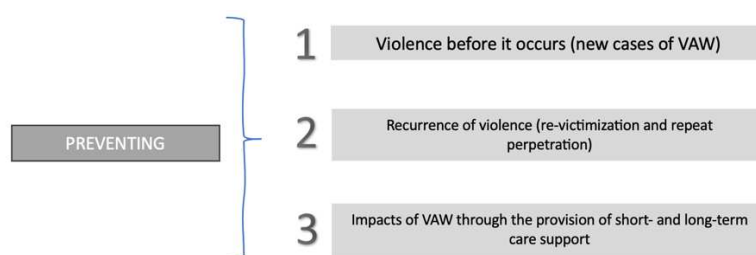
As will be mentioned in the literature review, special services for abused women are often underfunded (Maier 2011a, 153; Maki 2019, 2). The authors emphasize this consideration because the long-term sustainability of these services depends on the continued commitment of governments through adequate allocation of funds (Cordova and Kras 2021, 16). The amount and type of funding have an immediate influence on the availability and standard of support services (EIGE 2012, 30). In this report, it was found, that as of 2012, multiple EU member states lacked legal provisions on specialist services: Hungary, Latvia, Finland, Netherlands, Estonia, Belgium, Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Denmark, Poland, and some others had either no mention of woman's shelters, counseling centers or women's helplines in their funding allocations (EIGE 2012, 129).

2.7.Prevention

Within the field of public health, prevention has been classified into primary, secondary, and tertiary levels, which were first introduced for mental health (Ellis and Thiara 2014, 24). Primary prevention is aimed at preventing new cases of disease or injury; secondary prevention is aimed at reducing the prevalence of established diseases or disorders in a population; and tertiary prevention has the goal of mitigating the disability linked to current diseases or injuries (Leander 2002, 16).

This model has frequently been employed in the context of violence against women. UN Women have selected the following approach to defining the levels of prevention (Figure 5).

Figure 5. An approach to defining levels of prevention concerning VAW.



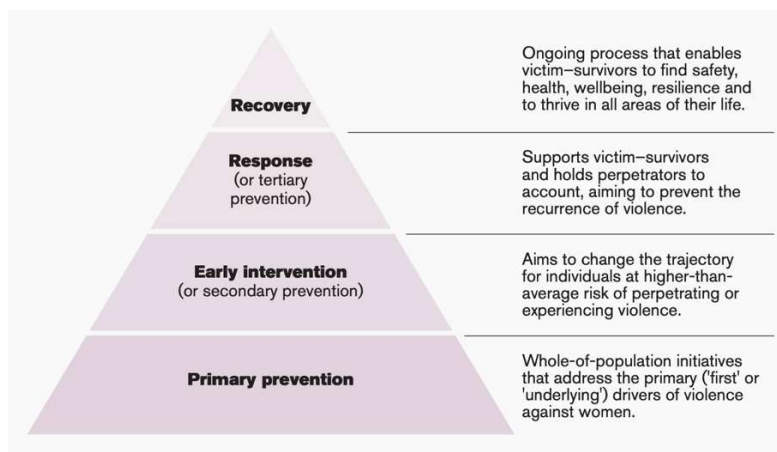
Source: UN Women 2015, 15

It has been recognized that the distinction between primary, secondary, and tertiary tiers of violence prevention isn't always straightforward, and they often overlap (Walden and Wall 2014, 6). Some works define the secondary tier as early intervention (Welsh Women's Aid 2020, 3) and immediate response to violence including emergency services (Krug et. al 2002, 15). Tertiary prevention is sometimes referred to as "response" (Our Watch 2021, 58) and also involves the provision of services but focuses on protection, mitigation of escalation, recurrence, and harmful consequences over the long term, such as shelters, extended support for survivors (Addis and Snowdon 2021, 13), hotlines and other crisis and legal support

services; police and justice system responses (Our Watch 2021, 58). Based on this, secondary and tertiary tiers correlate with the protection pillar of the human rights framework.

Overall, they all contribute to a comprehensive understanding of violence prevention from various angles. It has been demonstrated that using this framework helps to bring about positive change at various stages of violence (Addis and Snowden 2023, 76).

Figure 6. Typology of VAW prevention programs.



Source: Our Watch 2021, 58.

Figure 6 illustrates another possible typology of prevention programs, based on the target population. The idea is that the number of individuals decreases with each ascending tier of prevention, suggesting that primary prevention has the broadest reach and impact, while tertiary prevention has the most limited reach (Our Watch 2021, 131). While this typology is commonly found in various works on VAW prevention, it is not always rigid or consistent, and different works may use it interchangeably. This typology includes universal preventive measures for the entire population, selective preventive measures for those with above-average risk, and indicated preventive measures targeted at individuals who exhibit specific risk factors or conditions, identifying them as at high risk for various issues, including those who already have been affected by violence (Leander 2002, 16).

In the past, violence against women was viewed as an inevitable social phenomenon and therefore, efforts were concentrated on dealing with its aftermath (secondary and tertiary prevention, incarceration) (Michau 2015, 1673). However, the research has revealed that such violence is preventable (Krug et al. 2002, 3), deeming it a priority to intervene before its onset (Salter 2016, 465). This approach has become a big focus in policymaking worldwide, with more funding and programs being dedicated to it (Sutherland 2023, 3; Ison 2023, 2).

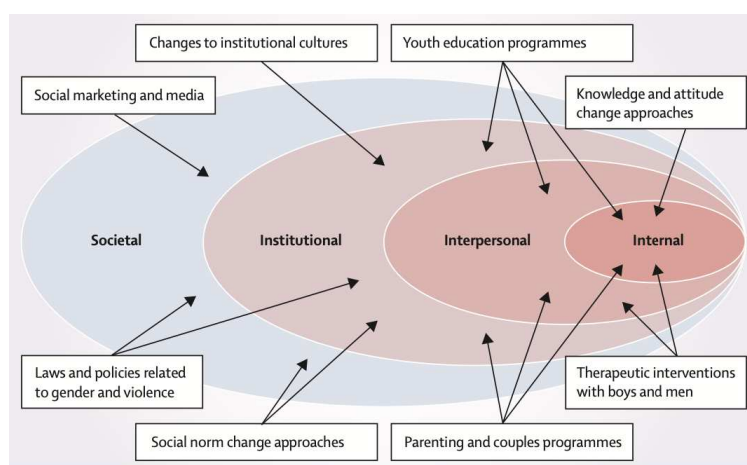
The goal of primary prevention is to address and eliminate the root causes and contributing factors that lead to violence (Fulu, Kerr-Wilson and Lang 2014, 4), the former including social norms related to gender power dynamics (Arango et al. 2014, 2). Value systems and environments, that tolerate VAW must be the target of influence of prevention (Michau 2007, 99).

Preventing violence against women at its very source is critical because by addressing the root causes early, lives can be saved and economic costs can be reduced, including the costs

of secondary and tertiary interventions, as well as those caused by the violence itself (WHO 2010, 21; Krug et. al 2002a, 1087).

The ecological framework provided by Heise (1998, 265) has been used to understand prevention in application to violence against women by many scholars (Crooks et al. 2019, 47; Terry 2014, 2;). Violence against women emerges at the intersection of multiple interacting factors at different levels of the social ‘ecology’ (Reggers 2020, 22). Ecological approaches to prevention address risk factors operating at several of the levels (Jewkes, Flood and Lang 2015, 1586). Figure 2 demonstrates examples of prevention programs across social ecology.

Figure 7. The examples of prevention programs across social ecology.



Source: Jewkes, Flood and Lang 2015, 1586.

Whereas the international human rights framework advises taking into consideration awareness-raising activities and education, research in the prevention field has provided much evidence for “what works” in LMIC and HIC.

Generally, **mass media campaigns**, with the help of television, radio, and newspapers, are widely used to address multiple health-risk behaviors (tobacco, alcohol, drugs, heart disease factors, etc.) through positive messaging (Wakefield et al. 2010,1). **Awareness-raising campaigns** actively challenge attitudes and work with existing harmful societal norms by educating and bringing knowledge to the broader population (Heard et al. 2020, 139), therefore they can be valuable on both individual and community levels of socioecology (Smith-Darden 2022, 238).

While these campaigns have successfully increased awareness of VAW, there is limited evidence of their ability to reduce violent behavior. Measuring potential changes in violence levels associated with media interventions remains a significant challenge. It is still very difficult to measure possible changes in violence levels brought on by media activities (WHO 2009, 11).

Awareness-raising can promote awareness of relevant laws and policies on violence against women, which in turn helps people to accept the message that such violence is unacceptable. Such initiatives can strengthen women's rights movements and create a supportive atmosphere where women can assert their rights more easily and ultimately have the potential to shape public attitudes and political agendas (UN Women 2021, 2).

A five-year Scottish 'zero tolerance' campaign, supported by NGOs and the state, addressed issues such as rape and domestic violence. Impressive slogans and images were

placed on billboards and in public places, and each phase was a research-related phase focused on the "three P's" - provision, protection, and prevention (Mackay 1996, 211; United Nations 2006, 123; Garcia 2004, 536). Denmark also used posters outdoors and on public transport, television, and the internet to run an awareness campaign in 2003 called "*Stop violence against women– Break the Silence*" against DV, with a consequential campaign in 2010 with a focus on ethnic minority women, financially supported by the government (Winter 2010, 2).

Media also plays a big role in the way VAW cases are being reported on. Unethical reporting can influence societal perception of the phenomenon and discourage victims from reporting incidents (UN Women and UNICEF 2022, 7). Additionally, not highlighting available resources and services puts victims at risk (Sutherland et al 2017, 4). One emerging strategy is the formulation of country-specific media guidelines for sensitive reporting of GBV and crimes (Menon et al. 2020, 1). For instance, Australia has implemented public policies to encourage media engagement, offering guides for reporters and awarding remarkable reporting (Forsdike et al. 2021, 65; Sutherland et al. 2016, 8).

A growing research base on **Community-Based Interventions** in LMIC shows positive results in transforming harmful social norms (Lowe 2022, 1; Contreas-Urbina et al. 2016, 14). The approach of community mobilization programs lies within women empowerment, engaging men, and challenging gender and social norms at the community level (Fulu and Kerr-Wilson 2015, 28). Successful community mobilization interventions contribute to transforming harmful gender norms by guiding community members at all levels of society (Richard 2008, 7). It has been found that the ability to shift attitudes regarding unequal power dynamics of such programming ultimately leads to the reduction of physical, sexual, and emotional violence (Lundgren and Amin 2015, 47; Richard 2018, 7).

SASA! program has been studied a lot in this regard as a successful example of community-based intervention piloted in Uganda (Michau 2021, 2). In the initial phase of SASA!, both male and female community activists, or 'opinion leaders', are selected and then taught new perceptions of power and power imbalances. In the next stages, these activists try to invite people to open discussions and encourage critical thinking and social activism by using their social networks (Abramsky 2018, 3). This builds a critical mass that is committed and powerful enough to start social norm change (Starmann 2018, 4).

As a part of community-based interventions as well as using other approaches, there is more and more evidence on **engaging men** in the prevention of VAW, given that men are often the primary perpetrators of violence against women (Corboz 2016, 324). The purpose of working with men in violence prevention, which is mostly focused on education, is to lessen the possibility that they may act violently (Flood 2005). Positive changes in attitudes and behaviors related to sexual and reproductive health and a consequential decrease in the use of violence against women have been tracked (Chakraborty 2020, 751). Involving men in such programs is crucial because the dominating norms and expectations shape individual beliefs and actions (Dyson and Flood 2008, 6). Engaging men and boys has been mentioned as a key priority in the 2022 US strategy to prevent and respond to global gender-based violence (United States Department of State 2022, 12).

Bystander programs are a central part of efforts in the engagement of men in prevention, although some programs may also target women (Casey 2021, 2; Pease 2008, 17). Bystanders are those who observe acts of violence or any other unacceptable behavior without being the actual offender or victim (Powell 2011, 8). Banyard et al. (2004, 69) suggest that this

approach allows men to see themselves beyond the concept of perpetrators. Men are more inclined to be engaged in learning about how to intervene and prevent violence when they are approached as witnesses and bystanders rather than as possible offenders.

Programs to prevent VAW, focusing on *women's empowerment* are also broadly implemented to address IPV, sexual violence, and other forms of VAW (Angelucci and Heath 2020, 611). In such programs, a target is either social or economic empowerment of women. Research indicates that women's economic or social empowerment has contradictory effects: on the one hand, it can positively contribute to reducing violence and improving the position of women (Schuler et al. 2013, 2). On the other hand, in societies with gender inequality, empowerment may sometimes trigger more violence by challenging established social norms (Kiani et al. 2021, 2). These programs aim to increase women's awareness of their rights, access to services, and ability to defend themselves against violence and usually utilize awareness-raising and skill-building activities focusing on life skills, rights, or skills around leadership (Fulu, Kerr-Wilson, and Lang 2014, 10). *Economic empowerment* focuses on enhancing women's economic decision-making in the home and community, ensuring their access and control over financial resources, and encouraging collaborative efforts to advance their economic rights (Eggers del Campo and Steinert 2022, 811). The programs include transfers such as cash, vouchers, and food and are often combined with training of women regarding gender (Fulu and Kerr-Wilson 2015, 13; Ellsberg et al. 2015, 1563).

IMAGE, a South African program, aims to prevent HIV, reduce domestic violence, and enhance women's well-being through microfinance (Kim et al. 2007, 1794). The evaluation showed that after participation, the women reported less domestic violence, developed progressive attitudes toward gender norms, and initiated discussions within households and communities on domestic violence, HIV, and gender norms (Desilets 2019, 11). As an example, in terms of policy, the State of Kenya has mandated to expedite the implementation of “policies and programs for the economic empowerment of vulnerable groups, including women, girls, persons with disabilities, those living with HIV/AIDS, and elderly individuals, to mitigate their susceptibility to gender-based violence” (Republic of Kenya 2014, 25).

The formal **education system** is essential for spreading awareness about violence against women and breaking down gender stereotypes as it provides a rare platform to reach a larger number of children and young people (UN 2006, 126). The best way to deliver education that challenges norms and stereotypes is to include it in the curriculum, making it an important part of the school's beliefs and involving all stages of education from elementary school to university (Williams 2018, 2; Ellis and Thiara 2014, 55; Maxwell et al. 2010, 17). To move past just raising awareness, a shift to long-term programs is needed, which is more likely to change young people's attitudes toward the perpetration of violence (Meyer and Stein 2004, 202). A whole-school approach involving the entire school community—students, teachers, staff, and parents is also key in starting the change (Skelton and Francis, 2009, 100; Lloyd 2018, 6). To this end, action at policy and institutional levels is essential to establish a framework that supports effective interventions in education (Ellis and Thiara 2014, 106). The establishment of national public education campaigns of VAW has been highlighted for the state of Canada in a document, drafted by the Canadian Network of Women's Shelters and Transition Houses (2015, 4) as a part of the plea for the creation of a comprehensive national plan to address the issue.

At the interpersonal level of socioecology, prevention interventions focus on developing **parenting and relationship skills**. Parenting programs demonstrate effectiveness in preventing various forms of violence; they promote child development and well-being, minimize child abuse, prevent conduct disorders in children, and mitigate antisocial and violent tendencies in teenagers (WHO 2013, 14; Heise 2011, 38). Some of the programs have a specific focus on fatherhood (Fulu, Kerr-Wilson, and Lang 2014, 26).

Studies show that higher levels of conflict in relationships make women more vulnerable to IPV; moreover, according to some research, certain types of violence in relationships can be worsened by poor communication and conflict resolution abilities (Fulu and Kerr-Wilson 2015, 22). Through workshops for men and women, such topics as gender roles, as well as the distribution of responsibilities and resources are addressed. Additionally, counseling, couples' programs, and dating violence programs can be utilized (Jewkes et al. 2021, 3). Bahama's strategic plan to address GBV (The Commonwealth of The Bahamas 2015, 134) acknowledges the importance of relationship skills and advises training for marriage and pre-marital counselors to promote mutual respect and discourage spousal and relationship abuse.

Most of the above-mentioned strategies have been outlined in the comprehensive framework on prevention, created by WHO and UN Women in collaboration with a dozen other international organizations. The name of the framework is the acronym RESPECT, the summary of which is demonstrated in Annex 3 (WHO 2019, 10-11).

2.8. Protection

2.8.1. Shelters

Common interventions worldwide for protecting women from gender-based violence, based on a human rights framework, include helplines, shelters, rape crisis centers, sexual assault centers, advocacy, and counseling, which are often referred to as minimal protection services (Kelly et al 2008, 8; Macy et al 2011, 3364). As previously mentioned, such interventions correlate with the secondary and tertiary tiers of prevention according to the public health framework (Kirk et al 2017, 2).

The widely common support provided by shelters is a safe and temporary place of refuge for women and children who have experienced abuse (Burnett et al 2016, 516; Krishnan et al 2004, 172). Shelters help with urgent necessities such as food and clothes (Berns 2004, 147). Additionally, survivors of abuse can expect to receive counseling and emotional support (Sullivan et al 2008, 292), which centers on helping in overcoming the trauma, as well as restoring self-esteem and empowerment (Dichter and Rhodes 2011, 482). This way together with immediate help and protection, this strategy allows lasting life changes (Loseke 1992, 32). The role of shelters and their staff is to connect the women with other agencies (i.e. give referrals and information, advocacy), which make available such services as legal assistance, housing, financial support, health care, and, more importantly, assist with decision-making and intervene if the services are uncooperative (Freeman 2012, 1). The children who witnessed violence in the family are also victims and shelters must be equipped to house them as well (Clevenger 2009, 362; Calvete 2018, 2). In Austria, women's shelters are open 24/7, offering free services for those without income, and accept women and children, though there may be exceptions for boys over 14 years old in some cases (Standke-Erdmann et al, 2020, 26).

Shelters first emerged in the 1970s and 1980s in the US and Europe as part of the feminist movement, initially established by grassroots activists, and have evolved into entities officially run by NGOs and funded by governments; meanwhile, in developing countries, the emergence of shelters occurred in the early 1980s, often run by NGOs, and their maintenance remains expensive for governments (Heise and Garcia-Moreno 2002, 104; Kulkarni 2019, 56; Tierney 1982, 207). The model, in which the shelter is operated independently by the NGOs and funded by the government, is considered a good practice (Logar and Mustafa 2021, 27). Ekal (2014, 238) points out that in the case of Turkey, the model of NGO-run shelters supported by the state did not suffice because of the authorities' preference for centralization and control. This has marginalized NGO-operated shelters, limiting their independence and number. In Kosovo, there are no publicly run shelters, its operation is fully outsourced to NGOs by the relevant ministry and municipalities (Krol 2017, 28).

One of the significant problems mentioned in the research is funding. The authors bring attention to the fact, that the funding is often insufficient and undergoes cuts, which means that many shelters have to diversify their funding sources by doing fundraising activities and involving investments from the private sector (Beres et al. 2009, 155). Scholars also note that when shelters rely solely on government funding, services may become too specialized and restricted, moving away from empowerment toward a "patronizing and pathologizing approach." Most of all, this impacts vulnerable women with backgrounds involving substance use, criminality, and homelessness (Gregory et al. 2021, 404; Smyth et al. 2006, 489). McMillan (2007, 136) discusses that the security of funding and the threat of funding removal has been always an issue for anti-violence movements. The funding restrictions placed on such organizations varied widely and included requirements such as annual reports, appointing a board of directors, and providing services to certain populations or in specific ways (McMillan 2007, 136). According to research in Austria, the total funding for shelters is coming from local authorities. Two Austrian federal states have laws in place to fund women's shelters, while four shelters in Vienna have secure funding and ongoing contracts with the city, all of which contribute to the financial stability of shelters (Logar and Mustafa 2021, 41). The analysis concerning Sweden has shown that the popularity of private companies that use public funding to provide shelters is rising. Private shelters present an alternative to other models, taking pride in their high availability, comprehensive services, and better security measures. (Lauri and Lauri 2023, 2; Lauri et al 2023, 12). Koch-Nielsen and Caceres (2005, 30) looked at the case of Denmark, where shelter financing models vary, with some operating independently with funds from the government covering them fully or partially; some rely on private funding and others have become fully public institutions. However, some shelters also require contributions from victims, which could create barriers to accessing services, especially for those economically dependent on their abuser (Koch-Nielsen and Caceres 2005, 30; McLeod et al. 2010, 303).

Apart from this, the research shows another barrier to services for victims, which is the limited availability of shelters, and lack of places, which is true for different countries: Sullivan (2012, 3), Grossman and Lundy (2011, 1025) argue this for USA and Canada. Finland and Austria are a few hundred places short of meeting the Istanbul Convention's recommendation, while Denmark surpasses the standard, however, the concentration of shelters in the capital leaves rural regions underserved (Lange et al 2020, 86). Hungary also lags behind in providing enough space for all victims and fails to meet the desired standards in basic safety and other

requirements. Looking into positive aspects, this country provides long-term housing opportunities and assistance to families after shelters (The Advocates for Human Rights 2021, 5).

2.8.2. Rape Crisis Centers and Counseling Centers

Standalone counseling centers, as a means to mitigate the effects VAW can be found in many countries, providing social, legal, and psychological support (Hendel 2012, 200). In Austria, Denmark, and Finland, some can be found for the victims of domestic violence, HBV, forced marriage, and FGM (Lange et al 2020, 11). In the report on the Austrian model of crisis intervention, Logar (2005, 5) highlights the country as a good practice example of a nationwide network of counseling centers and recommends that these centers should help in the mother tongue of the victims. In India, there are counseling centers operated by NGOs and some are a part of hospitals (Daruwalla et al 2024, 1; CEHAT 2012, 9). Daruwalla et al (2019, 2) remarks that counseling centers in Mumbai are connected to various community services, health facilities, police stations, and legal aid services. The study conducted in Nigeria stresses the critical need for the government to establish and financially support counseling centers at both the community and local government levels. Additionally, it advocates for the employment of professional counselors to provide assistance to both victims and perpetrators of violence against women (Oyesikun and Oketola 2022, 56).

Like shelters, Rape crisis centers (RCC), stem from the second wave of feminist movement in the early to mid-1970s, the goal of which was to eradicate VAW and rape specifically. They now exist in numerous countries including the USA, England, Scotland, Ireland, and Iceland, among others in Europe (Collins and Whalen 1989, 61; Brooks-Hay et al. 2018, 4; Westmarland and Alderson 2013, 3266). RCC also went through the transition from volunteers and grassroots to a more professional level, after the original leaders of the organizations left with a burn-out and the funding sources began coming from the government and regional funds (Bergen and Maier 2011, 228).

Matthews (1995, 304) and Maier (2011, 143) observe that to receive public funding, the RCCs have moved away from their original goal of making social changes associated with the radical feminist movement. Instead, they became institutionalized and more bureaucratic (Maier 2011a, 1386). They also started working more closely with hospitals, police, and the legal system. Collaboration with other community service providers expanded their eligibility pool for funding (Woody and Kerry 2012, 97). According to Clemans (2004, 148), the set of services provided by the RCCs did not change, and the core services are still advocacy and crisis intervention offered to victims of sexual violence. Additionally, they may include crisis hotlines and long-term counseling (Decker and Naugle 2009, 420). At RCCs in Israel, the staff follows the women to the hospitals and guides them through the procedure at police, during the meetings with the perpetrator or court testimony (Rizkalla and Segal 2017, 964).

Beckett (2007, 43) remarked on the educational role of RCCs in the community, intending to influence the harmful attitudes and behaviors. The agencies spread awareness about rape and sexual violence, engage in community outreach by attending community events, run prevention programs (Shaw and Cambell 2011, 115; O'Sullivan and Carlton 2001, 354), and lobby at the national level to push changes in the legislation (Gornick et al 1985, 254). In Ireland, which has been argued to be an example of best practice on services for sexual violence, prevention efforts

of RCCs were voluntary and occasionally funded. However, the government has recently taken a more active role in this area (Ciupa 2021, 12).

RCCs differ from other sexual assault services in that they function as separate entities rather than being integrated into larger organizations (Bergen and Maier 2011, 228). In some cases, RCCs can share locations with DV shelters or other social services (Bein 2008, 8). O'Sullivan and Carlton (2001, 356) criticize RCCs, located within agencies serving DV victims, as they may share staff and resources, and the services might be less specialized for sexual assault survivors. Standalone rape crisis centers may receive more referrals and offer more comprehensive support as well as community education and outreach. However, the case in Italy shows that joint centers on DV and SV can be a good model because victims of SV will tell about sexual assault only if there is a trusting relationship with the care provider (Floriani and Duadouet 2021, 62).

A few drawbacks concerning the implementation of RCCs have been mentioned in the research. Vera-Gray (2020, 60) highlights that in the UK, the number of RCCs has declined almost twofold from 1984 to 2018 because of the lack of sustainable funding, although the awareness of sexual violence has been growing globally. The study of Irkner (2021, 1) on the centers in the US also underlines the problem of inconsistent funding and cuts in some states. Coy, Kelly, and Foord (2007, 35) found that availability is a significant issue, as most women in the UK lack access to Rape Crisis Centers, as shown in their national service mapping analysis. They also bring attention to the importance of research on capacity (size and work hours etc.) of RCCs for a full picture. Floriani and Duadouet (2021, 62) highlight in their analysis on Europe, that the scarceness of RCCs and other sexual services is often the case: Romania and Russia have each established only one RCC, whereas Iceland remains the only country that fulfills the standard of Istanbul Convention of one center for every 200,000 people. Sexual Assault Referral Centers are also a part of the approach to combat SA. While RCC provides crisis intervention and long-term support for victims of SA, including cases that occurred in the past, the focus of SARCs is on immediate medical and forensic measures for recent cases (Massey et al 2019, 4; Coy, Kelly and Foord 2009, 56). SARCs also give advocacy and short-term counseling in hospital settings in some regions of the US, Canada, Australia, and Europe (Bach et al 2021, 2). In Belgium, the model of Sexual Assault Care Centers relies on the collaboration of hospitals, counseling services, police, and the judicial system. The SACC operates as a separate unit within the hospital (Baert et al 2021, 3). Typically, the victims of SA can receive access to SARC after being referred by the police once a criminal case is opened. However, in countries like England, there's an option for "self-referral," which is possible if the SARCs are allowed to attend to the victims without the involvement of the police (Mattison 2023, 515). One study of this model in Belgium found, that the attendees see an advantage in an attempt to centralize the "fragmented care", which meant they did not have to tell their story multiple times and could find all of the services easier at one place (Peeters et al 2019, 7). In the Netherlands, more people have been using such services, but less than 1% of sexual violence victims come in the first week after it happened. Forensic services here are provided at no charge, as it is financed by the Ministry of Justice, but medical and mental care including counseling are a part of the insurance, so some costs must be borne by the individual (Floriani and Duadouet 2021, 61). Evaluation of SARCs in the UK by Lovett et al. (2004, 10) suggests improved access to health care for women, who did not want to document the case of

the police and provide more comprehensive medical care as opposed to settings, which are not specialized on SV as well as have a stronger referral system, connected to more services.

Additionally, another model of SV services provision can be found in the US. SARTs (Sexual Assault Response Teams) are emergency response teams consisting of a police officer, a victim advocate, a SANE (Sexual Assault Nurse Examiner), and a prosecutor. By contacting the police, visiting an emergency room, or calling a helpline, the victim can inquire about the services (Walby et al 2015, 73). SARTs allow for a coordinated community response on the local level to address sexual assault and are recognized as an effective practice. This strategy was developed to tackle the problem of low reporting and prosecution levels (Zweig et al 2020, 41). A recent systematic review conducted by Coates et al. (2022, 8) emphasizes that due to the activities of SARTs, the criminal justice system was involved more, there was a shorter time between the assault and reporting, and more accurate forensic evidence was collected. Such teams with various service providers from different fields have also been established in Nordic countries. They follow a victim-focused approach similar to the SART model. (Bramsen et al 2009, 888).

2.8.3. Helplines

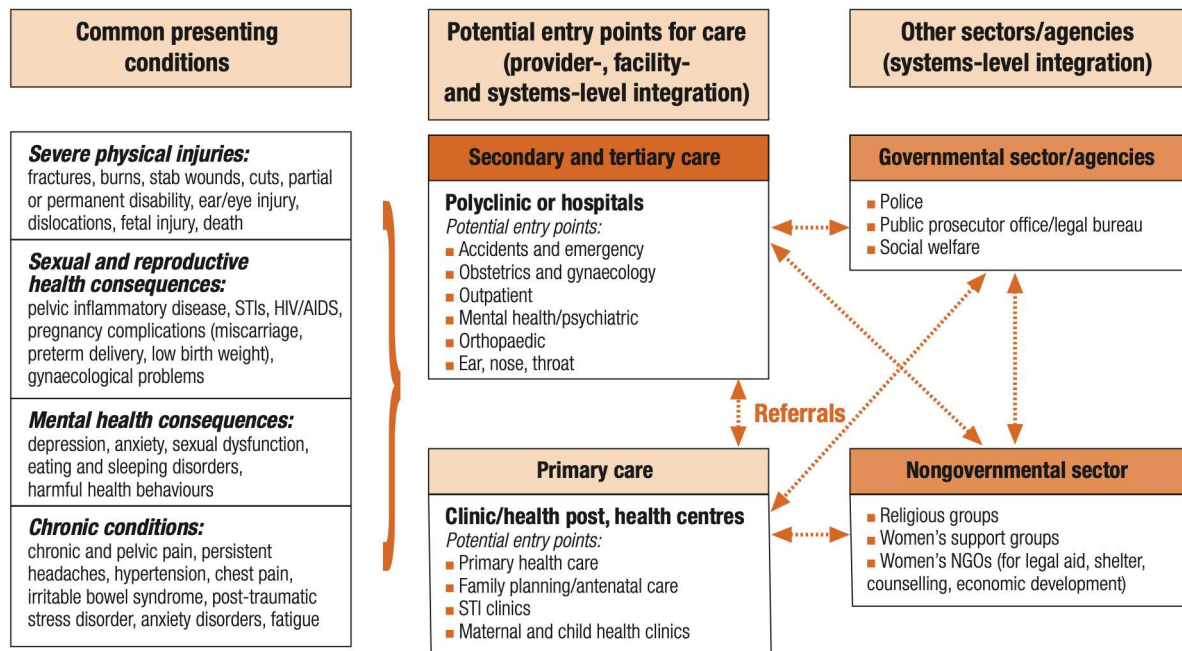
Hotlines, which are also known as helplines, are essential sources for victims of violence, as they are a first contact point and offer immediate support and provide information on emergency shelters, help with safety planning, and other problems occurring after violent incidents. While some countries have established special helplines dedicated to certain types of violence, such as family violence helplines in Spain, people can also seek help in case of VAW by dialing standard emergency numbers like 911 in the United States (Sorenson et al 2021, 4900; Rodriguez-Jimenez et al, 1). The service providers can offer emotional support over the phone, online chats, and messages as well as give referrals to other support services for further assistance (Richards et al 2021, 577). The research on Italy shows the availability of such service 24/7 and toll-free. The service, established by the government, promises confidentiality of the information of the caller, yet retains the option to connect callers with law enforcement or healthcare professionals upon the victim's request or in emergencies (Colagrossi et al 2022, 587). Macy et al (2009, 363) note in the study of guidelines on helplines and other emergency services in the US, that although it is recommended to provide the services around the clock, it may sometimes be impossible for non-profit organizations, as hotlines are often provided by the shelters. In such cases, it is advised to provide a return-call. In Denmark, the helpline is operated on the weekdays until afternoon, although officially it's supposed to be uninterrupted (Lunge et al 2020, 15). Concerning providers of service, usually they consist of volunteers, paraprofessionals, and professionals, who have had training in emergency intervention and legal procedures (Bennett et al 2004, 817). According to the recommendation, the hotlines should provide assistance to all forms of violence. In Kosovo, the hotline was originally created for sex-trafficking victims, but later the scope was extended by the new Criminal Procedure Code to include domestic and sexual violence, as well as honour-based violence and forced marriage (Krol 2017, 30). The research on helplines on VAW has become popular in regards to COVID-19, as the demand for this service has significantly increased during pandemic, including the case of Peru (Agüero 2021, 5).

2.8.4. Health Response

A crucial response model in the health sector is the establishment of one-stop crisis centers (OSCCs) or other forms of integrated services that offer medical, legal, and social assistance to survivors of any form of violence. In Turkey, according to Güven et al. (2022, 6) the model of OSCC takes after the multidisciplinary model of the West, like SANE and SART. Similarly, the main goal is to collect all the services in one place, so that the victims do not have to go through various pathways and bureaucracies to get help. In South Korea, the first established OSCC in 2004 was the “Sunflower Center”, it is now distributed throughout the country and the funding for it comes entirely from the government. It provides services to women coming from domestic violence, sexual violence, and sex trafficking. In addition to medical, investigative, and legal help, as well as counseling, the center may provide tailored support based on the victim's unique circumstances. If it goes beyond the services, that can be offered at the center, the victim will be referred to another agency (Lee et al. 2020, 14). The study on one hospital equipped with an OSCC in India has shown different problems in service delivery (Verma et al 2020, 8). Firstly, the coordination between different agencies like police, doctors, and lawyers can be challenging, and this gap results in delays through the whole process. The time limit for performing the tasks and official documentation of the reason for the delay is necessary. Secondly, robust collaboration between NGOs and OSCCs has been remarked as crucial for centers to be operating successfully, which this particular center in India was lacking. Meanwhile, Malaysia has been showing one of the best examples of implementing this model, although the study of Colombini et al. (2012, 8) has discovered a few drawbacks. This model was first implemented at a bigger hospital, and later, when being applied to smaller ones, it faced challenges due to reduced resources. Instead of a one-stop, the center is becoming one step among many other agencies the woman is referred to. Moreover, the example of Malaysia shows that in some cases, the centralization of all the services in one place is not feasible, especially in more rural and remote areas. There is no "one-size-fits-all," and the model has to be adjusted for every type of hospital. One study (Sikder 2021, 3) concerned health response to VAW in LMIC and found that in Bangladesh OSCCs are established on regional and district levels, and in Nepal, every district in the country has at least one OSCC with a complete set of services. Brazil, on the other hand, has no OSCC, but medical care and psychological counseling can be received in public hospitals.

OSCC is one example of integrated service delivery (ISD). As articulated by Armitage et al. (2009, 1) ISD is an effective approach and allows the system to provide patient-centered care and closely meet his or her needs. OECD (2023, 79) mentions three possible models of ISD: provider-integrated, where a single focal point offers a range of services; facility integration or co-location of services, where multiple services are combined in a single location; systems-level integration means the establishment of a comprehensive path of referrals within and outside the healthcare system. The concept of referrals has been mentioned a few times throughout the review and is self-explanatory if illustrated:

Figure 8. Systems of referral.



Source: Colombini et al 2008, 639.

OSCC and referral networks (beyond and within the health sector, for example, for mental services in secondary and tertiary institutions) have been included in recommendations of WHO concerning policy on health and VAW among other important aspects:

- Intimate partner violence (IPV) identification
- First-line support
- Post-rape care: emergency contraception (EC), sexually transmitted infection (STI) prophylaxis, HIV post-exposure prophylaxis (PEP) and safe abortion

The process of identification of women subjected to violence is also called screening. O'Doherty et al. (2015, 8) inform, that the forms of screening can be divided into universal screening, selective screening, and routine inquiry. Universal and selective screening involves directing a standardized set of questions to a specific population, including those without symptoms or those considered to be at high risk. Routine screening implies asking routine health questions looking for signs of domestic violence in both the mental and physical health of patients and taking appropriate action when any sign is found. García-Moreno et al (2015, 1569) underline that the evidence is inconclusive about the effectiveness of screening. Moreover, the WHO advises against of universal method in favor of routine one. Implementation of universal screening in countries with high violence rates and absence of comprehensive referral networks will not help women and burden medical staff (Plichta 2007, 232). In high-income countries, women generally don't object to such inquiries, but it's often healthcare providers who are hesitant to adopt universal or even routine screening practices (Ramsay et al. 2002, 8). Taket et al. (2004, 09) put forward that universal screening can improve social attitudes towards VAW and lessen stigma, as it's not aimed at specific individuals. Additionally, health professionals often have a significant margin of error in identifying domestic violence cases, which speaks in favor of universal screening.

First-line support describes the first practical care and response of health care system in cases of IPV and SV. The goal of it is to ensure her safety and physical needs but also respect

her privacy (WHO 2004, 13). The strategy of first-line support is collected in an acronym LIVES: listen, Inquire about Needs and Concerns, Validate, Enhance Safety, Support. According to the report of 2021, 75% of countries have included this principle in their policies (WHO 2021, 23).

Concerning the research on the provision of post-rape treatment, Burke et al. (2024, 7) have found that only half of countries globally have included some of the components in their policies. The inclusion of abortion in the VAW policies is the case for only 17% of countries because the provision of abortion generally can be restricted by law. Resnick et al. (2000, 214) report, that in the USA provision of post-rape services begins shortly after reporting to the police. The research in South Africa states, that the victims should have a possibility to receive treatment without the need to report (Kim et al 2003, 109). In South Africa, the services are provided by one-stop shops called TCC, which include pregnancy advice, STI information, and PEP for HIV. The service request must occur within 72 hours after rape has occurred, as it has a direct correlation to its treatment and the victim can either approach TCC first and be referred to the police afterward (Randa et al 2023, 4). Ciswaka et al (2023, 385) in their comment on the HIV epidemic caused by SVAW, urge the government to organize the universal provision of HIV testing and post-rape kits for all rape victims.

2.8.5. Women Police Stations and Specialized Courts

The police are the primary law enforcement agency that plays an important role in maintaining law and order, investigating, and preventing crime, and protecting the safety of people, especially those who are most vulnerable, making it a crucial factor in combating VAW (Dubey 2010, 62). Research has discussed numerous problems of how police respond to this issue, which are lack of empathy, mistrust, ambivalence, lack of referrals, and many others (Carrington et al. 2019, 3; Stephens and Sinden 2000, 545). In order to address this, many countries such as Brazil, Argentina, Peru, India, and other Asian countries have increased the number of women in the police force and resorted to implementation of women's police stations (WPS) (Majumdar 2020, 7; Ray 2011, 438). The recruitment of women into the police force has long been a subject of dispute, as women are perceived as less capable of policing because they are smaller and weaker. The advocates of women in the police force argue, that women can be the most effective with such issues as VAW (Miller and Segal 2019, 2221). Akhtar and Humayun (2021, 123) point out, that the presence of women in the police force is crucial because they help create a sense of safety and comfort for victims.

WPS are mainly female and have the same powers as the regular police but receive additional training on GBV. They take a gender-sensitive approach to policing, focusing on GBV prevention and victim assistance rather than prosecuting perpetrators. For example, in Argentina, WPS is situated in colorful buildings and equipped with playrooms for children. In this case, WPS also takes the form of multi-disciplinary teams, comprised of social workers, lawyers, mental health professionals, and police providing a comprehensive assistance (Carrington et al 2020, 328). In other counties, these services are provided based on the referral network (Bott, Ellsberg and Morrison 2004, 27). The preventive part of the work is implemented through education and awareness-raising activities (Rodgers et al 2022, 8). Some countries have chosen another strategy, in which special police "cells" are comprised of one or two police officers located at a regular police station (Bott, Ellsberg and Morrison 2004, 27).

The studies on WPS suggest, that their implementation contributes to an increased reporting on VAW and raises awareness of the issue in general, but there is not enough evaluation of its effectiveness (Ellsberg et al. 2014, 1558). The study on WPS in Latin America shows that there is increased access to justice, reporting and conviction rates, and access to special services (Carrington et al. 2020, 4). Such a positive effect on reporting of any pro-women institutions can be explained by the role of women's representation and the fact that battered women do feel safer in such contexts (de Oliveira Gomes and Avellaneda 2021, 19). A study on WPS in India supports these findings but adds, that there remains a big proportion of victims, who still do not approach female-staffed stations, as the mistrust in the police is high nevertheless (Sikri et al 2021, 8).

Another study in Latin America found, that WPS is the most known service for survivors of VAW in the community and the women are likely to be aware of its existence rather than the national law on VAW (UN Women 2011, 4). Cordova and Kras (2021, 19) argue, that the high visibility of WPS and the fact that the government adopts strong measures by involving police send a clear signal to the population that the VAW is a crime. This reduces tolerance of VAW, encourages positive male attitudes, and increases the chances that men will engage in bystander intervention. However, in another study Cordova and Kras (2020, 801) note, that such effect of WPS on police legitimacy can be hindered by high levels of corruption in law enforcement structures and overuse of force.

Apart from women's police stations, the study of de Olivera Gomes and Avellaneda (2021, 9) mentions a couple of other pro-women institutions, the establishment of which shows the firm commitment of the government to the protection of women. These institutions include political institutions, which were mentioned earlier; support institutions, which will be mentioned later and justice institutions, which include WPS and special courts for VAW.

The subject of specialized courts for VAW is complex given the diverse approaches and models adopted in different regions around the world (Gutierrez et al 2016, 76; Maytal 2008, 208).

Specialized courts usually deal with the cases of DV or IPV and can be placed under the general model of problem-solving courts like drug or mental health courts, implemented after the recognition that a holistic approach is needed in place of traditional approaches. The main objective of such courts is victims' safety (Morris 2005, 114). The critics of the specialist approach argue that judges in specialty courts may become disconnected from the broader judicial system and that their prevalence can undermine the coherence of the system (Walker and Lauw 2003, 75). As opposed to this, Cook et al. (2004, 7) highlight the advantages of such an approach, especially in terms of handling domestic violence, including victim-centered justice, a sign of zero tolerance of VAW, and multi-agency teamwork, when compared to non-specialized courts. The establishment of specialized courts contributes to the emergence of judges and other legal professionals well-trained in cycles of violence and gender analysis (Beck 2023, 26).

Gover et al. (2021, 370) review characteristics of specialized courts, which include courtroom features and courtroom processes. The former includes specialized judges and other personnel, and victim services. The latter refers to specialized dockets, fast-track courts, POs, and no-drop policies. The purpose of fast-tracking is to enhance the safety of victims and ensure the accountability of perpetrators. This may include reducing the processing time of cases, as well as processing these cases separately from other cases in the courts. Other

courts have implemented dockets (calendars), dedicated to handling cases, and are scheduled on specific days per week or month to ensure that these cases receive the attention and support they require (Ntaganda 2012, 19).

Specialized courts or specialized court processes have been established in Canada, India, the UK, and others (Koshan 2014, 990; Gokila and Kamalaveni 2021, 280; Coy, Kelly and Foord 2009, 53).

In the United States, domestic violence courts, often called "dedicated courts," handle both criminal and civil cases. In other jurisdictions, they focus exclusively on criminal cases related to DV, often with specialized teams of prosecutors (Wingler 2013, 14). In Spain, specialized IPV courts were created in order to accelerate the judicial process. They take over the investigation phase, working in collaboration with psychologists and social workers, and once it's over, the case is transferred to a relevant criminal court (García-Hombrados and Martínez-Matute 2021, 8). In Brazil, the Maria da Penha Law required the establishment of specialized courts for domestic violence cases, replacing the Special Justice Courts that handled minor offenses. However, these specialized courts only accept cases from individuals who identify as female (Spieler 2011, 140; Kirchengast et al 2021, 30). In Venezuela, the amendment of 2021 to the main law on GBV has expanded the jurisdiction of special GBV courts to include all individuals regardless of their gender. These courts now have also authority over cases related to gender-based violence, even if other laws also apply to those cases (Rivera 2022, 22).

2.8.6. Protection Orders

Protection orders (PO) represent some of the widely available legal measures within the framework addressing violence against women.

Depending on the national legislation of the country, there can be a variety of available protection orders, differing in application difficulty, duration eligibility etc. In essence, a PO is a legal measure, which ensures that the victim of abuse remains apart from the perpetrator (Wintemute et al 2015, 2).

The two most common kinds of PO are **criminal and civil** one (Herrera and Amor 2023, 2). According to van de van de Watering (2013, 27), the most apparent difference between the criminal and civil PO is that the former constitutes a part of criminal procedure, which requires that a crime is reported, a criminal charge, or an arrest is made. In contrast, the latter is granted in a civil court. As cited in Fitzgerald and Douglas (2020, 180) civil protection orders have become the focus of legal measures for abused women in Australia, the UK, Canada, and the US. It has been discussed that frustration with the criminal justice system led to a shift to strategies of prevention and harm reduction, which contributed to the development of civil protection orders (Douglas 2008, 44; Connelly and Cavanagh 2007, 262). Douglas (2008, 444) adds that the strict standard of proof, known as "beyond a reasonable doubt," required for a criminal verdict represents the primary challenge. On the contrary, Bates and Hester (2020, 134) assert that there is a tendency towards a so-called hybridization i.e. combination of criminal and civil measures to enhance the protection of victims of domestic abuse.

Discussion of the advantages and disadvantages of the two strategies constitutes a large body of research. Logan and Walker (2010, 333) have pointed out that one of the main advantages of civil protection orders is that they can be sought by filing an individual application to court without legal representation to petition the court. In addition, in some

countries, civil protection orders cover a wider range of victimization types, including coercive and controlling behaviors, than criminal law (Fitzgerald and Douglas 2020, 180). This idea is supported by the study of Kethineni and Beichner (2009, 320) on the PO in Illinois County (USA) as they found that the primary reason for petitioning for the PO in criminal court was physical abuse, whereas in civil court, emotional abuse was documented as the reason for filing. On the other hand, this correlation could be also explained by the idea, mentioned by Yassour-Borochowitz (2016, 2) in her study on PO in Israel that civil PO provides an alternative route for victims, who do not necessarily want to seek a criminal conviction and imprisonment of the perpetrator. She also emphasizes that the issuance of civil PO does not rule out the option for additional legal action if the victim wants to explore it. Studies also indicate that civil PO require less evidence than restraining orders in criminal court, which need stronger evidence (Bejinariu et al 2021, 491). McFarlane (2004, 613) provided in the study on Huston, Texas, that qualification criteria for a PO requires a victim to provide proof such as police or witness report or documentation of injuries, which confirms past violence and the likelihood that it can happen again.

Both in criminal and civil proceedings, there is an option to issue a **temporary and a final or post-hearing protection order** (Klein 1995, 256). Temporary PO have usually a shorter duration and can be applied for without the presence of both parties (ex parte) based on the victim's testimony, the primary aim of these measures is to promptly protect the victim (Eigenberg et al 2003, 412; Russell 2012, 532). Final orders are granted after the hearing with a duration from one to three years or sometimes permanently with a greater number of legal remedies (Dahlstedt 2013, 14). In Europe, the use of **emergency barring orders** is also common, which have an immediate effect and in some jurisdictions can be issued by police, at times without the consent of the victim (Taba 2018, 64). Such orders are available in twelve EU Member States, including Germany, Austria, the Netherlands, etc., which remove the immediate danger and give the woman time to apply for a prolonged measure (van der Aa et al. 2015, 8; Logar and Niemi 2017, 17). In the UK the issuance of a Domestic Abuse Protection Notice can be initiated by a senior police officer and has only two requirements: the perpetrator is abusive towards a person and there is a history of connection; the person needs protection from domestic violence (Leahy et al. 2023, 17).

Mutual protection orders differ from other options because they are imposed on both parties, preventing contact between them. Notwithstanding the fact, that such protection orders can be stumbled upon when exploring the legislations on PO in many countries, like Belgium, Netherlands, Latvia, Bulgaria, and so on (van der Aa et al. 2015, 131), its implementation is controversial and is recommended to use to a limited manner (Finn and Colson 1990, 47). Topliffe (1992, 1056-1060) emphasizes that it raises an issue of denial of due process, as it happens on occasion that a judge issues an order without considering any evidence at all or relying on the evidence of one party; such an order can also send a misleading message implying that the victim is to blame as well. It has been recommended to exclude this option from the legal framework (van der Aa et al. 2015, 160). In contrast, Fritsche (2014, 1502) highlights that mutual orders can be a solution to a problem when the perpetrator is enticed by the woman into coming into contact and violating the PO, but there is no legal consensus on these rare cases.

Protection orders typically impose conditions on the perpetrator, which may include prohibition of contact, prohibition of being in a specific vicinity or premises of the victim, requiring the perpetrator to leave the premises, and prohibiting the eviction of the victim from

the premises (Leahy 2023, 17). In the Australian context, the perpetrator is also restricted from harassing and threatening the victim, as well as asking a third person to contact the victim (Schollenberg and Gibbons 1992, 203). Additionally, PO conditions here can be adjusted to the individual needs and circumstances of the victim, allowing her to participate in designing the PO (Douglas and Fitzgerald 2013, 60). In Spain, the terms of a PO depend on whether it is civil or criminal (Herrera and Amor 2023, 2). Civil measures regulate home use, child custody, and visitation arrangements, whereas criminal ones include restrictions like residence and location visits, communication limits, and firearm possession prohibition.

Scholars argue that respondents should be subject to restrictions that prohibit them from **purchasing or possessing firearms** as it contributes to the feeling of safety of the victim and prevents escalation of violence to femicide (Vittes et al 2013, 606; Lyons et al 2021, 2). In the US, federal law includes restrictions on owning and obtaining firearms by PO respondents, supported by additional prohibitions in state laws with definitions of processes of guns relinquishment (Lynch et al. 2022, 2976; Ellyson et al. 2023, 3). However, these are not consistently granted upon the request of a violence survivor (Wallin and Durfee 2020, 28), this is why Kafka et al. (2021, 8) suggests that states (in the US) should include such restriction as a standard provision for any granted protection order.

When obtaining a PO, a woman can encounter several **barriers**. Cavanagh and (2003, 3) found in their study on Scottish *Protection Act from Abuse*, that women find it difficult to self-finance the petition to court, which are present in some countries. Topliffe (1992, 1059) proposed to eliminate the petition fees for the cases of abuse for all or for women with lower income. Limitation of **eligibility** is another barrier to obtaining a PO. In Canada, *Protection Against Family Violence Act* has a narrow range of eligibility for POs. In some jurisdictions eligibility for a PO is only expended to those who are either married, live, or have children together, while in other jurisdictions people who don't live together are also eligible (Koshan 2023, 250). In America, the eligibility pool has been noticeably expanded after the introduction of the Violence Against Women Act in 1994 and includes a larger variety of relationships, however, before it only included married couples (Bejinariu et al 2021, 491). Chan (2018, 8) in his study on PO in six jurisdictions (Singapore, Malaysia, Hong Kong, India, Taiwan, and New South Wales) concluded that NSW provided the case with the widest range of persons eligible: present or former partners, those in an intimate relationship (sexual or non-sexual), unrelated persons residing in the same household in the present or in the past.

Next to eligibility, another important aspect is inclusion in the scope of a PO other family or household members of the victim, if needed (Judicial Council of California 2008, 17).

Durfee and Messing (2012, 702) brought attention to another possible obstacle in obtaining a PO. Some people may have limited knowledge of the legal remedies accessible in the country, leading to confusion about the specific type of protection order they should apply for. Fischer and Rose (1995, 426) remarked, that negative experiences with legal and other authorities such as stigma, blame, and judgmental attitude can influence victims' motivation to proceed with the application. Logan and Walker (2011, 1) found in their research on Kentucky that women in rural areas face more challenges in getting a PO, as the bureaucracy may be more complicated, and people are more inclined to show negativity and have judgmental attitudes to the victims of violence.

Enforcement of the PO is widely discussed by scholars as there are noticeable gaps (Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights 2017, 1). Police are responsible

for the enforcement of protection orders and regardless of whether a civil or criminal PO is violated, it is a criminal offense (Dowling et al 2018, 2; Home Office of the UK Government 2016, 5). Such violations can result in various consequences, depending on the severity of the offense, and is ranging from fines to imprisonment (Benitez et al 2010, 377). On the one hand, the victim herself can be reluctant to report the violation of a PO simply because of a lack of awareness as to what constitutes a violation. Additionally, many communities have bad experiences with law enforcement, which makes them think twice before reporting it (Shah et al. 2023, 1616). Connelly and Cavanagh (2007, 270) highlight an issue concerning police response to non-violent violations and emphasize a tendency in law enforcement, which prioritize more severe cases and potentially overlook minor violations. Fischer and Struijk (2021, 159) have noted in the research on the Dutch PO system, that law enforcement cannot fulfill the goals set up by the legislation, which is the reduction of revictimization. As there is little understanding of risk factors, law enforcement response is usually reactive and not preventive. In the end, as Hamby (2014, 147) puts it, “a PO is just a paper and not a magic force”: the willingness of the perpetrator to comply with it is the most important factor and it works best in such cases.

Electronic monitoring is sometimes implemented to guarantee the enforcement of the PO. Although there is a small number of evaluations, electronic monitoring applied to the cases of domestic violence was positively perceived by the victims and enhanced their feeling of safety (Erez et al. 2004, 19). Electronic monitoring concerns a tracking device attached to a person to follow their location and is a common measure in USA, Australia and Europe not just for VAW perpetrators, but it can also applied to offenders on bail and under home detention curfews (Belur et al 2020, 1). Usually, the measure is put in place by courts in response to a major violation of a present civil protection order or a criminal conviction (Allaband 2018, 3). Controversy around this measure comes down to the fact that GPS-monitoring, a modern form of electronic monitoring, may constitute a violation of the right to privacy of offenders (Kucharson 2006, 652; Scholl 2010, 855). In response, it has been argued, that the offender grants permission to use electronic monitoring, as he chose that instead of incarceration (Rhodes 2013, 133).

The majority of research on protection orders has been done with a focus on **domestic violence or IPV** (Fitzgerald and Douglas 2020, 180; Herrera and Amor 2023, 2; Cordier et al. 2021, 1), family violence (Turhan et al. 2023, 1) in some cases on **sexual assault** and **stalking** (Russel 2012, 532), which is consequential of legislation of most countries. However, the United Kingdom provides a specific case of application of protection orders to FGM and forced marriage. **FMPO** (Forced Marriage Protection order) and **FGMPO** (Female Genital Mutilation Protection Order) have been introduced in 2007 and 2015 accordingly as civil protective measures (Karlsen et al. 2022, 213; Noack-Lundberg 2021, 372). In both cases the application can be done by the victim or a relevant third party and the breach of PO is considered a criminal offense; both measures prohibit contact of the victim with the individuals involved, however in the case of FMPO the courts have additional powers to include any prohibitions or requirements, which are considered appropriate (Kopelman 2016, 176; Home et al 2020, 14; Clark and Richards 2008, 213). When it comes to sex trafficking, a comparative analysis of van der Aa (2012, 201) illustrates that out of EU countries, only Cyprus has explicit protective orders for victims of sex trafficking. The UK has also introduced Slavery

and Trafficking Risk Orders against potential perpetrators of slavery or trafficking offenses and contains a travel ban (Independent Anti-Slavery Commissioner 2022, 8).

III. Analytical Framework

In order to answer the Research Question, the human rights-based approach will be utilized. This approach will help to analyze if the states of the Philippines and Cambodia have done enough to protect the human rights of women, particularly regarding violence against women, analyze gaps and challenges of their commitments and efforts as well as formulate recommendations for policy advancements on violence against women.

As outlined in the Literature Review, international human rights law offers a comprehensive set of measures for governments to take, which can be broadly summarized as follows: **prevention, protection (including criminalization), provision of services and remedies, prosecution, and punishment**. However, for the purpose of the paper, the pillars of prosecution and punishment will be left out. Furthermore, international law mandates the establishment of a framework for the **implementation** of these obligations. This includes developing a national action plan, creating institutions for monitoring the implementation of laws and policies, ensuring training and capacity building for various stakeholders, collecting data, and allocating budgetary resources to support all the mentioned measures.

The method for evaluation and measurement of state responses to eliminate violence against women chosen for the research is based on the guide to measurement and implementation of human rights, introduced by the Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights. The paper puts forward two dimensions for measurement: commitments and the efforts of the States (OHCHR 2007, 110). These dimensions can be translated into the two types of the following indicators according to OHCHR (OHCHR 2012, 35-37):

1. **Structural indicators** show the State's commitment to apply and implement international law standards in its legal system. The essence of this indicator is to showcase what essential legal tools and mechanisms are being utilized, which contribute to the eradication of violence against women. The presence or absence of certain indicators may indicate the strengths or weaknesses of a legislative framework. They can be analyzed to determine whether the approach of one case study is applicable to another or represents promising practices that can be adopted by another country. On the contrary, the absence of an indicator identifies areas where attention and resources should be proactively directed.
2. **Process indicators** correlate with the second dimension of efforts of the States to promote human rights, specifically human rights for women and girls experiencing violence. This indicator provides a way to assess the measures and actions, undertaken by the States to put its commitments into practice and reality and achieve results. Indicators such as the number of One-Stop Crisis Centers (OSCC), Women and Police Stations (WPS), or shelters established, for example, should reflect the state's progress in providing essential services for victims of VAW and identify areas needing improvement. Additionally, indicators such as the number of individuals receiving post-rape services or increased reporting rates will allow us to look at the development of the systems over the years and see if there are improvements and positive trends in the protection system for VAW victims. Moreover, indicators like the availability of disaggregated administrative data or the allocated budget amount will help determine whether mechanisms have been developed and operationalized or only documented in policy.

With the help of a thorough literature review, it was possible to distinguish the majority of structural and process indicators for analysis for each of the criteria. Some of the indicators have been extracted or formulated based on the Handbook on Legislation on Violence against Women, introduced by UN Women (UN Women 2012, 1). A portion of process indicators used in the research have been taken from the Illustrative indicators on violence against women, developed by OHCHR (OHCHR 2012, 99).

It must be mentioned that there are limitations to be expected. Presently, there's a push for universal indicators on violence against women, urging governments to collect specific data (UN Women. n.d.). Measuring governments' responses renders an easier task than violence prevalence, but some of the dimensions of governments' response, such as prevention, haven't been quite the focus yet, which makes it hard to collect administrative data (Ertürk 2007, 18). In light of these concerns, my approach involves looking at examples of policy implementation rather than directly measuring effectiveness. This allows us to assess whether minimal actions have been taken, to evidence the government's commitment, and to demonstrate its efforts.

As mentioned, the final analytical framework for comparison consists of four groups of criteria: National Legislative Framework, Implementation; Prevention, and Protection. These groups are further divided into eleven criteria in total, which is the general foundation of comparison analysis. Each criterion has corresponding structural and process indicators, which are illustrated in Table 2:

Table 2. Summary of the Analytical Framework

Criterion	Structural Indicator	Source of Indicator	Process Indicator	Source of indicator
National Legislative Framework				
Laws	Legislation should: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Acknowledge VAW as a discrimination and violation of human rights; - Criminalize all forms of violence, including those mentioned in Annex 1, but not limited by it; - Define domestic violence as physical, sexual, psychological and economic violence and apply to all domestic relationships; primary focus of the law on DV is on protection of the victim;	UN Women 2012, 21-25; Vachhani et al. 2017, 4921; Breiding et al. 2015, 11;	Not applied.	

