

Counting on change

A guide to **prevention** **monitoring**

A guide for policy-makers, researchers, and advocates on measuring population-level progress towards the prevention of violence against women and their children in Australia.

ANROWS

AUSTRALIA'S NATIONAL RESEARCH
ORGANISATION FOR WOMEN'S SAFETY
to Reduce Violence against Women & their Children

Our
WATCH
End violence against
Women And Their Children

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Acknowledgement of Country: Our Watch acknowledges the Traditional Owners of the land across Australia on which we work and live. We pay our respects to Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Elders past, present, and future, and we value Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander histories, cultures, and knowledge.

Counting on change:

A guide to prevention monitoring

A guide for policy-makers, researchers and advocates on measuring population-level progress towards the prevention of violence against women and their children in Australia

Why we need to ‘count the change’

Over recent decades, Commonwealth and state/territory governments, nongovernment organisations and others have invested in policies, initiatives, and campaigns to prevent violence against women and their children in Australia. There is a strong evidence base around what works to prevent violence against women, drawn from local and international research. Evaluation of prevention initiatives continues to build on this evidence base, and we have seen positive change among those reached by prevention programs.

What’s missing is a picture of change at the national or whole-of-population level. A companion piece to *Change the story: a shared framework for the primary prevention of violence*, *Counting on change* provides guidance to policy makers and researchers on how to comprehensively track short, medium, and long-term progress toward prevention at the population-level.

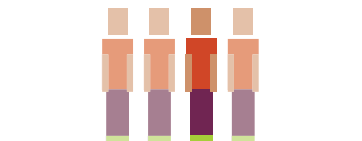
Counting on change is a world-first in identifying indicators of change for the **drivers** and **reinforcing factors** of violence against women, and advising on available data sets and processes for gathering this information into a ‘picture of progress’ which will tell us whether Australia is headed in the right direction overall.

Change the story: a shared framework for the primary prevention of violence

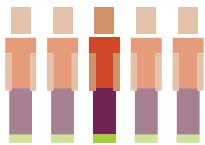


Launched in November 2015, *Change the story* is Australia’s shared framework for the primary prevention of violence against women and their children. It draws on robust international evidence to identify the core elements required in a strategic, collaborative, and consistent national approach to preventing such violence. *Change the story* reinforces the direction outlined in the *National Plan to Reduce Violence against Women and their Children 2010–2022*, and seeks to consolidate and strengthen work already occurring around the country. All Australian jurisdictions have committed to implementing *Change the story*, as part of the National Plan’s Third Action Plan.

KEY STATISTICS ON VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN IN AUSTRALIA



1 in 4 women has experienced intimate partner violence since age 15



1 in 5 women has experienced sexual violence since age 15



1 in 2 women has experienced sexual harassment during their lifetime

The expected process of change: progress in prevention of violence against women in Australia

Our goal is the elimination of violence against women and their children, as a human rights abuse with devastating individual and social consequences.

Change the story made clear that to reduce and ultimately end such violence, we need to address its underlying drivers. To do this effectively we need to use strategies that have been shown to work, ultimately on a scale that will create impact for the whole of Australia.

The story of change therefore begins with the testing, implementation and scale-up of such strategies, through quality prevention programming that is supported by an appropriate

‘infrastructure’ (such as an expert workforce and coordination mechanisms). This crucial support work is represented by the grey line in the figure below.

This work in turn will begin to increase gender equality, and promote equal and respectful relationships, represented by the gradual upward trajectory of the blue line.

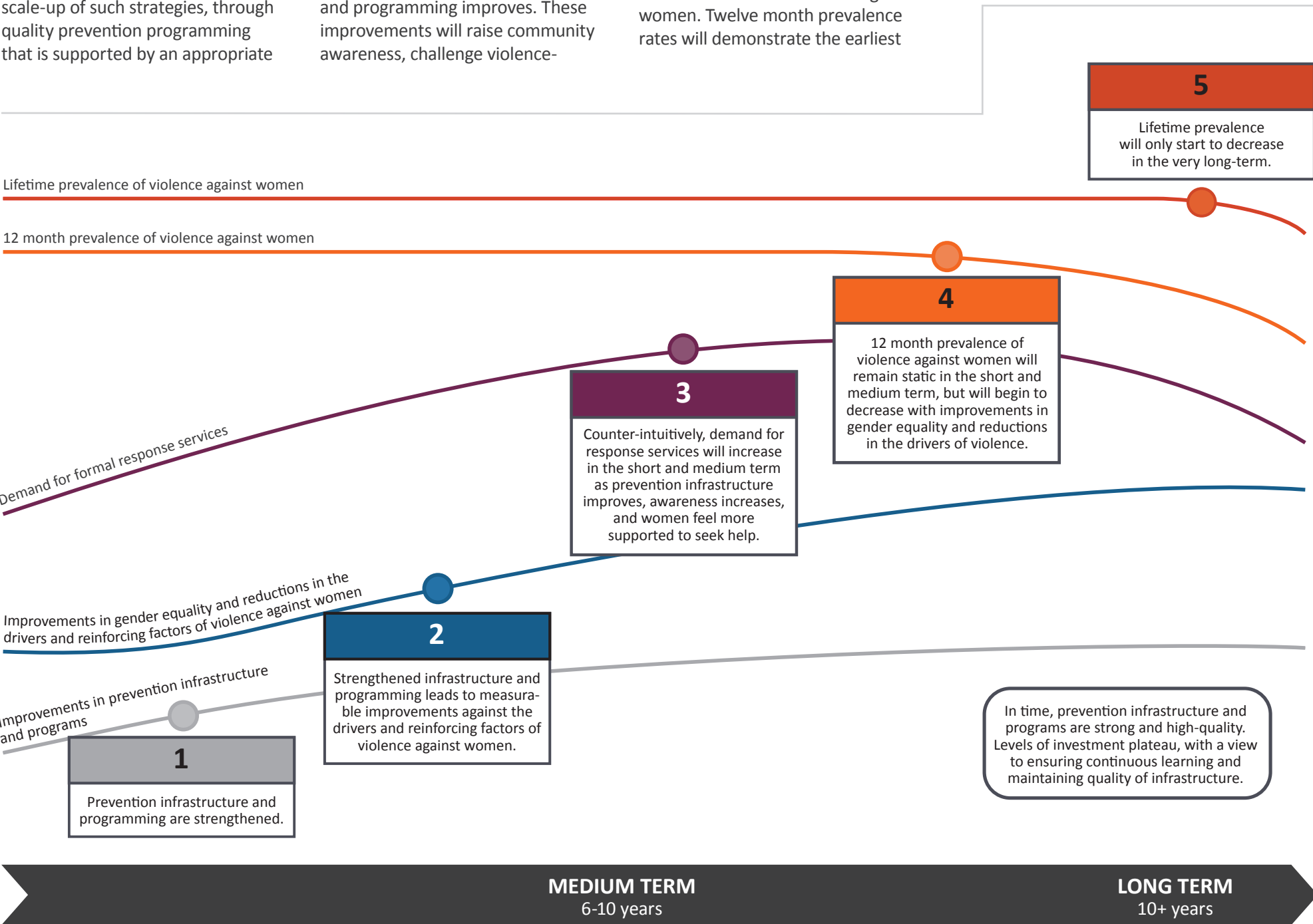
While it may seem counter-intuitive, demand for formal response services (represented by the purple line) is expected to increase in the medium-term as prevention infrastructure and programming improves. These improvements will raise community awareness, challenge violence-

condoning attitudes and encourage reporting of incidents. As a result, women experiencing violence will be more likely to seek help from formal services.

But as more people stand up against violence and the behaviours and attitudes that support it, as women have greater independence and decision-making power, as gender roles are less rigidly enforced, and as more people have the skills and desire to create positive, equal and respectful relationships, then – and only then – will we start to see a decrease in rates of violence against women. Twelve month prevalence rates will demonstrate the earliest

positive impacts (shown in orange below).

Lifetime prevalence rates (red) will take much longer to improve, because incidents experienced earlier in people’s lives will continue to be included in this measure, long after any prevention strategies have been introduced. However, as subsequent generations of girls grow up in an Australia where gender equality, respect and non-violence is the norm, then lifetime prevalence rates will start to fall.



An intersectional approach to measuring prevention

The gendered drivers, and reinforcing factors, of violence against women should always be considered together with other forms of social, political and economic discrimination and inequality (such as racism or ableism), as these influence and intersect with gender inequality. This is called an intersectional approach, and needs to inform the way we track population-level progress toward prevention.

While intersectional methodologies for collecting and analysing population data are still evolving, *Counting on change* has identified ways in which a process of tracking prevention progress at a population-level can be informed by an intersectional approach:

1. Establish an Intersectionality Advisory Group
2. Seek out population group disaggregated data sets and analyse and report on these in a comprehensive way
3. Highlight gaps in data on intersectionality
4. Ask the tough ‘intersectionality questions.’ For example: Who is missing from this data? Is this statistic accurate for *all* women?

Key elements of prevention monitoring

Counting on change outlines the key elements needed to provide a more comprehensive picture of the status of the drivers and reinforcing factors of violence against women, at a national and state/territory level. The four elements below are needed to effectively collect data, report on findings, and reduce gaps in the current body of knowledge:

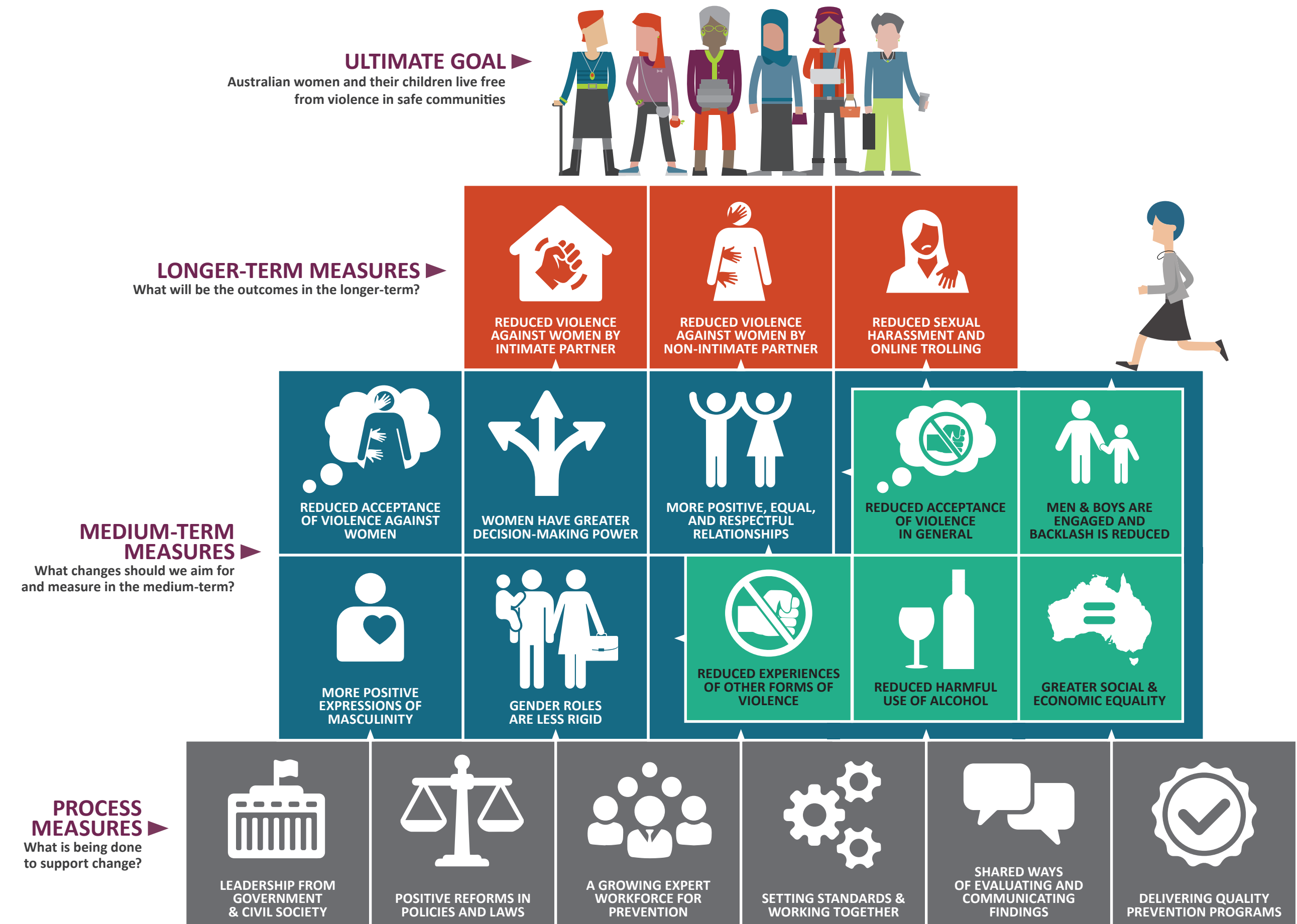
1. A coordination mechanism
2. A process for data collection and analysis
3. A process for reporting and communicating the findings
4. A research strategy to reduce data gaps.

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Measuring population-level progress towards the prevention of violence against women



Indicators and data sources

Counting on change sets out a total of 5 long-term indicators, 33 medium-term indicators, and 43 suggested measures for prevention infrastructure and programs. Select examples of indicators and suggested measures identified in the Guide are outlined below. For a full list of the proposed indicators and suggested measures, please visit the Our Watch website www.ourwatch.org.au for a copy of *Counting on change*.

PREVALENCE OF VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN (5 INDICATORS IN TOTAL)		LONG TERM
	INDICATOR: Proportion of women subjected to physical, sexual or psychological violence, by a current or former intimate partner in the last 12 months. SOURCE: Personal Safety Survey.	
	INDICATOR: Proportion of women subjected to sexual violence, by persons partner other than an intimate partner in their lifetime. SOURCE: Personal Safety Survey.	
DRIVERS OF VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN (23 INDICATORS IN TOTAL)		MEDIUM TERM
	INDICATOR: Community attitudes towards violence against women. SOURCE: National Community Attitudes Survey (NCAS).	
	INDICATOR: Proportion of time women spend in unpaid care work compared to men. SOURCE: Household Income and Labour Dynamics Australia.	
REINFORCING FACTORS OF VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN (10 INDICATORS IN TOTAL)		PROCESS MEASURES
	INDICATOR: Percentage of women who experienced violence reporting that children heard or saw the violence. SOURCE: Personal Safety Survey.	
	INDICATOR: Percentage of population who express denial of continued gender inequality and hostility towards women. SOURCE: National Community Attitudes Survey (NCAS).	
PREVENTION INFRASTRUCTURE AND PROGRAMS (43 SUGGESTED MEASURES)		
	POSSIBLE MEASURE: An increasing number of university/TAFE courses include preservice qualification standards and competencies on prevention.	
	POSSIBLE MEASURE: Governments (federal, state/territory, and local) have a dedicated policy for primary prevention, aligned with <i>Change the story</i> .	

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Section 1: Introduction

Change the story: A shared framework for the primary prevention of violence against women

Launched in November 2015, *Change the story* is Australia's framework for the primary prevention of violence against women and their children. It draws on robust international evidence to identify the core elements required in a strategic, collaborative, and consistent national approach to preventing violence against women and their children. *Change the story* reinforces the direction outlined in the *National Plan to Reduce Violence against Women and their Children 2010–2022* (the National Plan), and seeks to consolidate and strengthen work already occurring around the country. All Australian jurisdictions have committed to implementing *Change the story*, as part of the National Plan's Third Action Plan.

