



**Context analysis on legislation, standard and targeted protective measures and quantification of cases of migrant/ethnic minority women victims of violence in close or intimate relationships; The case of Greece.<sup>1</sup>**

**Pantelidou, S., Lavdas, M., Pasho, B., Arabatzis, A., Galanis, D., Chadoulis, G.**

**EPAPSY**

**Athens, 2016**

---

<sup>1</sup> DISCALIMER: *GEMMA Against violence!* has received the financial support of the Rights, Equality and Citizenship Programme (2014-2020) of the European Union. The contents of this document and project related publications are the sole responsibility of EPAPSY and can in no way be taken to reflect the views of the European Commission



## **Content**

### **Introduction**

**Section 1: Migrant/ethnic minority women/girls survived to violence in close or intimate relationship in Europe (quantification and statistic based on demography and ethnical belonging)**

**Section 2: Migrant/ethnic minority women violence survivors protective laws and protective measures (in relation with their double vulnerability as women and migrants)**

- 2.1 Legislation on Migrants
- 2.2 Legislation on Ethnic Minorities
- 2.3 Legislation on Domestic Violence

**Section 3: Migrant/ethnic minority women nature and prevalence of violence experienced in relation with their ethnical/cultural belonging**

**Section 4: Migrant/ethnic minority women level of prevalence/vulnerability in relation with cultural belonging.**

- 4.1 Migrant Women and Violence
- 4.2 Ethnic Minorities and Violence
- 4.3 Refugee women and Violence

### **Conclusion**

### **References**



## Introduction

According to the UN (General Assembly, 1993) *violence against women* is defined as any act of “*gender-based violence that results in or is likely to result in physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of acts such as coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or in private life*”. The dimensions of violence against women includes physical, sexual, psychological/emotional and economic violence occurring in the family and general community or such violence perpetrated or condoned by the State. Violence against women includes domestic violence, child marriage, forced pregnancy, “honour” crimes, female genital mutilation, femicide, sexual and other violence perpetrated by someone other than an intimate partner (also referred to as non-partner violence), sexual harassment (workplace, other institutions and in public places), trafficking in women and violence in conflict situations.

According to the ecological model described by WHO (2010) the risk factors of violence against women can be identified in four levels:

- **Individual:** includes biological and personal history factors that may increase the likelihood that an individual will become a victim or perpetrator of violence.
- **Relationship:** includes factors that increase risk as a result of relationships with peers, intimate partners and family members. These are a person’s closest social circle and can shape their behaviour and range of experiences.
- **Community:** refers to the community contexts in which social relationships are embedded – such as schools, workplaces and neighbourhoods – and seeks to identify the characteristics of these settings that are associated with people becoming victims or perpetrators of intimate partner and sexual violence.
- **Societal:** includes the larger, macro-level factors that influence sexual and intimate partner violence such as gender inequality, religious or cultural belief systems, societal norms and economic or social policies that create or sustain gaps and tensions between groups of people.

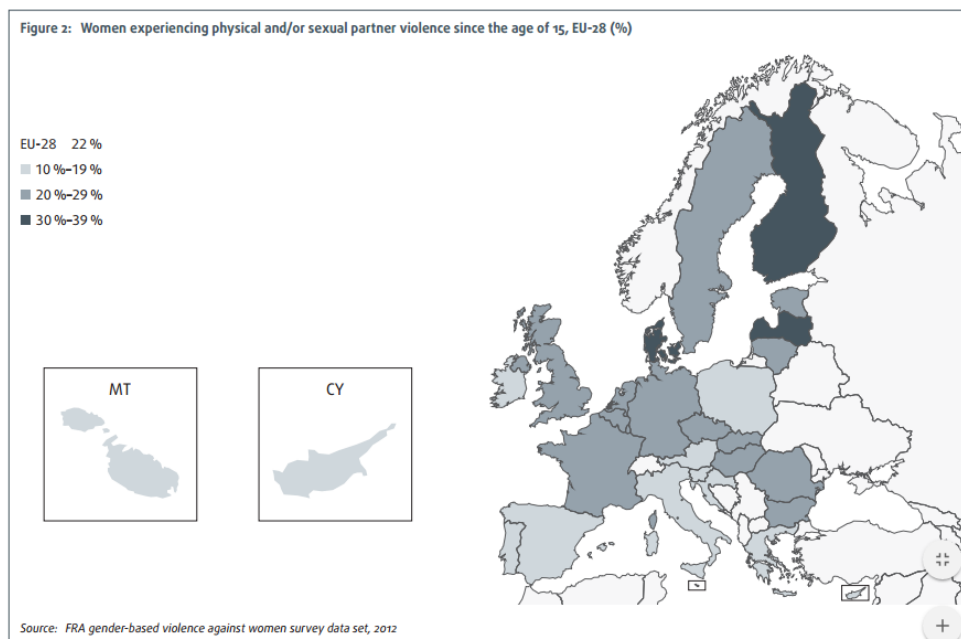


TABLE 2

**Risk factors for both intimate partner violence and sexual violence**

Perpetration by men	Victimization of women
INDIVIDUAL LEVEL	
DEMOGRAPHICS <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Low income</li> <li>Low education</li> </ul>	DEMOGRAPHICS <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Young age</li> <li>Low education</li> <li>Separated/divorced marital status</li> </ul>
EXPOSURE TO CHILD MALTREATMENT <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Sexual abuse</li> <li>Intra-parental violence</li> </ul>	EXPOSURE TO CHILD MALTREATMENT <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Intra-parental violence</li> </ul>
MENTAL DISORDER <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Antisocial personality</li> </ul>	MENTAL DISORDER <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Depression</li> </ul>
SUBSTANCE USE <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Harmful use of alcohol</li> <li>Illicit drug use</li> </ul>	SUBSTANCE USE <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Harmful use of alcohol</li> <li>Illicit drug use</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Acceptance of violence</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Acceptance of violence</li> </ul>
RELATIONSHIP LEVEL	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Multiple partners/infidelity</li> <li>Low resistance to peer pressure</li> </ul>	
COMMUNITY LEVEL	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Weak community sanctions</li> <li>Poverty</li> </ul>	
SOCIETAL LEVEL	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Traditional gender norms and social norms supportive of violence</li> </ul>	

Migration is related to mental health which influences directly the above risk factors and thus we can identify increased level of violence in women in refugee and migrant population.





Greece shows that the prevalence of violence against women in the general population is 10-19%. Nevertheless, according to the ECRI Report on Greece (Council of Europe, 2015).

In the 1990s most migrants in Greece came from Albania and Eastern Europe. This changed in the following decade, when many migrants arrived from Africa and Asia, especially Pakistan and Bangladesh. It seems that the first group – many of the members of which have resided in the country for prolonged periods of time – often remains a distinct and lower social stratum within Greek society.<sup>56</sup> The second group has fared even worse, probably due to larger cultural differences, made worse by the onset of the economic crisis in the later part of that decade. This illustrates the need for a strong integration policy.