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Define sexual violence as a crime against physical integrity and sexual autonomy of a person, committed without “consent”; provide for aggravating circumstances; criminalize marital rape; - Guarantee a divorce from a violent husband; 			
NAPs	<p>National Action Plan should:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> exist and include all forms of VAW; provide links to gender inequality and discrimination, and human rights violation; Have consistent definitions with those in provided by laws; Provide for cross-ministerial engagement and collaboration across sectors; Be formulated in collaboration with relevant NGOs; Mention all vulnerable groups; Mandate clear tasks and responsible ministries, timelines and expected outcomes for measures, division of tasks between several levels of government; 	UN Women 2012a, 11-12; Kelly et al. 2018, 38-47; Essayag 2017, 37;	Not applied.	
Implementation				

Inter-Sectoral Mechanism for Monitoring	Legislation should provide for establishment of a Inter-Sectoral Mechanism for Monitoring with clear mandates and appropriate status (determined by location, resources and staffing) to perform coordination, monitoring, implementation, and evaluation of the policy and legislation on VAW with ability for horizontal and vertical coordination;	UN Women 2012, 19; Byrne and Laier 1996, 14; Pavlou and Fomina 2023, 10; Essayag 2017;	Not applied.	
Data Collection	Legislation should: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - provide for periodic collection of comprehensive data on all forms of violence; data should be disaggregated by sex, race, age, ethnicity and other relevant characteristics; - centralize the regulation of data collection on violence against women within one government institution; - provide for establishment of regional guidelines for the collection and analysis of data on VAW; 	UN Women 2012, 20; EIGE 2016, 11; Belen 2021, 25;	Availability of at least one national population-based survey with data on the prevalence, conducted between 2000 and 2018; Collection of national data on VAW in surveys should be every five years; Availability of administrative data by sector and by forms of violence; Is it harmonized and collected by one responsible agency?	WHO 2021, 7; Palmén et al. 2016, 79; EIGE 2016, 11;
Training and capacity-building	Existence of national level manual for training	PAHO 2022, 15; Stewart et	Proportion of health staff trained in medical	OHCHR 2012, 99;

	<p>targeted at health care providers and other sectors; Provision for not only one-off training but also for continuous trainings; Provision for training of public officials (all levels of the government), providers of special victim services; training curriculum for teachers and school staff; law enforcement (also on trafficking), health care (pre-qualification and in-service in primary care, sexual and reproductive health, mental health services) and judicial sector in VAW policy;</p>	<p>al. 2015, 1; Palmen 2016, 81;</p>	<p>management and support for victims of sexual and other violence; Proportion of (new) staff trained in other sectors for which training and capacity building mandated by VAW policy;</p>	
Budget	<p>Provision in legislation for: Budget allocation to implementation of the NAP; Budget allocation to the tasks of the mechanism for monitoring; State funding for prevention, protection services, collection of data (research), training of relevant stakeholders; National health budget with one or more dedicated lines to support prevention of and/or response to VAW;</p>	<p>Kelly et al. 2018, 47; PAHO 2022, 25; UN Women 2012, 15;</p>	<p>Proportion of budget allocated;</p>	<p>Adopted based on OHCHR 2012, 99;</p>
Prevention				

Prevention	<p>Provision for awareness-raising campaigns for sensitizing of population and awareness of specific laws;</p> <p>Provision for inclusion of gender and human rights curriculum in all levels of education;</p> <p>Provision for encouragement of sensitization of journalists and other media;</p> <p>Additionally: inclusion of other prevention strategies, proposed by RESPECT framework (Annex 2);</p>	<p>Women 2012, 27-28; WHO 2013, 14; Heise 2011, XI-XIII; UN 2006, 126; Fulu, Kerr-Wilson, and Lang 2014, 36; WHO 2019, 10-11;</p>	<p>Number of programs piloted according to the strategies mentioned in the VAW policy and the year of the launch;</p> <p>Are they evidence-based?</p> <p>Do they target various forms of violence?</p>	<p>Formulated based on structural indicators and the manual OHCHR 2012, 87;</p>
Protection				
Comprehensive and integrated support services	<p>Policy/legislation should:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Establishment of comprehensive and integrated support services to assist survivors of violence; -State that all services for women survivors of violence should also provide adequate support to the women's children (at least shelters); -State that the location of such services should allow equitable access to the services, in particular by urban and rural populations 	<p>UN Women 2012, 29; Kelly 2008, 38;</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Number of support services existing in the country, by type of service and by forms of violence covered; - Fulfillment of the minimum standard for availability, by type of service provided; -Shelters: acceptance of children, number of beds available, number of women accommodated, free of charge, possible length of stay; extent across regions; the number of women turned away or on the waitlist; -helpline: free of charge, available 24/7; 	<p>UN Women 2012, 29; Kelly 2008, 38; EIGE 118-121; Samardzic and Morton 2020, 66;</p>

	<p>-Where possible, provide minimum standards for availability:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. One national women's phone hotline around the clock, free of charge 2. One shelter/refuge place for every 10, 000 inhabitants 3. One women's advocacy and counselling center for every 50, 000 women 4. One rape crisis center for every 200,000 5. One sexual assault services per 400 000 women; 			
Health Sector	<p>Inclusion of violence against women in national health plans and/or policies as a strategic priority;</p> <p>Existence of national guidelines or protocols to address violence against women/gender-based violence by the health sector;</p> <p>Provision, establishing a unit or focal point responsible for VAW in Ministry of Health;</p> <p>Inclusion of health-care providers' reporting requirements in policy documents as well as privacy and confidentiality;</p>	<p>WHO 2020, 202-203;</p> <p>WHO 2021, 5-6; PAHO 2022, 25;</p> <p>OECD 2023, 79;</p>	<p>Proportion of victims of rape who had access to emergency contraception or safe, abortion, prophylaxis for sexually transmitted infections/HIV; received first-line support;</p> <p>Availability of comprehensive post-rape care services in line with WHO guidelines in at least one service delivery point;</p> <p>The number of hospitals which report having integrated guidelines/protocols on response to VAW including referral networks and screening tools;</p>	<p>OHCHR 2012, 99;</p> <p>Formulated based on structural indicators and the manual OHCHR 2012, 87;</p>

	<p>Inclusion of Intimate partner violence (IPV) identification in policy documents;</p> <p>Inclusion of post-rape care: emergency contraception (EC), sexually transmitted infection (STI) prophylaxis, HIV post-exposure prophylaxis (PEP) and safe abortion and first-line support;</p> <p>Inclusion of referrals beyond the health sector in policy documents;</p> <p>Provision for establishment of health facilities have a designated focal point or unit for violence against women (OSCC or other integrated health sector model);</p>		<p>the number of women referred to other agencies (beyond health care);</p> <p>Number of health facilities, which have a designated focal point or unit for violence against women (OSCC or other integrated health sector model) and extent across regions;</p>	
Police units and specialized courts	<p>Provision mandating increase of female police officers in law enforcement;</p> <p>The designation of specialized police units and specialized prosecutor units;</p> <p>Provision for the creation of specialized courts or special court proceedings;</p>	UN Women 2012, 16-17; Majumdar 2020, 7;	<p>Number of perpetrators of violence against women (including harmful traditional practices, domestic violence, trafficking, sexual exploitation and forced labor) arrested, adjudicated, convicted and serving sentences (by type of sentence);</p> <p>Proportion of reported cases of sexual or other violence where</p>	OHCHR 2012, 99; formulated based on structural indicators using manual OHCHR 2012, 87;

			<p>victims (or related third parties) initiated legal action;</p> <p>Proportion of sexual crimes (e.g., rape) reported to the police (population survey)</p> <p>Increased reporting of cases;</p> <p>Increased number of female officers;</p> <p>Number of specialized police units/ specialized prosecutor units</p> <p>Number of specialized courts or courts with special court proceedings</p> <p>Extent across regions of such units;</p>	
Protection orders	<p>Provision for establishment of PO for victims of all forms of violence as well as with comprehensive eligibility pool;</p> <p>Availability of civil PO, criminal PO, emergency and post-hearing PO;</p> <p>Mutual POs are not available;</p> <p>Comprehensiveness of available POs in terms of evidence, content and issuance requirements (according to Annex 3);</p> <p>Criminalization of violation of a PO.</p>	UN Women 2012, 43-48; Leahy 2023, 17; Chan 2018, 8;	Number of adopted protection orders by type;	OHCHR 2012, 99.

Concerning the sources that will be used to extract data for analysis in the Empirical Part, it depends on the indicator. Structural indicators will be primarily sourced from the constitution, relevant laws, strategies, national plans, standards, regulations and protocols, and other policy documents of Cambodia and the Philippines. Secondary literature, which cites or elaborates on such documents, will be used if the primary sources are not available. Regarding process indicators, the following sources are to be utilized: surveys and questionnaires, official government records and reports, data provided by NGOs; data, collected by crisis hotlines, social service agencies, and shelters; media reports as well as secondary literature.

IV. EMPIRICAL PART

4.1. National Legislative Framework

4.1.1. Laws

The Philippines

Turning to the Philippine legislative framework, the 2009 Magna Carta of Women, also known as Republic Act No. 9710 in the Philippines is a fundamental piece of legislation that translates the principles of the CEDAW in the local context. It places an emphasis on protecting women's human rights and combating discrimination in the political, economic, social, cultural, and civil spheres. It also addresses the issue of VAW. Although it's not a criminal law, the act is an essential part of government stance on VAW, which defines responsibilities for its implementation of various government bodies.

Chap. I, Sec. 2 of the law establishes a framework rooted in a human rights approach, recognizing women's rights as human rights and outlining the state's obligations to respect, protect, fulfill, and promote these rights (Philippine Commission on Women 2010, 3). Furthermore, Sec. 3 of the law elaborates on this framework by prohibiting discrimination based on gender and other intersecting characteristics, aligning with human rights standards (Philippine Commission on Women 2010, 3). Nevertheless, the framework falls short in establishing a direct connection between human rights principles and discrimination to the issue of violence against women.

Going forward, Chap. IV, Sec. 8 states that women's rights under the Constitution and international instruments ratified by the Philippines shall be enjoyed without discrimination (Philippine Commission on Women 2010, 10). Sec. 9 emphasizes the State's obligation to protect women from all forms of violence (Philippine Commission on Women 2010, 10). While these provisions indirectly hint at the intersection between human rights and violence against women and explicitly recognize international human rights frameworks, that connect these concepts, they do not expressly state this connection within the law.

Concerning definitions of violence against women, it is based on categorization between physical, sexual, psychological, and economic violence, which can be perpetrated in the family, general community, and by the State (Philippine Commission on Women 2010, 8). Violence to which women can be subjected in conflict situations is also a focus of the law (Philippine Commission on Women 2010, 10).

Such a definition corresponds with that required by international human rights law. It highlights almost all key forms of violence occurring in different settings, only failing to

mention femicide, stalking, domestic violence perpetrated against parents and other relatives and cohabitants, and violence between ex-partners; among harmful practices, only dowry-related violence has been mentioned, leaving out the rest. Notably, the law also mentions marital rape. Thus, even though the list of forms of violence is not exhaustive, it is quite comprehensive.

Additionally, Sec. 33 provides for the protection of “senior citizens” against domestic violence and abuse (Philippine Commission on Women 2010, 24).

While the Magna Carta of Women does not explicitly state that no customary or religious laws can be used to justify VAW, it generally asserts that customary laws should be respected as long as they do not discriminate against women (Philippine Commission on Women 2010, 17).

The next important piece of legislation concerning VAW is Republic Act No. 9262, known as the Anti-Violence Against Women and Their Children Act of 2004. Similarly, the act does not explicitly state that violence against women is a form of discrimination and human rights violation. However, it emphasizes the imperative to protect women from violence "in keeping with the fundamental freedoms" provided by international human rights instruments (National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women 2004, Section 2).

The law positions its focus on the need to protect “the family and its members, particularly women and children” (National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women 2004, Section 2).

Definitions of VAW, set out in the law are largely the same as those in the Magna Carta, with some limitations.

Table 3. Definitions of VAW covered in the 2009 Magna Carta of Women and RA9262.

The 2009 Magna Carta of Women	Republic Act No. 9262 of 2004
Physical, sexual, psychological, and economic violence,	
Committed in the family , including battering, abuse of children, dowry-related violence, marital rape, other harmful traditional practices, non-spousal violence, violence related to exploitation.	Committed by husband, ex-husband, a partner with a common child, boyfriend/girlfriend, fiancé, who the woman had sexual/dating relationship
Committed within general community , including rape, sexual abuse, sexual harassment, trafficking in women, and prostitution.	Committed to wife, ex-wife, a woman with a common child, a woman from a dating/relationship, or the child.
Perpetrated or condoned by the State	

source: National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women 2004; Philippine Commission on Women 2010;

Evidently, RA9262 has a more limited focus encompassing only IPV. The act includes such types of violence as physical, sexual, psychological, and economic.

The law significantly expands on and elaborates its definitions, encompassing a wide range of acts that fall under the categories of physical, psychological, sexual, and economic violence.

Sec. 6 of the law criminalizes a wide range of acts mentioned in the text and provides a punishment of a fine and imprisonment.

The main law in the Philippines, which criminalizes rape is the Act No. 8353, which amended the Revised Penal code in 1997. Sec. 2 of the law states, that rape is “classified as a Crime Against Persons” (The Lawphil Project, 1930, Title Eleven, Chapter 2). According to the same section of the law, the crime is committed “through force, threat or intimidation”, by the deprivation of reason, by “machination or abuse of authority”. Consequently, the proof of the act committed according to the same section Art. 266-D, is that there is a physical resistance or circumstances that prevent valid consent (The Lawphil Project, 1930, Article 266-D). The age for statutory rape according to this act is 12, but this clause has been amended in 2022, by raising it to 16 years (Republic Of The Philippines, Congress of the Philippines 2022, 2).

The law criminalizes rape with a sentence of up to 40 years in prison (reclusion perpetua) (The Lawphil Project, 1930, Article 266-B). This penalty is accompanied by a comprehensive list of aggravating circumstances, which include the use of a weapon, the perpetrator's relationship to the victim (e.g., parent), the age of the victim, if the perpetrator is HIV-positive, mutilation, disability, or death of the victim, and the vulnerable status of the victim (e.g., pregnancy, mental disorder). In the case of such circumstances, the penalty is death (The Lawphil Project, 1930, Article. 266-B). Supreme Court has made ruling, acknowledging the importance of consent, for example in case of marital rape (Republic of the Philippines, Supreme Court 2014). On the other hand, there were also concerning rulings where, despite claims of coercion, the court found no evidence of resistance. In these cases, the absence of explicit consent was deemed insufficient, as the court focused on establishing proof of coercion (PCW, n.d., 1).

Concerning marital rape, the law does not operate with this concept. The Act No. 9262 brings the concept of rape into the context of the family, and Supreme Court decisions have acknowledged marital rape. (Republic of the Philippines, Supreme Court 2014).

A problematic part of this law is the forgiveness clause under Article 266-C, which can be considered as part of the analysis of the criminalization clause. Article 266-C of the 8353 Act states, that the offender can be exempt from the criminal action if the crime of rape is followed by marriage (Republic Of The Philippines, Congress of the Philippines 1997, Article 266-C). Policy recommendation of the Philippines' Commission on Women notes, that this clause raises concerns about the underlying principles of this law, as this part puts the victim in further danger of victimization (PCW, n.d., 2).

There have been multiple legislative attempts to address these gaps. Senate Bill No. 2462, which has not yet been brought to a vote, and House Bill No. 401, introduced during the Nineteenth Congress of the House of Representatives of the Republic of the Philippines, both seek to amend Act No. 8353 (Miram Defensor Santiago 2018, 1; Brosas et al. 2022). They aim to place the concept of consent at the center of the definition of rape and remove the requirement for proof of coercion or penetration by force. House Bill No. 401 is more comprehensive, providing a wide range of coercive circumstances and presuming lack of consent. Moreover, it seeks to broaden the number of aggravating circumstances of rape and repeal the forgiveness clause mentioned earlier under Article 266-C. This bill has been pending with the Committee on Revision of Laws since 26th of July, 2022 according to the information provided by the website of the House of Representatives of the Philippines. It's notable that the Philippine Code of Crimes (PCC), which has been in draft since 2014, was intended to repeal the "forgiveness" clause. However, House Bill No. 6204, presented during the Seventeenth Congress in 2022,

which seeks to replace the Revised Penal Code (Act No. 3815) with the PCC is still pending with the Committee on Local Government since February 10, 2020 (Alvarez et al. 2017, 1). This discussion brings attention to the issue of forced pregnancy. Currently, the Philippines doesn't have any laws, which criminalize forced pregnancy. Furthermore, the country maintains a ban on abortions without clear exceptions under Article 256 of the Penal Code of the Philippines (The Lawphil Project, 1930, Article 256). The law indeed imposes restrictions on a woman's reproductive rights, particularly in cases where women have been victims of rape. Infanticide is criminalized under the article of 255 of the Penal Code in a gender-neutral manner, without underscoring the issue of female infanticide (The Lawphil Project, 1930, Article 255).

Sexual Harassment is criminalized under Act 7877 dated 1995 and Act 11313 dated 2018. Although both of them focus on the same form of VAW, they differ in scope. Act 7877 is gender neutral and focuses on sexual harassment in the workplace, educational or training institutions and lays out penalties therefore (Republic of the Philippines, Congress of the Philippines 1995, Sec. 3). Act 11313 defines sexual harassment as gender-based violence and expands the coverage to include streets, public places, online spaces next to workplaces, educational or training institutions (Republic of the Philippines, Congress of the Philippines 2018, Sec.3) acknowledging such acts as catcalling, stalking etc.

As for the legal framework concerning divorce, currently, only Filipino Muslims and Indigenous Peoples can get divorced under Presidential Decree No. 1083 and Republic Act No. 8371 respectively. For the rest of the Filipino population, divorce is not allowed since the enactments of the Republic Act No. 389, known as the Civil Code (PCW n.d.(a), 1). Under the Civil Code, married couples can either legally separate without an option to remarry or to annul the marriage (The Lawphil Project, n.d(a), Article 175 and Article 85). Civil Code (The Lawphil Project, n.d(a), Article 85) and Family Code (Executive Order No. 209, Art. 45) provide for several grounds for annulment of marriage, for example, lack of parental consent, psychological incapacity, obtaining of the consent to marry by force or fraud, sexually transmissible diseases. Additionally, Art. 55 of the Family Code provides for the ground of legal separation, according to which physical violence has to be repeated.

While the reinstitution of divorce has been a very important topic in the Philippines, another part of the discourse is to add domestic violence to one of the grounds for divorce (Lo 2024). Currently, two bills are addressing this issue: Senate Bill No. 2443, which has been pending Second Reading in the Senate since September 18, 2023, and House Bill No. 9349, which is categorized as Unfinished Business in the House of Representatives. According to these bills, divorce can be sought after five years of separation or two years of legal separation. They propose changes to the grounds for legal separation, particularly regarding physical violence, which does not have to be repetitive to warrant separation. Additionally, the House Bill aims to introduce abuse according to Act 9262 as a separate ground for absolute divorce, which precludes reconciliation, along with a mandatory 60-day cooling-off period. The bill has been under discussion in the House of Representatives during the 19th Congress over the past few months, as reported by several newspapers (Cruz 2024; Lalu 2024).

Republic Act 9208, also known as the Anti-Trafficking in Persons Act of 2003, criminalizes trafficking along with sexual slavery, while Republic Act 10364, the Expanded Anti-Trafficking in Persons Act of 2012, expanded definitions, protection, prevention

measures, and penalties introduced by the earlier legislation (Fifteenth Congress of the Philippines 2012).

Under the Republic Act 11596, child marriage is prohibited; however, forced marriage is not explicitly criminalized (Eighteenth Congress of the Philippines. 2021). Although obtaining consent to marry through fraud, force, or undue influence is grounds for annulment, there is no specific penalty for forced marriage. Recently, a Bill was submitted to the House of Representatives seeking to add coercive marriage after rape to the grounds of annulment.

When it comes to other harmful practices, which are to be criminalized according to international law, the situation is the following. There is no law on dowry-related violence, even though the crime itself has been acknowledged as a part of VAW in the Magna Carta of Women. Virginity testing, prenatal sex-selection, and widow maltreatment are also not mentioned in the legal framework. Acid attacks are also not criminalized, but they could potentially be punished under existing provisions of the Penal Code that address serious and less serious physical injuries, such as Articles 263 and 266. However, the Senate has recognized the significance of this issue by introducing measures in Bill No. 992 aimed at addressing acid attacks, indicating its prominence in the country (Fifteenth Congress Of The Republic Of The Philippines 2010, 1).

In the legal framework of the Philippines, honor crimes have a problematic position. Art. 247 of the Penal Code states, that if a spouse sees “his spouse” committing sexual intercourse with another person and kills any of them, he will only suffer a form of banishment. Inflicting physical injuries is not punished in such circumstances. This also applies to “parents with respect to their daughters”. Despite attempts to repeal this outdated and discriminatory law through bills such as Senate Bill 543, House Bill 01341, and 9542, all of these initiatives remain pending (Nineteenth Congress of the Republic of the Philippines 2023; 2022, n.d.).

Concerning HIV Cleansing, Republic Act No. 8504, also known as the Philippine AIDS Prevention and Control Act of 1998 prohibits any form of violence or discrimination against individuals with HIV/AIDS (Congress of the Philippines 1998).

FGM, or female genital mutilation, remains non-criminalized in the Philippines. While certain sources suggest that female circumcision has been practiced within some Muslim ethnic groups, it's important to note that this isn't considered a compulsory practice in Islam and is seen as a declining custom (UN Women 2020; Equality Now 2023). However, there hasn't been any research conducted on this matter since 2014 (UN Women 2020).

Finally, femicide is not classified as a separate crime in the legal framework. Although such crimes are punished under the first section of the Penal Code, which deals with patricide, murder, and homicide, this makes it difficult to systematize data to address the problem and set policies to combat or at least control it (Rivera 2022, 6).

Cambodia

The Domestic Violence Law, also known as DV Law, enacted in 2005 in Cambodia, stands as the first legislation specifically addressing the issue of violence against women in the country.

The first point that must be mentioned is that the law does not create a link between violence against women, human rights violations, and discrimination. However, the law refers to Art. 45 of the Cambodian Constitution, which does not tolerate discrimination and

exploitation of women. In addition, Art. 31 of the Cambodian Constitution includes a reference to respect for human, women's, and children's rights under international conventions (GTZ-Promotion of Women's Rights, n.d., Art. 31, Art. 45).

Art. 1 sets out the objectives of the law, i.e. protecting women and “preserving the harmony within the households in line with the Nation’s good custom and tradition” (GTZ-Promotion of Women's Rights, n.d., Art. 1). This appears to take the focus away from protecting victims from violence and preventing further incidents of violence and may lead to a conflict of priorities. In situations, when the goal of protecting victims contradicts with preserving family unity, such as in cases where divorce or family separation may be necessary to ensure the safety of the individual, this phrasing becomes particularly problematic. It suggests a potential tension between prioritizing the well-being and safety of victims and preserving the status quo of family harmony.

Although the inclusion of 'nation’s good custom and tradition' in Cambodia's DV Law suggests the importance of respecting cultural norms, beliefs, and practices, it also implies that upholding these traditions is as significant as protecting victims from domestic violence. However, Cambodia is known to have cultural norms that perpetuate violence, particularly against women, making it untenable to condone both simultaneously (Sovann 2019, 296).

In the same manner, Sec. 2 Art. 8, which covers definition and scope of domestic violence mentions customs and traditions once again. The article reads: “disciplining (...) taken to follow the good ways of living (..) with nation’s good custom and tradition, if (...) conducted with noble nature (*consisting of compassion, pity, joy at other’s happiness, and sincerity*), (...) shall not be included as the use of violence or domestic violence”. In this passage, custom and tradition are used to justify violence against women (GTZ-Promotion of Women's Rights, n.d., Art. 8).

Art. 2 of the law defines the scope of protected persons and includes: “husband or wife, dependent children, persons living under the roof of the house and who are dependent of the households”. The scope is lacking the following types of relationships: unmarried partners, past and present partners, boyfriends/girlfriends, dating partners and ongoing sexual partners, who do not cohabit, as well as other family members (such as parents and extended family members), and same-sex relationships (GTZ-Promotion of Women's Rights, n.d., Art. 2).

Art. 3 to Art. 8 establish various types of domestic violence recognized under the law, which are demonstrated in the Table below:

Table 4. Types and acts of domestic violence covered by the 2005 DV Law.

Acts of violence			
Acts affecting life	Acts affecting physical integrity	Tortures or cruel acts	Sexual aggression
Premeditated homicide	Physical abuses with or without using weapons, with getting or not getting wounded	Harassment causing mental/psychological, emotional, intellectual harms to physical persons within the households	Violent sex
Intentional homicide	Tortures or Cruel acts	Mental/psychological and physical harms exceeding morality and the boundaries of the law	Sexual harassment
Unintentional homicide resulted from intentional acts of perpetrators			Indecent exposures
Unintentional homicide			

source: GTZ-Promotion of Women's Rights, n.d., Art. 3-8.

Although physical, sexual, and psychological types of violence are mentioned, the definition of acts of violence appears to be limited in number and broad and vague in nature. It is not specific enough when addressing certain nuances or types of violence. Moreover, economic violence is not accounted for.

Most importantly, the DV Law does not criminalize the acts of violence mentioned above. The acts are considered criminal offenses under the 2009 Criminal Code. The Acts not covered by the Criminal Code are not specifically penalized. The current version of the Criminal Code doesn't explicitly classify domestic violence as a separate offense; instead, it addresses various acts encompassed by domestic violence under broader categories or general offenses. The table below aims to illustrate the corresponding offenses addressed by the Criminal Code and those addressed by the DV Law:

Table 5. Comparison of the scope of the DV Law and the Criminal Code.

DV Law 2005	Scope	Criminal Code 2009	Scope
Acts affecting life	Premeditated homicide	Intentional Homicide	Art. 200 Definition of premeditated murder
	Intentional homicide	Intentional Homicide	Art. 199 Definition of murder <i>Art. 201 Definition of murder by poisoning</i> <i>Art. 205 Murder accompanied by torture, cruelty or rape</i>
	Unintentional homicide resulted from intentional acts of perpetrators	-	-
	Unintentional homicide	Unintentional Homicide	Art. 207 Definition of manslaughter
Acts affecting physical integrity	Physical abuses with or without using weapons, with getting or not getting wounded	Sec. 2 Acts of Violence	Art. 217 Intentional acts of violence: "Intentional acts of violence committed against another person shall be punishable by imprisonment from one to three years and a fine from two million to six million Riels". Art. 218 Aggravating circumstances: Intentional acts of violence shall be punishable (...) if they are committed: 1. With premeditation 2. With the use or threat to use a weapon 3. By several persons acting as perpetrators (...) <i>Art. 222 Violence committed by a spouse:</i> <i>"Intentional acts of violence shall be punishable (...) if they are committed by spouse or partner of the victim".</i> Art. 223 Aggravating circumstances (mutilation or disability) Art. 224 Aggravating circumstances (death of the victim) Art. 228 Definition of less severe acts of violence: "An act (...) which does not result in any injury shall be punishable by fine (...)".
	Tortures or Cruel acts	Sec 1 Tortures and acts of cruelty	Art. 210 Tortures and acts of cruelty: "Tortures and acts of cruelty committed against another person shall be punishable by imprisonment seven to fifteen years".
Tortures or cruel acts	Harassment causing mental/psychological, emotional, intellectual harms to physical persons within the households	-	-
	Mental/psychological and physical harms exceeding morality and the boundaries of the law	-	-
-	-	Sec. 3 Threats	Art. 231 Threats: "A threat to commit a felony against persons shall be punishable (...)" Art. 233 Death threat
	Violent sex	Chapter 3. Sexual Assaults Section 1. Rape	Art. 239 Definition of rape
	Sexual harassment	Chapter 3. Sexual Assaults	Art. 250 Definition of sexual harassment

source: Buleng Cheung. n.d.; GTZ-Promotion of Women's Rights, n.d.

The gaps in coverage by the Criminal Code, particularly in the first and third categories, are apparent, resulting in a lack of punishment for certain acts of domestic violence. While the Criminal Code addresses "Tortures and acts of cruelty," the definition provided differs from that in the DV Law, in particular, there is no specific provision within the Criminal Code that adequately addresses mental and psychological harms. Additionally, certain offenses relevant to domestic violence, such as threats covered by Article 231, are not recognized as being perpetrated within the context of domestic violence under DV Law. These differences between

the laws are further complicated by the fact that DV Law doesn't provide explicit links to the Criminal Code.

Concerning sexual violence, a few points can be mentioned about its definition in the legislation. As presented above, rape is criminalized under the Criminal Code of Cambodia and is defined by the Art. 239 (Buleng Cheung. n.d., Art. 239). The definition lacks the concept of consent, instead building on the concept of violence, coercion, and threat. The concept of consent is only mentioned in article 246 concerning indecent assault, which deals with such acts as “touching, fondling or caressing” (Buleng Cheung. n.d., Art. 246). Aggravating circumstances, designated by the law, include the use of weapons, narcotics or the status of the perpetrator, the vulnerable status of the victim, the use of torture, or if rape ended in disability, death, or mutilation (Buleng Cheung. n.d., Art. 240-244).

Sexual harassment, defined as the abuse of authority for the purpose of obtaining sexual favors, is criminalized by Art. 250. The preceding Article 249 criminalizes indecent exposure. The Criminal Code of Cambodia does not operate with the term “marital rape”. However, the questionnaire on criminalization and prosecution of rape, provided by the permanent mission of the Kingdom of Cambodia to the United Nations Office and other International Organizations in Geneva, submitted on 24th of June 2020 states that marital rape is explicitly included in criminal law provision on rape and that the law is not salient on marital rape (Kingdom of Cambodia 2020, 2). Notably, Art. 5 of the law understands sexual aggression as “violent sex, sexual harassment, and indecent exposures”. Some translations and reports have also interpreted this article to include “violent rape” instead of “violent sex”, which could be a way to recognize marital rape in the law (Human Rights Now 2011, 16), bringing the concept inside the realm of the family, while the Criminal Code fails to do so.

The Civil Code of Cambodia provides for divorce under Sec. IV. According to the Art. 978 the grounds for divorce are acts of infidelity, desertion of a spouse, separation for one year or if the marriage is “degenerated” there is “no prospect of reconciliation” for marriage (FAO 2008, Art. 978). However, there is no specific provision for divorce based on domestic violence. Even though the last passage of “no prospect for reconciliation” could potentially be applied to cases of domestic violence, the court may dismiss a demand for divorce if it causes hardship on the other spouse or if one spouse is found to have neglected cooperation (FAO 2008, Art. 978 §2; §3). Additionally, if divorce by mutual agreement is sought, the court may attempt conciliation for 15 days (FAO 2008, Art. 979). It's noteworthy that as the Domestic Violence Law prohibits reconciliation procedures without the consent of both parties, this aspect ideally should be considered within the Civil Code regarding domestic violence cases as well.

The Law on Suppression of Human Trafficking and Sexual Exploitation of 2008 covers and criminalizes human trafficking and sexual exploitation (Mekong Migration Network 2008). Concerning harmful practices, only acid violence is criminalized by the Law on Regulating Concentrated Acid, promulgated in 2011 (Open Development Cambodia 2024). Other forms of violence such as harmful practices, femicide, and stalking are not addressed within Cambodia's legal framework. Additionally, the law does not explicitly recognize that violence against women can be perpetrated by individuals within the family, community, in conflict situations, or by the state.

4.1.2. NAPs

The Philippines

The Philippines has developed a total of four NAPs to address VAW. The first NAP was developed in 2002 as a pioneering attempt to comprehensively address violence against women (Verzosa 2002, 2). However, it is currently unavailable for analysis.

The subsequent NAPs are the following:

1. Strategic Plan of the IAC-VAWC 2007-2010
2. IACVAWC Strategic National Action Plan 2014-2016
3. Strategic Plan on VAWC 2017-2022

Currently a new document, IACVAWC National Action Plan 2023-2028 is being finalized (IACVAWC n.d.).

Assessing the NAPs within gender equality policies shows that, despite no direct link between the NAPs and the Magna Carta, the NAPs correlate with other key gender policy mechanisms like the Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment Plan 2019-2025 and the Philippine Plan for Gender-Responsive Development 1995-2025. These documents include indicators aimed at enhancing the state's role in prevention, provision of services to victim and other areas (PPGD-1995-2025, 357; Philippine Commission on Women 2022, 92; 103).

All of the three NAPs have been developed to ensure the implementation of the Republic Act 9262 and focus on IPV in domestic situations, which is consistent with the Act (IACVAWC, n.d. 1, IACVAWC, n.d., 16, IACVAWC 2018, 44). The fourth plan underscores such positioning by providing statistics, indicating that 80 percent of all violence against women is perpetrated by intimate partners (IACVAWC 2018, 45). Nevertheless, the latest NAP emphasizes the importance of broadening the focus to address other forms of VAW and strengthening coordination with relevant mechanisms (IACVAWC 2018, 44). Only the second plan provides a definition of VAW as physical, psychological, emotional and economic abuse, but it can be assumed that the other NAPs adopt the same definition from RA9262, which corresponds recommendations of DEVAW (Section 3; Article 1- DEVAW). The 2nd and 3d NAPS explicitly state the obligation of the government of the Philippines to eliminate forms of VAW, while the 4th one omits any links to international documents (IACVAWC n.d.(a), 4).

Recognition of VAW as a human rights violation has been included since the third NAP and has been emphasized multiple times in the fourth one (IACVAWC n.d(a), 4; IACVAWC 2018, 47; 44). All the NAPs share a common vision as the foundation of their strategy, which implies that VAW is closely linked to gender discrimination and inequality:

A gender - fair and empowered society that protects its people especially women and children from any form of violence and exploitation thus enabling them to fully exercise their rights and participate in all development efforts and experience a peaceful and fulfilling family and community life (IACVAWC n.d., 8; IACVAWC n.d(a), 16; IACVAWC 2018, 46).

The second and third NAPs do not provide any additional strategies or specific attention to vulnerable groups. However, the fourth NAP addresses this issue. The plan demonstrates recognition of intersectionality by mentioning vulnerable groups such as poor women, indigenous women, women with disabilities and poorer education, and women living in remote areas with limited access to services. However, the plan excludes such groups as LGBTQ+ women, older women, immigrant or refugee women, and women belonging to ethnic or religious minorities (IACVAWC 2018, 45). The plan provides for a mechanism to ensure inclusivity, which is incorporation of data disaggregation for all mentioned groups (IACVAWC 2018, 45).

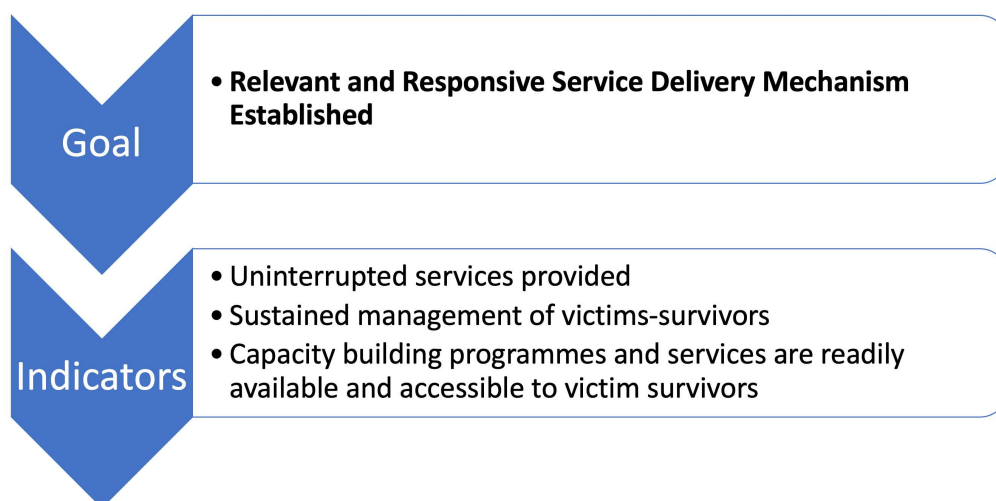
When it comes to NGO engagement in formulation of policy, Verzosa (2010, 5) reports that both the 2002 and 2007-2010 plans were prepared during collective workshops involving government and NGOs, with the participation of other agencies involved in service delivery to victims. The third NAP acknowledges the contribution provided by the consultations with various CSOs (IACVAWC n.d(a), 15). NGOs played a significant role in the formulation and revision of the latest NAP. During the implementation of the former 2014-2016 Strategic Plan, PCW organized workshops with government and NGO representatives to discuss emerging issues (IACVAWC 2018, 7). The results of the discussions have been reviewed for the third Strategic Plan by IACVAWC. In addition, in 2012, the WOMENLEAD foundation presented a study on the implementation of RA9262 and reviewed progress in meeting the goals set out in previous strategic plans (IACVAWC 2018, 7).

All three NAPs follow the same structure where Key Result Areas are identified, specific Objectives are set for each area, and Strategies are developed based on these Objectives. The second NAP was focused on the five KRAs, namely Public Information and Advocacy; Capacity Building and Service Delivery; Sustained Linkages and Partnerships (IACVAWC n.d. 9). The subsequent two NAPs are based on a more concise list of KRAs: Primary Prevention, Response System; Cross Cutting Structures and Actions (IACVAWC n.d(a), 17; IACVAWC 2018, 13).

All three of the NAPs provide an Implementation Matrix, which is based on the above mentioned KRAs, Objectives and Strategies, accompanied by indicators which should help to measure and evaluate the success of the implementation (IACVAWC n.d., 34; IACVAWC n.d(a), 25, IACVAWC 2018, 47). Although all three NAPs share a basic structure, there is a clear progression in their formulation:

The 2nd NAP employs simple binary indicators (IACVAWC n.d., 36):

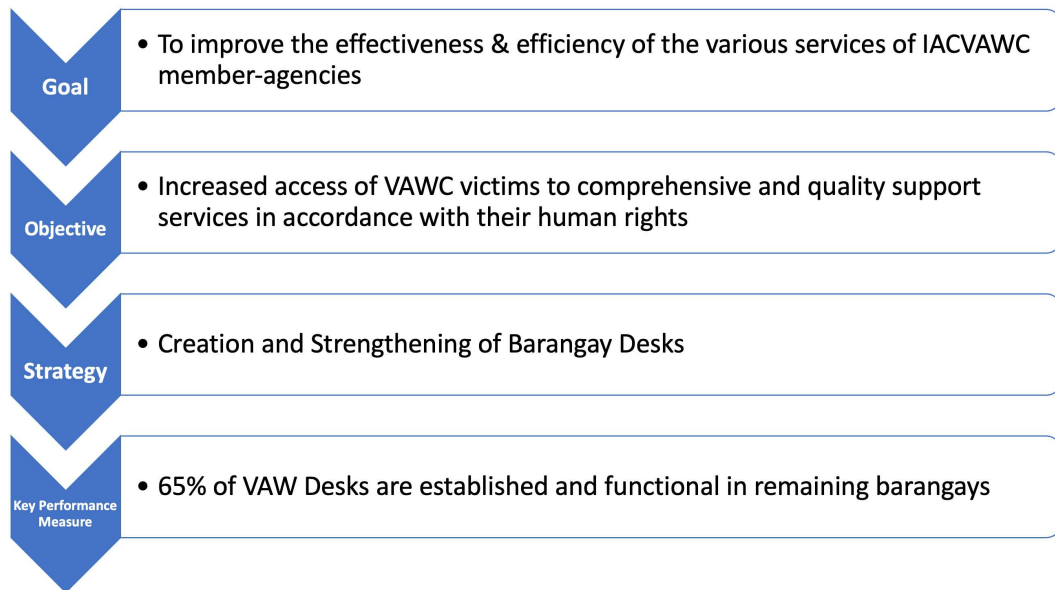
Figure 9. Example of the Implementation Matrix of the NAP 2007-2010.



Source: IACVAWC n.d., 36.

The 3d NAP has a more developed structure which presents an overarching Goal with an Objective (an outcome), accompanied by a Strategy, which in turn is measured by Key Performance Measure. In this manner, the indicator measures inputs or activities of the government. The framework also has data sources for indicators and annual targets (IACVAWC n.d(a), 29).

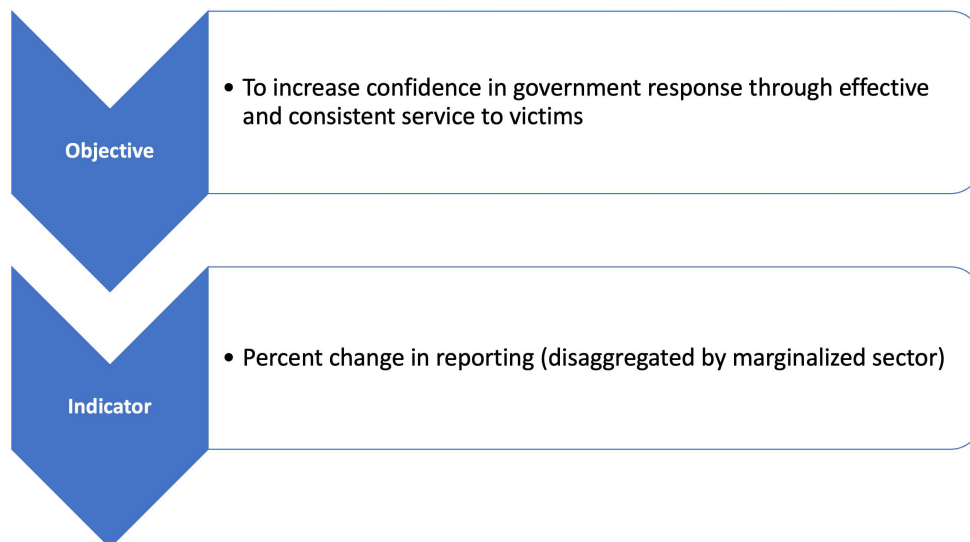
Figure 10. Example of the Implementation Matrix of the NAP 2014-2016.



Source: IACVAWC n.d(a), 29.

The 4th NAP follows a similar approach but emphasizes objectives, selecting indicators that measure outputs rather than inputs. These indicators are chosen based on assumptions outlined in the matrix (IACVAWC 2018, 52).

Figure 11. Example of the Implementation Matrix of the NAP 2017-2022.



Source: IACVAWC 2018, 52.

Indicators are carefully defined and cover metrics such as percentage increase, increase in number, satisfaction levels, etc. (IACVAWC 2018, 52). Specific annual targets are set to achieve measurable improvements, such as a "10% increase in reporting" or a "client satisfaction rating of at least 75%." To accurately assess progress, each target is compared to a baseline. In cases where baseline data are unavailable due to prior lack of tools or measurement methods, the NAP requires the establishment of appropriate tools and the collection of baseline

data through surveys. Clear data sources include NDHS data, PNP reports, and Council annual reports. This framework is followed by a number of activities, which will be done to achieve the objective (IACVAWC 2018, 54).

The main actors tasked to implement activities and programs are DILG, DoJ, DepED, PNP, PNP, NBJ, DSWD, DoH, and others, which demonstrates interministerial engagement (IACVAWC 2018, 34; 30; 51). LGUs are involved at the regional level (IACVAWC 2018, 34; 29; 51); the last NAP also involves regional structures such as RCAT-VAWC / PCAT-VAWC, both of which facilitate intersectoral engagement (IACVAWC 2018, 61). It is also worth mentioning that this NAP explicitly allocates lead and partner roles in the fulfillment of tasks (IACVAWC 2018, 61).

In addition, it must be mentioned that apart from the plans mentioned, the Philippines have developed a National Action Plan on Women, Peace and Security 2023-2033 (NAPWPS) with two predecessors (NSC WPS n.d., 1; 4).

Apart from that, the mandate over human trafficking was assigned to the 4th National Strategic Plan Against Trafficking in Persons 2023-2027, developed by IACAT (IACAT, n.d., II).

Cambodia

Over time, Cambodia has developed three National Action Plans addressing the issue of VAW. These are:

1. National Action Plan to Prevent Violence on Women 2009-2012 (NAPVAW I)
2. National Action Plan To Prevent Violence Against Women 2014-2018 (NAPVAW II)
3. National Action Plan To Prevent Violence Against Women 2019-2023 (NAPVAW III)

Regrettably, the NAPVAW I is not currently accessible for analysis, as only references to its existence are available in open sources.

The last two NAPs are quite similar in structure. Paragraph 1.1.2 outlines an international framework that emphasizes Cambodia's obligations to protect women, but it does not clearly define VAW as a human rights violation. NAPVAW II and NAPVAW III have a comprehensive definition of VAW, which along with physical, psychological, sexual, also include economic violence (Ministry of Women Affairs 2014, 2; Ministry of Women's Affairs 2020a, 41). Both NAPs state that Cambodia is "bound by all decisions of the Security Council of UN" and lists a key of relevant signed conventions but does not explicitly underline its obligation to protect women and eliminate VAW (Ministry of Women Affairs 2014, 2; Ministry of Women's Affairs 2020a, 2).

Concerning the area of gender discrimination and inequality, NAPVAW II places VAW within the context of gender discrimination, while NAPVAW III addresses VAW within the context of gender inequality, and further recognizes that multiple intersecting forms of discrimination and inequality lead to VAW (Ministry of Women Affairs 2014, 2; Ministry of Women's Affairs 2020a, 3).

Both NAPs focus on DV and SV, while NAPVAW III expands the scope to include IPV (Ministry of Women Affairs 2014, 4; Ministry of Women's Affairs 2020a, 5). Other forms of VAW are not covered by these NAPs. Only NAPVAW III provides a detailed definition of forms of violence included in the scope of the document (Ministry of Women's Affairs 2020a, 42). DV definition is consistent with the one provided by the 2005 DV Law, which is in turn

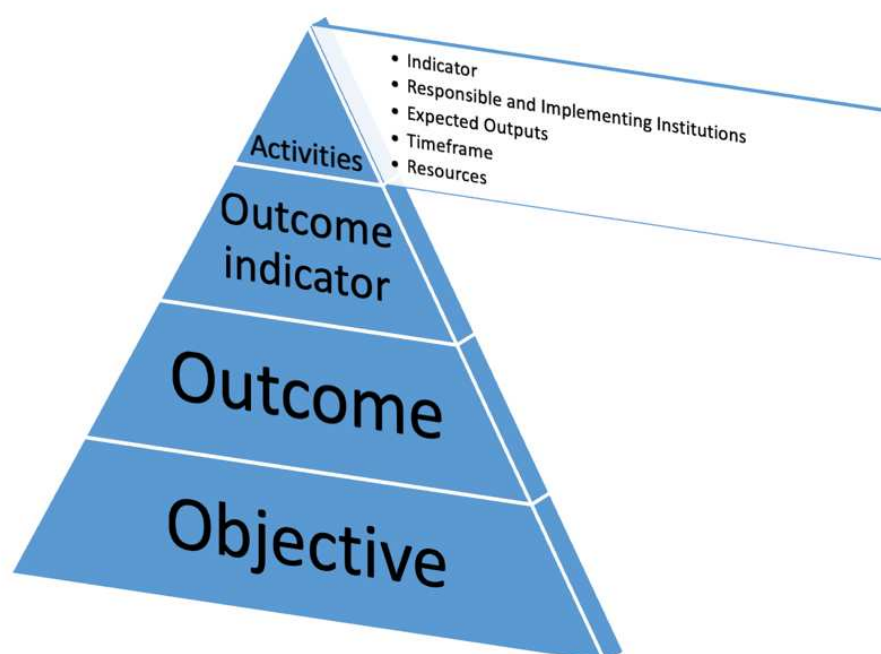
inconsistent with international law (Ministry of Women's Affairs 2020a, 42; GTZ-Promotion of Women's Rights. n.d., Art. 3). Definition of SV, including rape, is not provided, instead, the attention is given to indecent assault and sexual harassment in alignment with Criminal Code, even though the NAP doesn't use these terms (Ministry of Women's Affairs 2020a, 42; Buleng Cheung, n.d., Art. 246; 250).

The definition of IPV includes various acts of violence but fails to determine which kind of relationships may be subjected to it (Ministry of Women's Affairs 2020a, 42). Overall, it can be seen that the scope and concepts mentioned in the NAPs are more in line with international law than those mentioned in the legislation, indicating a clear need to harmonize the definitions set out in the legislation and those presented in the policy. In the same manner, the definitions remain inconsistent with those, used in policy documents, promoting gender equality and women's empowerment - Neary Rattanak. Although it is significant, that both NAPVAW II and NAPVAW III have been included as a part of the strategy and monitoring framework of these policy documents, Neary Rattanak operates with the concept of GBV, not VAW (Ministry of Women's Affairs 2020, 19, Ministry of Women's Affairs. 2014a, 38). Interestingly, some other policy documents, such as CSDG Framework also uses the concept of GBV (Royal Government of Cambodia 2018, 19).

It's worth noting that both NAPs include "violence against women with increased risk" as a standalone priority. This objective encompasses a broad scope vulnerable group of women, namely women with disabilities, women living with HIV, transgender women, sex workers, women with drug addiction, women in prisons, indigenous women and those from religious or ethnic minorities (Ministry of Women Affairs 2014, 6). NAP 2019-2023 adds on to the list Lesbian, Bisexual, women migrant workers (Ministry of Women's Affairs 2020a, 6). After comparing the vulnerable groups mentioned above with the activities outlined in the implementation matrix, it's evident that NAPVAW II did not include any specific activities aimed at improving intersectionality. However, NAPVAW III includes specific actions related to these groups. In the Implementation Matrix, all strategy areas have at least one activity emphasizing the importance of including women at increased risk or are entirely dedicated to these groups. Among these groups, female migrant workers receive the most attention (Ministry of Women Affairs 2014, 10; Ministry of Women's Affairs 2020a, 13).

The tasks of the NAPVAW II and NAPVAW III are outlined according to strategic areas, namely (a) primary prevention, (b) legal protection and multi-sectoral services, (c) formulation and implementation of policies and laws, (d) capacity-building and review, (e) monitoring and evaluation (Ministry of Women Affairs 2014, 8). The next NAP focuses on the same strategies, excluding capacity-building (Ministry of Women's Affairs 2020a, 7).

Figure 12. Implementation Matrix Structure of NAPVAW II and NAPVAW III.



Source: Ministry of Women's Affairs 2020a; Ministry of Women Affairs 2014.

Although it is significant, that all the categories needed for implementation and monitoring are in place, they are poorly formulated, which is a common problem for both NAPs. The indicators presented lack specific targets such as "number, percentage, ratio", etc., instead presenting only general aspirations without measurable benchmarks, methods of measurement, and a baseline. The NAPVAW III addresses this issue in some places by adding the measurement of activities in numbers (Ministry of Women's Affairs 2020a, 18-19). However, this is the dominating measurement for activity outputs used in the document (Ministry of Women's Affairs 2020a, 18-19).

The outcomes lack clear and measurable indicators, representing a remaining gap in the framework. For example, such outcome as "change in attitudes that promote healthy non-violent relationships" or "change in attitudes accepting harassment and violence" lack specificity in measurement and (Ministry of Women's Affairs 2020a, 13). For more accurate measurement, surveys can be conducted before and after the intervention to track changes in the percentage of people reporting a change in attitudes.

Table 6. Responsibility Allocation in NAPVAW II and III.

Stakeholder	Abbreviation	NAP II	NAP III	Stakeholder	Abbreviation	NAP II	NAP III
Ministry of Women's Affairs	MOWA	47	57	Ministry of Social Affairs, Veterans and Youth Rehabilitation	MoSVY	14	11
Group on Primary Prevention		2	-	Ministry of Information	MoINFO	6	6
Journalist Club		1	-	National Committee for Upholding Social Morality and Women and Khmer Family Values	NCMWF	6	-
Municipal/Provincial police station		1	-	Ministry of Post and Telecommunications	MoPT	1	3
Group on Service and Policy		6	-	Bar Association of Cambodia		5	6
Municipal/provincial of First Instance Court		1	-	Ministry of Economy and Finance	MoEF	-	5
Cambodia National Council for Children	CNCC	1	-	National Bank of Cambodia		-	1
Cambodian National Police	CNP	6	-	National Committee for Sub-National Democratic Development	NCDD	-	1
Cambodian National Council for Women	CNCW	10	1	Ministry of Rural Development	MRD	-	1
Provincial Department of Women's Affairs	PDoWa	5	-	Ministry of Commerce	MoC	-	2
Ministry of Interior	MoI	25	24	Ministry of Defense	MoD	7	4
Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport	MoEYS	7	11	National Committee For Counter Trafficking	NCCT	7	4
Ministry of Cults and Religion	MoCR	2	6	Sub-national Administration		-	1
Ministry of Culture and Fine Arts	MoCFA	2	3	TWGG-GBV / Secretariat		-	9
Ministry of Health	MoH	24	12	Ministry of Labour and Vocational Training	MoLVT	9	18
National Institute of Statistics	NIS	6	2	GBV Working Groups at District / Provincial Level	DWG-GBV / PWG-GBV	-	3
Ministry of Planning	MoP	6	-	Royal Academy of Police		-	1
Ministry of Foreign Affairs and International Cooperation	MoFAIC	2	2	PM Lawyer		-	2
Universities	RUPP, RULE	-	2	Ministry of Environment	MoE	-	2
Ministry of Tourism	MoT	4	5	Development Partners, NGO, Society, Private Sector		5	49
Ministry Of Justice	MoJ	14	18				
Total Allocations of Responsibility		232	272				
Total Actors		29	31				

source: Ministry of Women's Affairs 2020a; Ministry of Women Affairs 2014.

Both NAPs can be characterized as inter-sectoral and inter-ministerial. The fundamental and primary responsibility for implementing both NAPs lies with MoWa, as it has a far larger number of engagements compared to other stakeholders. Nevertheless, MoH, MoJ, MoI, and MoSVY have a big part received a big part in the implementation. Inter-sectoral engagement has persisted over the years, which is evident in the participation of CNP, GBV Working Groups, Universities, etc., but there is room for improvement.

A shift between the two NAPs is also visible. The engagement of such important stakeholders as MoH, MoSVY, CNP, and NIS for example, was reduced, whereas the level of involvement of MoLVT, MoEF, and MoJ increased. The participation of non-governmental actors such as development partners, NGOs, and the private sector was also notably increased. In addition, while involving a large number of ministries can promote collaboration and inclusiveness, it also poses challenges. First, it can lead to dispersed responsibilities among ministries, potentially making accountability difficult. Second, coordinating and implementing the NAP, which is conducted through the Technical Working Group on Gender-Based Violence (TWGG-GVB), a subgroup of the larger TWG-G, can be challenging due to the involvement of a large number of ministries and other stakeholders.

In regard to the necessity to engage NGOs during the formulation of the plans, the NAPVAW II includes the message from the Prime Minister, which mentions the help of civil society during the development of the plan; NAPVAW III fails to include any information supporting this.

Apart from the NAPs mentioned, another one has been developed by the National Committee for Countering Trafficking in Persons: A Five-Year National Strategic Plan for Counter Trafficking in Persons 2019-2023 (NCCT n.d., 6).

4.2.Implementation

4.2.1. Inter-Sectoral Mechanism

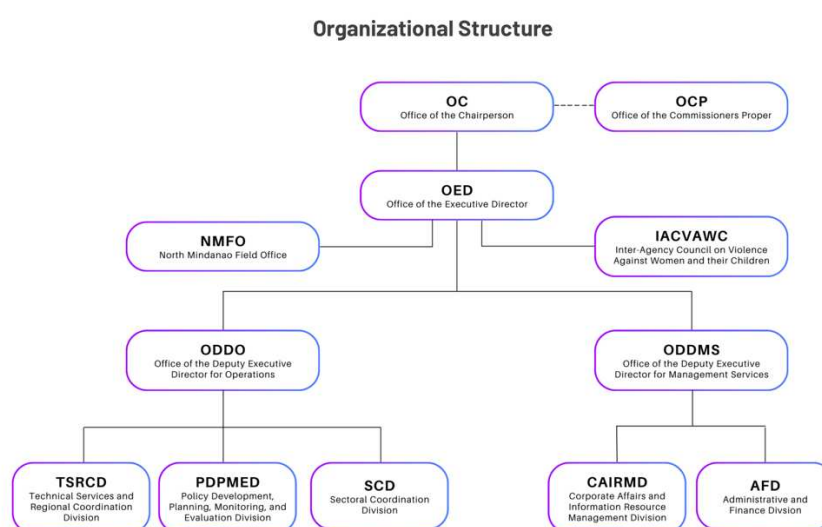
The Philippines

The inter-sectoral mechanism in the Philippines, IACVAWC, was established by Republic Act No. 9262 (National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women 2004, Sec. 39). The mandate of the council is to be the lead coordinating and monitoring body on VAW policy and ensure effective implementation of the law (National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women 2004, 69).

The RA9262 stipulates that the members of the council are responsible for formulating programs to eliminate VAW, providing capacity-building, promoting the Republic Act and monitoring the implementation of the Act, including promulgation of rules and regulations necessary, and lastly, conducting research to document good practices for policy formulation (National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women 2004, Sec. 39). According to the 4th NAP and its implementation matrix, the Council has a lead role in implementing various activities that fall under the categories indicated in the Act (IACVAWC 2018, 54-62). The fact, that IACVAWC undertakes the evaluation role too can be supported by the planned activity in the latest NAP to draft a research policy and evaluation agenda (IACVAWC 2018, 59).

The council was established as part of the Philippines Commission on Women, specifically under the Office of the Executive Director (PCW 2024).

Figure 13. Organizational Structure of PCW.



source: PCW 2024.

The PCW is a national women's machinery under the Office of the President of the Philippines. This position within the government structure places it at an intermediate level in the overall hierarchy (PCW 2024a).

The Republic Act stipulates that the Council will have twelve member agencies responsible for formulating VAW policy according to their mandates (National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women 2004, 20):

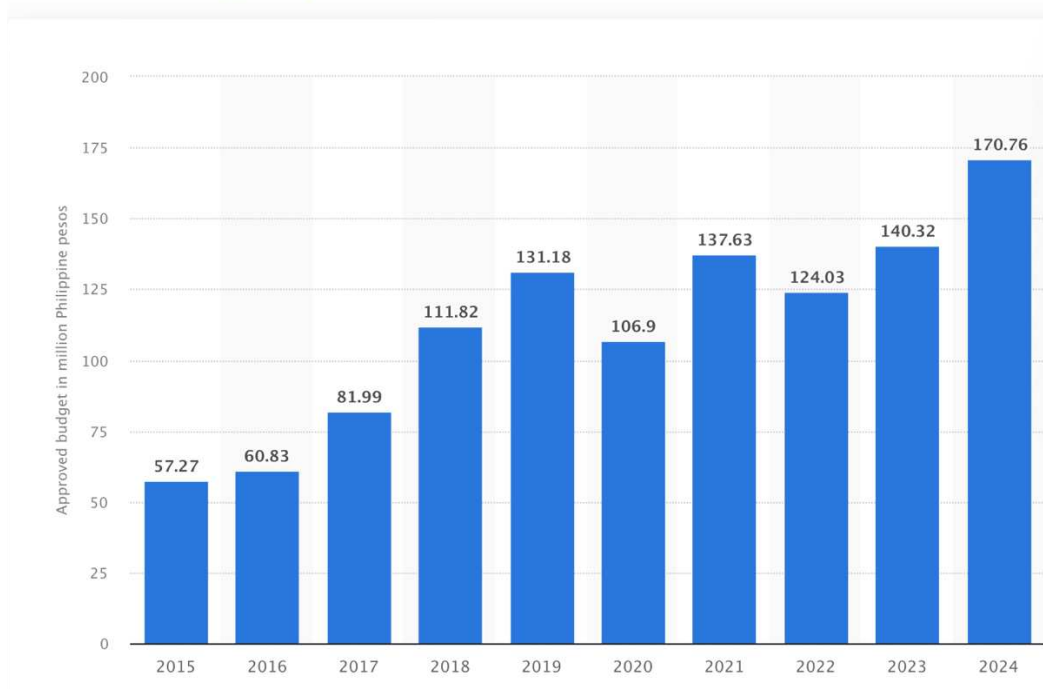
- (a) Department of Social Welfare and Development (DSWD);
- (b) National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women (NCRFW);
- (c) Civil Service Commission (CSC);
- (d) Commission on Human rights (CHR)
- (e) Council for the Welfare of Children (CWC);
- (f) Department of Justice (DOJ);
- (g) Department of the Interior and Local Government (DILG);
- (h) Philippine National Police (PNP);
- (i) Department of Health (DOH);
- (j) Department of Education (DepEd);
- (k) Department of Labor and Employment (DOLE); and
- (l) National Bureau of Investigation (NBI).

Such a composition allows for horizontal coordination and cooperation to implement the policy effectively, enabling a multi-sectoral approach.

The specific financing of the Council is not disclosed, but the budget for the PCW, under which the Council operates, is funded by the Department of Interior and Local Government. In 2024, this budget amounted to 170,759,000 Philippine Pesos (PHP), equivalent to approximately 2,942,035.22 USD as of May 2024. The budget, received by the PCW has been increasing over the years.

Figure 14. Total approved budget of the Philippines Commission on Women 2015 to 2024.

(in million Philippine pesos)

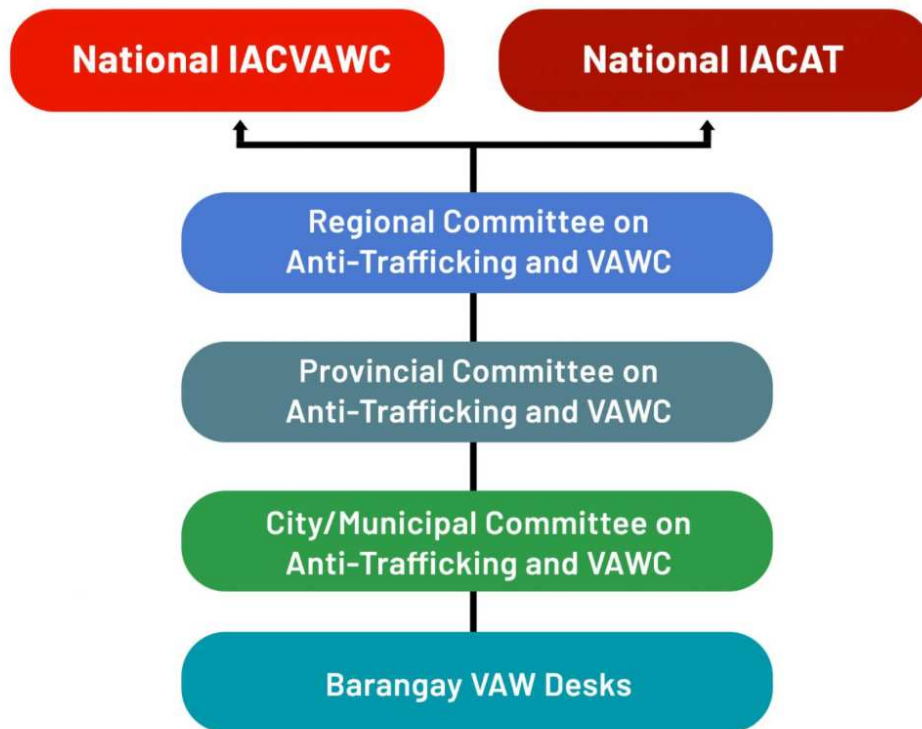


source: Statista 2024.

