



## Educating Youth on Cyber Violence Against Women & Girls

# T2.5: Needs, Gaps & Recommendations

<b>Project Number</b>	2021-2-CY02-KA220-YOU-000048724	<b>Acronym</b>	CyberEqual
<b>Project Title</b>	Educating Youth on Cyber Violence Against Women & Girls		
<b>Start Date</b>	01/05/2024	<b>Duration</b>	24 Months
<b>Project URL</b>	<a href="http://www.cyberequal.eu/">http://www.cyberequal.eu/</a>		
<b>Deliverable</b>	2.5	<b>WP Number</b>	2
<b>Date</b>			
<b>Author(s)</b>	Argyriou Anthi (DATAWO) Karagianni Anastasia (DATAWO)		
<b>Contributor(s)</b>			
<b>Reviewer(s)</b>			

**Document Revision History (including peer reviewing & quality control)**

Version	Date	Changes	Contributor(s)
<b>vX.X</b>	dd/mm/YY	First draft	DATAWO
		Review by partners	RISC & SPAVO
		Integration of feedback	DATAWO
		Final deliverable	DATAWO

---

Education and Culture Executive Agency (EACEA). Neither the European Union nor EACEA can be held responsible for them.

---

## Executive Summary

The prevalence of cyber violence against women and girls (CVAWG) presents a significant concern, with 76% of respondents across various countries either having experienced or witnessed such violence, or knowing someone who has. Notably, Ukraine and Lithuania reported the highest levels of CVAWG, with 90.6% and 82.9% of respondents, respectively, indicating exposure to such incidents. These findings underscore the widespread nature of cyber violence and its pervasive impact on women and girls, particularly in certain regions.

The demographic analysis reveals that the majority of those affected by cyber violence were between the ages of 18 and 35, with a higher representation of younger individuals in Ukraine. Educationally, most respondents had completed at least secondary education, with a considerable proportion holding university degrees across all participating countries. Employment data further illustrates that the majority of respondents were either employed in the private sector or were university students. However, unemployment rates were notably higher in Cyprus and Lithuania, suggesting potential socio-economic factors that may exacerbate vulnerability to cyber violence. In terms of income, the majority of respondents reported annual earnings of less than €12,000, with particularly high rates of low income in Ukraine and Lithuania.

The study also examines digital engagement behaviors that may contribute to the prevalence of cyber violence. Most respondents reported frequent use of the internet and social media, engaging with these platforms on a daily or several times a day. Mobile phones were identified as the primary device for internet access, with Wi-Fi access primarily occurring from home, although public and school-based Wi-Fi networks were also significant sources of internet connectivity. These patterns of digital engagement are crucial to understanding the avenues through which cyber violence is perpetrated and experienced.

The research identifies several forms of online violence that are of particular concern to women and girls. Hate speech emerged as the most significant issue, with up to 25% of respondents citing it as a primary concern. Other prevalent forms of cyber violence included cyberstalking (15.8%) and doxxing, which was reported by 19.8% of respondents in Ukraine. Additional forms of online abuse included non-consensual intimate image abuse (NCIIA), impersonation, misinformation, astroturfing, and general cyber harassment. These findings highlight the diverse and multifaceted nature of cyber violence, which encompasses various forms of harassment and exploitation.

The emotional impact of cyber violence varied by country but commonly included feelings of insecurity, embarrassment, and emotional harm. Respondents from Greece and Cyprus reported the highest levels of emotional distress, which suggests that the psychological toll of cyber violence may be influenced by cultural, social, and possibly legal factors in different regions. This emotional harm

---

is a key consideration in the broader discourse on the consequences of online violence and its implications for women's mental health and well-being.

In response to cyber violence, the most common mitigation strategies employed by victims included blocking perpetrators, reducing their online presence, and reporting incidents to digital platforms. Many respondents reported altering their online behaviors, such as reconsidering what to post or creating new profiles to avoid further harassment. These responses suggest that while some women and girls take proactive measures to protect themselves, the reliance on self-regulation highlights the gaps in institutional and legal frameworks for addressing online abuse.

The study also examined the barriers to reporting cyber violence, with particularly low reporting rates observed in Slovakia and Lithuania. The primary barriers to reporting included the belief that complaints would not be taken seriously, fears of retaliation, and a lack of awareness regarding the appropriate channels for reporting incidents. These factors contribute to the underreporting of cyber violence and suggest a need for improved systems of support and accountability in addressing such incidents.

Despite the low reporting rates, some respondents did seek support, particularly in Greece, where individuals were more likely to reach out to friends, family, or support organizations. However, the overall reluctance to seek formal help, particularly in Slovakia where 96% of respondents did not reach out for assistance, highlights the challenges in fostering a supportive environment for victims of cyber violence.

Finally, the study identified the perpetrators of cyber violence, who were found to be a mix of offline acquaintances, online contacts, and anonymous individuals. Ukraine and Lithuania reported a higher proportion of perpetrators who were previously unknown or anonymous, suggesting that the anonymity afforded by digital platforms may exacerbate the perpetration of cyber violence.

This study illustrates the pervasive nature of cyber violence against women and girls, with significant regional variation in its prevalence, forms, and impact. While digital engagement remains high across affected populations, the emotional and psychological toll of cyber violence, coupled with barriers to reporting and seeking support, underscores the urgent need for comprehensive strategies to address this form of abuse. Improved legal frameworks, greater awareness, and more robust support systems are essential to combatting cyber violence and protecting the rights and well-being of women and girls in the digital age.

This deliverable provides an overview of the key findings from a comprehensive survey, offering both quantitative and qualitative analyses. It begins by outlining the purpose of the study, its relation to other work packages and deliverables, and the structure of the report. The document includes a literature review, an exploration of the European legal protections relevant to the identified issues, and an identification of legal gaps. Policy recommendations are provided to address

---

these gaps, followed by concluding remarks and references to the sources cited throughout the report.

## Table of Contents

Executive Summary	3
1 Introduction	5
1.1 Purpose	5
1.2 Relation to other WPs and Deliverables	5
1.3 Structure of the Deliverable	5
2 Key findings of the survey	6
2.1 the survey	
2.2 a quantitative analysis	
2.3 a qualitative analysis	6
3 A Literature Review	
4 The (European) Legal Protection of the Identified Issues	
5 Identification of Legal Gaps	
6 Policy Recommendations	
7 Concluding remarks	7
8 References	

## List of Figures (If any)

Figure 1	5
----------	---

## List of Tables (If any)

Table 1	5
---------	---

## 1 INTRODUCTION

The Council of Europe's Cybercrime Convention Committee (T-CY) defines cyber violence as the use of digital technologies to cause, threaten, or facilitate harm, whether physical, sexual, psychological, or economic, often by exploiting an individual's vulnerabilities (T-CY, 2017). While cyber violence can affect anyone, evidence shows that women and girls are disproportionately targeted (EIGE, 2022).