In 2010 the OECD estimated that nearly half of the immigrant population in Greece did not have a regular migration status. It was estimated that there were approximately 350000 such migrants in the country in December 2010 and some 390000 at the end of 2011. In the second quarter of 2012, 56% of all detected irregular border crossings into the EU occurred via the land border between Greece and Turkey

ECRI notes with satisfaction that the Greek authorities have now adopted a policy of granting Syrian refugees temporary humanitarian stay in the country. Moreover, ECRI is pleased to have learnt that there are no longer plans to introduce irregular migration status as an aggravating circumstance in the commission of a criminal offence, as had been discussed in 2012.

Law 3907/2011 provides for migrants to be detained for preparation of their return and enforcement of the removal order unless other sufficient, but less coercive measures can be applied in a specific case (Art. 30.1). However, in practice, no “less coercive measures” exist currently. In most cases, the authorities automatically consider that being in an irregular situation constitutes sufficient reason for detention<sup>89</sup> and the policy is systematically to detain irregular migrants who are detected, whether at the land or sea border or during police checks, for example in the context of operation Xenios Zeus.

Law 4075/2012 amended Presidential Decree 114/2010 and Law 3386/2005, providing for migrants and asylum seekers also to be detained if they represent “a danger to public health,” when they “suffer from an infectious disease,” “belong to groups vulnerable to infectious diseases,” or live in “conditions that do not meet minimum standards of hygiene”. ECRI considers such measures to be discriminatory. They are prone to lead to further stigmatisation, which in the already existing climate of hate speech and racist violence is counterproductive.

Irregular migrants can access medical treatment in emergency situations, regardless of residence status. ECRI learnt, however, about problems arising from the police frequently



checking the documents of migrants outside of NGO-operated health care centres in Athens. This has become a major disincentive for irregular migrants to access these centres, for fear of arrest and possible deportation, with resulting negative consequences for the individuals concerned, as well as for the wider public health situation.

Irregular migrants, if not detained, are left to fend for themselves, without any social protection or the right to work. Many have resorted to squatting in abandoned houses and derelict apartment buildings in inner-city Athens, which has resulted in local residents associating them with the decay and impoverishment of these areas.

In this precarious situation faced by refugees, women and girls are exposed to special problems and have special needs, as has been acknowledged by UNHCR's Executive Committee:

*“While forcibly displaced men and boys also face protection problems, women and girls can be exposed to particular protection problems related to their gender, their cultural and socio-economic position and their legal status, which mean they may be less likely than men and boys to be able to exercise their rights and therefore that specific action in favour of women and girls may be necessary to ensure they can enjoy protection and assistance on an equal basis with men and boys”.*

**As the GSGE and UNCHR state in the report on Guidelines for Protecting Women and Girls during first entry and asylum procedures in Greece (2011)**, refugee women face particular challenges related to their gender, their roles and their position in society. They are less likely than men to have access to even the most fundamental of rights and are more likely to be exposed to discrimination and violence, which are exacerbated in situations of conflict or forced displacement.

Due to cultural or social reasons, women may have a limited awareness of their rights or the existence of mechanisms to safeguard those rights, including because of their position in society in their country of origin. In their countries of origin they may have been subject to traditional practices which are harmful to women, they may have been excluded from meaningful participation in community structures, or they may have been victims of sex and gender based violence or destitution. Once displaced, they are further isolated and vulnerable due to breakdown of family and community support structures and values.

These factors combine to expose women to the following risks and challenges:

**Violence during their journey** - Women who pay smugglers to take them out of their country can easily find themselves in dangerous or degrading situations. They may, therefore, arrive at the country of asylum traumatised having been raped or exposed to other violence and/or abuse during the journey.



**Violence or abuse in detention or first reception centres-** In collective reception centres, women on their own may also be at risk of further abuse or violence, if they are not accommodated separately from men or if there are not sufficient safeguards while in first reception or detention.

**Disempowerment due to procedural barriers and lack of adequate and reliable information** - Men are typically seen as the “principal applicant” when a family claims asylum and act as the spokesperson of the family, through whom information and assistance is channelled. Women may be unaware of rights to which they are entitled and may not expect to have a right to make a claim in their own right if accompanied by a male relative whose claim is being examined. Therefore, their claim to refugee status, even one which is stronger than the male relative’s claim, may be overlooked. Moreover, when women seek asylum, it is necessary to bear in mind how persecutory treatment may differ according to age or gender. They themselves may be unaware that certain types of harm they have suffered constitute grounds for an asylum claim.

**Limited access to assistance** - The channelling of information and assistance through male family members may limit women’s access to assistance. Any difficulty accessing assistance may be critical in cases where women have suffered traumatic experiences and are in need of medical or psychosocial care.

**Inability to present their claim due to cultural or psychological barriers resulting in credibility questioned** - Women seeking asylum may not want their husband and family to know about the persecution they have suffered and may, therefore, be silent about experiences or fears that relate directly to their need for international protection. Furthermore, they may be reluctant to speak about their experiences in front of male interviewers or interpreters, they may lack experience or confidence in dealing with persons of authority, all of which can affect their demeanour when presenting their claims. If they have suffered traumatic experiences they may be unwilling or unable to recount these and may avoid or refuse to answer questions, in a manner which may be mistaken for lack of credibility. Women may also have difficulty establishing the credibility of their claim if their fear of persecution relates to private, domestic matters, as in the case of domestic violence or other forms of gender-related persecution, including in relation to sexual orientation.

**Exposure to domestic violence which remains undetected** - The stressful conditions of displacement can lead to an increase in instances of domestic violence and abuse, which may remain unreported, particularly if the victims have no independent access to information about support and protection. Women may feel that they have to remain in their situation and accept the abuse if they believe they have no individual right to refugee status or assistance.



**Exposure to trafficking** – Single women in particular may often fall victims to traffickers and disappear in the course of the asylum procedure, especially if they do not have access to effective protection, including material support.

**Exposure to harassment or abuse by persons of authority** – Lack of support, ignorance of their rights and fear of authority may cause women or girls to be more vulnerable to harassment or abuse by persons who control their access to procedures and documentation, including humanitarian workers.

**Additional individual risk factors** - Certain categories of women may face particular risks because of the women's individual situation. These include women who:

- are alone or single heads of household
- have disabilities or are in a very poor state of health (including HIV/AIDS)
- are older, including widows without family or community support
- oppose social norms, including in relation to their sexual orientation, opposition to female genital mutilation, under age or forced marriage
- are destitute.

### **Sexual Orientation**

Greece does not have an effective policy for the protection of LGBT persons against discrimination or a strategy to promote tolerance vis-à-vis this group. Sexual orientation and gender identity were included as grounds in the old Article 79 of the Criminal Code on aggravating circumstances, and in Law 4285/2014, which added the new Article 81A on hate motivated offences to the Criminal Code. Sexual orientation, but not gender identity is also included in the grounds of Law 3304/2005. However, there is no national programme in place to raise awareness among the public and combat negative stereotypes and prejudices.