The staffing size is not specified in the documents, but the list of representatives includes 20 people, including both permanent and alternative representatives. However, some members, such as the Department of Health, may not have any representatives listed (IACVAWC 2024).

Vertical coordination of policy implementation is supported by the establishment of institutional mechanisms such as Regional Inter-Agency Council Against Trafficking and Violence Against Women and their Children (RIACAT-VAWC) and the Local Council Against Trafficking and Violence Against Women and Children (LCAT-VAWCs). These mechanisms work closer to communities and serve as a link between the IACVAWC / IACAT and service delivery at the local level (IACVAWC 2024a).

Figure 15. VAW Mechanisms on multiple levels of governance in the Philippines.



Source: IACVAWC 2024a.

As IACVAWC was established by RA9262, which focuses on IPV, the mandate of the council naturally encompasses IPV as well. (National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women 2004, Sec. 3(a)).

A similar role is performed by the officers of VAW Desks. The establishment of a VAW desk in every barangay was mandated by the Implementing Rules and Regulations of Magna Carta of Women (Philippine Commission on Women 2010, 51). This desk serves as one of the first responders in cases of VAW, responsible for BPO issuance, referrals, etc. (Philippine Commission on Women 2010, 51).

The mandate for the elimination of trafficking in persons especially women and children was entrusted to the Inter-Agency Council Against Trafficking (IACAT) established under the Expanded Anti-Trafficking in Persons Act, which includes Republic Act No. 9208 and RA No. 10364 (IACAT, n.d.). The Council is a central coordinating body that monitors and oversees the implementation of the Act (IACAT, n.d.).

The Council's responsibilities are wide-ranging but can be summarized as formulating comprehensive anti-trafficking programs, overseeing the implementation and promotion of the Act, coordinating the efforts of member agencies, taking measures to protect and assist victims, etc. (IACAT n.d.(a)).

The Council operates under the Department of Justice, which also serves as the Secretariat for the Council (Congress of the Philippines, n.d., Sec. 22). The exact number of

representatives in the agency is unspecified, but the total membership consists of 28 members, as depicted in the figure below:

Figure 16. Structure of IACAT.



Source: IACAT, n.d(c).

Cambodia

There are several institutional mechanisms in Cambodia related to VAW policy. Firstly, it is important to mention the Ministry of Women's Affairs. Royal Decree No. NS/RKM/0197/22 promulgated the establishment of the Ministry of Women's Affairs, which underwent several structural changes in the following years, as fixated in various Royal Decrees, the latest being No NS/RKM/0105/002 dated 2005 (Open Development Cambodia 2024). According to Art. 2 of the Decree, the ministry "shall administer and regulate women's affairs" in the country, and its functioning and organization are governed by a Sub-decree (Royal Government of Cambodia 2005, Art. 2). Due to the unavailability of the document, the policy documents developed by the Ministry and secondary sources will be used for further analysis.

A clearer definition of the mandate and roles of the institutional mechanism is provided in the Neary Rattanak V, which states that the ministry is "to lead the coordination of gender mainstreaming and empowerment of women in all sectors and at all levels" (Ministry of Women's Affairs 2020, 1). Neary Rattanak III has provided a detailed listing of the roles of the ministry according to the mandate, which includes increasing women's participation in decision-making, promoting their economic empowerment, supporting the implementation of CEDAW, improving women's health, promoting gender parity in education, and enhancing literacy (Ministry of Women's Affairs 2009, 15). Additionally in the context of VAW the ministry helps with developing, monitoring and evaluating of laws concerning protection of women and leads awareness campaigns (Ministry of Women's Affairs 2009, 15). For example, the DV Reform Roadmap was being developed through consultations between MoWA and development partners such as UN Women in 2022 (UN Women 2022, 1).

Neary Rattanak IV further elaborates on the role of the ministry concerning VAW, which is coordinating and overseeing the implementation of NAPVAW, monitor overall results of the programs and implement their own specific activities (Ministry of Women's Affairs 2014, 19). As the analysis of NAPVAW II and NAPVAW III has shown, the Ministry is actively involved in the implementation of the various tasks stipulated in the policy, yet this extensive engagement poses challenges. It could strain the ministry's capacity as they cannot manage all responsibilities alone. Some ministries lack full commitment, often leaving the burden on MoWA, which is perceived as the primary leader (Partners for Prevention 2013, 28). Unclear tasks and the perception that VAW is not within the mandate of some ministries further complicate the situation (Partners for Prevention 2013, 28; Ministry of Women's Affairs, UN Women, WHO, Australian Aid 2015, 25). This underscores the urgent need for better coordination between ministries.

The Ministry's mandate on forms of VAW is not explicitly outlined in any of the policies, but it can be based on the scope of NAPs that have been focused on DV and sexual violence. In addition, the Ministry is actively involved in the implementation of the National Action Plan for the Suppression of Human Trafficking, Smuggling, Labour and Sexual Exploitation led by the MoI (Ministry of Women's Affairs 2014, 19).

The institutional mechanism operates at a high hierarchical level, such as a ministry. While official references or promulgated documents do not provide information on resources and staffing, a 2006 report from Cambodia to the CEDAW committee revealed that the Ministry of Women's Affairs has 184 staff members (138 women and 46 men) at the national level and 695 staff members (636 women and 59 men) at the provincial/municipal level across the country's 24 provinces and municipalities (CEDAW 2005, 7).

Table 7. Annual Budget Allocation for MoWa, 2021-2024.

Year	Proportion to the Total Budget Expenditure (%)	Amount of Budget Allocated (in million riels)	Amount of Budget Allocated (in USD)
2021	0.15	44,538	10,689,120
2022	0.14	44,538	10,689,120
2023	0.13	46,243	11,098,320
2024	0.15	51,067	12,256,080

source: calculated from General Department of Budget (MEF) 2023, 12; General Department of Budget (MEF) 2023, 35; The NGO Forum on Cambodia. n.d(a), The NGO Forum on Cambodia. n.d(b), The NGO Forum on Cambodia. n.d(c).

As depicted in the Table above, the budgeting of MoWa has seen a slight increase over the years, but it remains low in proportion to the total budget expenditure of the government. Beyond that, the amount of budget allocated in 2024 is almost the same as that in 2000, which signifies a great stagnation (The NGO Forum on Cambodia 2007, 24). The budget above includes current and capital costs, where "current costs" refers to day-to-day expenses such as salaries, utilities, and supplies, while "capital costs" are allocated for programs.

A limited allocation of the budget has been confirmed by a MoWA official in one of the field interviews, who mentioned that they rely heavily on donations from development partners (Partners for Prevention 2013, 27).

The attempt to address the challenge of horizontal coordination between ministries has been made by establishing Technical Working Groups in cross-cutting sectors, including on gender and gender-based violence, which are called TWG-G and TWGG-GBV respectively (VNBK, RBMG 2010, 8). Generally, such groups are not executive bodies and do not replace elected or appointed officials; instead, they are established to promote collaboration, consultation, and cooperation at the sector level (VNBK, RBMG 2010, 8). But TWGG-GBV included a range of officials of higher rank, 55 members in total from 15 line ministries, 30 CSO, and 10 development partners, chaired by MoWa, established under Article 14.1 of the Sub-Decree for the Cambodian National Council for Women Secretariat (DFAT 2017, 21).

The central role of TWG-GBV is to coordinate the implementation of the NAP on VAW based on the Annual Operational Plan (AOP), which is also developed through collaborative efforts (Ministry of Women's Affairs 2014, 20; UNDP, UNFPA and UN WOMEN 2021, 4). It facilitates decision-making and cooperation of key actors of policy on the national level (Ministry of Women's Affairs 2020, 8; UN Women 2021, 6). The group was established in time for the formulation of NAPVAW II and took on the role of reviewing the previous plan with the participation of relevant ministries and formulation of the new one (Ministry of Women Affairs 2014).

It is important to mention that the mandate over human trafficking has been vested in the National Committee for Counter-Trafficking (NCCT), a national mechanism responsible for coordinating various stakeholders in their response to trafficking (NCCT 2024). Additional information concerning mandate, staffing, and budgeting is not provided.

In addition to the mechanisms mentioned above, NAPVAW II requires to organize a Multi-Sectoral Coordinated Response Mechanism (CRM) at the subnational level, which should provide a united response between ministries, institutions, service providers, civil society, and private sector (Ministry of Women Affairs 2014, 18). Such mechanisms, designated as GBV Working groups have been established at provincial and district levels (UNDP, UNFPA and UN WOMEN 2021, 5). At the local level, the members of the mechanism include a mayor or another government official of a similar role, a social worker, a police officer, and a health professional (UNDP, UNFPA and UN WOMEN 2021, 9). This mechanism allows for coordination between national and sub-national levels, in their efforts on response and prevention of VAW. Essentially, they provide referrals to other available services as well as serve as front-line service providers (UNDP, UNFPA and UN WOMEN 2021, 9). This approach allows for an integrated response of policy and operational level.

4.2.2. Data Collection

The Philippines

The necessity to collect data in VAW is mentioned in several laws and policy documents in the Philippines. The Magna Carta of Women states that all government agencies are obliged to develop and maintain gender statistics and sex-disaggregated data (Philippine Commission on Women 2010, 27).

The Philippine Gender Sensitive Development Plan 1995-2025 identifies violence against women as an important issue and emphasizes the lack of gender-specific data, which is a result of insufficient attention to data collection by relevant government agencies (National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women 1998, 154). The plan aims to establish a

comprehensive database system that will document the extent of women's involvement as implementers, victims, offenders, and other roles within the sector (National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women 1998, 157).

This mission has been delegated to the Philippines Statistics Authority and the next Philippine Statistical Development Program (PSDP) 1993-1998 encompassed a set of measures to institutionalize the collection of gender-specific data. The efforts included the formulation of guidelines and mechanisms for data collection (Castro 2009, 6). Regarding VAW, one notable initiative was the adoption of a glossary in 2001, which provided guidelines for data collection on the scope, dimensions, forms, and proposed statistics related to VAWC (Philippine Statistics Authority 2001).

Apart from this, there have been multiple policy mechanisms implemented, which have a set of different goals.

The 2005-2010 PSDP encompasses all three main government objectives when it comes to data collection on VAW (Castro 2009, 6):

1. Regular generation of sex-disaggregated data to support and monitor the goals of CEDAW and other international legal documents.
2. Implementation of Gender-Development Index
3. Implementation of Data Monitoring System on VAW

The goals above will be explored one by one. The first goal has been further acknowledged in the PSDP 2018-2023 in key statistical development programs and activities, which states the need to develop a mechanism to harmonize administrative data sources including government agencies like PNP, DSWD, NBI, DOH, and other government agencies (Philippine Statistics Authority 2018, 160). The issue identified in the program is that the reporting on VAW cases is being duplicated when collected by different agencies and the leading role for the task has been given to IACVAWC (Philippine Statistics Authority 2018a; Philippine Statistics Authority 2018, 149).

Currently, the statistical system in the Philippines is generally quite fragmented and decentralized (Castro 2009, 4). Administrative data on VAW is being collected by the following government agencies: PNP, DSDW, and DOJ.

PNP is deemed the only source of data on the national incidence of violence against women, which is carried out through the Crime Information Reporting and Analysis System (CIRAS) (Philippine Information Agency n.d.).

The official website of published crime statistics by PNP is disaggregated by crime classifications and offices reporting the information as shown in the table below:

Table 8. Nationwide Crime Statistics for the Philippines: September 1-30, 2023 (Reported Cases).

PEACE AND ORDER INDICATOR																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																
COUNTRY	# FOCUS CRIMES										INDEX CRIMES										A SPECIAL CATEGORY CRIMES										HQA INDEX																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																	
	MURDER	ROBBERY	RIOT/UNLAWFUL ASSEMBLY	RAPE	SEXUAL OFFENSE	THEFT	DRUGS/POSSESSION	CRIMINAL DAMAGE	CRIMINAL USE OF FIRE	TOTAL CRIMES	TOTAL ROBBERY	TOTAL THEFT	TOTAL SEXUAL OFFENSE	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL USE OF FIRE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION	TOTAL CRIMINAL DAMAGE	TOTAL CRIMINAL POSSESSION

*Source: CBAS as of October 1, 2022 09:15AM
The Crime Research program is a free public information. Description and Analysis System (DRAS) is included on-line based on a comparison of other entities information about its domain.

Pharmacokinetic data

Shirley Ann

Standard 10

Lemuel E. Casfete
Ph.D. in Science: Master: Singapore
College: Analysis: PhD

Fe N Sapling
Non-Uniformity: Partial
C. 6045

ROBERTA P. ANITA
Police Lieutenant, Columbia
Arkansas Civil CRAC

Source: Philippine National Police, n.d. (screenshot).

Relevant Information on VAW cases is possible to obtain upon an official request at the website eFOI.gov.ph, which serves as a centralized platform to access various information and records online in line with a government initiative called Freedom of Information to promote transparency and full public disclosure of information (National Telecommunications Commission, n.d., 5; National Economic and Development Authority 2022). The documents obtained from FOI officers illustrate that the PNP conducts data collection on cases of violence against women and presents them in the following manner:

Table 9. Statistics on VAW for the Philippines, January-December 2019.

CASES	CIDG	NCRPO	PRO 1	PRO 2	PRO 3	PRO 4-A	PRO 4-B	PRO 5	PRO 6	PRO 7	PRO 8	PRO 9	PRO 10	PRO 11	PRO 12	PRO 13	PRO BAR	PRO COR	WCPC	Grand Total
ACTS OF LASCIVIOUSNESS - RPC Art. 336	1	423	108	57	220	287	32	153	140	204	73	66	56	70	40	48	8	56	3	2045
ANTI-PHOTO AND VIDEO VOYEURISM ACT OF 2009 - RA 9995	0	28	10	5	14	12	3	0	1	12	0	0	3	0	1	1	0	0	2	92
RAPE	16	396	140	90	216	336	102	194	148	248	105	117	133	107	82	90	14	70	21	2625
ANTI-TRAFFICKING IN PERSONS ACT OF 2003 - RA 9208 as amended by RA 10364 (Expanded ATIP)	0	3	1	5	4	3	1	1	3	3	2	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	14	42
ANTI-VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN AND THEIR CHILDREN ACT OF 2004 - RA 9262	35	1584	638	426	996	1195	247	969	1582	3285	508	1128	1003	350	380	908	53	353	72	15712
BIGAMY - RPC Art. 349	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	5
CONCUBINAGE - RPC Art. 334	0	36	21	18	24	25	3	7	10	22	2	18	7	5	6	3	0	5	0	212
DOMESTIC WORKERS ACT - RA 10361	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
ABDUCTION	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	7
INTENTIONAL ABORTION - RPC Art. 256	0	2	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4
SEDUCTION	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	7
MIGRANT WORKERS AND OVERSEAS FILIPINOS ACT OF 1995 - RA 8042 as amended RA 10022	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
SAFE SPACES ACT (GENDER BASED SEXUAL HARASSMENT) - RA 11313	0	9	0	1	3	4	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	19
SEXUAL HARASSMENT ACT OF 1995 - RA 7877	1	31	4	1	11	7	0	7	2	15	1	6	3	4	1	3	1	1	0	99
VIOLATION OF MAGNA CARTA FOR DISABLED PERSON - RA 7277 AS AMENDED BY RA 9442	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4
Grand Total	53	2517	924	605	1489	1871	389	1332	1887	3793	692	1336	1209	536	511	1055	77	487	113	20876

SOURCE: PNP CIRAS AS OF JANUARY 21, 2021

source: Violence Against Women, Covered Period: January-December 2019, n.d.

The figure shows, that the data disaggregation categories are various crime classifications concerning VAW and by regional offices, which collected information. Another document provided by a FOI officer shows the VAC/VAW categories as well as a breakdown by region:

Table 10. Data on violence against women and children cases generated from PNP Crime Information Reporting and Analysis System (CIRAS), Region 4-A Calabarzon, January – December 2022.

CASES		2022
Rape	VAW	1195
	VAC	868
Anti-Violence Against Women and their Children Act Of 2004 – RA 9262	VAW	971
	VAC	14
Safe Spaces Act (Gender-Based Sexual Harassment) – RA 11313	VAW	37
	VAC	21
Special Protection Against Child Abuse, Exploitation, and Discrimination Act (Anti-Child Abuse Law) – RA 7610	VAC	1013
TOTAL		4,119

SOURCE: PNP CIRAS AS OF JANUARY 16, 2023

Source: Data on Violence Against Women And Children Cases Generate From PNP Crime Information Reporting And Analysis System (CIRAS), n.d.

It's apparent that crucial information such as sex, race, age, ethnicity, and other pertinent characteristics are absent from the data. However, one study conducted in the Philippines managed to obtain disaggregated information from PNP resources, including details on the type of violence, type of perpetrators, and age of perpetrators (Bernarte et al.2018, 121).

By examining the manuals for the CIRAS system used for data collection, it can be seen that a lot of additional information such as gender, ethnicity, age (date of birth), and the same characteristics for the perpetrator, including the relationship between the victim and the perpetrator etc. are included in the case assessment (Office of the Court Administrator 2016; Directorate For Investigation Ana Detective Management 2015, 8-12). However, despite this capability, there appear to be unknown barriers and challenges hindering the effective rollout and publication of such detailed information.

Concerning DOJ, the agency provides some open government data to public which include violence against women, which are NPS Case Load and Disposition and Case dispositions in trial courts. The examples of the data are provided below (Table 11 and Table 12).

Table 11. National Prosecution Service: Caseload and Disposition, by Offense Category, 2010-2020.

Offense Category	CY 2016			CY 2017			CY 2018			CY 2019			CY 2020		
	Total Caseload	Resolved	Information Filed in Court	Total Caseload	Resolved	Information Filed in Court	Total Caseload	Resolved	Information Filed in Court	Total Caseload	Resolved	Information Filed in Court	Total Caseload	Resolved	Information Filed in Court
Bouncing Check	19,657	17,723	21,645	19,024	16,733	21,626	20,696	18,429	20,294	21,267	19,390	23,349	8,207	6,660	9,835
Carnapping	3,205	2,670	2,038	3,006	2,436	1,825	3,284	2,789	1,951	3,381	2,860	1,728	1,597	1,183	1,068
Cybercrime	1,536	1,088	2,747	1,860	1,449	1,834	2,973	2,436	1,375	3,650	2,979	1,962	3,066	2,069	2,109
Dangerous Drugs	63,783	62,365	66,306	60,114	59,111	70,580	79,815	78,388	97,253	84,470	83,797	106,877	73,050	72,404	84,144
Estate	37,001	29,315	16,767	29,357	22,698	14,242	29,544	22,746	13,375	28,629	22,953	12,150	9,924	5,670	5,806
Firearms/Ammunition/Explosives	7,503	7,160	7,270	8,086	7,557	7,120	8,675	8,153	7,666	9,290	8,874	8,179	6,807	6,521	6,376
Graft and Corruption	328	264	200	306	256	162	491	458	289	289	231	229	430	355	220
Homicide	5,295	4,284	3,759	5,957	5,137	4,149	5,667	5,030	4,273	6,070	5,532	4,361	3,709	3,218	3,032
Illegal Gambling	6,120	6,546	5,881	15,537	15,123	13,325	19,632	19,218	17,237	14,990	14,713	12,500	19,133	18,501	15,493
Illegal Logging	1,137	998	614	1,378	1,237	1,075	1,784	1,623	1,317	1,931	1,748	1,309	1,925	1,539	
Illegal Mining	79	66	184	119	106	81	156	145	92	136	130	77	91	83	89
Illegal Recruitment	1,567	1,164	995	1,688	1,290	997	1,394	1,171	1,232	868	715	519	142	74	282
Intellectual Property Rights Violation	650	498	166	806	595	455	794	576	336	504	365	200	166	74	79
Internal Revenue Code Violation	1,343	990	571	1,694	1,038	656	1,712	1,033	487	2,674	1,953	1,006	883	345	511
Kidnapping	416	352	170	392	320	165	397	315	209	385	319	168	170	135	134
Murder	9,825	8,171	6,140	10,687	8,986	6,394	11,443	9,852	6,955	10,695	9,358	6,585	6,730	5,646	5,013
Rape	10,067	8,627	7,971	10,696	8,887	8,515	15,350	13,592	11,819	13,239	11,268	10,105	8,843	6,864	7,804
Rebellion	25	24	41	137	130	67	26	24	18	19	16	12	14	12	255
Robbery	7,965	6,883	5,664	7,875	6,751	5,293	7,983	6,951	5,591	7,597	6,686	5,029	3,790	3,148	2,822
Smuggling	9	3	3	100	21	3	187	64	98	164	87	40	97	20	27
Terrorism	23	22	8	8	8	25	36	36	11	22	21	10	58	40	
Theft	28,297	24,408	19,772	24,495	21,112	17,890	26,530	23,433	17,850	24,332	21,342	16,083	10,707	8,814	8,306
Trafficking in Persons	575	503	609	421	358	287	512	417	488	569	474	392	317	248	319
Violation of Child Protection Laws	19,795	16,420	11,224	18,002	14,923	11,039	18,563	15,539	11,351	17,605	14,989	10,952	9,927	7,641	7,455
Violence Against Women	18,179	15,553	10,600	15,784	13,417	9,757	16,847	14,132	9,361	16,803	14,279	9,469	8,065	6,125	5,767
Other Criminal Offenses	187,593	157,750	90,809	136,212	116,003	90,769	170,462	151,336	112,314	142,059	127,511	94,476	211,484	196,310	129,587
Grand Total	432,673	373,853	282,154	373,771	325,682	288,331	444,953	397,886	343,242	411,638	372,590	327,787	389,591	356,098	297,507

Source: Quarterly Report of Operations from nationwide prosecution offices

Source: Republic of the Philippines, Department of Justice. n.d

Table 12. Case dispositions in trial courts, 2019-2020.

Offense Category	Court Disposition, CY 2019										Prosecution Success Rate ⁷	Court Disposition, CY 2020										Prosecution Success Rate ⁷		
	Conviction		Dismissal		Acquittal		Archival		Successfully Mediated Cases			Conviction		Dismissal		Acquittal		Archival		Successfully Mediated Cases				
	No.	Percent ¹	No.	Percent ²	No.	Percent ³	No.	Percent ⁴	No.	Percent ⁵		No.	Percent ¹	No.	Percent ²	No.	Percent ³	No.	Percent ⁴	No.	Percent ⁵			
Grand Total	160,125	123.92%	88,917	68.81%	20,667	15.99%	48,629	37.63%	23,353	18.07%	341,691	98.57%	126,922	98.22%	62,947	48.71%	12,845	9.94%	26,659	20.63%	31,846	24.64%	261,219	90.81%
Bouncing Check	2,395	10.99%	1,575	65.76%	1,281	53.48%	5,065	21.15%	4,481	20.56%	21,787	84.55%	1,175	10.23%	4,867	34.55%	561	3.98%	2,660	23.17%	2,218	19.32%	11,481	67.88%
Carnapping	353	26.21%	563	63.40%	109	12.27%	261	19.38%	61	4.53%	1,347	76.41%	188	20.41%	395	44.48%	53	5.97%	239	25.95%	46	4.99%	921	78.01%
Cybercrime	106	16.08%	333	564.41%	35	59.32%	124	18.82%	61	9.26%	659	75.18%	148	24.63%	215	364.41%	29	49.15%	137	22.80%	72	11.98%	601	83.62%
Dangerous Drugs	99,642	82.96%	7,208	87.92%	8,877	108.28%	2,399	2.00%	1,989	1.66%	120,115	91.82%	55,202	83.56%	4,070	49.65%	4,309	52.56%	1,731	2.57%	544	4.40%	67,256	92.88%
Estate	1,853	14.23%	5,521	70.59%	1,050	13.61%	3,044	23.37%	1,549	11.87%	10,024	63.61%	733	10.05%	2,892	37.14%	443	5.99%	2,308	30.41%	1,183	15.59%	7,589	63.27%
Firearms/Ammunition/Explosives	4,489	62.85%	1,222	54.21%	706	31.32%	560	7.88%	154	2.17%	7,111	86.36%	3,154	64.58%	733	32.52%	417	18.50%	449	9.19%	131	2.68%	4,884	88.32%
Graft and Corruption	130	28.02%	241	66.03%	42	11.51%	38	8.19%	13	2.80%	464	75.88%	421	76.55%	72	19.73%	32	8.77%	22	4.00%	3	0.55%	550	92.94%
Homicide	1,321	31.70%	1,884	94.91%	214	10.78%	669	16.05%	79	1.90%	4,167	86.06%	903	31.28%	1,247	62.82%	118	5.94%	541	18.74%	78	2.70%	2,887	88.44%
Illegal Gambling	9,003	82.37%	789	26.75%	199	6.75%	906	8.29%	33	0.30%	10,930	97.84%	8,992	86.11%	655	22.20%	73	2.47%	679	9.50%	43	0.41%	10,442	99.19%
Illegal Logging	784	71.01%	165	61.80%	42	15.73%	112	10.14%	1	0.09%	1,104	94.92%	681	70.42%	151	56.55%	33	12.36%	81	8.38%	21	2.17%	967	95.38%
Illegal Mining	62	66.00%	22	100.00%	1	4.55%	5	6.25%	0	0.00%	80	98.11%	25	58.14%	15	68.18%	2	9.09%	1	2.33%	0	0.00%	43	92.59%
Illegal Recruitment	67	10.08%	296	36.14%	29	3.94%	222	33.38%	81	12.18%	665	69.79%	60	14.08%	124	16.85%	19	2.58%	135	38.03%	27	7.51%	355	72.46%
Intellectual Property Rights Violation	37	12.17%	88	121.43%	11	19.64%	150	49.34%	38	12.50%	304	77.08%	8	7.84%	37	66.07%	12	21.43%	35	34.81%	10	9.80%	102	40.00%
Internal Revenue Code Violation	47	6.21%	464	125.07%	10	2.70%	132	17.44%	104	13.74%	757	82.46%	7	1.63%	208	56.06%	8	2.16%	105	24.48%	101	23.54%	429	46.67%
Kidnapping	30	21.13%	40	39.22%	16	15.68%	55	38.73%	1	0.70%	142	65.22%	29	23.77%	45	45.10%	7	6.86%	34	27.87%	6	4.92%	122	80.56%
Murder	1,971	33.24%	2,035	75.01%	447	16.48%	1,392	23.47%	85	1.43%	5,930	81.51%	1,404	34.23%	1,501	55.33%	245	9.07%	905	22.06%	46	1.12%	4,102	85.09%
Rape	26,062	24.17%	40,077	96.68%	5,002	121.03%	24,410	22.70%	12,072	11.22%	107,572	83.37%	45,033	37.65%	33,785	81.76%	4,834	116.96%	10,727	8.97%	25,224	21.06%	119,513	90.11%
Rebellion	3,362	34.93%	3,562	790.00%	654	145.33%	1,559	16.69%	283	3.03%	9,340	83.03%	1,858	31.96%	2,153	47.8444%	366	81.33%	1,174	20.20%	292	4.51%	5,813	83.54%
Robbery	2	18.18%	4	0.14%	0	0.00%	5	45.45%	0	0.00%	11	100.00%	1	5.88%	6	0.21%	4	0.14%	6	35.29%	0	0.00%	17	20.00%
Smuggling	1,145	30.45%	1,578	175.333%	251	27.8889%	640	17.02%	146	3.68%	3,760	82.02%	744	33.01%	995	110.5556%	113	12.5556%	337	14.9556%	65	2.88%	2,254	86.81%
Terrorism	3	11.54%	1	0.00%	1	0.00%	21	80.77%	2	7.69%	26	100.00%	2	66.67%	1	0.00%	1	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	3	100.00%
Theft	17	50.00%	1	0.01%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	16	47.06%	34	100.00%	4	36.36%	3	0.03%	4	0.05%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	11	50.00%
Trafficking in Persons	3,256	23.88%	6,689	3587.97%	594	375.95%	3,705	28.84%	541	3.92%	13,805	84.73%	2,189	27.81%	3,347	218.35%	418	284.56%	1,603	20.22%	371	4.68%	7,926	83.97%
Violation of Child Protection Laws	110	2.83%	112	2.88%	29	0.74%	52	1.34%	5	0.13%	3,893	79.14%	94	1.94%	68	1.75%	11	0.28%	54	1.39%	3	0.08%	3,893	85.33%
Violence Against Women	2,780	27.77%	4,264	97.57%	609	13.94%	1,810	18.08%	548	5.47%	10,011	82.03%	2,082	29.66%	2,581	59.06%	447	10.23%	1,585	22.58%	324	4.62%	7,019	82.33%
Other Criminal Offenses	1,248	15.17%	4,234	6.79%	449	0.72%	1,284	15.61%	1,013	12.31%	8,228	73.54%	795	14.12%	2,770	4.44%	286	0.46%	1,111	19.73%	668	11.87%	5,630	73.54%

1

2

3

4

5

6

7

Source: Quarterly Report of Operations from prosecution offices nationwide at 100% submission rate

Conviction rate >convictions over case disposal

Dismissal rate=dismissals over case disposal

Acquittal rate =acquittals over case disposal

Archival rate =archival over case disposal

Mediation Success Rate =successfully mediated cases over case disposal

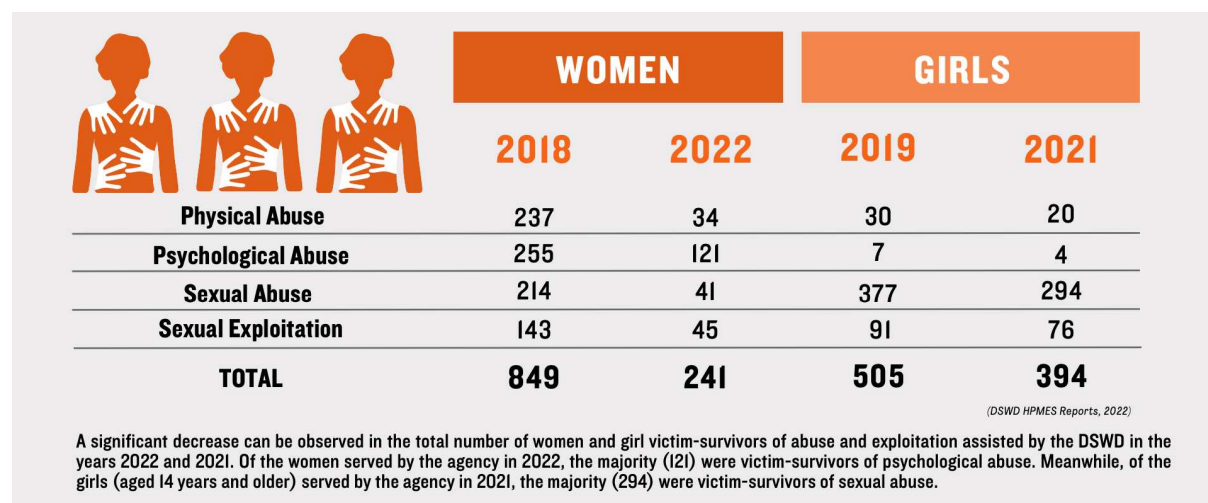
Mediation Success Rate >convictions over total convictions and case disposal (includes dismissals)

¹Source: Quarterly Report of Operations from prosecution offices nationwide at 100% submission rate
²Conviction rate = convictions over case disposal
³Dismissal rate = dismissals over case disposal
⁴Acquittal rate = acquittals over case disposal
⁵Archival rate = archival over case disposal
⁶Mediation Success Rate = successfully mediated cases over case disposal
⁷Prosecution success rate = convictions over total convictions and acquittals (excluding dismissals)

source: Republic of the Philippines, Department of Justice. n.d

As shown, the information provided is segmented by the offense category and case progression, lacking disaggregation by any other relevant categories. DSDW, on the other hand, gathers data on the number of women and girls who have been subjected to violence and served by the agency (Philippine Commission on Women 2023, 7) as shown below:

Figure 17. Women and girl victim-survivors of physical, sexual or psychological abuse or sexual exploitation served by the DSWD.



Source: Philippine Commission on Women 2023, 7.

The information is disaggregated by type of violence, year, and whether the victim was a girl or a woman.

The fact that only these three state institutions collect adequate information regarding violence against women is confirmed by the fact that the infographic produced by PSA 2019 through 2023 utilizes only these three types of sources as well as the National Demographic Health Survey (Philippine Statistic Authority, n.d). This could mean that other government agencies still lack comprehensive data collection mechanisms for this issue. Moreover, it can be also seen when analyzing the second objective of the government concerning data collection on VAW, namely the development of the GAD Index. This index consists of several categories, which have a relation to GAD. VAW section has four indicators: the proportion of women subject to physical and sexual violence, the number of reported abuse cases, and cases served by the Department of Social Welfare and Development, which are sourced from the four sources mentioned above (Philippine Statistic Authority, n.d(a)). The GAD Index is used for the generation of statistics on women and men, which are then published semi-regularly in the statistical handbook “Women and Men” (Philippine Statistics Authority 2016, 113). While the data is sourced from the same government agencies, there's a notable difference in the depth of information. For instance, PNP records provide detailed insights such as the ethnicity of victims, types of weapons used, and the relationship between perpetrators and victims, etc. (National Statistical Coordination Board 2011, 158-160).

Interestingly, a Manual of Standards and Guidelines of the Management of the Hospital Emergency Department, produced by the DoH briefly mentions the existence of a VAWC Registry System within DoH. (Department of Health, Health Facility Development Bureau. 2022, 102). Gender and Development Sectoral Agenda provides the number of reported abuse cases at WCPU for 2021, disaggregated by sex and age (women/children) (Department of Health 2024a, 63). More comprehensive data from the healthcare sector is not accessible.

As a side note, it is important to mention, that the Philippines has also an initiative to harmonize data collection nationwide, not only in relation to GAD and VAW. In connection to

this, PSDP 2018-2023 has established the goal of developing and adopting of the Philippine Standard Classification of Crime for Statistical Purposes (PSCCS) and the Philippine Index of Crimes, by PSA and DOJ respectively for the improvement of social statistics (Philippine Statistics Authority 2018, X). In addition to this, the goal is to expand and fully implement information system of multiple agencies in criminal justice system, such as National Justice Information Systems (NJIS), Crime Incident Reporting and Analysis System, e-Warrant System, e-Subpoena System and the e-Courts (Philippine Statistics Authority 2018, 73). The subsequent PSDP of the Philippines for the period of 2023-2029 is not yet publicly available to assess the current status of these goals.

The PSCCS manual, developed and published by PSA in 2020, classifies criminal offenses in accordance with Philippine criminal laws and is based on UNODC research. Its structured approach makes it suitable for application to VAW or for integration with VAW data collection efforts. This includes offenses such as forced marriage, harassment, sexual violence, rape, and many others (PSA 2020, xxxi - xxxiv). The only limitation of this framework is that femicide was not officially included by UNODC, as research on this topic for data harmonization started later (UNODC 2022, 12).

The third main government objective in relation to data collection on VAW is the establishment of a systematized databank, called National VAW Documentation System. This objective has been mentioned as a goal in NAP on VAW 2007-2010, as one of the developments in the prior period in NAP on VAW 2017-2022, as a goal of PSDP 2018-2023 (IACVAWC, n.d., 16; IACVAWC 2018, 42; Philippine Statistics Authority 2018, 147). RA9262 also mandates PSA, PCW and IACVAWC to develop a documentation system on VAW (National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women 2004, 66; 71; 82).

NVAWDocSys, initiated by the PCW in 2009, organizes the collection of VAW data from different agencies and local units in an effort to avoid duplication. A pilot project in nine sites and subsequent adoption in the Province of Aklan in 2012 demonstrated its potential to integrate administrative data (Philippine Statistics Authority 2016, 88). However, as defined by the NAP 2017-2022, the remaining challenge is to harmonize the NVAWDocSys with other systems such as NBI data base, DOJ case management system etc. and bring it to the national level (IACVAWC 2018, 42).

Annex 4 provides the Intake form of NVAWDocSys used at the Barangay VAW Desk (service provider to VAW victims), offering a comprehensive number of information including details on the agency, perpetrator, victim, relevant laws, and services provided (Philippine Commission on Women 2012, 65-66). While the form is thorough, it can raise concerns about integrating it with systems used by DOJ, PNP, and other entities. For the system to achieve full functionality, a comprehensive reform could be necessary.

System development was not identified as a objective in the most recent 2017-2022 NAP, and the current PSDP 2023-2029 is not yet publicly available, making it difficult to determine if it is on the agenda.

An additional government endeavor in data collection is the establishment Anti-Trafficking in Persons Database as mandated by the Republic Act No. 10364 (Congress of the Philippines 2012, Sec. 16). IACAT has a leading role in this initiative, while all respective government agencies have the task of organizing data collection within their mandates. However, despite these efforts, the standardized and disaggregated data is still publicly inaccessible.

When it comes to surveys, only the PSDP 2011-2017 has mentioned the necessity to conduct a survey on violence against women and children (National Statistical Coordination Board 2012, 132). Both the PSDP 2011-2017 and the 2018-2023 plans also mention crime victimization surveys, which evaluate the extent of crime victimization, reporting behaviors, and types of crime in selected provinces to develop policies for crime prevention, victim protection, and police services (National Statistical Coordination Board 2012 131; Philippine Statistics Authority 2018, 71). Including VAW in CVS could be recommended because it saves resources and helps policymakers develop better strategies to address violence against women.

Currently, violence against women has been included in the National Demographic and Health Survey since 2003 and is conducted every 5-6 years. The scope of the survey has varied across different publications. The 2003 survey included only a question on attitudes toward violence against women (National Statistics Office 2004, 64). Subsequent surveys expanded their focus to include the prevalence of physical, emotional, and sexual violence, with the 2013 publication also addressing economic violence (National Statistics Office 2009, 201; Philippine Statistics Authority 2014, 185; PSA 2018, 220; Philippine Statistics Authority 2023, 51). The participant scope also broadened over time, initially including only married women and later encompassing unmarried women, with perpetrators ranging from current or former intimate partners to other individuals (National Statistics Office 2009, 202; National Statistics Office 2014, 186; Philippine Statistics Authority 2018, 220; Philippine Statistics Authority 2023, 51). The 2017 and 2013 surveys are the most comprehensive to date, whereas the 2022 survey focused solely on intimate partner violence (IPV) (National Statistics Office 2014, 186; Philippine Statistics Authority 2018, 220; Philippine Statistics Authority 2023, 51).

Cambodia

The NAPVAW II and NAPVAW III outline a handful of strategies in relation to data collection, which focus on developing in quality of data collection systems of different agencies and departments and establishment of a data collection system on VAW (Ministry of Women Affairs 2014, 32; Ministry of Women's Affairs 2020a, 42). This suggests that the tasks related to data collection have been postponed or extended from one NAP to the next one. Moreover, while the NAPVAW II designates NIS as one of the responsible agencies for improving data collection, NAPVAW III leaves this department out (Ministry of Women Affairs 2014, 32). The plan also specifies that interaction with this system should adhere to "guidelines and quality standards," with the prior approval of these guidelines set as a goal in activity number one (Ministry of Women Affairs 2014, 32). However, to the best of the author's knowledge, there are currently no publicly available protocols and manuals on data collection for VAW or guidelines for the information system. Although Rattanak V mentions the development of "Data Collection and Management Guidelines on Violence" by the MoWA as an indicator, these guidelines are not currently accessible (Ministry of Women's Affairs 2020, 5; Ministry of Women's Affairs 2020a, 42).

Notably, the plan also reinforces the obligation to make data concerning VAW situation in the country and implementation of NAPs publicly available (Ministry of Women Affairs 2014, 33).

The NIS is an important actor in the statistics sector in Cambodia. Cambodia's national statistical system is decentralized. The NIS located under the Ministry of Planning is

responsible for leading and coordinating the system, which consists of 27 line ministries, each of which collects and produces statistics as part of its work (National Institute of Statistics 2017).

Statistical Law of Cambodia established the obligation of NIS to “collect, process, publish” etc. basic data by conducting surveys and using administrative data sources (Kingdom of Cambodia, n.d., Article 12), whereas ministries are responsible for taking surveys and “collect statistical data on administrative records” (Kingdom of Cambodia, n.d., Article 13). Article 11 of the law obliges NIS to establish a special “directory of administrative and statistical data sources” (Kingdom of Cambodia, n.d., Article 11).

The latest Strategic Plan of NIS 2002-2007 under §1.3. emphasizes the importance of applying the potential of extensive but imperfect datasets extracted from administrative sources to statistical tasks (National Institute of Statistics 2017a).

Another crucial policy document for statistical matters is Cambodia’s Statistical Master Plan (SMP) 2008-2015, which has yet to be updated. It outlines the list of priority statistics, covering several sectors such as statistics in the economic sector, agricultural sector, poverty and development sector and social sector (National Institute of Statistics 2017b).

Neither Strategic Plan nor SMP mention data collection on VAW.

Cambodia's National Strategic Development Plan (NSDP) offers an additional insight into government initiatives related to data collection on VAW. First, the 2009-2013 NSPD states that the MoWA will collaborate with other ministries to establish databases and information systems on all forms of VAW (Royal Government of Cambodia 2010, 179). It is worth noting that the subsequent NSPRs developed for the periods 2014-2018 and 2019-2023 do not mention any activities related to data collection on VAW.

The last type of policy documents, which are of importance here is Neary Rattanak of Cambodia, which are strategic plans for Gender Equality. The last three plans are available to public:

1. Neary Rattanak III (2009-2013)
2. Neary Rattanak IV (2014-2018)
3. Neary Rattanak V (2019-2023)

When reviewing the implementation matrix of all three plans, it's evident that each emphasizes the necessity of developing databases and information systems on VAW, along with collecting administrative data, which should be added to these systems (Ministry of Women’s Affairs 2009, 24; Ministry of Women’s Affairs 2014a, 42; Ministry of Women’s Affairs 2020, 42).

In seeking to identify the current administrative data that are being collected, it is useful to refer again to official documents related to statistics. Sub-decree on designated official statistics provides that a statistical unit within each ministry is responsible for production of official statistics (Royal Government of Cambodia, n.d(a), Article 6). In addition, Art. 6 defines which ministries are responsible for the collection of specific statistics. This is consistent with the information provided in the annual reports produced by the NIS. In particular, the latest update highlights several relevant ministries collecting the following statistics:

Table 13. List of statistics produced by MoJ.

Name of Statistics	Period	Data source	Reporting units*	Regional level	Frequency
Civil dispute cases statistics of provincial and capital courts	2012	Administrative record	-	Cambodia Province	Monthly Annual
complaint resolution statistics	2012	Administrative record	-	Cambodia Province	Monthly Annual
Law dissemination statistics	2012	Administrative record	-	Cambodia Province	Monthly Annual
Law establishment statistics	2012	Administrative record	-	Cambodia Province	Monthly Annual
Minor's criminal dispute cases statistics of provincial and capital court	2012	Administrative record	-	Cambodia Province	Monthly Annual
Criminal dispute cases statistics of provincial and capital courts	2012	Administrative record	-	Cambodia Province	Monthly Annual

* Only presented if data source is survey or census.

source: National Institute of Statistics 2013, 61

Table 14. List of statistics produced by MoH.

Name of Statistics	Period	Data source	Reporting units*	Regional level	Frequency
Communicable diseases statistics	2012	Communicable diseases system	-	Cambodia Province District Health center	Weekly Monthly Annual
Health statistics	2012	Health statistics system	-	Cambodia Province District	Monthly Annual
Public and legal private health facilities statistics	2012	Administrative record	-	Cambodia Province District Health center	Annual

* Only presented if data source is survey or census.

source: National Institute of Statistics 2013, 62

Table 15. List of statistics produced by MoI.

Name of Statistics	Period	Data source	Reporting units*	Regional level	Frequency
Citizen statistics	2012	Administrative Record	-	Cambodia	Annual
Identification card statistics	2012	Administrative Record	-	Cambodia	Annual
Vital registration statistics	2012	Administrative Record	-	Cambodia	Annual
Criminal offence and cleared-up statistics	2012	Administrative Record	-	Cambodia	Annual
Persons in prison and correction statistics	2012	Administrative Record	-	Cambodia	Annual
Immigration statistics	2012	Administrative Record	-	Cambodia	Annual
Political party statistics	2012	Administrative Record	-	Cambodia	Annual
Non-government organization statistics	2012	Administrative Record	-	Cambodia	Annual
New establishment of municipality, district, khan, sangkat, commune and village statistics	2012	Administrative Record	-	Cambodia	Annual

* Only presented if data source is survey or census.

source: National Institute of Statistics 2013, 58

Table 16. List of statistics produced by MoWa.

Name of Statistics	Period	Data source	Reporting units*	Regional level	Frequency
Citizen statistics	2012	Administrative Record	-	Cambodia	Annual
Identification card statistics	2012	Administrative Record	-	Cambodia	Annual
Vital registration statistics	2012	Administrative Record	-	Cambodia	Annual
Criminal offence and cleared-up statistics	2012	Administrative Record	-	Cambodia	Annual
Persons in prison and correction statistics	2012	Administrative Record	-	Cambodia	Annual
Immigration statistics	2012	Administrative Record	-	Cambodia	Annual
Political party statistics	2012	Administrative Record	-	Cambodia	Annual
Non-government organization statistics	2012	Administrative Record	-	Cambodia	Annual
New establishment of municipality, district, khan, sangkat, commune and village statistics	2012	Administrative Record	-	Cambodia	Annual

* Only presented if data source is survey or census.

source: National Institute of Statistics 2013, 44

Since these reports have not been updated since 2012, it's challenging to assess progress or identify any changes that may have occurred. The methodology used to collect these administrative data remains undisclosed, making it difficult to determine whether different forms of VAW are included, as well as to know other categories of data. However, it is clear that problems with administrative data collection persist by looking at a number of policy documents. For instance, documents like the CSDGs 2016-2030, NDSP 2014-2018, and Neary Rattanak III reveal data gaps in their frameworks, with many showing little to no data from 2005 to 2023, further highlighting the lack of developed and utilized indicators (Royal Government of Cambodia 2018, 201, Royal Government of Cambodia 2018, 215; Royal Government of Cambodia, n.d, 222; Ministry of Women's Affairs 2009, 10; Ministry of Women's Affairs 2009, 20). The CSDGs even feature a disclaimer acknowledging the challenge of assessing progress due to the dearth of VAW data (Royal Government of Cambodia 2018, 20). An example of such a data gap is demonstrated in the table below:

Table 17. Excerpt from the core monitoring indicators of National Strategic Development Plan 2014-2018.

No	Indicators	Unit	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	Data Source
5.20	Prevalence rate of domestic violence	Numbers							CDB
5.21	Number of DV cases filed with police								MOI
5.22	Number of DV cases prosecuted by the court	%							MAIS (MOWA)

source: Royal Government of Cambodia, n.d., 228.

Statistical publications offer insight into the sources of data used for VAW statistics, with surveys being the primary reliance (Key Gender Statistics in Cambodia 2015; Ministry of Women's Affairs, n.d.). Additionally, administrative data from the Cambodian Commune Database (CDB) has been utilized, recording the number of families seeking assistance for DV and trafficking from local authorities. The CDB disaggregates data by province, district, and commune, covering the years 2008-2010 and detailing four types of domestic violence along

with the number of administrative decisions (an alternative to protection orders issued by courts) made.

Table 18. VAW related statistics as provided by CDBonline.

Commune/Sangkat Profile				
Nang Khi Loek				
Year: 2010				
Gender				
Domestic violence over three years				
Description		2008	2009	2010
Number of persons having domestic violence		8 families	9 families	5 families
% families facing domestic violence		1.47%	1.60%	0.85%
Domestic violence cases reported by village chiefs		8 cases	9 cases	5 cases
Where	Physical violence	4 cases	2 cases	5 cases
	Sexual violence	0 cases	0 cases	0 cases
	Mental violence	1 cases	0 cases	0 cases
	Household economic violence	3 cases	7 cases	0 cases
# administrative decisions on domestic violence		1 cases	9 cases	5 cases
% of administrative decisions on domestic violence		12.50%	100.00%	100.00%

source: CDBonline 2010.

Despite all the evidence that data collection is weak and data on VAW is scarce, a few sources have stated that Cambodia has piloted a data collection system, consolidating data from health centers, police, PDoWa, and NGOs as to what services have been provided to victims and to what agencies they have been referred (Hyun 2019, 17; CEDAW 2013, 7)

Regarding the VAW surveys, the situation in Cambodia looks much better. Cambodia Demographic and Health Survey (CDHS) published in 2015 and 2023 includes a chapter on DV. The surveys are conducted by MOH and NIS. Although both of the publications' chapters are titled Domestic Violence, the scope of surveys includes both married and never-married women, their experience with physical, sexual, and emotional violence committed by former or current intimate partners or any other perpetrator (National Institute of Statistics, Ministry of Health, and ICF. 2015, 257; National Institute of Statistics, Directorate General for Health, and ICF 2023, 287). Economic violence is not included in the survey. Socio-economic surveys are conducted in Cambodia every one to three years from 2004 to 2021 and include a chapter on "victimization" (National Institute of Statistics 2022, 99). This cannot be entirely thought of as a survey on violence against women, as the focus of the survey is the population on the whole, but it does include some questions that can give a rough understanding of the VAW situation in the country. Victimization shows a percentage of households in the country, which are exposed to theft/burglary/robbery and domestic violence (National Institute of Statistics 2022, xii).

The collaboration of Indochina Research Limited, MoWa, and other development partners has created a dedicated survey on domestic violence published in 2009. The survey encompassed physical, emotional, and sexual abuse, as well as awareness of the rights and legal

frameworks, available options to seek help, etc. (Ministry of Women's Affairs, Indochina Research Limited 2009, iii)

In 2014, Cambodia conducted a National Survey on Women's health and Life experience in line with WHO methodology done by MoWa (Ministry of Women's Affairs, National Institute of Statistics, n.d, 4). The survey includes physical, sexual, emotional, economic violence by intimate partners and physical and sexual violence by non-partners (Ministry of Women's Affairs, National Institute of Statistics, n.d, 18).

4.2.3. Training and Capacity-Building

The Philippines

Many documents in the comprehensive policy on VAW in the Philippines highlight the importance of training and capacity building for relevant stakeholders.

Firstly, Magna Carta of Women dedicates a few sections to this topic. It underscores the importance of providing trainings to all government officials from local levels to managerial positions, involved in the VAW response. These trainings should cover the dynamics of gender and human rights, the cycles of violence, and counseling (Philippine Commission on Women 2010, 51). Apart from that the law stipulates necessity to provide gender-sensitive trainings to health care workers, journalists and teachers (Philippine Commission on Women 2010, 14; 54; 74).

In the same manner, Republic Act 9262 seconds this and dictates, that officials of relevant governmental bodies and local authorities shall be trained on prevention of VAWC (National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women 2004, 19). Moreover, all of the agencies, dealing with VAW should receive training, which includes an understanding of the nature, extent and causes of such violence; the legal rights and remedies available to victims; the services and facilities they can use; the duties of police officers; and methods on how to manage the incidents in the best way (National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women 2004, 22).

The rules and regulations supplementing RA 9262 detail the need for training and capacity building of the various government agencies concerned. As such, the DepEd is required to conduct trainings for teachers on gender sensitivity, VAW and BPO applications; DSWD should train social workers and the DOJ is required to train specialized prosecutors to handle VAW cases, as well as conduct trainings for prosecutors, public attorneys, and others connected to VAW (National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women 2004, 76; 79; 80). In turn, DoH is obliged to take care of capacity building for WCPU staff, with a focus on qualifications such as appropriate medical care, forensic interviewing, and gender-sensitive counseling (National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women 2004, 78). Concerning law enforcement, PNP officials in collaboration with local governments shall establish training programs for police and barangay workers, and NAPOLCOM shall conduct gender-sensitivity trainings for criminal justice practitioners (National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women 2004, 65; 68). Other agencies have also been mentioned in this context.

Implementing rules and Regulations of RA9262 also recognize the importance of continuing education and capacity building, especially with regard to LGU officials, police, legal professions, social care (National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women 2004, 68; 77, 89).

Concerning such policy documents as NAPs, only the 1st NAP mentions training and capacity building as a standalone strategy, in the following ones this is included as a part of the prevention strategy and response system strategy (IACVAWC n.d., 28; IACVAWC n.d(a), 21; IACVAWC 2018, 51). The 4th NAP focuses on the training of teachers, training of trainers for capacity building of barangay officials, and specialized training for service providers such as police, health care, legal professions, and others (IACVAWC 2018, 51; 55). Lastly, training for IACVAWC members has been included in the plan (IACVAWC 2018, 61).

Attention has been given to the development of relevant manuals and performance standards for training and capacity building. The “Barangay VAW Desk Handbook” was developed in 2012 with the aim, among others, to assess the capacity of barangay officers to respond in a gender-sensitive manner and to provide guidance for improving their response (IACVAWC 2018, 27; Philippine Commission on Women 2012, 23). For other service providers, DILG has developed the Training Manual on Strengthening the Capacities of Direct Service Providers of LGUs in Handling VAW Cases and DSWD has created a Trainer’s Manual on Gender Responsive Case Management (CCPR 2015, 6). Another important manual for service providers has been rolled out by IACVAWC, called Guidelines for the Creation and Management of a referral system (IACVAWC 2018, 24).

According to RA 9262, NAPOLCOM and the PNP should have adopted gender-sensitive protocols to guide the handling of VAW cases, but there is no information available to confirm their adoption (National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women 2004, 65; 83). The law also specified the need for DSWD to incorporate VAWC's core messages into the social workers' code of ethics (National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women 2004, 80). However, verification of its implementation is challenging

In the educational sector, the Gender Sensitivity Trainer’s Manual in Technical and Vocational Education and Training programs has been adopted (CEDAW 2023, 18).

Process indicators, such as the number of trained staff in various sectors, help us understand if the aims stipulated in policy are actually being followed by the government. In the justice sector, between 2012 and 2016, DOJ conducted gender-sensitivity trainings for 384 judges and lawyers of the Supreme Court and other lower courts (CEDAW 2016, 3). In the same period around 10,443 court translators, social workers, and other staff have participated in seminars on the rights of women and children (CEDAW 2016, 3). In the same years, the Supreme Court also provided trainings of lawyers and judges, the number of which reached 1000 people (IACVAWC 2018, 34). Seminars on trafficking were attended by 3,898 legal professionals, barangay, and government officials (CEDAW 2016, 3). From 2017 to 2021, the Supreme Court organized additional trainings and seminars on the rights of women and children, attended by 1,025 participants, as well as on trafficking, attended by 153 professionals, including judges and court staff. Additionally, prosecutors in the Philippines have also been involved in training conducted by the DOJ on human rights and VAW, with a total of 600 participants (IACVAWC 2018, 34).

In the sector of health care, reports from 2016 indicate that in 39 hospitals, managed by LGU, the personnel of WCPU have been trained (CEDAW 2016, 7). Among hospitals, managed by DOH, personnel of 26 hospitals underwent training. By 2015, training in DOH-hospitals had reached 40% of targeted provinces (IACVAWC 2018, 29). In 2020, additional 365 workers of WCPUs have been trained (CEDAW 2023, 12).

As part of the implementation of the 3d NAP, 700 social workers have been trained in the gender-responsive case management model (IACVAWC 2018, 29). Moreover, since 2013 DSWD started the establishment of women and children-friendly spaces, for which 238 workers were trained (IACVAWC 2018, 30).

The commitment of DILG to training was also evident during the implementation of the 3d NAP. The department has fulfilled 80% of its target to train WCPC officers, investigators of NBI, and prosecutors as well as 332 barangay officers in 169 barangays by 2015 (IACVAWC 2018, 27). The PNP efforts in training as a result of the 3d NAP were also noted but without any numbers (IACVAWC). The latest data available refers to 2,061 trainings participants conducted by the PNP between 2006 and 2009 (CRC 2009, 24).

Cambodia

Training and capacity building to respond to VAW are a part of Cambodia's VAW policy. Several training manuals have already been developed to support this. Specifically, in 2016, the MoH developed a Clinical Guideline on Health Care for Women and Girls Survivors of Intimate Partner Violence and Sexual Violence along with a manual to train health staff to integrate violence against women and girls into their work (Hyun 2019, 22). In addition, sources indicate that there was a plan to develop a training manual for line workers in the sector at the provincial level (Hyun 2019, 22).

In judicial sector MoWa has produced a manual for DV Law for judges and prosecutors (Human Rights Now 2011, 39). In 2017 the Minimum Standards for Essential Services for Women and Girl Survivors of GBV was drafted and included Mediation (CEDAW 2018, 14). In addition, a Book for Judicial Professionals and Mediations Guidelines for Responding to Violence Against Women was prepared (CEDAW 2018, 4).

In terms of law enforcement, a new curriculum has been developed in the Royal Police Academy to include the Minimum Standards for Basic Counseling for Women and Girl Survivors of Gender-Based Violence (CEDAW 2018, 4; UNDP 2024, 2). Apart from police, various other service providers have been receiving training based on this manual since 2016 (Ministry of Women's Affairs 2021, 4; CEDAW 2018, 5). Service providers including those in health, police, justice, social services and local authorities involved in a multi-sectoral GBV Working Groups received training based on the Referral Guidelines for Women and Girl Survivors of GBV (CEDAW 2018, 14).

Finally, MoSVY has been implementing a number of guidelines and manuals for victims of trafficking. The Policy and National Minimum Standards for the Protection of the Rights of Victims of Human Trafficking was created in 2009 and used for training of government officials and service providers with the aim to improve assistance to victims by establishing smooth referrals across various services, ranging from shelters and counselling to prosecution (CEDAW 2018, 17). The Minimum Standards on Residential Care for Victims of Human Trafficking and Sexual Exploitation was also developed to improve assistance to victims (CEDAW 2019, 11). Following this, a draft of the Guideline for the Reintegration of Victims of Human Trafficking was introduced (CEDAW 2018, 17).

When examining how the commitment to training translates into policy, it is evident that both the fourth and fifth Neary Rattanak plans place emphasis on training and capacity building for gender mainstreaming, which may also partially include VAW. The document

emphasizes collaboration and technical assistance regarding gender mainstreaming in public administration, focusing on mainstreaming gender in annual plans and budgets, training on gender-responsive planning, and improving the capacity of MoWa to mainstream gender in line ministries. DV LAW 2005 requires organizing training on the law for relevant officials and government agencies (*Article 34*).

NAPVAW II includes expanding teacher training programs to include VAW prevention, building the institutional capacity of the police through training at district and commune level, and supplementing specialized trainings conducted by the CNP with modules on VAW. In this context, Neary Rattanak IV and NAPVAW III also center on building the capacity of JPOs through legal and socio-psychological training to assist victims.

In the judicial sector, NAPVAW II puts a special focus on building the capacity of judges, prosecutors, and other legal authorities through gender-sensitive training and trainings on aspects of VAW, which focus also prolonged in NAPVAW III.

According to NAPVAW III, government officials are to be trained on CEDAW. Local authorities should receive training on referral pathways of victims and the issuance of administrative orders. In addition, mention is made of journalists receiving training to raise awareness about VAW and to comply with the Code of Conduct, which outlines ethical principles for reporting. Healthcare providers are also to be trained in providing medical care to victims of violence.

Considerable training initiatives have been implemented in the health sector to address VAW. In 2017, professionals from 79 Referral Hospitals and 1,029 health centers received training (CEDAW 2018, 16). In addition, 101 public health facilities received training on responding to VAW in 2018 (CEDAW 2019, 9). The exact number of participants in these trainings is not specified.

Government personnel, including those from subnational governments and line ministries, participated in CEDAW trainings from 2014 to 2017. A total of 5,932 people participated, including 3,789 women (CEDAW 2018, 7). Relevant public officials and other stakeholders participated in 86 consultative meetings and seminars on human trafficking organized by the Ministry of Interior, which were attended by a total of 5,122 participants, including 1,676 women (CEDAW 2018, 18). In addition, the National Committee for Combating Trafficking in Persons has conducted 481 trainings on the 2008 Law on Combating Trafficking in Persons and Commercial Sexual Exploitation with a total of 24,277 participants, of which 9,225 were female, from various sectors such as government, law enforcement and education (CEDAW 2018, 18).

The Ministry of Justice conducted in 2014-2016 trainings on CEDAW and relevant laws for members of the legal professions, including judges, prosecutors, court personnel, law enforcement officers, and MoJ representatives. The number of participants reached 3,650, of which 1,204 were women (CEDAW 2018, 7).

Concerning training in the health sector, the information is not in abundance. As a part of the program endorsed by UNFPA, UNDP and others, 190 providers and managers in healthcare have been trained on GBV/VAW response in 2020 (UNDP, UNFPA and UN WOMEN 2021, 16).

4.2.4. Budget

The Philippines

Two main Republic Acts, the Magna Carta of Women of 2009 and the Anti-Violence Against Women and Their Children Act of 2007, direct policy on VAW and mandate that the activities provided for in the legislation be financed by the Gender and Development (GAD) budget (Philippine Commission on Women 2010, 25; National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women 2004, Section 45). The GAD budget must constitute at least five percent (5%) of the total budget appropriations of all government agencies and local government units (Philippine Commission on Women 2010, 25).

The latest PCW report on government agencies' compliance with GAD budget allocations shows that only 20% (58 out of 292 agencies) that submitted their annual GAD reports met the minimum GAD budget requirement of 5%. Remarkably, the majority of these compliant agencies exceeded the required 5% (PCW 2021, p. 3). The figure below shows the 5 agencies with the highest GAD expenditures in FY 2020.