**Cyber Violence Against Women and Girls (CVAWG)** represents the digital extension of broader violence against women and girls (VAWG). Although there is no universally accepted definition, the European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE) describes CVAWG as gender-based violence committed via information and communication technologies (ICTs), which may intersect with other identity factors like race, age, or disability. It can occur entirely online, offline, or across both spaces, and perpetrators may be known or unknown to the victim.

Common forms of CVAWG include **cyber harassment, stalking, bullying, sexist hate speech, and non-consensual sharing of intimate images (commonly known as image-based sexual abuse)**.

The most prominent data on cyber violence comes from outdated surveys by the EU Agency for Fundamental Rights (FRA), conducted between 2012-2014 and in 2019. The earlier survey found that 11% of women had experienced cyber harassment since age 15, though it overlooked emerging forms like the distribution of non-consensual intimate images. The 2019 follow-up showed that 13% of women and 15% of men had experienced cyber harassment in the previous five years, with the highest rates (27%) among those aged 16- 29.

Despite limited comprehensive data, global research highlights the prevalence of cyber violence, with cyber harassment emerging as one of the most widespread forms- especially affecting women, public figures, and activists (Women and Equalities Committee, 2025; Araújo et al., 2022; Malanga, 2020; FRA, 2014). Other significant forms include cyberstalking (reported by 5% of European women since age 15), non-consensual image sharing- where women are over 28 times more likely to be targeted than men—and technology-facilitated sexual violence, which is particularly acute in regions with weak legal protections. While cyber violence impacts both genders, women often experience more severe psychological harm, especially from image-based abuse. Marginalised groups such as women of color, LGBTQIA+ people, and people with disabilities face heightened risks, with data showing disproportionate exposure to online harassment, hate speech, and

sexualised abuse that reinforce systemic inequalities and silence underrepresented voices.

Even though the EIGE report is very comprehensive and provides valuable information on the phenomenon, it does not efficiently address the need of educating people about it, and especially young people that are the most proficient users of social media platforms. Consequently, CyberEqual purports to tackle this important perspective of CVAWG, as education and awareness results in better prevention, handling and combating of such serious phenomena. In order to expand the effort of raising awareness on CVAWG it is also imperative to include youth workers, educators and other professionals in the educational approach and equip them with the necessary knowledge and tools to further disseminate it and protect potential victims from its devastating consequences.

## 1.1 Purpose

The purpose of this deliverable is to examine the prevalence, forms, and impacts of CVAWG across multiple European countries, drawing on both quantitative and qualitative data. By analysing key demographic factors, digital behaviors, emotional consequences, and institutional responses, this report seeks to identify existing legal gaps and inform evidence-based policy recommendations. Ultimately, the aim is to support the development of more effective legal, social, and technological frameworks to prevent and respond to CVAWG, while promoting the safety, dignity, and rights of women and girls in the digital environment.

## 1.2 Relation to other WPs and Deliverables

This deliverable is closely connected to other work packages (WPs) within the broader project, particularly **WP2: Activity Development and Training Materials and Professional Training** and **WP3: Training Implementation to Youth & Train the Trainees**. The findings from this deliverable will inform the development of activities designed to raise awareness and equip youth workers and other professionals with the tools to address CVAWG. Specifically, the insights into the prevalence and impact of CVAWG will guide the creation of tailored training materials that support the capacity-building efforts of professionals working with young people.

Moreover, the data and conclusions presented here will serve as the foundation for the development of training modules aimed at equipping youth workers and other relevant professionals with practical knowledge on identifying, preventing, and responding to cyber violence. This deliverable, therefore, plays a critical role in ensuring that the training materials developed are evidence-based and aligned with the lived experiences of those most affected by CVAWG.

By integrating research findings into these activities and training resources, this deliverable contributes directly to the overarching project goal of strengthening the capacity of youth workers and professionals to support and protect women and girls from online violence.

## 1.3 Structure of the Deliverable

This deliverable is structured as follows:

- **Section 1: Introduction** – Outlines the purpose of the study, its relation to other work packages and deliverables, and the structure of the report.
- **Section 2: Key Findings of the Survey** – Presents an overview of the methodology, quantitative and qualitative results, and analysis of CVAWG, including prevalence, demographics, digital behavior, emotional impact, mitigation strategies, and reporting behavior.
- **Section 3: Literature Review** – Reviews existing academic and policy literature on CVAWG, focusing on gender, technology, and online harms.
- **Section 4: The (European) Legal Protection of the Identified Issues** – Maps relevant legal frameworks at the European level and evaluates their applicability to the forms of cyber violence identified in the survey.
- **Section 5: Identification of Legal Gaps** – Analyses shortcomings and limitations in the current legal frameworks in addressing CVAWG, based on the findings of the study.
- **Section 6: Policy Recommendations** – Proposes concrete legal and policy measures to better prevent and respond to CVAWG across different national and European contexts.
- **Section 7: Concluding Remarks** – Summarises the main insights and reiterates the urgency of addressing CVAWG through coordinated legal and policy action.
- **Section 8: References** – Lists all sources cited throughout the deliverable.

## 2 KEY FINDINGS OF THE SURVEY

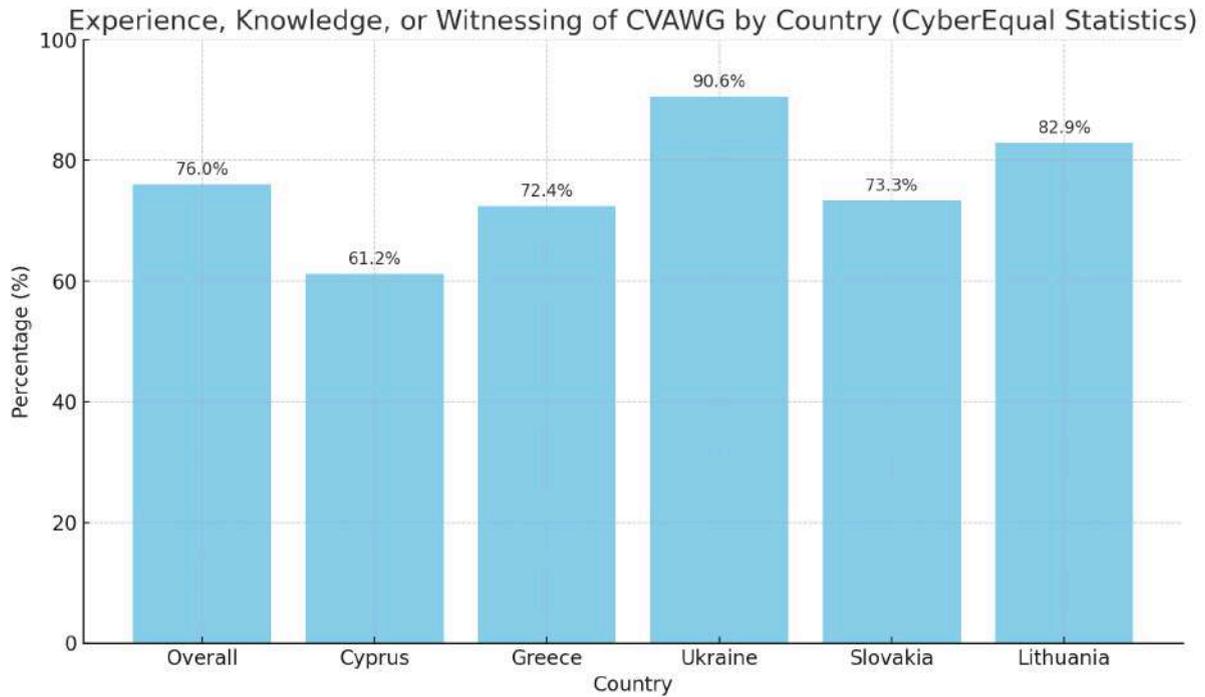
### 2.1 The Survey

In a month 467 women & girls from Slovakia (110), Greece (104), Ukraine (97), Cyprus (84) and Lithuania (78), took part in the CVAWG survey about the awareness or interest in the topic of gender-based cyber violence.