Change the story outlines how violence against women and their children¹ is a prevalent, serious, and preventable abuse of human rights. In Australia, an average of one woman a week is killed by a partner or former partner.² Domestic or family violence against women is the single largest driver of homelessness for women,³ a common factor in child protection notifications,⁴ and results in a police call-out on average once every two minutes across the country.⁵ Violence against women is not limited to the home or intimate relationships. Every year in Australia, over 300,000 women experience violence from someone other than a partner.⁶

Violence is experienced differently by different women. Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander women experience both far higher rates and more severe forms of violence compared to other women. Young women (18 to 24 years) experience significantly higher rates of sexual violence than women in older age groups. There is growing evidence that women with disabilities are also more likely to experience violence.⁷

In addition to those women who experience it directly, the high prevalence of violence against women in Australia affects *all* women – the threat of violence limits many women's activities in one way or another, which reduces their participation in social, civil and economic life.⁸

There are many reasons to prevent violence against women and their children. It takes a profound and long-term toll on women and children's health and wellbeing, on families and communities, and on society as a whole. The combined social, health and economic costs of violence against women and their children drained the Australian economy of between \$22 billion and \$26 billion in 2015-16, and this cost is rising.⁹ Above all, violence against women is a fundamental violation of human rights, and one that we have an obligation to prevent under international law.¹⁰

Violence against women and their children is not inevitable, and it can be prevented. *Change the story* presents a strong body of research that helps better understand the complex drivers of violence against women, and a growing body of practice and evaluation that tells us how to target these drivers and prevent future violence.¹¹

Gender and violence

While all violence is unacceptable, regardless of the sex of the victim or perpetrator, there are distinct differences in the ways in which men and women perpetrate and experience violence.

Most men are not violent: they are loving, caring and respectful partners, brothers, fathers, friends and colleagues. Nevertheless, 95 per cent of all victims of violence – whether women or men – report experiencing at least one incident of violence by a male perpetrator (compared to 26 per cent of victims reporting experiencing at least one incident of violence by a female perpetrator).¹²

Prevalence statistics alone do not tell the full story – the severity and impacts of violence also vary along gendered lines. Women are five times more likely than men to require medical attention or hospitalisation as a result of intimate partner violence, and are five times more likely to report fearing for their lives.¹³

Men are more likely to experience violence by other men in public places, while women are more likely to experience violence from men they know, often in the home.¹⁴ The overwhelming majority of acts of rape and sexual assault are perpetrated by men against women,¹⁵ and women are at least three times more likely than men to experience violence from an intimate partner.¹⁶

Regardless of gender, violence against anyone is unacceptable. But to prevent violence against women – and indeed other forms of violence – our understanding must account for these gendered patterns, particularly the fact that violence is overwhelmingly perpetrated by men.

KEY TERMS

Domestic violence, family violence and violence against women are often used interchangeably or together when referring to instances of violence or abuse against women and their children. They are however, by definition, different terms and refer to separate types of violence. For the purposes of consistency, this Guide uses the terms ‘violence against women’ as a general term, and ‘intimate partner violence’ and ‘non-partner sexual assault’ to describe specific types of violence against women.

A full glossary of terms is available at the end of the Guide.

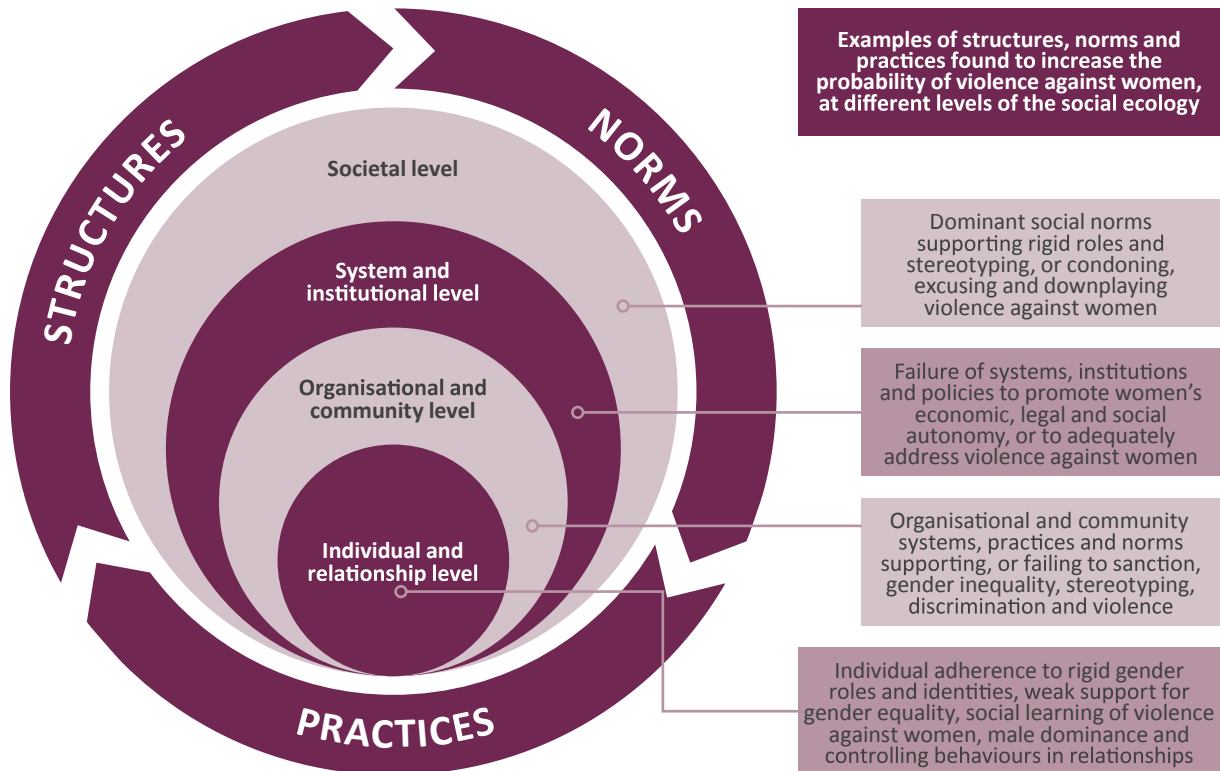
Socio-ecological model for understanding violence against women

Violence against women is a complex issue. There is no single cause and no single solution; multiple interrelated factors, operating at different levels of society, play a role.

International research shows that factors associated with higher levels of violence against women include the ideas, values or beliefs that are common or dominant in a society or community – called social or cultural **norms**. Norms are reflected in our institutional or community **practices** or behaviours, and are supported by social **structures**, both formal (such as legislation) and informal (such as hierarchies within a family or community).¹⁷

This ‘socio-ecological’ model, described below, is a useful way of understanding the structures, norms and practices that drive violence against women at these different levels. The dynamic interrelations between relevant factors located at the individual, organisational, community, systemic and social levels are represented by the concentric circles in Figure 1.

Figure 1: Socio-ecological model of violence against women. Source: Change the story



Importantly, the socio-ecological model steers the focus away from simplistic or single-factor explanations for individual men’s violence, such as those pointing solely to the psychology or mental health of the perpetrator, his life experiences (such as childhood exposure to violence), behaviour (such as alcohol use) or personal circumstances (such as unemployment). Although such individual factors can help explain why *some* men are more likely to perpetrate violence against women, they fail to explain why most men to whom they apply are *not* violent, and why other men not exposed to any of these factors *are* violent. The socio-ecological model gives us a more complex and nuanced understanding of how individual experiences, attitudes, and behaviours are shaped by other factors at the community, institutional, and societal levels.¹⁸

When we understand how the factors that drive violence against women can operate at different levels, then our efforts to prevent such violence from happening will be more effective. Importantly, we also need to measure the impact we are having at each level of the socio-ecology, if we are to understand the social transformation required to end violence against women.

Understanding the drivers and reinforcing factors of violence against women

The weight of international research on violence against women has found that factors associated with gender inequality are the most consistent predictors of such violence, and these also explain the gendered patterns found in violence perpetration.¹⁹ Gender inequality is a social condition characterised by unequal value afforded to men and women and an unequal distribution of power, resources and opportunity between them. It often results from, or has historical roots in, laws or policies formally constraining the rights and opportunities of women, and is reinforced and maintained through more informal mechanisms.

Social, economic and political conditions, as well as historical and cultural factors, all influence the way gender inequality is expressed. For example, certain countries and regions may be approaching income parity or equal participation of women and men in various occupations or public decision-making roles, but their media and popular culture may still be dominated by gender stereotypes, and domestic labour may still not be equally shared.

Further, while forms of gender inequality vary between countries and contexts, the kind of disparities described above, and the association of men with greater power and authority, is common across most societies.²⁰ In Australia the pervasiveness of these ideas is illustrated by a recent survey showing more than a quarter of Australians think men make better political leaders, and one in five think men should take control in relationships and be head of the household.²¹

Gendered drivers

There are particular expressions, or forms, of gender inequality that are most consistently and significantly associated in the research with higher levels of violence against women. These are termed the **gendered drivers** of such violence in *Change the story*:

1. Condoning of violence against women
2. Men's control of decision-making and limits to women's independence
3. Rigid gender roles and identities
4. Male peer relations that emphasise aggression and disrespect towards women.²²

The gendered drivers arise from discriminatory institutional, social and economic structures, social and cultural norms, and organisational, community, family and relationship practices that combine to create environments in which women and men are not considered equal, and where violence against women is tolerated and condoned.

However, these drivers should not be considered in isolation: other forms of systemic social, political and economic discrimination and disadvantage can influence and intersect with gender inequality, and in some cases, increase the frequency, severity and prevalence of violence against women. This means that while gender inequality may be a necessary condition for violence against women, it is not the only, or even the most prominent, factor in every context. For example, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander women who, with the men and children of their communities, experience the legacy

and contemporary manifestations of colonisation, intergenerational trauma and entrenched social and economic disadvantage, may not always place gender inequality as central to their understanding of violence against women.²³ An intersectional approach to tracking population-level progress is discussed in more detail in Section 2.

Reinforcing factors

The international research shows another group of factors, which – while not predicting or driving violence against women in isolation – appear to become significant in the context of the gendered drivers. These factors operate differently, some reinforcing the gendered drivers, and others affecting the relative influence of gender inequality in different contexts. When interacting with the gendered drivers, research shows these factors can increase the probability, frequency or severity of violence against women.²⁴

They are termed **reinforcing factors** in *Change the story*, and comprise:

1. Condoning of violence in general
2. Experience of, and exposure to, violence
3. Weakening of pro-social behaviour, especially harmful use of alcohol
4. Socio-economic inequality and discrimination
5. ‘Backlash factors’ (when male dominance, power or status is challenged).

More information on how the gendered drivers and reinforcing factors operate and interact can be found in *Change the story*, and in Section 4 of this Guide, which identifies potential indicators of change against each factor.

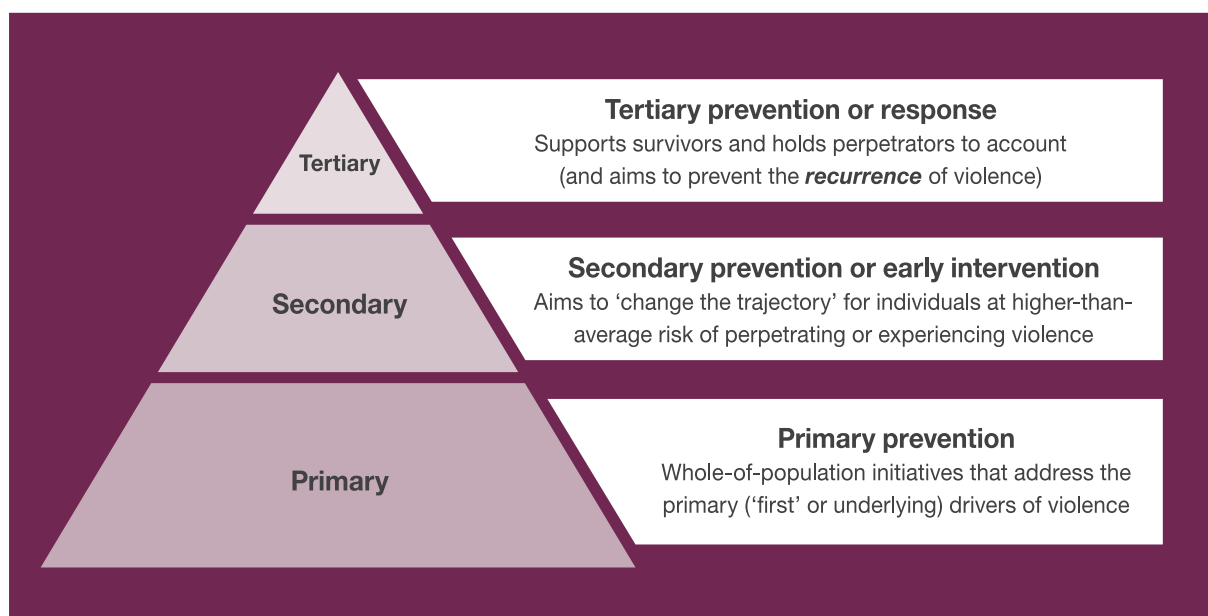
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Section 2: About this guide

Purpose of the Guide: identifying primary prevention indicators

Change the story and this Guide, *Counting on change*, are about ‘primary prevention’ of violence against women and their children. Primary prevention means changing the social conditions that excuse, justify or even promote such violence – that is, addressing the gendered drivers and reinforcing factors of violence, at all levels of the social ecology. The distinction between primary prevention and other work to address violence against women is outlined in Figure 2 below.

Figure 2: The relationship between primary prevention and other work to address violence against women



A primary prevention approach works across the whole population to address the attitudes and power differentials that drive and reinforce violence against women and their children.²⁵ We know this approach can work. Evaluations of primary prevention programs show that such programs can not only change underlying beliefs and practices known to drive violence, but can also reduce future violence perpetration for participants.

In Australia, there is currently widespread community support and momentum for primary prevention of violence against women. We have a supportive, bipartisan and cross-jurisdictional policy approach in our National Plan, which has set a standard world-wide²⁶ in going beyond electoral cycles to establish a long-term and transformative vision of an Australia where all women and their children live free from violence. The target of the National Plan, set and agreed to by all Australian governments, is ‘a significant and sustained reduction in violence against women and their children during the next twelve years, from 2010 to 2022.’²⁷

The challenge is how we measure progress towards this shared national goal. One of the key challenges highlighted by *Change the story* was identifying the best way to monitor change in the primary prevention of violence against women at the population-level. While Australia measures population-level prevalence of violence against women through the Australian Bureau of Statistics’ Personal Safety Survey, *Change the story* acknowledges that it may take ten years or more of multi-pronged and sustained prevention efforts to create quantifiable change against prevalence indicators.