Table 19. Top 5 Agencies with Highest GAD Expenditure, FY 2020.

<i>(as of June 13, 2021)</i>			
Agency	GAA	Total GAD Expenditure	% over GAA
Department of Health	₱ 100,559,985,000	₱ 82,428,488,688.31	81.97
Department of Public Works and Highways	580,886,011,000	35,684,604,286.59	6.14
Philippine National Police	187,329,154,000	5,161,653,893.65	2.76
Philippine Army	92,508,006,000	4,939,089,613.14	5.34
Department of Labor and Employment	12,057,296,000	4,896,126,075.92	40.61

source: PCW 2021, 5.

However, it is currently impossible to determine what percentage of the GAD budget was specifically allocated to VAW programs.

When it comes to budgeting for the implementation of NAPs on VAW, including tasks on prevention, protection, collection of data, and training, the funds also come from the GAD budget (IACVAWC 2018, 64). The costing of these plans is partially determined by the accompanying national Advocacy and Communication Plan created by the IACVAWC, which focus lies within advocacy, prevention, and capacity building (IACVAWC 2018, 64). The total budget for the plan, after manually calculating the separate budgets for tasks, was 8,900,000 Philippine pesos or 152 078,93 USD, excluding the calculation of recurring annual budgets for certain tasks (IACVAWC, PWC 2018, 35-44).

The commitment to fund the implementation and monitoring of the NAP 2017-2022 is reinforced by IACVAWC Resolution No. 2 issued in 2018. This resolution obliges member agencies to allocate budgets for VAWC activities starting from 2019. However, since the 2017 and 2018 budgets have already been set, the resolution emphasizes the need for bridge funding to ensure continued support for VAWC initiatives during this transition period (Republic of the Philippines, Inter-Agency Council on Violence Against Women And Their Children, n.d.).

Finally, it's important to highlight the allocation for a VAW line item within the health budget. The Philippines' 2024 national budget, while comprehensive in detailing various program finances and performance indicators, notably lacks any mention of VAW or Republic Act 9262 (Republic of the Philippines, Department of Budget and Management 2023, 238). On the other hand, the GAD Sectoral Agenda 2024-2028 serves as the basis for the GAD Plan and Budget, which guides the expenditure of the GAD budget, mandated to be 5% of the total agency budget (p18). This Sectoral Agenda identifies GBV as one of the key issues for the period and, therefore, includes a number of related projects in the DOH budget.

Cambodia

The national budget in Cambodia is based on the Law on Public Finance System of 2008, where the National Budget is defined as the planned balance of all permanent assets of and liabilities to the state (The NGO Forum on Cambodia 2016, 1). National or state budget includes budgets at the national and sub-national levels. (The NGO Forum on Cambodia 2016, 1). In accordance with this definition, the financing of government stakeholders responsible for addressing VAW, including MoWA, MOI, MOJ, MOH, and others, is derived from the national budget.

The Ministry of Women's Affairs is financed among the other stakeholders as one of the leading bodies in the implementation and monitoring of VAW policy. The table below provides a summary of the budget allocation for the MoWA in Cambodia from 2021 to 2024.

Table 20. Annual Budget Allocation for MoWa, 2021-2024.

Year	Proportion to the Total Budget Expenditure (%)	Amount of Budget Allocated (in million riels)	Amount of Budget Allocated (in USD)
2021	0.15	44,538	10,689,120
2022	0.14	44,538	10,689,120
2023	0.13	46,243	11,098,320
2024	0.15	51,067	12,256,080

source: calculated from General Department of Budget (MEF) 2023, 12; General Department of Budget (MEF) 2023, 35; The NGO Forum on Cambodia. n.d(a), The NGO Forum on Cambodia. n.d(b), The NGO Forum on Cambodia. n.d(c).

The budget allocation has increased slightly each year. Despite this, the proportion of total budgeted expenditure allocated to MoWa has remained relatively the same ranging from 0.13% to 0.15%. This suggests that despite the increase in the total national budget, the priority given to the MoWa budget has not changed significantly and remains rather low. In comparison, other ministries received a much bigger proportion of the total budget in 2024: Ministry of Health (MOH) at 5.16%, Ministry of Defense at 16.06%, and Ministry of Social Affairs, Veterans Affairs, and Youth Rehabilitation at 6.71% (The NGO Forum on Cambodia, n.d(a)).

The numbers can be also compared retrospectively. In 2000, the budget of the Ministry was 52,879 million riels, but by 2006, it had plummeted to 10,703 million riels (The NGO

Forum on Cambodia 2007, 24). Looking at 2024, it is notable that the budget has almost returned to 2000 levels. This stagnation demonstrates that the ministry's budget has remained insufficient and has not improved over the years. It is necessary to improve investment in VAW and other women's issues.

The information concerning budgeting for NAPs on VAW and the activities relating to VAW is not in abundance. Both NAPs 2014-2018 and 2019-2023 include tasks on prevention, protection, collection of data and training, but have no indicators or activities relating to allocation of budget by the stakeholders for activities mentioned; according to the implementation matrix and concluding remarks in both documents indicate that the budget will be allocated from national resources of the Royal Government of Cambodia and development partners (Ministry of Women Affairs 2014, 36; Ministry of Women's Affairs 2020a, 40).

A progress report done by UN Women on the implementation of the NAPVAW 2014-2018 underscores that financing of the implementation has been posed as a problem and that there is no transparent data on what percentage of the budget allocated to the ministry is dedicated to the implementation of the nap. (UN Women 2015, 19). This is further explained by the fact that in the 2015's International Budget Partnership survey Cambodia ended up in the bottom (102) of the list of budget transparency (Open Development Cambodia 2015).

In order to strengthen the implementation of NAPVAW II and to promote gender-responsive budgeting, Annual Operating Plans (AOPs) were developed by TWGG-GBV members (EVAW Program Management Office 2017, 21). In addition to that, a VAW costing exercise report was established as a consequence of NAPVAW II, which was a draft budget document that defines a minimum package of essential services for survivors of violence. (EVAW Program Management Office 2017, 20). In 2017, the members of TWGG-GBV have allocated a total of 3,7 million USD for the implementation of the NAPVAW II (CEDAW 2018, 10).

Along with that, programs dedicated to VAW and the budget allocated for them can be found in the annual MEF report called Budget in Brief. The main budget planned for VAW is allocated by MoWA and distributed to programs such as:

- Prevent Abuse of Women
- Strengthen the capacity of judicial police officers/agents
- Prevent Drugs and Human Trafficking
- Prevent violence against women
- Promote the protection of women with disabilities
- Legal protection for women at the capital-provincial level

In 2023, the budget directly allocated for VAW was 1,677.1 million riels, which amounts to 402,504 USD. In 2024, this figure increased to 1,785.4 million riels, which amounts to 428,496 USD (General Department of Budget (MEF) 2023, 35; General Department of Budget (MEF) 2023(a), 40). Besides MoWA, in 2024, only the Ministry of Social Affairs, Veterans, and Youth Rehabilitation also allocated a budget, specifically 10,790.6 million riels for Improving Victim Protection Services, which amounts to 2,589,744 USD (General Department of Budget (MEF) 2023(a), 36). Such ministries as MoH, MoJ and MoI don't show any programs and budget allocations according to this budget report.

Although it should be noted that in the gender mainstreaming action plan (GMAP), MoH includes a list of programs aimed at victims of violence against women, such as training of healthcare workers on VAW, OSSC development, and response to VAW in healthcare, but the exact budget is not shown (GMAG of the Ministry of Health 2020, 17).

Going back to the topic of gender-responsive budgeting, the government and MoWa have been promoting gender responsive budgeting for various sectors since 2016 as a part of the implementation of Neary Rattanak IV (CEDAW 2018, 11; CEDAW 2019, 4). Several ministries have received fund for the implementation of gender mainstreaming action plans and such ministries as MAFF, MoEYS, MoH, MoWA and MRD received for gender mainstreaming activities from 2015 to 2016 average of 13.6 per cent (CEDAW 2018, 11; CEDAW 2019, 4).

4.3.Prevention

The Philippines

Primary prevention of VAW has been included in many policy documents on the subject in the Philippines. This section examines whether a clear focus on the key strategies outlined in the analytical framework has been established.

Firstly, when it comes to awareness-raising campaigns, Implementing Rules and Regulations of the RA9262 point out the need to conduct public advocacy programs to increase public awareness of violence against women and children, relevant laws and remedies and services available (National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women 2004, 67). The latest NAP strives to implement Information, Education, and Communication materials (IEC) to raise awareness of women and general public that VAW should not be tolerated (IACVAWC 2018, 50). Furthermore, the national plan on advocacy and communication ADVOCOM indicates the use of such channels as radio, cinema, and print campaigns in traffic in order to disseminate information on the need to seek help and refer to specialized agencies in cases of VAW (IACVAWC, PWC 2018, 32).

Secondly, the integration of gender-sensitive curricula in all private and public educational institutions as a part of accreditation criteria is set forward by the Magna Carta Of Women (Philippine Commission on Women 2010, 58). The document declares the need to develop new gender-fair instructional materials, such as textbooks as well as revise the existing ones (Philippine Commission on Women 2010, 58). In addition, the latest NAP on VAW requires the integration of core messages on VAW in the school curriculum as well (IACVAWC 2018, 51).

Thirdly, in relation to the media, the Manga Carta of Women prohibits the condoning of VAW and the portrayal of women in a degrading or discriminatory manner. In support of this, the document establishes the need for the PCW to develop a guideline for the media (Philippine Commission on Women 2010, 67). The latest NAP on VAW as well as ADVOCOM plan include strategies for using media organizations in primary prevention programs (IACVAWC 2018, 50; IACVAWC, PWC 2018, 43). Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment Plan (GEWE) 2019-2025 dedicates a large part of media activities, namely gender sensitization of media and media language, grant support for media products that support a gender-equal agenda, etc. (Philippine Commission on Women 2022, 234).

Apart from these three, a couple of other prevention strategies have been mentioned in the policy documents. Magna Carta Of Women stresses the need for DOH, DSWD, LGUs to develop gender-fair programs on marriage, family, and parenting without stereotypes and unequal roles and tolerance to VAW (Philippine Commission on Women 2010, 73; 77).

RA9262 mandates the establishment of community-based programs aimed at preventing different forms of violence, including DV, IPV, etc. (National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women 2004, 83). It also called for the creation of special livelihood projects for victims of violence or making them a priority in existing programs (National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women 2004, 80; 56; 52). The latest NAP on VAW identifies the implementation of programs for the economic empowerment of VAW survivors as one of its objectives (IACVAWC 2018, 56). A lot of attention is given to community level work with community and religious leaders in ADVOCOM (IACVAWC, PWC 2018, 34).

Moreover, ADVOCOM plan mentions the use of pre-marriage counseling and family development sessions as tools for women to gain awareness of protective services in case of VAW (IACVAWC, PWC 2018, 32). Work with young people is also mentioned in the same context for which house-to-house campaigns are planned (IACVAWC, PWC 2018, 33).

Prevention activities aimed at transforming attitudes and norms with engagement of men is included in GEWE plan. Involvement of boys as change agents, creation of male movements that support gender equality as well as partnerships with community leaders are encouraged (Philippine Commission on Women 2022, 236).

Lastly, the GEWE plan integrates a gender agenda into transportation by addressing potential negative impacts on women, considering women as primary clients, and designing infrastructure projects to increase women's economic opportunities and improve access to services (Philippine Commission on Women 2022, 183).

If one looks at the campaigns and preventive activities that have already been implemented, one of the central ones is the 18-Day Campaign to End VAW, the goal of which is to raise awareness of VAW in the country (CEDAW 2015, 13). It is an annual campaign, launched in 2006, which also incorporates the Anti-Trafficking Day on its final day. As a part of this initiative, a great number of information caravans on existing laws, distribution of IEC materials, youth forums, and expos with a focus on VAW, including trafficking are conducted (CEDAW 2016, 3; CCPR 2022, 6-8). Moreover, during the pandemic, IACVAWC initiated an online campaign to disseminate information about all kinds of services for victims of violence (CEDAW 2023, 6).

In the educational sector, Gender-Responsive Curricular Programs in basic and higher education are being promoted under the responsibility of DepEd (IACVAWC 2018, 15; CEDAW 2023, 18). Introduction of Comprehensive Sexuality Education in Grades 8, 11 and 12 is currently in discussion (CEDAW 2023, 18).

Concerning media, in 2013 Code of Ethics for Media, Gender Equality Guidelines as well as Media Guidelines to Protect Women against Discrimination in Media and Film were published. The primary audience is government media, journalism schools, and others. In 2017, the Gender-Fair Media Guidebook was launched (CEDAW 2021, 11; CEDAW 2015, 16). These documents set standards on how gender equality and non-sexist language can be implemented in news portrayal and media in general (CEDAW 2021, 11). Additionally, the media is also involved in promoting gender equality through the airing of the radio program "Women's Voices!" since 2009 (CEDAW 2015a, 16).

A number of activities have been organized aimed at the community. In mosques, special sermons mentioning VAW, rape, and trafficking have been developed and used (CEDAW 2023, 12). The Philippines have currently three flagman programs that engage men in the protection of women and promotion of gender equality, which are Men's Responsibilities

in GAD (MR GAD), KATROPA (*Men Faithful to their Family's Responsibilities and Obligations*), and MOVE (Men Opposed to VAW Everywhere), ERPAT (Empowerment and Reaffirmation of Parental Abilities) (IACVAWC 2018, 15). MOVE was launched in 2006 and unites men who oppose VAW on national and local levels (United Nations 2005, 14). Mr. GAD program also brings together men and boys who want to advocate for gender equality on the local and barangay levels (Ramos-Jimenez 2021).

DSWD also conducts the National Family Violence Prevention Program, a community-based initiative that educates families on protecting against violence and using non-violent conflict resolution techniques (DSWD 2016, 5).

Cambodia

Primary prevention of VAW and gender equality have been given significant emphasis in Cambodia's policy documents.

Firstly, the strategy of raising awareness is emphasized in all key documents. Neary Rattanak IV aims to promote public awareness about laws and services related to GBV, while NAPVAW III recommends using mass media campaigns for this purpose. Additionally, overcoming gender stereotypes and promoting positive gender norms are activities highlighted in both Neary Rattanak V and NAPVAW III (Ministry of Women's Affairs 2014a, 42; Ministry of Women's Affairs 2020, 23, Ministry of Women's Affairs 2020a, 15-16, Ministry of Women Affairs 2014, 17).

Concerning prevention in education, the policy gives less attention to it. Partnership with educational institutions to promote gender equality is mentioned in Neary Rattanak V. NAPVAW II requires incorporating modules addressing VAW and sexual education into the school curriculum, but this strategy is not picked up in NAPVAW III (Ministry of Women's Affairs 2020, 33; Ministry of Women Affairs 2014 p13). Instead, attention is given to primary prevention interventions with adolescents and youth in out-of-school settings, which has been a continuing strategy in both NAPVAW II and NAPVAW III (Ministry of Women Affairs 2014, 13, Ministry of Women's Affairs 2020a, 11).

Regarding media, NAPVAW II requires the establishment of a media code of conduct and standard guidelines for professionals in the sector to improve the portrayal of women and reporting on VAW. In turn, NAPVAW III puts emphasis on the promotion of the code of conduct as well as requires training of journalists (Ministry of Women Affairs 2014, 17; Ministry of Women's Affairs 2020a, 17).

Primary interventions focused on positive parenting is another strategy that is mentioned in all key documents, such as Neary Rattanak V, NAPVAW II, and NAPVAW III. In this context, NAPVAW II specifically mentions interventions for positive fatherhood and the prevention of child abuse. NAPVAW III requires an increase of targeted areas and a number of program participants (Ministry of Women's Affairs 2020, 33, Ministry of Women Affairs 2014, 15; Ministry of Women's Affairs 2020a, 12). Along with that, primary prevention aimed at relationships, non-violent conflict resolutions, and marriage counseling has been a priority in policy documents (Ministry of Women Affairs 2014, 15; Ministry of Women's Affairs 2020a, 12).

Another strategy of primary prevention, mentioned in the documents is economic empowerment and livelihood programs for women. Programs, enhancing access to financial

resources, economic independence, and literacy have been encouraged (Ministry of Women's Affairs 2020, 30; Ministry of Women Affairs 2014, 16; Ministry of Women's Affairs 2020a, 13).

Additionally, both NAPs recognize the importance of engaging men in primary prevention programs at all levels, including community, home workplace. NAPVAW II underscored the importance of promoting norms that condemn gang rape among men (Ministry of Women Affairs 2014, 14; Ministry of Women's Affairs 2020a, 15).

Safety in the workplace has also been continuously established as one of the important strategies, which should be free from harassment (Ministry of Women Affairs 2014, 16; Ministry of Women's Affairs 2020a, 13).

Lastly, community-level prevention is planned to be done through religious leaders by promoting religious education and linking social morality to gender equality (Ministry of Women Affairs 2014, 16; Ministry of Women's Affairs 2020a, 17).

Looking at the programs, that were implemented and launched, the first one to stand out is an annual 16-Day Campaign to End Violence against Women, which raises awareness on the topic as well as disseminates information on DV law, referral mechanisms, legal aid, and other services. According to the available news articles, for the first time, the launch was mentioned in 2016 (CEDAW 2019, 10; TPoC Cambodia 2024).

Another awareness-rising activity, implemented by the government, is a public forum 'Safe Village, Safe Commune' conducted between 2013 and 2016. The forum had a goal of dissemination of laws on GBV, including human trafficking (CEDAW 2018, 18). As a part of the project, a new karaoke song on the topic of the world free from violence was written (UNITE Cambodia 2015).

Concerning school-based interventions, MoEYS implemented a life-skill curriculum, including sexual education, gender concepts, human rights gender-based violence. The curriculum was specifically adopted depending on the school year and introduced in all grades starting from the fifth one (Ministry of Women's Affairs 2021, 11). The curriculum also reached out-of-school youth (Ministry of Women's Affairs 2021, 11).

The government made an effort to engage the media in the VAW agenda. In 2017, a Media Code of Conduct was developed, as planned, to guide reporting on VAW. Additionally, an Information and Communication Strategy for primary prevention was created for media organizations. In the same year, a media advisory group, with the leadership from MoWa and MoINFO, as well as the involvement of the Club of Cambodian Journalists was launched to improve VAW media coverage (Ministry of Women's Affairs 2021, 10).

Good Man Campaign has been existing since 2011 under the leadership of MoWa, uniting boys and men in an attempt to transform norms and attitudes (Ministry of Women's Affairs 2021, 10).

Another significant route of Cambodia's prevention activities is a Positive Parenting Strategy, which was implemented between 2016 and 2021, focusing among others on the prevention of child marriage and teen pregnancy (Ministry of Women's Affairs 2020, 3).

Apart from that, under collaboration between UNFPA, UN Women, Partners for Prevention, and MoWa, a prevention program "Shaping Our Future: Developing Healthy and Happy Relationships" was conducted from 2016 to 2017, which was set up for young adults and caregivers to learn about non-violent relationships, supportive environment at home, mental health and so on (UNICEF 2020, 15; Partners for Prevention 2018, 2).

The last strategy in prevention is intervention focused on alcohol misuse. In 2016, the government piloted the Commune Alcohol Notification System, which establishes boundaries for the consumption, sale, and promotion of alcohol at the community level (Ministry of Women's Affairs 2021, 12; The Phnom Penh Post. 2017).

4.4. Protection

4.4.1. Comprehensive and Integrated Support Services

The Philippines

In the case of the Philippines, Republic Act 9262 requires the DSWD and LGUs to provide victims with access to temporary shelter, counseling, psychological, and rehabilitation services (National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women, 21). The admission to the service of not only women but also their children is recognized by the Rules and Regulations of RA9262 (National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women 2004, 52).

In addition, NAPVAW II necessitates the establishment of WFS, a special premises for VAWC victims in evacuation centers to receive knowledge and services, operated by DSWD (IACVAWC 2018, 30; IACVAWC n.d.(a), 31). WFS serves victims of trafficking as well as IPV and DV of various types (IACVAWC 2018, 30). The number of such facilities reached 23, located in Regions 6, 7, and 8 in 2014 and 2015 (IACVAWC 2018, 30). During this period, around 36,579 women have used the services of WFS (IACVAWC 2018, 30).

Looking at other numbers, DSWD has successfully established a number of facilities, called DSWD Centers and Residential Care Facilities. A part of them is reserved for women and girls, who are victims of abuse and other difficult circumstances (DSWD 2020(a), 14). A total of 25 facilities around the country as provided in the Table below:

Table 21. Shelters and target clientele by region in the Philippines.

Region	Name	Target Clientele
NCR	Marillac Hills – National Training School for Girls (NTSG)	Girls aged 7 to 17 years old
NCR	Haven for Women	Women aged 18 to 59 years old with dependents under 7 years old
CAR	Regional Haven for Women and Girls (RHWG)	Girls aged 7 to 17 years old and women aged 18 to 59 years old
Region I	Haven for Women	Women aged 18 to 59 years old with dependents
Region I	Home for Girls	Girls aged 18 and younger
Region II	Regional Haven for Women and Girls (RHWG)	no information available
Region III	DSWD Haven for Girls - Pampanga	no information available
Region III	Tarlac Home for Women	no information available
Region III	DSWD Regional Home for Girls - Nueva Ecija	Girls aged 18 and younger
Region IV - A	Regional Haven for Women and Girls	Women aged 13 to 59 years old
Region V	Haven for Women and Girls (HWG)	no information available
Region VI	DSWD Home for Girls	Girls aged 18 and younger
Region VI	Regional Center for Women (RCW)	no information available
Region VII	Home for Girls	no information available
Region VII	DSWD Regional Haven (Haven for Women)	no information available
Region VIII	Home for Girls	no information available
Region VIII	Regional Haven for Women (RHW)	no information available
Region IX	Balay Dangpanan sa Kabataan (BDSK)- Home for Girls	no information available
Region IX	Home for Women	no information available
Region X	Home for Girls	no information available
Region X	Regional Haven for Women	no information available
Region XI	Home for Girls and Women	no information available
Region XII	Home for Girls and Women	no information available
CARAGA	Home for Girls	no information available

sources: DSWD 2024; DSWD 2020; DSWD 2020(a); DSWD 2023.

As can be seen, all regions apart from Bangsamoro Autonomous Region in Muslim Mindanao and Region IV-B Mimaropa, have at least one center catering to victims VAW. In all regions apart from CARAGA in the Philippines, there is either at least one facility created to accept both women and girls, or there are two separate facilities—one for women and one for girls.

Although the network of shelters is quite developed, the total number of facilities does not reach the minimum standard set by the international human rights framework. As established, there should be one shelter per 10,000 population, which for the Philippines would amount to about 10,903 shelters for a population of 109,033,245 as of 2020 (PSA 2022).

It should be noted that the shelters also provide psychological services, including group and individual counseling, as part of their program. Therefore, according to this standard, it is also possible to apply the rule for counseling centers, which should be established at a rate of one per 50,000 women. According to the 2020 Census of Population and Housing, there were 53,726,452 women in the Philippines, which implies the need for 1,075 counseling centers instead of the existing 25 (PSA 2022). Apart from counseling and temporary shelters, the facilities provide psychological rehabilitation, medical care, skills development, etc. (DSWD 2024).

In case other professionals are required, which are not available at the premises, the victims are to be referred to external services (DSWD 2020, 45).

Based on the available information, facilities focused on girls typically accept those aged 18 years old and below, while facilities for adult women generally accept female survivors aged 18 to 59 years old who have dependents aged below 7 years old.

The bed capacity varies. For example, Marillac Hills facility, located in NCR can accommodate 215 to 250 girls, whereas Haven for Women, located in the same region has a capacity of 90 beds (DSWD 2020(a), 14; DSWD 2020, 15). Unfortunately, this information could not be found for all of the shelters.

Such facilities typically accept victims of sexual abuse, including rape, incest, as well as domestic or interpersonal violence, and exploitation; some of them also accept victims of trafficking (DSWD 2020, 4; DSWD 2023).

The manuals of operation of the facilities don't explicitly state that the services provided are free but based on the mandate of the DSWD to provide social welfare services to the vulnerable groups of the population, it can be assumed, that the victims are not charged for the stay (DSWD 2010).

In regard to the length of stay, the manual of operation for the Haven – National Center for Women located in the NCR region, can usually accommodate women in need for six months to a year (DSWD 2020(a), 22).

Considering the number of women accommodated by DSWD shelters, the following data was presented for the years 2018-2021, excluding 2020:

Table 22. Number of Women and Girls Accommodated by DSWD, 2018-2021.

Year	Number of women who have experienced abuse (sexual, physical, emotional, psychological) and trafficking, accommodated by DSWD	Number of girls, who have experienced sexual abuse, neglect, trafficking, accommodated by DSWD	Total
2018	237	1415	1652
2019	910	1252	2162
2021	543	810	1353

sources: Philippine Statistics Authority. n.d.; Philippine Statistics Authority. n.d(a); Philippine Statistics Authority. n.d(b);

Even though there is no data on the number of women, who could not use the services of DSWD or are still on the waiting list, based on the total number of women served annually by DSWD shelters and the average bed capacity of 90 to 250 per facility, it seems these shelters were not fully utilized. Moreover, considering the much higher reported rates of violence against women collected by the PNP, mentioned in Tables 24 and 25, it raises concerns about the accessibility of DSWD services and awareness of the victims of their availability.

Another service provided by the government is a hotline for VAW cases. Firstly, the 911 national emergency hotline assists VAWC survivors and provides service toll-free, around the clock and can be accessed nationwide. Secondly, the website of the Philippine Commission on Women provides an extensive list of hotlines for each of the 17 regions. The list includes the contact numbers of responsible police stations in each municipality within the region. It is

not indicated if the services are free and available 24/7 (Asia Foundation, 2021; Philippine Commission on Women. 2021).

Cambodia

The situation in Cambodia regarding the provision of services such as shelters and other support for women who have experienced VAW remains poor.

It can be evident in the policy documents. Only Neary Rattanak III 2009-2013 includes a provision on access to various services by victims of GBV, human trafficking, rape etc. The document requires to increase the number of safe shelters (Ministry of Women's Affairs 2009, 26).

The need for a hotline was first outlined in NAPVAW II as a form of communication within CRM, a multi-sectoral response mechanism to support survivors of violence (Ministry of Women Affairs 2014, 25). The next NAPVAW III calls for the creation of a directory of existing hotlines and other services for victims of GBV (gender-based violence) (Ministry of Women's Affairs. 2020a, 30). Apart from this, no provisions were included regarding the expansion of network of service provision to VAW survivors have been included in the policy.

This is directly reflected in the accessibility of these resources in the country.

When it comes to hotlines, there was only one news article reporting the establishment of such a service in 2022. The number for Cambodia's new Anti-Human Trafficking and Juvenile Protection Office Hotline is 1288. Additionally, there is a hotline for victims of VAW operated by the NGO M'lop Tabang. There is no information regarding if the service is free and available 24/7 (UNICEF 2020, 14; UNODC 2022).

Currently, there are three shelters, run by an NGO, called the Cambodian Women's Crisis Center (CWCC) (Hyun 2019, 26; GAATW n.d.). The shelters are located in Phnom Penh, Siem Reap, and Banteay Meanchey. Not to mention that there are only three shelters in total, the two of them are located in urban areas, Phnom Penh and Siem Reap (CWCC, n.d(a)). This indicates that such services are entirely unavailable in rural areas. The shelters can accommodate from 50 to 100, with the one in Banteay Meanchey being the largest one (CWCC, n.d(a)). The shelters accept women and their children, with the length of stay ranging from 1 month to 3 months. However, boys over 10 years old are not accommodated (UNICEF 2020, 14; CWCC, n.d(a)).

Regarding victims of trafficking, several NGOs provide specialized shelters for such cases, with their number reaching up to 20 around the country (Hyun 2019, 19).

It is evident that there is a discrepancy in meeting the minimum requirements for shelters according to international human rights law. Ideally, in Cambodia, there should be a minimum of 1,677 shelters given the population of 16.77 million as of 2022 (WHO n.d.).

The rest of the indicators on shelters regarding bed capacity and a number of women on the waiting lists could not be found.

4.4.2. Health Sector

The Philippines

In the Philippines, several policy documents dictate the development of the health care system, including the VAW response.

One of the key documents is the National Objectives for Health Philippines 2023-2028, issued in 2023. It outlines the country's health sector strategy and mentions eight overarching agendas (Department of Health 2023, 3). The fifth agenda, *Disease Prevention and Health Promotion*, refers to the *Health Promotion Framework Strategy 2030* and integrates seven priority areas mentioned in that strategy (Department of Health 2023, 65). The seventh priority Area strives to eliminate and prevent a number of forms of violence and injuries, including gender-based violence (Department of Health 2023, 69). The document lists a number of specific actions for this priority but doesn't include any indicators concerning the elimination or prevention of VAW in the implementation matrix (Department of Health 2023, 69; 71-74).

Taking a closer look at the *Health Promotion Framework Strategy 2030*, it is evident that the document includes the strategy of elimination of violence as a part of indicators in several key priorities, but in a gender-neutral form: Substance Use, Sexual and Reproductive Health and Violence and Injury Prevention (Department of Health 2024, 28; 36; 38).

Moreover, gender-based violence is also included in Gender and Development Sectoral Agenda 2024-2028 as a part of three pieces of agenda (Department of Health 2024a, 35; 36; 40):

1. Safe, high-quality, and people-centered health services
2. Technology for efficient health service delivery (Collection of sex-disaggregated data)
3. Disease prevention and health promotion

Relevant indicators tracking progress in protecting women from violence are included in the plan (Department of Health 2024a, 63; 70).

Having discussed VAW in the healthcare policy of the Philippines, it is essential to consider whether the DOH has a dedicated focal point for VAW. Although there is no specific policy or act establishing a VAW focal point, the government continues to develop its GAD policy, which includes the creation of a GAD Focal Point System in all government departments in accordance with the Magna Carta of Women (Office Of The President, Philippine Commission On Women. 2011, 1). This initiative aims to strengthen gender mainstreaming within the government and, based on the scope of the Magna Carta of Women, it also includes VAW. The government of the Philippines has not produced any national protocols or guidelines in the healthcare sector solely dedicated to VAW but has incorporated VAW into other guidelines. For instance, the Philippine Clinical Standards Manual on Family Planning has a chapter on contraception for victims of violence, which indicates the need to provide levonorgestrel (LNG) and Yuzpe methods in case of unprotected sex, along with mandatory follow-up consultations (Department of Health 2014, 232).

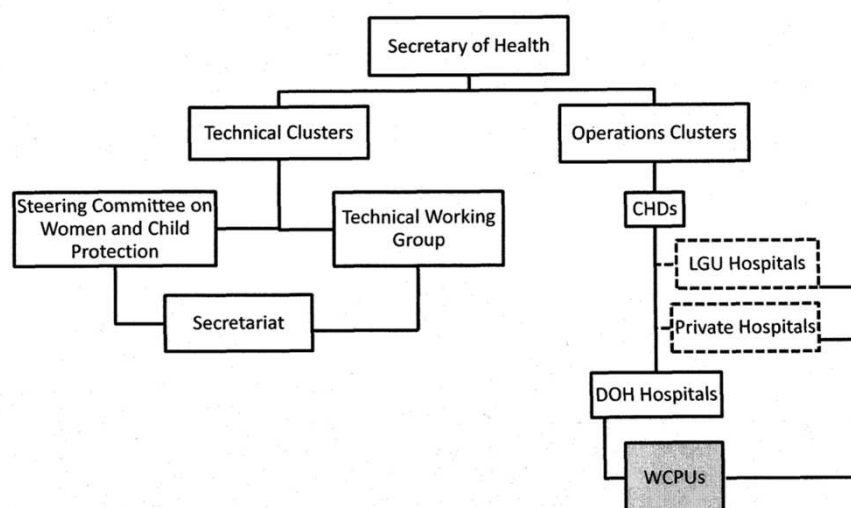
Another document, the Manual for Medical Social Workers provides information on the referral system in DOH-hospitals for victims of VAW and describes the vital role of a Medical Social Worker in such situations (Department of Health 2010, 307). The referral pathway is described for both a hospital, equipped with WCPU and without one (Department of Health 2010, 204; 330).

The Manual of Standards and Guidelines on the Management of the Hospital Emergency Department incorporates a guide on special situations, which in turn implies cases of VAW. Such cases are managed by WCPUs or in case there is no such unit in the hospital, the trained WCPU coordinator must be there to refer the patient to a WCPU (Department of Health, Health

Facility Development Bureau 2022, 100). The manual explains the procedure once a client is admitted to the hospital, one of the first things to be done is to talk to them and determine if it is a VAW case. The document does not specify what kind of screening is done: universal, routine or selective (Department of Health 2022, 103). Under the minimum requirement of services, provided in WCPU privacy during the interview and confidentiality of information are included (Department of Health 2022, 100).

WCPUs have been established as an integral part of the hospital in 1997 by the issuance of the Administrative Order 1-B designated as "Establishment of a Women and Children Protection Unit in All Department of Health (DOH) Hospitals" (Department of Health 2013, 1). Figure below depicts the organizational structure of WCPU (Department of Health 2013, 17).

Figure 18. Organizational Structure of Women and Child Protection mechanism in the Philippines.



Source: Department of Health 2013, 17

The Revised Policy on the Establishment of WCPU provides a manual of operation, which requires the availability of a rape kit and medicines for STI prophylaxis (Department of Health 2013, 12). The staff is trained according to the principle of 4R (Recognition, Reporting, Recording, and Referral) (Department of Health 2013, 13). The document doesn't specify if reporting of the VAW incident is mandatory, but the Manual for Medical Social Workers indicates that a MSW must report in within 48 hours to the Local Social Welfare Office, DSWD, PNP Women's Desk, and Barangay (Department of Health 2010, 311).

Regarding process indicators, the majority of them could not be found due to the limited scope of available statistics in the healthcare sector concerning VAW. GAD Sectoral Agenda provides a number of reported abuse cases at WCPU, which amounted to 12,543 women and 16,966 children in 2021 without specifying the services that have been provided (Department of Health 2024a, 64).

It is also possible to analyze the availability of WCPUs across the country.

There is conflicting information regarding the number of WCPUs in the country: according to the NGO Child Protection Network, there are currently 105 WCPUs, while the Philippines' report to CEDAW from 2021 states the number is 115 (CEDAW 2021, 7).

Below is the table listing the number of WCPUs located in each region, according to the Child Protection Network:

Table 23. Distribution of WCPUs in the Philippines by region and corresponding population.

Region	WCPUs	Population
Cordillera Autonomous Region (CAR)	3	1,797,660
Region I - Ilocos Region	3	5,301,139
Region II - Cagayan Valley	3	3,685,744
Region III - Central Luzon	4	12,422,172
Region IVA - CALABARZON	4	16,195,042
Region IVB - MIMAROPA	5	3,228,558
Region V - Bicol Region	9	6,082,165
Region VI - Western Visayas	9	7,954,723
Region VII - Central Visayas	5	8,081,988
Region VIII - Eastern Visayas	1	4,547,150
Region IX - Zamboanga Peninsula	5	3,875,576
Region X - Northern Mindanao	4	5,022,768
Region XI - Davao Region	4	5,243,536
Region XII - SOCCSKSARGEN	4	4,360,974
Region XIII - CARAGA	5	2,804,788
Bangsamoro Autonomous Region in Muslim Mindanao (BARMM)	3	4,944,800
National Capital Region (NCR)	24	13,484,462

source: Child Protection Network 2022; PSA 2022;

It is evident, that out of 17 regions in the country, each has at least one WCPU. However, it is worth noting that the distribution of WCPUs across regions is not entirely fair. While NCR having more facilities makes sense due to its size, it also shows that population size doesn't always correlate with the number of OSSCs.

Moreover, according to various sources, WCPUs are predominantly established at DOH-managed hospitals, with few to none located at LGU-managed hospitals (IACVAWC 2018, 23; CEDAW 2023, 12). As of 2019, slightly more than 10% of 721 public hospitals are managed by the DOH, while the majority fall under the responsibility of LGUs (Cabrera 2019). This could be a reason for their limited availability and uneven distribution.

Cambodia

In Cambodia's health policy documents, VAW is mentioned in several contexts.

The first ever Health Sector Strategic Plan of Cambodia 2003-2007 only once mentions “gender issues” in terms of quality standards of service delivery (Ministry of Health 2002, 6). The next Health Strategic Plan 2008-2015 incorporates gender-based violence as one of the health sector's challenges, categorizing it under non-communicable diseases. The plan identifies

the reduction of morbidity of violence, in a gender-neutral way, as one of the objectives of the plan (Department of Planning and Health Information, Ministry of Health 2008, 29).

The latest plan Health Strategic Plan 2016-2020 only once mentions the goal of reduction of injuries and disabilities caused by violence (Department of Planning and Health Information 2016, 72). Thus, VAW as a phenomenon is not mentioned at all. A draft of an updated Health strategic plan for 2021-2030 was developed, but the finalized version is still not available (WHO, n.d.).

Another relevant document, the National Multisectoral Action Plan for the Prevention And Control of Noncommunicable Diseases 2018-2027 only briefly mentions domestic violence as a possible consequence of alcohol use (Ministry of Health 2018, 5). Gender Mainstreaming in Health Sector: Policy and Strategic Plan 2020-2024 describes physical, emotional, and sexual violence as one of the remaining problems in the sector, and integrates special outcome indicators to measure the progress and proportion of women and children still being the target of VAW, as well as list a number of activities to achieve better outcomes, such as prevention of human trafficking, training on VAW and intensification of VAW response in health care (The Gender Mainstreaming Action Group 2020, 8; 11; 17). The gender mainstreaming plan was created by a GMAG of the ministry, which is responsible for monitoring and implementation of gender equality policy, including VAW (Ministry of Women's Affairs 2009, 16; Ministry of Women's Affairs 2018, 18). The legal document, establishing the GMAG could not be found. There is no separate focal point on VAW in the ministry.

Regarding national guidelines, the government with the help of the development partners has issued two documents: A Clinical Handbook For Managing Health Care For Women Subjected To Intimate Partner Violence Or Sexual Violence as well as National Guidelines for Managing Violence against Women and Children in the Health System. These documents define a variety of matters related to VAW. A Clinical Handbook indicates that reporting is only mandatory if the local law decides so, in which case a healthcare worker is obliged to report a VAW incident (MoH, MoWA, UNFPA 2016, 50). Otherwise, if the woman decides not to report, the worker should respect it (MoH, MoWA, UNFPA 2016, 50). The Guidelines don't provide any information on this, but list a number of agencies, to which the case can be reported, and the victim can be referred to for legal intervention and assistance (Ministry of Health 2014, 17). Privacy and confidentiality should be respected at all times according to the documents, which provide further details (Ministry of Health 2014, 19; MoH, MoWA, UNFPA 2016, 13).

The policy documents also include information regarding screening, advising against the universal one in favor of selective one, when a person has specific signs (Ministry of Health 2014, 6; MoH, MoWA, UNFPA 2016, 19). The guidelines on the provision of emergency contraception, HIV post-exposure prophylaxis, and sexually transmitted infection prophylaxis are also provided (Ministry of Health 2014, 88; MoH, MoWA, UNFPA 2016, 14). Access to safe abortion is not explicitly mentioned, but specified, that in this case the victim should be sent to "an abortion site" (Ministry of Health 2014, 82). The concept of first-line support is covered in both documents and broken down into five tasks: Listen, Inquire about needs and concerns, Validate feelings, Enhance Safety and Support the victim (Ministry of Health 2014, 9; MoH, MoWA, UNFPA 2016, 26).

OSCC is one of the most important mechanisms of health care response, even though it is still in development. The need to establish multi-service facilities in hospitals, otherwise known as OSCC is mentioned in the gender mainstreaming plan of the health sector as well as in NAPVAW III (GMAG of the Ministry of Health 2020, 17).

According to the NAPVAW III, there were two OSSC piloted in hospitals in the provinces Kampong Cham and Stung Treng (Ministry of Women's Affairs 2020, 4). In these two provinces, as well as in Tbong Khmum and Preah Vihear, 312 victims of VAW received services at health facilities, as reported by international organizations. Of these, 134 rape victims were given forensic examinations (UNDP, UNFPA and UN Women 2021, 17).

Other process indicators that could provide an understanding of the government's response to VAW in health care are not available.

4.4.3. Police units and specialized courts

The Philippines

The Philippines has devoted significant attention to developing an adequate response in the area of police and justice. Firstly, Republic Act 9710 stipulates that more women should be recruited and trained for the police force, as well as forensic, legal, and judicial services, with the aim to have personnel composed of up to 50% women (Philippine Commission on Women 2010, 10, Philippine Commission on Women 2010, 48).

As of 2022, there were more female judges than male judges in the Philippines, both in ranging from trial courts to the Supreme Court. Specifically, there are 1,153 female judges compared to 984 male judges (Panaligan 2022).

According to the Philippines' latest periodic report to CEDAW, the PNP has increased the quota for female recruits who serve not only in the police force but also in forensics and legal services (CEDAW 2023, 12). The latest available information from 2009 states that Women and Children Protection Desks (WCPD), which is a form of women police station in the Philippines, were staffed by 2,728 female police officers at that time (Immigration and Refugee Board of Canada 2010). WPCD desks are local-level, “quick-response” units found in police stations across different administrative regions (Salem 2024, 75).

The establishment of WCPD was promulgated in 1998 by Section 57 of Republic Act No. 8551 to combat and handle VAWC cases including sexual harassment, abuses against women and children etc. (Republic of the Philippines, Congress of the Philippines, Tenth Congress 1998, Section 57). Section 58 of the Act mandates that recruitment of women shall be prioritized (Republic of the Philippines, Congress of the Philippines, Tenth Congress 1998, Section 58). As of the 2023 periodic report, 1,907 WCPDs have been located in all police stations (CEDAW 2023, 12).

Women and Children Protection Center is a higher-level specialized unit of PNP, focused on more serious cases involving children and women, acting through investigations, operations, surveillance, rescue, advocacy, and coordination with other agencies (Women and Children Protection Center, Philippine National Police. n.d). Statistics from 2019 indicate that 80% of new hires were women. Additionally, data from 2021 shows that the total personnel of WCPC was 264 people, with women making up 54% (CEDAW 2023, 12).

Additionally, the Implementing Rules and Regulations of RA9262 briefly mention the need to appoint and train special prosecutors for VAW cases (National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women 2004, 79).

Information on the establishment of specialized prosecution units is scarce. According to a 2008 report by the PNP, the Department of Justice has established two key task forces: the Task Force on Women and Children Protection (TF-WCP) and the Anti-Trafficking Task Forces (ATTF). These task forces are responsible for the initial investigation and prosecution of respective cases, the latter also operates in coordination with law enforcement units (National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women 2008, 4; CEDAW 2023, 14). TF-WCP is composed of state prosecutors and was initially established in Manila. As of the latest information, this task force has not been created at the regional, provincial, or city levels (Guanzon 2008, 21; Immigration and Refugee Board of Canada 2010).

The scarcity of information on the TF-WCP suggests that its scope of operation has not been expanded. In contrast, the ATTF consists of 24 units coordinated by the IACAT, with some units located at the key border points in the country (CEDAW 2023, 14).

Examining reporting rates and related statistics can contribute to the understanding of the responsiveness and reach of these response and support mechanisms.

Table 24. Annual Data on VAW, 2011-2015 as reported to PNP.

<i>Cases</i>	<i>2011</i>	<i>2012</i>	<i>2013</i>	<i>2014</i>	<i>2015</i>
Rape	832	1 030	1 259	2 010	1 986
Incestuous Rape	23	33	26	36	33
Attempted Rape	201	256	317	635	677
Acts of Lasciviousness	625	721	1 035	1 871	1 928
Sexual Harassment	63	41	196	103	88
RA 9262	9 021	11 531	16 517	31 937	28 892
Concubinage	128	146	199	349	341
Total	10 893	13 758	19 549	36 941	33 945

Source: Philippine National Police-Women and Children Protection Centre (PNP-WCPC)

source: CEDAW 2016, 8

Table 25. Annual Data on VAW, 2017-2021 as reported to PNP.

<i>Cases</i>	<i>2017</i>	<i>2018</i>	<i>2019</i>	<i>2020</i>	<i>2021</i>	<i>Total</i>
Anti-Violence against Women and their Children (VAWC) Act of 2004	21 431	16 082	15 605	11 162	8 430	72 710
Anti-Rape Law of 1997	2 604	2 497	2 588	2 110	2 056	11 855
Acts of Lasciviousness	2 029	1 978	2 041	1 547	1 509	9 104
Concubinage	237	205	212	136	141	931
Anti-TIP Act	31	39	28	39	51	188
Anti-Sexual Harassment	100	74	98	58	71	401
Anti-Photo and Video Voyeurism	62	93	87	115	111	468
Safe Spaces Act (SSA)	0	0	19	66	155	240
TOTAL	26 494	20 968	20 678	15 233	12 524	95 897

Source: PNP

source: (CEDAW 2023, 7)

The tables above present data on incidents of VAW from 2011 to 2021, with the majority of cases attributed to violations of RA 9262. The reporting rates for VAW cases in the Philippines showed a significant increase from 2011 to 2014, followed by a downward trend in subsequent years. The decrease in reported cases in 2020 and 2021 may be influenced by the COVID-19 pandemic, which could impact reporting behaviors due to lockdowns, restricted movement, and limited access to support services.

The table below illustrates the statistics from the judiciary:

Table 26. Case dispositions in trial courts, 2016-2021.

Year	Court Disposition	RA9262	Rape	Sexual Harassment Cases	Trafficking in Persons
2014	Total	6,263	6,059	148	55
2016	Conviction	383	780	-	55
	Dismissal	2,429	1,674	-	50
	Acquittal	87	168	-	25
	Archival	1,182	1,379	-	28
	Successfully Mediated Cases	289	132	-	-
	Total	4,370	4,133	-	158
2017	Conviction	703	1,769	-	39
	Dismissal	3,826	2,495	-	153
	Acquittal	325	373	-	45
	Archival	1,779	1,923	-	56
	Successfully Mediated Cases	783	282	-	5
	Total	7,416	6,842	-	298
2018	Conviction	813	2583	-	113
	Dismissal	4199	2844	-	107
	Acquittal	323	675	-	28
	Archival	1600	1820	-	68
	Successfully Mediated Cases	765	452	-	10
	Total	7,700	8,374	-	326
2019	Conviction	2,780	26,002	-	3,296
	Dismissal	4,264	40,077	-	5,669
	Acquittal	609	5,002	-	594
	Archival	1,810	24,419	-	3,705
	Successfully Mediated Cases	548	12,072	-	541
	Total	10,001	107,572	-	13,805
2020	Conviction	2,082	45,033	-	2,189
	Dismissal	2,581	33,795	-	3,347
	Acquittal	447	4,834	-	418
	Archival	1,585	10,727	-	1,603
	Successfully Mediated Cases	324	25,224	-	371
	Total	7,019	119,613	-	7,928
2021	Resolved	11,352	10,805	-	55,468
	Pending	1,348	1,640	-	7,155
	Information Filed in Court	7,213	10,217	-	417
	Total	12,700	12,445	-	62,623

source: collected from Department of Justice National Prosecution Service Statistics on Rape, RA 9262, and Trafficking in Persons CY 2021, n.d; CEDAW 2016, 4; CEDAW 2023, 13.

Combined data from different sources show a slight discrepancy, probably due to differences in the criteria selection and types of cases included. Nevertheless, it is clear that the total number of cases handled is increasing, indicating that more cases are being processed in the criminal justice system. Noticeably, the number of convictions in relation to the total number of cases disposed of has also increased. For VAW cases, the conviction rate has increased from 8.77% in 2016 to 29.66% in 2020. For rape cases, the conviction rate increased from 18.87% to 37.64%. In contrast, the conviction rate for human trafficking cases remained at about one-third of the total number of cases processed, declining slightly from 34.81% in 2016 to 27.61% in 2020.

The acquittal to overall disposal rate remained low, while the dismissal rate compared to overall disposal was quite high throughout the years for VAW and rape cases, as can be seen in Table 26. However, the dismissal rate for VAW cases fell from 55.59% in 2016 to 36.78% in 2020, and for rape cases, it decreased from 40.53% to 28.25% over the same period. For trafficking in persons, the dismissal rate was 31.65% in 2016, fluctuated throughout the years, and reached 42.21% in 2020. The problem of high dismissal rates was raised by Filipino congressional senators already back in 2005.

Unfortunately, there is no specific information as to how many victims initiate legal action in proportion to reported cases, even though the Philippines have provided the number of processed cases by the Public Attorney's Office, which provides free legal assistance, but it can be received by a victim and perpetrator both, so it is not indicative in this case (CEDAW 2023, 13).

The last indicator, the proportion of crimes reported to the police as a proportion of total crimes as recorded in the population survey is not included in the NDHS of the Philippines and a manual comparison is not suitable because the 27,821 women interviewed are a sample of the population (NDHS 2023, 7).

Cambodia

While Cambodia has yet to establish Women's Police Stations or specialized courts for violence against women, there have been attempts to improve the response to VAW (UNICEF East Asia and the Pacific Regional Office 2020, 12-13).

The NAPVAW II is the only document that mentions a task for the Ministry of Interior and the Cambodian National Police to increase the number of female police officers (Ministry of Women Affairs 2014, 22). The exact number of women in the Cambodian police force is not disclosed, but reports indicate that in 2019, the proportion of female police officers reached 8%, compared to about 2% in 2007 (INTERPOL, UN Women, UNODC 2020, 8; UN Women 2024). As of 2024, the figure is estimated at 10% (UN Women 2024). It is reported that MOI ensures that female police officers have sufficient capacity and makes sure they are assigned to handle cases of violence against women (Hyun 2019, 19).

The 2005 DV Law of Cambodia has stipulated the establishment of judiciary police (GTZ-Promotion of Women's Rights, n.d., Article 10). According to the law, the officials of the Ministry of Women's Affairs can receive a legal qualification to become a member of the judiciary police (GTZ-Promotion of Women's Rights, n.d., Article 10). JPO can intervene to prevent domestic violence and officially report an offense to the authorities, initiating legal action within the judicial system (GTZ-Promotion of Women's Rights, n.d., Article 10-11). JPO serves as a complaint on behalf of the victim, assists victims in seeking justice within the legal system, ensuring that their cases proceed further, and requests protection orders (CCPR 2015, 5; CEDAW 2018, 8; CEDAW 2013, 7).

Several policy documents, such as Neary Rattanak IV and the latest NAP 2019-2023, mention increasing the number and capacity of JPOs as one of the priorities (Ministry of Women's Affairs 2014a, 43; Ministry of Women's Affairs 2020a, 25).

The country has consistently reported an increase in the number of Judicial Police Officers (JPOs) trained for service, with a strong focus on women. The latest available data for 2014 shows 141 trained JPOs, with plans to increase this number to 525 by 2018 (Ministry of

Women's Affairs 2020, 5; Ministry of Women's Affairs 2014a, 43; CEDAW 2018, 8; CCPR 2015, 5).

The focus of the policy concerning justice response is the increase of female servants in all professions, including judges, prosecutors, and lawyers, by 3% to 7%, as highlighted in the latest Rattanak as well as Gender Mainstreaming Action Plan of the Ministry of Justice (GMAG of the Ministry of Justice 2009, 14; Ministry of Women's Affairs 2020, 38). The most recent data for 2003 and 2008 show that in 2003, 171 of Cambodia's 1,187 justice sector personnel, including all courts at all levels and the Ministry, were women (GMAG of the Ministry of Justice 2009, 6). By 2008, this number had risen to 201 women out of 1,189 staff. The highest proportion of women were court clerks, and the lowest proportion were presidents and judges (GMAG of the Ministry of Justice 2009, 7).

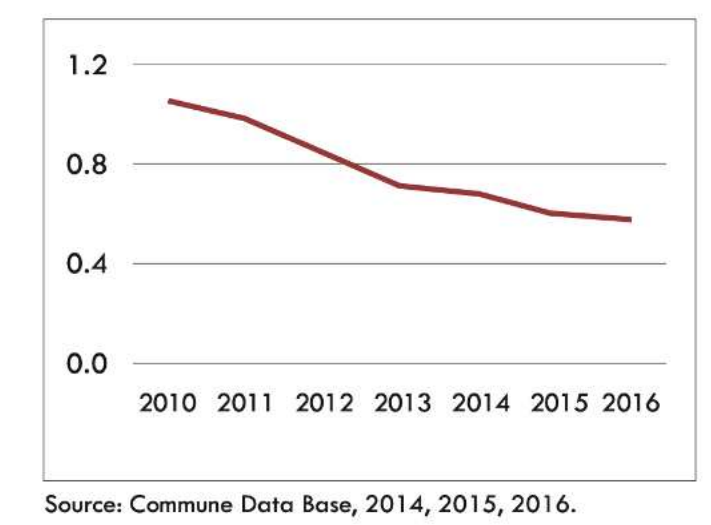
Information concerning the rest of the process indicators is hard to obtain. Various sources confirm that justice data is non-existent, and there are no national-level prevalence numbers for trafficking and VAW cases (Hyun 2019, 10; Human Rights Now 2011, 39). The latest available information comes from the Commune Database online, which records cases of domestic violence reported to local authorities. However, this data is neither substantial nor nationally representative (UNICEF 2020, 10).

Table 27. Cases of domestic violence and trafficking as reported to local authorities, 2008-2010.

Indicator	2008	2009	2010
Number of families having domestic violence	38808	34179	33108
Proportion of families facing domestic violence	1,56%	1,51%	1,26%
Domestic violence reported by village chiefs, cases	23014	21156	18582
Number of administrative decisions on domestic violence	13360	13502	11682
Proportion of administrative decisions on domestic violence	59,71%	57,72%	59,24%
Number of human trafficking victims	111	150	145

source: Data collected from various regions and calculated for analysis using CBDonline, n.d(a).

Figure 19. The trend of families having domestic violence, 2010-2016.



source: National Institute of Statistics, Ministry of Planning 2018, 51.

The figure and table above show that the tendency to report domestic violence is decreasing and that the proportion of families experiencing this issue is low and declining. This trend could mean either that fewer people are reporting cases, indicating a potential problem in the system, or that violence against women is decreasing, as suggested by statistics collected by MWA and CDHS (Human Rights Now 2011, 10). However, independent attempts by NGOs to collect data have negated the latter argument (Human Rights Now 2011, 10).

In terms of convictions, the number of rape and sexual assault cases with final verdicts increased twofold between 2010 and 2011. In 2010, there were 468 new cases with 59 convictions and 18 acquittals. By 2011, that number had increased to 456 new cases, with 130 convictions and 18 acquittals (Kingdom of Cambodia 2013, 12). However, it must be recognized that while the available data shows a positive trend, the lack of more recent information limits the ability to understand the current status and trajectory of efforts to address violence against women within the justice system.

4.4.4. Protection orders

The Philippines

Protection orders in the Philippines, as outlined in RA 9262, are primarily intended to address forms of VAW established by the law, including IPV, as specified in Sec. 3 (National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women 2004, 12). The eligibility criteria for these orders, excluding certain individuals such as parents or cohabitants, are also defined within the initial sections of the legislation.

Under the law, there are three types of protection orders available: the barangay protection order (BPO), temporary protection order (TPO), and permanent protection order (PPO), as stipulated in Section 8.

The absence of provisions for a mutual protection order in the law aligns with human rights frameworks, as mutual protection orders are not typically recommended within such frameworks.

BPO is issued by the Punong Barangay according to Sec. 14. Punong Barangay is the local chief executive exercising the basic duty of executing laws and ordinances applicable in the barangay, which is the smallest administrative division in the Philippines. The order should be granted on the day of application *ex parte* and is valid for 15 days.

As stated in Sec. 15 of RA9262, the TPO is a type of PO issued by the family court on the date of application and has a validity period of 30 days. If the hearing for a PPO cannot be held in time, the TPO can be extended. The PPO, on the other hand, is issued by the court after notice and hearing.

Sec. 11 of the Act states that applications for a PO must be made in writing, signed, and certified by the applicant under oath. It does not, therefore, specify that any particular evidence must be produced at the time of the application. However, Sec. 16 provides that the court will make a decision on the basis of the evidence presented at trial. The types of evidence that may be taken into account are not expressly set out in the Act. Sec. 9 of the law outlines who can file a petition for a protection order on behalf of the victim.

Sec. 8 of the Act provides that even if the victim has already received a BPO, this should not prevent the court from issuing a TRO or PPO.

The same section of the Act defines the relief granted by a PO. First, the perpetrator is required to stay away from the applicant and certain family or household members and certain places such as home, school, or work if ordered to do so by the court. §A and §B prohibit the offender from contacting the victim and causing or threatening further violence. §G orders that part of the perpetrator's salary or income be withheld for the benefit of the victim. With regard to custody of the child, §F provides that the victim shall be awarded temporary or permanent custody of the child. §H prohibits the use and possession of a weapon.

The law does not include a provision mandating the electronic monitoring of the movements of the defendant or offender.

Sec. 21 of the law specifies that the violation of a PO constitutes a criminal offense. The penalties for violating a BPO include imprisonment for 30 days. Violation of a TPO or a PPO falls under Rule 71 of the Rules of Court, with penalties ranging from a fine of 200 to 3000 pesos (approximately 34 to 510 US dollars) or imprisonment for a period of 10 days to 6 months or both (Rules of Court in the Philippines 1964, Sec. 1.).

In addition to a protection order under Republic Act 9262, individuals have the option to apply for a protection order under Republic Act 11313, which addresses sexual harassment. While the law does not offer extensive details on the procedure, Sec. 27 allows the court to issue a restraining order before reaching a decision on the sexual harassment case. This order prevents the perpetrator from approaching the victim or visiting specified locations (Republic of the Philippines, Congress of the Philippines. 2018, Sec. 27).

To understand how well policies are being implemented, it's important to look at the issuance of protection orders. Current data for the Philippines is scarce, with the latest information available from 2008. In that year, 236 BPOs were issued out of a total of 1,709 cases reported, which makes up about 13%. This data covers only regions 3, 8, 9, 11, and NCR. In 2007, BPOs covered 17% of cases, displaying a decline in POs (CRC 2009, 35). There's a lack of data on TPOs and PPOs.

Cambodia

Protection orders in Cambodia are granted under DV Law 2005 as a civil measure and are defined by Art.16 - 32 (GTZ-Promotion of Women's Rights. n.d., Art. 16-23).

The DV Law, as mentioned earlier, only applies to such forms of VAW as domestic violence and is limited in its scope. Therefore, a protection order can be granted to the victim only in cases where it applies, which can be viewed in Table 4 (The GTZ-Promotion of Women's Rights n.d., Art. 16-23).

The eligibility pool of the petitioners is also dictated by the scope of persons covered by the law, which are husband/wife, dependent children, and other people in the household. So the gap in the eligibility pool will be the same as mentioned in Sub-criterion 1, namely unmarried partners, past and present partners, boyfriends/girlfriends, dating partners, and ongoing sexual partners who do not cohabit, as well as other family members (such as parents and extended family members), same-sex relationships, as well as persons without a prior relationship in case of sexual violence. Art. 22 indicates that the application can also be made by a third party.

Art. 23 of the same law provides for two types of PO, which are a *temporary protection order* and a *protection order*, the former lasts for two months, and the latter is issued for six months before the final decision of the court is made. Therefore, there is no mention of a post-hearing or a permanent PO. Mutual PO is not provided for by the law.

According to Art. 24 and 25, both types of PO are issued by the courts, although in the case of a temporary PO, police or local authorities should be granted such a duty (The Cambodian Committee of Women 2007, 12). According to Art. 14, “the authorities in charge” can issue administrative decisions to “prohibit (the perpetrator) from approaching or entering the house.” Art. 13 states that “authorities in charge” can remove the perpetrator or the victim from the house. However, it is not clear which authorities have been assigned this responsibility. Art. 16 provides that both types of PO can be issued *ex parte*.

The remedies outlined in Art. 25 include prohibitions on committing domestic violence by both the perpetrator and third parties, entering specified locations frequented by the victim, and making contact with the victim. However, it does not explicitly mention prohibiting harm to the victim's dependents, relatives, or other relevant individuals. Additionally, the article mentions the possibility of removing the victim from the house, a controversial measure that is typically not recommended.

Art. 25 has a provision that the victim would be able to stop providing for the perpetrator if it was the case and the perpetrator has to provide financial assistance, depending on the income.

Article 27 introduces another controversial measure by stipulating that the court should reconcile both parties without mentioning the necessity of obtaining consent from both parties. The provision on child custody entrusts the court with deciding custody and visitation rights, prioritizing the best interests and rights of the children. However, it does not explicitly outline a presumption against granting custody to the perpetrator or allowing visitation against the child's will.

The violation of a PO is a criminal offense, according to Art. 29. However, the exact punishment for violation is not provided.

Electronic monitoring of a criminal's movements is not mentioned, nor is the prohibition on the purchase of firearms. Art. 13 allows "authorities in charge" to confiscate a weapon or other object that can be used as such.