The CVAWG survey includes participants aged 15 to 35 years old with a balanced representation of the 18-25 (227 participants) and 26-35 (226 participants) years old groups. The presence of younger participants (15-17 years old) is limited, as signed parental consent was required, rendering their participation difficult.

### 2.2 Quantitative analysis

A summary of country-specific data on the prevalence, impact, and response to CVAWG reveals notable differences across countries. Overall, 76% of respondents experienced, knew someone, or witnessed CVAWG. Prevalence was particularly high in Ukraine (90.6%) and Lithuania (82.9%), with Cyprus reporting the lowest at 61.2% followed by Greece at 72.4%.

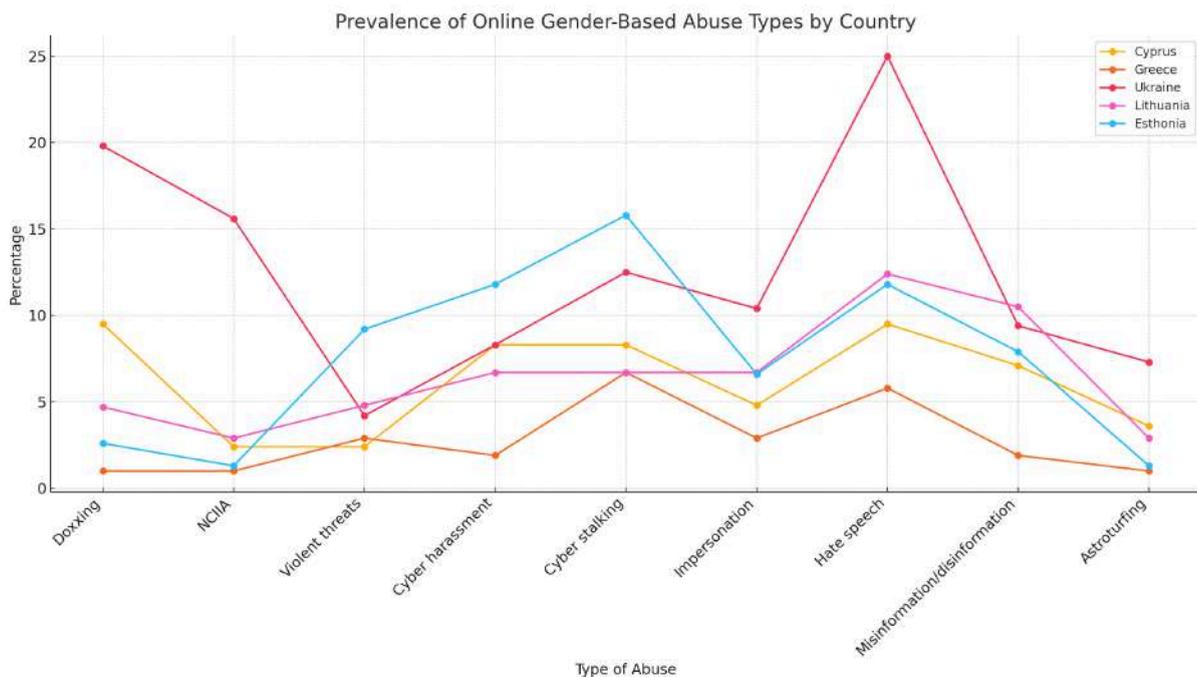


The majority of respondents fell within the **18–25** and **26–35** age groups, indicating that young adults are the primary demographic engaging with or affected by cyber violence against women and girls.

- **15–17 years old** respondents represented a small portion overall, with the highest proportion in **Greece (9.5%)**, followed by **Lithuania (5.2%)**, and a lower percentage in **Estonia (1.3%)**.
- **18–25 years old** respondents were most prominent in **Ukraine (81.3%)**, with substantial representation in **Cyprus (48.8%)** and **Lithuania (44.8%)**. Greece, Slovakia, and Estonia reported lower percentages ranging from 18.3% to 28.6%.
- **26–35 years old** respondents formed the largest group in **Greece (81.7%)**, **Estonia (77.6%)**, and **Slovakia (61.9%)**, also dominating in **Lithuania (55.2%)**, indicating a strong engagement from this demographic across the board.

Common forms of CVAWG included doxing, non-consensual intimate image abuse (NCII), cyber harassment, violent threats, cyber stalking, impersonation, hate speech, misinformation and astroturfing, with hate speech showing the highest percentage (55%) of respondents knowing that this particular form of violence is used to target women online. This is followed by misinformation at

44.5%, cyberstalking at 42.5%, cyberharassment at 39.9% and non-consensual intimate image abuse (NCII) at 39.9%.



The respondents who faced CVAWG, showed that non-consensual intimate image abuse (NCII) (45%) and hate speech (38.9%) take place mostly on a monthly basis, hate speech both monthly (33.3%) and every 6 months or less (36.7%).

Regarding the impacts of the CVAWG phenomenon, 56.1% of respondents blocked contacts, 48.5% thought twice about posting again, 42.5% felt unsafe and 41.7% reported the behaviour to the online platform. Emotional impacts were prevalent, with respondents in Cyprus and Greece reporting the highest levels of mental health harm, while many others, especially in Ukraine and Cyprus, felt unsafe or embarrassed. Actions taken to mitigate these situations ranged from blocking contacts to reducing online presence, with a high incidence of underreporting across most countries.

It is remarkable that just 1.5% of the respondents reported to law enforcement, 48.9% did not report at all (with the Lithuanian respondents reaching 88%) and 45.8% reported to the social media platform. The primary reasons for not reporting included concerns that authorities would not take the issue seriously, confusion and fears of retaliation. In more detail, 69.3% of the respondents have the belief that nothing would be done in case they report the CVAWG (with the

Greek respondents reaching 90%, following by the Lithuanian respondents reaching 87.5%), 18.7% is confused, meaning do not know where to report it and 12% felt the fear of retaliation or worsening of the situation.