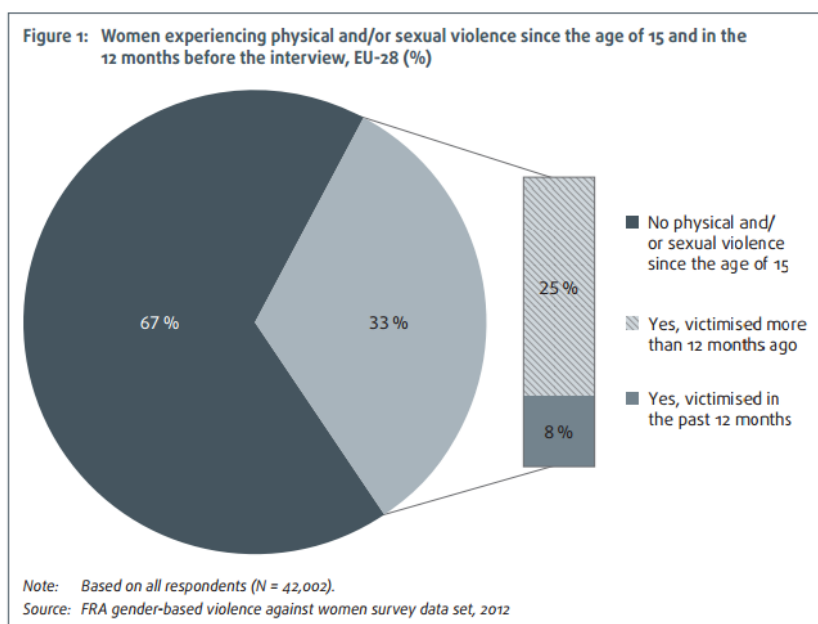
Not only are sexual orientation and gender identity not included into the mandate of the newly established anti-racism police units, but repeated and consistent allegations have been brought to ECRI's attention concerning routine police harassment of transgender persons by fining them for solicitation and attempted prostitution merely based on their appearance and the discrepancy between their looks and the sex indicated on their identity cards.





## SECTION 1: MIGRANT/ETHNIC MINORITY WOMEN/GIRLS SURVIVED TO VIOLENCE IN CLOSE OR INTIMATE RELATIONSHIP IN EUROPE (QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTIC BASED ON DEMOGRAPHY AND ETHNICAL BELONGING)

The WHO Multi-country study on women's health and domestic violence against women (Garcia-Moreno et al., 2005) indicated that **15–71% of women experience physical and/or sexual violence by an intimate partner at some point in their lives**. Research also shows that intimate partner and sexual violence lead to a wide range of short- and long-term physical, mental and sexual health problems (Heise&GarciaMoreno, 2002; Jewkes, Sen& Garcia-Moreno, 2002).



According to the EU-wide survey that was conducted by the European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights (2014) the following vulnerabilities were identified among the cases of violence against women:

- Evidence suggests that certain characteristics of women, such as sexual orientation, disability status or ethnicity, and some contextual factors, such as humanitarian crises, including conflict and post-conflict situations, may increase women's vulnerability to violence
- In 2014, 23 per cent of non-heterosexual women (those who identified their sexual orientation as lesbian, bisexual or other) interviewed in the European Union indicated having experienced physical and/or sexual violence by both male and female non-partner perpetrators, compared with five per cent of heterosexual women



- Also, 34 per cent of women with a health problem or disability reported having experienced any physical or sexual violence by a partner in their lifetime, compared to 19 per cent of women without a health problem or disability, also based on data from the European Union

According to research evidence in Greece, Artinopoulou and Farsedakis (2003) conducted the only epidemiological research on the subject of domestic violence during October 2002 – April 2003. The objective of the research was the recording of domestic violence incidents in the Greek society with the woman being the victim and the spouse/intimate partner being the perpetrator.

The choice of the sample of the research was derived through the method of multistage random sampling. The sample saw comprised by 1.200 women, between the ages of 18-60 years, residents of urban, semi-urban and rural regions, located in Greece.

The collection of the data was done with the method of structure interviews by completion of a questionnaire that included fifty three (53) questions. The interviews were realized by experienced interviewers with previous experience in conducting social researches.

Within the frames of research the following have been recorded: incidents of verbal, psychological, physical and sexual abuse with women as victims and the spouses/intimate partners as perpetrators, the history of previous violence during childhood and/or in previous relations during adulthood, the indirect knowledge of incidents concerning domestic violence with female victims from the close related and friendly environment of the women that comprised our sample, as well as the attitude of those women concerning domestic violence.

According to the results of the research 56% of those interviewed experienced verbal and/or psychological violence, 3.6% suffered physical abuse and 3.5% was forced in sexual contact. Moreover, the 23.6% of women declares that she knows a woman from their related and/or friendly environment that it has suffered or is suffering from incidents of domestic violence from the spouse/inmate partners. Finally, only the 8.8% characterizes their spouse/intimate partners violent.



## **SECTION 2: MIGRANT/ETHNIC MINORITY WOMEN VIOLENCE SURVIVORS PROTECTIVE LAWS AND PROTECTIVE MEASURES (IN RELATION WITH THEIR DOUBLE VULNERABILITY AS WOMEN AND MIGRANTS)**

### **2.1 Legislation on Migrants**

*(unless otherwise indicated, the material listed below can be found on UNHCR's database, "Refworld", at web address: [www.refworld.org](http://www.refworld.org). Greek texts can be found at the website of UNHCR's office in Greece [www.unhcr.gr](http://www.unhcr.gr))*

#### **Protection of Women**

- UNHCR *Handbook for the Protection of Women and Girls*, January 2008
- UNHCR, *Heightened Risk Identification Tool*, June 2010
- UNHCR, *Sexual and Gender-Based Violence against Refugees, Returnees and Internally*
- *Displaced Persons: Guidelines for Prevention and Response*, 2003
- Council of Europe *Convention on preventing and combating violence against women and domestic violence*, CM (2011)49 Final, 7 April 2011
- [<http://conventions.coe.int/Treaty/EN/Treaties/HTML/DomesticViolence.htm>]
- *Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women*, 18 December 1979
- [<http://www2.ohchr.org/english/law/cedaw.htm>]
- UNHCR, *Executive Committee Conclusion on Women and Girls at Risk*, No. 105 (LVII), 2006
- UNHCR, *Guidelines on Applicable Criteria and Standards relating to the Detention of Asylum-Seekers*, February 1999

#### **Refugee Status Determination**

- UNHCR, *Guidelines on International Protection: Gender-related persecution within the context of Article 1A(2) of the 1951 Convention and/or its 1967 Protocol relating to the Status of Refugees*, May 2002
- UNHCR, *Guidelines On International Protection: "Membership of a particular social group" within the context of Article 1A(2) of the 1951 Convention and/or its 1967 Protocol relating to the Status of Refugees*, May 2002
- UNHCR, *Guidelines On International Protection: Child Asylum Claims under Articles 1(A)2 and 1(F) of the 1951 Convention and/or 1967 Protocol relating to the Status of Refugees*, December 2009
- UNHCR, *Ensuring Gender Sensitivity in the context of Refugee Status Determination and Resettlement*, modules 1, 2 and 3, Regional Bureau for Europe, October 2005
- UNHCR, *Handbook on Procedures and Criteria for Determining Refugee Status under the 1951 Convention and the 1967 Protocol relating to the Status of Refugees*, January 1992