Concerning the number of POs issued in Cambodia, the process improved in 2011 after the creation of a special form for POs as instructed by the DV Law: from 2014 to 2016, a total of 19 POs were issued across six provinces (CEDAW 2018, 16). Later, from 2019 to 2022, a total of 25 POs were issued in ten provinces (Women Peace Makers. n.d., 1). Although the system for issuing protection orders in Cambodia is functioning, the rates remain very low.

V. Analytical Part

The Analytical Part of the thesis will discuss the findings provided in the Empirical Part. The summary of findings is presented in Annex 5.

5.1.National Legislative Framework

5.1.1. Laws

The Philippines almost completely fulfills the requirements of international law by establishing a comprehensive law of Magna Carta of Women, which respects the principle of non-discrimination and the importance of respect for women's human rights. Regrettably, the concept of VAW is not discussed within these realms. In Cambodia, too, the only principle laid out explicitly is the principle of non-discrimination in the Constitution.

The Philippine Magna Carta of Women VAW, committed in the family, community, conflict situations, and by the state, commendably encompassing a wide range of forms of violence. Nevertheless, the gaps in the scope of this law are still significant, such as forms of violence as most harmful practices, stalking, and explicit mention of violence against parents and cohabitants. In Cambodia, neither the Constitution nor any other superior law aims to prohibit forms of VAW.

The Philippine Magna Carta provides that no customary law if it discriminates against women, can be utilized. However, the missing link between VAW and discrimination in the law casts doubt on the fact that this provision will be helpful if customary or religious law is used to justify VAW. In Cambodia, not only has this conflict not been eliminated, but the law on the contrary, indicates that "discipline" that takes place in accordance with the country's traditions cannot be regarded as violence against women. This and several other positions in the 2005 DV Law prioritize tradition and culture over women's safety.

Concerning the criminalization of forms of violence, both countries have introduced a number of separate laws that provide penalties for perpetrators and set a societal norm of unacceptability of violence. The Philippines have criminalized IPV, including stalking as one of the acts of violence, trafficking in persons, cyber-crimes, child marriage, and HIV/AIDs cleansing. Some of the forms are not explicitly criminalized, but the acts can be punished under the Penal Code, such as femicide or acid attacks. Referencing the experience of other countries, explicit criminalization of femicide, for example, is sometimes necessary in order for data collection to reveal the magnitude of the problem and to clearly condemn this specific form. Other forms of violence, such as sexual violence of various types, are criminalized but with a

great exemption, which provides forgiveness for the perpetrators if they marry the victim. The remaining forms of violence, such as marital rape, and most of the harmful practices are not criminalized. Honor crimes are condoned by Philippine law because the Penal Code allows for the killing of a spouse in case of adultery.

Cambodia, on the other hand, criminalizes even fewer forms of violence, such as sexual violence, human trafficking, and exploitation. Although domestic violence is the focus of the 2005 DV law, it doesn't provide any penalties for violations and relies on the Criminal Code for this. The findings revealed that there are great discrepancies between the acts of violence mentioned by the DV Law and those that can be punished under the Criminal code. As a result, perpetrators may not face appropriate consequences for acts of violence that are specific to DV. Additionally, marital rape, all the harmful practices, cyber violence, and stalking are not criminalized under the law in Cambodia.

Concerning definitions, the law of the Philippines is more in line with international standards than in Cambodia. In terms of domestic violence, the law only covers the dimension of IPV, which excludes such possible victims as parents, cohabitants, and same-sex relationships. The types of violence are covered in full. In contrast, Cambodia fails to include the economic type of violence, and the scope of relationships provided by the law is very limited and excludes the same relationships as the Philippines and more, as indicated in the Table above.

The focus of the law on IPV in the Philippines is on the protection of women and family members, while in Cambodia, it is on family unity and harmony.

Neither of the countries bases the definition of rape as a crime without consent, but the core is force, threat, and violence. The Philippines and Cambodia provide the age of statutory rape and a list of aggravating circumstances, although the list is more extensive and detailed in the Philippines.

Divorce laws are problematic in both countries. While Cambodia allows for divorce after a complex procedure, the Philippines lacks a legal procedure for divorce altogether, even though there were legislative initiatives to reinstate it.

5.1.2. NAPs

In terms of policy documents, both countries lack a current National Action Plan on VAW. In the absence of current plans, all previous plans of the countries, which are also publicly available, were subject to analysis. A comparison of efforts in policy development in both countries highlights their commitment to addressing VAW in the context of gender inequality and discrimination. The Philippines goes further by explicitly defining VAW as a human rights violation, while Cambodia fails to do so. Both countries refer to international treaties and state obligations in their NAPs on VAW, although the Philippines omitted this aspect in its most recent NAP.

Neither the Philippines nor Cambodia have covered all forms of violence within their NAPs. The Philippines have a NAP on IPV in accordance with their main law on VAW, and Cambodia has focused policy on DV, SV and added IPV in the last document. Both have put VAW and Human Trafficking in separate policies.

Both Cambodia and the Philippines have placed their NAPs within a broader gender equality framework, aligning certain goals and indicators. However, Cambodia needs to

harmonize definitions across policy areas and choose between VAW and GBV as the core focus of policy. The Philippines' policy is based on existing legislation that meets international standards, so there are no definition inconsistencies between policy, law, and international standards. In contrast, Cambodia's legislation does not consistently meet these standards, leading to a mixture of old and new definitions in its NAPs.

Another commendable point in the practice of the Philippines is the inclusion of NGOs in the formulation of the plan. Cambodia, on the other hand, mentions the inclusion of CSOs once in the 2nd NAP.

On the other hand, Cambodia's NAPs have successfully incorporated a wide range of vulnerable groups, the list of which is exhaustive compared to those of the Philippines. Cambodia has developed specific activities to integrate these groups into their NAP, whereas the Philippines has emphasized the need to disaggregate all indicators for vulnerable groups.

The Philippines and Cambodia's development of the NAP ensured the presence of clear tasks and a wide range of responsible ministries and agencies, allowing for a cross-ministerial and cross-sectoral engagement. However, in Cambodia, the uneven distribution of responsibilities is evident because the Ministry of Women's Affairs is involved in most tasks. Additionally, a large number of involved agencies can be a concern, as it may lead to dispersed responsibility and difficulties in coordination.

The NAPs incorporate a monitoring and evaluation framework based on timelines, outcomes, and measurements. It must be highlighted that the approach of the countries differs. The M&E Framework of the Philippines has undergone an evolution from simple yes-or-no indicators to only measuring government inputs and finally to assessing the outcomes. The outcome indicators are based on assumptions, accompanied by data collection sources or tools to collect the data, clear baseline data, and measurable targets. In Cambodia, on the other hand, the outcome and activity indicators are formulated vaguely without clear measurement methods. The indicators are based on yes/no logic or numerical counts. Timelines are included without clear targets.

5.2.Implementation

5.2.1. Inter-sectoral mechanism

Appropriate mechanisms for monitoring VAW have been established in both the Philippines and Cambodia. In the Philippines, RA9262 mandates the establishment of a special mechanism, IACVAWC, the responsibility of which encompasses all four relevant roles: monitoring of policy implementation, coordination of the line ministries and other actors, and taking part in collaborative efforts for implementation and evaluation of the policy. The latter role is not clearly defined in the Republic Act, but this role can be assumed from the activities on the establishment of the evaluation agenda planned by the 4th NAP. IACVAWC and IACAT share the mandate for IPV and HT, respectively. In Cambodia, the division of mandates is more complex: NCCT is responsible for HT, while MoWA and TWG-GBV share responsibility for SV, DV, and IPV. There is no specific document that could clearly outline the roles and mandates of these mechanisms. Instead, this crucial information is scattered across various gender equality and VAW policies. Besides, there's no clear division of mandates in the

policy documents, with both bodies being responsible for coordination, monitoring, implementation, and evaluation, according to different texts.

On a positive note, the mechanism structure in Cambodia is quite powerful as MoWA is a ministry that holds a high hierarchical rank, and TWGG-GBV consists of high-ranking members from other ministries. In the Philippines, IACVAWC operates under PCW, which is, in turn, located under the Office of the President, an intermediate rank. IACAT is located under the Department of Justice, making its position one level higher in comparison. The number of MoWA staff and TWGG-GBV members is substantial, at around 900 and 55, respectively. The majority of MoWA staff are regional-level officials, while TWGG-GBV includes members from line ministries and other government agencies, NGOs, etc. The resources allocated to the Ministry have been equal to 0,15-0,13 of the proportion to the total budget expenditure of the government over the last four years and, generally, have returned to the level of 2000. The combination of the low resources and MoWA's broad mandate raises questions about the adequate status of the mechanism. Budget allocations of TWGG-GBV are not specified. In the Philippines, the resources allocated to IACVAWC and IACAT are not clear as well, but PCW's budget has been increasing steadily over the years, which could potentially have a positive effect on the budgets of IACVAWC as a subordinate agency. IACVAWC has 20 members, while IACAT has 28 members from government agencies and ministries.

Both Cambodia and the Philippines have established structures that facilitate horizontal and vertical coordination in addressing VAW. In Cambodia, GBV Working Groups function as crucial links between national policymakers and local service providers. These groups adopt a multi-sectoral approach, incorporating professionals from law enforcement, healthcare, social services, and legal fields to ensure a comprehensive response.

In the Philippines, vertical coordination is achieved through regional committees on VAW and trafficking, led by IACVAWC alongside the IACAT. These committees operate across various sub-national levels, ensuring that policies are effectively implemented at the grassroots. At the smallest administrative unit, the barangay, a VAW Desk staffed by a special officer provides essential services such as referrals and the issuance of BPOs. Such an integrated approach in both countries ensures that policy directives are effectively translated into practical actions at all levels.

5.2.2. Data Collection

Regarding data collection, the Philippines has made more progress than Cambodia. Philippine law requires various agencies to collect data disaggregated by gender, age, and relevant vulnerable groups. The findings indicate that the existing databases utilized by the PNP allow for more comprehensive disaggregation of characteristics. However, these detailed characteristics are not considered in the production of crime statistics.

Despite decentralized data collection across agencies, initiatives aimed at the centralization and harmonization of data collection systems are underway. NVAWDoc system, led by PCW and IACVAWC, focuses strictly on data collection on VAW and has a goal of compiling data from all relevant government departments and agencies. While other government agencies like PSA, DOJ, and PNP conduct separate initiatives focused on harmonization of the existing systems of administrative data collection, like the Philippine Standard Crime Classification System and Philippine Index of Crimes.

Additionally, the Philippines has established data collection guidelines, namely a glossary defining various concepts related to VAW. In contrast, Cambodia lacks similar provisions or guidelines for standardizing data collection on VAW. Moreover, Cambodia lacks an official mandate for collecting data on VAW. Only gender equality policies mention data collection, while NAP on VAW merely proposes a VAW Data Collection System. The data collection system in Cambodia remains decentralized in general, and there is no legislative attempt to centralize regulation of data collection on VAW.

Both countries face challenges in the availability of administrative data. The Philippines provides some data from police, social care, and justice sectors, albeit disaggregated only by criminal offense. Healthcare data is limited to WCPU accommodations and disaggregated by sex. Cambodia has minimal administrative data from the Commune Database, with only outdated data from 2008-2010. The rest of the data used for reports on VAW comes from demographic and health surveys. The line ministries collect administrative data, but it is unclear if the methodology includes VAW in any form.

Both countries regularly include VAW in their general population surveys. The Philippines conducts surveys every five years, while Cambodia's surveys occur every 4 to 6 years.

5.2.3. Training and Capacity-Building

Concerning the development of training manuals, both countries have successfully created them for different sectors, including law enforcement, service providers, and social care. Cambodia has additionally standardized training of professionals in the health and judicial sector while also covering HT in law enforcement manuals. The Philippines didn't present any manuals on trafficking.

In the Philippines, the Women's Charter and RA9262 fully cover the need for training and capacity building in various sectors, including all levels of the government, and all other sectors in direct response to VAW, including health; the latter, however, only implies WCPU staff, without regular hospital personnel. Within this scope, NAPs on VAW prioritize specific sectors and correlating activities relying on the mandates set in the law. On the other hand, Cambodia's commitment to training and capacity building is captured by various policy documents. The common focus of all policy documents is the mention of training for law enforcement. Otherwise, the policy documents take different directions, prioritizing various sectors: gender mainstreaming training for governments and training for teachers, legal professionals, journalists, health care workers, and other service providers. When combined, all relevant sectors are mentioned, but this approach is quite fragmented.

Only the legislation of the Philippines has repeatedly highlighted continuous training, while Cambodia does not.

Before the analysis of process indicators, it should be prefaced that other training and capacity-building activities have been mentioned in government reports, but only those with numbers have been included. The data is quite inconsistent across sectors and years and does not indicate the baseline or total number of workers needed to understand the proportion of personnel trained.

However, we can see that both the Philippines and Cambodia have made significant efforts in training and capacity building of the law enforcement, justice, and health sector. The

Philippines has also covered service providers such as WCPU and social workers, as well as local authorities, while Cambodia has focused on government personnel and the education sector.

5.2.4. Budget

The Philippines has again created a more enabling legal framework to support budget allocations for VAW initiatives. The Magna Carta and RA 9262 mandate that the implementation of both laws be funded through the GAD budget, which is collected from each government agency at a rate of 5% of the total budget. This covers prevention, data collection, protection, and other related activities. Cambodia, on the other hand, only uses the NAPs to state that funding for the implementation of these activities will come from the national budget without specifying a mechanism for budgeting. Various reports by international organizations indicate that TWGG-GBV has used a specific mechanism for budget allocation (AOP, costing reports), but they are not explicitly indicated in the policy. The Philippines passed a resolution to support the IACVAWC's commitment to allocate part of the GAD budget to NAP implementation.

Financing for inter-sectoral mechanisms is not legally provided in either the Philippines or Cambodia. The financing of the Ministry of Women's Affairs in Cambodia is provided as it is a ministry under the same legislation that covers all ministries.

In both countries, the national health budget does not specifically allocate funds for VAW; instead, VAW is included in the gender mainstreaming plan of the Ministry of Health. In the Philippines, this plan is used directly for GAD budget allocations, but in Cambodia, the link is not as strong. Allocation of the budget cannot be fully compared due to limited data, but the information available shows that the Philippines' VAW policies fall under GAD funding, with 5% allocated from each ministry. However, this mandate is fully met by only 20% of agencies, and the exact proportion of budget allocation for VAW is not specified. In Cambodia, current budget figures are also limited. The intersectoral mechanism, whose role is partly performed by MoWA, receives a budget of 0.15% of the total state budget, which has stagnated over the years. For 2023-2024, this amounted to around USD 140,000. The 2024 budget report showed that only MoWA and the Ministry of Social Affairs allocated funds for VAW activities, with the latter amounting to USD 2,589,744. Ministries such as MoH or DoJ did not allocate specific funds, raising doubts about the effectiveness of the gender-mainstreaming budget, which is still in the early stages of development.

5.3.Prevention

The countries both include awareness-rising programs, school curriculum initiatives, and promotion of gender sensitivity of journalists and other media. These efforts have been effectively realized in practice. Annual national campaigns on VAW have been launched in the Philippines since 2006 and in Cambodia since 2016. Both made progress with implementing VAW and gender topics in the school curriculum, as well as introduced media codes and guidelines. Beyond these key initiatives, the legal frameworks in both countries encompass broader areas such as parenting, economic empowerment, relationships, community-based programs, creating safe environments (workplaces or public transport), and engaging men in

the fight against VAW. Cambodia has launched several programs focused on prevention, addressing comprehensive strategies like parenting, relationships, engaging men, and tackling alcohol abuse. On the other hand, the Philippines has implemented numerous programs at the community level, particularly focusing on engaging men.

5.4. Protection

5.4.1. Comprehensive and integrated support services

The policy framework for specialized services for victims differs between Cambodia and the Philippines. In Cambodia, the policy primarily mentions hotlines, with limited mention of additional support mechanisms. In contrast, the legal framework in the Philippines mandates the establishment of hotlines along with the provision of temporary shelter, counseling, and rehabilitation services. The Philippine legislation also requires these shelters to accommodate the children of victims.

However, the legal frameworks in both countries do not currently include mandates for the establishment of minimum standards for the availability of services, nor do they address the potential uneven distribution of these facilities between rural and urban areas.

The above-mentioned gaps in the legislation can be traced to its implementation. In Cambodia, no government institutions are providing specific services to victims of DV/IPV, only NGO-run shelters, with three shelters in several provinces for VAW and 20 for HT cases. The shelters provide rather short-term accommodation and accept children.

The picture is more positive in the Philippines. There are 25 facilities providing shelter, counseling, and other services to victims of SV, DV/IPV, and exploitation, and some to victims of HT. There is at least one free shelter in 15 out of 17 regions. The shelters provide accommodation for a period ranging from 6 months to one year. In addition to this service, another mechanism, WFS, has been created for women and their children exposed to violence during displacement. A total of 23 WFS have been established to provide support and protection for women. Despite these commendable efforts made by the Philippines, neither the Philippines nor Cambodia has fulfilled the minimum standard, supported by the best global experiences and international law. The only standard met by the Philippines was the establishment of one facility for counseling and shelter in each region.

Some of the types of specialized services recommended by international best practices and international treaties, such as RCC or SAC, have not been implemented in the study cases due to the fact that the emergence of OSCC is more common in this region and targets victims of sexual violence.

The number of people accommodated in facilities in the Philippines increased between 2018 and 2019 but then dropped in 2021. Although there are not enough years covered to see a long-term trend, a simple estimation based on the total available beds in the country and the number of women who used the service suggests that these facilities are not used to their fullest capacity. Moreover, this raises concern when the number is compared to the reporting rates during these years, suggesting that only around 10% of women who report VAW cases are using these facilities.

Hotlines for VAW exist in both countries, but there is little information about whether they are free of charge and available 24/7. In the Philippines, due to the high population density, a hotline has been established in each municipality, which aligns with international standards.

5.4.2. Health Sector

Both country's policies incorporate VAW to some extent. In the Philippines, the key policy in healthcare mentions GBV as a sub-priority but lacks specific indicators for it in the M&E section. A clarifying policy document has a gender-neutral "violence and injury prevention" approach. The only document that pays sufficient attention to GBV is the GAD Sectoral Agenda, which includes VAW as part of the three key aspects and relevant indicators. In Cambodia, the gender mainstreaming plan mentions VAW as a priority, but other current key documents in healthcare policy either include the policy in a gender-neutral way or very briefly. Thus, both countries should ensure that GBV/VAW is included as a priority in upcoming key policies under formulation or is acknowledged in gender-neutral plans. The monitoring and, in the case of Cambodia, the development of such gender-mainstreaming plans belong to focal points on gender mainstreaming in the health departments of the government, which clearly include VAW in their agenda. Given the absence of mechanisms dedicated solely to VAW, it is crucial to ensure that VAW remains a significant priority for these focal points. In other structural indicators, Cambodia performs better than the Philippines. Cambodia has developed two national protocols on VAW in health care, whereas the Philippines did not, and instead, the relevant information to VAW can be found in a few other protocols. The protocols of Cambodia provide for selective screening and include first-line support, referrals, post-rape care guidelines, etc., all of which are in line with the recommendations of the WHO. Reporting requirements are present and are not mandatory unless the local law abides in Cambodia. In the protocols of the Philippines, almost all the required information can be found, although they do not mention medication for HIV and STI after rape, and abortion is not allowed by law; the type of screening is not identified. The reporting in the country is mandatory, although the WHO recommends against that.

Both countries' legal frameworks provide for the establishment of OSCC, a policy in Cambodia, and an administrative order in the Philippines. The implementation, however, has a big difference. The Philippines has managed to establish 105 WCPUs around the country, although mostly only in DOH-managed hospitals; the majority of the hospitals managed by LGUs are not fully encompassed by this initiative. Notably, at least one region in the Philippines has one WCPU; the distribution varies from 1 to 9, with NCR having 24. At the same time, Cambodia has launched two OSCCs in two provinces, which marks only the beginning of their response in this regard. Both countries should make it an utmost priority to expand the network of OSCCs, more urgently in the case of Cambodia. Finally, just as in most criteria, the data for process indicators reveals a great gap, undermining the countries' possibilities to conduct monitoring and evaluation of health care in this case concerning government response to VAW.

The only indicator available for comparison is the proportion of victims receiving post-rape services. In the Philippines, data specifies the total number of women and children who received services at WCPU, amounting to 12,543 and 16,966 patients, respectively. In Cambodia, the number of victims in 2020-2021 who received services amounted to 312 women, among whom 134 received post-rape services. This underscores a significant difference in magnitude and

highlights that Cambodia's provision of services is still developing, with more women needing access to such services.

5.4.3. Police units and specialized courts

The increase of female officers in law enforcement and the justice sector has found its place in the legislation of the Philippines and the policies of Cambodia. The efforts made by the governments in this regard are reflected in the numbers. The WCPC unit of the Philippine PNP has 54% female staff, and more women are serving in the WCPD. Female judges outnumbered male judges in 2022. In Cambodia, women's participation in the police force increased from 2% in 2007 to 8% in 2019. There has also been a slight increase in women in the justice sector, though the data is outdated.

However, in the rest of the indicators, Cambodia did not perform well. The country hasn't set up special prosecutor's offices, police stations, or special judicial procedures or courts for victims of VAW. The experience of the Philippines should, therefore, be considered to address these gaps.

Although special courts or proceedings on VAW are also absent in the Philippines, the country can demonstrate its efforts concerning law enforcement. A higher-level mechanism, such as the WCPC, was established as a part of the PNP to deal with serious cases of VAW. WCPDs staffed by female workers were established in every police station, totaling 1,907, to provide services to victims of VAW. Moreover, there are 20 special task forces on trafficking (ATTF) and one on violence against women and children (TF-WCP) to investigate and prosecute special cases.

To see if these structures have had an impact on the system, an analysis of reporting rates can be used. The data suggests that there was a noticeable increase in reporting rates from 2011 to 2014, which began to decrease in 2017 and dropped in 2020-2021, likely due to the pandemic. The data for Cambodia shows a decrease in reporting of domestic violence and stable figures for human trafficking from 2008 to 2010. However, this data is outdated.

No country has established any special courts, but the indicators of the performance of the justice system provide valuable information for the Philippines. The data collected for 2016-2020 shows an increase in the overall caseload, with rising convictions and stable acquittal rates. The dismissal rate has been decreasing for VAW cases but increasing for HT cases, still making up a third of the total. High dismissal rates can indicate underlying issues in the system and impede justice for victims.

For Cambodia, the data shows a positive trend, but it is very limited and outdated.

Another concern is that most process indicators were not available for analysis in both countries, highlighting yet another gap.

5.4.4. Protection orders

Both the Philippines and Cambodia offer POs, but with limitations on the forms of violence covered and who is eligible. In the Philippines, POs are available under RA9262 for IPV and RA11313 for victims of sexual harassment. Cambodia offers POs under its Domestic Violence Law, mainly for current spouses, children, and certain household members. While the scope of eligibility for POs in the Philippines is limited by the scope of each law, as IPV does not include protection for parents, cohabitants, or extended relatives, the Philippines' framework is more

comprehensive than Cambodia's due to the availability of POs under two different laws. Nevertheless, both countries need to expand their PO legislation to cover other forms of violence and a wider range of eligible individuals. There are four types of POs in the Philippines: a barangay PO for immediate but short-term protection, a TPO issued by the court for one month, and a permanent protection order issued after a hearing. In contrast, Cambodia does not have POs with immediate power. Instead, relevant authorities can issue administrative orders, such as prohibiting the perpetrator from nearing the victim, although the law does not specify which authorities can issue such orders, making implementation difficult. Cambodia provides for temporary POs for two months and another PO for six months, particularly during court hearings. However, there is no provision for a permanent protection order to be issued after the end of the hearings. POs include many remedies that meet international norms. In both jurisdictions, current laws don't cover prohibiting harm to relatives, electronic monitoring of perpetrators, specifying children's wishes for visitation rights, or clarifying what evidence is needed for a PO. It should be stated that live testimony alone should be enough. The numbers of POs issued also give a clear pattern, although there are some discrepancies in the data. A comparison of these figures shows that POs are used more frequently as a legal remedy in the Philippines than in Cambodia. Unfortunately, more recent data is needed to further analyze this trend. In Cambodia, the issuance of POs is particularly low, highlighting the need to increase awareness of legal remedies against violence and to improve training for judges. While administrative decisions are more frequently used, the question arises as to why they are not resulting in the issuance of POs.

VI. DISCUSSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1.National Legislative Framework

6.1.1. Laws

In both the Philippines and Cambodia, significant efforts have been made to protect women from violence through national legislative frameworks.

Their criminal and non-criminal laws must be expanded to include all forms of VAW and recognize VAW as both discrimination and a human rights violation. Both countries need to research practices related to the criminalization of forms of violence they currently lack, such as harmful traditional practices and marital rape, and address the issue.

Cambodia lacks a superior law prohibiting all forms of VAW. This gap could be addressed by formulating a new law, which can be done using such a prominent example of legislation as the Magna Carta of Women.

Criminal laws need to be additionally strengthened. The Philippines must remove the forgiveness clause in cases of rape in Republic Act No. 8353 as well as the clause allowing for honor crimes in the Revised Penal Code. Cambodia has to harmonize DV LAW with the Criminal Code. Currently, acts of DV are only punishable under the Criminal Code, so the existing inconsistencies lead to gaps in protection and uncertainty in the legal process. Alternatively, the Philippines provides a good example where laws against violence are criminal laws, avoiding the need for extensive revisions to the Penal Code. Cambodia could adopt this approach and revise its DV Law by adding penalties instead of undertaking a challenging revision of the Criminal Code.

Both countries' definitions of VAW have significant gaps, with Cambodia needing more essential reforms. The DV Law in Cambodia needs to add economic violence and shift its focus from family unity to victim protection. Both countries must also expand laws to include a more comprehensive scope of DV relationships and revise their laws on sexual violence to be based on the concept of "a crime against physical and sexual autonomy, committed without consent" rather than on violence and force. The Philippines should review its abortion ban, which hinders the full protection and autonomy of victims of sexual violence. Cambodia should consider broadening the list of aggravating circumstances for rape based on the examples provided by the Philippines.

The conflict between customary (traditional, religious) laws and the protection of women from violence needs resolution in both jurisdictions. Although the Philippine Magna Carta of Women stipulates that custom laws must be respected as long as they don't discriminate against women, specific provisions regarding VAW should be included. Meanwhile, Cambodia needs to eliminate the provision that prioritizes customs and traditions over the safety of violence victims. Such formulations are not acceptable under the IHRL as the core principle of this framework are fundamental human rights of each individual.

Both countries should provide for less complex divorce and establish expedited procedures in cases of VAW.

6.1.2. NAPs

For both the Philippines and Cambodia, it is vital to expedite the process of finalizing new NAPs. Research should determine whether it is necessary to expand their scope to include any missing forms of VAW. Governments should ensure that these updated NAPs are formulated with the inclusion of NGOs. The content of the NAPs should link VAW as a human rights violation and consistently build responses based on human rights treaties. The Philippines sets a strong example of consistency in its approach, which could serve as a model for Cambodia to improve its policy coherence and alignment with international norms. Cambodia faces challenges because its legislation does not consistently meet these standards. In attempting to address this inconsistency through the NAPs, Cambodia ends up with a blend of definitions. The Philippines' consistent approach to VAW provides a model for Cambodia to improve coherence between policy, legislation, and international human rights law. The Philippines should expand the list of vulnerable groups if the research deems it needed. The difference in approaches of the inclusion of vulnerable groups presents an opportunity for both countries to engage in mutual exchange. The Philippines' approach of differentiating between lead and supporting agencies could help avoid the diffusion of responsibility that Cambodia's approach to role allocation may lead to. The M&E system for NAPs in Cambodia can be enhanced by drawing on the third or fourth NAP of the Philippines, which provides a more progressive strategy for the measurement of outcomes and inputs.

6.2.Implementation

6.2.1. Inter-Sectoral Mechanism

The first sub-criterion of implementation, entitled Intersectoral Mechanism, allowed us to analyze the comprehensiveness of the frameworks established in both study cases. The response to VAW is complex and requires the participation of multiple sectors, various government ministries and agencies, as well as civil society actors. The coordination of actors and their actions to prevent or combat VAW is achieved through a multisectoral mechanism. The aim is to avoid isolated implementation of measures by all actors, to increase the accountability of participants through monitoring, and to ensure that measures are not only implemented but also continuously assessed and improved based on ongoing evaluation and feedback. Both countries have addressed this obligation by establishing appropriate mechanisms. However, the analysis revealed several key challenges.

The Philippines has a clearer structure and mandates division of the mechanisms than Cambodia, as it was enshrined in a special law. Cambodia has not established any clear legal document promulgating the division of roles between two existing structures, instead, the explanation can be found across various policy documents without clear division. In order to avoid inefficiency and mix-up of roles, an assessment of the scope of the mandate and a clearer division of responsibilities is required, preferably by a legislative act. Alternatively, the VAW mandate could be fully transferred to the TWGG-GBV in Cambodia, while MoWA will be focusing on gender mainstreaming in other sectors, which is similar to the approach in the Philippines.

Both countries face a notable gap in their mandates by only addressing specific forms of violence, potentially overlooking other critical types of violence. It is crucial to conduct research to identify if these missing forms of violence require attention and should be addressed within existing policies and mandates of the mechanism.

The status of the inter-sectoral mechanisms in both countries needs strengthening in terms of financial resources. The findings reveal a contrast between the broad mandate of Cambodia's Ministry of Women's Affairs and the inadequacy of resource allocation to support it. Additionally, the ambiguity in resource allocation for inter-sectoral mechanisms is evident in both countries. The absence of sustainable financial resources has a big negative impact of how effective these mechanisms coordinate the implementation of policies and measures on VAW.

Lastly, both governments have made considerable efforts to vertically coordinate policies through on-site mechanisms that facilitate service delivery and referrals and act as a link between policymakers and local implementation of policy. Cambodia, in particular, ensures that these mechanisms remain multisectoral. This is a gap that the Philippines can fill, drawing on Cambodia's successful approach.

6.2.2. Data Collection

The sub-criterion, Data Collection, has allowed us to analyze the development stages of data collection systems in the Philippines and Cambodia. Recommendations for both countries emphasize the urgent need to improve the availability of disaggregated administrative data and centralize the regulation of data collection within one institution. For the Philippines, it is advised to enhance collaboration on all data harmonization initiatives, including those targeting existing systems and those concerned with the establishment of a VAW data system. This will enable VAW to be integrated into the statistical activities of various agencies rather than isolating data collection on this issue. Additionally, the mechanisms for data disaggregation that

already exist within current systems should be utilized. Cambodia must enhance its legislative framework to mandate that all agencies collect data on VAW and create specific guidelines for this purpose. Following the example of the Philippines, this obligation should be included in comprehensive legislation, similar to the Magna Carta of Women. By doing this, both countries can improve their data collection systems and ensure more effective and inclusive statistics related to violence against women.

6.2.3. Training and Capacity-Building

The Philippines has demonstrated a more comprehensive approach, with strong legal backing for training across various sectors, which can serve as a good practice model for Cambodia to make training efforts more consistent. Moreover, the Philippines' law actively encourages continuous training rather than one-off sessions, a practice not mentioned in Cambodia's policy documents. The Philippines should focus on establishing comprehensive training manuals, one for healthcare professionals and another specifically addressing human trafficking. Currently, these areas have been neglected. Existing manuals from Cambodia can serve as a starting point for research and development. Both countries could benefit from collecting data on training more consistently, not only tracking the number of participants but also the proportion of new or total personnel trained to effectively monitor progress.

6.2.4. Budget

The analysis sub-criterion on budget aimed to understand whether the budget allocation for the implementation of the VAW policy in terms of initiatives on prevention, protection services, data collection, training, judiciary, health care, prosecution, etc., is foreseen in the legislation and what budget is currently allocated in actual practice. The analysis showed that both countries should strengthen their gender budgeting systems. The Philippines should ensure that all ministries meet the mandated 5% allocation, while Cambodia should at least legislate this minimum and ensure that pledges made in policy documents are translated into implementation. In addition, Cambodia should identify a mechanism for budget allocation to the NAP in the policy. Another recommendation for Cambodia could be to increase financial resources for MoWA, as the budget has not increased for years despite the expansion and development of VAW policies. MoWA is one of the most crucial ministries for implementing these policies.

6.3. Prevention

The sub-criterion on prevention has discussed what strategies for primary prevention have been included in the respective policies of the case studies. This comparison suggests that the Philippines could benefit from adopting some of Cambodia's comprehensive strategies, particularly those addressing parenting, relationships, and alcohol abuse. On the other hand, Cambodia could learn from the Philippines' extensive community-level initiatives. Both countries have demonstrated good practices in their respective areas of focus, but they should aim to target specific forms of VAW more precisely rather than addressing the issue in general terms.

6.4. Protection

6.4.1. Comprehensive and Integrated Support Services

The sub-criterion concerning specialized services for victims demonstrated that political will, as reflected in policy, is crucial for achieving tangible results. In the Philippines, the legal requirement for the social care department to establish facilities significantly impacted the development and implementation of a network of these services. This mirrors the progress observed in healthcare, where specific legal mandates led to actual improvements. In contrast, Cambodia's lack of mention of specialized services in both policy and law has resulted in the absence of government-led facilities for counseling, shelter, and rehabilitation for victims of violence. This highlights the urgent need for Cambodia to strengthen its governmental response by incorporating the provision of these essential services into its legal framework and ensuring their implementation. The newly formulated act should explicitly include provisions for shelters to accommodate women and their children and ensure equitable access to these services in both urban and rural areas. The legislation of the Philippines also needs revision to account for this. The Philippines, just like Cambodia, should make further efforts to distribute more facilities available for victims. Blindly striving for a minimum standard is not sufficient if it does not meet the actual needs of the country. Therefore, research into the need for increased capacity should be undertaken. Additionally, this research should identify any barriers to accessing the facilities or uncover other reasons for the underutilization of existing centers.

6.4.2. Health Sector

Both the Philippines and Cambodia have made progress in addressing violence against women in healthcare, but there are areas where they can learn from each other to improve their responses. Firstly, for the Philippines, it would be beneficial to develop comprehensive national protocols on VAW in healthcare, similar to Cambodia's protocols, which include detailed guidelines for screening, support, referrals, and post-rape care and correspond with all recommendations from WHO. The protocols ensure that healthcare response to VAW is standardized and consistent, no matter where and when the service delivery happens. The Philippines has shown a decentralized and unsystematic approach, which defies the purpose of such documents. When developing a new comprehensive protocol that includes essential guidelines, the Philippines could research the disadvantages of mandatory reporting, which is advised against by WHO, and include the provision of HIV/STI care as part of standard post-rape care. Additionally, the legalization of abortion, at least in cases of rape and similar situations, should be introduced. Second, both countries have identified VAW as a strategic priority, primarily in policy documents related to gender in health, without necessarily prioritizing this issue in the key healthcare policy documents. This discrepancy suggests that VAW is not consistently embedded in the overall government health policy framework. The government's response may be fragmented, and the issue of VAW may remain isolated. In specific cases, for example, a government initiative to provide updated training of various healthcare professionals on the delivery of different services will not include VAW because of a lack of integration. This can lead to missed opportunities to address VAW comprehensively

within healthcare settings. Including VAW in mainstream policy documents can help to integrate VAWG as another subcategory of noncommunicable diseases that should be considered in all related initiatives. Failure to include VAW in key policy documents can also have a direct impact on the resources allocated to the issue. Fortunately, both governments have had some success in introducing gender mainstreaming into budgeting. The Philippines already has a well-functioning GAD budget in all ministries, while Cambodia has recently taken steps in this direction. Thirdly, a recommendation can be made regarding focal points. While the case studies have not specifically established a dedicated VAW focal point within departments, they do have gender-mainstreaming focal points in most government ministries, including the healthcare sector, with mandates encompassing the VAW agenda. It is crucial for each National Machinery to ensure that these focal points prioritize VAW adequately in their initiatives. Additionally, the Philippines and Cambodia should work on expanding their OSCCs. The Philippines has a significant network of OSCCs in DOH-managed hospitals, but most hospitals in the country are managed LGUs and are not covered by this network. Expanding OSCCs to include LGU-managed hospitals could help distribute services more evenly across the regions. Similarly, Cambodia has only recently begun piloting OSCCs and has a long way to go in developing a well-distributed network. Based on the promising practice of the Philippines, it can be suggested that enshrining the political will of the state to put in place OSCCs in all hospitals through a state act could accelerate the process, demonstrate the commitment of the government, and ensure systematic implementation.

6.4.3. Police Units and Specialized Courts

The analysis of police units and special courts for victims of violence against women shows that neither the Philippines nor Cambodia have fully aligned their law enforcement and judicial systems with international standards and recommendations. However, the Philippines performs relatively better than Cambodia. Both countries have increased the number of female police officers and court personnel, but the Philippines has shown a more substantial increase. In the Philippines, these efforts are anchored in legislation, while in Cambodia, they are mostly reflected in policy. This again shows that strong legal support can make a big difference to the effectiveness of these efforts. The Philippines has implemented commendable initiatives such as WCPDs in every police station and specialized on-site investigation and prosecution teams for HT and VAW cases. Cambodia could benefit from studying and possibly adopting these practices to develop a more comprehensive approach in this area. Neither country has established specialized courts for VAW cases, which are crucial for victim-centered justice and effective multi-agency cooperation. Both countries are recommended to conduct research on global best practices in this area in order to find and adopt models that best suit their justice systems and improve outcomes for victims of VAW. Although the process indicators used in each case study did not yield extensive findings, it is clear that the Philippines needs to address the high dismissal rates of VAW cases and understand why the justice system is systematically ineffective in this regard. Furthermore, the lack of availability and consideration of many process indicators in the data collection systems of both countries highlights another critical gap that needs to be addressed. These process indicators are essential to the monitoring and evaluation (M&E) systems of each country. They play a crucial role in tracking performance,

identifying inefficiencies, and understanding challenges within the justice system. Without this information, systemic problems may go unnoticed and unresolved.

6.4.4. Protection Orders

This sub-criterion allowed us to assess the legal frameworks concerning POs for victims of violence and their implementation in each country. Initially, both have established legal frameworks for POs. However, gaps were identified, specifically, neither country covers all forms of violence, and eligibility for POs is limited. To address these gaps, it is crucial for states to expand their laws to encompass other forms of violence against women and broaden the eligibility criteria for POs. The Philippines includes provisions for IPV and sexual assault, whereas Cambodia's legislation is limited to DV alone, overlooking the needs of victims of trafficking, forced marriage, or other forms of VAW who may also be in need of such protective measures. Furthermore, the current eligibility criteria in both countries are not comprehensive, which leaves certain victims of violence without access to POs. In order to ensure that all possible "relationships" are properly protected under the law, it is necessary to amend the scope of these laws. The analysis of the types of POs available in each country revealed that the Philippines had provided one for each of the necessary phases: as an immediate but short-term measure, a temporary one, which is needed before the court has made a final decision on the case and a permanent order, which ensures the safety of the victims after hearing for a longer period. Cambodia provides two types of PO, responsible for temporary response and for the phase during the hearing. Thus, a type of permanent protection order is currently not provided for identifying the gap. To address this gap, a new mechanism has to be put in place. The research into the model used in the Philippines, which allows for immediate response, protection during hearings, and long-term safety, could be useful for policymakers of Cambodia. Additionally, the country doesn't include any violations for a PO. This undermines the effectiveness of POs as a protective measure, as there is no enforcement mechanism. It is vital to implement a comprehensive list of penalties on which the international standards and the legislation of the Philippines can be consulted. In addition, there is a need to strengthen the mechanism, mentioned as "administrative decisions" in the law, which is also used in Cambodia in cases of VAW and keeps the victim safe from the perpetrator. To avoid confusion and delay in this process, the law should clearly explain to which authorities this role is assigned.

Limitations

One important limitation of this paper is its scope. In assessing how well governments protect victims of VAW, it is crucial to observe tangible outcomes, such as the number of women and children who suffer various forms of violence, etc. In the OHCHR framework, the "outcomes" dimension goes hand in hand with process and structural indicators (p. 33). These outcome indicators reflect the actual enjoyment of human rights and show the impact of the measures taken.

Another notable limitation is a significant lack of data collected and reported by governments (UNICEF 2020, 17; UNICEF 2020(a), 5). In some cases, data is collected but not

publicly available, while in others, it is not even properly collected. National data systems and M&E practices are at an early stage of development, resulting in outdated, scattered and irregular data, and different methodologies of collection within countries.

Furthermore, the limitations arise from the fact that the thesis relied on documents that were available through unofficial translations or self-translated when official versions were not available. This introduces potential inaccuracies.

Relevance of the Findings

The thesis is particularly relevant as it has been developed at a time when neither country currently has a policy document. In the Philippines, a new NAP is under development, while in Cambodia, there has been no recent news of a new document being released (IACVAWC n.d.). In any case, this work within the human rights framework has included extensive analysis and monitoring of actions taken by States over several decades, as well as what remains to be done. Based on this assessment, recommendations for action have been proposed. Thus, this thesis could support the monitoring activities of the monitoring mechanisms of the country, such as IACVAWC and MoWa with TWGG-GBV in Cambodia, and can be used as a practical tool on how to proceed.

In addition, this thesis has extensively covered the legislative frameworks of both states by highlighting their shortcomings encouraging the process of laws revision. In Cambodia, revisions of the DV Law have been ongoing since 2022 but have not yet been finalized (UN Women 2021, 1). Moreover, the thesis offers valuable insights into legislative reforms for the Philippines, which could support the initiative of the PCW, in which they compile necessary legislative changes for Congress sessions (PCW 2022). Additionally, this thesis holds relevance for lawmakers in the upcoming sessions of Congress scheduled for July and November this year, offering foundation for legislative reforms (Araneta 2023).

The thesis serves as a valuable resource for the victims themselves. It reinforces condemnation of violence against women and raises awareness of the problem. It emphasizes the crucial role of governments in protecting victims. The thesis helps victims and their families understand what remedies are available in the country and what may not be available. The recommendations provided give an idea of what victims can expect if they pursue their rights. For example, women in the Philippines and Cambodia who were unaware of the existence of one-stop crisis centers in the country may want to question why such services have not become better known or more accessible in their region.

This thesis can be of help for human rights groups and international organizations to hold governments accountable in the countries chosen for case studies. These countries have ratified treaties to protect women from violence and have therefore committed themselves to taking action. Ratification of these treaties exposes states to pressure from the international monitoring bodies that ensure compliance (Avdeyeva 2007, 878). By analyzing government actions and identifying where they may have fallen short of international human rights obligations, the thesis increases pressure on governments to comply with their obligations. The collection of best practices is a well-established approach that allows for the exchange of knowledge between different countries and stakeholders (EIGE 2016(a), 3). While this was not the primary focus of this study, this work has contributed to this process by highlighting successful initiatives and solutions implemented in the Philippines and Cambodia. These

lessons can provide valuable guidance to the countries examined in the study, as well as to others seeking effective approaches in similar contexts.

It can also be useful for NGOs that play an important role in advocacy against VAW. The Philippines has announced a search for new NGOs to join the IACVAWC this year (FundsforNGOs, n.d.). One of the proposed roles is to participate in policy formulation on VAW (FundsforNGOs, n.d.). NGOs can, therefore use this thesis to strengthen their advocacy and push for necessary reforms. This is also relevant for Cambodia, as NGO-CEDAW, for example, organized a meeting with key government stakeholders in 2022, where they relied on the report to highlight key concerns on VAW (NGO CEDAW 2023). In such meetings, the thesis could be used to encourage dialogue with the government and bring about change.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the thesis aimed to compare the responses of the governments in the Philippines and Cambodia with the minimum standards of the international human rights framework to determine if their responses to violence against women are comprehensive or if there are still weaknesses to address.

In order to answer the question, the human rights framework has been taken as a foundation of the research. The study was based on obligations under international law, namely prevention, protection (including criminalization), provision of services and remedies, prosecution, and punishment. The last two dimensions were excluded due to the scope of the work. The literature review examined the experiences of different countries and the specific measures they have implemented under these obligations, providing the basis for a comprehensive analytical framework for comparison.

The analytical framework developed was based on structural and process indicators, which were designed to provide an understanding of the government's overall policy, and the commitments enshrined in legislation and policy documents, and to identify and analyze concrete steps taken by governments.

The empirical part of the thesis collected data according to the proposed analytical framework and found that neither the Philippines' nor Cambodia's response is fully in line with the obligations set out in the international minimum standards on VAW. Nevertheless, both countries have made significant progress in improving the protection of women from violence over the last twenty years. It is evident that the Philippines has demonstrated a more comprehensive response than Cambodia, as evidenced by its legal framework, policies, and process indicators. A key finding of the thesis is that anchoring of the response to VAW in law has allowed for greater consistency and commitment from all stakeholders involved in the policy. This correlation is evident in the criterion on data collection: the Philippines has legislated the obligation to collect data, resulting in the availability of data, whereas, in Cambodia, neither policy documents nor laws require this, resulting in very limited administrative data on VAW. Another example is Cambodia's response in the health sector and the provision of specialized services. While the provision of OSCCs is mentioned in Cambodia's VAW policy, its implementation is very limited. Furthermore, the provision of shelters and counseling is absent from Cambodia's legislation, policy and, therefore practice.

Another important finding is the limited availability of data in both countries. For example, in relation to the health sector response criterion, only half of the planned process indicators could be found, while data on POs was available but outdated. The data that is available is not usually accessible in a centralized repository but is scattered throughout the periodic CEDAW reports submitted by governments, secondary literature or other government reports. In addition, information on training and capacity building is not systematically collected, with countries reporting the number of participants in training rather than the percentage of workers trained. Overall, data accessibility seems to be better for the Philippines compared to Cambodia. However, both countries urgently need to focus on closing this gap. Comprehensive data is critical for monitoring and evaluating responses to violence against women. It helps to identify barriers to accessing services and to understand whether there are problems within the systems and service provision.

The thesis also highlighted several promising practices implemented by both countries. In Cambodia, a notable mechanism is the GBV working groups established at the provincial and district levels. These groups serve as frontline providers, providing multi-sectoral support, referrals and communicating with government policymaking bodies. In the Philippines, another important mechanism is the WFS, which provide counseling and other essential services to displaced victims of VAW.

The analysis identified a number of critical gaps in legislation, policies, and their implementation. Recommendations were made to enhance these areas. The relevance of the findings has been discussed in the concluding part of the thesis.

Future research could explore international human rights obligations, such as prosecution and punishment, using a similar approach. It could also go beyond structural and process indicators and additionally incorporate outcome indicators on violence against women, although data availability could be an issue. Another direction could be field research aimed at exploring existing barriers to the effective implementation of policies.

Although the phenomenon of violence against women has existed for centuries, research on VAW, particularly in Southeast Asia, is relatively young. There remains significant progress to be made in both research and governmental protection of women from violence. This thesis aims to contribute to the advancement in both areas.

References

- “Data on Violence Against Women And Children Cases Generate From PNP Crime Information Reporting And Analysis System (CIRAS)” n.d. Accessed December 23, 2023. <https://foi.gov.ph/requests/data-on-regional-cases-of-violence-against-women/>.
- “Department of Justice National Prosecution Service Statistics on Rape, RA 9262, and Trafficking in Persons CY 2021”. n.d. *Electronic Freedom of Information (FOI) portal*. Accessed December 25, 2023. <https://www.foi.gov.ph/requests/number-of-women-whose-partners-sexually-assault-them-from-january-to-march-2022/>.
- “Violence Against Women, Covered Period: January-December 2019”. n.d. Accessed December 23, 2023. <https://www.foi.gov.ph/requests/list-of-shelters-for-women/>.
- [Ministry of Women’s Affairs]. 2015. „Key Gender Statistics in Cambodia“. Accessed May 20, 2024. https://www.jica.go.jp/Resource/project/cambodia/011/news/pdf/20120308_01.pdf.
- [NSC WPS]. n.d. "National Action Plan on Women, Peace and Security 2023-2033." Accessed July 16, 2024. <https://peace.gov.ph/wp-content/uploads/2024/01/NAPWPS-2023-2033-DIGITAL.pdf>.
- [PCW]. n.d. “Policy Brief No. 4, Strengthening the Provisions of RA 8353 (Amending the Anti-Rape Law).” Accessed July 16, 2024. <https://drive.google.com/file/d/1Mz40eJbVTtnnyc028drEh9KWhBO9Brfs/view>.
- [PCW]. n.d(a). “Policy Brief No.3. Reinstating Divorce in the Philippines”. Accessed July 16, 2024. <https://drive.google.com/file/d/1nX7h8sNvDIEVdpPxOc-YC48knpOauJ35/view>.
- [UN Women]. 2020. “Report on the PH implementation of the following resolutions, covering 01 August 2018 to date: Resolution 73/149 “Intensifying global efforts for the elimination of female genital mutilation (PH co-sponsored).” Accessed June 10, 2024. <https://www.unwomen.org/sites/default/files/Headquarters/Attachments/Sections/Library/Publications/2020/A-75-279-Submission-Philippines-en.pdf>.
- Abramsky, Tanya, Tina Musuya, Sophie Namy, Charlotte Watts, and Lori Michau. 2018. “Changing the Norms That Drive Intimate Partner Violence: Findings from a Cluster Randomised Trial on What Predisposes Bystanders to Take Action in Kampala, Uganda”. *BMJ Global Health* 3 (6): 1-15. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjgh-2018-001109>.
- Adams, Melinda. 2007. ”National Machineries’ and Authoritarian Politics” *International Feminist Journal of Politics* 9(2): 176-97. DOI: 10.1080/14616740701259846.
- Addis, Samia and Lara Snowdon. 2021. *What Works to Prevent Violence against Women, Domestic Abuse and Sexual Violence (VAWDASV)?*. Cardiff: Wales Violence Prevention Unit.
- Agarwal, Ayushi. 2021. “The Case for Treating Violence Against Women as a Form of Sex Discrimination in India.” *International Journal of Discrimination and the Law* 21 (1): 5–25. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1358229120978865>.
- Agüero, Jorge M. 2021. “COVID-19 and the Rise of Intimate Partner Violence”. *World Development* 137: 1-7. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.worlddev.2020.105217>.

- Akhtar, Nabila, and Namra Humayun. 2022. "The Role of Women Police in Eradicating Violence Against Women: A Case Study of Punjab". *JRSP* 58 (4): 113-24.
- Alesina, Alberto, Benedetta Brioschi, and Eliana La Ferrara. 2021. "Violence Against Women: A Cross-cultural Analysis for Africa". *Economica* 88 (349): 70–104. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ecca.12343>.
- Allaband, Nicole 2018. "Using Electronic Monitoring to Enhance the Protection Offered by Civil Protection Orders in Cases of Domestic Violence: A New Technology Offers New Protection." *Richmond Journal of Law & Technology* 24 (3): 1-32.
- Alvarez, Pantaleon D., Rodolfo C. Farinas, Reynaldo V. Umali, Marlyn L. Primicias-Agabas, and Ramon V.A. Rocamora. 2017. *House Bill No. 6204*. Quezon City: Republic of the Philippines, House of Representatives.
- Amirthalingam, Kumaralingam. 2005. "Women's Rights, International Norms, and Domestic Violence: Asian Perspectives". *Human Rights Quarterly* 27 (2): 683–708. <https://doi.org/10.1353/hrq.2005.0013>.
- Amnesty International. *It's In Our Hands: Stop Violence Against Women*. London: Amnesty International Publications. Accessed March 30, 2024. <https://www.amnesty.org/en/wp-content/uploads/2021/08/act770012004en.pdf>.
- Ang, Chiew Way, and Siow Li Lai. 2022. "Intimate Partner Violence in Cambodia: Is Women's Empowerment a Protective Factor?" *Asian Women* 38 (3): 1–28. <https://doi.org/10.14431/aw.2022.9.38.3.1>.
- Angelucci, Manuela, and Rachel Heath. 2020. "Women Empowerment Programs and Intimate Partner Violence." *AEA Papers and Proceedings* 110: 610–14. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/27042626>.
- Arango, Diana Jimena, Gennari, Floriza Freire, Kiplesund, Sveinung, McCleary-Sills, Jennifer Diane, and Anne-Marie Urban. 2015. *Violence against women and girls resource guide: education sector brief*. Washington, D.C: World Bank Group. Accessed March 20, 2024. <http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/874771468126896029/Violence-against-women-and-girls-resource-guide-education-sector-brief>.
- Arango, Diana, Matthew Morton, Floriza Gennari, Sveinung Kiplesund, and Mary Ellsberg. 2014. *Interventions To Prevent Or Reduce Violence Against Women And Girls: A Systematic Review Of Reviews*. Washington, D.C.: World Bank Group. <https://doi.org/10.13140/RG.2.1.2545.6168>.
- Araneta, Sandy. 2023. "19th Congress Resumes, Focuses on Prices, Power." *Inquirer.net*, June 19, 2023. Accessed July 19, 2024. <https://newsinfo.inquirer.net/1934631/19th-congress-resumes-focuses-on-prices-power>.
- Armitage, Gail D., Esther Suter, Nelly D. Oelke, and Carol E. Adair. 2009. "Health Systems Integration: State of the Evidence". *International Journal of Integrated Care* 9 (2): 1-11. <https://doi.org/10.5334/ijic.316>.

- Asia Foundation. 2021. "911 National Emergency Hotline to Assist VAWC and GBV Survivors in the Philippines." The Asia Foundation. Accessed July 16, 2024. <https://asiafoundation.org/2021/12/08/911-national-emergency-hotline-to-assist-vawc-and-gbv-survivors-in-the-philippines/>.
- Association of Southeast Asian Nations. 2013. *The Declaration on the Elimination of Violence Against Women and Elimination of Violence Against Children in ASEAN*. Accessed March 31, 2024. <https://asean.org/wp-content/uploads/2021/01/The-Declaration-on-the-Elimination-of-Violence-Against-Women-and-Elimination-of-Violence-Against-Children-in-ASEAN.pdf>.
- Avdeyeva, Olga. 2007. "When Do States Comply with International Treaties? Policies on Violence against Women in Post-Communist Countries." *International Studies Quarterly* 51, (4): 877–900. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/4621747>.
- Bach, Maria Hardeberg, Nina Beck Hansen, Courtney Ahrens, Cecilie Reendal Nielsen, Catherine Walshe, and Maj Hansen. 2021. "Underserved Survivors of Sexual Assault: A Systematic Scoping Review". *European Journal of Psychotraumatology* 12 (1): 1–15. <https://doi.org/10.1080/20008198.2021.1895516>.
- Baert, Saar, Christine Gilles, Sara Van Belle, Iva Bicanic, Kristien Roelens, and Ines Keygnaert. 2021. "Piloting Sexual Assault Care Centres in Belgium: Who Do They Reach and What Care Is Offered?" *European Journal of Psychotraumatology* 12 (1): 1–12. <https://doi.org/10.1080/20008198.2021.1935592>.
- Banerjee, Debanjan, and Rao Sathyanarayana T. S. 2022. "The Dark Shadow of Marital Rape: Need to Change the Narrative." *Journal of Psychosexual Health* 4 (1): 11–13. <https://doi.org/10.1177/26318318221083709>.
- Banyard, Victoria L., Elizabeth G. Plante, and Mary M. Moynihan. 2004. "Bystander Education: Bringing a Broader Community Perspective to Sexual Violence Prevention". *Journal of Community Psychology* 32 (1): 61–79. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jcop.10078>.
- Bárcena, Alicia, Antonio Prado, and Joseluis Samaniego. 2015. *Confronting Violence against Women in Latin America and the Caribbean*. Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (annual report). Accessed 12 March 2024.
- Bates, Lis, and Marianne Hester. 2020. "No Longer a Civil Matter? The Design and Use of Protection Orders for Domestic Violence in England and Wales". *Journal of Social Welfare and Family Law* 42 (2): 133–53. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09649069.2020.1751943>.
- Beck, Erin. 2023. "Violence against Women and Specialized Justice in Guatemala: Advances and Limitations". *Law & Social Inquiry*, April, 1–31. <https://doi.org/10.1017/lsi.2022.110>.
- Beckett, Linda Louise. 2007. "Care in Collaboration: Preventing Secondary Victimization Through a Holistic Approach to Pre-Court Sexual Violence Interventions" (doctoral thesis, Victoria University of Wellington).
- Bein, Kris. 2010. *Core Services and Characteristics of Rape Crisis Centers: A Review of State Service Standards*. National Sexual Assault Coalition Resource Sharing Project. Accessed March 20, 2024. https://resource-sharingproject.org/wp-content/uploads/2021/11/Core_Services_and_Characteristics_of_RCCs_0.pdf.

- Bejinariu, Alexa, Emily I. Troshynski, and Terance Miethe. 2023. "A Content Analysis of Civil Protection Order Statutes: What Makes Some State Statutes More Comprehensive Than Others?" *American Journal of Criminal Justice* 48 (2): 489–508. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12103-021-09651-8>.
- Belur, Jyoti, Amy Thornton, Lisa Tompson, Matthew Manning, Aiden Sidebottom, and Kate Bowers. 2020. "A Systematic Review of the Effectiveness of the Electronic Monitoring of Offenders". *Journal of Criminal Justice* 68 (May): 101686. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcrimjus.2020.101686>.
- Benitez, Christopher T., Dale E. McNeil, and Renée L. Binder, 2010. "Do protection orders protect?" *The journal of the American Academy of Psychiatry and the Law*, 38(3), 376–385.
- Bennett, Larry, Stephanie Riger, Paul Schewe, April Howard, and Sharon Wasco. 2004. "Effectiveness of Hotline, Advocacy, Counseling, and Shelter Services for Victims of Domestic Violence: A Statewide Evaluation". *Journal of Interpersonal Violence* 19 (7): 815–29. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260504265687>.
- Benninger-Budel, Carin. 2008. "Introduction" In *Due Diligence and Its Application to Protect Women from Violence.*, 1-23. Leiden: Brill | Nijhoff.
- Beres, Melanie A., Barbara Crow, and Lise Gotell. "The Perils of Institutionalization in Neoliberal Times: Results of a National Survey of Canadian Sexual Assault and Rape Crisis Centres." *Canadian Journal of Sociology* 34, no. 1 (2009): 135–63. <https://doi.org/10.29173/cjs1613>.
- Bergen, Raquel Kennedy and Shana L. Maier. 2011. "Sexual Assault Services" In *Sourcebook on violence against women*, edited by Claire M. Renzetti, Jeffrey L. Edleson, Raquel Kennedy Bergen. California: SAGE Publications, Inc. <https://doi.org/10.4135/9781452224916>.
- Bernarte, Racidon P., Quennie Marie M. Acedegbega, Mariah Louise A. Fadera, and Hanna Jemima G. Yopyop. 2018. "Violence Against Women in the Philippines." *Asia Pacific Journal of Multidisciplinary Research* 6, no. 1: 117-24. <http://www.apjmr.com/wp-content/uploads/2018/01/APJMR-2017.6.1.15a.pdf>.
- Berns, Nancy S. 2004. *Framing the victim: Domestic violence media and social problems*. New York: Aldine de Gruyter.
- Bott, Sarah, Mary Ellsberg, and Andrew Morrison. 2004. *Addressing Gender-Based Violence in the Latin American and Caribbean Region: A Critical Review of Interventions*. Policy Research Working Papers. The World Bank. <https://doi.org/10.1596/1813-9450-3438>.
- Bramsen, Rikke Holm, Ask Elklit, and Louise Hjort Nielsen. 2009. "A Danish Model for Treating Victims of Rape and Sexual Assault: The Multidisciplinary Public Approach". *Journal of Aggression, Maltreatment & Trauma* 18 (8): 886–905. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10926770903291811>.
- Brassiolo, Pablo. 2016. "Domestic Violence and Divorce Law: When Divorce Threats Become Credible." *Journal of Labor Economics* 34 (2): 443–77. <https://doi.org/10.1086/683666>.