Channel	Cyprus	Greece	Ukraine	Slovakia	Lithuania
Not Reported	55.6%	55.6%	19.6%	63.2%	88%
Social Media Platforms	22%	44.4%	74.5%	36.8%	12%
Law Enforcement Authorities	11.1%				
Other Organization	11.1%		5.9%		

### Reasons for Not Reporting

Reason	Cyprus	Greece	Ukraine	Slovakia	Lithuania
Didn't know where to report	15.4%	20%	31.3%	25%	8.3%
Afraid of retaliation or worsening of the situation	30.8%		6.3%	25%	4.2%
Didn't think it would be taken seriously	46.2%	90%	56.3%	58.3%	87.5%
Other	15.4%	12%		16.7%	4.2%

Support-seeking behaviors were minimal, with most victims (53.8%) not reaching out for formal or informal assistance, with Greeks (77.8%) and Lithuanians (96%) showing the highest rates, although Ukraine had a higher rate (78.4%) of support-seeking.

### Support Sought

Type of Support	Cyprus	Greece	Ukraine	Slovakia	Lithuania
Family or friends	16.7%	22.2%	58.8%	44.4%	
Professional (therapist, counselor)	11.1%		9.8%		4%
Support organization (helpline, shelter, etc.)	11.1%	77.8%	9.8%		
Did not seek support	61.1%		21.6%	55.6%	96%

Perpetrators varied, with many incidents involving people known offline, online acquaintances, or anonymous users, with Ukraine and Lithuania showing particularly high rates of anonymous perpetrators.

Last but not least, the respondents shared their opinion about several issues relevant to the Internet and some interesting information arose. More particular;

- 82% of the respondents are cautious about what they post,
- 72.2% worry about negative online behaviours from others could impact their real life,
- 69.8 agree (strongly or somewhat) there is little women can do once they are targeted online to get help or to put a stop to it,
- 81.8% agree (strongly or somewhat) that women don't know, that CVAWG is reportable,
- 59.1% agree (strongly or somewhat) with "I know where I can safely report negative online behaviour"
- 79.1% agree (strongly or somewhat) that women have become accustomed to being targeted
- 93.3% agree (strongly or somewhat) that more needs to be done to protect women from being targeted online,
- 95% agree (strongly or somewhat) that social media platforms should do more to address women being negatively targeted online,
- 56.5% agree (strongly or somewhat) that the Internet is safe for opinions and ideas and at the same time
- 76.5% agree (strongly or somewhat) that the Internet can be helpful source of information and support for women
- regarding the guidance the respondents give to other women like themselves about how to protect themselves against being negatively targeted online;
  - 72.5% propose not to post information about their location

- 71.9% propose to keep their profile information private
- 66.1% propose not to give their phone/email
- 60.3% propose to immediately report someone who makes them feel uncomfortable.

## 2.3 Qualitative analysis

In attempting a qualitative analysis of the results of this research, the following should be emphasised:

First, it is expected that the majority of respondents have experienced, know someone who has experienced or witnessed a CVAWG. This is due to the fact that CVAWG is a phenomenon that is constantly growing, since the use of technology is used by more people, in more circumstances, and for a longer period of time than the average person.

Besides, before this specific research, other researches have been conducted, such as the one mentioned above FRA's survey. According to the 2019 follow-up survey, 13% of women and 15% of men had experienced cyber harassment in the previous five years, with the highest rates (27%) among those aged 16-29. So, taking into consideration that CVAWG survey, took place six years after FRA's last survey, and the fact that this research is not for all the European Union countries, but for Slovakia, Greece, Ukraine, Cyprus and Lithuania, the rates make sense.

Furthermore, it is evident that Cyprus and Greece present the lowest rates for the following reasons: Greece consistently used to rank last in the EIGE Gender Equality Index for years. In 2024 Greece ranked 25th in the EU on the Gender Equality Index, 11.7 points below the EU score. With a score of 60.9 out of 100, Cyprus ranks 20th in the Gender Equality Index 2024, 9.1 points below the EU score. On the contrary, Lithuania, where the organization's headquarters are located, ranks 16th in the EU on the Gender Equality Index. These mean that people in Greece and Cyprus are less sensitized, so as to recognize CVAWG.

The Gender Equality Index 2024 in Lithuania is equal to 65.8 points out of 100, 5.2 points below the score for the EU as a whole.<sup>1</sup> Regarding Ukraine, despite the dire circumstances of wartime, women's rights and gender equality remain a priority for the Ukrainian Government. In 2022, Ukraine ratified the Council of Europe Convention on Preventing and Combating Violence against Women and Domestic Violence (the Istanbul Convention) and with broad participation of

---

<sup>1</sup> <https://eige.europa.eu/>

---

women and of women's organizations updated the National Action Plan on UNSCR 1325 to reflect new wartime challenges, including conflict-related sexual violence and trafficking; and the new State Strategy for ensuring equal rights and opportunities for women and men by 2030, and developed the strategy to eliminate the gender pay gap in Ukraine.<sup>2</sup> So, it is obvious that people in Lithuania and Ukraine are more sensitized, so as to be able to recognize CVAWG.

Regarding forms of gender-based online violence, although non-consensual intimate image abuse (NCII) is not the most common form of violence, when it occurs to a woman it is the most frequent. This is explained by the fact that usually - but not always - the perpetrator of this offense is an ex-partner, who wishes to seriously harm his victim and one way to achieve this is through repeated threats and by publishing the material with personal information.

When it comes to taking legal action against CVAWG, it is clear that it is extremely low. This is because people do not trust state protection, due to lack of information and because they do not want to make things worse in their case or are afraid of retaliation. Furthermore, they do not seek help and in general the lack of information and awareness leads people to isolation and helplessness, since as the results of the survey demonstrate, the respondents believe that a woman who will be faced with online gender-based violence, can do little to protect herself, while the overwhelming percentage of them believes that measures should be taken to protect women online, but also that social media should also take measures to avoid harming women through the phenomenon of CVAWG.

### 3 A LITERATURE REVIEW

Despite growing recognition of CVAWG as a global issue, significant research and data gaps hinder a comprehensive understanding of its prevalence, nature, and impact. These include the lack of standardized terminology, which complicates data collection and legal harmonisation; widespread underreporting due to fear, inadequate support systems, and social stigma; and insufficient intersectional analysis, which overlooks how race, disability, sexuality, and other identities compound experiences of online abuse. Research is also heavily skewed toward Western contexts, leaving critical gaps in knowledge about CVAWG in non-Western regions where legal protections are often weaker and cultural dynamics differ significantly. The absence of coordinated international frameworks and longitudinal studies further limits the ability to track evolving

---

<sup>2</sup> <https://eca.unwomen.org/en/where-we-are/ukraine>

forms of cyber violence, such as deepfakes and AI-generated abuse, making it difficult to develop effective, inclusive, and context-sensitive interventions (Karagianni, 2025).