Further, we would not expect to see significant change against prevalence indicators until the underlying attitudes, behaviours and practices driving such high prevalence have been addressed. Prior to prevalence changes, then, we might expect to see shifts in community attitudes towards gender and violence, and these are measured through the *National Community Attitudes towards Violence Against Women Survey* (NCAS). However, while the NCAS provides us with part of the picture, we do not yet have a consistent and comprehensive approach to the measurement of population-level change against the broader drivers and reinforcing factors of violence.²⁸

Counting on change: A guide to prevention monitoring (the Guide) seeks to ‘fill in the picture’ by providing advice on how to consistently collect and report on data that will tell us, in the short to medium-term, if such factors are changing. In doing so, the Guide aims to support national measurement of progress towards the prevention of violence against women and their children, with indications of adaptability to the state/territory level, and provide funders and policy-makers with evidence-based best-practice guidance on how they can best measure population-level change. It supports data collection towards the National Plan’s ‘indicators of change’ and ‘measures of success’ which are prevention-related,²⁹ but goes further to provide a comprehensive set of 33 medium-term indicators against the drivers and reinforcing factors of violence against women (identified in *Change the story* five years after the Plan’s conception).

The primary audience of the Guide includes:

- policy makers, funders and organisations working at the national or state/territory level and at the international level;
- academics and researchers interested in how we measure progress towards the primary prevention of violence against women and their children; and
- those working to promote gender equality and end violence against women in other sectors.

Box 1: Guidance for states and territories

While the focus of the Guide is on national-level indicators and data sources, text boxes containing specific ‘Guidance for states and territories’ will appear throughout, providing advice on how states and territories can adapt processes for monitoring prevention according to their own jurisdictional needs, capacity, and resources. For example, guidance will be provided on the use of indicators and data sources; tracking measures for prevention infrastructure; issues relating to data gaps; and steps outlining the implementation of the measurement approach outlined in the Guide.

Box 2: About Counting on change – What it does and does not do

- *Counting on change: A guide to prevention monitoring* is a companion document to *Change the Story: A shared framework for the primary prevention of violence against women and their children in Australia*.
- Given the Guide has been developed to directly align with *Change the Story*, the focus of the Guide is on the **primary prevention** of violence against women.
- The focus of the Guide is on indicators that should be used to measure change against the recognised drivers and reinforcing factors of violence against women.
- This Guide does not include a comprehensive set of measures aimed at responding to violence against women *after* it has occurred, although some ‘response related’ indicators are included to the extent that they reflect social attitudes towards the issue of violence against women and are therefore relevant to a prevention agenda.
- This Guide does *not* provide a composite index for measuring violence against women. However, it does present a set of indicators that can track change over time.
- This document is *not* a monitoring and evaluation framework for individual prevention initiatives. Rather, it provides funders and policy-makers with an evidence-based, best-practice guide for how to measure **population-level** (as opposed to project-level) progress towards the elimination of violence against women. The Guide may, however, be a useful reference for policy-makers or program designers seeking to develop their own, context-specific, monitoring and evaluation frameworks.
- Monitoring population level change is only part of the measurement task. While *Counting on change* can help guide a high level assessment of change, individual programs and projects in the community should be subject to specific and comprehensive evaluations to determine their impact at the appropriate level. Please refer to Our Watch’s handbook for practitioners, *Putting the prevention of violence against women into practice: How to Change the story*, for guidance on program and project level evaluation.

Methodology for developing the Guide

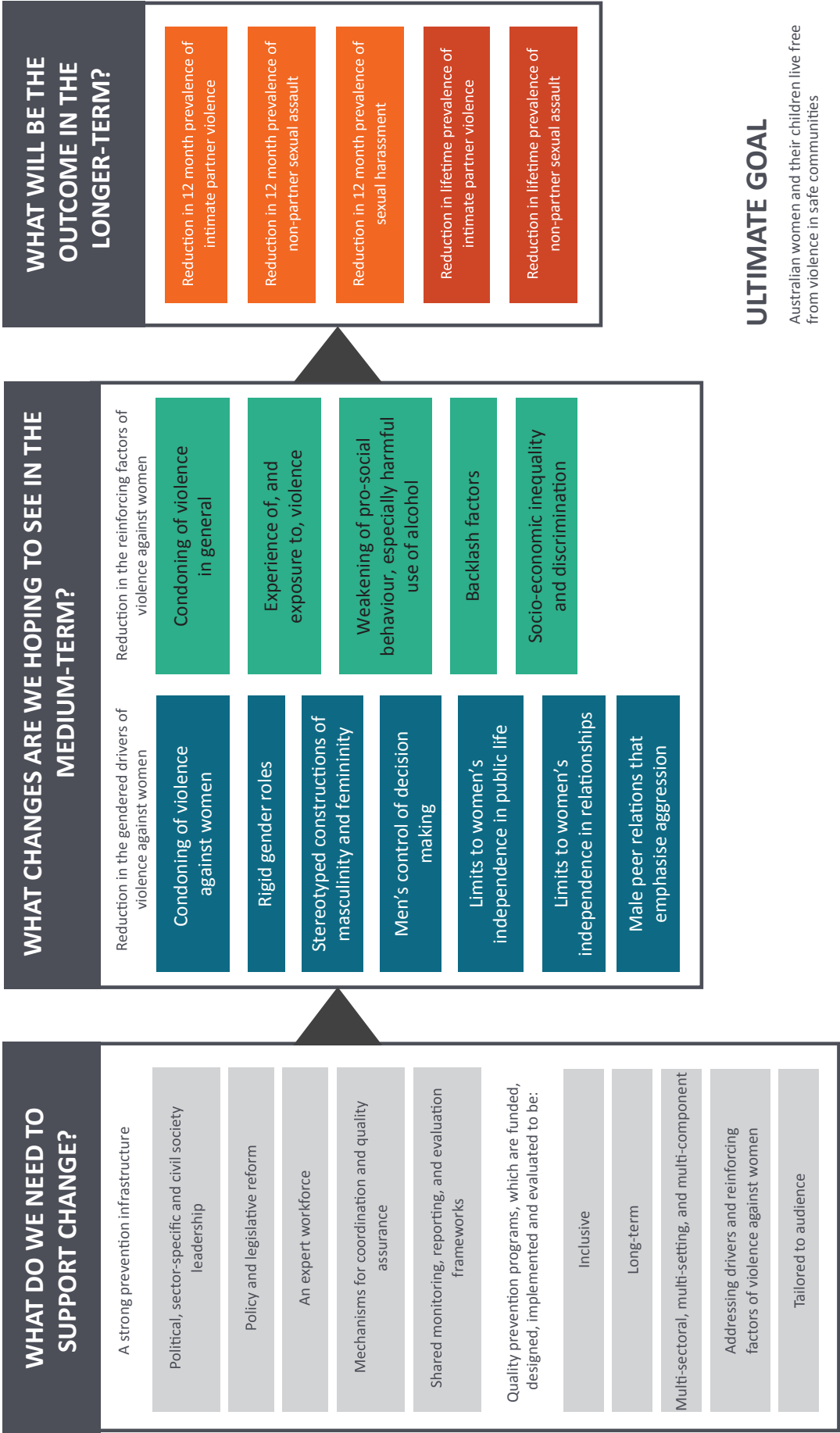
The methodology for the development of the Guide began with the development of a conceptual framework (see Figure 3), which was largely informed by the socio-ecological model and *Change the story*. This was followed by a review of existing literature, which found no country is currently implementing a comprehensive national monitoring framework for measuring population-level progress towards the prevention and ultimate elimination of violence against women. Similarly, a recent review³⁰ conducted by the University of Melbourne found no indices on family violence in Australia or globally.³¹ They identified two indices³² that had previously been developed and/or proposed internationally to analyse one aspect of family violence:

- An index for dealing with domestic violence against children and adolescents, in Brazil; and

Figure 3: Conceptual framework for Counting on change - Key elements to measure when tracking change towards elimination of violence against women

CURRENT PICTURE

- 1 in 4 Australian women have experienced physical or sexual violence by an intimate partner since age 15
- 1 in 5 Australian women have experienced sexual violence since age 15



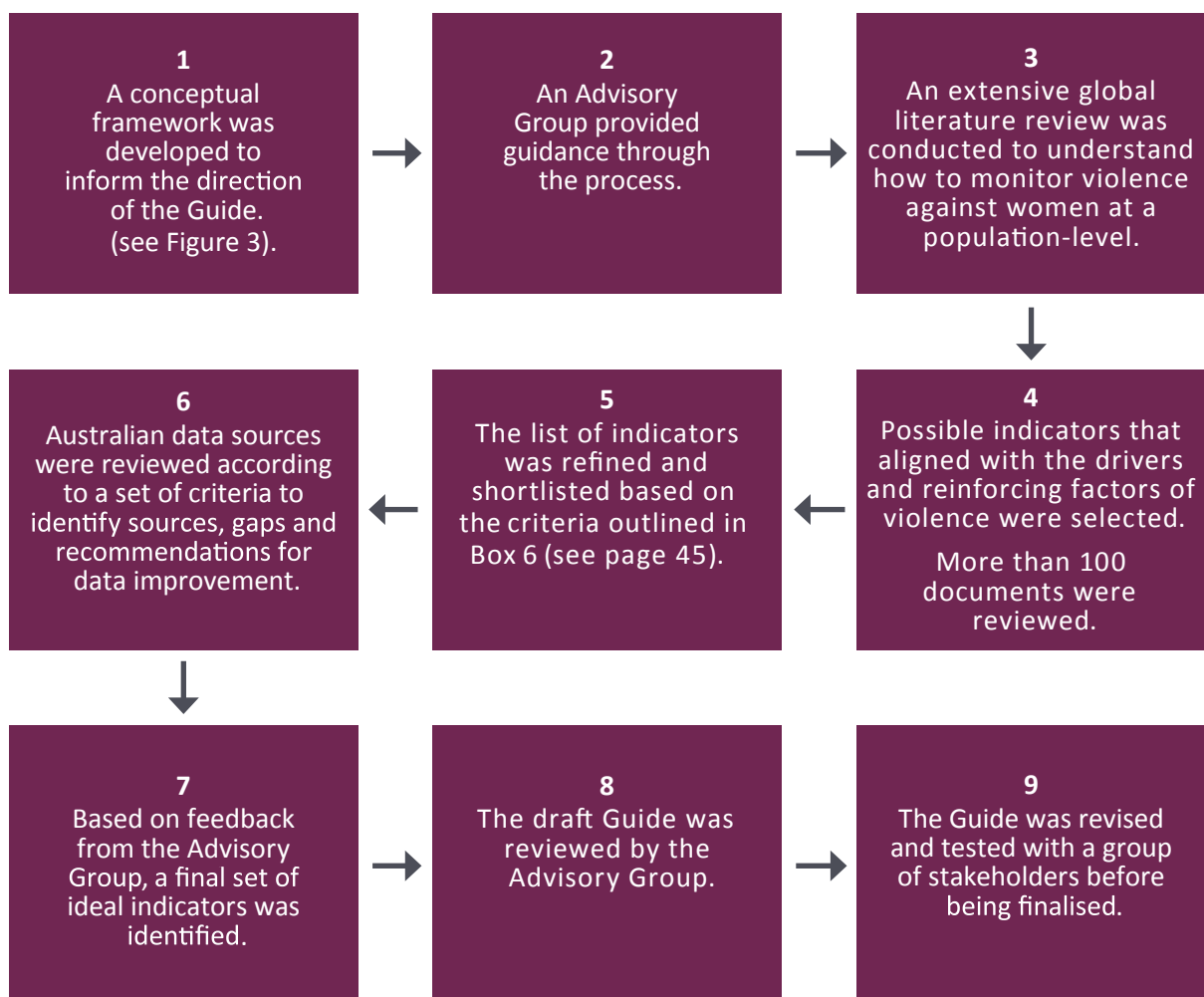
- An epidemiological index for intimate partner violence, in Spain.

Next, a review of various international and national indices, indicators and monitoring frameworks was undertaken, to identify those that could most directly measure the drivers and reinforcing factors of violence as outlined in *Change the story*. A comprehensive list of indicators was compiled based on the international literature and, following a review of existing Australian data sources, the potential list of indicators was further broken down to align with available datasets. Several relevant indicators that lacked a data source in Australia remained in the list as crucial measures of the drivers and reinforcing factors of violence against women, albeit ones for which data collection projects would need to be initiated for such measurement to take place.

An Advisory Group was convened by Our Watch to provide expert guidance to the project. The Advisory Group played a critical role in further narrowing the list of indicators for the Australian context, and provided key instruction throughout the Guide's development and on its finalisation. A penultimate version of the Guide was circulated to a diverse group of stakeholders and potential users – including jurisdictions and non-government bodies – for feedback before the Guide was refined and finalised.

Figure 4 outlines the process that was employed to develop the Guide. A list of Advisory Group members and other contributors can be found under Acknowledgements.

Figure 4: Methodology used to develop the Guide



Alignment with the Sustainable Development Goals

Australia's commitment to the elimination of violence against women and girls is part of a global commitment made through the 2016-2030 United Nations Sustainable Development Goals. The Sustainable Development Goals consist of 17 new goals and 169 targets announced by the United Nations General Assembly under a global 'plan of action for people, planet and prosperity'. The Sustainable Development Goals build on the Millennium Development Goals and seek to realise the human rights of all.

All United Nations member countries, including Australia, are required to implement, monitor and report on progress against these goals. Preparation of data for submission requires high-level political commitment, predictable and sustainable resources, and the concerted involvement of national governments and society as a whole.³³

Noting the Australian Government's future reporting obligations, many indicators presented in this Guide were developed to align as closely as possible to relevant 2016-2030 Sustainable Development Goal indicators.

Within the Sustainable Development Goals, there are specific targets on eliminating violence against women, as well as broader targets aimed at improving gender equality in various spheres and settings. Sustainable Development Goal 5, for example, specifically relates to achieving gender equality and provides both indicators and targets aimed at the elimination of violence against women and girls.

The United Nations Interagency and Expert Group on the Sustainable Development Goals have identified approximately 232 indicators on which member countries are required to monitor and report. Of these 232 Sustainable Development Goal indicators, we have identified approximately twelve which are closely aligned with the indicators independently identified in developing the Guide. An example of some of these 'overlapping' indicators can be found in the appendix.

The data collection and reporting activities undertaken to operationalise the Guide could therefore well serve the dual purpose of tracking the progress of prevention in Australia as well as helping to fulfil elements of Australia's Sustainable Development Goals reporting obligations.

An intersectional approach to measuring progress in prevention

Change the story outlines how various forms of discrimination and disadvantage impact women (and men) in many different and sometimes intersecting ways, and to varying degrees. Acknowledging that violence is experienced differently by different women means that we need to take an ‘intersectional’ approach in the way we understand, communicate, and work to prevent violence against women. This includes the way we track population-level progress toward prevention.

What is intersectionality?

Gender inequality never exists in isolation. It is always experienced and interpreted through different ‘lenses’ that make up an individual’s unique identity (for example gender, culture, class, ability or sexuality), and their experiences and interactions with societal systems. An intersectional understanding of violence against women acknowledges that while gender inequality is a necessary condition for violence against women, it is not the only or necessarily most prominent factor in every context. Further, these factors intersect in ways that are not simply ‘additive’ but are more frequently ‘the imposition of one burden interacting with pre-existing vulnerabilities to create yet another dimension of disempowerment.’³⁴

The cumulative and complex ways in which gender inequality intersects with other forms of structural discrimination, and the deeper ‘dimensions of disempowerment’ such intersections entail, can ultimately increase the risk and severity of violence for some groups of women. While gender inequality remains the focus of all prevention work, an intersectional approach considers how other forms of structural inequality and oppression, such as racism, colonialism, ethnocentrism, ableism, class privilege and heterosexism, intersect with sexism to impact different groups in different ways. An intersectional analysis also seeks to understand how these systems of oppression reinforce each other.