- UNHCR, *Guidance Note On Refugee Claims Relating To Female Genital Mutilation*, May 2009
- UNHCR, *Guidelines On International Protection: The application of Article 1A(2) of the 1951 Convention and/or 1967 Protocol relating to the Status of Refugees to victims of trafficking and persons at risk of being trafficked*, April 2006

## Protection of girls

Unaccompanied girls, or girls who have been separated from their families, are especially vulnerable to trafficking and other forms of abuse. They have special needs associated with their age and the fact that they are deprived of the care of a parent or other primary caregiver and may suffer socially and psychologically due to the separation from their family. They should be treated as children first and foremost and their migration status must always be a secondary consideration.

The fundamental principle, which needs to be at the core of all actions concerning girls is the priority of their best interests. Article 3, paragraph 1 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child<sup>21</sup> provides that ***“In all actions concerning children, whether undertaken by public or private social welfare institutions, courts of law, administrative authorities or legislative bodies, the best interests of the child shall be a primary consideration.”*** The prioritisation of children’s best interests is also enshrined in the relevant Greek legislation, including in Article 18, paragraph 1, of P.D. 220/2007, Article 12, paragraph 7, of P.D. 114/2010 and Article 20 of Law 3907/2011. The determination of best interests should be based on the individual circumstances of each girl and must consider the girl’s family situation, the situation in her country of origin, her particular vulnerabilities, her safety and the risks she is exposed to and her protection needs, as well as her mental and physical health, education and socio-economic conditions

- Convention on the rights of the Child, 20 November 1989, United Nations, Treaty Series, vol. 1577, p. 3
- Separated Children in Europe Programme, Statement of Good Practice, 2009
- UNHCR Guidelines on Determining the Best Interests of the Child, 2008
- UNHCR Guidelines on Policies and Procedures in Dealing with Unaccompanied Children Seeking Asylum, 1997
- UNHCR and Greek Ombudsman Guidelines on Unaccompanied Children Seeking Asylum, 2005

## Greek Law

- Law 3907/2011 *on the establishment of an Asylum Service and a First Reception Service*,
- *transposition into Greek legislation of the provisions of Directive 2008/115/EC “on common standards and procedures in Member States for returning illegally staying third-country nationals” and other provisions* (especially Articles 20, 25 and 32 regarding unaccompanied minors)



- Law 3064/2002 – *Combating human trafficking, crimes against sexual freedom, child pornography and generally the financial exploitation of sexual life and support for the victims of such acts*
- Law 3386/2005 - *Entry, residence and social integration of citizens of third countries in the Greek territory*
- Presidential Decree 114/2010 *on the establishment of a single procedure for granting the status of refugee or of beneficiary of subsidiary protection to aliens or to stateless persons in conformity with Council Directive 2005/85/EC on minimum standards on procedures in Member States for granting and withdrawing refugee status (L 326/13.12.2005)*
- Presidential Decree 220/2007 *on the transposition into the Greek legislation of Council Directive 2003/9/EC from January 27, 2003 laying down minimum standards for the reception of asylum seekers (Official Journal of the European Communities L 31/6.2.2003)*
- Presidential Decree 233/2003 – *Protection and assistance to victims of crimes under articles 323, 323A, 349, 351 and 351A of the Penal Code, in accordance with article 12 of Law 3064/2002.*

## 1.2 Legislation on Ethnic Minorities

The law library of Congress in Greece published in 2012 a report on ethnic minorities. According to the report the following were described in the issue of “Domestic Interpretations of ‘Minority’”.

A 1930 report by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs grouped minorities into three categories depending on the degree of threat posed to Greece’s national interests. In descending order (worst to least) these were: (a) Muslims of Western Thrace (whose status was already recognized by the Treaty of Lausanne of 1923), Slavophones in Macedonia, and Chams of Albanian origin in Thesprotia (the Chams had made more than twenty official protests to the League of Nations in Geneva; the report viewed this group as among the most dangerous because of their ties to neighboring states); (b) Koutsovlahi, Armenians (close to 80,000 came to Greece mostly after the Asia Minor Catastrophe, following the 1919–1922 war between Greece and Turkey), and Jews; and (c) the minority populations of Mount Athos, which included Russians, Bulgarians, and Romanian Monks.

Moreover, the 1951 census, which is the last census that used data based on ethnic and religious origin, indicated that at that time the following religious groups existed in Greece: 11,665 Muslims; 24,965 Catholics; 4,954 Protestants; and 6,325 Jews. In terms of linguistic minorities, there were 92,443 Turcophones; 41,017 Slavophones; 39,885 Vlachs; 22,736 Albanians; 18,671 Pomaks; and 7,429 Roma.

The legal literature identifies two main groups of minorities in Greece—religious and linguistic. Greece objects to the use of “minority religious groups” as “not politically correct” and suggests the use of “denominations other than Orthodox” instead. Among



the religious groups are a small number of Jews, whose religion is indeed officially recognized; Catholics; Protestants; Old Calendarists; and Jehovah's Witnesses. Some data estimate the population of Old Calendarists at 500,000; Greek Catholics at 50,000; Protestants at 30,000; Jews at 5,000; and Muslims (with the exception of those in Western Thrace) at 100,000. Among the linguistic groups are Arvanites; Albanians; Vlachs, whose language is Romanian; and Roma. Moreover, the Slavo-Macedonians have been described as both a linguistic and an ethnic group.

Successive Greek governments have not recognized the Roma as a minority, with the exception of those who live in Western Thrace. Legislation and policy instruments consider them to be a "vulnerable social group," along with migrants. Roma amount to approximately 250,000–300,000, according to official estimates. In Greece, the Roma who are mostly Muslims are referred to as Horahane Roma; they speak the Romani dialect and live mainly in the prefecture of Evros in southern Greece and in Komotini. This group of Roma is part of the Muslim minority pursuant to the Treaty of Lausanne. A number of Muslim Roma identify themselves with Turkey and stay connected with the Turkish Consulate General in Komotini, whereas others are loyal to Greece. A large number of Roma are also concentrated in the suburbs of Athens and in the Peloponnese. The European Commission considers the Roma to be the "biggest ethnic minority in Europe, present in all 27 EU Member States," and numbering an estimated total of ten to twelve million. Most of them are EU citizens. The EU has also paid particular attention to the Roma as a minority group within the EU territory. Moreover, the High Commissioner on National Minorities of the OSCE considers the Roma to fall within its remit following its 2000 Report on the Roma and Sinti in the OSCE Area.