A key obstacle in tackling CVAWG is the absence of a globally recognized framework for collecting consistent and comparable data. Scholars and organisations emphasise the need for standardized definitions, indicators, and methodologies to ensure accurate, cross-regional data collection (Araújo et al., 2022; Dunn, 2020; UN Women, 2022). Without this unified approach, efforts to compare data, identify global trends, or inform policy remain fragmented. Moreover, incorporating an intersectional lens into data collection is essential to understanding the layered experiences of marginalised groups, such as women of color, LGBTQ+ individuals, and women with disabilities who are often underrepresented in mainstream research. Tailoring data collection and analysis to these groups allows for more inclusive policy and intervention design that reflects diverse lived realities.

In addition to enhancing methodologies, there is an urgent need to investigate emerging forms of online abuse driven by technological innovation, such as deepfakes, automated harassment, and synthetic identity fraud (Mas'udah et al., 2024). These new threats disproportionately target women in public-facing roles, yet remain understudied and unregulated. Building partnerships between researchers, tech companies, and civil society can facilitate real-time monitoring and the development of effective tools and legal safeguards. Simultaneously, raising public awareness through targeted campaigns can help victims recognize abuse, encourage reporting, and foster a culture of accountability. Institutional training for law enforcement, judiciary, and frontline service providers is equally vital; it ensures victims are met with sensitive, informed responses and that digital abuse cases are handled with the seriousness they warrant. Without these structural and educational reforms, underreporting will continue to obscure the true extent of CVAWG and hinder the creation of meaningful change.

## 4 THE (EUROPEAN) LEGAL PROTECTION OF THE IDENTIFIED ISSUES

Several legislative measures at both the EU and international levels address various aspects of CVAWG. The **Victims' Rights Directive (Directive 2012/29/EU)** establishes minimum standards for the treatment, protection, and support of crime victims, including those experiencing CVAWG, ensuring access to support services and protection from further harm. The **Directive on Combating Sexual Abuse of Children (Directive 2011/93/EU)** targets sexual abuse, exploitation, and

pornography involving children, mandating robust penalties and protection for child victims. The **Recast Directive (Directive 2006/54/EC)** promotes gender equality in the workplace, and although it doesn't specifically address online violence, it can be applied to cases like cyber harassment. The **General Data Protection Regulation (Regulation (EU) 2016/679)** offers protection against the non-consensual sharing of intimate content and enforces penalties for data misuse, while the **Directive on E-commerce (Directive 2000/31/EC)** holds online platforms accountable for illegal content, including cyber harassment. The **Audiovisual Media Services Directive (Directive 2010/13/EU)** governs audiovisual content and media platforms but does not directly address CVAWG. Additionally, the **Directive on Preventing and Combating Trafficking in Human Beings (Directive 2011/36/EU)** combats human trafficking, a growing concern in cases of online exploitation. At the international level, the **Istanbul Convention** provides comprehensive measures for preventing and combating violence against women, applicable to digital spaces, while the **Budapest Convention on Cybercrime** addresses crimes committed through the internet, and the **Lanzarote Convention** focuses on the protection of children from online sexual exploitation. Furthermore, the new **EU Directive 1385/2024** specifically criminalising cyber-violence, non-consensual sharing of intimate images, cyber harassment, cyber stalking and incitement to violence, underscoring the need for harmonised national legislation and victim protection across the EU.

Despite increasing awareness of the harmful effects of cyber violence against women and girls (CVAWG) and the development of various laws, significant gaps remain in existing legal frameworks. Many countries still lack comprehensive legislation that specifically targets cyber violence, resulting in fragmented protection and limited justice for victims. Traditional laws often prioritise offline violence and fail to address the unique characteristics of online abuse, such as anonymity, virality, and digital impersonation. Outdated legal definitions and a lack of digital-specific statutes mean that many forms of cyber violence go unrecognized or inadequately prosecuted. While international frameworks like CEDAW and the Istanbul Convention offer valuable guidance, national implementation remains weak- particularly concerning online violence- leading to a disconnect between global commitments and domestic enforcement. In this context, the recent adoption of the EU Directive on combating violence against women and domestic violence (EU Directive 1385/2024) represents a critical step forward. The Directive introduces clear obligations for EU Member States to criminalise cyber violence forms such as cyberstalking, non-consensual sharing of intimate images, cyber harassment, and incitement to violence, establishing minimum standards for victim protection and support. Although its scope is limited to EU countries, it provides a progressive legal model that could inspire

broader international reform. However, cross-border jurisdictional issues and uneven enforcement by digital platforms still complicate accountability, as perpetrators exploit legal loopholes and inconsistent standards across regions. The absence of a legally binding global agreement specifically addressing digital gender-based violence only deepens these challenges (Karagianni, 2025).

One of the most important contributions of the Directive is its emphasis on victim protection. It mandates that Member States implement comprehensive support services for victims of tech-facilitated violence, including the provision of legal aid, psychological support, and emergency assistance. The directive also outlines measures to ensure that victims' privacy and anonymity are safeguarded during legal proceedings, and it requires the creation of accessible and effective reporting mechanisms for online abuse.

Additionally, the Directive seeks to hold digital platforms and online service providers accountable by imposing stricter obligations to prevent, detect, and remove harmful content related to violence against women. Platforms are required to cooperate with law enforcement and provide transparency regarding how they handle complaints and take down illegal content. This provision aims to address the significant gap in current regulations where digital platforms often fail to act promptly or adequately to prevent online abuse, leaving victims vulnerable and without recourse.

The Directive also encourages cross-border cooperation within the EU, ensuring that tech-facilitated violence is addressed consistently across Member States. This is especially crucial given the transnational nature of digital violence, where perpetrators can exploit jurisdictional differences to evade justice. By setting minimum standards for legislation and enforcement, the EU Directive provides a unified framework that strengthens the legal response to online gender-based violence and serves as a model for broader international efforts to combat cyber violence against women and girls (Karagianni, 2024).

## 5 IDENTIFICATION OF THE LEGAL GAPS

A comparative study (Araújo et al., 2022) further highlights inconsistencies among internet service providers in managing harmful content and the general absence of legal obligations for digital platforms to respond adequately to online abuse. Law enforcement agencies also face challenges due to limited technical expertise, procedural inconsistencies, and the lack of specialized cybercrime units (Iqbal & Cyprien, 2021), all of which hinder effective prosecution. Victims often remain unsupported due to poor reporting mechanisms, lack of anonymity safeguards, and a failure to prioritise victim-centric services (Mas'udah et al., 2024; Krylova,

2022). Current legal responses also overly emphasise punitive measures while neglecting educational and preventative approaches needed to dismantle structural gender biases that fuel online abuse. These collective gaps underscore the urgent need for harmonised, gender-specific, and digitally aware legislation -both nationally and internationally- alongside coordinated enforcement and proactive support systems to adequately protect women and girls in online spaces.