Finally, an intersectional approach to *preventing* violence against women requires considering how intersecting structural inequalities and systems of oppression and discrimination affect the drivers and social preconditions for violence, rather than focussing only on how they affect the experience of violence. Fundamentally, this approach calls for public policies that address the structural root causes of violence against *all* women.

‘Intersectional data collection’ – an emerging field

In recent decades, particularly in the field of women’s rights, health promotion and policy, there has been a growing call for greater attention to diversity among women.³⁵ Past (and much current) research aimed at informing gender policy has been based on the – often unrecognised – assumption that all women – regardless of age, cultural background, geographical location, socioeconomic status, religion, sexual orientation and other categories of difference – shared similar experiences, views, and priorities. Data collected about women’s experiences has not often been broken down by further demographic or identity characteristics (‘disaggregation’) and women’s health research often failed to adequately address factors arising from difference as determinants of wellbeing.³⁶ As a result, the issues and priorities of many women, especially women of minority ethnic, racial, and linguistic groups, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander women, low-income women, lesbians and transgender women, and women with disabilities, are invisible in much of our available research and data.³⁷

But, as intersectional theorists have noted, simply recognising and responding to diversity per se – in data collection or in the policy it informs – is not enough. An intersectional approach means recognising that not only do all forms of inequality need to be considered, but the way in which these inequalities interact needs to be more properly and fully conceptualised.³⁸

To date however, intersectionality scholarship, and specifically methods for developing research studies – and collecting data – from an intersectionality perspective, remains at the margins of gender research and policy.³⁹ Even self-identified intersectionality scholars are themselves acknowledging the multiple challenges surrounding the operationalisation of intersecting categories when initiating and developing research projects.⁴⁰

Translating intersectionality theory into methodological practice is challenging for a number of reasons:

- There is a disconnect between intersectionality scholarship and the conceptualisation of questions and designs for data collection⁴¹
- There is a particular challenge in applying intersectionality to empirical designs in areas dominated by quantitative research and data⁴²
- To date, little work has been done to determine whether all possible intersections might be relevant at all times, or when some of them might be most salient⁴³

and, most pertinently for the purposes of this Guide:

- An intersectional analysis requires access to pertinent information – such as data that represents multiple groups and which reflects significant variations across characteristics such as, socioeconomic status, social class, and sexual orientation – that often isn't collected.⁴⁴

While there may be multiple challenges in taking an intersectional approach to research and data collection, the development of an intersectional methodology holds the promise of opening new intellectual spaces for knowledge production⁴⁵ and has the potential to lead to both theoretical and methodological innovation in gender research and broader policy development.⁴⁶

Taking an intersectional approach to monitoring progress

The challenges outlined above illustrate the complexity of a truly intersectional approach to monitoring progress in prevention of violence against all women. First, data collected to monitor change at the 'whole population' level will, by definition, focus on broad trends and generalisable observations. Such data usually fails to describe the complex experiences and lived realities of individuals and specific population groups, unless the sample size is sufficiently large to allow for further 'granularity'. This brings us to the second challenge – disaggregation. In cases where whole population data sets are based on a sufficiently large sample sizes, further trends or generalisations can be made on the basis of geographical or identity characteristics. However, in many cases such data is not disaggregated in ways that allow for this analysis, and improving disaggregated data collection is therefore a key step towards an intersectional approach to monitoring (for further discussion see Section 5).

Finally, while resolving the above issues would give us 'data about diversity', the availability of such data is simply a prerequisite to an intersectional approach for monitoring of whole population change. That is, such data makes an intersectional analysis possible. When whole population data sets are of sufficiently large size, and when the data is disaggregated into all pertinent demographic

characteristics, we can begin the process of analysing the data in a way that doesn't simply 'add' diversity characteristics together, but looks at how they might intersect.

While the development of an intersectional methodology for research and data collection is still an evolving area, the Guide has identified some ways in which a process for tracking prevention progress at a population-level can be informed by an intersectional approach:

1. Establish an Intersectionality Advisory Group

The design and implementation of monitoring frameworks to measure population-level progress should be overseen by an Intersectionality Advisory Group. This Advisory Group will include data experts and research specialists from organisations/groups/communities including but not limited to Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander women, culturally and linguistically diverse women, lesbian, bisexual, transgender, queer, and intersex women, and women with disabilities. The composition of the Advisory Group should be reflective of the diverse experiences and perspectives of the broader community, and may also include representatives from organisations, groups and/or communities whose primary focus is to address and challenge discrimination more broadly. The establishment of an Intersectional Advisory Group will require additional time and resources but will help ensure that the design and process of data collection, data analysis, and the communication of the findings are conducted in a way which takes into consideration multiple forms of intersecting discrimination and disadvantage.

2. Seek population group disaggregated data sets and analyse/report on these in a comprehensive way

This includes investigating ways to analyse how other indicators of social inequality intersect with gender inequality indicators. It must be stressed that an intersectional analysis does not seek to simply 'add' categories to one another (e.g. gender, race, class, sexuality),⁴⁷ but instead strives to understand what is created and experienced at the intersection of two or more axes of inequality or discrimination. Collection of data capturing different identity characteristics is important to help identify nuanced distinctions on how change might be affecting, including, or bypassing certain groups.⁴⁸

3. Highlight gaps in data on intersectionality

As mentioned earlier, much of the data required for a truly intersectional analysis is not currently collected. Taking an intersectional approach to monitoring requires that we continually advocate to ensure future data collection extends to include the experiences of multiple groups and is disaggregated so we can measure variations.

4. Ask the tough 'intersectionality questions'

Throughout the design and implementation of frameworks to track progress, we must continually ask the following questions:

- a. Who is being compared to whom? Why?
- b. What issues of inequality or discrimination are being highlighted by the data collection and analysis? In addition to examinations of gender inequality, how are other forms of power and inequality being analysed?

- c. How will human commonalities and differences be recognised without resorting to essentialism, false universalism, or obliviousness to historical and contemporary patterns of inequality?⁴⁹
- d. How do we ensure we are not seeing what we expect to (or want to) see in our findings?

Ongoing debate and discussion as to how an intersectional approach can practically inform research design, evidence production, and knowledge translation is needed.⁵⁰ Based on the current literature around translating intersectional theory into methodological practice, an intersectional approach to tracking population-level progress has been outlined here, which, while we acknowledge can be further improved as the field evolves, will allow us to reveal meaningful distinctions and similarities in order to better understand progress toward prevention of violence against *all* women.⁵⁰

3

Section 3: The process of change

Change the story demonstrated that while violence against women is a multi-faceted and deeply-entrenched social problem, it is not an inevitable one. Rather, violence is ‘the product of complex, yet modifiable, social and environmental factors’.⁵²

Evaluations have shown that good practice prevention strategies can reduce future prevalence of violence against women among small-scale populations.⁵³ When such strategies are implemented across multiple settings (the environments where people live, work, learn and play), evidence from other fields, such as smoking and HIV/AIDS prevention, suggests that the impact of prevention initiatives can be reinforced and intensified to produce lasting reductions in prevalence across whole populations.

Research undertaken as part of the development of this Guide found that no country has yet attempted to scale up prevention of violence against women strategies so that they reach larger populations in a sustained and coordinated way. Only then, however, will the potential to reduce prevalence *at the national population-level* be realised. Australia is well-placed to lead such an effort internationally, with strong political and public will, and a robust existing practice base. The National Plan provides a long-term, bipartisan commitment to such a course of action, with its target of a ‘significant and sustained reduction in violence against women and their children during the next 12 years, from 2010 to 2022.’

This Guide outlines the indicators of change against the drivers and reinforcing factors of violence, that will tell us if we are ‘heading in the right direction’ for longer-term reductions in prevalence of violence against women and their children. This is a complex and possibly intergenerational endeavour, which means progress is unlikely to be linear. The question the Guide asks, and seeks to answer, is: what would such complex change look like?

Figure 5 outlines the expected process of change over time towards a reduction and ultimate elimination of violence against women. Below is an explanation of how the process of change might be expected to occur, working backwards from our long-term goal of reduced prevalence, then noting the medium-term changes in ‘causal’ or driving factors that we would expect to see as precursors to a decrease in prevalence, and finally describing the processes or actions - identified in *Change the story* - that are needed to support these later changes.

DEFINING THE TIME FRAME

Expected change in prevalence of violence against women is framed as medium to long-term change. While the precise length of time required to create change is dependent on the quality of supporting prevention activities, we suggest the following:

- medium-term: up to 10 years
- long-term: 10 years and beyond

Our long-term goal: Reducing prevalence of violence against women

Our ultimate goal is the elimination of violence against women and their children, as a human rights abuse with devastating individual and social consequences.

Measuring change in the percentage of women experiencing violence is best done through repeatable population-based surveys, and in Australia the standard survey on this issue is the Personal Safety Survey, funded by the Department of Social Services and conducted by the Australian Bureau of Statistics.⁵⁴ Surveys – including the Personal Safety Survey – usually distinguish between different forms of violence (for example, physical and sexual) and different categories of perpetrator (for example, former or current intimate partner, friend, colleague, etc.), and such distinctions are essential to any nuanced understanding of change.

Small steps can make a significant difference. For example, if we reduced the prevalence of intimate partner violence in Australia (27 per cent of women across their lifetimes) to that of Denmark (22 percent) this five per cent reduction would prevent 6,000 new cases of violence-related injury, illness and disability per year, and save \$38 million in health sector costs, and \$333 million in productivity costs over time.⁵⁵

Prevalence is usually measured in two main ways: lifetime prevalence (the percentage of women who have ever experienced violence in their adult lifetime, usually from the age of 15 years), and 12-month prevalence (the percentage of women who have experienced violence in the past year).

Lifetime prevalence would only be expected to decrease at the population-level in the very long-term, because incidents in the relatively distant past would continue to be recorded long after any prevention strategies have been introduced. Twelve-month prevalence is more amenable to change, as prevention strategies introduced within that period might be expected to have an impact on these figures – although only, of course, if the strategies are reaching the whole population in a sustained and coordinated way.

The red and orange lines in Figure 5 (see page 30) represent lifetime prevalence and 12-month prevalence respectively. The figure illustrates how, while we would expect 12-month prevalence to decrease *sooner* than lifetime prevalence, we would not expect to see a measurable decrease in *either* form of prevalence in the short to medium-term, as both are dependent on earlier changes (described below).

Population surveys repeated over time, including in Australia, have so far shown that change in prevalence figures over recent decades has been incremental and inconsistent. Between 1996 and 2005, there was a decrease in 12-month prevalence of violence against women from 7.1 to 5.8 per cent. However, there was no statistically significant change from 2005 to 2012 in 12-month prevalence (5.8 to 5.3 per cent).⁵⁶ This is despite vast improvements in awareness of, and responses to, violence against women. Achieving decreases in prevalence of violence against women *cannot*, therefore, be assumed or expected as the result of any ‘inevitable’ historical process, or improved responses to violence, alone.

Reductions in prevalence of violence against women can, logically, only be expected if we first achieve reductions in the factors that drive such violence. Indeed, international meta-analyses suggest that, in some cases, prevalence of violence against women is resistant to even major socio-demographic shifts – such as improvements in national wealth or democratisation processes – *unless* accompanied by substantial shifts in the gender inequality that creates the necessary conditions for such violence, which will be examined below.⁵⁷

Box 3: Prevalence indicators versus reporting (and other ‘response’) indicators

It is important to distinguish between indicators of *prevalence* (the number of women experiencing violence as measured through broad population surveys), and *reporting rates* of violence (the number of women who officially report violence to police or services). While prevalence rates are only expected to change in the long-term, reporting rates have already shown significant shifts in recent decades. As the response to violence provided by police, justice systems and services improves, and social norms around the unacceptability of violence are strengthened, women become more confident to seek help. Most jurisdictions across Australia have seen significantly increased rates of reporting of violence (to police or services) in recent years. This is an indicator of positive change.

Indeed, low reporting rates can be considered expressions of the extent to which society condones, trivialises, and minimises violence against women. As violence against women becomes less acceptable to society, we can expect reporting rates – and other response indicators such as prosecution rates – to rise. Figure 5 (see page 30) illustrates how reporting rates could approach prevalence rates over the medium to long-term, only decreasing when prevalence rates themselves begin to decline.

The primary objective of this Guide is to measure the prevention of violence against women, not the rates at which it is reported, or other measures indicating the strength of the response systems and services. Response indicators (such as administrative data from the police, or service) are only included in this Guide insofar as they can be considered to represent a driver or reinforcing factor of violence against women (most notably the condoning of such violence).

How to get there: Addressing the drivers and reinforcing factors

Change the story reviewed the international evidence and provided a comprehensive picture of the complex underlying drivers and reinforcing factors of violence against women, in the structural norms and practices of everyday life (outlined in the Introduction). With the right strategies and supports in place, improvements against such drivers and reinforcing factors might be expected to occur over the medium-term.

As the drivers and reinforcing factors of violence manifest at – and often cut across – different levels of the social ecology, a monitoring framework should include indicators that measure change at each level, and track shifts in norms, practices and structures.

The evidence would indicate that improvements against such indicators would be required to achieve changes in prevalence.

Further research and multivariate analysis data is needed to better understand how these reinforcing factors interact with gendered drivers and with what impact. For example, a handful of studies have shown that men who have fewer economic and social resources relative to their partners (whether in the form of employment, education or income) *may* be more likely to perpetrate violence against women. However, this increased probability is found primarily among men holding stereotypical beliefs about their roles as ‘providers’.⁵⁸ Men with fewer resources than their partners who hold more egalitarian beliefs about gender roles are *not* at greater risk of perpetrating violence.⁵⁹ That is, socio-economic disadvantage *on its own* is unlikely to be a factor in increased violence against women. However, when socio-economic disadvantage is *combined with* rigid adherence to gender roles (such as beliefs in men’s role as ‘breadwinners’), it has an impact. Population-level data collection against the reinforcing factors outlined below may go some way to providing a clearer picture, and such data should be analysed alongside evolving research.