Specific Regulations on Roma population in Greece (Greek Ombudsman)

- Royal Decree 20-1915
- Common Ministerial Decision 23641 15.7.2003
- Common Ministerial Decision 33165\_23.6.2006
- Circular for Common Ministerial Decision 33165\_2
- Common ministerial Decision 56067/844/ 2008 on the subsidy of Roma professionals

### 1.3 Legislation on Domestic Violence

In 1986 the General Secretariat for Equality placed the issue of domestic violence under debate for the first time at a governmental level, by asking from a group of female scientists to revise modes and techniques of approaching the issue from a woman's point of view as well as to propose new "paths" of official intervention (DIMITRA Institute of Training and Development S.A., n.d.). As a consequence of this action of the General Secretariat of Equality, in 1993 a Shelter for battered women and their children was





created in alliance with the municipality of Athens (DIMITRA Institute of Training and Development S.A., n.d.).

A few years later, in 1998, the Battered Women's Centre was established by the General Secretariat for Equality in the city of Athens (DIMITRA Institute of Training and Development S.A., n.d.). This kind of activation of the Greek state on the issue of domestic violence with initiatives deriving from the General Secretariat of Equality has been continued. An Inter-Ministerial working group was formed in 1999 by the General Secretariat of Equality, with the permission to plan and put into practice regulation and strategy inhibiting violence against women. It was commanded by one political and one personnel officer, under the joint responsibility of the Ministry of Citizen Protection and the Ministry of Health and Welfare. Representatives from the Research Center on Equality Matters as well as professionals from the academic society and the women's movement had been employed in the particular constitution (Greek Helsinki Monitor & Organization Mondiale Contre la Torture, 2002).

There were long delays in terms of producing draft legislation for domestic violence. This fact was attributed to a lack of political dedication by the various ministries involved, and to the fact that there were difficulties in terms of administrative coordination due to the division of competencies between the participating Ministries (Greek Helsinki Monitor & Organization Mondiale Contre la Torture, 2002).

While domestic violence was fairly accepted in Greece as a social problem, it was noted that there was no legislation that particularly looked after women as victims of domestic violence, which would account for the particular connection and the inter-dependence and the linkage between the victim and the perpetrator of domestic violence (Greek Helsinki Monitor & Organization Mondiale Contre la Torture, 2002). Discrimination against women was recognized as a violation of the principle of equality under article 4 paragraph 2 of the Greek Constitution. Apart from Law 1342/1983, which puts into practice the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, the definition of discrimination as it is offered by Article 1 of the Convention was not clearly repeated in any Greek legal text (Greek Helsinki Monitor & Organization Mondiale Contre la Torture, 2002).

Domestic Violence was usually dealt with the broad stipulations of Civil and Criminal Law. One could have taken legal action against domestic violence if the woman victim decided to press charges for physical harm, regulated by articles 308, 308A, 309, 310 of the Greek Penal Code (Greek Helsinki Monitor & Organization Mondiale Contre la Torture, 2002). However, the crime of physical injury due to domestic violence was not prosecuted ex officio (Greek Helsinki Monitor & Organization Mondiale Contre la Torture, 2002).



In the summer of 2006 a law on domestic violence was adopted (DIMITRA Institute of Training and Development S.A., n.d.). The law stipulates the definition of domestic violence. It distinguishes domestic violence as a particular criminal act and accounts for specific penalties. Furthermore, the law accounts for the taking away of a violent spouse from the marital household, as well as, the needed ethical and material support towards the victims by organizations that have been created for that particular reason (DIMITRA Institute of Training and Development S.A., n.d.).

Domestic violence is defined as a criminal act against a family member, in accordance with Articles 6, 7, 8 and 9 of this Act and with Articles 299 and 311 of the Criminal Code (Act 3500, Article 1, 2006). Family is defined as the community consisting of spouses, parents and relatives' first and second degree by blood or marriage, and their adopted children (Act 3500, Article 1, 2006). Moreover in the definition of family the Greek law includes members with a fourth degree of kinship as well as minor members who are living with the rest of the family (Act 3500, Article 1, 2006).





### **SECTION 3: MIGRANT/ETHNIC MINORITY WOMEN NATURE AND PREVALENCE OF VIOLENCE EXPERIENCED IN RELATION WITH THEIR ETHNICAL/CULTURAL BELONGING**

The National Programme for substantive gender equality 2010-2013 was conducted by the Ministry of Interior, Decentralization and e-government, specifically by the General Secretariat for Gender Equality (GSGE). The National Programme consisted of group planned actions, governed by the fundamental principles of gender equality and the feminist criticism of public policy. In short the Programme reached the following:

#### **Prevention and combatting of violence against women through:**

- The operation of a 24hour SOS help line of GSGE.
- The establishment of GSGE Counseling Centres in the 13 Region Capitals.
- The establishment of CounsellingCentres and Shelters in cooperation with Municipalities.
- The provision of legal assistance to victims in cooperation with bae associations.
- An information/awareness campaign addressed to the public in order to “break the silence”.

#### **Support and assist women’s organizations and NGOs through:**

- Funding 2-year action plans that promote gender equality.
- Setting up a permanent dialogue forum in the GSGE website.

#### **Enhance cultural creation that promotes gender equality by :**

- Supporting art production on gender identity and gender equality.
- Developing cooperation with cultural bodies in Greece and abroad.

#### **Gender mainstreaming in public policies through:**

- The creation and pilot predation of a structure in the GSGE for the monitoring of policies using qualitative and quantitative data and indicators.
- The elaboration of plans for gender mainstreaming into the policies of the Ministries, the Regions and Municipalities.
- The implementation of training and awareness-raising programmes for civil servants in the field of gender equality.

#### **Increase women’s participation in decision-making by :**

- Empowering and supporting women’s so that they are promoted to positions of political responsibility at a local, national and European level.
- Raising awareness with campaigns addressed to the general public.



- Creating a structure for gender equality and women's networking within the organisations of social partners.

**Upgrade the GSGE Library on Gender and Equality through:**

- The pilot operation of a digital thematic depository.
- The mapping of women's archives.
- The digitalization of the historic archive of the women's movement.



## **SECTION 4: MIGRANT/ETHNIC MINORITY WOMEN LEVEL OF PREVALENCE/VULNERABILITY IN RELATION WITH CULTURAL BELONGING**

### **4.1 Migrant Women and Violence**

The General Secretariat of the Hellenic Republic has been cooperating since 2002 in building common guidelines and producing measures to protect women and girls who are migrating or seek asylum as refugees in Greece. As the report argues “In recent years Greece faces a large influx of mixed migration flows and it is becoming increasingly difficult to distinguish between persons entitled to international protection (refugees and beneficiaries of subsidiary protection) and economic migrants. The Greek authorities are gradually proceeding to reform the system for managing migration flows as well as the asylum system. In this context it is important to identify the special needs of women and girls in need of international protection, provide them with support and recognize their status as beneficiaries of international protection so that they can enjoy the protection to which they are entitled in Greece.