The inconsistency in terminology used across legislation and policy reports regarding CVAWG presents a significant challenge in effectively addressing and combating these abuses, leading to confusion in both legal interpretations and enforcement strategies. For instance, cyber harassment and image-based sexual abuse (IBSA), commonly known as non-consensual sharing of intimate images, are distinct yet interrelated forms of tech-facilitated violence that target individuals through digital platforms. Cyber harassment encompasses a broad spectrum of abusive behaviors intended to cause distress, harm, or intimidation through online channels. This includes actions such as cyberstalking, where perpetrators persistently track and threaten victims, involving repeated verbal abuse or offensive comments, and trolling, which aims to provoke and upset individuals or communities. The focus of cyber harassment lies in ongoing psychological harm through repeated actions, often without the victim's physical safety being directly threatened, like in the case of cyber flashing. In contrast, IBSA specifically involves the non-consensual sharing, distribution, or threat of distribution of sexually explicit images or videos, often with the intent to humiliate or coerce the victim. This form of abuse, also known as "revenge porn", can include sextortion, where perpetrators blackmail victims into complying with demands by threatening to release intimate images. The primary harm in IBSA is a violation of personality and privacy rights (including consent) and bodily autonomy, with significant psychological, emotional, financial and reputational consequences for the victim (Karagianni, 2025). The key distinction between the two lies in the nature of the violence: cyber harassment focuses on emotional or psychological harm through repeated online interactions, while IBSA centers on the abuse through unauthorised dissemination of intimate content, often for sexual exploitation or humiliation. Both forms of violence require distinct legal frameworks, with cyber harassment often falling under laws related to stalking or online bullying, and IBSA necessitating legal protections against non-consensual AI-generation of sexual content, privacy violations, and digital impersonation (Karagianni, 2025).

Another issue encountered in practice is the fact that national legislations do not contain provisions for the prevention of the CVAWG phenomenon. A typical example is Greece, which very recently, with the passage of Law 5172/2025 "Tackling new forms of violence against women - Incorporation of Directive (EU)

2024/1385 - Additional regulations to the law on domestic violence - Reorganization of forensic services - Strengthening the operation of Eurojust to combat crime - Measures within the competence of ordinary administrative courts and other regulations" (Government Gazette A/10/29-1-2025), incorporated into its national legal system certain of the regulations of Directive (EU) 1385/2024 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 14 May 2024, on combating violence against women and domestic violence. Therefore, it is extremely positive that provisions have been made for Cyberstalking, doxxing or Insulting of sexual dignity via the Internet. In addition, the way to submit a complaint of violence against women or intimate partner violence has been improved: *The complaint can also be submitted verbally via telephone or other voice message systems or via an electronic platform, accessible to people with disabilities, to the competent service of the Hellenic Police (EL.AS.). In any case, the complainant has the right to receive a copy of his complaint, the provision of appropriate and age-appropriate assistance, including the necessary language assistance, which includes the free translation of the documentary evidence of his complaint and any appropriate means of submitting evidence. Subsequently, the competent service of the EL.AS. proceeds to immediately investigate the content of the report, and to inform and submit the pre-investigation material to the competent prosecutor after the completion of the ex officio preliminary investigation.*

while measures were also regulated for the removal of certain online material: *With a fully and specifically justified order of the prosecutor of first instance, the removal of content that falls under specific criminal acts by the website administrator or the hosting provider may be ordered. After the notification of the order, the recipients must comply within 24 hours.*

However, a number of important articles of the Directive were not incorporated into the law: Article 20 on the protection of the victim's private life, the articles concerning the need for special support for victims of sexual violence (Article 26), female genital mutilation (Article 27), sexual harassment at work (Article 28), as well as Article 33 on targeted support for victims with intersectional needs, such as women with disabilities, undocumented migrants, applicants for international protection, low-income women, prisoners, lesbian/bisexual/trans women and intersex people, elderly or women, etc. who should receive special protection and support.

Also not included are a series of articles on prevention and early intervention, such as for example article 35 concerning special measures for the prevention of rape

and the promotion of the central role of consent in sexual relations and article 36 on the training and information of professionals, etc.

On the contrary, the law utilizes criminal repression and stricter penalties as the main, if not exclusive, way to protect victims of gender-based violence despite the fact that, as has been demonstrated by valid criminological research, official statistics and modern institutional trends in anti-crime policy that emphasize the preventive nature of measures to address gender-based violence, it cannot act as a deterrent for perpetrators and as a protector for victims.

At the same time, the criminalization of femicide is omitted, once again, while in the Directive under incorporation, femicide refers to crimes that fall within the definition of violence against women (preamble, point 9) and there is a special mention of the need to support child victims of femicide (preamble, point 69).

The example of Greece is therefore characteristically indicative of the legal gaps that lead survivors of gender-based violence to a dead end, abandon victims without care and fail to provide appropriate information and awareness, with the aim of preventing violence.

## 6 POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS

To avoid all of the above, namely the cultivation of a sense of helplessness, the creation of uneducated people who act violently throughout their lives, it is necessary for societies to invest in the following basic pillars:

### **a. education/continuous information**

which should start from school, that is, concern young people, concern professionals who come into contact with young people, but also those who do not come into contact with young people, but work for law enforcement authorities,

education/information should be continuous, using art, science, culture and sports as a means in order to become more effective,

the goal should be prevention, which is achieved by informing and raising awareness among young people, among whom are tomorrow's perpetrators, the protection of victims, which is achieved by informing and raising awareness among professionals, but also the protection of potential victims with knowledge to deal with any incidents of violence they may encounter

### **b. immediate and effective protection of CVAWG survivors**

so that state structures, namely law enforcement authorities and structures for the protection of survivors of online gender-based violence, are able to support victims of CVAWG without delay, holistically and effectively. This will certainly be

strengthened by the continuous information of professionals, as mentioned above, but it is still important to set as a priority for the state itself the assurance of immediate and effective protection of survivors, by allocating funds, so that support structures are sufficient, free of charge and accessible to all, for foreigners, for disabled people, for members of the LGBTQI community.

### **c. restrictions on the internet and social media**

it is necessary for the internet and social media to be controlled by the authorities protecting citizens, that is, to be spaces in which it is possible to impose order and law.

In other words, the law should be strict and specific with the behavior of citizens on the internet, but also with the companies that provide services on the internet, so as not to create a sense of impunity. It is a fact that online gender violence is a very modern phenomenon, but precisely because it can become very harmful, the law should adapt immediately to the new data and help create a culture capable of creating conditions for safety on the internet.

## **7 CONCLUDING REMARKS**

### **7.1. Prevalence of CVAWG (Cyber Violence Against Women and Girls)**

- **High prevalence** across all countries: Ukraine (90.6%) and Lithuania (82.9%) reported the highest recognition of CVAWG, compared to Cyprus (61.2%) and Greece (72.4%).
- This suggests varying levels of digital safety awareness, cultural openness to recognising cyber violence, and/or actual exposure.

### **7.2. Age Distribution**

- The **18–25** and **26–35** age groups dominate across countries, reflecting the active internet user base and likely exposure to online risks.
- Ukraine skews younger (81.3% aged 18–25), while Greece and Lithuania have a majority aged 26–35 (81.7% and 77.6% respectively).

### **7.3. Education Level**

- Most respondents have **secondary education or higher**, particularly Bachelor's or Master's degrees.
- Greece stands out with over half (52.9%) holding a Master's degree, while Lithuania has more respondents with only secondary education (51.3%).