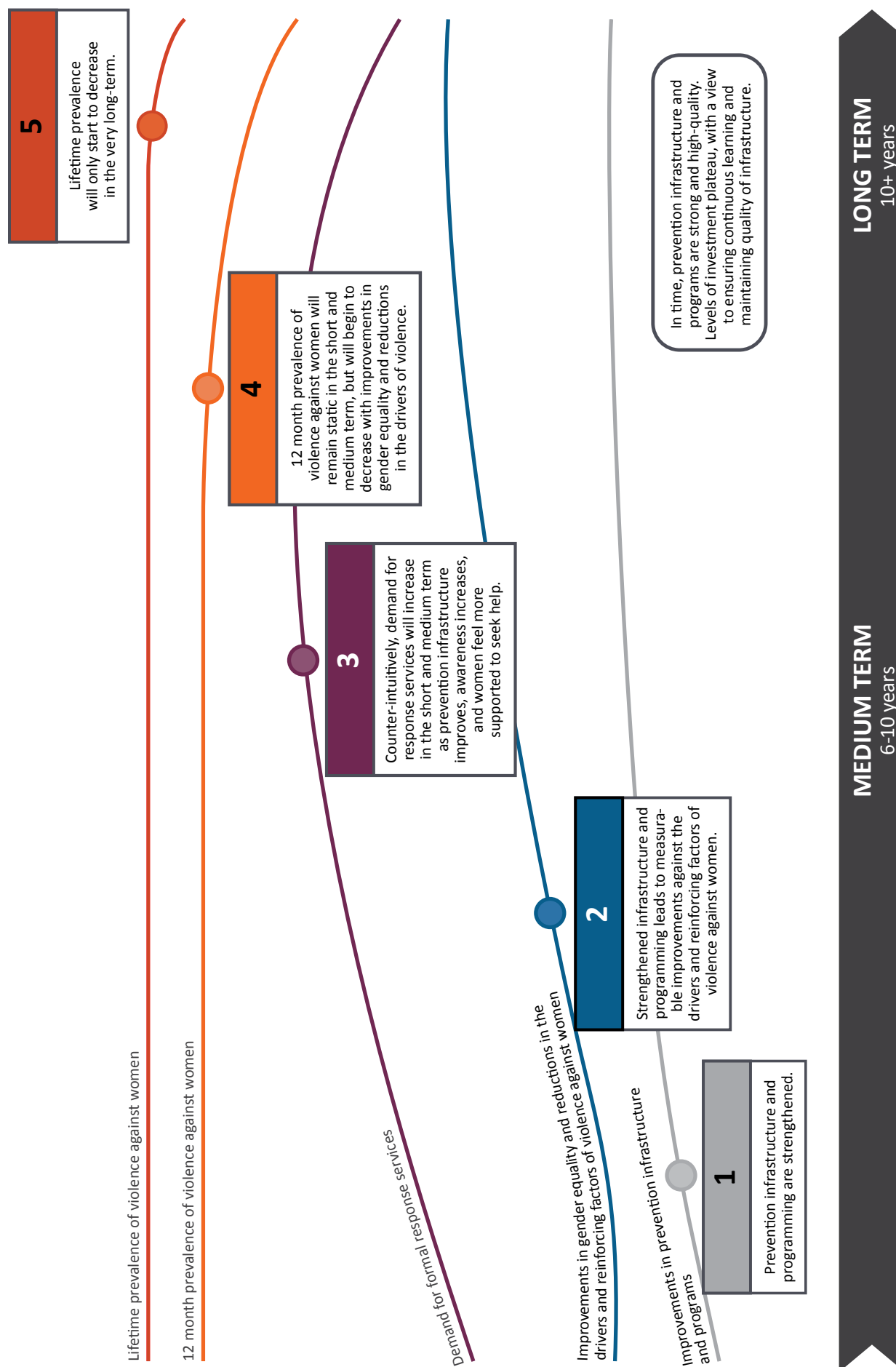
Figure 5 illustrates how we expect to see change over time. Represented by the grey line, the strengthening of prevention infrastructure and the improvement of prevention programs are the first steps required to generate improvements in the gendered drivers and reinforcing factors of violence against women, which in turn are represented by the gradual upward trajectory of the blue line.

The red and orange lines in Figure 5 represent lifetime prevalence rates (red) and 12-month prevalence rates (orange) of violence against women in Australia. Because prevention is a long term project, requiring sustained efforts over many years to shift the norms, structures, and practices which drive and reinforce violence against women, these prevalence rates are expected to remain static in the short and medium-term.

While it may seem counter-intuitive, demand for formal response services (represented by the purple line) is expected to *increase* in the medium-term as prevention infrastructure and programming improves. This is because these improvements will impact on the drivers and reinforcing factors of violence against women, raising community awareness, and challenging violence-condoning attitudes. As a result, women experiencing violence will be more likely to seek help and the demand for formal response services will increase.

Twelve-month prevalence rates are expected to decrease when there are measurable improvements against the drivers and reinforcing factors of violence against women, and it is this prevalence rate that will demonstrate the earliest positive impacts of prevention strategies. Lifetime prevalence rates at the population-level will of course take far longer to improve, because incidents experienced earlier in people's lives will continue to be included in this measure, long after any prevention strategies have been introduced. However, in the long term, as prevention infrastructure continues to improve, investment in prevention increases, and new generations of girls grow up in an Australia where the drivers and reinforcing factors of violence are reduced, lifetime prevalence rates will start to fall.

Figure 5: Expected process of change over time



The first steps: Strengthening the infrastructure and programs needed to enable and maintain change

Just as prevalence of violence against women will not decrease as part of any inevitable historical process, nor should we expect to see improvements against the above drivers and reinforcing factors of violence unless we take appropriate action, and on a scale large enough to achieve impact. This means that the right systems, programs, strategies, and infrastructure need to be established and implemented. Governments play a leading role, but no single government or organisation can drive such multifaceted and interdependent changes on their own. Significant effort and investment is needed from numerous stakeholders – government, non-government, the private sector and communities – working collaboratively.

Change the story outlined some of the elements for effective, quality programming needed to achieve such change, and for building a ‘prevention infrastructure’ to support it. A strong prevention infrastructure enables the design, implementation, and evaluation of prevention efforts across the various settings within which people interact (such as schools, local communities, the media, workplaces, residential care settings, sporting clubs, and faith communities), in a coordinated way.⁶⁰

Quality prevention infrastructure will include:

- political, sector-specific, and civil society leadership
- policy and legislative reform
- an expert workforce
- mechanisms for coordination, collaboration, and quality assurance
- shared monitoring, reporting, and evaluation frameworks.

This infrastructure is the key that unlocks the potential for every sector, institution, organisation and community to play their role in preventing violence against women. It also allows us to ensure that prevention activity at all levels – from national, through to state/territory, regional and local – benefits from evidence-based support.

Finally, such an infrastructure must also support investment in, coordination and quality assurance of, prevention programming across the different settings in which people live, learn, work, and play. While there is no ‘one size fits all’ approach to prevention programming, international evidence tells us that to be effective, such programs must be:

- inclusive
- long-term
- multi-sectoral, multi-setting, and multi-component
- addressing drivers and reinforcing factors of violence against women
- tailored to audience.

Quality prevention infrastructure and programming is the crucial driver of all other prevention activity. Building such an infrastructure and implementing quality programming is the necessary ‘first step’ on the journey towards reduced prevalence in the long-term – all other changes will depend on it. Understanding and measuring progress in the development of, and investment in, prevention infrastructure and programming is therefore an important piece of the puzzle that tells us whether we are ‘heading in the right direction’ to ultimately reduce prevalence of violence against women.

Primary prevention is a long-term collaborative effort and real population-level change will only occur over a sustained period of time. Achieving such change will be challenging and will require the concerted effort of all funders, policy makers, and organisations working at the national and/or state/territory level. While no other country has yet undertaken such a comprehensive and multi-faceted effort, experience from other areas, such as smoking and road safety, shows that a concerted effort can measurably lower the probability of violence against women and decrease future occurrences.

Importantly, we must remember that unlike other public health initiatives, such as those aimed at reducing smoking or heart disease, the changes arising from this concerted effort are unlikely to be immediately obvious. This is, in part, because violence against women and their children remains largely a ‘private’ issue, and driven by historically entrenched factors related to gender roles and relations that are more difficult to shift. Change may happen slowly and may not be linear, and we will likely see prevalence remain static over a sustained period, or potentially even increase (if adequate attention is not paid to addressing the ‘backlash’ common to all efforts that challenge existing power dynamics). For this reason, evaluation and continuous improvement mechanisms are necessary in order to learn from, and make adjustments to, prevention programming ‘along the way’, acknowledging the complexity of the issue and the multiple indicators needed to form a complete picture.

4

Section 4: Proposed indicators of change

Addressing the complex, intersecting, and often deeply-entrenched factors that drive and reinforce violence against women entails a complex set of interdependent changes, occurring on numerous fronts. Measuring these complex and numerous changes is the primary challenge of this Guide. The previous section outlined how we expect change to occur. The challenge now is to determine *how to measure* that complex picture of change.

In this section, we have distilled proposed indicators of change corresponding to the changes illustrated in Figure 5. These are the best indicators available in the Australian context, which, when taken together, can demonstrate the myriad changes described above. Many of these will be quantifiable indicators that represent the impact of not just one initiative, but a number of initiatives working together. Qualitative analysis will also be required to provide a full picture of change, where there are gaps in quantifiable indicators.

The Guide has sought to include the smallest number of both outcome indicators and process indicators (defined at right) that meet the greatest number of measures of change at various levels of the ecological model. This is not an exhaustive list of indicators and tracking measures for preventing violence against women. There are likely to be many other relevant indicators and tracking measures available at a local or regional level, and policy makers are encouraged to include these in their prevention monitoring strategies.

These indicators measure general progress at a national level, but where possible data should be disaggregated by age, sex, socio-economic status, urban/rural/remote categorisations, and jurisdiction. In addition, particular attention should be paid to reducing the inequality gap between different groups of people and the wider community, where such data is available. Refer to Section 2 for information on how measurement of progress can take an intersectional approach.

In particular, adoption of data sources that reflect the experiences of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander women, culturally and linguistically diverse women, people with disabilities, and the LGBTQI women, is encouraged. This will provide a better picture of the ways in which gender inequalities intersect with other forms of social inequality and the impact of such intersections on violence against women.

Section 4 consists of the following three sub-sections:

- Tracking the development of quality prevention infrastructure and programs.
- Tracking change against the drivers and reinforcing factors of violence against women.
- Tracking reduction in prevalence rates of violence against women.

PROCESS INDICATORS AND OUTCOMES INDICATORS

There are two different types of indicators identified in this Guide:

1. **PROCESS INDICATORS** measure how well a program or policy has been implemented or adopted. The process indicators we have presented measure improvements in prevention infrastructure and programming.
2. **OUTCOME INDICATORS** measure the broader results achieved through intervention. The indicators we have presented to track medium- and long-term change are outcome indicators which measure the prevalence of violence against women as well as the drivers and reinforcing factors of violence against women.

First steps: Strengthening prevention infrastructure and programs

The establishment and strengthening of quality programming and the infrastructure to support it is a crucial prerequisite to maximising the effectiveness of all prevention activities, and to addressing the drivers and reinforcing factors of violence against women (as illustrated in Figure 5). It is only as prevention infrastructure and programming improves that a comprehensive and population-wide movement to address the drivers and reinforcing factors of violence against women becomes possible, enabling a shift from the status quo. Quality prevention infrastructure and programming must be measured as part of the progress towards reducing rates of violence.

Measuring infrastructure and programming is challenging. To date, there is no established 'gold standard' for tracking such development in this field. The proposed process indicators in this Guide are, therefore, based on international evidence that suggests that measuring the effectiveness of prevention efforts must be based on more than discrete project or program evaluations, and informed by *Change the story's* public health based premise that coordinated interventions across settings (for example, workplaces, education, media, etc.) and levels of the social ecology (individual, community, institutional, and societal) are needed to reinforce and sustain change.

Box 4: The importance of tracking prevention infrastructure and programming and how it aligns with the National Plan's Third Action Plan

Tracking prevention infrastructure further aligns with the systematisation and innovation strategies that are part of the Third Action Plan 2016-2019 of the National Plan. Measuring the quality of prevention infrastructure will assist with system strengthening to support the emerging strategies for prevention. To maintain relevance and reach across a diverse and rapidly changing Australian society, innovative strategies tackling violence against women must be evidence-based and proven to be effective and appropriate within a range of settings.

Prevention infrastructure will also provide policy makers with necessary 'feedback loops' to guide future funding allocation and program development according to the evidence base and best practice. This will increase effectiveness of prevention strategies, and programs, ensuring they are: collaborative and transferable; building upon proven effective initiatives; and responsive to emerging issues and a responsive environment.

Change the story outlines five key domains of the required infrastructure necessary to reinforce and sustain change:⁶¹

- 1. Political, sector-specific and civil society leadership**
- 2. Policy and legislative reform**
- 3. An expert workforce**
- 4. Mechanisms for coordination, collaboration, and quality assurance**
- 5. Shared monitoring, reporting and evaluation frameworks**

As mentioned earlier, quality prevention infrastructure must also support investment in, coordination, and quality assurance of prevention programming across various settings. We have therefore included:

6. Quality prevention programming

as a sixth domain in which change must also be measured.

SUGGESTED MEASURES: Prevention infrastructure and programs

Table 1 presents examples of process measures for tracking improvements in prevention infrastructure and programming against the six key domains from *Change the story* described above. The principles of effective infrastructure specific to each domain are also outlined in Table 1.

These measures are by no means an exhaustive list. They have been chosen because they are largely 'quantifiable' but, additional qualitative measures are needed to present a more robust picture of the state of prevention infrastructure and programming. Furthermore, our review of the existing data sets found that most of the proposed measures are not currently collected in Australia. Despite these challenges, tracking changes in these areas is crucial to maximising the effectiveness of prevention activities and to shifting the drivers and reinforcing factors of violence against women. It is therefore essential that we build better systems of tracking change in these areas.

Box 5: Guidance for states and territories

A large number of the suggested measures in Table 1 are applicable to the state/territory level as well as the national level. Where appropriate, states and territories should consider using some of these indicators at their own jurisdictional level. While this may require increased investment in monitoring, this will prove useful for the development of jurisdictional level data which otherwise may not be captured at the national level. It is also important to note that the suggested measures outlined in Table 1 are not exhaustive, and state, territory and Commonwealth governments are encouraged to draw on other relevant indicators and data sources where available.

There are significant gaps in data sources currently available. As such, this is an ideal opportunity to invest in the development of these data sources, increase and improve the data we have on prevention infrastructure, and improve monitoring techniques and pathways.

International evidence tells us that to be effective, quality prevention programming must:

- a) be inclusive
- b) be long-term
- c) be multi-sectoral and multi-component
- d) address the drivers and reinforcing factors of violence
- e) implement evidence-based techniques across settings
- f) be tailored to the audience.

It is recommended that prevention programs be designed, funded and evaluated according to the aforementioned criteria and, where possible, adhere to guidance set out in *Putting the prevention of violence against women into practice: How to Change the story*, a handbook for practitioners produced by Our Watch to guide the design, implementation, and evaluation of prevention programs.

Table 1: Suggested measures for tracking improvements in prevention infrastructure and quality programming

DOMAIN 1: POLITICAL, SECTOR-SPECIFIC AND CIVIL SOCIETY LEADERSHIP
PRINCIPLES OF EFFECTIVE INFRASTRUCTURE
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Leadership to prevent violence against women is demonstrated at all levels of government and across political parties. b) Leadership to prevent violence against women is demonstrated by civil society organisations, public and private sector institutions. c) Leadership to prevent violence against women is demonstrated by the members and networks of the above organisations. d) Collective and coordinated leadership is demonstrated between organisations and sectors working on gender equality, violence against women and other areas of social justice, with the aim of addressing the drivers and reinforcing factors of violence against women through an intersectional approach.
POSSIBLE MEASURES FOR DOMAIN 1
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Public statements by political leaders, across the political spectrum and at different levels of government, commit to evidence-based and long-term action addressing the drivers of violence against women. 2. Public statements by civil society organisations, public and private sector institutions commit to integrating gender equality and the prevention of violence against women into their core business. 3. Public commitments are accompanied by commensurate investment (financial and in-kind) in quality prevention strategies and initiatives (in government, nongovernment and private sectors). 4. Public, private and not-for-profit sector workplaces have or institute domestic violence leave, parental leave, and flexible work provisions for their employees. 5. Public, private and not-for-profit sector workplaces undertake and report on gender audits in areas such as: equal pay for comparable work; recruitment and promotion; leadership development and mentoring; and organisational culture. 6. Public, private and not-for-profit sector organisations host events for the 16 Days of Activism Against Gender Based Violence, International Women's Day, White Ribbon Day and/or the International Day for the Elimination of Violence Against Women. 7. Conferences or forums are held with a focus on primary prevention of violence against women and/or gender equality; an increasing number of participants attend these conferences or forums. 8. Collective activities are initiated by partnerships between women's organisations and those working on other areas of social justice that drive an intersectional approach to prevention of violence against women.