Marginalized groups in Greece according to SuniaGeel Project and the Greek Country Report as published in 2011

([http://www.exchangehouse.ie/userfiles/file/reports/Sunia%20Geel%201/SuniaGeel\\_output\\_WS1\\_1\\_3\\_08\\_CountryReport\\_GR\\_en.pdf](http://www.exchangehouse.ie/userfiles/file/reports/Sunia%20Geel%201/SuniaGeel_output_WS1_1_3_08_CountryReport_GR_en.pdf))

There were not that many available sources regarding the demographic profile of the immigrant victims of domestic violence in Greece. According to available data from the GSGE (General Secretariat for Gender Equality, n.d.) centers for the women victims of domestic violence for the period 1/1/10 - 31/10/10: from total number of 1.870 women who reported complaints and asked for help 16% of them were foreigners 4 out of 10 women foreigners came from the Balkan region.

As regards to the specific marginalized groups that experience domestic violence in Greece due to lack of available statistic data, essential information has been gained from the interviews taken with experts on the field. According to their experience and knowledge the largest group of immigrant women victims of domestic violence in Greece is the Albanians. The group that comes second is immigrant women victims for other Balkan countries - Bulgaria and Rumania -. The third group is immigrant women coming from the Arab world. They are mainly asylum seekers. Language barrier constitutes the largest obstacle for this population. Moreover, due to their legal problems in Greece they prioritize the processes of legalization of their staying in Greece. Therefore, their actions such as address to care services due to their experience of domestic violence are kept aside. As regards to the largest marginalized group, that is Albanian women victims of domestic violence, they are having different cultural background which is very much



depended upon and oriented by their religion. The fact that they are muslims generates different stances towards the role of the women and the equal rights and obligations of men and women. Therefore, immigrant Albanian women suffer domestic violence.

According to the National Statistical Service of Greece (NSS, 2007) Albanians are the most numerable migrant ethnicity in Greece, with a total number of 352,780, followed by Bulgarians (26,593), Romanians (22,982), Pollands (19,181), Georgians (18,728), Russians (17,239), Ukraines (15,142), Pakistanis (9,154), Cypriots (9,137) and Armenians (6,669). The numbers above include asylum seekers and refugees. This distribution is presented in Figure 1:

The Albanians represent the overwhelming majority in all age groups (80–87%). Bulgarians are the second largest group of third country nationals in ages between 15–19, 20–24 and 30–64 years, representing 6%, 4% and 8% respectively of the total number of third country nationals belonging to these age groups. Romanians predominate as the second largest immigrant group in ages between 25 and 29 years, representing 5% of the total number of third country nationals belonging to this age group. There is no official estimation on the number and demographic information of undocumented migrants. The only available information is provided by the Greek Police Department (Greek Police Department-Statistics, 2011.). According to it, on 2007, 112.364 illegally entering the country migrant were arrested by the police authorities.

The gender balance of immigrant groups varies widely. Overall, the sexes are well-balanced, but certain nationalities have highly skewed profiles. Albania shows some 61% male presence along with Romania. The Asian and African countries in particular have almost exclusively male immigrants in Greece, such as India (87%), Pakistan (98%) and Egypt (87%). Other nationalities have a predominantly female presence, such Ukraine with 82%, Moldova with 71%, Russia with 83%, Georgia with 64% and Bulgaria (66%).

#### 4.2 Ethnic Minorities and Violence

A report prepared by the Greek Helsinki Monitor (GHM) and the World Organisation Against Torture (OMCT) for the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women describes that On the basis of an ill-conceived interpretation of the Treaty of Lausanne, Greece tolerates the use of sharia (Islamic law) by the state-appointed muftis, who are also recognized as judges in family law matters. It has been recently reported that polygamy is still allowed, even though it is a crime punishable by article 356 of the Greek Penal Code. A 55-year old Muslim man wanted to marry his wife's 15-year old niece: he had the support of his wife, the mufti, and apparently the region's (Thrace) Appeals Court. "“Marriage is an institution that comes under their religion which should solve whatever problems emerge,” ... said to the daily Ethnos<sup>15</sup> a prosecutor of the



Appeals Court of Thrace. In a related story, it has been reported that a state pension agency (TEVE), on the instructions of the mufti of Komotini, divided the pension between the two widows of a deceased Muslim. The mufti's spokesperson insisted that Greece must respect Islamic law in matters related to religion, like marriages.

P. Naskou – Perraki, Professor of Public International Law at the University of Macedonia, recalls in her “The Legal Framework of Religious Freedom on Greece” that Law 1920/1991 obliges the Muftis to take decisions in accordance with the Constitution, that renders Islamic Law provisions on marriage, divorce, and care of children of divorced parents – that diminish women and do not take the children's best interests into account - contrary to the principle of equality (article 4 paragraph 2 of the Constitution), as well as to many related international documents Greece has ratified. However, there are also some leading Greek academics who find these practices acceptable. For the Professor of Penal Law at the University of Salonica John Manoledakis, there is no conflict between laws. As he explained “since Islamic law allows bigamy, the unjust –for us- character of the act is cancelled.” Sharia law is applied to the Muslim women of Thrace. With the application of Sharia law by the Mufti, which is often ratified by Greek courts despite the conflicting Greek constitutional provisions and international obligations of Greece, Muslim women are entitled to only half of their husband's inheritance; may see their husband take another wife, as long as they “agree”, since polygamy is allowed; divorces are only issued by men against the women, usually without the women even being summoned; they receive alimony only for 100 days and may have custody of their children only until the age of seven (boys) or age nine (girls), which then passes automatically to the father or grandfather –if not granted to them from the beginning.

According to a recent publication on “The Guardian” (10/4/2015) “Some might be surprised that Islamic law should be enforced in a country under Greek Orthodox influence, where church and state are officially separate. In fact it is a throwback to the troubled relations between Greece and Turkey. After more than four centuries of Ottoman occupation, Greece regained its independence in the early 19th century. But it was only in July 1923, after years of conflict, that the two countries finally agreed on clear borders, under the terms of the Treaty of Lausanne.

The accord provided for a massive movement of population, with both parties agreeing to send hundreds of thousands of the other's nationals to their respective countries. The only exception to this rule was that Turkey pledged to maintain the Ecumenical Patriarchate of Constantinople and not to expel its Greek minority. In exchange the 120,000-strong Muslim community of western Thrace was allowed to stay put. Officially known as the Muslim Minority of Greece, it consists mainly of Turks, but also Bulgarian-speaking Pomaks.



The treaty recognised that the community enjoyed various exceptional rights, including being allowed to live according to its existing customs. Three muftis, appointed by the Greek authorities, were to act as religious leaders and judges. In this capacity they enforced sharia law for family disputes, but not for criminal cases. So any problems relating to marriage, divorce and inheritance are settled by the mufti's office in Xanthi, Komotini or Didymoteicho, the region's three main towns. "Sharia must govern the world," says Mecocemali, the mufti of Komotini. "These are God's just rules on how we should live our lives."