- Breiding, Matthew J., Kathleen C. Basile, Sharon G. Smith, Michele M. Black, Reshma R. Mahendra. 2015. *Intimate Partner Violence Surveillance: Uniform Definitions and Recommended Data Elements, Version 2.0*. Atlanta (GA): National Center for Injury Prevention and Control, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Accessed March 30, 2024. <https://www.cdc.gov/violenceprevention/pdf/ipv/intimatepartnerviolence.pdf>.
- Brennan, Shannon, and Andrea Taylor-Butts. 2008. "Sexual Assault in Canada: 2004 and 2007." Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics Profile Series. Statistics Canada. Accessed March 30, 2024. [http://www.nipawinoasis.com/documents/sexual assault.pdf](http://www.nipawinoasis.com/documents/sexual%20assault.pdf).
- Brooks-Hay, Oona, Michele Burman, Lisa Bradley and Deborah Kyle. 2018. *Evaluation of the Rape Crisis Scotland National Advocacy Project: Final Report*. SCCJR, University of Glasgow. Accessed March 20, 2024. <https://eprints.gla.ac.uk/187695/1/187695.pdf>.
- Brosas, Arlene D., France L. Castro, and Raoul A. Manuel. 2022. *House Bill No. 401*. Quezon City: Republic of the Philippines, House of Representatives.
- Buleng Cheung. n.d. "Criminal Code (Khmer-English translation)". Accessed July 16, 2024. <https://www.ajne.org/sites/default/files/resource/laws/7195/criminal-code-cambodia-en-kh.pdf>.
- Bunce, Annie, Sophie Carlisle, and Estela Capelas Barbosa. 2023. "The Concept and Measurement of Interpersonal Violence in Specialist Services Data: Inconsistencies, Outcomes and the Challenges of Synthesising Evidence" *Social Sciences* 12(7): 1-15. <https://doi.org/10.3390/socsci12070366>.
- Burke, Eva, Katherine Watson, Gillian Eva, Judy Gold, Claudia Garcia-Moreno, and Avni Amin. 2024. "Is Addressing Violence against Women Prioritised in Health Policies? Findings from a WHO Policies Database". Edited by María De Jesús Medina Arellano. *PLOS Global Public Health* 4 (2): 1-13. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pgph.0002504>.
- Burn, Shawn Meghan. 2010. *Women Across Cultures: A Global Perspective*. New York: McGraw-Hill Education.
- Burnett, Camille J. 2012. „Examining the Effects of Policies on the Delivery of Shelter Services to Women Who Have Experienced Intimate Partner Violence" (doctoral thesis, the University of Western Ontario). Accessed March 30, 2024. <https://ir.lib.uwo.ca/etd/635>.
- Burnett, Camille, Marilyn Ford-Gilboe, Helene Berman, Nadine Wathen, and Cathy Ward-Griffin. 2016. "The Day-to-Day Reality of Delivering Shelter Services to Women Exposed to Intimate Partner Violence in the Context of System and Policy Demands". *Journal of Social Service Research* 42 (4): 516–32. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01488376.2016.1153562>.
- Byrne, Bridget and Julie Koch Laier. 1996. *National Mechanisms for Women in Development: Experiences, Lessons and Strategies for Institutionalising Gender in Development Policy and Planning*. Brighton: Institute of Development Studies, University of Sussex.
- Byrne, Bridget, Julie Koch Laier, Sally Baden, and Rachel Marcus. 1996. *National Mechanisms for Women in Development: Experiences, Lessons and Strategies for Institutionalising Gender in Development Policy and Planning*. Brighton: Institute of Development Studies. Accessed 12

March, 2024. [https://genderandenvironment.org/wp-content/uploads/dropbox/Policy/National machineries for women in development.pdf](https://genderandenvironment.org/wp-content/uploads/dropbox/Policy/National_machineries_for_women_in_development.pdf).

- Cabrera, Marishka M. 2019. "No children protection units in most gov't hospitals despite DOH order." *ABS-CBN News Focus*. January 20, 2019. Accessed July 15, 2024. <https://news.abs-cbn.com/focus/01/20/19/no-children-protection-units-in-most-govt-hospitals-despite-doh-order>.
- Calderon, Maria, Carla Cortez-Vergara, Laura Brown, Hattie Lowe, Blenda Abarca, Marta Rondon, and Jenevieve Mannell. 2023. "Assessing Essential Service Provision for Prevention and Management of Violence against Women in a Remote Indigenous Community in Amantaní, Peru". *International Journal for Equity in Health* 22 (1): 1-15. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12939-023-02012-3>.
- Carpentier, Chantal Line, and Hannah Braun. 2020. "Agenda 2030 for Sustainable Development: A Powerful Global Framework". *Journal of the International Council for Small Business* 1 (1): 14–23. <https://doi.org/10.1080/26437015.2020.1714356>.
- Carpentier, Chantal Line, and Hannah Braun. 2020. "Agenda 2030 for Sustainable Development: A Powerful Global Framework". *Journal of the International Council for Small Business* 1 (1): 14–23. <https://doi.org/10.1080/26437015.2020.1714356>.
- Carrington, Kerry, Bull, Melissa, Lopes Gomes Pinto Ferreira, Gisella, and Puyol, Maria Victoria. 2020. Reimagining the policing of gender violence: lessons from women's police stations in Brasil and Argentina. *Brazilian Journal of Public Policy (Revista Brasileira de Políticas Publicas)*, 10(2): 320-338.
- Carrington, Kerry, Sozzo, Maximo, Puyol, Maria Victoria, Gamboa, Marcela Parada, Guala, Natacha, Giberto, Luciana, & Zysman, Diego. 2019. "The Role of Women's Police Stations In Widening Access to Justice and Eliminating Gender Violence". In *Proceedings of the United Nations 63rd Commission on the Status of Women (CSW)*. United States of America: United Nations Commission on the Status of Women (CSW), 1-17. Accessed March 30, 2024. <https://eprints.qut.edu.au/127632/13/UN%2BCSW%2Bwomen's%2Bpolice%2Bstations%2B16%2BMarch.pdf>.
- Casey, Erin A., and Kristin Ohler. 2012. "'Being a Positive Bystander: Male Antiviolence Allies' Experiences of 'Stepping Up'". *Journal of Interpersonal Violence* 27 (1): 62–83. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260511416479>.
- Castro, Lina. 2009. *Statistical Policies and Related Mechanisms in Advancing Gender Statistics: The Philippine Experience*. Accra: Global Forum on Gender Statistics. Accessed May 19, 2024. https://unstats.un.org/unsd/gender/Ghana_Jan2009/Doc14.pdf.
- Cavanagh, Kate, Clare Connelly, and Jane Scoular. 2003. *Evaluation of the Protection from Abuse (Scotland) Act 2001*. Edinburgh: Scottish Executive Social Research.
- CBDOnline. n.d(a). "Provincial/Municipal Profile, Gender". Accessed June 10, 2024. <https://db.ncdd.gov.kh/cdbonline/home/index.castle>.
- CDBOnline. 2010. „Commune/Sangkat Profile, Nang Khi Loek, Year: 2010“. Accessed May 20, 2024. <https://db.ncdd.gov.kh/cdbonline/home/index.castle>.

- CCPR. 2015. “List of issues in relation to the second periodic report of Cambodia. Addendum, Replies of Cambodia to the list of issues”. Accessed June 10, 2024. <https://measboralaws.com/images/pdf/books-magazines/6181ff109242dece9de3533300c5d5b1.pdf>.
- CCPR. 2022. “Replies of the Philippines to the list of issues in relation to its fifth periodic report”. March 18, 2022. CCPR/C/PHL/RQ/5.
- CDCP. 2015. *Intimate Partner Violence Surveillance: Uniform Definitions and Recommended Data Elements*. Atlanta: Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Center for Injury Prevention and Control.
- CEDAW. 2005. “Responses to the list of issues and questions for consideration of the combined fourth and fifth periodic report, Cambodia”. December 30, 2005. Accessed July 16, 2024. <https://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/cedaw/cedaw34/responses/KHMResponseEnglish.pdf>.
- CEDAW. 2013. “List of issues in relation to the combined fourth and fifth periodic reports of Cambodia. Addendum, Replies of Cambodia to the list of issues”. Accessed June 10, 2024. <https://documents.un.org/doc/undoc/gen/n13/457/95/pdf/n1345795.pdf?token=8muTQxEVZJO0TZ7ynY&fe=true>.
- CEDAW. 2015. “List of issues and questions in relation to the combined seventh and eighth periodic reports of the Philippines. Addendum, Replies of the Philippines”. *CEDAW, Sixty-fourth session*. Accessed June 10, 2024. <https://documents.un.org/doc/undoc/gen/n16/113/86/pdf/n1611386.pdf?token=Gcpail5BvJgUkTiSIZ&fe=true>.
- CEDAW. 2015a. “Consideration of reports submitted by States parties under article 18 of the Convention, Combined seventh and eighth periodic reports of States parties due in 2010, Philippines”. March 2, 2015. CEDAW/C/PHL/7-8.
- CEDAW. 2016. “List of issues and questions in relation to the combined seventh and eighth periodic reports of the Philippines”. April 22, 2016. CEDAW/C/PHL/Q/7-8/Add.1.
- CEDAW. 2018. “Sixth Periodic Report Submitted By Cambodia Under Article 18 of the Convention, Due in 2017”. Accessed June 10, 2024. <https://digitallibrary.un.org/record/1647940?ln=ar&v=pdf>.
- CEDAW. 2019. “List of issues and questions in relation to the sixth periodic report of Cambodia: Addendum, Replies of Cambodia to the list of issues and questions”. Accessed June 10, 2024. <https://documents.un.org/doc/undoc/gen/n19/308/19/pdf/n1930819.pdf?token=jZGo1JmoMcnYXoGP1L&fe=true>.
- CEDAW. 2021. “Ninth periodic report submitted by the Philippines under article 18 of the Convention, due in 2020”. October 4, 2021. Accessed July 15, 2024. <https://documents.un.org/doc/undoc/gen/n21/273/01/pdf/n2127301.pdf?token=iBL9d6CEBsgfgOwt5a&fe=true>.
- CEDAW. 2023. “Replies of the Philippines To The List Of Issues And Questions In Relation To Its Ninth Periodic Report”. Accessed June 11,

2024. <https://documents.un.org/doc/undoc/gen/n23/353/72/pdf/n2335372.pdf?token=aHzwEw5PrJlM8rcp11&fe=true>.

- CEHAT. 2012. *Ethical Guidelines For Counseling Women Facing Domestic Violence*. Mumbai: Centre for Enquiry into Health and Allied Themes. Accessed March 20, 2024. <https://cehat.org/uploads/media/2024/R84Ethical-Guidelines-for-Counseling-Women-Facing-Domestic-Violence.pdf>.
- CFO. 2019. “CFO Inputs to the Philippine Progress Report on the Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action.” Accessed April 10, 2024. https://cfo.gov.ph/wp-content/uploads/GAD/2019/CFO_Inputs_to_the_Philippine_Progress_Report_on_the_Implementation_of_the_Beijing_Platform_for_Action.pdf.
- Chakraborty, Proshant, David Osrin, and Nayreen Daruwalla. 2020. “‘We Learn How to Become Good Men’: Working with Male Allies to Prevent Violence against Women and Girls in Urban Informal Settlements in Mumbai, India”. *Men and Masculinities* 23 (3–4): 749–71. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1097184X18806544>.
- Chan, Wing-Cheong. 2015. “A Review of Civil Protection Orders in Six Jurisdictions.” *Statute Law Review* 38 (1): 1–22. <https://doi.org/10.1093/slr/hmv032>.
- Child Protection Network. 2022. “Data Visualization of 138 Women and Children Protection Units and VAWC Desk across the Philippines”. Accessed July 15, 2024. <https://www.childprotectionnetwork.org/wcpu-directory/>.
- Ciswaka, Henoeh, Malik Olatunde Oduoye, Gaston Masimango, Rodrigue Fikiri Bavurhe, Daniel Bulondo, Chrispin Biamba, Fabrice Kibukila, Pamela Feza, Aymar Akilimali, and Olivier Nyakio. 2024. ‘Prevention and Elimination Efforts of HIV / AIDS Caused by Sexual Violence against Women in the Democratic Republic of the Congo: An Editorial’. *International Journal of Gynecology & Obstetrics* 164 (2): 385–86. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ijgo.15128>.
- Ciupa, Anca. 2021. Promising Practices of Establishing and Providing Specialist Support Services for Women Experiencing Sexual Violence: *A Legal and Practical Overview For Women’s NGOs and Policy Makers in the Western Balkans and Turkey*. Vienna: WAVE. https://wave-network.org/wp-content/uploads/WAVE_CSSP_Policypaper210917_web.pdf.
- Clark, Brigitte, and Claudina Richards. 2008. “The Prevention and Prohibition of Forced Marriages: A Comparative Approach.” *The International and Comparative Law Quarterly* 57 (3): 501–28. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/20488229>.
- Clemans, Shantih E. 2004. “Life Changing: The Experience of Rape-Crisis Work”. *Affilia* 19 (2): 146–59. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0886109903262758>.
- Clevenger, Brady J. Miller, and Dominique Roe-Sepowitz. 2009. “Shelter Service Utilization of Domestic Violence Victims”. *Journal of Human Behavior in the Social Environment* 19 (4): 359–74. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10911350902787429>.
- Coates, Dominiek, Maria Koleth, Lauren Hamilton. 2022. *The effectiveness of crisis and post-crisis responses for victims and survivors of sexual violence: an overview of findings from reviews*. New South Wales: Australia’s National Research Organisation for Women’s Safety Limited.

- Colagrossi, Marco, Claudio Deiana, Andrea Geraci, and Ludovica Giua. 2022. "Hang up on Stereotypes: Domestic Violence and an Anti-abuse Helpline Campaign". *Contemporary Economic Policy* 40 (4): 585–611. <https://doi.org/10.1111/coep.12571>.
- Collins, Barbara G., and Mary B. Whalen. 1989. "The Rape Crisis Movement: Radical or Reformist?" *Social Work* 34 (1): 61–63. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/23715621>.
- Colombini, Manuela, Susannah H Mayhew, Siti Hawa Ali, Rashidah Shuib, and Charlotte Watts. 2012. "An Integrated Health Sector Response to Violence against Women in Malaysia: Lessons for Supporting Scale Up". *BMC Public Health* 12 (1): 1-10. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2458-12-548>.
- Commonwealth Secretariat. 2022. *Measuring the Economic Costs of Violence Against Women and Girls*. London: Commonwealth Secretariat. Accessed March 30, 2024. [https://production-new-commonwealth-files.s3.eu-west-2.amazonaws.com/s3fs-public/2022-06/Facilitator's Guide to Measuring the Economic Costs of VAWG_Jun22.pdf?VersionId=3Pbab6tqp3yiIwCqqFctYRcervI0M7W4O](https://production-new-commonwealth-files.s3.eu-west-2.amazonaws.com/s3fs-public/2022-06/Facilitator's%20Guide%20to%20Measuring%20the%20Economic%20Costs%20of%20VAWG_Jun22.pdf?VersionId=3Pbab6tqp3yiIwCqqFctYRcervI0M7W4O).
- Congress of the Philippines. 1998. *Republic Act No. 8504: Philippine AIDS Prevention and Control Act of 1998*. Accessed July 16, 2024. https://lawphil.net/statutes/repacts/ra1998/ra_8504_1998.html.
- Congress of the Philippines. 2012. "Republic Act No. 10364". LawPhil.net. Accessed July 16, 2024, https://lawphil.net/statutes/repacts/ra2013/ra_10364_2013.html.
- Congress of the Philippines. n.d. "Republic Act No. 10364 (Expanded Anti-Trafficking in Persons Act of 2012)." LawPhil.net. Accessed July 16, 2024. https://lawphil.net/statutes/repacts/ra2013/ra_10364_2013.html.
- Connelly, Clare, and Kate Cavanagh. 2007. "Domestic Abuse, Civil Protection Orders and the 'new Criminologies': Is There Any Value in Engaging with the Law?" *Feminist Legal Studies* 15 (3): 259–87. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10691-007-9069-7>.
- Contreras-Urbina, Manuel, Brian Heilman, Anne Kathrin Von Au, Amber Hill, Margarita Puerto Gómez, Jennifer Zelaya, Diana Jimena Arango. 2016. *Community-Based Approaches to Intimate Partner Violence: A Review of Evidence and Essential Steps to Adaptation*. Washington, DC: The Global Women's Institute and World Bank. Accessed March 30, 2024. <https://documents1.worldbank.org/curated/en/907511467996712161/pdf/AUS16688-REVISED-Community-Programs-SinglePages.pdf>.
- Cook, Dee, Mandy Burton, Amanda Robinson, and Christine Vallely. 2004. "Evaluation of Specialist Domestic Violence Courts/Fast Track Systems". Commissioned by the Crown Prosecution Service and the Department for Constitutional Affairs. <http://hdl.handle.net/2436/22612>.
- Corboz, Julianne, Michael Flood, and Sue Dyson. 2016. "Challenges of Bystander Intervention in Male-Dominated Professional Sport: Lessons From the Australian Football League". *Violence Against Women* 22 (3): 324–43. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1077801215602343>.

- Cordier, Reinie, Donna Chung, Sarah Wilkes-Gillan, and Renée Speyer. 2021. "The Effectiveness of Protection Orders in Reducing Recidivism in Domestic Violence: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis". *Trauma, Violence, & Abuse* 22 (4): 804–28. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1524838019882361>.
- Córdova, Abby, and Helen Kras. 2020. "Addressing Violence Against Women: The Effect of Women's Police Stations on Police Legitimacy". *Comparative Political Studies* 53 (5): 775–808. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0010414019879959>.
- Córdova, Abby, and Helen Kras. 2022. 'State Action to Prevent Violence against Women: The Effect of Women's Police Stations on Men's Attitudes toward Gender-Based Violence'. *The Journal of Politics* 84 (1): 1–17. <https://doi.org/10.1086/714931>.
- Council of Europe. 2011. *Convention on preventing and combating violence against women and domestic violence*. Council of Europe Treaty Series - No. 210. Accessed April 10, 2024. <https://rm.coe.int/168008482e>.
- Council of Europe. 2014. *The Council of Europe Convention on Preventing and Combating Violence against Women and Domestic Violence*. Accessed April 10, 2024. <https://www.refworld.org/reference/regionalreport/coe/2014/en/102469>.
- Coy, Maddy, Liz Kelly, and Jo Foord. 2007. *Map of Gaps: The Postcode Lottery of Violence Against Women Support Services in Britain*. London: End Violence Against Women.
- Coy, Maddy, Liz Kelly, and Jo Foord. 2009. *Map of Gaps 2: The Postcode Lottery of Violence Against Women Support Services in Britain*. London: End Violence Against Women.
- CRC. 2009. "Written Replies By The Government Of The Philippines To The List Of Issues (Crc/C/Phl/Q/3-4) Prepared By The Committee On The Rights Of The Child In Connection With The Consideration Of The Third And Fourth Periodic Reports Of The Philippines (Crc/C/Phl/3-4)". United Nations Digital Library.
- Crooks, Claire V., Peter Jaffe, Caely Dunlop, Amanda Kerry, and Deinera Exner-Cortens. 2019. "Preventing Gender-Based Violence Among Adolescents and Young Adults: Lessons From 25 Years of Program Development and Evaluation". *Violence Against Women* 25 (1): 29–55. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1077801218815778>.
- Crowell, A. Nancy, and Ann W. Burgess (Eds.). 1996. *Understanding Violence Against Women*. Washington, DC: The National Academies Press.
- Cruz, RG. 2024. "House Lawmakers Spar over Divorce Bill's 'Constitutionality'." *ABS-CBN News*, March 19, 2024. <https://news.abs-cbn.com/news/2024/3/19/house-lawmakers-spar-over-divorce-bill-s-constitutionality-1954>.
- CWCC. n.d (a). "Protection Program." *Cambodian Women's Crisis Center*. Accessed July 13, 2024. <http://www.cwcc.org.kh/protection.php>.
- Dahlstedt, Jaime. 2013. "Notification and Risk Management for Victims of Domestic Violence." *Wisconsin Journal of Law, Gender & Society* 1: 1–49. <https://ssrn.com/abstract=2606512>.

- Daruwalla, Nayreen, Tanushree Das, Sangeeta Punekar, Sonali Patil, Shreya Manjrekar, Shanti Pantvaitya, Vanessa D'Souza, and David Osrin. 2024. "Support Needs of Survivors of Violence against Women in Urban India: A Prospective Analysis of Client Records". *Global Health Research*: 1–14. <https://doi.org/10.3310/LKNH2423>.
- Daruwalla, Nayreen, Unnati Machchhar, Shanti Pantvaitya, Vanessa D'Souza, Lu Gram, Andrew Copas, and David Osrin. 2019. "Community Interventions to Prevent Violence against Women and Girls in Informal Settlements in Mumbai: The SNEHA-TARA Pragmatic Cluster Randomised Controlled Trial". *Trials* 20 (1): 1-12. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13063-019-3817-2>.
- Davis, Liane. V., Jan L. Hagen, and Theresa J. Early. 1994. Social services for battered women: Are they adequate, accessible, and appropriate? *Social Work*, 39(6), 695–704.
- Davis, V. Liane, Hagen, L. Jan, and Theresa. J. Early. 1994. "Social services for battered women: are they adequate, accessible, and appropriate?" *Social work*, 39(6), 695–704.
- Decker, Suzanne E., and Amy E. Naugle. 2009. "Immediate Intervention for Sexual Assault: A Review with Recommendations and Implications for Practitioners". *Journal of Aggression, Maltreatment & Trauma* 18 (4): 419–41. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10926770902901485>.
- Deguma, Jabin J., Emerson D. Peteros, Melona S. Case, and Vicente J. Igot. 2018. "Violence Against Women and Gender Equality in the Philippines: Are They Related?" *Journal of Educational and Human Resource Development (JEHRD)* 6 (December): 68–81. <https://doi.org/10.61569/4nafjv22>.
- Department of Health, Health Facility Development Bureau. 2022. *Manual Of Standards And Guidelines On The Management Of The Hospital Emergency Department*. Manila: Department on Health.
- Department of Health. 2010. *Manual For Medical Social Workers Fifth Edition*. Manila: Department of Health, National Center for Health Facility Development.
- Department of Health. 2013. "Administrative Order No. 2013-011". Accessed July 15, 2024. <https://www.childprotectionnetwork.org/wp-content/uploads/2019/06/AO-WCPU-Gov.-Hosp..pdf>.
- Department of Health. 2014. *The Philippine Clinical Standards Manual on Family Planning (4th addition)*. Manila: DOH.
- Department of Health. 2023. *National Objectives for Health, Philippines*. Manila: Health Policy Development and Planning Bureau, Department of Health.
- Department of Health. 2024. *Health Promotion Framework Strategy 2030*. Manila: Department of Health.
- Department of Health. 2024a. *Gender and Development Sectoral Agenda Philippines 2024-2028*. Manila: Health Policy Development and Planning Bureau, Department of Health.
- Department of Justice. n.d. "DOJ Open Government Data". Accessed May 19, 2024. https://www.doj.gov.ph/open_data.html.

- Department of Planning and Health Information. 2016. "The Third Health Strategic Plan 2016-2020". Accessed July 15, 2024. [https://hismohcambodia.org/public/fileupload/carousel/HSP3-\(2016-2020\).pdf](https://hismohcambodia.org/public/fileupload/carousel/HSP3-(2016-2020).pdf).
- Department of the Interior and Local Government, Philippine National Police. n.d. "The Philippine National Police". *Official Gazette*. Accessed June 11, 2024. <https://www.officialgazette.gov.ph/featured/about-the-pnp/#:~:text=For the main PNP operating,Regional subdivisions of the country.>
- Désilets, Laura. 2019. *Exploring The Impacts Of Women's Economic Empowerment Initiatives On Domestic Violence*. Oxfam Research Reports. Accessed March 30, 2024. <https://oxfamlibrary.openrepository.com/bitstream/handle/10546/620867/rr-womens-economic-empowerment-domestic-violence-120919-en.pdf;jsessionid=75E249355A116BD29ECA32C39977EB9B?sequence=2>.
- Deyessa, Negussie, Yemane Berhane, Mary Ellsberg, Maria Emmelin, Gunnar Kullgren, and Ulf Högborg. 2010. "Violence against Women in Relation to Literacy and Area of Residence in Ethiopia". *Global Health Action* 3 (1): 1-9. <https://doi.org/10.3402/gha.v3i0.2070>.
- DFAT. 2017. "Ending Violence Against Women in Cambodia 2012-2017 Program Completion Report." Accessed July 16, 2024. <https://www.dfat.gov.au/sites/default/files/ending-violence-against-women-in-cambodia-2012-2017-program-completion-report.pdf>.
- Dichter, Melissa E., and Karin V. Rhodes. 2011. "Intimate Partner Violence Survivors' Unmet Social Service Needs". *Journal of Social Service Research* 37 (5): 481–89. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01488376.2011.587747>.
- Directorate For Investigation Ana Detective Management. 2015. *Crime Information, Reporting And Analysis System (CIRAS): User's Manual*. Accessed May 19, 2024. https://didm.pnp.gov.ph/images/james_vio/Crime_Information_Reporting_and_Analysis_System_CIRAS.pdf.
- Douglas, Heather. 2008. "The Criminal Law's Response to Domestic Violence: What's Going On?" *Sydney Law Review* 30 (3): 439-469. <https://ssrn.com/abstract=1287498>.
- Dowling, Christopher, Anthony Morgan, Shann Hulme, Matthew Manning, and Gabriel Wong. 2018. *Protection Orders for Domestic Violence: A Systematic Review*. Australian Institute of Criminology. <https://doi.org/10.52922/ti116237>.
- DSWD. 2010. "Administrative Order No. 2010-002". Accessed July 16, 2024. https://www.dswd.gov.ph/issuances/AOs/AO_2010-002.pdf.
- DSWD. 2016. *Primer on National Family Violence Prevention Program*. Accessed July 16, 2024. <https://kmfo4b.dswd.gov.ph/portal/wp-content/uploads/2016/06/PRIMER-on-National-Family-Violence-Prevention-Program.pdf>.
- DSWD. 2020. *Marillac Hills Manual of Operations*. https://ncr.dswd.gov.ph/wp-content/uploads/2020/03/MARILLAC_MOO.pdf.
- DSWD. 2020(a). *Haven for Women Manual of Operations*. <https://ncr.dswd.gov.ph/wp-content/uploads/2020/03/HFW-MOO.pdf>.

- DSWD. 2023. "Haven for Women." Accessed July 16, 2024. <https://fo1.dswd.gov.ph/programs/center-based-services/haven-for-women/>.
- DSWD. 2024. "Regional Haven for Women and Girls." Last modified July 16, 2024. <https://fo4a.dswd.gov.ph/programs-and-services/special-projects/centers-and-institutions/regional-haven-for-women/>.
- Dubey, R. D. 2010. "Role of Police and Protection of Women against Violence," *Indian Journal of Law and Justice* 1 (1): 61-67.
- Durfee, Alesha, and Jill Theresa Messing. 2012. "Characteristics Related to Protection Order Use Among Victims of Intimate Partner Violence". *Violence Against Women* 18 (6): 701–10. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1077801212454256>.
- Dyson, Sue and Michael Flood. 2008. *Building cultures of respect and non-violence: A review of literature concerning adult learning and violence prevention programs with men*. Victoria: Victorian Health Promotion Foundation (VicHealth). Accessed March 30, 2024. https://eprints.qut.edu.au/103793/1/_qut.edu.au_Documents_StaffHome_staffgroupB%24_bozzetto_Documents_2017000715.pdf.
- ECLAC United Nations. n.d. "Technical Sheet. Hierarchical level of the machineries for the advancement of women". CEPALSTAT: Databases and Statistical Publications. United Nations Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC). Accessed June 16, 2024. https://statistics.cepal.org/portal/cepalstat/technical-sheet.html?lang=en&indicator_id=2243&area_id=223.
- Eerz, Edna. 2011. "Women as Victims and Survivors in the Context of Transnational Human Trafficking for Commercial Sex Exploitation": *Revue Internationale de Droit Pénal* Vol. 81 (3): 551–62. <https://doi.org/10.3917/ridp.813.0551>.
- Eggers Del Campo, Isabel, and Janina Isabel Steinert. 2022. "The Effect of Female Economic Empowerment Interventions on the Risk of Intimate Partner Violence: A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis". *Trauma, Violence, & Abuse* 23 (3): 810–26. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1524838020976088>.
- EIGE. 2012. *Review of the Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in the EU Member States: Violence against Women – Victim Support*. Vilnius: European Institute for Gender Equality.
- EIGE. 2016. *Administrative Data Collection on Violence Against Women: Good Practices*. Lithuania: European Institute for Gender Equality. Accessed March 14, 2024. <https://eige.europa.eu/sites/default/files/documents/mh0416095enn.pdf>.
- EIGE. 2016(a). "Study on the Use of Administrative Data in Monitoring the Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action." Accessed July 19, 2024. https://eige.europa.eu/sites/default/files/documents/ti_pubpdf_mh0116684enn_pdfweb_20170104105816.pdf.
- EIGE. 2021. *The costs of gender-based violence in the European Union*. Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union. Accessed March 30, 2024. <https://eige.europa.eu/publications-resources/publications/costs-gender-based-violence-european-union>.

- Eigenberg, Helen, Karen McGuffee, Phyllis Berry, and William H Hall. 2003. "Protective Order Legislation: Trends in State Statutes". *Journal of Criminal Justice* 31 (5): 411–22. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0047-2352\(03\)00047-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0047-2352(03)00047-3).
- Eighteenth Congress of the Philippines. 2021. "Republic Act 11596". The Lawphil Project. Accessed July 16, 2024. https://lawphil.net/statutes/repacts/ra2021/ra_11596_2021.html.
- Ekal, Berna. 2014. "Women's Shelters in Turkey. Whose Responsibility?" *Ethnologie Française* 44 (2): 237–45. <https://doi.org/10.3917/ethn.142.0237>.
- Eley, Susan. 2005. "Changing Practices: The Specialised Domestic Violence Court Process". *The Howard Journal of Criminal Justice* 44 (2): 113–24. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2311.2005.00361.x>.
- Ellis, Jane, and Ravi K. Thiara, eds. 2014. *Preventing Violence against Women and Girls: Educational Work with Children and Young People*. Bristol: Bristol University Press. <https://doi.org/10.2307/j.ctt1t88x7x>.
- Ellsberg, Mary, and Lori Heise. 2005. *Researching Violence Against Women: A Practical Guide for Researchers and Activists*. Geneva: World Health Organization.
- Ellsberg, Mary, Diana J. Arango, Matthew Morton, Floriza Gennari, Sveinung Kiplesund, Manuel Contreras, and Charlotte Watts. 2015. "Prevention of violence against women and girls: what does the evidence say?" *The Lancet* 385 (9977): 1555-66. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(14\)61703-7](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(14)61703-7).
- Ellyson, Alice M., Avanti Adhia, Sandra Shanahan, Aisha Alsinai, Lisa DiMascolo, Maxmilliaan Reygers, Deirdre Bowen, and Ali Rowhani-Rahbar. 2023. "Firearm Restrictions in Domestic Violence Protection Orders: Implementation, Vetting, Compliance, and Enforcement". *Criminology & Public Policy*: 1-30. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1745-9133.12639>.
- Equality Now. 2023. "FGM in the Asia Pacific Region in Detail." Accessed July 19, 2024. <https://equalitynow.org/resource/fgm-in-the-asia-pacific-region-in-detail/#:~:text=FGM%2FC in the Philippines,largely falls under Type IV>.
- Erez, Edna, Peter R. Ibarra, and Norman A. Lurie. 2004. "Electronic Monitoring of Domestic Violence Cases - A Study of Two Bilateral Programs". *Federal Probation* 68 (June): 15–20.
- Erez, Edna. 2002. "Domestic Violence and the Criminal Justice System: An Overview". *OJIN: The Online Journal of Issues in Nursing* 7 (1). <https://doi.org/10.3912/OJIN.Vol7No01Man03>.
- Ertürk, Yakın. 2008. "The Due Diligence standard: What Does it Entail for Women's Rights?" In *Due Diligence and Its Application to Protect Women from Violence*, 27-46. Leiden: Brill | Nijhoff.
- European Parliament. 2023. *Combating Violence against Women and Domestic Violence*. Briefing, EU Legislation in Progress.
- EVAW Program Management Office. 2017. "Ending Violence Against Women in Cambodia 2012-2017, Program Management Office, Program Completion Report". Accessed June 10,

2024. <https://www.dfat.gov.au/sites/default/files/ending-violence-against-women-in-cambodia-2012-2017-program-completion-report.pdf>.
- FAO. 2008. "The Civil Code of Cambodia (Tentative English Translation)". Accessed July 16, 2024. <https://faolex.fao.org/docs/pdf/cam204996.pdf>.
- Farmer, Amy, and Jill Tiefenthaler. 2002. "Domestic Violence: The Value of Services as Signals." *Economic Behavior and the Family* 86 (2): 274-79.
- Farrior, Stephanie. 2009. "Human Rights Advocacy on Gender Issues: Challenges and Opportunities." *Journal of Human Rights Practice* 1 (1): 83–100. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jhuman/hup002>.
- Feder, Gene, Roxane Agnew Davies, Kathleen Baird, Danielle Dunne, Sandra Eldridge, Chris Griffiths, Alison Gregory, et al. 2011. "Identification and Referral to Improve Safety (IRIS) of Women Experiencing Domestic Violence with a Primary Care Training and Support Programme: A Cluster Randomised Controlled Trial". *The Lancet* 378 (9805): 1788–95. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(11\)61179-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(11)61179-3).
- Fernández-González, Liria, Esther Calvete, Izaskun Orue, and Alice Mauri. 2018. "Victims of Domestic Violence in Shelters: Impacts on Women and Children". *The Spanish Journal of Psychology* 21: 1-10. <https://doi.org/10.1017/sjp.2018.21>.
- Fifteenth Congress of the Philippines. 2012. "Republic Act No. 10364". The Lawpil Project. Accessed July 16, 2024. https://lawphil.net/statutes/repacts/ra2013/ra_10364_2013.html.
- Fifteenth Congress Of The Republic Of The Philippines. 2010. "S. No. 992". Accessed July 16, 2024. <http://legacy.senate.gov.ph/lisdata/84557008!.pdf>
- Finn, Peter and Sarah Colson. 1990. *Civil Protection Orders: Legislation, Current Court Practice, and Enforcement*. Washington, DC: National Institute of Justice.
- Fischer, Karla, and Mary Rose. 1995. "When "Enough Is Enough": Battered Women's Decision Making Around Court Orders of Protection". *Crime & Delinquency* 41 (4): 414–29. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0011128795041004003>.
- Fischer, Tamar, and Sanne Struijk. 2021. "Dutch Penal Protection Orders in Practice: A Study of Aims and Outcomes". *Erasmus Law Review* 14 (3): 146–60. <https://doi.org/10.5553/ELR.000204>.
- Fitzgerald, Robin, and Heather Douglas. 2020. "The Whole Story: The Dilemma of the Domestic Violence Protection Order Narrative". *The British Journal of Criminology* 60 (1): 180–97. <https://doi.org/10.1093/bjc/azz043>.
- Flood, Michael, and Pease, Bob. 2006. "The Factors Influencing Community Attitudes in Relation to Violence against Women: A Critical Review of the Literature." *Trauma Violence & Abuse* 10(2): 125-142.
- Flood, Michael. 2005. "Changing Men: Best Practice in Sexual Violence Education". *Women Against Violence* 18: 26-36.

- Floriani, Elena and Léa Dudouet. 2021. *WAVE Country Report 2021: Women's Specialist Support Services in Europe and the Impact of COVID-19 On Their Provision*. Vienna: WAVE.
- Forsdike, Kirsty, Sue Dyson, Emma Seal, Grant O'Sullivan, Daswin De Silva, Alex Donaldson, Donna Burnett, Matthew Nicholson, and Daminda Alahakoon. 2021. *Our Watch Evaluation. Final Report*. La Trobe University and Australian Government Department of Social Services. Accessed March 30, 2024. <https://plan4womenssafety.dss.gov.au/wp-content/uploads/2022/04/our-watch-evaluation-final-report-graphic-designed-3.pdf>.
- Freeman, Clare. 2004. *An Evaluation of Shelters as Service Navigation Hubs for Abused Women: A Community-Based Project funded by the Ontario Trillium Foundation, Summary of Findings*. Ontario Shelter Research Project. Accessed March 20, 2024. https://www.uwo.ca/fhs/kt/files/tools/nw_tools/ontario_shelter_study_summary_4-page_aug12_final.pdf.
- Fritsche, Olivia M. 2014. "The Role of Enticement in a Violation of a Protection Order." *Washington and Lee Law Review* 71 (2): 1474-1518. <https://scholarlycommons.law.wlu.edu/wlulr/vol71/iss2/25>.
- FundsforNGOs. n.d. "Apply to Become NGO Representative to the Inter-Agency Council on Violence Against Women and Their Children, Philippines." Accessed July 19, 2024. <https://www2.fundsforngos.org/children/apply-to-become-ngo-representative-to-the-inter-agency-council-on-violence-against-women-and-their-children-philippines/>.
- Fulu, Emma and Alice Kerr-Wilson. 2015. *What Works to Prevent Violence Against Women and Girls Evidence reviews. Paper 2: Interventions to Prevent Violence Against Women and Girls*. What Works Core Group. Accessed March 30, 2024. <https://www.whatworks.co.za/documents/publications/35-global-evidence-reviews-paper-2-interventions-to-prevent-violence-against-women-and-girls-sep-2015/file>.
- Fulu, Emma and Xian Warner. 2018. *Literature Review: Ending Violence Against Women And Girls*. Australian Government, Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade. Accessed April 10, 2024. <https://www.dfat.gov.au/sites/default/files/literature-review-ending-violence-against-women-and-girls.pdf>.
- Fulu, Emma, Alice Kerr-Wilson, and James Lang. 2014. *What Works To Prevent Violence Against Women And Girls? Evidence Review Of Interventions To Prevent Violence Against Women And Girls*. Accessed March 27, 2024. https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/media/57a089a8ed915d3cfd00037c/What_Works_Inception_Report_June_2014_AnnexF_WG23_paper_prevention_interventions.pdf.
- GAATW. n.d. "Cambodian Women's Crisis Center (CWCC)." *Global Alliance Against Traffic in Women*. Accessed July 13, 2024. <https://gaatw.org/members/asia/127-membership/asia/559-cambodian-womens-crisis-center-cwcc>.
- Garcia-Hombrados, Jorge and Marta Martínez Matute. 2021. *Specialized Courts and the Reporting of Intimate Partner Violence: Evidence from Spain*. Bonn: Institute of Labor Economics. Accessed March 20, 2024. <https://docs.iza.org/dp14936.pdf>.
- García-Moreno, Claudia, Cathy Zimmerman, Alison Morris-Gehring, Lori Heise, Avni Amin, Naeemah Abrahams, Oswaldo Montoya, Padma Bhate-Deosthali, Nduku Kilonzo, and

- Charlotte Watts. 2015. "Addressing Violence Against Women: A Call to Action." *The Lancet* 385 (9978): 1685–1695. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(14\)61830-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(14)61830-4).
- Garcia-Moreno, Claudia, Lori Heise, Henrica A. F. M. Jansen, Mary Ellsberg, and Charlotte Watts. 2005. „Violence Against Women“. *Science* 310 (5752): 1282–83.
- Gassner, Beat and Sieglinde Rosenberger. 2022. "Country Report Austria: Gender-based violence against women migrants and refugees." Accessed March 20, 2024. https://impact-sowi.univie.ac.at/fileadmin/user_upload/p_societal_impact/2022/02_Rosenberger/GBV-MIG_Country_Report_Austria.pdf.
- GMAG of the Ministry of Justice. 2009. *Gender Mainstreaming Action Plan of the Ministry of Justice 2009 - 2013*. Accessed June 10, 2024. <https://faolex.fao.org/docs/pdf/cam152504.pdf>.
- Goetz, Anne Marie. 2003. "National Women's Machinery: State-Based Institutions to Advocate for Gender Equality." In *Mainstreaming Gender, Democratizing the State: Institutional Mechanisms for the Advancement of Women*, edited by Shirin M. Rai, 69-95. Manchester: Manchester University Press.
- Gokila, R. and Dr. Kamalaveni. 2021. "A Study on Special Court to Try the Domestic Violence Cases Under the Protection of Women From Domestic Violence Act 2005 with Special Reference to the District of Coimbatore". *International Journal of Creative Research Thoughts* 9 (5): 277-282. <https://ijcrt.org/papers/IJCRT2105469.pdf>.
- Gomes, Adalmir, and Claudia Avellaneda. 2021. "The Role of Pro-Women Institutions in Addressing Violence Reports against Women". *Global Public Policy and Governance* 1 (4): 1-22. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s43508-021-00003-0>.
- Gormley, Lisa. 2009. "Violence against Women by Non-State Actors, a Responsibility for the State under Human Rights Law: Amnesty Internationals Work on Domestic Violence". In *Due Diligence and Its Application to Protect Women from Violence*, edited by Carin Benninger-Budel, 173–84. Brill | Nijhoff. <https://doi.org/10.1163/ej.9789004162938.i-300.69>.
- Gornick, Janet, Martha R. Burt, Karen J. Pittman. 1985. "Structure and Activities of Rape Crisis Centers in the Early 1980s," *Crime and Delinquency* 31 (2): 247-68.
- Gover, Angela R., Denise Paquette Boots, and Shannon B. Harper. 2021. "Courting Justice: Tracing the Evolution and Future of Domestic Violence Courts". *Feminist Criminology* 16 (3): 366–81. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1557085120987638>.
- Gracia, Enrique. 2004. "Unreported Cases of Domestic Violence against Women: Towards an Epidemiology of Social Silence, Tolerance, and Inhibition". *Journal of Epidemiology & Community Health* 58 (7): 536–37. <https://doi.org/10.1136/jech.2003.019604>.
- Gregory, Katie, Nkiru Nnawulezi, and Cris M. Sullivan. 2021. "Understanding How Domestic Violence Shelter Rules May Influence Survivor Empowerment". *Journal of Interpersonal Violence* 36 (1–2): 402–23. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260517730561>.
- Grossman, Susan F., and Marta Lundy. 2011. "Characteristics of Women Who Do and Do Not Receive Onsite Shelter Services From Domestic Violence Programs". *Violence Against Women* 17 (8): 1024–45. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1077801211414169>.

- GTZ-Promotion of Women's Rights. n.d. "Law On The Prevention of Domestic Violence and the Protection of Victims" (unofficial translation). Accessed June 10, 2024. https://www.wcwonline.org/pdf/lawcompilation/Cambodia_dv_victims2005.pdf.
- Guaita-Fernández, Pilar, José María Martín Martín, Samuel Ribeiro-Navarrete, and Rosa Puertas. 2024. 'Analysing the Efficiency of Public Policies on Gender-Based Violence: A Literature Review'. *Sustainable Technology and Entrepreneurship* 3 (3): 1-10. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.stae.2023.100066>.
- Guanzon, Rowena V. 2008. "Laws on Violence against Women in the Philippines". UNODC, UN DAW. Accessed June 10, 2024. [https://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/egm/vaw_legislation_2008/expertpapers/EGMG PLVAW Paper \(Rowena Guanzon\).pdf](https://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/egm/vaw_legislation_2008/expertpapers/EGMG PLVAW Paper (Rowena Guanzon).pdf).
- Gutierrez, Leticia, Julie Blais, and Guy Bourgon. 2016. "Do Domestic Violence Courts Work? A Meta-Analytic Review Examining Treatment and Study Quality". *Justice Research and Policy* 17 (2): 75–99. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1525107117725012>.
- Güven, Taner, Sotirios Kalfoglou, and Ersi Kalfoğlu. 2022. "Sexual Assault Crisis Center: The First Interdisciplinary Effort in Turkey". In *Sexual Abuse - An Interdisciplinary Approach*, edited by Ersi Kalfoğlu and Sotirios Kalfoglou. IntechOpen. <https://doi.org/10.5772/intechopen.104531>.
- Heard, Emma, Allyson Mutch, and Lisa Fitzgerald. 2020. "Using Applied Theater in Primary, Secondary, and Tertiary Prevention of Intimate Partner Violence: A Systematic Review". *Trauma, Violence, & Abuse* 21 (1): 138–56. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1524838017750157>.
- Heise, Lori and Claudia Garcia-Moreno. 2002. "Violence by intimate partners." In *World Report on Violence and Health*, edited by Etienne G. Krug, Linda L. Dahlberg, James A. Mercy, Anthony B. Zwi and Rafael Lozano. Geneva: World Health Organization.
- Heise, Lori L. 1998. "Violence Against Women: An Integrated, Ecological Framework". *Violence Against Women* 4 (3): 262–90. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1077801298004003002>.
- Heise, Lori, Mary Ellsberg, and M. Gottmoeller. 2022. "A Global Overview of Gender-Based Violence." *International Journal of Gynecology and Obstetrics* 78: 5–14. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0020-7292\(02\)00038-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0020-7292(02)00038-3).
- Heise, Lori. 2011. *What Works to Prevent Partner Violence? An Evidence Overview*. London: STRIVE Research Consortium.
- Hendel, Miriam, Ursula Luschig, and Michael Wieser. 2012. "The Treatment of Women Victims of Violence in Austria. A Snapshot of a Challenging Mission." *Interdisciplinary Journal of Family Studies* 12 (1): 197–206.
- Henry, Natacha, and Adelina Berisha. 2021. *Guidelines for Awareness Raising on Violence Against Women and Domestic Violence*. Council of Europe. Accessed March 20, 2024. <https://rm.coe.int/guidelines-for-awareness-raising-on-vaw-and-dv-eng/1680a2cc4f>.

- Herrera, María J., and Pedro J. Amor. 2024. "Protective Orders for Male Perpetrators of Intimate Partner Violence: Differences Between Violators and Non-Violators". *Violence Against Women* 30 (3–4): 911–33. <https://doi.org/10.1177/10778012231163578>.
- Holtmaat, Rikki. 2009. "Preventing Violence against Women: The Due Diligence Standard with Respect to the Obligation to Banish Gender Stereotypes on the Grounds of Article 5(A) of the Cedaw Convention". In *Due Diligence and Its Application to Protect Women from Violence*, edited by Carin Benninger-Budel, 63–89. Brill | Nijhoff. <https://doi.org/10.1163/ej.9789004162938.i-300.25>.
- Home Office of the UK Government. 2016. *DVPO Guidance, Sections 24-33 Crime and Security Act 2010, November 2016*. Accessed March 30, 2024. https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/media/636a3b0ce90e076190d2c4aa/DVPO_guidance_November_2022.pdf.
- Home, Joseph, Andrew Rowland, Felicity Gerry, Charlotte Proudman, and Kimberley Walton. 2020. "A Review of the Law Surrounding Female Genital Mutilation Protection Orders". *British Journal of Midwifery* 28 (7): 418–29. <https://doi.org/10.12968/bjom.2020.28.7.418>.
- Horii, Hoko, and Annelien Bouland. 2023. "Drafting New Rape Law." *Recht der Werkelijkheid* 44(1): 14-38. <https://doi.org/10.5553/RdW/138064242023044001002>.
- Htun, Mala, and Francesca R. Jensenius. 2020. "Fighting Violence Against Women: Laws, Norms & Challenges Ahead." *Daedalus* 149 (1): 144–59. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/48563038>.
- Htun, Mala, and S. Laurel Weldon. 2012. "The Civic Origins of Progressive Policy Change: Combating Violence against Women in Global Perspective, 1975–2005". *American Political Science Review* 106 (3): 548–69. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0003055412000226>.
- Hughes, Christine. 2017. *Legislative Wins, Broken Promises Gaps In Implementation Of Laws On Violence Against Women And Girls*. Oxfam Research Reports: Oxfam Canada.
- Human Rights Now. 2011. *Report on the Violence Against Women in Cambodia*. Tokyo: Human Rights Now. Accessed June 10, 2024. <https://www.aidsdatahub.org/sites/default/files/resource/report-violence-against-women-cambodia.pdf>.
- Hyman, Ilene, Sepali Guruge, Donna E. Stewart, and Farah Ahmad. 2000. "Primary Prevention of Violence against Women". *Women's Health Issues* 10 (6): 288–93. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1049-3867\(00\)00066-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1049-3867(00)00066-9).
- Hyun, Mia. 2019. *Cambodia, Gender Based Violence Institutional Mapping Report*. Washington: The World Bank.
- IACAT. n.d. "The 4th National Strategic Plan Against Trafficking in Persons 2023-2027". Accessed July 16, 2024. <https://drive.google.com/file/d/1rWh5iwBaQPduu-oqVlyHurupOKS91ZhK/view>.
- IACAT. n.d(a). "History". Accessed July 16, 2024. https://iacat.gov.ph/?page_id=63.

- IACAT. n.d(b). "About Us." Accessed July 16, 2024. https://iacat.gov.ph/?page_id=57.
- IACAT. n.d(c). "IACAT's Composition." Accessed July 19, 2024. https://iacat.gov.ph/?page_id=59.
- IACVAWC, PWC. 2018. *National Advocacy & Communication Plan 2017-2022*. Manila: IACVAWC, PWC. Accessed June 10, 2024. <https://library.pcw.gov.ph/wp-content/uploads/2020/12/PCW-Inter-Agency-Council-on-Violence-Against-Women-and-Children-National-Advocacy-and-Communication-Plan-2017-2022-December-2018.pdf>.
- IACVAWC. 2018. *Strategic Plan on Violence Against Women and Children 2017-2022*. Manila: IACVAWC. Accessed May 19, 2024. <https://library.pcw.gov.ph/wp-content/uploads/2020/12/PCW-Strategic-Plan-on-Violence-Against-Women-and-Children-2017-2022-December-2018.pdf>.
- IACVAWC. 2024. "Member Agency Representatives to the Council." IACVAWC. Accessed July 16, 2024. <https://iacvawc.gov.ph/member-agency-representatives-to-the-council/>.
- IACVAWC. 2024a. "VAW Mechanisms." IACVAWC. Accessed July 16, 2024. <https://iacvawc.gov.ph/vaw-mechanisms/>.
- IACVAWC. n.d. "Strategic Plan of the IACVAWC 2007-2010". Accessed May 19, 2024. <https://library.pcw.gov.ph/wp-content/uploads/2023/09/PCW-Strategic-Plan-of-IACVAWC-2007-2010.pdf>.
- IACVAWC. n.d (a). "Strategic Plan of the IACVAWC 2014-2016". Accessed May 19, 2024. <https://library.pcw.gov.ph/wp-content/uploads/2023/09/PCW-Synergizing-Efforts-to-End-Violence-Against-Women-and-Children-the-IACVAWC-Strategic-Plan-2014-2016.pdf>.
- IACVAWC. n.d(b). "IACVAWC Strategic Plans." Accessed July 16, 2024. <https://iacvawc.gov.ph/iacvawc-strategic-plans/>.
- Immigration and Refugee Board of Canada. 2010. *Philippines: Domestic violence, including legislation, availability of state protection and support services for victims*, 6 April 2010, PHL103367.E. Accessed June 11, 2024. <https://www.refworld.org/docid/4e438d2c2.html>.
- Independent Anti-Slavery Commissioner. 2022. *IASC Review: Risk and Prevention Orders Report March 2022*. Accessed March 30, 2024. https://www.antislaverycommissioner.co.uk/media/1764/iasc-review_risk-and-prevention-orders-report_march-2022.pdf.
- INTERPOL, UN Women, UNODC 2020. "Women in Law Enforcement in the ASEAN Region, Summary Report". Accessed June 10, 2024. [https://asiapacific.unwomen.org/sites/default/files/Field Office ESEAsia/Docs/Publications/2020/08/Women in Law Enforcement in the ASEAN Region Full.pdf](https://asiapacific.unwomen.org/sites/default/files/Field%20Office%20ESEA/Docs/Publications/2020/08/Women%20in%20Law%20Enforcement%20in%20the%20ASEAN%20Region%20Full.pdf).
- Irkner, Anne. 2021. *Weathering Fiscal Uncertainty: A Study Of The Effects Of The Illinois Budget Impasse On Rape Crisis Centers*. Illinois Criminal Justice Information Authority.

- Ison, Jessica, and Gill Matthewson. 2023. "More than a Dot Point: Connecting Primary Prevention of Violence against Women and Public Transport". *Journal of Transport & Health* 30 (May): 1-10. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jth.2023.101591>.
- Jewkes, Rachel, Michael Flood, and James Lang. 2015. "From Work with Men and Boys to Changes of Social Norms and Reduction of Inequities in Gender Relations: A Conceptual Shift in Prevention of Violence against Women and Girls". *The Lancet* 385 (9977): 1580–89. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(14\)61683-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(14)61683-4).
- Jewkes, Rachel, Samantha Willan, Lori Heise, Laura Washington, Nwabisa Shai, Alice Kerr-Wilson, Andrew Gibbs, Erin Stern, and Nicola Christofides. 2021. "Elements of the Design and Implementation of Interventions to Prevent Violence against Women and Girls Associated with Success: Reflections from the What Works to Prevent Violence against Women and Girls? Global Programme". *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health* 18 (22): 1-16. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph182212129>.
- Jewkes, Rachel. 2002. "Intimate Partner Violence: Causes and Prevention". *The Lancet* 359 (9315): 1423–29. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(02\)08357-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(02)08357-5).
- Jewkes, Rachel. 2014. *What works to prevent violence against women and girls? Evidence Review of the Effectiveness of Response Mechanisms in Preventing Violence Against Women and Girls*. Department for International Development. Accessed March 20, 2024. <https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/media/5a7df310ed915d74e33ef115/evidence-review-response-mechanisms-H.pdf>.
- Judicial Council of California. 2008. *Recommended Guidelines and Practices for Improving the Administration of Justice in Domestic Violence Cases*. San Francisco: Judicial Council of California, Administrative Office of the Courts. Accessed March 30, 2024. https://www.courts.ca.gov/documents/dvpp_rec_guidelines.pdf.
- Kafka, Julie M., Kathryn E. Moracco, Deanna S. Williams, and Claire G. Hoffman. 2021. "What Is the Role of Firearms in Nonfatal Intimate Partner Violence? Findings from Civil Protective Order Case Data". *Social Science & Medicine* 283: 1-11. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.socscimed.2021.114212>.
- Karaman, Yılmaz İmran Gökçen, Zeynep Akı, Mustafa Emin Çanakçı, Ali Ercan Altınöz, and Engin Özakın. 2022. "Violence Against Women During COVID-19 Pandemic: A Comparative Study from a Turkish Emergency Department". *Prehospital and Disaster Medicine* 37 (4): 462–67. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S1049023X22000826>.
- Karlsen, Saffron, Janet Howard, Natasha Carver, Magda Mogilnicka, and Christina Pantazis. 2023. "Available Evidence Suggests That Prevalence and Risk of Female Genital Cutting/Mutilation in the UK Is Much Lower than Widely Presumed - Policies Based on Exaggerated Estimates Are Harmful to Girls and Women from Affected Communities". *International Journal of Impotence Research* 35 (3): 212–15. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41443-021-00526-4>.
- Kelly, Elizabeth. 2002. *Journeys of Jeopardy: A Review of Research on Trafficking in Women and Children in Europe*. International Organization for Migration.

- Kelly, Liz, Carol Hagemann-White, Thomas Meysen, and Renée Römken. 2011. *Realising Rights: Case Studies on State Responses to Violence against Women and Children in Europe*. London: Child and Women Abuse Studies Unit.
- Kelly, Liz. 2008. *Combating violence against women: minimum standards for support services*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe.
- Kethineni, Sesha, and Dawn Beichner. 2009. "A Comparison of Civil and Criminal Orders of Protection as Remedies for Domestic Violence Victims in a Midwestern County". *Journal of Family Violence* 24 (5): 311–21. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10896-009-9231-x>.
- Kiani, Zahra, Masoumeh Simbar, Farzaneh Rashidi Fakari, Samiyeh Kazemi, Vida Ghasemi, Nasrin Azimi, Tahereh Mokhtariyan, and Shahin Bazzazian. 2021. "A Systematic Review: Empowerment Interventions to Reduce Domestic Violence?" *Aggression and Violent Behavior* 58 (May): 1-9. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2021.101585>.
- Kim, Julia C, Lorna J Martin, and Lynette Denny. 2003. "Rape and HIV Post-Exposure Prophylaxis: Addressing the Dual Epidemics in South Africa". *Reproductive Health Matters* 11 (22): 101–12. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0968-8080\(03\)02285-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0968-8080(03)02285-7).
- Kim, Julia C., Charlotte H. Watts, James R. Hargreaves, Luceth X. Ndhlovu, Godfrey Phetla, Linda A. Morison, Joanna Busza, John D.H. Porter, and Paul Pronyk. 2007. "Understanding the Impact of a Microfinance-Based Intervention on Women's Empowerment and the Reduction of Intimate Partner Violence in South Africa". *American Journal of Public Health* 97 (10): 1794–1802. <https://doi.org/10.2105/AJPH.2006.095521>.
- Kingdom of Cambodia. 2013. "Speech to the 56th Session of the CEDAW by Her Excellency Dr. Ing Kantha Phavi Minister of Women's Affairs of Cambodia and Head of the Royal Government of Cambodia Delegation, 8th October 2013, Geneva (Switzerland)". Accessed June 11, 2024. https://www.google.com/url?sa=t&source=web&rct=j&opi=89978449&url=https://tbinternet.ohchr.org/_layouts/15/TreatyBodyExternal/DownloadDraft.aspx%3Fkey%3D4RYghmi0cKXLufCsJITLCU0EpiKoQ7ZFo4/xoF8InjDyJUSVqe6S8YFQjwk5BJv7xy5Igv/jbGUmuEn7n8D3Zw%3D%3D&ved=2ahUKEwjFj5L_w9OGAxUL_7sIHT1_A7gQFnoECBoQAQ&u sg=AOvVaw1Djh1rn4_JXHDEMdX9pfqb.
- Kingdom of Cambodia. n.d. „Statistics Law“(unofficial translation). Accessed May 20, 2024. https://www.nis.gov.kh/nis/For Menu/statistics law/Statistics Law 2015_English.pdf.
- Kirchengast, Tyrone, Tatiana Badaró, and Lucas Pardini. 2021. "The Mixed and Hybrid Criminal Courts of Brazil: Mainstreaming Restoration, Rehabilitation and Community Justice in a Human Rights Context". *International Review of Victimology* 27 (1): 23–42. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0269758020916261>.
- Kirk, Lucy, Samantha Terry, Kamalini Lokuge, and Jessica L. Watterson. 2017. "Effectiveness of Secondary and Tertiary Prevention for Violence against Women in Low and Low-Middle Income Countries: A Systematic Review". *BMC Public Health* 17 (1): 1–21. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-017-4502-6>.

- Klein, Catherine F. 1995. "Full Faith and Credit: Interstate Enforcement of Protection Orders Under the Violence Against Women Act of 1994." *Family Law Quarterly* 29 (2): 253–71. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/25740030>.
- Koch-Nielsen, Inger and Lucia Caceres. *Shelters in Denmark For Battered Women*. Copenhagen: The Danish National Institute of Social research. Accessed March 20, 2024. <https://www.vive.dk/media/pure/4z65d3vq/287856>.
- Kopelman, Loretta M. 2016. "The Forced Marriage of Minors: A Neglected Form of Child Abuse". *Journal of Law, Medicine & Ethics* 44 (1): 173–81. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1073110516644208>.
- Koshan, Jennifer. 2014. "Investigating Integrated Domestic Violence Courts: Lessons from New York". *Osgoode Hall Law Journal* 51 (3): 989–1036. <https://doi.org/10.60082/2817-5069.2762>.
- Koshan, Jennifer. 2023. "Preventive Justice? Domestic Violence Protection Orders and their Intersections with Family and Other Laws and Legal Systems." *Canadian Journal of Family Law* 35 (1): 241-96. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.4372318>.
- Krantz, Gunilla, and Claudia Garcia-Moreno. 2005. "Violence against Women." *Journal of Epidemiology and Community Health* 59 (10): 818–21. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/25570854>.
- Krishnan, Satya P., Judith C. Hilbert, Keith McNeil, and Isadore Newman. 2004. "From Respite to Transition: Women's Use of Domestic Violence Shelters in Rural New Mexico". *Journal of Family Violence* 19 (3): 165–73. <https://doi.org/10.1023/B:JOFV.0000028076.72706.4f>.
- Krol, Paula. 2019. *Mapping Support Services for Victims of Violence Against Women in Kosovo*. Council of Europe. Accessed March 20, 2024. <https://rm.coe.int/mapping-support-services-for-victims-of-violence-against-women-in-koso/168072d125>.
- Krug, Etienne G, James A Mercy, Linda L. Dahlberg, and Anthony B Zwi. 2002. "The World Report on Violence and Health". *The Lancet* 360 (9339): 1083–88. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(02\)11133-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(02)11133-0).
- Kucharson, Matthew K. 2006. "GPS Monitoring: A Viable Alternative to the Incarceration of Nonviolent Criminals in the State of Ohio." *Cleveland State Law Review* 54 (4): 637-70.
- Kulkarni, Shanti. 2019. "Intersectional Trauma-Informed Intimate Partner Violence (IPV) Services: Narrowing the Gap between IPV Service Delivery and Survivor Needs". *Journal of Family Violence* 34 (1): 55–64. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10896-018-0001-5>.
- Lalu, Gabriel Pabico. 2024. "Discussion on Divorce Bill Heats Up in House of Representatives." *Inquirer.Net*, March 19, 2024. <https://newsinfo.inquirer.net/1918444/discussion-on-divorce-bill-heats-up-in-house-of-representatives>.
- Lanchimba, Cintya, Juan Pablo Díaz-Sánchez, and Franklin Velasco. 2023. "Exploring Factors Influencing Domestic Violence: A Comprehensive Study on Intrafamily Dynamics". *Frontiers in Psychiatry* 14: 1-12. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsy.2023.1243558>.