### **7.4. Employment Status**

- **Private sector employment** is dominant in Cyprus and Greece (~43-44%), while **students** make up a large portion in Ukraine (college + university students = ~59.4%).
- **Unemployment** is notably high in Cyprus (22.6%) and Lithuania (15.8%).

## 7.5. Income Levels

- A majority earn **below €6,000 annually**, particularly in Ukraine (75%) and Lithuania (50.7%).
- Cyprus has a more balanced income distribution, including more higher-income brackets (>€15,500).

## 7.6. Internet & Social Media Access

- **Daily internet and social media use** is almost universal, with most using mobile phones.
- Lithuania has the highest daily internet (86.8%) and social media access (85.5%), suggesting high exposure and potential vulnerability.
- Home Wi-Fi access is most common, but Slovakia stands out for also accessing Wi-Fi in schools (12.2%).

## 7.7. Exposure to Online Violence

- **Hate speech, cyber stalking, and cyber harassment** are the most prevalent forms.
- Ukraine reports the highest exposure across most categories, including hate speech (25%) and doxxing (19.8%).
- **NCIIA** (non-consensual intimate image abuse) is reported significantly in Ukraine (15.6%), while nearly negligible elsewhere.

## 7.8. Emotional Impact

- Feelings of **emotional harm, fear, and embarrassment** are common.
- Greece stands out: 55.6% felt unsafe, but only 19.6% reported emotional harm—possibly reflecting stigma or emotional suppression.
- Lithuania reports the lowest emotional harm (12%).

## 7.9. Actions Taken

- **Blocking perpetrators** is the most common response, especially in Lithuania (76%).
- **Reporting** to platforms is low in most cases, suggesting trust issues or inefficiencies.
- Many respondents in Ukraine and Slovakia now **think twice before posting**, reflecting long-term behavioral change.

## 7.10. Reporting and Barriers

- Most incidents are **not reported**, particularly in Lithuania (88%) and Slovakia (63.2%).
- Key barriers include:
  - **Belief that it won't be taken seriously** (up to 90% in Greece),
  - **Lack of knowledge where to report**, and
  - **Fear of retaliation** (especially in Cyprus).

## 7.11. Support Systems

- **Support-seeking is infrequent**. Over **60% in Cyprus and 96% in Lithuania** didn't seek any support.
- Ukraine stands out with **58.8% seeking support from family or friends**.

## 7.12. Perpetrators

- Perpetrators are often **unknown** or **anonymous**, especially in Ukraine and Lithuania (over 50% unknown/anonymous).
- Offline acquaintances are still significant in Cyprus and Greece (~44-50%).

## Summary of Key Insights

- **Digital gender-based violence is widespread**, especially among younger, educated women.
- Despite high exposure, **reporting rates remain low**, due to **fear, lack of trust, and unawareness**.
- Emotional consequences are **significant and persistent**.
- **Ukraine** experiences the most severe and diverse forms of CVAWG.
- **Lithuania** shows high passivity in seeking help, suggesting urgent need for outreach and awareness.

## 8 REFERENCES

ADL Center for Technology & Society. 2024. Online Hate and Harassment: The American Experience 2024  
<https://www.adl.org/sites/default/files/documents/2024-06/online-hate-and-harassment-the-american-experience-v2024.pdf>

Amnesty. (2017). 1 in 5 women experience online abuse.  
<https://www.amnesty.org.uk/press-releases/more-quarter-uk-women-experiencing-online-abuse-and-harassment-receive-threats>

Araújo, A. V. M., Bonfim, C., Bushatsky, M., & Furtado, B. (2022). Technology-facilitated sexual violence: A review of virtual violence against women. Research, Society and Development, 11(2), e57811225757.  
<https://doi.org/10.33448/rsd-v11i2.25757>

Backe, E., Lilleston, P., & McCleary-Sills, J. (2018). Networked individuals, gendered violence: A literature review of cyberviolence. *Violence and Gender*, 5. <https://doi.org/10.1089/vio.2017.0056>

Bedrosova, M. J., Dufkova, E., Machackova, H., Huang, Y., & Blaya, C. (2024). Bias-based cyberaggression related to origin, religion, sexual orientation, gender, and weight: Systematic review of young people's experiences, risk and protective factors, and the consequences. *Trauma, Violence, & Abuse*.

Chan, E. (2022). Technology-Facilitated Gender-Based Violence, Hate Speech, and Terrorism: A Risk Assessment on the Rise of the Incel Rebellion in Canada. *Violence against Women*, 29, 1687–1718 <https://doi.org/10.1177/10778012221125495>

Chauhan, S. S. (2021). Cyber violence against women and girls (CVAWG): The algorithms of the online-offline continuum of gender discrimination. *International Academy of Science, Engineering, and Technology (IASSET)*.

Chowdhury, R., & Lakshmi, D. (2023). Your opinion doesn't matter, anyway: Exposing technology-facilitated gender-based violence in an era of generative AI. *UNESCO*.

Council of Europe Working Group on Cyberbullying and Other Forms of Violence, Particularly Against Women and Children. (2019). Mapping study on cyberviolence. Council of Europe.

Council of Europe. (2001). Convention on Cybercrime (Budapest Convention). Treaty No. 185. <https://www.coe.int/en/web/conventions/full-list?module=treaty-detail&treatynum=185>

Council of Europe. (2003). Additional Protocol to the Convention on Cybercrime, concerning the criminalisation of acts of a racist and xenophobic nature committed through computer systems. Treaty No. 189. <https://www.coe.int/en/web/conventions/full-list?module=treaty-detail&treatynum=189>

Council of Europe. (2007). Council of Europe Convention on the Protection of Children against Sexual Exploitation and Sexual Abuse (Lanzarote Convention). Treaty No. 201. <https://www.coe.int/en/web/conventions/full-list?module=treaty-detail&treatynum=201>

Council of Europe. (2011). Council of Europe Convention on preventing and combating violence against women and domestic violence (Istanbul Convention). Treaty No. 210. <https://www.coe.int/en/web/conventions/full-list?module=treaty-detail&treatynum=210>

Council of Europe. Cybercrime Convention Committee (T-CY). (2017). Mapping study on cyberviolence. Strasbourg: Council of Europe. Retrieved from <https://rm.coe.int/t-cy-mapping-study-on-cyberviolence/16808b72da>

Dar, S., & Nagrath, D. (2022). Are Women a Soft Target for Cyber Crime in India. *Journal of Information Technology and Computing*. <https://doi.org/10.48185/jitc.v3i1.503>

European Institute for Gender Equality. (2022). Combating cyber violence against women and girls. Publications Office of the European Union. <https://doi.org/10.2839/182765>

European Parliament & Council of the European Union. (2000). Directive 2000/31/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of 8 June 2000 on certain legal aspects of information society services, in particular electronic commerce, in the Internal Market (Directive on electronic commerce). Official Journal of the European Communities, L178, 1–16. <https://eur-lex.europa.eu/eli/dir/2000/31/oj>