But "the Lausanne treaty makes no mention of sharia or muftis" states lawyer Yannis Ktistakis. It was the Greek state which put that interpretation on the agreement. In 1923, Turkish society under the leadership of Kemal Ataturk was very progressive and secular. The Greek government was conservative and profoundly Orthodox. So it assumed that the best way of reducing progressive influence on the Turkish-speaking community in Thrace would be to extend the powers of sharia law." "This is a judicial exception that is unacceptable in Europe, a clear violation of the Greek constitution, the European Convention on Human Rights and the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child. The Greek civil code should be enforced in the same way for all Greek citizens. The members of the minority are first and foremost Greek citizens, then Muslims, and their rights must be upheld." Tsitselikis, who is also head of the Hellenic League for Human Rights, takes a more measured stance. "Those who wish to settle their differences before a mufti should be allowed to do so, but the same should apply to people seeking redress before a Greek civil court," he cautions. "It would be better to help people, particularly women, to become emancipated and demand more rights for themselves. Otherwise there is the risk that the most conservative groups will lock women up at home and establish underground courts to settle family disputes out of the public eye." (<http://www.theguardian.com/law/2015/apr/10/sharia-greece-human-rights-inheritance-law>)

According to the Greek Ombudsman the Greek muftis of the Greek state can arbitrate cases of family and civil law concerning muslims who live in Western Thrace according to the law N.1920/1991. (<http://www.synigoros.gr/resources/web.pdf>) The decision that muftis reach are then validated by the First Instance Court of Greece which judges if the decisions are in accordance with the Greek Constitution. Nevertheless, according to a recent publication of Christiana Loupa "Saria goes on in Greece of 2010" (TVXS, 2010), only 1 in 1071 cases is found in discord with the Greek Constitution, in spite of the regulations of sharia that violate UN Conventions.

#### 4.3 Refugee women and Violence

[https://www.unfpa.org/sites/default/files/resource-pdf/EuropeMission\\_Protection\\_Risks\\_19\\_Jan\\_Final\\_0.pdf](https://www.unfpa.org/sites/default/files/resource-pdf/EuropeMission_Protection_Risks_19_Jan_Final_0.pdf)



Concerned by the protection risks faced by women and girls, the United Nations Refugee Agency (UNHCR), the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) and the Women's Refugee Commission (WRC) undertook a joint seven-day assessment mission to Greece and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia in November 2015. This report describes the assessment's findings and key recommendations for the European Union (EU), transit and destination country governments, humanitarian actors and civil society organizations (CSOs). The assessment found that women and girl refugees and migrants face grave protection risks and that the current response by governments, humanitarian actors, EU institutions and agencies and CSOs are inadequate. The findings emphasize the urgent need to scale up response efforts, implement innovative solutions and strengthen protection mechanisms and services across borders to adequately address the protection threats facing women and girls. In this particular crisis, Europe's response needs to match its international obligations, responsibilities and stated values. There is a need for the European Union, as well as relevant governments in Europe, with the support of protection and humanitarian actors, to strengthen resources dedicated to ensuring effective protection, especially for persons with specific needs and those who are at heightened risk in this crisis.

The data provided by the UNHCR (<http://data.unhcr.org/mediterranean/regional.php>) show that as of November 2015, per government figures, 950,469 refugees and migrants had arrived in Europe through the Mediterranean, with the vast majority of these arriving to Greece (797,372). Approximately, 24 percent are children and 16 percent are women. 3,605 have either lost their lives or are missing.

Despite predictions that the number of arrivals would decrease with the beginning of winter, that was not the case at the time of the mission. Thirty-three percent of the total arrivals in 2015 came in October. Refugees and migrants are increasingly concerned that borders and opportunities to seek protection will close to them, thus creating an additional urgency in continuing the journey towards northern Europe. UNHCR has also observed an increase in the number of Afghans arriving, as well as an increase in families with young children. Legal and registration measures available to non-Syrian nationals differ significantly from those for Syrian nationals, who are currently prioritized and/or fast-tracked. Humanitarian actors have also noted a trend in recent months of a larger number of women refugees and migrants, including single women, and unaccompanied children making the journey. One reason for this shift could be the rising perception among the population that women and/or children travelling alone may be prioritized for services and registration, or that they may be more likely to be granted asylum. The assessment team also observed a high number of pregnant women, including in advanced stages of pregnancy, making the journey.

The report describes the particular risks during the Travel to Greece and argue that throughout the journey from their country of origin to Greece, refugees and migrants face





high risks of violence, extortion and exploitation, including rape, transactional sex, human and organ trafficking. Women and girls, especially those travelling alone, face particularly high risks of certain forms of violence, including sexual violence by smugglers, criminal groups and individuals in countries along the route. Refugees and migrants board dinghies in Turkey carrying double the load they are designed to hold. Many refugees and migrants interviewed reported that this is often under the threat of armed violence, and during the sea crossing they are often forced to throw their belongings, including documents and money, into the sea. Hypothermia and the lack of child-size life jackets are among the reasons why small children are among the first to lose their lives at sea.

The response to the European refugee and migrant crisis is currently not able to prevent or respond to SGBV survivors in any meaningful way. A comprehensive and survivor-centred approach led by government agencies, aimed at addressing SGBV-related protection risks, was not evident during the mission. Notwithstanding the existing research and progress made in the work against SGBV, there is still a perception among many of the government authorities and humanitarian actors interviewed that SGBV is not a major feature of this crisis due to a lack of data on SGBV incidents. This perception is illustrative of a very incomplete understanding of this protection risk in situations of flight and forced displacement. From interviews with refugees and humanitarian actors, it was noted that SGBV survivors avoid disclosing their experience and seeking assistance unless there is a severe and visible health implication. This results in survivors remaining hidden and also creates a serious challenge for government and humanitarian agencies in addressing their protection needs. It further strengthens the perception that SGBV is not a major feature in this crisis. Despite these challenges, it is necessary for national SGBV prevention and response laws and systems to be strengthened and put in place where they do not exist. It is also imperative to remind the international community that, as per the recently issued (2015) Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC) GBV Guidelines, “All humanitarian personnel ought to assume GBV is occurring and threatening affected populations; treat it as a serious and life-threatening problem; and take action based on sector recommendations in these Guidelines, regardless of the presence or absence of concrete evidence”. Despite the limited available time, through observation and interviews the assessment team identified instances of SGBV, including but not limited to early and forced marriage, transactional sex, domestic violence, rape, sexual harassment and physical assault in the country of origin and on the journey. This testifies to the fact that if relevant government and humanitarian agency staff with SGBV prevention and response knowledge are deployed and tasked to respond to cases of SGBV as a protection priority. This will result in an increase in the identification of protection gaps/risks and support appropriate prevention and response measures being put in place. SGBV was identified as both a reason why refugees and migrants are leaving countries of origin and first asylum and a reality along the refugee and migration route for women and girls.





Other fields that lack adequate responses are the Access to Services and Facilities. Services and facilities are currently insufficient to meet the magnitude of the refugee and migrant crisis in Europe. While government authorities and humanitarian actors have attempted to put in place systems in some locations to ensure that women and girls have access to services and facilities, the need far outstrips what currently exists.