- Lange, Katrin, Molter, Sarah, and Marie Wittenius. 2020. *Violence against Women: On the Implementation of the Istanbul Convention in Denmark, Finland & Austria*. Observatory for Sociopolitical Developments in Europe. Accessed March 20, 2024. <https://beobachtungsstelle-gesellschaftspolitik.de/f/23b2e7f3ef.pdf>.
- Lauri, Marcus, and Johanna Lauri. 2023. "In the Business of Gendered Violence: The Private Shelter Discourse in Sweden". *Critical and Radical Social Work*: 1–16. <https://doi.org/10.1332/204986021X16826760140926>.
- Lauri, Marcus, Johanna Lauri, and Ida Linander. 2023. "Women's Shelters and Private Shelters Discursive Struggle: Separatism, Security and Social Change". *Nordic Social Work Research*, December, 1–13. <https://doi.org/10.1080/2156857X.2023.2297984>.
- Leahy, Susan. 2023. "Still a Private Matter? Evaluating the Irish State's Response to Domestic Abuse". *International Journal of Law, Policy and The Family* 37 (1): 1–20. <https://doi.org/10.1093/lawfam/ebad008>.
- Leander, K. 2002. "Preventing Men's Violence against Women". *Acta Psychiatrica Scandinavica* 106 (s412): 15–19. <https://doi.org/10.1034/j.1600-0447.106.s412.4.x>.
- Lee, Ahjung, Gichung Lee, and Sonheong Jang. 2020. *One-Stop Service Mechanism for Gender-Based Violence Survivors: Experience from Korea's Sunflower Centers UN*. PDNU Seoul Policy Centre. Accessed March 30, 2024. https://www.undp.org/sites/g/files/zskgke326/files/migration/seoul_policy_center/USP_C-SunFlower_Book-rev_low_20200824.pdf.
- Lloyd, Michele. 2018. "Domestic Violence and Education: Examining the Impact of Domestic Violence on Young Children, Children, and Young People and the Potential Role of Schools". *Frontiers in Psychology* 9: 1–11. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2018.02094>.
- Lo, Raymundo. 2024. "Divorce, anyone?" *Manila Bulletin*, February 26, 2024. Accessed July 16, 2024. <https://mb.com.ph/2024/2/26/divorce-anyone>.
- Logan, TK, and Robert T. Walker. 2010. 'Civil Protective Order Effectiveness: Justice or Just a Piece of Paper?' *Violence and Victims* 25 (3): 332–48. <https://doi.org/10.1891/0886-6708.25.3.332>.
- Logar, Rosa and Ariana Qosaj-Mustafa. 2021. *Quality Guidelines for Shelters for Victims of Violence against Women and Domestic Violence*. Council of Europe. Accessed March 20, 2024. <https://rm.coe.int/shelter-guideline-eng/1680a24ced>.
- Logar, Rosa and Johanna Niemi. 2017. *Emergency Barring Orders in Situations of Domestic Violence: Article 52 of the Istanbul Convention*. Council of Europe. Accessed March 20, 2024. <https://rm.coe.int/article-52-convention-istanbul-english-version/168073cae6>.
- Logar, Rosa. 2005. *Violence against women: Good practices in combating and eliminating violence against women*. Vienna: UN Division for the Advancement of Women.
- Lomazzi, Vera. 2023. 'The Cultural Roots of Violence against Women: Individual and Institutional Gender Norms in 12 Countries'. *Social Sciences* 12 (3): 117. <https://doi.org/10.3390/socsci12030117>.

- Lomazzi, Vera. 2023. "The Cultural Roots of Violence against Women: Individual and Institutional Gender Norms in 12 Countries". *Social Sciences* 12 (3): 1-20. <https://doi.org/10.3390/socsci12030117>.
- Loseke, Donileen. R. 1992. *The battered woman and shelters: The social construction of wife abuse*. Albany: State University of New York Press.
- Lovett, Jo, Linda Regan, and Liz Kelly. 2004. *Sexual Assault Referral Centres: Developing Good Practice and Maximising Potentials*. London: Home Office.
- Lowe, Hattie, Laura Brown, Ayesha Ahmad, Nayreen Daruwalla, Lu Gram, David Osrin, Krishna Panchal, Daniella Watson, Cathy Zimmerman, and Jenevieve Mannell. 2022. "Mechanisms for Community Prevention of Violence against Women in Low- and Middle-Income Countries: A Realist Approach to a Comparative Analysis of Qualitative Data". *Social Science & Medicine* 305: 1-9. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.socscimed.2022.115064>.
- Lundgren, Rebecka, and Avni Amin. 2015. "Addressing Intimate Partner Violence and Sexual Violence Among Adolescents: Emerging Evidence of Effectiveness". *Journal of Adolescent Health* 56 (1): 206–20. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jadohealth.2014.08.012>.
- Lyons, Vivian H., Avanti Adhia, Caitlin Moe, Mary A. Kernic, Ali Rowhani-Rahbar, and Frederick P. Rivara. 2021. "Firearms and Protective Orders in Intimate Partner Homicides." *Journal of Family Violence* 36 (5): 587–96. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10896-020-00165-1>.
- Mackay, Fiona. 1996. "The Zero Tolerance Campaign: Setting the Agenda". *Parliamentary Affairs* 49 (1): 206–20. <https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordjournals.pa.a028669>.
- Macy, Rebecca J., Mary C. Giattina, Susan L. Parish, and Carmen Crosby. 2010. "Domestic Violence and Sexual Assault Services: Historical Concerns and Contemporary Challenges". *Journal of Interpersonal Violence* 25 (1): 3–32. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260508329128>.
- Macy, Rebecca J., Mary Giattina, Tamara H. Sangster, Carmen Crosby, and Natalie Johns Montijo. 2009. "Domestic Violence and Sexual Assault Services: Inside the Black Box". *Aggression and Violent Behavior* 14 (5): 359–73. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2009.06.002>.
- Macy, Rebecca J., Natalie Johns, Cynthia F. Rizo, Sandra L. Martin, and Mary Giattina. 2011. "Domestic Violence and Sexual Assault Service Goal Priorities". *Journal of Interpersonal Violence* 26 (16): 3361–82. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260510393003>.
- Maier, Shana L. 2011. "Rape Crisis Centers and Programs: "Doing Amazing, Wonderful Things on Peanuts". *Women & Criminal Justice* 21 (2): 141–69. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08974454.2011.558802>.
- Maier, Shana L. 2011a. "We Belong to Them": The Costs of Funding for Rape Crisis Centers'. *Violence Against Women* 17 (11): 1383–1408. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1077801211428599>.
- Majumdar, Shruti. 2020. *Working Paper: Police as an entry point to end violence against women and girls - Lessons from civil society organizations*. UN Women UNTF to End Violence

Against Women. Accessed March 30, 2024. [https://untf.unwomen.org/sites/default/files/2022-04/Police brief UNTF.pdf](https://untf.unwomen.org/sites/default/files/2022-04/Police%20brief%20UNTF.pdf).

- Maki, Krystle. 2019. *More Than a Bed: A National Profile of VAW Shelters and Transition Houses*. Ottawa, ON: Women's Shelters Canada.
- Martin, Sandra L., Tamera Coyne-Beasley, Mary Hoehn, Mary Mathew, Carol W. Runyan, Steve Orton, and Leigh-Anne Royster. 2009. "Primary Prevention of Violence Against Women: Training Needs of Violence Practitioners". *Violence Against Women* 15 (1): 44–56. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1077801208327483>.
- Massey, Kristina, Miranda Ah Horvath, Shanaz Essafi, and Rabiya Majeed-Ariss. 2019. "Staff Experiences of Working in a Sexual Assault Referral Centre: The Impacts and Emotional Tolls of Working with Traumatized People". *The Journal of Forensic Psychiatry & Psychology* 30 (4): 686–705. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14789949.2019.1605615>.
- Matthews, Nancy. 1995. "Feminist Social Movement Organizations Survive the New Right". In *Feminist Organizations: Harvest of the New Women's Movement*, edited by Ferree, Myra Marx, and Patricia Yancey Martin. Philadelphia: Temple University Press. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/j.ctt14bt498>.
- Mattison, Michelle L. A., Rabiya Majeed-Ariss, and Catherine White. 2023. "Clients Who Self-Refer to a Sexual Assault Referral Centre (SARC): A Preliminary Exploration of Client and Case Characteristics". *Psychology, Crime & Law* 29 (5): 514–30. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1068316X.2022.2030331>.
- Maxwell, Claire, Elaine Chase, Ian Warwick, Peter Aggleton, and Hannah Wharf. 2010. *Freedom to achieve. Preventing violence, promoting equality: A whole school approach*. London: Womenkind Worldwide.
- Maytal, Anat. 2008. "Specialized Domestic Violence Courts: Are They Worth the Trouble in Massachusetts?" *Boston University Public Interest Law Journal* 18 (19). <https://ssrn.com/abstract=1663392>.
- McFarlane, Judith, Ann Malecha, Julia Gist, Kathy Watson, Elizabeth Batten, Iva Hall, and Sheila Smith. 2004. "Protection Orders and Intimate Partner Violence: An 18-Month Study of 150 Black, Hispanic, and White Women". *American Journal of Public Health* 94 (4): 613–18. <https://doi.org/10.2105/AJPH.94.4.613>.
- McKool, Marissa, Kimberley Freire, Kathleen C. Basile, Kathryn M. Jone, Joanne Klevens, Sarah DeGue, and Sharon G. Smith. 2020. A Process for Identifying Indicators With Public Data: An Example From Sexual Violence Prevention. *The American journal of evaluation*, 41(4): 510–28. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1098214019891239>
- McLeod, Amy L., Danica G. Hays, and Catherine Y. Chang. 2010. "Female Intimate Partner Violence Survivors' Experiences With Accessing Resources". *Journal of Counseling & Development*, 88: 303–10. <https://doi-org.uaccess.univie.ac.at/10.1002/j.1556-6678.2010.tb00026.x>
- McMillan, Lesley. *Feminists Organising Against Gendered Violence*. Basingstoke: PALGRAVE MACMILLAN.

- Mekong Migration Network. 2008. "Transnational Migrant Workers in the Mekong Region." Accessed July 19, 2024. <https://www.mekongmigration.org/wp-content/uploads/2008/05/PDF500KB.pdf>.
- Méndez, Carmen de la Fuente. 2008. *Spanish Legislation on Violence against Women: Challenges and Facts*. Vienna: United Nations. Accessed March 14, 2024. [https://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/egm/vaw_legislation_2008/expertpapers/EGMG-PLVAW Paper Carmen de la Fuente.pdf](https://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/egm/vaw_legislation_2008/expertpapers/EGMG-PLVAW-Paper-Carmen-de-la-Fuente.pdf)
- Menon, Vikas, Jigyansa Ipsita Pattnaik, Sharmi Bascarane, and Susanta Kumar Padhy. 2020. "Role of Media in Preventing Gender-Based Violence and Crimes during the COVID-19 Pandemic". *Asian Journal of Psychiatry* 54: 1-2. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ajp.2020.102449>.
- Meyer, Heather, and Nan Stein. 2004. "Relationship Violence Prevention Education in Schools: What's Working, What's Getting in the Way, and What Are Some Future Directions". *American Journal of Health Education* 35 (4): 198–204. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19325037.2004.10603642>.
- Michau, Lori, and Sophie Namy. 2021. "SASA! Together: An Evolution of the SASA! Approach to Prevent Violence against Women". *Evaluation and Program Planning* 86: 1-9. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.evalprogplan.2021.101918>.
- Michau, Lori, Jessica Horn, Amy Bank, Mallika Dutt and Cathy Zimmerman. 2015. "Prevention of violence against women and girls: lessons from practice." *The Lancet* 385: 1672-84.
- Michau, Lori, Jessica Horn, Amy Bank, Mallika Dutt, and Cathy Zimmerman. 2015. "Prevention of Violence against Women and Girls: Lessons from Practice". *The Lancet* 385 (9978): 1672–84. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(14\)61797-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(14)61797-9).
- Michau, Lori. 2007. "Approaching Old Problems in New Ways: Community Mobilisation as a Primary Prevention Strategy to Combat Violence against Women". *Gender & Development* 15 (1): 95–109. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13552070601179144>.
- Miller, Amalia R, and Carmit Segal. 2019. "Do Female Officers Improve Law Enforcement Quality? Effects on Crime Reporting and Domestic Violence". *The Review of Economic Studies* 86 (5): 2220–47. <https://doi.org/10.1093/restud/rdy051>.
- Ministry of Health. 2002. "Health Sector Strategic Plan 2003-2007". Accessed July 15, 2024. https://niph.org.kh/niph/uploads/library/pdf/PD041_HSP1_2003_2007.pdf.
- Ministry of Health. 2008. "Health Sector Strategic Plan 2008-2015". Accessed July 15, 2024. <https://faolex.fao.org/docs/pdf/cam159121.pdf>.
- Ministry of Health. 2014. "National Guidelines For Managing Violence Against Women And Children In The Health System, Final Draft". Accessed July 15, 2024. <https://platform.who.int/docs/default-source/mca-documents/policy-documents/guideline/KHM-GBV-19-02-GUIDELINE-2014-eng-Managing-VAWC-in-Health-System.pdf>.

- Ministry of Health. 2018. "National Multisectoral Action Plan for the Prevention And Control of Noncommunicable diseases 2018-2027". Accessed July 15, 2024. <https://faolex.fao.org/docs/pdf/cam217002.pdf>.
- Ministry of Women Affairs. 2014. „National Action Plan To Prevent Violence Against Women 2014-2018“. Accessed May 20, 2024. <https://policypulse.org/wp-content/uploads/2019/08/2nd-NAPVAW-2014-2018.pdf>.
- Ministry of Women's Affairs, Indochina Research Limited. 2009. *Violence Against Women 2009: Follow-Up Survey*. Cambodia. Accessed May 20, 2024. https://www.undp.org/sites/g/files/zskgke326/files/migration/kh/Violence_Against_Women_2009_Follow-Up_Survey_Full_Report_Eng.pdf.
- Ministry of Women's Affairs, National Institute of Statistics. n.d. „National Survey on Women's Health and Life Experience in Cambodia. Report“. Accessed May 20, 2024. [https://asiapacific.unwomen.org/sites/default/files/Field Office ESEAsia/Docs/Publications/2015/11/National Survey on Womens Health and Life Experiences in Cambodia.pdf](https://asiapacific.unwomen.org/sites/default/files/Field%20Office%20ESEA/Docs/Publications/2015/11/National%20Survey%20on%20Womens%20Health%20and%20Life%20Experiences%20in%20Cambodia.pdf).
- Ministry of Women's Affairs, UN Women, WHO, Australian Aid. 2015. "National Survey on Women's Health and Life Experiences in Cambodia." Accessed July 16, 2024. [https://asiapacific.unwomen.org/sites/default/files/Field Office ESEAsia/Docs/Publications/2015/11/National Survey on Womens Health and Life Experiences in Cambodia.pdf](https://asiapacific.unwomen.org/sites/default/files/Field%20Office%20ESEA/Docs/Publications/2015/11/National%20Survey%20on%20Womens%20Health%20and%20Life%20Experiences%20in%20Cambodia.pdf).
- Ministry of Women's Affairs. 2009. „Neary Rattanak III: Five Year Strategic Plan 2009-2013“. Accessed May 20, 2024. Neary Rattanak IIICooperation Committee for Cambodia<https://www.ccc-cambodia.org> › download.
- Ministry of Women's Affairs. 2014a. „Neary Rattanak IV: Five Year Strategic Plan For Strengthening Gender Equality And Women's Empowerment 2014-2018“. Accessed May 20, 2024. https://www.undp.org/sites/g/files/zskgke326/files/migration/kh/Cambodian-Gender-Strategic-Plan---Neary-Rattanak-4_Eng.pdf.
- Ministry of Women's Affairs. 2020. „Neary Rattanak V: Five Year Strategic Plan For Strengthening Gender Mainstreaming And Women's Empowerment 2019-2023“. Accessed May 20, 2024. <https://www.mowa.gov.kh/wp-content/uploads/2021/02/Neary-Rattanak-V-final-Eng.pdf>.
- Ministry of Women's Affairs. 2020a. „National Action Plan To Prevent Violence Against Women 2019-2023“. Accessed May 20, 2024. https://cambodia.unfpa.org/sites/default/files/pub-pdf/nap_2019-2023_english_final.pdf.
- Ministry of Women's Affairs. 2021. "Report On Violence againsts women and girls". Accessed July 16, 2024. <https://www.ohchr.org/sites/default/files/2021-12/cambodia.pdf>.
- Ministry of Women's Affairs. n.d. „Cambodia Data Sheet on Intimate Partner Violence“. Accessed May 20, 2024. https://cambodia.unfpa.org/sites/default/files/pub-pdf/Leflet_IPV_English.pdf.
- Miram Defensor Santiago. 2018. *Senate S. No. 2462*. Sixteenth Congress Of The Republic Of The Philippines. Second Regular Session.

- MoH, MoWA, UNFPA. 2016. "A clinical handbook for managing health care for women subjected to intimate partner violence or sexual violence." Accessed July 15, 2024. https://cambodia.unfpa.org/sites/default/files/pub-pdf/VAW_Clinical_Handbook_Final.pdf.
- Morewitz, Stephen J. 2004. *Domestic Violence and Maternal and Child Health*. Boston, MA: Springer US. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-0-306-48530-5>.
- Morrison, Andrew, Mary Ellsberg, and Sarah Bott. 2004. *Addressing Gender-Based Violence in the Latin American and Caribbean Region: A Critical Review of Interventions*. Policy Research Working Paper 3438. Washington, D.C.: World Bank. Accessed March 12, 2024. <https://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/159411468774549266/pdf/wps3438.pdf>.
- National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women. 1998. *Philippine Plan for Gender-Responsive Development 1995-2025*. Manila: National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women.
- National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women. 2004. *Anti-Violence Against Women And Their Children Act of 2004, Implementing Rules and Regulations*. Accessed June 10, 2024. <https://itdi.dost.gov.ph/images/GAD/PCW-Republic-Act-9262-Anti-Violence-Against-Women-and-their-Children-Act-of-2004-Implementing-Rules-and-Regulations-2004.pdf>.
- National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women. 2008. *Performance Standards And Assessment Tool For Police Services Addressing Cases Of Violence Against Women*. NCRFW, PNP, UNFPA.
- National Economic and Development Authority. 2022. "Freedom of Information (FOI) Program." Accessed May 12, 2024. <https://sdg.neda.gov.ph/freedom-of-information-foi-program/>.
- National Institute of Statistics, Directorate General for Health, and ICF. 2015. *Cambodia Demographic and Health Survey 2014*. Phnom Penh and Rockville: National Institute of Statistics, Directorate General for Health, and ICF International.
- National Institute of Statistics, Ministry of Health, and ICF. 2023. *Cambodia Demographic and Health Survey 2021–22 Final Report*. Phnom Penh and Rockville: NIS, MoH, and ICF.
- National Institute of Statistics, Ministry of Planning. 2018. *Women and Men in Cambodia: Facts and Figures 2018*. Phnom Penh: National Institute of Statistics.
- National Institute of Statistics. 2013. *Annual Report 2012: The National Statistical System in Cambodia*. Phnom Penh: Ministry of Planning.
- National Institute of Statistics. 2017. „About The National Statistics System“. Last modified July 17, 2017. <https://www.nis.gov.kh/index.php/km/national-statistical-systems>.
- National Institute of Statistics. 2017a. „National Institute of Statistics Strategic Plan 2002-2007“. Last modified July 19, 2017. <https://www.nis.gov.kh/index.php/km/about/nis-strategic-plan>.
- National Institute of Statistics. 2017b. „Summary of the Cambodian Statistics Master Plan“. Last modified July 19, 2017. <https://www.nis.gov.kh/index.php/km/national-statistical-systems/statistical-master-plan>.

- National Institute of Statistics. 2022. *Report of Cambodia Socio-Economic Survey 2021*. Phnom Penh: National Institute of Statistics, Ministry of Planning.
- National Statistical Coordination Board. 2011. *Men and Women In Northern Mindanao Statistical Handbook*. Accessed May 19, 2024. <https://psa.gov.ph/system/files/main-publication/Women%2520and%2520Men%2520in%2520Northern%2520Mindanao%252011.pdf>.
- National Statistical Coordination Board. 2012. *The Philippine Statistical Development Program 2011-2017*. Makati City: National Statistical Coordination Board.
- National Statistics Office. 2004. *Philippines National Demographic and Health Survey 2003*. Manila: National Statistics Office.
- National Telecommunications Commission. n.d. *People's Freedom of Information (FOI) Manual*. National Telecommunications Commission. Accessed May 12, 2024. <https://ntc.gov.ph/wp-content/uploads/2020/07/10-1-NTC-PEOPLES-FREEDOM-ON-INFORMATION-MANUAL.pdf>.
- NCCT. 2024. "Policies and Plans." NCCT. Accessed July 16, 2024. <https://www.ncct.gov.kh/pages/7/62>.
- NCCT. n.d. "A Five-Year National Strategic Plan for Counter Trafficking in Persons 2019-2023." Accessed July 16, 2024. <https://download.ncct.gov.kh/plans/ncct-action-plan-2019-2023-en.pdf>.
- NGO CEDAW. 2023. "Launch of 2022 CEDAW Monitoring Report." Last modified December 27, 2023. <https://ngocedaw.org/en/launch-of-2022-cedaw-monitoring-report/>.
- NIJ and BJS. 1996. *Domestic and Sexual Violence Data Collection: A report to Congress under the Violence Against Women Act*. Office of Justice Programs. Accessed March 20, 2024. <https://www.ojp.gov/pdffiles/alldom.pdf>.
- Nineteenth Congress Of The Republic Of The Philippines. 2022. House Bill No. 1341. Accessed July 16, 2024. <https://issuances-library.senate.gov.ph/bills/house-bill-no-1341-19th-congress>.
- Nineteenth Congress of the Republic of the Philippines. 2023. "House Bill 9542". House of Representatives.
- Nineteenth Congress Of The Republic Of The Philippines. n.d. . "S. No. 543". Accessed July 16, 2024. http://legacy.senate.gov.ph/lis/bill_res.aspx?congress=19&q=SBN-543.
- Noack-Lundberg, Kyja, Aisha K. Gill, and Sundari Anitha. 2021. "Understanding Forced Marriage Protection Orders in the UK". *Journal of Social Welfare and Family Law* 43 (4): 371–92. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09649069.2021.1996083>.
- Noer, Khaerul Umam, Siti Chadijah, and Endang Rudiatin. 2021. "There Is No Trustable Data: The State and Data Accuracy of Violence against Women in Indonesia". *Heliyon* 7 (12): 1-7. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2021.e08552>.

- Ntaganda, Eugene. 2012. *Exploring The Special Judicial Responses To SGBV: Best Practices, Challenges And Guidelines In The Great Lakes Region*. International Conference on the Great Lakes Region (ICGLR). Accessed March 20, 2024. https://www.icglr.org/images/Publications/sgbv_paper_judicial_response.pdf.
- O'Doherty, Lorna, Kelsey Hegarty, Jean Ramsay, Leslie L Davidson, Gene Feder, and Angela Taft. 2015. "Screening Women for Intimate Partner Violence in Healthcare Settings". Edited by Cochrane Developmental, Psychosocial and Learning Problems Group. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2015 (8): 1-83. <https://doi.org/10.1002/14651858.CD007007.pub3>.
- O'Sullivan, Elizabethann, and Abigail Carlton. 2001. "Victim Services, Community Outreach, and Contemporary Rape Crisis Centers: A Comparison of Independent and Multiservice Centers". *Journal of Interpersonal Violence* 16 (4): 343–60. <https://doi.org/10.1177/088626001016004005>.
- OECD. 2023. *Supporting Lives Free from Intimate Partner Violence: Towards Better Integration of Services for Victims/Survivors*. Paris: OECD Publishing. <https://doi.org/10.1787/d61633e7-en>.
- OECD. 2024. "Violence against women (indicator)". Accessed on 10 April 2024. doi: 10.1787/f1eb4876-en.
- OECD. n.d. "Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI) Dashboard: Cambodia." Accessed April 10, 2024. <https://www.oecd.org/stories/gender/social-norms-and-gender-discrimination/sigi/dashboard?country=KHM>.
- OECD. n.d(a). "Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI) Dashboard: Philippines." Accessed April 10, 2024. <https://www.oecd.org/stories/gender/social-norms-and-gender-discrimination/sigi/dashboard?country=PHL>.
- Office of the Court Administrator. 2016. "OCA Circular No. 233-2016". Manila. Accessed May 19, 2024. <https://oca.judiciary.gov.ph/wp-content/uploads/2016/11/OCA-Circular-No.-233-2016.pdf>.
- Office Of The President, Philippine Commission On Women. 2011. "Memorandum Circular No. 2011-01." Accessed July 15, 2024. <https://www.treasury.gov.ph/wp-content/uploads/2017/11/GFP-Memorandum-Circular-2011-1.pdf>.
- Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights. 2017. *Country Visit Experience by the Special Rapporteur on Violence against Women, its causes and consequences*. Accessed March 30, 2024. <https://www.ohchr.org/sites/default/files/Documents/Issues/Women/SR/Shelters/CountryVisitExperience.pdf>.
- Open Development Cambodia. 2015. "Budget". Last Modified December 8, 2015. <https://opendevelopmentcambodia.net/topics/budget/>.
- Open Development Cambodia. 2024. "Law on Strong Acid Control." Accessed July 19, 2024. https://data.opendevelopmentcambodia.net/en/laws_record/law-on-strong-acid-control.

- Open Development Cambodia. 2024. "Ministry of Women's Affairs." Open Development Cambodia. Accessed July 16, 2024. <https://opendevdevelopmentcambodia.net/topics/ministry-of-womens-affairs/>.
- Ortiz-Barreda, Gaby, and Carmen Vives-Cases. 2013. "Legislation on Violence against Women: Overview of Key Components". *Revista Panamericana de Salud Pública* 33 (1): 61–72. <https://doi.org/10.1590/S1020-49892013000100009>.
- Oths, Kathryn, and Tara Robertson. 2007. "Give Me Shelter: Temporal Patterns of Women Fleeing Domestic Abuse". *Human Organization* 66 (3): 249–60. <https://doi.org/10.17730/humo.66.3.eh63829q28348m0q>.
- Our Watch. 2021. *Change the Story. A Shared Framework For the Primary Prevention of Violence Against Women in Australia (second addition)*. Melbourne: Our Watch. Accessed March 27, 2020. <https://media-cdn.ourwatch.org.au/wp-content/uploads/sites/2/2021/11/18101814/Change-the-story-Our-Watch-AA.pdf>.
- Oyesikun, Abayomi, Nathaniel, and Anthony Adewale Oketola. 2022. "Counselling Strategies For The Management Of Violence Against Women In Nigeria". *BIJE - BICHI Journal of Education* 16 (1): 49-59. Accessed March 25, 2024. <https://bijejournal.com/BIJE/article/view/643>.
- PAHO. 2022. *Addressing Violence Against Women in Health Policies and Protocols in the Americas: A Regional Status Report*. Washington, DC: PAHO. <https://doi.org/10.37774/9789275126387>.
- Palmen, Rachel, Nuria Francoli, Angela Genova, Asuman Göksel, Laura Sales, Silvia Sansonetti and Çiğdem Tozlu with Duygu Güngör and Aslihan Öztürk. 2016. *WAVE: Violence Against Women Comparative Report: Italy, Spain and Turkey*. WAVE: Women Against Violence Engagement. Accessed April 10, 2024. <https://notus-asr.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/05/WAVECRFinal.pdf>.
- Panaligan, Rey G. 2022. "More female than male members in judiciary." *Manila Bulletin*, March 20, 2022. Accessed June 11, 2024. <https://mb.com.ph/2022/03/10/more-female-than-male-members-in-judiciary/>.
- Panchandadeswaran, Subadra and Laura A. McCloskey. 2007. "Predicting the Timing of Women's Departure From Abusive Relationships". *Journal of Interpersonal Violence* 22 (1): 50–65. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260506294996>.
- Partners for Prevention. 2018. "Evaluation of "Shaping Our Future: Developing Healthy and Happy Relationships" Primary Prevention Intervention with Young Adolescents and Caregivers in Kampong Cham, Cambodia". Partners for Prevention. Accessed July 16, 2024. <https://www.partners4prevention.org/resource/evaluation-“shaping-our-future-developing-healthy-and-happy-relationships”-primary/>.
- Pavlou, Marios and Sofia Fomina. 2023. *Supporting The Implementation Of The Istanbul Convention In The Republic Of Moldova*. Council of Europe Publishing. Accessed 12 March, 2024. <https://rm.coe.int/report-on-coordination-of-multi-agency-on-vaw-dv-rep-of-moldova/1680acfbdf>

- PCW. 2021. *2020 GAD Budget Report*. Manila: Philippine Commission on Women. Accessed June 10, 2024. <https://library.pcw.gov.ph/wp-content/uploads/2022/01/PCW-2020-GAD-Budget-Report-Executive-Summary-December-2021.pdf>.
- PCW. 2024. "Organizational Structure." PCW. Accessed July 16, 2024. <https://pcw.gov.ph/organizational-structure/>.
- PCW. 2024a. "Presidential Decree No. 633: Creating the National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women." PCW. Accessed July 16, 2024. <https://pcw.gov.ph/presidential-decree-no-633-creating-the-national-commission-on-the-role-of-filipino-women/>.
- Pease, Bob. 2008. "Engaging Men in Men's Violence Prevention: Exploring the Tensions, Dilemmas and Possibilities". University of Tasmania. <https://hdl.handle.net/102.100.100/571869>.
- Peeters, Laura, Anke Vandenberghe, Bavo Hendriks, Christine Gilles, Kristien Roelens, and Ines Keygnaert. 2019. "Current Care for Victims of Sexual Violence and Future Sexual Assault Care Centres in Belgium: The Perspective of Victims". *BMC International Health and Human Rights* 19 (1): 1-12. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12914-019-0207-5>.
- Peterman, Amber, Megan O'Donnell. 2020. "COVID-19 and Violence against Women and Children: A Third Research Round Up for the 16 Days of Activism." Center For Global Development. Accessed March 20, 2024. <https://www.cgdev.org/sites/default/files/covid-and-violence-against-women-and-children-three.pdf>.
- Philippine Commission on Women. 2010. *Magna Carta of Women: Implementing Rules and Regulations*. Manila: Office of the President, Philippine Commission on Women.
- Philippine Commission on Women. 2012. *Barangay VAW Desk Handbook*. Manila: Philippine Commission on Women.
- Philippine Commission on Women. 2021. "Violence Against Women Helplines." Accessed July 16, 2024. <https://pcw.gov.ph/violence-against-women-helplines/>.
- Philippine Commission on Women. 2022. "Updated Gender Equality And Women's Empowerment Plan 2019-2025". Manila: Philippine Commission on Women.
- Philippine Commission on Women. 2023. "Factsheet for Filipino Women and Men". Accessed May 19, 2024. <https://nwr.gov.ph/wp-content/uploads/2024/01/FactSheetonFilipinoWomenandMen2023.pdf>.
- PCW. 2022. "Legislative Agenda for the 19th Congress." Accessed July 19, 2024. <https://pcw.gov.ph/legislative-agenda-19th-congress/>.
- Philippine Information Agency. n.d. "List of Shelters for Women" Accessed December 23, 2023. <https://www.foi.gov.ph/requests/list-of-shelters-for-women/>.
- Philippine National Police. n.d. "Crime Statistics." Accessed May 19, 2024. <https://pnp.gov.ph/crime-statistics/>.

- Philippine Statistic Authority. n.d. "Infographics, Gender". Accessed May 19, 2024. https://psa.gov.ph/infographics?field_sector_value=Gender.
- Philippine Statistic Authority. n.d(a). "Gender and Development". Accessed May 19, 2024. <https://psa.gov.ph/gender-statistics>.
- Philippine Statistics Authority. 2001. "Approval and Adoption of the Statistical Framework and Glossary Related to the Protection of Women and Children." Accessed May 19, 2024. <https://psa.gov.ph/content/approval-and-adoption-statistical-framework-and-glossary-related-protection-women-and>.
- Philippine Statistics Authority. 2014. *Philippines National Demographic and Health Survey 2013*. Manila: Philippine Statistics Authority.
- Philippine Statistics Authority. 2016. *Women and Men in the Philippines*. Accessed May 19, 2024. <https://psa.gov.ph/system/files/main-publication/Women%2520and%2520Men%2520Handbook%25202016.pdf>.
- Philippine Statistics Authority. 2018. *Philippines National Demographic and Health Survey 2017*. Quezon City: Philippine Statistics Authority.
- Philippine Statistics Authority. 2018. *The Philippine Statistical Development Program 2018-2023*. Quezon City: Philippine Statistics Authority.
- Philippine Statistics Authority. 2018a. "PSDP 2018-2023 Update." Accessed May 19, 2024. [https://psa.gov.ph/system/files/sppd/Chapter 24.pdf](https://psa.gov.ph/system/files/sppd/Chapter%2024.pdf).
- Philippine Statistics Authority. 2020. *The 2018 Philippines Standard Classification of Crime for Statistical Purposes*. Quezon City: Philippine Statistics Authority.
- Philippine Statistics Authority. 2023. *2022 Philippine National Demographic and Health Survey (NDHS), Key Indicators Report*. Quezon City: Philippine Statistics Authority.
- Philippine Statistics Authority. n.d. "End Violence Against Women". Accessed July 19, 2024. <https://psa.gov.ph/sites/default/files/infographics/End%2520VAW.pdf?width=950&height=700&iframe=true>.
- Philippine Statistics Authority. n.d(a). "Violence Against Women". Accessed July 19, 2024. https://psa.gov.ph/sites/default/files/infographics/2020%2520Infographics%2520on%2520VAW%2520Statistics_signed.pdf?width=950&height=700&iframe=true.
- Philippine Statistics Authority. n.d(b). "Violence Against Women". Accessed July 19, 2024. [https://psa.gov.ph/sites/default/files/infographics/\(ons-cleared\)_End VAW 2022 Campaign -1_ONS-signed.pdf?width=950&height=700&iframe=true](https://psa.gov.ph/sites/default/files/infographics/(ons-cleared)_End_VAW_2022_Campaign-1_ONS-signed.pdf?width=950&height=700&iframe=true).
- Plichta, Stacey Beth. 2007. "Interactions Between Victims of Intimate Partner Violence Against Women and the Health Care System: Policy and Practice Implications". *Trauma, Violence, & Abuse* 8 (2): 226–39. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1524838007301220>.
- Powell, Anastasia. 2011. *Review of Bystander Approaches In Support of Preventing Violence Against Women*. Victoria: Victorian Health Promotion Foundation (VicHealth). Accessed

- March 30, 2024. <http://riseabovethepack.com.au/wp-content/uploads/2015/01/Review-of-Bystander-Approaches-VicHealth.pdf>.
- PSA. 2022. "Age and Sex Distribution in the Philippine Population (2020 Census of Population and Housing)." *Philippine Statistics Authority*, July 7, 2022. <https://www.psa.gov.ph/content/age-and-sex-distribution-philippine-population-2020-census-population-and-housing>.
- Ramos-Jimenez, Lalay. 2021. "MR. GAD Ordinance in Davao City: A Pathway Toward Gender Equality, Harmony and Peace." *The Manila Times*, August 22, 2021. Accessed July 16, 2024. <https://www.pressreader.com/philippines/manila-times/20210822/281698322828920>.
- Ramsay, Jean, Jo Richardson, Yvonne H Carter, Leslie L Davidson, Gene Feder. 2002. "Should Health Professionals Screen Women for Domestic Violence? Systematic Review". *BMJ* 325 (7359): 1–13. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.325.7359.314>.
- Randa, Moreoagae B., Julie McGarry, Sarah Griffiths, and Kathryn Hinsliff-Smith. 2023. "Accessing Care Services after Sexual Violence: A Systematic Review Exploring Experiences of Women in South Africa". *Curationis* 46 (1): 1-10. <https://doi.org/10.4102/curationis.v46i1.2405>.
- Ratsela, Keletso, and Fadéla Chaib. 2013. "Violence against Women: A 'Global Health Problem of Epidemic Proportions.'" Geneva: WHO. Accessed 11 July 2023. <https://www.who.int/news/item/20-06-2013-violence-against-women-a-global-health-problem-of-epidemic-proportions>.
- Ray, Sawmya. 2011. "Right intention, Not So Right Outcome: Addressing Domestic Violence Through Women's Cell." *International Journal of Social Sciences and Humanity Studies* 3 (1): 437-45.
- RBMG, VBNK. 2010. "Cambodia Country Study Report Final Version". Accessed July 16, 2024. http://old.cdc-crdb.gov.kh/evaluation/final_cambodia_country_study_report.pdf.
- Reggers, Amy. 2020. *Effective Approaches To Preventing Violence Against Women (VAW). Research On Programmes And Interventions Preventing Gender-Based Violence In Bangladesh*. UN Women. Accessed March 30, 2024. [https://asiapacific.unwomen.org/sites/default/files/Field Office ESEAsia/Docs/Publications/2020/05/Research on effective approaches to Prevent Violence Against Women.pdf](https://asiapacific.unwomen.org/sites/default/files/Field%20Office%20ESEA/Docs/Publications/2020/05/Research%20on%20effective%20approaches%20to%20prevent%20violence%20against%20women.pdf).
- Republic of Kenya. 2014. *National Policy on Prevention and Response to Gender-Based Violence*. Accessed March 30, 2024. [https://psyg.go.ke/docs/National Policy on prevention and Response to Gender Based Violence.pdf](https://psyg.go.ke/docs/National%20Policy%20on%20prevention%20and%20response%20to%20gender%20based%20violence.pdf).
- Republic of the Philippines, Congress of the Philippines, Tenth Congress. 1998. "Republic Act No. 8551." Lawphil Project. Accessed June 11, 2024. https://lawphil.net/statutes/repacts/ra1998/ra_8551_1998.html.
- Republic of the Philippines, Congress of the Philippines. 1995. *Republic Act No. 7877*. Metro Manila: Congress of the Philippines, Third Regular Session. Official Gazette. Accessed June 11, 2024. <https://www.officialgazette.gov.ph/1995/02/14/republic-act-no-7877/>.

- Republic Of The Philippines, Congress of the Philippines. 1997. *Republic Act No. 8353*. Manila: Congress of the Philippines, Tenth Congress. Lawphil Project. Accessed June 10, 2024. https://lawphil.net/statutes/repacts/ra1997/ra_8353_1997.html.
- Republic of the Philippines, Congress of the Philippines. 2018. *Republic Act No. 11313*. Metro Manila: Congress of the Philippines, Seventeenth Congress, Third Regular Session. Lawphil project. https://lawphil.net/statutes/repacts/ra2019/ra_11313_2019.html.
- Republic Of The Philippines, Congress of the Philippines. 2022. *Republic Act No. 11648*. Manila: Congress of the Philippines, Eighteenth Congress, Third Regular Session.
- Republic of the Philippines, Department of Budget and Management. 2023. "XIII. Department of Health" in *National Expenditure Program FY 2024*. Accessed June 10, 2024. <https://www.dbm.gov.ph/wp-content/uploads/NEP2024/DOH/DOH.pdf>.
- Republic of the Philippines, Department of Justice. n.d. "DOJ Open Government Data", *Republic of the Philippines, Department of Justice*. Accessed June 10, 2024. https://www.doj.gov.ph/open_data.html.
- Republic of the Philippines, Inter-Agency Council on Violence Against Women And Their Children. n.d. "IACVAWC Resolution No. 2, s. 2018". Accessed June 10, 2024. <https://iacvawc.gov.ph/iacvawc-resolution-no-2-s-2018/>.
- Republic of the Philippines, Supreme Court. 2014. People Of The Philippines, Plaintiff-Appellee, Vs. Edgar Jumawan, Accused-Appellant. Baguio City: Supreme Court. Project Lawphil. Accessed June 11, 2024. https://lawphil.net/judjuris/juri2014/apr2014/gr_187495_2014.html.
- Resnick, Heidi S, Melisa M Holmes, Dean G Kilpatrick, Gretchen Clum, Ron Acierno, Connie L Best, and Benjamin E Saunders. 2000. "Predictors of Post-Rape Medical Care in a National Sample of Women¹". *American Journal of Preventive Medicine* 19 (4): 214–19. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0749-3797\(00\)00226-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0749-3797(00)00226-9).
- Rhodes, Amanda. 2013. "Strengthening the Guard: the Use of GPS Surveillance to Enforce Domestic Violence Protection Orders." *Tennessee Journal of Race, Gender, & Social Justice*: 2 (1): 129-44.
- Richards, Tara N., Justin Nix, Scott M. Mourtgos, and Ian T. Adams. 2021. "Comparing 911 and Emergency Hotline Calls for Domestic Violence in Seven Cities: What Happened When People Started Staying Home Due to COVID-19?" *Criminology & Public Policy* 20 (3): 573–91. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1745-9133.12564>.
- Rico, Nieves. 1997. *Gender-Based Violence: a Human Rights Issue*. Santiago: United Nations. Accessed April 10, 2024. https://www.cepal.org/sites/default/files/publication/files/5860/S9700545_en.pdf.
- Rivera, Fernández Sara. 2021. *Law on Women's Right to a Life Free of Violence*. Acceso a la Justicia, el Observatorio Venezolano de la Justicia. Accessed March 14, 2024. <https://accesoalajusticia.org/wp-content/uploads/securepdfs/2022/07/Analysis-of-the-venezuelan-reform-of-the-organic-law-on-womens-right-to-a-life-free-of-violence-of-2021.pdf>

- Rizkalla, Niveen, Maya Zeevi-Barkay, and Steven P. Segal. 2021. "Rape Crisis Counseling: Trauma Contagion and Supervision". *Journal of Interpersonal Violence* 36 (1–2): 960–83. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260517736877>.
- Rodgers, Jess, Kerry Carrington, and Vanessa Ryan. 2022. "Australian Police Perceptions of Women's Police Stations". *Police Practice and Research* 23 (6): 700–721. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15614263.2022.2049778>.
- Rodriguez-Jimenez, Roberto, Natalia E. Fares-Otero, and Lorena García-Fernández. 2023. "Gender-Based Violence during COVID-19 Outbreak in Spain". *Psychological Medicine* 53 (1): 299–300. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0033291720005024>.
- Rosche, Daniela. 2013. *Ending Violence Against Women. The case for a comprehensive international action plan*. Oxford: Oxfam International. Accessed March 30, 2024. <https://oxfamilibrary.openrepository.com/bitstream/handle/10546/270089/bn-ending-violence-against-women-action-plan-220213-en.pdf?sequence=1>.
- Royal Government of Cambodia. 2004. "The Progress Report On Implementation of Beijing Platform For Action On Women Issues 1995 - 2005". Ministry of Women's Affairs. Accessed April 10, 2024. <https://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/Review/responses/CAMBODIA-English.pdf>.
- Royal Government of Cambodia. 2005. "Law on Creating of Ministry of Women Affairs." Accessed July 16, 2024. http://www.skpcambodia.com/storage/uploads/files/Organic Law and regulations/Law on Creating of Ministry of Women Affairs_Eng_2005.pdf.
- Royal Government of Cambodia. 2010. *National Strategic Development Plan 2009-2013*. Phnom Penh. Accessed May 20, 2024. https://www.cambodianbudget.org/files-tinyMCE/New_Pic/Development_Policies/National_Policies_and_Decree/NSDP_Update_2009-2013_Eng.pdf.
- Royal Government of Cambodia. 2018. „Cambodian Sustainable Development Goals (CSDGs) Framework (2016-2030)” (unofficial translation). Accessed May 20, 2024. <https://mop.gov.kh/DocumentEN/CSDG Framework-2016-2030 English.pdf>.
- Royal Government of Cambodia. 2019. *National Strategic Development Plan 2019-2023*. Phnom Penh. Accessed May 20, 2024. <https://faolex.fao.org/docs/pdf/cam209374.pdf>.
- Royal Government of Cambodia. n.d. *National Strategic Development Plan 2014-2018*. Accessed May 20, 2024. <https://faolex.fao.org/docs/pdf/cam145554.pdf>.
- Royal Government of Cambodia. n.d(a). „Sub-decree On Designated Official Statistics“ (unofficial translation). Accessed May 20, 2024. https://nis.gov.kh/doc/subdecree_official_Stat.pdf.
- Rules of Court in the Philippines. 1964. Promulgated by the Supreme Court of the Philippines. Effective January 1, 1964. Manila: Supreme Court E-Library. Accessed July 15, 2024. <https://elibrary.judiciary.gov.ph/thebookshelf/showdocs/11/373>.
- Russell, Brenda. 2012. "Effectiveness, Victim Safety, Characteristics, and Enforcement of Protective Orders". *Partner Abuse* 3 (4): 531–52. <https://doi.org/10.1891/1946-6560.3.4.531>.

- Salem, Christine B., Dodelon Sabijon, Yolanda Sayson, Maricar G. Cañedo, Joan Marie Oville, and Renato C. Sagayno. 2024. "Violence Against Women and their Children (VAWC) Cases During Pandemic: Experiences of Women and Children Protection Desk (WCPD) Officers in Cebu City." *International Journal of Law and Politics Studies* 6 (3): 66–77. <https://doi.org/10.32996/ijlps.2024.6.3.6>.
- Salter, Michael. 2016. "'Real Men Don't Hit Women': Constructing Masculinity in the Prevention of Violence against Women". *Australian & New Zealand Journal of Criminology* 49 (4): 463–79. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0004865815587031>.
- Scholl, Mary Ann. 2010. "GPS Monitoring May Cause Orwell to Turn in His Grave, But Will It Escape Constitutional Challenges? A Look at GPS Monitoring of Domestic Violence Offenders in Illinois" *The John Marshall Law Review* 43 (3): 845-68.
- Schuler, Sidney Ruth, Rachel Lenzi, Sohela Nazneen, and Lisa M. Bates. 2013. "Is Women's Empowerment Contributing to A Decline In Intimate Partner Violence Against Women In Bangladesh? Evidence From a Qualitative Study". *Studies in Family Planning* 44 (3): 243–57. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1728-4465.2013.00356.x>.
- Senate Of the Philippines. 2007. "Pia On The Jalosjos Commutation: "Doj Scores Failing Mark In Vawc Cases...What Business Does It Have To Pardon Him?"". Press Release. Accessed June 10, 2024. http://legacy.senate.gov.ph/press_release/2007/0615_cayetano1.asp#:~:text=Senator%20Pia%20S.,forms%20of%20violence%20and%20abuse.
- Shah, Nilpa D., Grace Nguyen, Jennifer A. Wagman, and Deborah C. Glik. 2023. "Factors Influencing the Use of Domestic Violence Restraining Orders in Los Angeles". *Violence Against Women* 29 (9): 1604–22. <https://doi.org/10.1177/10778012221120442>.
- Shaw, Jessica and Rebecca Campbell. 2011. "Rape Crisis Centers: Serving Survivors and Their Communities." In *Surviving Sexual Violence: A Guide to Recovery and Empowerment*, edited by Thema Bryant-Davis, 112-127. Plymouth: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers, Inc.
- Sikder, Shegufta Shefa, Rakhi Ghoshal, Padma Bhate-Deosthali, Chandni Jaishwal, and Nobhojit Roy. 2021. "Mapping the Health Systems Response to Violence against Women: Key Learnings from Five LMIC Settings (2015–2020)". *BMC Women's Health* 21 (1): 360. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12905-021-01499-8>.
- Sikri, Kanishka, Ayushi Thakur, Betelhem Araya Tadele, and Daniel Cowen. 2021. *Why Women's Police Stations in India Fail to Mitigate Violence Against Women*. Reach Alliance. Accessed March 20, 2024. <https://static1.squarespace.com/static/5769a0b5f7e0ab7b91a3362b/t/60625fde0e997e4e0ee87b42/1617059808119/WPS-Final-March29.pdf>.
- Skelton, Christine, and Becky Francis. 2009. *Feminism and 'The Schooling Scandal'*. London: Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203884331>.
- Smith-Darden, Joanne P., Heather L. McCauley, Jamie Kynn, Lindsay M. Orchowski, and Dennis E. Reidy. 2022. "Social Marketing Approaches to Raising Awareness about Men's Violence against Women: Theory, Research, and Practice". In *Engaging Boys and Men in Sexual Assault Prevention*, 237–64. Elsevier. <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-819202-3.00023-7>.

- Smulovitz, Catalina. 2015. "Legal Inequality and Federalism: Domestic Violence Laws in the Argentine Provinces." *Latin American Politics and Society* 57 (3): 1–26. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/24765973>.
- Smyth, Katya Fels, Lisa Goodman, and Catherine Glenn. 2006. "The Full-Frame Approach: A New Response to Marginalized Women Left behind by Specialized Services." *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry* 76 (4): 489–502. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0002-9432.76.4.489>.
- SOLWODI Deutschland e.V. 2020. "COVID-19 and the Increase of Domestic Violence against Women." 2020. Accessed October 30, 2023. <https://www.ohchr.org/sites/default/files/2022-01/germany-solwodi.pdf>
- Sorenson, Susan B., Laura Sinko, and Richard A. Berk. 2021. "The Endemic Amid the Pandemic: Seeking Help for Violence Against Women in the Initial Phases of COVID-19". *Journal of Interpersonal Violence* 36 (9–10): 4899–4915. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260521997946>.
- Sosa, Lorena. 2017. "The Human Rights Framework on Violence against Women." In *Intersectionality in the Human Rights Legal Framework on Violence against Women: At the Centre or the Margins?*, 43–60. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Spieler, Paula. 2011. "The Maria Da Penha Case and the Inter-American Commission on Human Rights: Contributions to the Debate on Domestic Violence Against Women in Brazil". *Indiana Journal of Global Legal Studies* 18 (1): 121–43. <https://doi.org/10.2979/indjglolegstu.18.1.121>.
- Starmann, Elizabeth, Lori Heise, Nambusi Kyegombe, Karen Devries, Tanya Abramsky, Lori Michau, Tina Musuya, Charlotte Watts, and Martine Collumbien. 2018. "Examining Diffusion to Understand the How of SASA!, A Violence against Women and HIV Prevention Intervention in Uganda". *BMC Public Health* 18 (1): 1–20. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-018-5508-4>.
- Statista. 2024. "Approved Budget for Philippine Commission on Women for Fiscal Year 2024." Accessed July 16, 2024. <https://www.statista.com/statistics/1359609/approved-budget-for-philippine-commission-on-women/#:~:text=For%20the%202024%20fiscal%20year,of%20the%20previous%20fiscal%20year.>
- Stephens, B. Joyce, and Peter G. Sinden. 2000. "Victims' Voices: Domestic Assault Victims' Perceptions of Police Demeanor". *Journal of Interpersonal Violence* 15 (5): 534–47. <https://doi.org/10.1177/088626000015005006>.
- Stewart, Donna E., Raquel Aviles, Alessandra Guedes, Ekaterina Riazantseva, and Harriet MacMillan. 2015. "Latin American and Caribbean Countries" Baseline Clinical and Policy Guidelines for Responding to Intimate Partner Violence and Sexual Violence against Women'. *BMC Public Health* 15 (1): 1–6. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-015-1994-9>.
- Strid, Sofia, Anne Laure Humbert, Jeff Hearn, Fredrik Bondestam, and Liisa Husu. 2021. *D3.1 Theoretical and conceptual framework*. UniSAFE. Accessed April 10, 2024. https://unisafe-gbv.eu/wp-content/uploads/2021/05/DT31_Theoretical-and-conceptual-framework_290421.pdf.

- Sullivan, Cris M. 2012. *Domestic Violence Shelter Services: A Review of the Empirical Evidence*. Harrisburg, PA: National Resource Center on Domestic Violence. Accessed March 20, 2024. <http://www.dvevidenceproject.org>.
- Sullivan, Cris M., Isabel Baptista, Sharon O'halloran, Lydia Okroj, Sarah Morton, and Cheryl Sutherland Stewart. 2008. "Evaluating the Effectiveness of Women's Refuges: A Multi-Country Approach to Model Development". *International Journal of Comparative and Applied Criminal Justice* 32 (2): 291–308. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01924036.2008.9678790>.
- Sutherland, Georgina, Angus McCormack, Patricia L. Easta, Kate Holland, and Jane Pirkis. 2016. "Media Guidelines for the Responsible Reporting of Violence Against Women: A Review of Evidence and Issues." *Australian Journalism Review* 38(1): 5-17. <https://ssrn.com/abstract=2832441>.
- Sutherland, Georgina, Jen Hargrave, Lauren Krnjacki, Gwynnyth Llewellyn, Anne Kavanagh, and Cathy Vaughan. 2024. "A Systematic Review of Interventions Addressing the Primary Prevention of Violence Against Women With Disability". *Trauma, Violence, & Abuse* 25 (2): 1235–47. <https://doi.org/10.1177/15248380231175932>.
- Taba, Szabolcs. 2018. "Protection Orders As Tools of Defending Women Victims of Domestic Violence In Light of the European Standards: Austria and Hungary" (master's thesis, Central European University), 1-33.
- Taket, Ann, C. Nadine Wathen, and Harriet MacMillan. 2004. "Should Health Professionals Screen All Women for Domestic Violence?" *PLoS Medicine* 1 (1): 7-10. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pmed.0010004>.
- Terry, Miranda Sue. 2014. "Applying the Social Ecological Model to Violence against Women with Disabilities". *Journal of Women's Health Care* 03 (06):1-7. <https://doi.org/10.4172/2167-0420.1000193>.
- Testolin, Giorgia. 2001. *Handbook on National Machinery to Promote Gender Equality and Action Plans*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe. Accessed March 12, 2024. https://eige.europa.eu/resources/national_machinery.pdf.
- The Advocates for Human Rights. 2021. *Stakeholder Report for the United Nations Universal Periodic Review*. The Advocates for Human Rights, 39th Session of the Working Group on the Universal Periodic Review. Accessed March 30, 2021. https://www.theadvocatesforhumanrights.org/Res/hungary_upr_vaw_stakeholder_report.pdf.
- The Cambodian Committee of Women. 2007. "Violence Against Women: How Cambodian Laws Discriminate Against Women". A CAMBOW Report. Accessed July 15, 2024. https://www.licadho-cambodia.org/reports/files/112CAMBOWViolenceWomenReport2007_ENG.pdf.
- The Commonwealth of The Bahamas. 2015. *Gender-Based Violence in The Bahamas: A National Report*. Accessed March 30, 2024. <https://www.bahamas.gov.bs/wps/wcm/connect/3be7c3ad-862c-4c0f-ac44-a2833552e00b/GBV+REPORT.Final.+August2015.pdf?MOD=AJPERES>.

- The Lawphil Project. 1930. "Act No. 3815 (December 8, 1930), An Act Revising The Penal Code And Other Penal Laws". The Lawphil Project. Accessed June 10, 2024. https://lawphil.net/statutes/acts/act_3815_1930.html.
- The Lawphil Project. n.d(a). "Republic Act No. 386". Accessed June 10, 2024. https://lawphil.net/statutes/repacts/ra1949/ra_386_1949.html.
- The NGO Forum on Cambodia. 2007. *Guide to National Budget*. Phnom Penh: The NGO Forum on Cambodia. Accessed June 10, 2024. http://ngoforum.org.kh/files/nbp_guidetothernationalbudget-english.pdf.
- The NGO Forum on Cambodia. 2016. *Guide to National Budget*. Phnom Penh: The NGO Forum on Cambodia. Accessed June 10, 2024. <http://ngoforum.org.kh/files/ce61ca5dee2c7899d9c78565e3252748-Guide-to-the-National-Budget-English.pdf>.
- The NGO Forum on Cambodia. n.d(a). "Data from Budget Law 2024". *The NGO Forum on Cambodia*. Accessed June 10, 2024. <https://cambodianbudget.org/index.php?page=00124>.
- The NGO Forum on Cambodia. n.d(b). "Budget Law Database 2022 (all tables)". *The NGO Forum on Cambodia*. Accessed June 10, 2024. <https://cambodianbudget.org/index.php?page=00124>.
- The NGO Forum on Cambodia. n.d(c). "Budget Law Database 2021 (all tables)". *The NGO Forum on Cambodia*. Accessed June 10, 2024. <https://cambodianbudget.org/index.php?page=00124>.
- The Phnom Penh Post. 2017. "Final Evaluation: Community Alcohol Notification Systems (CANS)." February 27, 2017. Accessed July 16, 2024. <https://www.phnompenhpost.com/job/final-evaluation-community-alcohol-notification-systems-cans>.
- Tierney, Kathleen J. 1982. "The Battered Women Movement and the Creation of the Wife Beating Problem." *Social Problems (Berkeley, Calif.)* 29 (3): 207–20. <https://doi.org/10.1525/sp.1982.29.3.03a00010>.
- Topliffe, Elizabeth. 1992. "Why Civil Protection Orders are Effective Remedies for Domestic Violence but Mutual Protective Orders Are Not," *Indiana Law Journal* 67 (4): 1039–65. <https://www.repository.law.indiana.edu/ilj/vol67/iss4/6>.
- TPoC Cambodia. 2024. "16 Days of Activism Against Gender-Based Violence." TPoC Cambodia. Accessed July 16, 2024. <https://tpocambodia.org/16-days-of-activism-against-gender-based-violence/>.
- Turhan, Zeynep, Emel Genç, and Nur Başer Baykal. 2023. "Lived Experiences of Protection Orders among Women Survivors of Domestic Violence". *Women & Criminal Justice*, July, 1–14. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08974454.2023.2228769>.
- Ulucan, Hakan. 2022. "Women Shelters: The Last Resort Option to Escape From Violence". *SSRN Electronic Journal*: 1-29. <https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.4016333>.

- UN Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW). 1992. *CEDAW General Recommendation No. 19: Violence against women*. Accessed April 10, 2024. <https://www.refworld.org/legal/resolution/cedaw/1992/en/96542>
- UN General Assembly. 1979. *Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women*. UN General Assembly, 18 December 1979. Accessed April 10, 2024. <https://www.ohchr.org/sites/default/files/Documents/ProfessionalInterest/cedaw.pdf>.
- UN Women – Headquarters. n.d. “Frequently Asked Questions: Types of Violence against Women and Girls.” Accessed September 16, 2023. <https://www.unwomen.org/en/what-we-do/ending-violence-against-women/faqs/types-of-violence>.
- UN Women and UNICEF. 2022. *Mapping the Nexus: Media Reporting of Violence Against Girls And the Normalization of Violence*. UN Women and UNICEF. Accessed March 30, 2024. [https://www.unicef.org/media/126561/file/Full Report - Nexus between media reporting and violence against girls 2022.pdf](https://www.unicef.org/media/126561/file/Full%20Report%20-%20Nexus%20between%20media%20reporting%20and%20violence%20against%20girls%202022.pdf).
- UN Women. 2012. *Handbook for Legislation on Violence against Women*. New York: UN Women. Accessed March 14, 2024. https://www.unwomen.org/sites/default/files/Headquarters/Attachments/Sections/Library/Publications/2012/12/UNW_Legislation-Handbook.pdf
- UN Women. 2015. “Assessment of National Women Machineries.” Unpublished report, last modified July 2015. Accessed March 12, 2024. [https://jordan.unwomen.org/sites/default/files/Field Office Jordan/Attachments/what-we-do/financing/A-Assessment of National Women Machineries-1 \(1\).pdf](https://jordan.unwomen.org/sites/default/files/Field%20Office%20Jordan/Attachments/what-we-do/financing/A-Assessment%20of%20National%20Women%20Machineries-1%20(1).pdf)
- UN Women. 2015. “Strengthening a Participatory, Evidence-based Formulation of a Comprehensive Action Plan to End Violence against Women and Girls in Cambodia and Implementation of the 2nd Cambodian National Action Plan to Prevent Violence against Women”. Accessed June 10, 2024. <https://www.dfat.gov.au/sites/default/files/cambodia-end-violence-against-women-un-women-strengthening-a-participatory-evidence-based-formulation.pdf>.
- UN Women. 2015. *A Framework to Underpin Action To Prevent Violence Against Women*. UN Women. Accessed March 27, 2024. https://www.unwomen.org/sites/default/files/Headquarters/Attachments/Sections/Library/Publications/2015/Prevention_Framework_unwomen_nov2015.pdf.
- UN Women. 2020. “Prevention: Violence against Women and Girls & COVID-19”. *UN Women Ending Violence Against Women (EVAW) COVID-19 Briefs* 6. Vol. 6. <https://doi.org/10.18356/1a86df57-en>.
- UN Women. 2020. "Report on the PH implementation of the following resolutions, covering 01 August 2018 to date." Accessed July 19, 2024. <https://www.unwomen.org/sites/default/files/Headquarters/Attachments/Sections/Library/Publications/2020/A-75-279-Submission-Philippines-en.pdf>.
- UN Women. 2021. “Awareness Raising to Prevent Violence Against Women and Girls”. Accessed March 30, 2024. <https://asiapacific.unwomen.org/sites/default/files/2022-01/ap-Awareness-raising-FINAL-20Dec.pdf>.