DOMAIN 2: POLICY AND LEGISLATIVE REFORM

PRINCIPLES OF EFFECTIVE INFRASTRUCTURE

- a) Government policy development supports a long-term, sustainable, multi-setting and evidence-based approach to ending violence against women, aligned with *Change the story*.
- b) Legislative and procedural reform supports governance structures, policy development, investment decisions and procurement processes that promote gender equality and address the drivers of violence against women.

POSSIBLE MEASURES FOR DOMAIN 2

1. Governments (federal, state/territory and local) have a dedicated policy for primary prevention of violence against women, or have primary prevention of violence against women included as a specific area within a broader policy, aligned with *Change the story*.
2. Governments (federal, state/territory and local) have a gender equality policy.
3. Such policies recognise and respond to the differential impact of gender inequality and the drivers of violence on different groups of women and take an intersectional approach.
4. Such policies are costed, framed as long-term, have multi-party support and clearly articulated governance, implementation and funding mechanisms, to ensure sustainability.
5. Such policies articulate accountability for action across government portfolios, to ensure all sectors and settings needed to end violence against women are engaged and supported.
6. Such policies articulate prevention of violence against women, and securing gender equality, as a core human rights obligation of governments.
7. Jurisdictions enact or strengthen legislation and accompanying procedures to better protect against discrimination, and address gender-based hate speech and advertisements which perpetuate sexist stereotypes.
8. Government departments (federal, state/territory and local) develop and employ gender impact analysis tools, such as the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development's (OECD) 'gender policy marker', which notes whether a new activity or investment has a 'principal' or 'significant' gender equality objective.⁶²
9. Governments (federal, state/territory and local) employ gender-sensitive policymaking and budgeting procedures, such as by requiring that a significant percentage of strategies and investments, regardless of objectives, should effectively address gender equality issues in implementation (80% is the Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade's benchmark).⁶³
10. Governments (federal, state/territory and local) embed gender equality goals and targets in legislation (e.g.: >40% representation for each gender on public committees and boards).

DOMAIN 3: AN EXPERT WORKFORCE

PRINCIPLES OF EFFECTIVE INFRASTRUCTURE

- a) A specialist and expert workforce of prevention practitioners and policymakers provide leadership, technical assistance, program development, and policy support to stakeholders.
- b) The workforce is supported and recognised by accredited pre-service gender equality and primary prevention training, and provided with ongoing professional development guidance and support.
- c) Prevention of violence against women specialists have the capacity and skills to design and deliver specific, evidence informed, culturally appropriate and intersectional prevention strategies and develop policies, programs and initiatives for gender equality.
- d) Practitioners from diverse groups (Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities, culturally and linguistically diverse groups, women with disabilities, LGBTI communities etc.), have the capacity and skills to undertake quality and effective prevention work with their communities.
- e) Those working in prevention-related sectors and settings (e.g., health services, media, schools, faith-based organisations, and sporting clubs) have the capacity and skills to undertake quality and effective prevention work.

POSSIBLE MEASURES FOR DOMAIN 3

1. A Prevention of Violence against Women and their Children Practitioners Professional Association (similar to the Australian Health Promotion Association) is established and maintained; the Association's membership grows.
2. Accredited professional training on implementation of *Change the story* is developed (potentially based on Our Watch's two-day practitioner training course); sessions are delivered to policy makers, prevention practitioners and the violence against women sector.
3. An increasing number of prevention specialists from diverse community groups undertake and complete the course, including: Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders, women with disabilities, LGBTI, culturally and linguistically diverse groups, etc.
4. An increasing number of health workers/coaches/teachers/journalists, etc. undertake and complete the course.
5. An increasing number of university/TAFE courses include pre-service qualification standards and competencies on prevention of violence against women; number of students completing the course grows.
6. Prevention of violence against women workforce and organisational development is resourced and supported – financially and in-kind – by governments, workplaces and relevant training institutions.
7. Accredited professional development and pre-service training courses are evaluated for quality and long-term impact.

DOMAIN 4: MECHANISMS FOR COORDINATION, COLLABORATION, AND QUALITY ASSURANCE

PRINCIPLES OF EFFECTIVE INFRASTRUCTURE

- a) Overarching coordination and advisory structures guide the design, development and evaluation of prevention policy and programming, with diverse representation from relevant departments, civil society, public and private sector agencies.
- b) A range of agencies and organisations are engaged in such structures, including but not limited to those for early intervention and response, and those working in other areas of social justice or on related issues.
- c) Partnerships for prevention work are guided by an intersectional approach.
- d) Criteria exist and are implemented for quality assurance in program development and funding, including for design, implementation and evaluation.
- e) Practice standards are developed, employed and monitored for prevention work across sectors and settings.

POSSIBLE MEASURES FOR DOMAIN 4

1. Coordination and advisory structures exist at different levels (federal, state/territory, regional and local), meet regularly, and demonstrate effective communication and partnership practices.
2. Cross-sector partnerships exist to drive prevention work on 'common causes' with relevant sectors (e.g. with the child protection or alcohol/drugs harm minimisation sectors).
3. Partnerships of all kinds demonstrate an inclusive, intersectional and participatory approach (e.g.: policy and program development is led by members of the different communities it seeks to engage).
4. Prevention programs show evidence of being designed and funded in accordance with the evidence base and shared national framework (i.e. based on alignment with *Change the story*).
5. Prevention programs show evidence of being implemented and evaluated according to good practice principles (e.g. those outlined in the Our Watch/VicHealth Handbook).
6. Institutions and organisations delivering prevention programs meet quality standards for prevention practice in different settings and sectors (e.g. education, workplaces, sports).

DOMAIN 5: MONITORING, REPORTING AND EVALUATION FRAMEWORKS

PRINCIPLES OF EFFECTIVE INFRASTRUCTURE

- a) Comprehensive and coordinated systems exist for data collection and analysis, monitoring, accountability, reporting, and evaluation at all levels.
- b) All partners implementing prevention activity (governments, civil society, public and private sector institutions and organisations) report on progress, and evaluate their efforts against shared short, mid and long-term objectives.
- c) Measures and targets are developed using an intersectional approach and reflect those outlined in *Counting on change* where appropriate. Additional measures and targets reflect the specific context and objectives of the program/policy in question.

POSSIBLE MEASURES FOR DOMAIN 5

1. Agreed monitoring and evaluation frameworks exist with accountabilities articulated for all relevant implementing partners (e.g.: different government departments or different regional agencies).
2. Agreed monitoring and evaluation frameworks exist with outcomes and targets that demonstrate alignment with the shared national framework and this Guide.
3. Such frameworks are supported (financially, in-kind, and through appropriate mechanisms and systems) by implementing partners and their funders.
4. At the program level, prevention initiatives demonstrate implementation of the above evaluation frameworks, and monitor and report on progress according to the above frameworks.
5. Governments (federal, state/territory and local) promote collection of and reporting of sex-disaggregated data for public-sector workforces (e.g.: to assess gender pay gaps, occupation gender distribution, etc.)
6. Governments (federal, state/territory and local) regularly report on progress of preventing violence against women strategies and gender equality strategies.
7. Governments (federal, state/territory and local) establish independent governance and oversight mechanisms to monitor progress on preventing violence against women and promoting gender equality.

DOMAIN 6: QUALITY PREVENTION PROGRAMMING

PRINCIPLES OF EFFECTIVE INFRASTRUCTURE

- a) Proven and promising prevention programs are supported (financially and through policy and systems) for sustainability and scale-up.
- b) Evidence-building on what works to prevent violence, on emerging issues, and for different groups, is supported through funding streams and mechanisms that emphasise innovation and evaluation.
- c) Both proven/promising and new prevention programming adheres to quality principles, and:
 - is inclusive
 - is long-term
 - is multi-sectoral and multi-component
 - addresses the drivers and reinforcing factors of violence
 - implements evidence-based techniques across settings
 - is tailored to the audience and context.

POSSIBLE MEASURES FOR DOMAIN 6

1. Prevention programs that have been trialled and evaluated as effective or promising are supported for continuous improvement and scale-up over the long-term (i.e. more than 5 years).
2. Short-term (2-3 year) grants programs are employed to support evidence building through innovation in new and emerging areas of prevention.
3. Quality standards are progressively developed, and tools provided, to guide prevention activity in the 11 priority settings identified by *Change the story*: 1) education and care settings for children and young people, 2) workplaces, 3) sports recreation and social spaces, 4) tertiary institutions, 5) the arts, 6) health and community services, 7) faith-based contexts, 8) media, 9) popular culture, advertising, and entertainment, 10) public spaces, transport and facilities, and 11) legal justice and corrections contexts.
4. As the above quality standards are progressively developed, measures of progress in each setting are identified, monitored and reported on. For example, for education and care settings, the number of students (K-12) reached by Respectful Relationships Education initiatives using the whole school approach.

Medium-term: Reducing drivers and reinforcing factors

In contrast to the process measures that assess improvements in prevention infrastructure and programming, this section presents the proposed outcome or impact indicators that measure change against drivers and reinforcing factors of violence against women: changes we would expect to see in the medium-term as a result of such efforts. The indicators proposed here measure change across the socio-ecological model to track shifts in norms, practices, and structures.

The complex story behind violence against women is represented in these proposed indicators, which not only demonstrate the breadth and depth of the issue, but also the long-term commitment necessary to create sustained changes in norms, structures, and practices, at a number of different levels.

The following indicators are grounded in the evidence around best-practice and the international research on prevention of violence against women. The relevant data sources are based on the most suitable and accessible data sets available in the Australian context. These outcome indicators were selected according to a set of criteria, detailed in Box 6, with all proposed indicators fulfilling criteria 1, 2 and 3. Note that, given the gaps in existing Australian data sets (see Section 5), it was not realistic for every proposed indicator to fulfil all of criteria 4 to 10. In our selection process, we have chosen indicators which fulfil as many of criteria 4 to 10 as possible.

The proposed list of indicators, as summarised in Tables 2 and 3, help paint a picture of the ‘pathway’ to longer-term reductions in violence against women. Measuring change against these proposed indicators will demonstrate the impact being achieved and progress being made by government and non-government stakeholders in their collective efforts to end such violence.

NB – this list of indicators is not exhaustive: those monitoring progress in prevention are encouraged to draw on other relevant indicators and data sources where available.

Box 6: Criteria for outcome indicator selection

Essential Criteria

All proposed indicators are:

1. measurable and relevant for the Australian context
2. aligned with the drivers and reinforcing factors outlined in *Change the Story*
3. expected to change over time, producing some initial improvements over the short- and medium-term, and substantive change in the long-term.

Aspirational Criteria

Where possible, the proposed indicators have also been selected for their adherence to one or more of the following criteria:

4. from a reliable source that will continue to produce data in an ethical and comprehensive manner
5. able to be measured at the national level, and at a range of more refined geographic levels (jurisdictional, urban/rural/remote)
6. able to be disaggregated by population group
7. when collected via questionnaires, aligned with best practice and evidence-based
8. reflect the experiences of different groups of people, such as; Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities; culturally and linguistically diverse communities; people with disabilities; and the LGBTQI community
9. be based on data collected at least every four years
10. target multiple drivers and levels of the ecological model.

Tables 2 and 3 summarise the list of indicators proposed for the drivers (2) and reinforcing factors (3) of violence against women. More detailed tables follow outlining recommended data sources.

Table 2: Summary list of proposed indicators to measure change in the gendered drivers of violence against women

CONDONING OF VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN	
Indicator 1.1	Community attitudes towards violence against women (justifying, excusing, trivialising or minimising violence; blame-shifting and rape myth acceptance).
Indicator 1.2	Community's (self-reported) willingness to intervene.
Indicator 1.3	Proportion of victims of violence against women who disclose their experience to someone.
Indicator 1.4	Number of calls and online requests received by violence against women helplines in past 12 months.
Indicator 1.5	Number of police call outs to intimate partner violence and family violence incidents and reports of sexual assault.
RIGID GENDER ROLES	
Indicator 2.1	Population level attitudes and norms that support traditional gender norms (e.g., the percentage of people who believe a woman's most important role is in the family and home).
Indicator 2.2	Percentage of parental leave uptake by fathers versus mothers.
Indicator 2.3	Gender composition of the workforce by occupation / industry.
Indicator 2.4	Proportion of time women spend on unpaid care work compared to men.
STEREOTYPED CONSTRUCTIONS OF MASCULINITY AND FEMININITY	
Indicator 3.1	Community norms supporting the idea that to be a man you need to dominate women, be in control and/or use violence to assert status and resolve disputes.
Indicator 3.2	Attitudes that support male sexual entitlement.
MEN'S CONTROL OF DECISION-MAKING	
Indicator 4.1	Percentage of CEOs who are women.
Indicator 4.2	Percentage of managerial positions (private sector) occupied by women.
Indicator 4.3	Equitable decision-making between partners as measured in surveys.
Indicator 4.4	Percentage of political representatives who are women.

Indicator 4.5	Percentage of Ministers and members of Cabinet who are women.
Indicator 4.6	Proportion of community and cultural leaders who are women (e.g., female sports coaches/umpires, faith leaders, newspaper editors, directors of theatre/ art companies, etc.).
LIMITS TO WOMEN'S INDEPENDENCE IN PUBLIC LIFE	
Indicator 5.1	Percentage of female employees surveyed who have experienced sexual harassment or sex discrimination in the workplace; and perceptions of how organisations would respond to sexual harassment cases.
Indicator 5.2	Gender pay gap.
Indicator 5.3	Superannuation gap and retirement age gap.
Indicator 5.4	Percentage of women who report feeling unsafe in public spaces.
LIMITS TO WOMEN'S INDEPENDENCE IN RELATIONSHIPS	
Indicator 6.1	Percentage of women who report controlling behaviour in a heterosexual relationship (male control over women).
MALE PEER RELATIONS THAT EMPHASISE AGGRESSION AND DISRESPECT TOWARDS WOMEN	
Indicator 7.1	The 2017 National Community Attitudes towards Violence Against Women Survey (NCAS) will include questions which seek to measure attitudes towards male peer relations that emphasise aggression and disrespect towards women. These items aim to gauge respondents' attitudes towards men being hostile/ disrespectful towards women when they are among their male friends. The 2017 NCAS will also ask respondents about the gender composition of their social network in order to assess how this might influence their attitudes.

Table 3: Summary list of proposed indicators to measure change in the reinforcing factors of violence against women

CONDONING OF VIOLENCE IN GENERAL	
Indicator 8.1	Gendered attitudes towards violence and acceptability of violence in general
EXPERIENCES OF AND EXPOSURE TO VIOLENCE	
Indicator 9.1	Percentage of women who experienced violence reporting that children heard or saw the violence.
Indicator 9.2	Proportion of children aged 0-17 years who experienced any physical punishment and/or psychological aggression by caregivers in the past month.
Indicator 9.3	Percentage of men who reported experiencing violence by a male perpetrator in the past 12 months (male victims of male on male violence).
WEAKENING OF PRO-SOCIAL BEHAVIOUR (HARMFUL USE OF ALCOHOL)	
Indicator 10.1	<p>Percentage of population who report that, in the past 12 months, their drinking or being drunk:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • has had a harmful effect on their intimate relationship • has had a harmful effect on their family members, including their children • played a role in them getting involved in a (verbal and/or physical) fight.
BACKLASH FACTORS	
Indicator 11.1	The 2017 National Community Attitudes towards Violence Against Women Survey (NCAS) will include questions which seek to measure backlash factors. These items aim to gauge population-level attitudes which express denial of continued gender inequality and hostility towards women.
SOCIO-ECONOMIC INEQUALITY AND DISCRIMINATION	
Indicator 12.1	Proportion of population reporting having personally felt discriminated against or harassed in the past 12 months on the basis of a ground of discrimination prohibited under international human rights law.
Indicator 12.2	Proportion of population living below the poverty line, disaggregated by sex and age.
Indicator 12.3	Indigenous structural disadvantage.
Indicator 12.4	Proportion of population who hold discriminatory views around race, sexual orientation, religion, age, disability, etc.