Reproductive health is finally an issue with refugee and migrant population. Although medical services are available to pregnant women in both Greece and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, pregnant and lactating women, even those with health problems, are reluctant to access health services, as they do not wish to delay their journey and that of their families. Humanitarian agencies on the ground gave examples of refugee and migrant women who left hospitals less than 24 hours after having given birth, some after Caesarean sections. Despite seeing many women in advanced stages of pregnancy, in only one instance, where the assessment team identified a pregnant woman suspected of being in active labor, was the couple receptive to undertaking the necessary medical examination and staying on to give birth in the local hospital.

A key concern, especially related to SGBV prevention and response, observed in some locations in Greece, are challenges emerging from lack of clearly established leadership and clear definition of roles and responsibilities of all actors at the local level. Government-led efforts to establish roles and responsibilities, including referral and reporting structures, will ensure harmonized response efforts at the local and national level among government agencies and humanitarian actors.

There is a clear gap in refugees and migrants being able to access in a timely manner credible and language appropriate information along the refugee and migration route on services that will mitigate protection risks they may face. The absence of adequate interpretation, systematic and accessible information distribution and visibility of staff and services provided by government and humanitarian actors, including CSOs and volunteer groups, increases the possibilities for exploitation at the expense of those most at risk, including women, girls and boys.



## CONCLUSION

### What needs to be done? (Nils Muižnieks, 2016)

In general, more humane migration policies should be prioritized by all states. European countries have to facilitate safe passage and access to asylum, improve reception conditions, foster effective integration into host societies and ensure a fairer distribution of asylum seekers.

In developing and implementing these policies, particular attention should be paid to the situation of women, girls and children, notably the victims of sexual and gender-based violence. UNHCR, UNFPA and the Women's Refugee Commission have put forward a number of recommendations in this regard. They call for the establishment by states of a coordinated response system within and across borders that protects women and girls. States and EU agencies need to acknowledge the protection risks and put personnel and procedures in place specifically to prevent, identify, and respond to sexual and gender-based violence. In this regard, particular attention should be paid to female refugees and migrants' reluctance to report violence or to access services. Reception centres and accommodation facilities need to be safe, accessible and responsive to women and girls. Last but not least, it is crucial to prioritize women, children and survivors' of sexual and gender-based violence in family reunification procedures, as well as in relocation and resettlement schemes. Doing so would reduce incentives for these women and girls to move on by dangerous irregular means and reduce their exposure to sexual and gender-based violence.

Moreover, it is essential to be created a common European Guide for all EU Member States in order to prevent and tackle violence against migrant women. Of equal importance is an authorized committee to supervise the implementation of this European Guide. In the prospect of organizing a complete intervention handling the phenomenon of violence against migrant women we shouldn't focus only on the criminal prosecutions but also we must consider the prevention and tackling all kinds of violence to which migrant women are exposed. To achieve this goal requires the cooperation of all stakeholders (state actors-ministries, NGOs and Local Authorities) on actions that will be operated at national, regional and local level.

Furthermore, several preventive actions can be taken such as:

- informing immigrant women about the types and the characteristics of domestic violence, their rights and the legal framework in Greece for domestic violence,
- educate and aware the professionals who work for the public authorities, in order to be able to handle these situations,



- special actions to minority communities against domestic violence.
- particular services for domestic violence should be accessible for all foreigners who live in the country, no matter they have residence permit.

In addition, comprehensive prevention efforts that engage young people early on are the best way to confront this violence. Education, including non-formal education, is a powerful tool for the prevention of violence, especially when combined with other strategies, such as community mobilization and awareness-raising.

It is quite certain that laws and policies can provide the foundation for a coordinated and comprehensive approach to violence against women. While a number of laws and policies against violence are now in place, implementation is still lagging behind. Measures to strengthen effective implementation should include training of officials who handle cases of violence against women, the establishment of mechanisms for monitoring and impact evaluation as well as accountability and better coordination.

Undeniably, it is important to emphasize the role of the media (radio and press) in preventing violence against women, promoting valid information instruments for use by journalists and organizing campaigns to disseminate practical information measures to prevent violence against women and to encourage non-violence.

Also, strengthening the role of the immigrant woman in the society through job vacancies, and participation to the decision making bodies, is an action which could reduce these incidents. Finally, it is necessary the victim and the abuser to have access to psychosocial rehabilitation services in order to treat and not repeat the act, and reintegrate into society.

Last but not least, it is crucial to prioritize women, children and survivors' of sexual and gender-based violence in family reunification procedures, as well as in relocation and resettlement schemes. Doing so would reduce incentives for these women and girls to move on by dangerous irregular means and reduce their exposure to sexual and gender-based violence.



## REFERENCES

- Lena Divani, The Impact of the Minority System of the League of Nations in Greece: A Perspective of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, in Konstantinos Tsitselikis & Dimitris Christopoulos, *To Meinotiko Phaenomenon stin Ellada* [The Minority Phenomenon in Greece] 177 (1997) (in Greek). For a historical account of the Asia Minor Catastrophe, see Dimitri Pentzopoulos, *The Balkan Exchange of Minorities and Its Impact Upon Greece* 45 (1962).
- Stephanos Stavros, The Legal Status of Minorities in Greece Today: The Adequacy of Their Protection in the Light of Current Human Rights Perceptions, 13 *J. Modern Greek Studies* 1 (1995).
- Nicholas Sitaropoulos, Freedom of Movement and the Right to a Nationality v. Ethnic Minorities: The Case of Ex Article 19 of the Greek Nationality Code, 6 *Euro. J. Migration & L.* 206 (2004). See also Rozakis, *supra* note 31, at 99.
- Stavros, *supra* note 65, at 9, 17; Christos Giakoumopoulos, The Minority Phenomenon in Greece and the European Convention of Human Rights, in Tsitselikis & Christopoulos, *supra* note 63, at 45.
- Comments by the Greek Government on ECRI's Fourth Report Concerning Greece, in ECRI Report on Greece (Fourth Monitoring Cycle), App. (Sept. 15, 2009), <http://www.coe.int/t/dghl/monitoring/ecri/country-by-country/greece/GRC-CbC-IV-2009-031-ENG.pdf>.
- Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination, Reports Submitted by States Parties Under Article 9 of the Convention: Greece ¶ 7 (Mar. 27, 2008), U.N. Doc. CERD/C/GRC/16-19, <http://www.unhcr.org/refworld/publisher,CERD,STATEPARTIESREP,,4aa7b7562,0.html>.
- About Us, European Commission, [http://ec.europa.eu/justice/mission/index\\_en.htm](http://ec.europa.eu/justice/mission/index_en.htm)
- Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe, High Commissioner on National Minorities Report on the Situation of Roma and Sinti in the OSCE Area (2000), <http://www.osce.org/hcnm/42063>.
- World Health Organization/London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine. Preventing intimate partner and sexual violence against women: taking action and generating evidence. Geneva, World Health Organization, 2010.