European Parliament & Council of the European Union. (2006). Directive 2006/54/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of 5 July 2006 on the implementation of the principle of equal opportunities and equal treatment of men and women in matters of employment and occupation (recast). Official Journal of the European Union, L 204, 23–36. <http://data.europa.eu/eli/dir/2006/54/oj>

European Parliament & Council of the European Union. (2010). Directive 2010/13/EU of the European Parliament and of the Council of 10 March 2010 on the coordination of certain provisions laid down by law, regulation or administrative action in Member States concerning the provision of audiovisual media services (Audiovisual Media Services Directive). Official Journal of the European Union, L95, 1–24. <https://eur-lex.europa.eu/eli/dir/2010/13/oj>

European Parliament & Council of the European Union. (2011). Directive 2011/36/EU of the European Parliament and of the Council of 5 April 2011 on preventing and combating trafficking in human beings and protecting its victims, and replacing Council Framework Decision 2002/629/JHA. Official Journal of the European Union, L101, 1–11. <https://eur-lex.europa.eu/eli/dir/2011/36/oj>

European Parliament & Council of the European Union. (2011). Directive 2011/93/EU of the European Parliament and of the Council of 13 December 2011 on combating the sexual abuse and sexual exploitation of children and child pornography, and replacing Council Framework Decision 2004/68/JHA. Official Journal of the European Union, L 335, 1–14. <http://data.europa.eu/eli/dir/2011/93/oj>

European Parliament & Council of the European Union. (2012). Directive 2012/29/EU of the European Parliament and of the Council of 25 October 2012 establishing minimum standards on the rights, support and protection of victims of crime, and replacing Council Framework Decision 2001/220/JHA. Official Journal of the European Union, L 315, 57–73. <http://data.europa.eu/eli/dir/2012/29/oj>

European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights. (2014). Violence against women: an EU-wide survey. [https://fra.europa.eu/sites/default/files/fra\\_uploads/fra-2014-vaw-survey-main-result-s-apr14\\_en.pdf](https://fra.europa.eu/sites/default/files/fra_uploads/fra-2014-vaw-survey-main-result-s-apr14_en.pdf)

European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights. (2021). CRIME, SAFETY AND VICTIMS' RIGHTS. [https://fra.europa.eu/sites/default/files/fra\\_uploads/fra-2021-crime-safety-victims-rights\\_en.pdf](https://fra.europa.eu/sites/default/files/fra_uploads/fra-2021-crime-safety-victims-rights_en.pdf)

European Union. (2016). Regulation (EU) 2016/679 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 27 April 2016 on the protection of natural persons with regard to the processing of personal data and on the free movement of such data, and repealing Directive 95/46/EC (General Data Protection Regulation). Official Journal of the European Union, L119, 1–88. <https://eur-lex.europa.eu/eli/reg/2016/679/oj>

- Cüneş, A. (2024). As a continuity of the different forms of violence: Gender-based digital violence against women. *Sosyal Mucit Academic Review*, 5(1), 118-129. <https://doi.org/10.54733/smar.1440636>
- Henry, N., & Powell, A. (2018). Technology-facilitated sexual violence: A literature review of empirical research. *Trauma, Violence, & Abuse*, 19(2), 195–208.
- Himawati, Y., Rachim, H. A., & Taftazani, B. M. (2024). Women victims of gender-based cyber violence from the perspective of person in environment. *Marwah: Journal Perempuan, Agama dan Gender*. Retrieved from <https://ejournal.uin-suska.ac.id/index.php/marwah/article/view/21313>
- IASET. (2021). Cyber violence against women and girls (CVAWG): The algorithms of the online-offline continuum of gender discrimination. <https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.3953292>
- Iqbal, M., & Cyprien, G. (2021). The Urgency of Regulation in the Case of Online Gender-Based Violence in Indonesia. *Sawwa: Jurnal Studi Gender*, 16(2), 173-190. doi: <https://doi.org/10.21580/sa.v16i2.8132>
- Krylova, S., Malynovska, T., Bidzilya, Y., Barchan, O., & Hetsko, H. (2022). Social Networks as a Means of Combating Gender-Based Violence. *Cuestiones Políticas*. <https://doi.org/10.46398/cuestpol.4072.09>.
- Karagianni, A. (2025). *Shadows of Selfies: How Generative AI Fuels GBV- An Analysis of Non-Consensual Sexualised Deepfakes Through Abolitionism and Intersectionality*. IFIP Advances in Information and Communication Technology 2024. Springer Publication.
- Lomba, N., Navarra, C., & Fernandes, M. (2021). *Combating gender-based violence: Cyber violence – European added value assessment*. European Parliamentary Research Service, European Union.
- Makamara, I. (2022). The effects of social media on girls: keeping children safe, preventing abuse and cyber-bullying, and mental health issues. <https://doi.org/10.1093/bjc/azw073>
- Malanga, D. (2020). Tackling Gender-Based Cyber Violence against Women and Girls in Malawi Amidst the COVID-19 Pandemic. *SSRN Electronic Journal*. <https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.3926493>
- Mas'udah, Siti; et al. (2024). Gender-Based Cyber Violence: Forms, Impacts, and Strategies to Protect Women Victims. *Journal of International Women's Studies*: Vol. 26: Iss. 4, Article 5.
- Nadhiroh, A. (2023). Multi-Dimensional Impact of Cyber Gender-Based Violence: Examining Physical, Mental, Social, Cultural, and Economic Consequences. *Gaceta Médica de Caracas*.
- Rosalili, Wan. (2018). The Scent Of A Woman: Governing The Gendered Crime Of Cyber Stalking. 513-522. 10.15405/epsbs.2018.12.03.50.
- Sheikh, S., & Rogers, A. (2023). Digital violence terminology: Challenges and recommendations. *Cyberpsychology, Behavior, and Social Networking*, 26(2), 95-102.
- Suarez Estrada, M. (2021). Feminist struggles against criminalization of digital violence: Lessons for Internet governance from the global south. *Policy & Internet*. <https://doi.org/10.1002/poi3.277>

The Regulatory Review. (2024). BRIEFING PAPER: DEEPFAKE IMAGE-BASED SEXUAL ABUSE, TECH-FACILITATED SEXUAL EXPLOITATION AND THE LAW

UN Women. (2023). Technology-facilitated violence against women: Taking stock of evidence and data collection. UN Women and World Health Organization. Retrieved from <https://www.unwomen.org/sites/default/files/2023-04/Technology-facilitated-violence-against-women-Taking-stock-of-evidence-and-data-collection-en.pdf>

United Nations Development Programme. (2024). Analysis of the legislation related to technology-facilitated gender-based violence.

Women and Equalities Committee. (2025). Tackling non-consensual intimate image abuse. Fourth Report of Session 2024–25. <https://committees.parliament.uk/publications/46899/documents/241995/default/>

Yessi Olivia, et al. (2024). The Critical Role of School Environment in Preventing Online Gender-Based Violence. 2nd International Conference on Gender, Culture and Society, KnE Social.