The matrix presented in Figure 6 below illustrates how each of the indicators outlined in Tables 2 and 3 track across social norms, structures, and practices. The matrix also shows how many of the indicators cut across multiple levels of the socio-ecological model. It moreover demonstrates where the gaps lie and the importance of a holistic approach.

Figure 6: Matrix of how selected indicators track across the ecological model and across structures, norms and practices.

	Individual		Organisational / community		Institutional	Societal		Structures	Norms		Practices	
Drivers	1.1	3.1	1.1	4.2	2.2	1.1	4.1	4.1	1.1	2.4	1.3	4.3
	1.2	3.2	1.2	4.4	2.3	1.2	4.2	4.2	1.2	3.1	1.4	4.4
	1.3	4.3	1.5	4.5		1.4	4.3	4.4	1.4	3.2	1.5	4.5
	1.4	5.1	2.2	4.6		1.5	4.4	4.5	1.5	4.3	2.1	4.6
	2.1	5.4	2.3	5.1		2.1	4.5	4.6	2.1	6.1	2.2	5.1
	2.2	6.1	3.1	5.2		2.3	4.6	5.2	2.2	7.1	2.4	5.2
	2.3	7.1	3.2	5.3		2.4	5.2	5.3	2.3		3.2	5.3
	2.4		4.1	5.4		3.1	5.3				4.1	5.4
Reinforcing Factors						3.2	7.1				4.2	
	8.1	12.1	11.1		12.1	8.1	11.1	12.1	8.1	10.1	9.1	12.1
	9.2	12.4	12.1		12.3	9.1	12.1	12.2	9.1	11.1	9.2	
	9.3		12.2			9.2	12.2	12.3	9.2	12.1	10.1	
	10.1					9.3	12.3	12.4	9.3		11.1	
						10.1	12.4					

The following sections, *Indicators: Drivers of violence against women* and *Indicators: Reinforcing factors of violence against women*, outline details of recommended data sources for each proposed indicator from Tables 2 and 3. Each indicator is presented in its own individual table and grouped according to their relevant driver or reinforcing factor. The tables include:

- information about the recommended **data source**;
- the other drivers or reinforcing factors the indicator might cover;
- where the measure sits in the **socio-ecological model** (i.e., at the individual, community, institutional, and/or societal level);
- whether the indicator measures a **norm, structure, and/or practice**;
- whether the data includes **national or state/territory data**, or both;
- the **frequency** at which data is collected;
- the population group/s the data source covers and/or **how the data is disaggregated**;
- whether the data is **publicly available**;
- the expected **change process**;
- the availability of **baseline data**; and
- **additional comments**/strengths/limitations of the data source.

For ease of reference, each indicator will also be accompanied by a set of codes so that the following information can be conveyed to the reader at a glance.

CODE	WHAT DOES THIS MEAN?
[Adm]	<p>This data is ADMINISTRATIVE BY-PRODUCT DATA.</p> <p>There are two key types of data sources: survey data, which is collected from a sample and is designed to meet specified research goals; and administrative by-product data, which is extracted from operational systems and databases that are used as part of their operational/business requirements. The nature of information gathered in the latter case is guided by operational or service provision needs, rather than any broader theoretical or policy context. As such, this data may not directly or completely satisfy these research information needs.</p> <p>Caution is also advised when comparing administrative by-product data from different sources, as agencies and service providers have different business and information recording practices and different operational definitions based on service eligibility criteria, legislation or target population for service use.⁶⁴</p>
[Disag]	<p>Data is DISAGGREGATED.</p> <p>Statistics from this data can be disaggregated by some or all of the following characteristics: gender, jurisdiction, age group, socio-economic status, birth place, migration status, language spoken, Indigenous status, education, occupation, family composition, household, disability status, and remoteness.</p>
[Pub]	Data and statistics are PUBLICLY available.
[Rq]	Must submit a request for data and/or data analysis.
[Rep]	<p>Data is REPRESENTATIVE at the population-level.</p> <p>The survey sample has been robust in its design and large enough to provide a reliable representation of the whole population.</p>
[Svy]	<p>SURVEY DATA.</p> <p>The data is collected from a sample and is designed to meet specified research goals.</p>
[SS]	<p>This data has been obtained via a small sample size.</p> <p>Caution is advised as statistical findings may not be representative of overall population.</p>

INDICATORS: Drivers

A number of factors associated with gender inequality have been found to be the most consistent predictors of violence against women. These 'gendered drivers' arise from discriminatory institutional, social and economic structures, social and cultural norms, and organisational, community, family and relationship practices that together create environments in which women and men are not considered equal, and violence against women is tolerated and condoned.

The proposed indicators outlined in this section measure the following drivers of violence against women:

1. Condoning of violence against women.
2. Rigid gender roles.
3. Stereotyped constructions of masculinity and femininity.
4. Men's control of decision-making.
5. Limits to women's independence in public life.
6. Limits to women's independence in relationships.
7. Male peer relations that emphasise aggression and disrespect towards women.

1(a) Condoning of violence against women

When societies, institutions, communities or individuals support or condone violence against women, levels of such violence are higher.⁶⁵ Men who hold such beliefs are more likely to perpetrate violence against women, and both women and men who hold such beliefs are less likely to support victims and hold perpetrators to account.⁶⁶

Violence against women can be condoned or excused through social norms, practices and structures.⁶⁷ This driver includes: a) the justification of violence against women on the basis that it is acceptable for men to use violence in certain circumstances; b) the excusing of violence by attributing it to external factors or implying that men cannot be held fully responsible for their own behaviour; c) trivialising violence based on the view that the impacts of violence are not adequately serious to warrant action; and d) shifting blame for the violence from the perpetrator to the victim.

Indicator 1.1	Community attitudes towards violence against women (justifying, excusing, trivialising or minimising violence; blame-shifting and rape myth acceptance).
Recommended data source	National Community Attitudes towards Violence Against Women Survey (NCAS). [Disag] [Pub] [Rep] [Svy]
Other drivers or reinforcing factors covered	Condoning of violence in general.
Socio-ecological level	Individual / Community / Societal.
Structure, norm or practice	Norm.
National and/or jurisdictional	Both.
Frequency data is collected	Findings from the 2017 NCAS are scheduled for release around 2018. The following NCAS is scheduled for 2021.
Population groups data is collected with disaggregation	Jurisdiction, age group, socio-economic status, birth place, migration status, language spoken, year of arrival, Indigenous status, education, occupation, family composition, household, disability status, and remoteness.
Expected change if quality prevention programming and infrastructure is implemented	Short and medium-term: Proportion of the population who hold positive attitudes (i.e., attitudes which do not condone violence against women) will increase. Long term: The proportion of the population who hold positive attitudes will peak and plateau.
Baseline data available	2013 data (n=17,517) can be used as baseline data.
Comments	NCAS is one of two studies identified as mechanisms to monitor the National Plan to Reduce Violence against Women and their Children 2010-2022.

Indicator 1.2	Community's (self-reported) willingness to intervene
Recommended data source	National Community Attitudes towards Violence Against Women Survey (NCAS). [Disag] [Pub] [Rep] [Svy]
Other drivers or reinforcing factors covered	Condoning of violence in general.
Socio-ecological level	Individual / Community / Societal.
Structure, norm or practice	Norm.
National and/or jurisdictional	Both.
Frequency data is collected	Findings from the 2017 NCAS are scheduled for release around 2018. The following NCAS is scheduled for 2021.
Population groups data is collected with disaggregation	Jurisdiction, age group, socio-economic status, birth place, migration status, language spoken, year of arrival, Indigenous status, education, occupation, family composition, household, disability status, and remoteness.
Expected change if quality prevention programming and infrastructure is implemented	Short and medium-term: Proportion of the population who say they would intervene will increase. Long-term: The proportion of the population who say they would intervene will peak and plateau.
Baseline data available	2013 data (n = 17,517) can be used as baseline data.
Comments	These survey questions measure what respondents think their actions might be in hypothetical situations. The responses will not necessarily give an accurate representation of actual bystander action.

1(b) Condoning of violence against women (response-related indicators)

The following indicators are response-related indicators, however they are used in *Counting on change* as they measure whether society condones violence against women, a key driver of violence against women. These indicators provide some measure of whether women feel they can safely report experiences of violence against women to a support services, the police, or someone else.

Indicator 1.3	Proportion of victims of violence against women who disclosed their experience to someone
Recommended data source	Personal Safety Survey (PSS) [Disag] [Pub] [Rep] [Svy]
Other drivers or reinforcing factors covered	Condoning of violence in general.
Socio-ecological level	Individual.
Structure, norm or practice	Practice.
National and/or jurisdictional	Both.
Frequency of data collection	Currently conducted every four years.
Level of disaggregation	Jurisdiction, age, type of violence.
Expected change if quality prevention programming and infrastructure is implemented	Short and medium-term: Proportion of women who have experienced intimate partner violence or sexual assault and told someone about their experience (i.e., friends, family or others) will increase as people in the community become more supportive of survivors of violence and less condoning of violence against women. Long-term: This proportion will plateau.
Baseline data available	Data from the 2005 and 2012 PSS (n = 17,050) can be used for baseline data.
Comments	Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander status is not available from the PSS. Some data has been collected regarding people who have experienced violence in same-sex relationships. The published PSS data also has limited cross-correlations with existing demographic factors.

Indicator 1.4	Number of calls and online requests received by violence against women help hotlines in past 12 months
Recommended data source	<p>Most states and territories have two or three domestic violence help lines. For a full list see: http://www.whiteribbon.org.au/finding-help. There is also the sexual assault, domestic and family violence service: 1800RESPECT. The data will require collation across jurisdictions.</p> <p>[Adm] [Disag] [Pub]</p>
Other drivers or reinforcing factors covered	Condoning of violence in general.
Socio-ecological level	Societal.
Structure, norm or practice	Norm/practice.
National and/or jurisdictional	Both.
Frequency of data collection	Data is collected frequently but reported annually.
Level of disaggregation	The data is disaggregated by jurisdiction and gender.
Expected change if quality prevention programming and infrastructure is implemented	<p>Short and medium-term: An increase in calls as awareness grows and services improve. Changes in the medium-term will be highly dependent on resourcing of the hotlines.</p> <p>Long-term: A decrease in the number of calls, depending on resourcing.</p>
Baseline data available	Between 16 August 2016 and 31 March 2017, the 1800RESPECT service received 48,602 contacts (telephone and online). Each contact was answered by a professional and experienced counsellor, providing support to people who are affected by or at risk of sexual assault and domestic and family violence.
Comments	These indicators may not be suited to all jurisdictions and contexts. For example, the Northern Territory does not have a dedicated Domestic/Family Violence hotline and has demonstrated low uptake to national domestic and family violence hotlines.
	<p>As the standard response procedures to family violence differ in each jurisdiction, careful consideration of the context in each state/territory is needed when analysing hotline/helpline data. For example, in Victoria male victims of family violence are referred electronically to the Victims of Crime Helpline by police, while women and children are mostly referred to the family violence services funded by Department of Health and Human Services. As a result, males are highly represented as victims of family violence in the Victims of Crime Helpline data.⁶⁸</p>

Indicator 1.5	Number of police call outs to intimate partner violence and family violence incidents and reports of sexual assault
Recommended data source	Australian Institute of Criminology (AIC). [Adm] [Pub]
Other drivers or reinforcing factors covered	Condoning of violence in general.
Socio-ecological level	Societal/community.
Structure, norm or practice	Norm/practice.
National and/or jurisdictional	Both.
Frequency of data collection	Most jurisdictions release their crime statistics publicly on a monthly and annual basis.
Level of disaggregation	The disaggregation of data differs across jurisdictions. However, data can generally be disaggregated by gender, jurisdiction, age group, socio-economic status, birth place, migration status, language spoken, year of arrival, Indigenous status, education, occupation, family composition, household, disability status, remoteness, and mental health.
Expected change if quality prevention programming and infrastructure is implemented	Short and medium-term: An increase in police call-outs as awareness grows and trust in the police/system improves. Call-out rates are expected to plateau in the medium-term Long term: Calls will fall as rates of intimate partner violence fall.
Baseline data available	Based on 2013-2015 nationwide data, police responded to approximately 239,846 domestic violence incidents each year. ⁶⁹
Comments	The definition for domestic violence and police protocol in responding to domestic violence incidents varies slightly across jurisdictions. The Australian Department of Human Services is currently funding the Australian Bureau of Statistics to improve the comparability and consistency of police data across jurisdictions.
Other potential data sources	Jurisdictional police department websites. [Adm] [Pub] Australian Bureau of Statistics aggregated data. [Adm] [Rq]

2. Rigid gender roles

Significantly higher levels of violence against women are consistently found in societies, communities and relationships where traditional and hierarchical interpretations of gender roles and responsibilities exist.⁷⁰ Idealised notions of what it means to be masculine or feminine sway social norms about gender roles and relations. A range of indicators were identified, from those that measured individual gendered attitudes, to gendered practices in the home and the workplace.