- UN Women. 2021. "Progress Notes: Cambodia 2021." UN Women. Accessed July 16, 2024. <https://open.unwomen.org/our-reach/KH/progress-notes?year=2021>.
- UN Women. 2022. "Progress Notes: Cambodia 2022." UN Women. Accessed July 16, 2024. <https://open.unwomen.org/our-reach/KH/progress-notes?year=2022>.
- UN Women. 2023. "Facts and figures: Ending violence against women". September 21, 2023. Accessed March 30, 2024. <https://www.unwomen.org/en/what-we-do/ending-violence-against-women/facts-and-figures#:~:text=Globally%2C an estimated 736 million,does not include sexual harassment>.
- UN Women. 2024. "Exchange of promising practices to close gender gap in policing in South and South-East Asia". Last Modified March 4, 2024. <https://asiapacific.unwomen.org/en/stories/feature-story/2024/03/exchange-of-promising-practices-to-close-gender-gap-in-policing#:~:text=broader social pressures.-,Brigadier-General Nov Ratana%2C Deputy Commissioner for Anti-Human, had risen to around 10>.
- UNDP. 2024. "Terms Of Reference For Individual Consultant". Accessed July 16, 2024. https://procurement-notices.undp.org/view_file.cfm?doc_id=90479.
- UNGEI. n.d. *School-Based Interventions to Prevent Violence Against Women & Girls (evidence brief)*. Accessed March 20, 2024. https://www.ungei.org/sites/default/files/EVIDENCE-BRIEF-School-Based-Interventions-to-Prevent-Violence-Against-Women-_Girls-eng.pdf.
- UNICEF East Asia and the Pacific Regional Office. 2020. *Ending Violence Against Women And Children in Cambodia*. Bangkok: UNICEF East Asia and the Pacific Regional Office. Accessed June 10, 2024. <https://www.unicef.org/eap/media/8631/file/EndingViolenceagainstWomenandChildreninCambodia.pdf>.
- UNIFEM. 2009. *Domestic Violence Legislation and its Implementation: An analysis for ASEAN countries based on international standards and good practices*. Bangkok: United Nations Development Fund for Women. Accessed March 14, 2024. <https://asiapacific.unwomen.org/sites/default/files/Field Office ESEAsia/Docs/Publications/2015/03/Domestic Violence Legislation and its Implementation-CEDAW.pdf>.
- UNITE Cambodia. 2015. "Restaurant Managers Taking a Stand Against Harassment of Their Workers." UNITE Cambodia. Accessed July 16, 2024. <https://unitecambodia.wordpress.com/2015/12/08/restaurant-managers-taking-a-stand-against-harassment-of-their-workers/>.
- United Nations Human Rights Treaties Bodies. n.d. "UN Treaty Body Database". Accessed April 10, 2024. https://tbinternet.ohchr.org/_layouts/15/TreatyBodyExternal/Treaty.aspx?Treaty=CEDAW&Lang=en.
- United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime. 2014. *Strengthening Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice Responses to Violence against Women*. Vienna: United Nations. Accessed March 20, 2024. <https://www.unodc.org/documents/justice-and-prison->

reform/Strengthening_Crime_Prevention_and_Criminal_Justice_Responses_to_Violence_against_Women.pdf.

United Nations. 1995. "Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, adopted at the Fourth World Conference on Women." October 27.

United Nations. 1995. *Beijing Declaration and Platform of Action*. Adopted at the Fourth World Conference on Women United Nations, 27 October 1995. Accessed April 10, 2024. <https://www.refworld.org/legal/resolution/un/1995/en/73680>.

United Nations. 2005. *Global Consultation on Gender-Based Violence: Report*. Accessed July 16, 2024. https://www.un.org/womenwatch/ianwge/taskforces/vaw/GLOBAL_CONSULTATION_ON_GBV-REPORT.pdf.

United Nations. 2006. "Ending Violence Against Women: From Words to Action. Study of the Secretary-General." United Nations Publication.

United Nations. 2010. *Strengthening National Mechanisms for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women: Regional Study – Asia and the Pacific*. Bangkok: United Nations. Accessed 12 March, 2024. https://www.unescap.org/sites/default/files/SDD_PUB_2010-Regional-Study-on-NWM.pdf.

United Nations. 2014. *Guidelines for Producing Statistics on Violence against Women: Statistical Surveys*. Studies in Methods (Ser. F). UN. <https://doi.org/10.18356/da0919b9-en>.

United Nations. 2015. *The World's Women 2015: Trends and Statistics*. 2015. New York: United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Statistics Division.

United Nations. n.d. "Indicators on violence against women". Accessed April 10, 2024. [https://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/vaw/v-issues-focus.htm#:~:text=Indicators%2C with their associated benchmarks,and within and between countries](https://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/vaw/v-issues-focus.htm#:~:text=Indicators%2C%20with%20their%20associated%20benchmarks,and%20within%20and%20between%20countries).

United States Department of State. 2022. *Global Strategy to Prevent and Respond to Gender-Based Violence: A Call to Action*. Accessed March 30, 2024. https://www.state.gov/wp-content/uploads/2022/12/GBV-Global-Strategy-Report_v6-Accessible-1292022.pdf.

UNODC. 2022. "Gender-related killings of women and girls (femicide/feminicide)". Accessed May 19, 2024. https://www.unodc.org/documents/data-and-analysis/briefs/Femicide_brief_Nov2022.pdf.

UNODC. 2022. "Violence of Any Kind Is Not How You Show Love: Spreading the Message on Getting Help After Experiencing Gender-Based Violence in Cambodia." *United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime*, July 25, 2022. <https://www.unodc.org/unodc/en/frontpage/2022/July/violence-of-any-kind-is-not-how-you-show-love--spreading-the-message-on-getting-help-after-experiencing-gender-based-violence-in-cambodia.html>.

Vachhani, Pushti V., Nishant R. Bhimani, Nishith B. Sutaria, Shyamal K. Purani, and Girija P. Kartha. 2017. "Violence against Women: A Study on Nature, Prevalence and

- Extent". *International Journal of Research in Medical Sciences* 5 (11): 4919. <https://doi.org/10.18203/2320-6012.ijrms20174945>.
- Valentini, Laura. 2017. "Dignity and Human Rights: A Reconceptualisation." *Oxford Journal of Legal Studies* 37 (4): 862–85. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/48561018>.
- Valdez, Isabel Kristine M., Ma. Veronica Pia N. Arevalo, Janine Patricia G. Robredo, Sabrina Laya S. Gacad, Marie Aubrey J. Villaceran, Gertrudes R. Libang, Edelina P. Dela Paz, Krissi Shaffina Twyla A. Rubin, and Michelle Ann B. Eala. 2022. 'Violence against Women in the Philippines: Barriers to Seeking Support'. *The Lancet Regional Health - Western Pacific* 23 (June):100471. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lanwpc.2022.100471>.
- Van Cleave, Rachel A. 2007. "Rape and the Querela in Italy: False Protection of Victim Agency." *Michigan Journal of Gender & Law* 13: 273-310. <https://ssrn.com/abstract=2083775>.
- Van de Watering, Esther. 2013. "Criminal Protection Orders: Effective legal remedies or False promises to victims? An explorative research on the effectiveness of criminal protection orders" (university research, Tilburg University - Tilburg Law School), 1-88. Accessed March 30, 2024. <http://arno.uvt.nl/show.cgi?fid=130930>.
- Van der Aa, Suzan, Johanna Niemi, Lorena Sosa, Ana Ferreira, Anna Baldry. *Mapping the Legislation And Assessing the Impact of Protection Orders in the European Member States*. Oisterwijk: Wolf Legal Publishers (WLP).
- Van Der Aa, Suzan. 2012. "Protection Orders in the European Member States: Where Do We Stand and Where Do We Go from Here?" *European Journal on Criminal Policy and Research* 18 (2): 183–204. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10610-011-9167-6>.
- Venis, Sarah, and Richard Horton. 2002. "Violence against Women: A Global Burden". *The Lancet* 359 (9313): 1172. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(02\)08251-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(02)08251-X).
- Vera-Gray, Fiona. 2020. "The Whole Place Self: Reflecting on the Original Working Practices of Rape Crisis". *Journal of Gender-Based Violence* 4 (1): 59–72. <https://doi.org/10.1332/239868019X15682997635986>.
- Verma, Prachi, Payal Puri, Dhruv Sharma, and Shreya Singh. 2020. "Role of 'One Stop Crisis Centre' in Identifying and Assisting Victims of Violence in an Indian Health Care Setup". *Central Asian Journal of Global Health* 9 (1): 1-9. <https://doi.org/10.5195/cajgh.2020.297>.
- Verzosa, Emmeline. 2010. "Expert Group Meeting on good practices in national action plans on violence against women United Nations Economic Commission for Latin America/ Subregional Headquarters for the Caribbean." Supporting paper. EGM/GPNAP/2010/DN .10. Accessed July 16, 2024. <https://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/vaw/egm/nap2010/EGM.GPNAP.2010.DN.10.Verzosa.pdf>.
- Vicheika, Kann. 2023. "Cambodian Women Vulnerable to Domestic Violence Due to Lack of Protection, Punishment". March 16, 2023. Accessed March 30,

204. <https://www.voacambodia.com/a/cambodian-women-vulnerable-to-domestic-violence-due-to-lack-of-protection-punishment/7007647.html>.

- Vittes, Katherine A., Daniel W. Webster, Shannon Frattaroli, Barbara E. Claire, and Garen J. Wintemute. 2013. "Removing Guns From Batterers: Findings From a Pilot Survey of Domestic Violence Restraining Order Recipients in California". *Violence Against Women* 19 (5): 602–16. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1077801213490561>.
- Vives-Cases, Carmen, and Gaby Ortiz-Barreda. 2010. "Mapping violence against women laws in the world: an overview of state commitments." *Journal of Epidemiology & Community Health* 64(6): 474-75. <https://doi.org/10.1136/jech.2009.090365>.
- Vyas, Seema, and Charlotte Watts. 2009. "How Does Economic Empowerment Affect Women's Risk of Intimate Partner Violence in Low and Middle Income Countries? A Systematic Review of Published Evidence." *Journal of International Development* 21 (5): 577–602.
- Wakefield, Melanie A, Barbara Loken, and Robert C Hornik. 2010. "Use of Mass Media Campaigns to Change Health Behaviour". *The Lancet* 376 (9748): 1261–71. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(10\)60809-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(10)60809-4).
- Walby, S. 2005. Improving the statistics on violence against women. *Statistical Journal of the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe* 22(4): 193-216. <https://openaccess.city.ac.uk/id/eprint/21756/>.
- Walby, Sylvia, Philippa Olive, Jude Towers, Brian Francis, Sofia Strid, Andrea Krizsán, Emanuela Lombardo, Corinne May-Chahal, Suzanne Franzway, David Sugarman, Bina Agarwal and Jo Armstrong. 2015. "Law and the Criminal Justice System." In *Stopping Rape: Towards a Comprehensive Policy*, edited by Sylvia Walby, Philippa Olive, Jude Towers, Brian Francis, Sofia Strid, Andrea Krizsán, Emanuela Lombardo, Corinne May-Chahal, Suzanne Franzway, David Sugarman, Bina Agarwal, and Jo Armstrong, 111-71. Bristol: Bristol University Press; Policy Press.
- Walby, Sylvia. 2016. *Ensuring Data Collection And Research On Violence Against Women And Domestic Violence: Article 11 Of The Istanbul Convention*. Council of Europe. Accessed 12 March, 2024. <https://rm.coe.int/article-11/1680a0af3f>.
- Walby, Sylvia. 2016. *Ensuring Data Collection and Research on Violence against Women and Domestic Violence: Article 11 of the Istanbul Convention*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe.
- Walden, Inara and Liz Wall. "Reflecting On Primary Prevention of Violence Against Women: The Public Health Approach". *Australian Center For the Study of Sexual Assault* (19): 1-24.
- Walker, Lauren. 2021. "Violence against women costs EU countries around €289 billion every year." *The Brussels Times*. Accessed March 30, 2024. <https://www.brusselstimes.com/177406/violence-against-women-costs-eu-countries-around-e289-billion-every-year>.
- Walker, S.P., and D.A. Louw. 2003. "The South African Court for Sexual Offences". *International Journal of Law and Psychiatry* 26 (1): 73–85. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-2527\(02\)00204-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-2527(02)00204-2).

- Wallin, Mikaela, and Alesha Durfee. 2020. "Firearm Removal, Judicial Decision-Making, and Domestic Violence Protection Orders". *Violence and Gender* 7 (1): 27–32. <https://doi.org/10.1089/vio.2019.0029>.
- Watts, Charlotte, and Cathy Zimmerman. 2002. "Violence against Women: Global Scope and Magnitude". *The Lancet* 359 (9313): 1232–37. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(02\)08221-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(02)08221-1).
- Websdale, Neil, and Byron Johnson. 1997. "Reducing Woman Battering: The Role of Structural Approaches." *Social Justice: A Journal of Crime, Conflict and World Order* 24 (1): 54-81.
- Weldon, S. Laurel, and Mala Htun. 2013. "Feminist Mobilisation and Progressive Policy Change: Why Governments Take Action to Combat Violence against Women". *Gender & Development* 21 (2): 231–47. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13552074.2013.802158>.
- Weldon, S. Laurel. 2002. *Protest, Policy, and the Problem of Violence against Women: A Cross-National Comparison*. University of Pittsburgh Press. <https://doi.org/10.2307/j.ctt7zw85q>.
- Welsh Women's Aid. 2020. *A Blueprint For The Prevention Of Violence Against Women, Domestic Abuse And Sexual Violence In Wales: Understanding The Concepts*. Cardiff: Welsh Women's Aid. Accessed March 27, 2020. <https://welshwomensaid.org.uk/wp-content/uploads/2023/04/A-Blueprint-for-the-Prevention-of-VAWDASV.pdf>.
- Westmarland, Nicole, and Sue Alderson. 2013. "The Health, Mental Health, and Well-Being Benefits of Rape Crisis Counseling". *Journal of Interpersonal Violence* 28 (17): 3265–82. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260513496899>.
- WHO. 2004. *Health Care For Women Subjected to Intimate Partner Violence Or Sexual Violence: A Clinical Handbook*. Luxembourg: World Health Organization. Accessed March 30, 2024. https://iris.who.int/bitstream/handle/10665/136101/WHO_RHR_14.26_eng.pdf?sequence=1.
- WHO. 2010. *Promoting gender equality to prevent violence against women*. Malta: World Health Organization.
- WHO. 2010. *Violence Prevention: The Evidence*. Malta: World Health Organization. Accessed March 27, 2024. https://iris.who.int/bitstream/handle/10665/77936/9789241500845_eng.pdf?sequence=1.
- WHO. 2013. *Preventing Violence: Evaluating Outcomes Of Parenting Programmes*. Luxembourg: World Health Organization.
- WHO. 2013. *Responding to intimate partner violence and sexual violence against women: WHO clinical and policy guidelines*. Italy: World Health Organization. Accessed March 20, 2024. https://iris.who.int/bitstream/handle/10665/85240/9789241548595_eng.pdf?sequence=1.
- WHO. 2019. *RESPECT Women: Preventing Violence Against Women*. Geneva: World Health Organization. Accessed April 10,

2024. <https://www.unwomen.org/sites/default/files/Headquarters/Attachments/Sections/Library/Publications/2019/RESPECT-Women-Preventing-violence-against-women-en.pdf>.
- WHO. 2020. *Sexual, Reproductive, Maternal, Newborn, Child And Adolescent Health Policy Survey 2018–2019: Report*. Geneva: World Health Organization. Accessed March 30, 2024. <https://iris.who.int/bitstream/handle/10665/331847/9789240004092-eng.pdf>.
- WHO. 2021. “Violence against women.” Accessed September 16, 2023. <https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/violence-against-women>.
- WHO. 2021. *Addressing violence against women in health and multisectoral policies: a global status report*. Geneva: World Health Organization. Accessed March 30, 2024. <https://iris.who.int/bitstream/handle/10665/350245/9789240040458-eng.pdf?sequence=1>.
- WHO. 2024. “Violence against women.” March 25, 2024. Accessed March 30, 2024. <https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/violence-against-women>.
- WHO. n.d. “How Who Is Driving Impact On The Ground. Demonstrating Greater Accountability And Transparency”. Accessed July 15, 2024. <https://www.who.int/about/accountability/results/who-results-report-2020-2021/country-profile/2021/cambodia>.
- Williams, Carol Watson. 2020. *Caribbean Experiences with Collecting Data on Violence Against Women and Girls*. Caribbean Development Bank and UN Women. Accessed March 20, 2024. https://oig.cepal.org/sites/default/files/caribbean_experiences_collecting_data_vaw.pdf.
- Williams, Kirsty. 2018. *Cabinet Paper: 13 March 2018*. Cabinet Secretary for Education. Accessed March 30, 2024. <https://www.gov.wales/sites/default/files/publications/2019-02/cabinet-paper-130318.pdf>.
- Wingler, Monica Elizabeth. 2013. “Judicial Perspectives of Domestic Violence Courts.” (master’s thesis, University of Missouri), 1-88. Accessed March 20, 2024. <https://irl.umsl.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1068&context=thesis>.
- Wintemute, Garen J., Shannon Frattaroli, Mona A. Wright, Barbara E. Claire, Katherine A. Vites, and Daniel W. Webster. 2015. “Firearms and the Incidence of Arrest among Respondents to Domestic Violence Restraining Orders”. *Injury Epidemiology* 2 (1): 1-14. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40621-015-0047-2>.
- Winter, Søren. 2010. *Danish campaign targets diversity in domestic violence*. European Institute for Gender and Equality. Accessed March 30, 2024. https://eige.europa.eu/sites/default/files/documents/break_the_silence_-_awareness_raising_-_denmark.pdf.
- Witte, Tricia H., and Mazheruddin M. Mulla. 2012. “Social Norms for Intimate Partner Violence in Situations Involving Victim Infidelity”. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence* 27 (17): 3389–3404. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0886260512445381>.
- Women and Children Protection Center, Philippine National Police. n.d. “WCPC Functions”. Accessed June 10, 2024. <https://wcpc.pnp.gov.ph/wcpc-functions/>.

Women Peace Makers. n.d. “Factsheet Gender-Based Violence”. Universal Periodic Review of Cambodia – 4th Cycle. Accessed July 15, 2024. https://upr-info.org/sites/default/files/country-document/2024-02/Factsheet_Gender_Based_Violence.pdf.

Woody, Jane D., and Kerry L. Beldin. 2012. “The Mental Health Focus in Rape Crisis Services: Tensions and Recommendations”. *Violence and Victims* 27 (1): 95–108. <https://doi.org/10.1891/0886-6708.27.1.95>.

World Bank. 1993. *World development report 1993: Investing In Health*. New York: Oxford University Press.

World Bank. n.d. "Population, Total - Cambodia." *World Bank*. Accessed July 13, 2024. <https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.POP.TOTL?locations=KH>.

Yakubovich, Alexa R, Alysha Bartsch, Nicholas Metheny, Dionne Gesink, and Patricia O’Campo. 2022. “Housing Interventions for Women Experiencing Intimate Partner Violence: A Systematic Review”. *The Lancet Public Health* 7 (1): 23–35. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2468-2667\(21\)00234-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2468-2667(21)00234-6).

Yassour-Borochowitz, Dalit. 2016. “Protection Orders for Battered Women in Israel”. *Laws* 5 (3): 1-12. <https://doi.org/10.3390/laws5030032>.

Youngs, Jennifer. 2015. “Domestic Violence and the Criminal Law: Reconceptualising Reform”. *The Journal of Criminal Law* 79 (1): 55–70. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0022018314566746>.

Zweig, Janine, Lauren Farrell, Kelly Walsh, and Lilly Yu. 2021. “Community Approaches to Sexual Assault: VAWA’s Role and Survivors’ Experiences”. *Violence Against Women* 27 (1): 30–51. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1077801220949696>.

ក្រុមការងារបញ្ញាបរយៈណ៍ផ្នែកយេនឌ័រ, Kromkar ngarbeanchriap Royondor phneak Yendorthe, Gender Mainstreaming Action Group (GMAG). 2020. គោលនយោបាយ និងផែនការយុទ្ធសាស្ត្រសរសើរពី ការបន្តរ ១ បតយេនឌ័រនិងវិស័យសុខាភិបាល ២០២០-២០២៤, Kol Niyoubay Niyuk Pheankar Yuthisarit Stei Proulhean Dorn Knei Vissay Sokhapibal 2020-2024, Gender Mainstreaming in Health Sector Policy and Strategic Plan 2020-2024. Accessed July 15, 2024. https://aipalync.org/storage/documents/main/moh-gender-mainstreaming-in-health-sector-policy-and-strategic-plan-2020-20249-kh_1715536428.pdf.

អគ្គនាយកដ្ឋាន វិស័យហិរញ្ញវត្ថុ, Akkānāīyākdān Tavakā, General Department of Budget (MEF). 2023. *ថវិកាសង្ខេប ឆ្នាំ ២០២៤, Tavakā Sangkhep Chhnām 2024, Budget in Brief Fiscal Year 2023*. Accessed June 10, 2024. <https://mef.gov.kh/documents-category/publication/budget-in-brief/>.

អគ្គនាយកដ្ឋាន វិស័យហិរញ្ញវត្ថុ, Akkānāīyākdān Tavakā, General Department of Budget (MEF). 2023(a). *ថវិកាសង្ខេប ឆ្នាំ ២០២៤, Tavakā Sangkhep Chhnām 2024, Budget in Brief Fiscal Year 2024*. Accessed June 10, 2024. <https://mef.gov.kh/documents-category/publication/budget-in-brief/>.

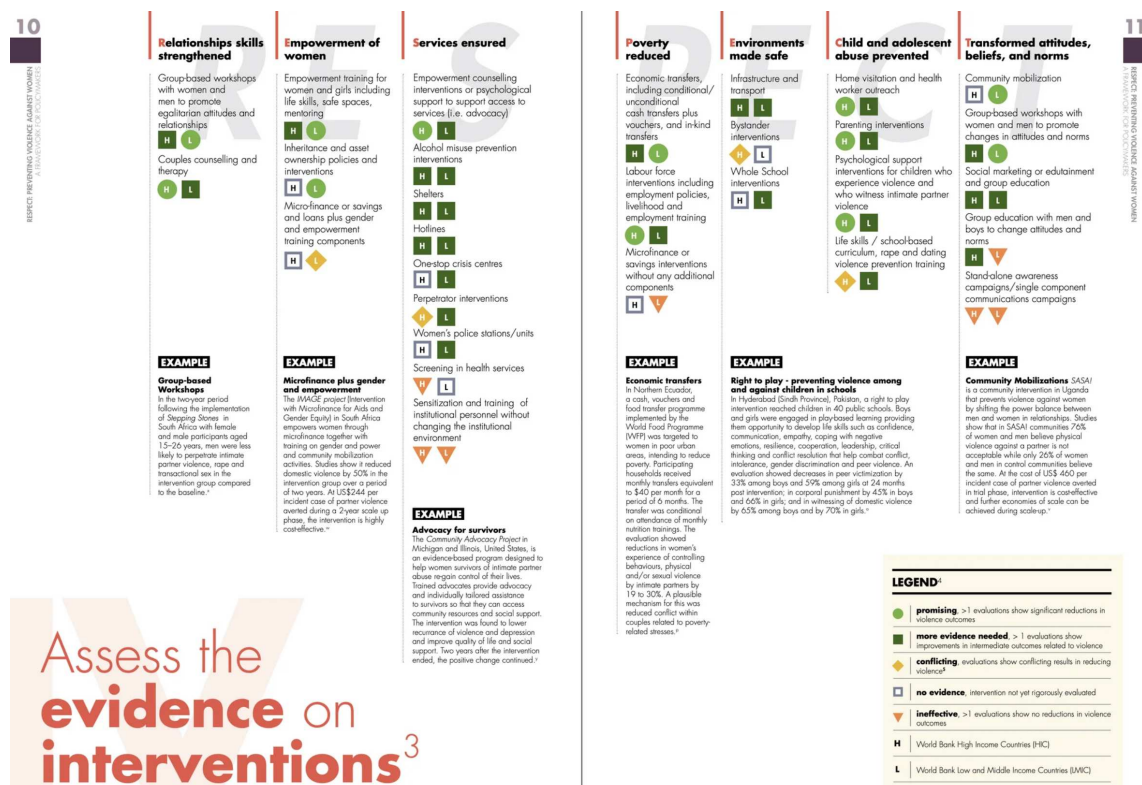
Annexes

Annex 1, A list of forms of violence

Legislation should apply to the following forms of violence (not being limited by the list)
1. Domestic violence
2. Sexual violence, including sexual assault and sexual harassment
3. Harmful practices, including early marriage, forced marriage, female genital mutilation, female infanticide, prenatal sex-selection, virginity testing, HIV/AIDS cleansing, so-called honour crimes, acid attacks, crimes committed in relation to bride-price and dowry, maltreatment of widows, forced pregnancy, and trying women for sorcery/witchcraft
4. Femicide/feminicide
5. Trafficking
6. Sexual slavery
Legislation should recognize violence against women perpetrated by specific actors, and in specific contexts, including
Violence against women in the family;
Violence against women in the community;
Violence against women in conflict situations;
Violence against women condoned by the State, including violence in police custody and violence committed by security forces;

Source: UN Women 2012, 21.

Annex 2, Strategies on primary prevention of violence against women according to RESPECT framework



Annex 3, Recommendations concerning protection orders in terms of evidence, content, and issuance requirements.

Content	<p>A PO should contain the following measures:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - perpetrator has to stay a specified distance away from the complainant/survivor and the places that they frequent; to provide financial assistance to the complainant/survivor; -prohibit the defendant/perpetrator from contacting the complainant/survivor or arranging for a third party to do so; -restrain the defendant/perpetrator from causing further violence to the complainant/survivor, her dependents, other relatives and relevant persons; -prohibit the defendant/perpetrator from purchasing, using or possessing a firearm or any such weapon specified by the court; -require that the movements of the defendant/offender be electronically monitored;
Evidence	-live testimony or a sworn statement should be enough for issuance of a PO;

	-No independent evidence – medical, police or otherwise should be required following the live testimony or a sworn statement;
Child custody	-There should be presumption against award of custody to the perpetrator; -No visitation rights are to be granted against the will of the child;

Source: UN Women 2012, 43-48.

Annex 4, Intake form of NVAWDocSys at the Barangay VAW Desk


National Violence Against Women (NVAW) Documentation System
 Barangay Client Card

Handling Organization*: _____ Date of Intake*: ____/____/____ (mm/dd/yyyy)
 Address*: _____
 Region*: _____ Province*: _____ City/Mun.* _____ Barangay*: _____
 Intake by*: _____ Position: _____
Last Name First Name Middle Name
 Case Manager: _____
Last Name First Name Middle Name

VICTIM-SURVIVOR INFORMATION

Case/Blotter No.* _____ Name*: _____
Last Name First Name Middle Name
 Sex* ☐ Male ☐ Female Date of Birth*: ____/____/____ (mm/dd/yyyy) Age*: _____
 Civil Status*: ☐ Single ☐ Married ☐ No formal education ☐ Elementary Level/Graduated ☐ High School Level/Graduated
☐ Live-in ☐ Widowed ☐ Vocational ☐ College Level / Graduated ☐ Post Graduate
☐ Separated ☐ No Response ☐ Others _____
 Nationality: _____ Passport No. (if non-Filipino): _____
 Occupation*: _____
 Religion*: ☐ Roman Catholic ☐ Islam ☐ Protestant ☐ Iglesia ni Kristo ☐ Aglipayan ☐ Others _____
 Address: _____
 Region: _____ Province: _____ City/Mun. _____ Barangay: _____
☐ With Disability: Permanent Disability Temporary Disability
☐ Without Disability
 Number of Children (if any): _____ Ages of children: _____ (separate, from eldest to youngest)

IF VICTIM-SURVIVOR IS A CHILD (below 18 or as defined in R.A. 7610)

Name of Parent / Guardian: _____
Last Name First Name Middle Name
 Relationship of Guardian to Victim-Survivor: _____
 Address of the Guardian: _____
 Region: _____ Province: _____ City/Mun. _____ Barangay: _____
 Contact no. of Parent / Guardian: _____

PERPETRATOR INFORMATION

Name: _____ Alias: _____
Last Name First Name Middle Name
 Sex: ☐ Male ☐ Female Date of Birth: ____/____/____ (mm/dd/yyyy) Age: _____
 Civil Status: ☐ Single ☐ Married ☐ No formal education ☐ Elementary Level/Graduated ☐ High School Level/Graduated
☐ Live-in ☐ Widowed ☐ Vocational ☐ College Level / Graduated ☐ Post Graduate
☐ Separated ☐ No data ☐ No Response ☐ Others _____
 Nationality: _____ Passport no. (if non-Filipino): _____
 Occupation: _____ Identifying marks: _____
 Religion: ☐ Roman Catholic ☐ Islam ☐ Protestant ☐ Iglesia ni Kristo ☐ Aglipayan ☐ Others _____
 Address: _____
 Region: _____ Province: _____ City/Mun. _____ Barangay: _____
 Relationship of Perpetrator to Victim*:
☐ Current spouse/partner ☐ Former spouse/partner ☐ Current fiancé/dating relationship
☐ Former fiancé/dating relationship ☐ Employed / manager/supervisor ☐ Agent of the employer
☐ Teacher / instructor / professor ☐ Coach / trainer ☐ People of authority/service provider
☐ Neighbors/peers/workers/associates ☐ Stranger ☐ Immediate family (e.g. father, mother, _____)
☐ Other relatives (e.g. uncle, cousin, _____) ☐ Others _____

IF PERPETRATOR IS A CHILD (below 18 or as defined in R.A. 7610)

Name of Parent / Guardian: _____
Last Name First Name Middle Name
 Relationship of Guardian to Victim-Survivor: _____
 Address of the Guardian: _____
 Region: _____ Province: _____ City/Mun. _____ Barangay: _____
 Contact no. of Parent / Guardian: _____

INCIDENT INFORMATION

☐ RA 9262: Anti Violence Against Women and Their Children Act*

☐ Sexual Abuse ☐ Psychological ☐ Physical ☐ Economic ☐ Others: _____

☐ RA 8353: Anti-Rape Law of 1995*

☐ Rape by sexual intercourse ☐ Rape by sexual assault

☐ RA 7877: Anti-Sexual Harassment Act*

☐ Verbal ☐ Physical ☐ Use of objects, pictures, letters or notes with sexual under-pinnings

☐ RA 7610: Special Protection of Children Against Child Abuse, Exploitation and Discrimination Act*

☐ Engage, facilitate, promote or attempt to commit child prostitution ☐ Sexual intercourse or lascivious conduct

☐ RA 9208: Anti-Trafficking in Persons Act of 2003

☐ RA 9775: Anti-Child Pornography Act

☐ RA 9995: Anti-Photo and Video Voyeurism Act 2009

☐ Revised Penal Code

☐ Art 336: Acts of Lasciviousness Others: _____

Description of Incident: _____

Date of Latest Incident: * ____/____/____ (mm/dd/yyyy)

Geographic Location of Incident*

Region _____ Province _____ City/Mun. _____ Barangay _____

Place of Incident*:

- ☐ Home ☐ Work ☐ School ☐ Commercial Places
- ☐ Religious Institutions ☐ Places of Medical Treatment ☐ Transport & Connecting Sites
- ☐ Brothels and Similar Establishments ☐ Others _____ ☐ No response

Witnesses: (Use additional Sheet if necessary) (Not to be encoded in the system)

1) _____ Name _____ Address _____ Contact No. _____

Eye-Witness Account: _____

SERVICES INFORMATION

Date: ____/____/____ (mm/dd/yyyy)

☐ Crisis Intervention including rescue ☐ Issuance/Enforcement of Barangay Protection Order

☐ Refer to Social Welfare and Development Office?*

Date: ____/____/____ (mm/dd/yyyy)

☐ Psychosocial services ☐ Emergency Shelter ☐ Economic Assistance ☐ Others _____

☐ Refer to Healthcare provider?*

Date: ____/____/____

Name of Healthcare Provider: _____

☐ First Aid ☐ Provision of appropriate medical treatment ☐ Issuance of medical certificate

☐ Medico-legal Exam ☐ Others _____

☐ Refer to Law Enforcement?* Date: ____/____/____ Type of Service: _____ Agency: _____

☐ Refer to Other Service Provider?* Date: ____/____/____ Type of Service: _____

Name of Service Provider: _____

Note to Barangay VAW Desk Officer:

If the victim does not want to continue or pursue the case, please indicate here in the reason:

- ☐ Lost of interest to file ☐ Reconciled with the perpetrator (w/o mediation)
- ☐ Transfer residence ☐ Lack of support
- ☐ Lack of confidence with service provider
- ☐ Others: please specify _____

1. National Legislative Framework		
1.1. Laws		
Structural Indicator	The Philippines	Cambodia
Legislation provides for the principle of non-discrimination between men and women (1) and prohibition of all forms of violence against women in the constitution or other forms of superior law (2);	<p>(1) Yes, it is provided in the "Magna Carta of Women" (Republic Act No. 9710).</p> <p>(2) Includes a comprehensive list but fails to mention most harmful practices except for dowry related crimes, stalking, explicitly mention violence against parents and cohabitants within DV, although it mentions "non-spousal violence" and violence against "senior citizens", which might include that.</p> <p>The legislation does not explicitly acknowledge this.</p>	<p>(1) Yes, it is included in the Constitution</p> <p>(2) No provision in the legislation can be found.</p>
Legislation acknowledges VAW as a discrimination and violation of human rights; Legislation provides that no custom, tradition or religious consideration may be invoked to justify violence against women;	<p>No provision in relation to VAW can be found, but Republic Act No. 9710 states that custom laws must be respected as long as they don't discriminate against women.</p>	<p>The legislation does not explicitly acknowledge this.</p> <p>No provision provides for that, instead, Article 1 and 8 of the DV Law mention customs and traditions in a way that can justify violence against women.</p>
Legislation criminalizes all forms of violence;	<p>Not all forms of violence are criminalized.</p> <p>The list of criminalized forms: IPV including stalking; trafficking in persons, child marriage, HIV/AIDS cleansing; cyber violence; Not specifically criminalized, but can be punished under Penal code: femicide, acid attacks; Criminalized, but provides exemptions: SV (including sexual assault, rape, sexual harassment), for rape exists forgiveness clause; Not criminalized: marital rape, forced marriage, dowry-related crimes, honor crimes are allowed by</p>	<p>Not all forms of violence are criminalized.</p> <p>The list of criminalized forms: SV (including rape, sexual harassment), human trafficking and sexual exploitation.</p> <p>Not specifically criminalized, but can be punished under Criminal Code: some acts, mentioned under DV law can be punished under Criminal Code, but not all;</p> <p>Not criminalized: Marital Rape, Harmful practices, cyber violence, stalking. The law does not recognize VAW by specific actors and in specific contexts (Annex 1).</p>

	law, FGM, virginity testing, prenatal sex-selection, widow maltreatment. The non-criminal law recognizes VAW by specific actors and in specific contexts (Annex 1), but criminal laws don't operate with these concepts.	
Legislation defines domestic violence as physical, sexual, psychological and economic violence (1) and apply to all domestic relationships (2); primary focus of the law on DV is on protection of the victim (3);	(1) Yes ; (2) No , the scope of RA9262 is IPV, which excludes VAW committed by other people, other than intimate partner and committed to people other than a partner (parents, cohabitants), same sex relationships are not explicitly mentioned; (3) Yes	(1) No , economic violence is not mentioned; the acts of violence under types of violence are limited; (2) No , the scope is limited by current marriage partners, children, cohabitants; Excluded are: unmarried partners, past and present partners, boyfriends/girlfriends, dating partners and ongoing sexual partners, who do not cohabit, as well as other family members (such as parents and extended family members), and same-sex relationships. (3) No , the focus is also placed on family harmony and unity.
Legislation defines sexual violence as a crime against physical integrity and sexual autonomy of a person (1), committed without "consent" (2); provide for aggravating circumstances (3); criminalize marital rape (4); provides for the age of statutory rape (5);	(1) No , it is based on "force, threat, intimidation"; (2) No , but the law mentions the concept in the section concerning proof; (3) Yes , a long list; (4) No ; (5) Yes , 16 years old;	(1) No , it is based on the concept of penetration by violence, force, etc. (2) No , only mentioned in article 246 concerning indecent assault; (3) Yes , a short list; (4) No ; (5) Yes , 15 years old;
Legislation guarantees a divorce from a violent husband;	No , divorce is generally not allowed;	No , but divorce is generally allowed after a complex procedure;
1. National Legislative Framework 1.2. NAPs		

NAP exists (1) and includes all forms of VAW (2); provides links to gender inequality and discrimination (3), and human rights violation (4);	(1) No , there have been four NAPs, but all have expired; the next one is being finalized; (2) No , only IPV; IACAT has a NAP on trafficking; (3) Yes ; (4) Yes ;	(1) No , there have been three NAPs, but all have expired; information about the development of a new one is not available; (2) No , only DV, SV and IPV (the third one); a separate NAP on trafficking; (3) Yes , the third NAP; (4) No ;
NAP is located within gender equality policies and mechanisms;	Yes ;	Yes , but the definitions must be harmonized;
NAP responds explicitly to State obligations under relevant human rights treaties;	Partially , second and third ones do, the fourth omits to do so;	Yes ;
NAP has consistent definitions with those provided by laws (1) and international norm (2);	(1) Yes ; (2) Yes , explicitly only the third one does, but the NAPs take on the definitions of RA9262;	(1) Partially , it is consistent with the definition of DV, the rest need to be harmonized, including the definitions used in other policy documents; (2) Partially , it is consistent with the definition of VAW, the rest needs to be harmonized;
NAP provide for cross-ministerial engagement and collaboration across sectors;	Yes	Yes
NAP has been formulated in collaboration with relevant NGOs;	Yes	Partially , the second has, but the third does not specify this;
NAP mentions all vulnerable groups (1) and provide mechanisms to incorporate ensure inclusivity (2);	(1) Partially , the fourth NAP does, but the list can be replenished by the following groups: LGBTQ+ women, older women, immigrant or refugee women, and women belonging to ethnic or religious minorities; (2) Yes ;	(1) Yes ; (2) Yes ;
NAP mandates clear tasks (1) and responsible ministries (2), timelines and expected outcomes with measurements (3);	(1) Yes ; (2) Yes ; (3) Yes ;	(1) Yes ; (2) Yes , but uneven distribution is evident; (3) Yes , but indicators need improvement;

2. Implementation		
2.2. Inter-Sectoral Mechanism		
Structural Indicator	The Philippines	Cambodia
Legislation provides for establishment of an Inter-Sectoral Mechanism (1) with clear mandates (2) and appropriate status (determined by location (3), resources and staffing (4) to perform coordination, monitoring, implementation, and evaluation of the policy and legislation on VAW with ability for horizontal and vertical coordination (5);	<p>(1)Yes, IACVAWC for IPV and IACAT for trafficking;</p> <p>(2)Yes;</p> <p>(3)Partially, a part of national women's machinery, which is positioned under the Office of the President, an intermediate level of hierarchy;</p> <p>(4)Unclear; the budget of PCW under which IACVAWC is positioned, saw a budget increase over the years; number of staff: 20 people;</p> <p>(5)Yes,</p> <p>(6)Yes, IACVAWC allows for horizontal coordination and vertical coordination is established through committees on VAW and HT on regional, provincial and city or municipality levels;</p>	<p>(1)Yes, Ministry of Women's affairs, TWGG-GBV for DV, SV, IPV; NCCT for trafficking;</p> <p>(2)No, the mandate is divided between MoWa and TWGG-GBV, the division is not clarified properly in the policy;</p> <p>(3)Yes, high rank of a ministry and TWGG-GBV includes officials of high rank as well;</p> <p>(4)No, MoWa's broad mandate does not correlate with available resources and staffing; the budget has been stagnating over the years; number of staff: 184 MoWa (national), 695 MoWa (provincial); 55 members of TWGG-GBV;</p> <p>(5)Yes, TWGG-GBV allows for horizontal coordination and GBV Working Groups allow for vertical coordination;</p>
2. Implementation		
2.2. Data Collection		
Legislation provides for periodic collection of comprehensive data on all forms of violence; data should be disaggregated by sex, race, age, ethnicity and other relevant characteristics;	Yes , it provides for collection of disaggregated data by sex and vulnerable groups;	No , the NAPs on VAW provide for establishment of data collection system; Neary Rattanak focuses on the establishment of data systems for which data should be collected; no legislative acts have been issued stating the need; disaggregation of data is not mentioned in the policy;
Legislation centralizes the regulation of data collection on violence against women within one government institution;	No , several government institutions (PCW, Inter-Agency Council on Violence Against Women, PSA) are involved in collection of data on VAW	No , the system is decentralized, several government agencies produce own administrative data and statistics;

	and statistics production with autonomous regulation; Yes , a glossary on VAW for data collection was developed.	legislation/policy don't make it clear, if data on VAW is being collected and regulated;
Legislation provides for establishment of regional guidelines for the collection and analysis of data on VAW;	Process Indicator	Cambodia
Availability of at least one national population-based survey with data on the prevalence, conducted between 2000 and 2018;	The Philippines	Yes , for years 2010, 2014, 2021-2022;
Collection of national data on VAW in surveys should be every five years;	Yes ;	No , the interval between surveys was 4 and then 6 years;
Availability of disaggregated administrative data by sector and by forms of violence;	In some sectors with limited disaggregation available – police, social care, justice, health care (very limited, number of WCPU accommodations) Disaggregation: health care – sex disaggregated; other sectors – only criminal offences (IPV/domestic violence, trafficking, rape), no other characteristics;	Almost no data is available , MoWa produces VAW statistics using surveys, VAW data is not depicted as one of the agendas in data collection of the ministries, as according to NIS reports; Cambodia Commune Database provides limited and not disaggregated statistics from 2008 to 2010.
Data collection is harmonized and data is collected by one responsible agency;	No , but NVAWDoc System is under development (PCW task); harmonization of the whole data collection system is underway (PSA and PNP/DOJ task);	No , but a few non-official sources state that Data Collection System has been piloted.
2. Implementation		
2.3. Training and capacity-building		
	The Philippines	Cambodia
Existence of national level manual for training targeted at health care providers and other sectors;	Yes , for barangay officials, law enforcement, social care workers, education, service providers, police (not confirmed);	Yes , in health care, judicial sector, law enforcement (inkl. trafficking), service providers, journalists;
Legislation provides for not only one-off training but also for continuous trainings;	Yes ;	No ;

Legislation provides for training of public officials (all levels of the government), providers of special victim services; training curriculum for teachers and school staff; law enforcement (also on trafficking), health care (pre-qualification and in-service in primary care, sexual and reproductive health, mental health services) and judicial sector;	Yes, government officials from local levels to managerial positions on VAW concept and prevention, duties and available services, gender mainstreaming; teachers, social workers, WCPU staff, law enforcement, justice personnel on relevant information on VAW;	Yes, government officials on gender mainstreaming and DV Law and CEDAW; local authorities on VAW referrals and PO; teacher training, police and JPO, personnel in judicial sector; healthcare providers.
Process Indicator	The Philippines	Cambodia
Proportion of health staff trained in medical management and support for victims of sexual and other violence;	2016: 39 LGU hospitals trained WCPU workers; 26 DOH hospitals received training; 2020: 365 WCPU workers received training;	2020: 190 healthcare providers and managers;
Proportion of (new) staff trained in other sectors for which training and capacity building mandated by VAW policy;	Social care , 2014-2016: 700 workers; Since 2013: 238 WFS workers; Law enforcement , by 2015: 80% of target WCPG officers; 2006-2009: 2,061 police officers; Justice sector , 2012 – 2016: 1384 judges and lawyers; 10,443 service providers and court personnel; 3,898 participants in HT seminars; 2017 – 2021: 1,025 participants; 153 participants in HT seminars; 600 prosecutors; Local authorities : by 2015: 332 barangay officers;	Government personnel : 5,932 (2014-2017); trainings conducted by MoI - 5,122 (year unspecified); Law enforcement, education, government : 24,277 (year unspecified); Justice sector : 3,650 (2014-2016);
2. Implementation		
2.4. Budget		
Structural Indicator	The Philippines	Cambodia
Legislation provides for budget allocation to implementation of the NAP;	Yes, NAP 2017-2022 provides for allocation from GAD budget; IACVAWC Resolution No. 2 established commitment of IACVAWC members to finance the NAP from GAD budgets;	Yes, but no specific mechanism , only indication in the NAPs, that budget will be allocated from the government budget;

Legislation provides for budget allocation to the tasks of the mechanism for monitoring;	No;	Partially, for MoWa, which has responsibilities of a inter-sectoral mechanism, budget allocation is provided for in the legislation; no mention of budget allocation mechanism for TWGG-GBV is found;
Legislation provides for state funding for prevention, protection services, collection of data (research), training of relevant stakeholders, response in justice, and law enforcement;	Yes, Magna Carta of Women and RA9262; NAP 2017-2022;	Yes, but the only mention is in NAPs, no other mechanism; gender-budgeting mechanism is being improved, but no information is provided on VAW inclusion;
National health budget includes one or more dedicated lines to support prevention of and/or response to VAW;	No, but GAD Sectoral Agenda in health care provides 5% to gender-mainstreaming activities, including VAW;	No, the report on national health budget doesn't depict any budget allocation on VAW within MoH budget; GMAP of MoH states that budget should be allocated to OSCC etc.;
Process Indicator	The Philippines	Cambodia
Proportion of budget allocated;	The information on the amount allocated from GAD budget to VAW is not indicated; ADVOCOM Plan, a part of NAP 2017-2022, received the budget of 152 078,93 USD;	MoWa: 2021: 44,538 KHR; 2022: 44,538; 2023: 46, 243 KHR; 2024: 51,067 KHR; (total budget, including budgeting for inter-sectoral mechanism responsibilities and for implementation of most programs on VAW: Prevention and legal protection 2024: 428,496 USD 2023: 402,504 USD) Protection 2024: 2,589,744 USD (MoSVY); NAP 2014-2018: 3,7 million USD NAP 2019-2023: 3,6 million USD;
3. Prevention		
Structural Indicator	The Philippines	Cambodia
Policy / legislation provides for awareness-raising campaigns for sensitizing of population and awareness of specific laws;	Yes;	Yes;

Policy / legislation provides for inclusion of gender and human rights curriculum in all levels of education;	Yes;	Yes, only NAPVAW II;
Policy / legislation provides for encouragement of sensitization of journalists and other media;	Yes;	Yes;
Additionally: Policy / legislation includes other primary prevention strategies, proposed by RESPECT framework (Annex 3);	Yes, parenting and relationship (marriage) programs, community based programs, economic empowerment, home visitation of young adolescence, engagement of men, gender-mainstreaming in transport sector;	Yes, parenting programs, relationship programs, including marriage; economic empowerment, engaging men, workplace safety, community programs;
Process Indicator	The Philippines	Cambodia
Number of programs piloted according to the strategies mentioned in the VAW policy; the year of programs piloted;	<p>Awareness-rising: annual national campaign, since 2006;</p> <p>School curriculum: introduction in 8, 11 and 12 is under discussion;</p> <p>Media: introduction of Media Code and guidelines in 2013 and 2017;</p> <p>Radio program “Women’s Voices!” since 2009;</p> <p>Community programs and programs engaging men: programs in mosques; Men’s Responsibilities in GAD, KATROPA, MOVE (2006), ERPAT, National Family Violence Prevention Program by DSWD;</p>	<p>Awareness-rising: annual national campaign since 2016;</p> <p>‘Safe Village, Safe Commune’(2013-2016);</p> <p>School curriculum: a life-skill curriculum implemented and reached out-of-school youth too;</p> <p>Media: introduction of Media Code (2017), media advisory group created (2017);</p> <p>Engaging men: Good Man Campaign (since 2011);</p> <p>Parenting: Positive Parenting Strategy (2016-2021);</p> <p>Relationships: Shaping Our Future: Developing Healthy and Happy Relationships;</p> <p>Alcohol abuse prevention: Commune Alcohol Notification System (2016);</p>
Programs target various forms of violence;	VAW, without specializing on separate forms of violence;	VAW, without specializing on separate forms of violence;

4. Protection		
4.1. Comprehensive and integrated support services		
Structural Indicator	The Philippines	Cambodia

Policy/legislation establishes comprehensive and integrated support services to assist survivors of violence;	Yes (a hotline, temporary shelter, counseling, psychological and rehabilitation services); No mention of RCC, SAC;	Mostly not , only in regard to a hotline;
Policy/legislation states that all services for women survivors of violence should also provide adequate support to the women's children (at least shelters);	Yes;	No;
Policy/legislation states that the location of such services should allow equitable access to the services, in particular by urban and rural populations;	No;	No;
Where possible, policy/legislation provides minimum standards for availability;	No;	No;
Process Indicator	The Philippines	Cambodia
<p>Fulfillment of the minimum standard for availability (1);</p> <p>Number of support services existing in the country, by type of service and by forms of violence covered (2);</p> <p>extent across regions (3);</p> <p>-Where possible, provide <i>minimum standards for availability</i>:</p> <p>1. One national women's phone hotline around the clock, free of charge</p> <p>2. One shelter/refuge place for every 10, 000 inhabitants, at least one in each region</p>	<p>(1)No, (2) Shelters/Counseling: 25 Forms of VAW: SV incl. rape, DV, IPV, exploitation, some accept victims trafficking WFS: 23</p> <p>Forms of VAW: for victims of IPV/DV, HT in displacement</p> <p>(3) Shelters/Counseling: every region has at least one center except for Bangsamoro Autonomous Region in Muslim Mindanao and Region IV-B Mimaropa;</p>	<p>(1)No, (2) Shelters/Counseling: 3 (NGO-run) for DV, IPV</p> <p>20 (NGO-run) for HT</p> <p>(3) 3 provinces;</p>

3. One women's advocacy and counselling center for every 50, 000 women (as a part of shelters too)			
4. One rape crisis center for every 200,000			
5. One sexual assault services per 400 000 women;			
Shelters: acceptance of children (1), number of beds available (2), number of women accommodated (3), free of charge (4), possible length of stay (5); the number of women turned away or on the waitlist (6);	(1) Yes, below the age of 7; for girls below 18 there are dedicated facilities; (2) ranging from 90 to 250 in a facility; (3) 2018: 1652; 2019: 2162; 2021: 1353 women and girls; (4) yes; (5) 6 months – 1 year; (6) no information available;	(1) Yes, except for boys older 10; (2) 50-100; (3) no information available; (4) no information available; (5) 1-3 months; (6) no information available;	
Helpline for VAW (1): free of charge, available 24/7 (2), one for small countries is enough, whereas for densely populated countries there should be one in every region (3);	(1) Yes, there is a number for VAW cases in each municipality; 911 is accepting VAW calls; (2) Yes, regarding 911 for VAW helplines for each municipality information is not available; (3) Yes;	(1) Yes; (2) No information available; (3) Yes;	
4. Protection			
4.2. Health Sector			
Structural Indicator	The Philippines	Cambodia	
National plan in health care or/and other policies on health include violence against women strategic priority;	Yes, National Objectives for Health Philippines 2023-2028 without indicators; Health Promotion Framework Strategy 2030 (in a gender-neutral manner); and Gender and Development Sectoral Agenda 2024-2028;	Yes, the second Health Strategic Plan does, the first and third do not; the fourth one is under development; National Multisectoral Action Plan for the Prevention And Control of Noncommunicable diseases 2018-2027 has a short mention, but not as a priority; Gender Mainstreaming in Health Sector: Policy and	

		Strategic Plan 2020-2024 mentions VAW as a priority;
National guidelines or protocols to address violence against women/gender-based violence by the health sector exist;	No, but relevant information is included in general health sector guidelines and protocols;	Yes, a Clinical Handbook For Managing Health Care For Women Subjected To Intimate Partner Violence Or Sexual Violence and National Guidelines for Managing Violence against Women and Children in the Health System;
Legislation/policy establishes a unit or focal point responsible for VAW in Ministry of Health;	No, but there is a focal point on GAD, which agenda includes VAW;	No, but there is a GMAG, which agenda includes VAW;
Health care providers' reporting requirements are included in policy documents (1) as well as privacy and confidentiality (2);	(1) Yes, mandatory reporting; (2) Yes	(1) Yes, mandatory reporting depending on the local law, otherwise according to the decision of the woman; (2) Yes;
- Intimate partner violence (IPV) identification is included in policy documents;	Yes, but the type of screening is not identified;	Yes, selective screening;
Policy documents include: Post-rape care documents (emergency contraception (EC), sexually transmitted infection (STI) prophylaxis, HIV post-exposure prophylaxis (PEP) and safe abortion; first-line support;	Partially, emergency contraception is included; abortion is not legally allowed in the country. The principle of first-line support is not mentioned, but the staff is trained based on 4R (Recognition, Reporting, Recording, and Referral)	Yes
Policy documents include referrals beyond the health sector in policy documents;	Yes	Yes
Legislation states for health facilities to have a designated focal point or unit for violence against women (OSCC or other integrated health sector model);	Yes	Yes
Process Indicator	The Philippines	Cambodia

Proportion of victims of rape who had access to emergency contraception or safe, abortion, prophylaxis for sexually transmitted infections/HIV; received first-line support;	The total number of women and children which received services in a WCPU in 2021: 12,543 women and 16,966 children;	The total number of women having received services in 2020-2021: 312 Among them 134 victims received forensic examination;
Availability of comprehensive post-rape care services in line with WHO guidelines in at least one service delivery point;	No information available.	No information available.
The number of hospitals which report having integrated guidelines/protocols on response to VAW including referral networks and screening tools;	No information available.	No information available.
The number of women referred to other agencies (beyond health care);	No information available.	No information available.
Number of health facilities, which have a designated focal point or unit for violence against women (OSCC or other integrated health sector model) (1) and extent across regions (2);	(1) 105; (2) each of 17 regions has at least one WCPU; generally, the number of WCPUs in a region varies from 1 to 9, with the exception of the NCR, which has 24;	(1) Two OSCC; (2) Two provinces;
4. Protection		
4.3. Specialized police units and specialized courts		
Structural Indicator	The Philippines	Cambodia
Legislation/policy provides for the increase of female officers in law enforcement and in justice sector;	Yes , RA9710;	Yes , NAPVAW II and NAPVAW III;
Legislation/policy provides for the designation of specialized police units (1) and specialized prosecutor units (2).	(1) Yes , WCPD (2) Yes , special prosecutors and special investigators (WCPC);	No ;
Legislation/policy provides for the creation of specialized courts (1) or special court proceedings (2).	(1) No ; (2) No ;	No ;

Process Indicator	The Philippines	Cambodia
Number of perpetrators of violence against women (including harmful traditional practices, domestic violence, trafficking, sexual exploitation and forced labor) arrested, adjudicated, convicted and serving sentences (by type of sentence);	The data is available for 2016-2020 (Table 26), depicting increase in the total number of cases, increasing convictions, stable law acquittal rate; a downward trend of dismissal rates for VAW and rape cases, but an increase for HT; overall, dismissal rate was still a third of a total case load;	2010: 468 new cases with 59 convictions and 18 acquittals; 2011: 456 new cases, with 130 convictions and 18 acquittals;
Proportion of sexual crimes (e.g., rape) reported to the police (population survey)	No information available.	No information available.
Increased reporting of cases;	The data is available for 2011-2021 (Table 24, 25) and depicts an increase during 2011-2014 with a subsequent decrease, which during 2020 and 2021 could be influenced by COVID-19.	The data is available for 2008-2010 (Table 27); The trend is decreasing for DV and remains broadly consistent for HT;
Increased number of female officers;	Yes, WCPD: 2009: 2,728 female police officers; the number of WCPD female officers increased, as stated in CEDAW report from 2023; WCPC: 2021: 54% female staff Justice sector: 2022: 1,153 female judges to 984 male judges;	Yes, police: 2007: 2%; 2019: 8%; Judiciary police: 2014: 141 JPO, 2018: 525 (plan); Justice sector: 2003: 171 women out of 1,187 justice personnel; 2008: 201 women out of 1,189;
Number of specialized police units (1)/ specialized prosecutor units (2)	(1) 1907 WCPD (2) 24 ATTF and 1 TF-WCP; VAW Desk in 38,824 out of 42,045 barangays;	None;
Number of specialized courts or courts with special court proceedings	None;	None;
Extent across regions of such units;	WCPD – every police station; VAW Desk - 92.85% of barangays;	Not applicable;

Proportion of reported cases of sexual or other violence where victims (or related third parties) initiated legal action;	No information available.	No information available;
4. Protection		
4.4. Protection Orders		
Structural Indicator	The Philippines	Cambodia
Legislation provides for establishment of PO (1) for victims of all forms of violence (1) as well as with comprehensive eligibility pool (3);	<p>(1) Yes, RA9262 and RA11313 make POs available;</p> <p>(2) No, the scope of PO corresponds to that of the law, which is IPV; RA11313 grants PO for sexual harassment;</p> <p>(3) No, the range of eligibility pool corresponds with that of the RA9262 (former/current spouse, live-in partner, boyfriend/girlfriend, fiancé(e), sexual/dating partner or a partner with a common child) and excludes parents or cohabitants and extended relatives;</p> <p>RA11313 grants POs to people with no prior intimate relationship;</p>	<p>(1) Yes</p> <p>(2) No, only DV victims under DV Law.</p> <p>(3) No, the range of eligibility pool corresponds with that of DV law: husband/wife, dependent children and other people in the household, excluding unmarried partners, past and present partners, boyfriends/girlfriends, dating partners and ongoing sexual partners, who do not cohabit, other family members (such as parents and extended family members), same-sex relationships, as well as persons without a prior relationships in case of sexual violence;</p>
Legislation makes available civil PO, criminal PO, emergency and post-hearing PO (1), which can be applied for on behalf of the victim (2);	<p>(1) Yes, POs available: Barangay protection order (issued immediately and valid for 15 days; temporary protection order, issued by the family court as a civil measure and valid for 30 days; permanent protection order, issued after hearing by the court); PO for sexual harassment;</p> <p>(2) Yes;</p>	<p>(1) Partially, POs are issued by the courts as a civil measure and have two types: temporary protection order (2 months) and protection order (6 months); Administrative decisions, as an alternative emergency measure, can be issued by other authorities (not specified); No post-hearing order indicated;</p> <p>(2) Yes;</p>
Legislation does not provide for Mutual PO;	Yes ;	Yes , but it is specified, that the victim can be removed from the house by the authorities;
Legislation provides for comprehensive POs in terms of evidence, content and	Mostly , with limitations: no prohibition of arranging a third party to contact the victim; no	Mostly , with limitations: no prohibition of causing harm to dependents and relatives, no requirements

issuance requirements (according to Annex 3);	prohibition of causing further violence to relatives and other relevant persons; no electronic monitoring; no prohibition of granting visitation rights against the will of a child; no specific requirements mentioned about evidence for a PO. Yes;	about visitation rights; no prohibition concerning weapons possessions, but they can be confiscated by the authorities, no electronic monitoring; no clarification on evidence; courts are allowed to attempt reconciliation; Yes, but penalties are not mentioned;
Legislation criminalizes violation of a PO;	Process Indicator	Cambodia
Number of adopted protection orders by type;	2007: 17% of cases 2008: BPO – 236 (13% of cases) More recent data is not available.	2014-2016: 19 POs 2019-2022: 25 POs Administrative decisions: 2008: 13360; 2009: 13502; 2010: 11682;

Annex 6, Abstract in English

Violence against women continues to be a significant problem around the world, with Southeast Asia being one of the regions with the highest prevalence of such violence. International human rights treaties, particularly CEDAW and DEVAW, place obligations on states to protect women from violence. This thesis examines the state responses to violence against women in the Philippines and Cambodia to determine whether these responses are comprehensive compared to international human rights standards and identifies how they can be improved to protect women better. Using a human rights-based approach, the study analyses both countries' efforts through structural and process indicators, focusing on legal frameworks and their implementation. The findings show that while neither country fully meets international standards, both have made considerable efforts. In particular, the Philippines' stronger legal framework correlates with more successful implementation, potentially providing a model Cambodia could adopt to strengthen its protection of women. Gaps in the legal framework and shortcomings in implementation were highlighted, and recommendations for improvement were made.

Annex 7, Abstract in German

Gewalt gegen Frauen ist nach wie vor ein großes Problem auf der ganzen Welt, wobei Südostasien eine der Regionen mit der höchsten Prävalenz solcher Gewalt ist. Internationale Menschenrechtsverträge, insbesondere CEDAW und DEVAW, verpflichten die Staaten dazu, Frauen vor Gewalt zu schützen. In dieser Arbeit werden die staatlichen Maßnahmen gegen Gewalt gegen Frauen auf den Philippinen und in Kambodscha untersucht, um festzustellen, ob diese Maßnahmen im Vergleich zu den internationalen Menschenrechtsstandards umfassend sind, und um zu ermitteln, wie sie verbessert werden können, um Frauen besser zu schützen. Unter Verwendung eines menschenrechtsbasierten Ansatzes analysiert die Studie die Bemühungen beider Länder anhand von Struktur- und Prozessindikatoren, wobei der Schwerpunkt auf den rechtlichen Rahmenbedingungen und deren Umsetzung liegt. Die Ergebnisse zeigen, dass zwar keines der beiden Länder die internationalen Standards vollständig erfüllt, beide jedoch erhebliche Anstrengungen unternommen haben. Insbesondere der stärkere Rechtsrahmen der Philippinen korreliert mit einer erfolgreicherer Umsetzung und könnte Kambodscha als Modell dienen, um den Schutz von Frauen zu verbessern. Es wurden Lücken im Rechtsrahmen und Mängel bei der Umsetzung aufgezeigt und Empfehlungen für Verbesserungen ausgesprochen.