Indicator 2.1	Population level attitudes that support traditional gender roles (i.e., the percentage of people who believe 'women prefer a man to be in charge of the relationship' or 'men make better political leaders than women').
Recommended data source	National Community Attitudes towards Violence Against Women Survey (NCAS). [Disag] [Pub] [Svy] [Rep]
Other drivers or reinforcing factors covered	Stereotyped constructions of masculinity and femininity / limits to women's independence in private and public life.
Socio-ecological level	Societal/individual.
Structure, norm or practice	Norm/practice.
National and/or jurisdictional	Both.
Frequency of data collection	The next NCAS is scheduled for 2017 and 2021 (for release around 2018 and 2022 respectively).
Level of disaggregation	Jurisdiction, sex, age group, socio-economic status, birth place, migration status, language spoken, year of arrival, indigenous status, education, occupation, family composition, household, disability status, and remoteness.
Expected change if quality prevention programming and infrastructure is implemented	Short and medium-term: Proportion of the population who hold positive attitudes (i.e., rejecting traditional gender roles) will increase. Long term: The proportion of the population who hold positive attitudes will peak and plateau
Baseline data available	Data from the 2013 NCAS (n=17,517) can be used for baseline data.
Comments	Shifts in migration patterns and the ageing population must be taken into account.
Other potential data sources	Gender Equality Index. [Adm]

Indicator 2.2	Percentage of parental leave uptake by fathers versus mothers
Recommended data source	<p>Pregnancy and Employment Transitions Survey (PaETS) – a supplement to the Australian Bureau of Statistic’s (ABS) monthly Labour Force Survey.</p> <p>[Disag] [Pub] [Rep] [Svy]</p>
Other drivers or reinforcing factors covered	Stereotyped constructions of masculinity and femininity.
Socio-ecological level	Individual/organisational/system.
Structure, norm or practice	Norm/practice.
National and/or jurisdictional	National.
Frequency of data collection	The last report including the PaETS supplement was released in 2011.
Level of disaggregation	Beyond gender disaggregation, Australian Bureau of Statistics does not publish demographic breakdown, however, this data can be provided upon request.
Expected change if quality prevention programming and infrastructure is implemented	<p>Short and medium-term: Increased uptake of some (paid or unpaid) parental leave by fathers. Parental leave uptake by mothers will remain the same, however the length of parental leave by mothers may decrease slightly.</p> <p>Long term: The gap between mothers and fathers taking-up parental leave will close and eventually reach parity.</p>
Baseline data available	The data from the 2011 Australian Bureau of Statistics summary (n=1,351 birth mothers) and the 2014 Australian Human Rights Commission report (2000 =mothers; 1000= fathers) can be used as baseline data.
Comments	<p>It would be useful to include adopted parents in the Australian Bureau of Statistics sample as well as birth mothers.</p> <p>It would also be useful analysis in socio-economic status or income bracket to determine whether parents from certain income brackets benefit from parental leave more than others. If efforts are targeted at particular sectors (e.g., unionised work force versus the private sector) we would want to be able to disaggregate the data by type of work.</p> <p>The PaETS does not include Indigenous communities living in remote areas.</p>

Other potential data sources	<p>Australian Human Rights Commission (AHRC), <i>Supporting Working Parents Survey</i>. [Svy] [Disag] [Pub] [Rep]</p> <p>This study included two surveys; a Mothers Survey and a Fathers and Partners Survey. The Mothers Survey is the first nationally representative study of women's perceived experiences of discrimination in the workplace as a result of their: pregnancy; request for, or taking, parental leave; and return to work following parental leave. The Fathers and Partners Survey measured the experienced of fathers or partners who took 2 weeks leave of care for their child under the Dad and Partner Pay scheme. The most recent report was commissioned in 2013 and released in 2014. AHRC data is disaggregated by age (young versus older); culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander status, disability, and sole income earner.</p>
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Indicator 2.3	Gender composition of the workforce by occupation / industry
Recommended data source	<p>Workplace Gender Equality Agency (WGEA)</p> <p>[Pub] [Adm] [Disag]</p>
Other drivers or reinforcing factors covered	Stereotyped constructions of masculinity and femininity.
Socio-ecological level	Individual / Organisational / Societal.
Structure, norm or practice	Norm.
National and/or jurisdictional	National.
Frequency of data collection	Fact sheets and research reports released monthly.
Level of disaggregation	Gender, working patterns (full-time and part-time).
Expected change if quality prevention programming and infrastructure is implemented	<p>Short and medium-term: Limited change in the gender composition of workplaces</p> <p>Long term: Gender composition to become more balanced.</p>
Baseline data available	<p>The most recent factsheet can be used as baseline data (November 2015) https://www.wgea.gov.au/sites/default/files/Gender_composition_of_the_workforce_occupation.pdf.</p>

Comments	<p>Labour force data is collected quarterly; however, it is unknown how regularly this is analysed by the WGEA.</p> <p>The WGEA is not representative of all workplaces, and there is no demographic breakdown of data beyond gender.</p>
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Indicator 2.4	Proportion of time women spend in unpaid care work compared to men
Recommended data source	Household Income and Labour Dynamics Australia (HILDA) Survey. [Pub] [Svy] [Disag]
Other drivers or reinforcing factors covered	Stereotyped constructions of masculinity and femininity.
Socio-ecological level	Individual / Societal.
Structure, norm or practice	Norm/practice.
National and/or jurisdictional	National.
Frequency of data collection	Reports are released annually.
Level of disaggregation	The same household and individuals are interviewed each year. The data is disaggregated by family, income, socio-economic status, education.
Expected change if quality prevention programming and infrastructure is implemented	<p>Short and medium-term: Evidence of increased uptake of some unpaid care by men, and women will continue to do most of the unpaid care work. In the medium-term, increased uptake of unpaid care work by men with evidence that this is more readily accepted</p> <p>Long term: An increase in uptake of unpaid care work among men, eventually reaching parity.</p>
Baseline data available	Baseline data can be found in the 2013 annual report (Interviews completed with all eligible members = 6,872; Interviews completed with at least one eligible member = 810; eligible people completed the Self-Completion questionnaire = 13,055).

Comments	The HILDA Survey is a nationally representative longitudinal study managed by the University of Melbourne and funded by the Australian Government through the Department of Social Services. This annual survey collects data from Australian households about: family life; economic, health and subjective well-being; and labour market outcomes.
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3. Stereotyped constructions of masculinity and femininity

Rigid constructions of, and a strong belief in, gendered personal identities or what it means to be 'masculine' or 'feminine' are also key drivers of violence against women. Individuals who see men and women as having specific and distinct characteristics are more likely to condone, tolerate or excuse such violence.⁷¹ Moreover, individuals who subscribe to such gendered beliefs and attitudes, notions of femininity which objectify women, and beliefs and attitudes which associate femininity with 'moral' standards of behaviour, are more likely to condone the use of violence against women.⁷²

Indicator 3.1	Community norms that support the idea that to be a man you need to dominate women, be in control and/or use violence to assert status and resolve disputes
Recommended data source	There are key gaps in this area of research. To address this, a qualitative analysis of this topic will be included alongside the representation and coverage of masculinity in the media and in sporting codes and Indigenous conflict.
Other drivers or reinforcing factors covered	Male peer relations that emphasise aggression.
Socio-ecological level	Societal/ community/ individual.
Structure, norm or practice	Norm.

Indicator 3.2	Attitudes related to male sexual entitlement
Recommended data source	There are key gaps in this area of research. To address this, a qualitative analysis of this topic will be included alongside the representation and coverage of masculinity in the media and in sporting codes.
Socio-ecological level	Societal/ community/ individual
Structure, norm or practice	Norm/practice

4. Men's control of decision-making

Research indicates that violence is more frequent in families and relationships where males control decision making.⁷³ Additionally, men who adhere to notions of masculinity that involve male control and dominance are more likely to perpetrate non-partner sexual assault.⁷⁴ Stereotypical portrayals of masculinity often represent male control and dominance as a normal or inevitable part of heterosexual and intimate relationships, and are widely normalised in popular culture as well as learned in peer groups and the family.⁷⁵ The dominance of men in key decision-making roles, such as leaders in government, private companies, and other organisations underline the persistent gender inequality at all levels of the socio-ecological model.

A range of indicators were identified under this driver, from those measuring gender inequality in the home, to gender inequality at the corporate level and in parliament.

Indicator 4.1	Percentage of CEOs who are women
Recommended data source	Workplace Gender Equality Agency (WGEA) collects data and reports on the representation of women in management positions in non-public sector employers with 100 or more employees. [Adm] [Disag] [Pub]
Other drivers or reinforcing factors covered	Limits to women's independence in public life/ rigid gender roles.
Socio-ecological level	Societal/organisational.
Structure, norm or practice	Structure/practice.
National and/or jurisdictional	Both.
Frequency of data collection	Reports are updated every six months.
Level of disaggregation	Jurisdiction, sex, age group, socio-economic status, birth place, migration status, language spoken, year of arrival, Indigenous status, education, occupation, family composition, household, disability status, and remoteness.
Expected change if quality prevention programming and infrastructure is implemented	Short and medium-term: Some increase in the percentage of women on boards as awareness of gender equality grows Long term: Parity in gender composition of CEOs in Australia.
Baseline data available	Data from the 2015-16 WGEA Report released in November 2016 can be used as baseline data.

Comments	<p>Currently, the WGEA only collects data from large, private organisations. It is recommended that this is extended to public and non-profit institutions to provide a more representative sample.</p> <p>The Data Explorer tool on the WGEA website provides users with the ability to compare data by industry, organisation size and employment status (full-time/part-time/casual).</p>
Other potential data sources	<p>Australian Bureau of Statistics' Gender Indicators.</p> <p>[Adm] [Disag] [Pub] [Rep]</p>

Indicator 4.2	Percentage of managerial positions (private sector) occupied by women
Recommended data source	<p>Workplace Gender Equality Agency (WGEA)</p> <p>[Adm] [Disag] [Pub]</p> <p>Refer to Indicator 4.1 for details.</p>

Indicator 4.3	Equitable decision making between partners as measured in surveys
Recommended data source	<p>Household Income and Labour Dynamics Australia (HILDA) Survey.</p> <p>[Svy] [Disag] [Pub] [Rep]</p>
Other drivers or reinforcing factors covered	Limits to women's independence in public life/ rigid gender roles/ stereotyped constructions of masculinity and femininity.
Socio-ecological level	Societal/individual.
Structure, norm or practice	Structure/practice.
National and/or jurisdictional	National.
Frequency of data collection	HILDA reports are released annually.
Level of disaggregation	The same household and/or individuals are interviewed each year. The data is disaggregated by family, income, socio-economic status, education.

Expected change if quality prevention programming and infrastructure is implemented	<p>Short and medium-term: Evidence of increased involvement of women in decision making with more ready acceptance</p> <p>Long term: Increased decision-making by women, reaching parity.</p>
Baseline data available	Data from the 2013 HILDA report (interviews with eligible household members = 6872; interviews with at least one eligible household member = 810; eligible people completed self-completion questionnaire = 13,055)
Other potential data source	<p>Longitudinal Study of Australian Children (LSAC).</p> <p>[Svy] [Disag] [Pub] [Rep]</p> <p>LSAC statistical and research reports are released annually.</p>

Indicator 4.4	Percentage of political representatives who are women (at Commonwealth, state/territory, and Local Government level)
Recommended data source	Australian Government websites – numbers and proportions of women members of the House of Representatives, Senate and local government representatives [Pub]
Other drivers or reinforcing factors covered	Limits to women's independence in public life / rigid gender roles.
Socio-ecological level	Societal / organisational.
Structure, norm or practice	Structure / practice.
National and/or jurisdictional	National, jurisdictional and LGA
Frequency of data collection	Data is updated regularly on government website.
Level of disaggregation	<p>The demographic details of members of parliament, senators, and local government representatives, although not collated, is publicly available.</p> <p>See, for examples: <i>'Are you reflected in the new parliament?'</i> Retrieved from https://www.theguardian.com/australia-news/datablog/ng-interactive/2016/aug/31/are-you-reflected-in-the-new-parliament-diversity-survey-of-australian-politics.</p>
Expected change if quality prevention programming and infrastructure is implemented	<p>Short and medium-term: Increases in the number of women as political representatives</p> <p>Long term: Gender parity.</p>

Baseline data available	Data from the Australian Government can be used as baseline data.
Other potential data sources	Australian Bureau of Statistics' Gender Indicators [Adm] [Disag] [Pub] [Rep] State Governments – lists of members in the State parliaments [Adm] [Pub]

Indicator 4.5	Percentage of Ministers and/or Cabinet members who are women
Recommended data source	Australian (Commonwealth, state and territory) Governments – lists of Australian Government Cabinet. ⁷⁶ [Adm] [Pub]
Other drivers or reinforcing factors covered	Limits to women's independence in public life / rigid gender roles.
Socio-ecological level	Societal/organisational.
Structure, norm or practice	Structure/practice.
National and/or jurisdictional	Both.
Frequency of data collection	Data is updated regularly on government website.
Expected change if quality prevention programming and infrastructure is implemented	Short, medium, and long-term: Women will assume more ministerial positions in government, with greater gender parity in the Cabinet. Additionally, women will hold ministerial positions traditionally filled by men (such as Defence and Treasury).
Baseline data available	Data from the Australian Government can be used as baseline data.
Other potential data sources	Australian Bureau of Statistics' Gender Indicators [Adm] [Disag] [Pub] [Rep]

Indicator 4.6	Proportion of community and cultural leaders who are women (e.g., female sports coaches/umpires, faith leaders, newspaper editors, directors of theatre/art companies)
Recommended data source	Currently, no instrument exists to measure this indicator. For such an instrument to be created, selection of a reflective set of sectors or groups would be needed.
Other drivers or reinforcing factors covered	Limits to women's independence in public life / rigid gender roles.
Socio-ecological level	Societal/ community.
Structure, norm or practice	Structure/practice.

5. Limits to women's independence in public life (including economic, social and political independence)

Unequal access to education or economic resources, or lack of control over finances or social independence, can increase the probability of violence against women by undermining their participation in the public sphere, particularly in formal-decision making and civic action. This has a compounding impact because women in positions of power are more likely than men to act to secure women's freedom from violence.⁷⁷

A range of indicators were identified, including those that measure sexual harassment in the workplace, women's sense of safety in public spaces, and the gender pay gap.

Indicator 5.1	Percentage of female employees surveyed who have experienced sexual harassment or sexual discrimination in the workplace; and perceptions of how organisations would respond to sexual harassment cases
Recommended data source	The Anti-Discrimination Boards/Equal Opportunity Commission of the states and territories each hold data on workplace-related complaints of sexual harassment or other sex discrimination from women in their jurisdictions. Selected data is published in their annual reports. [Adm] [Pub] [Rq]
Other drivers or reinforcing factors covered	Stereotyped constructions of masculinity and femininity.
Socio-ecological level	Organisational.
Structure, norm or practice	Practice.
National and/or jurisdictional	National.

Frequency of data collection	Sporadically (2003, 2008, 2012)
Level of disaggregation	This may vary by jurisdiction
Expected change if quality prevention programming and infrastructure is implemented	<p>Short and medium-term: An increase in reporting of sexual harassment and discrimination (i.e., as a percentage of incidents)</p> <p>Long term: Reporting rates plateau, falling as incident rates fall.</p>
Baseline data available	Data from the 2008 Human Rights Commission (HRC) report (n= 2005) and the 2003 Human Rights and Equal Opportunity Commission (HREOC) report (n=2002) can be used as baseline data. In addition, annual reports from the jurisdictions can provide additional baseline data for states and territories.
Other potential data sources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The Australian Human Rights Commission's (AHRC) 'Sexual harassment: serious business. Results of the 2008 Sexual Harassment National Telephone Survey'. [Svy] [Pub] [Disag] https://www.humanrights.gov.au/sites/default/files/content/sexualharassment/serious_business/SHSB_Report2008.pdf <p>The HRC Sexual Harassment phone study disaggregated data by gender, workplace, occupation.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The AHRC's 'Working without fear: results of the sexual harassment national telephone survey 2012'. [Svy] [Pub] [Disag] https://www.humanrights.gov.au/sites/default/files/content/sexualharassment/survey/SHSR_2012%20Web%20Version%20Final.pdf. The AHRC's study disaggregated data by gender, age, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander status, culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds, employment status, workplace. <p>The Australian Government Department of Social Services is funding the AHRC to conduct a fourth wave of this survey. The results of this survey are expected to be released in mid-2018.</p>

Indicator 5.2	Gender pay gap
Recommended data source	Australian Bureau of Statistics' Gender Indicators. [Adm] [Pub] [Rep] [Disag]
Other drivers or reinforcing factors covered	Limits to women's independence in public life/ rigid gender roles.
Socio-ecological level	Societal/organisational.
Structure, norm or practice	Structure/practice.
National and/or jurisdictional	Both.
Frequency of data collection	Reports are updated every six months.
Level of disaggregation	Data sources 1, 2 & 3. Jurisdiction, age group, socio-economic status, birth place, migration status, language spoken, year of arrival, Indigenous status, education, occupation, family composition, household, disability status, remoteness, industry, sector, rate of pay, employee type, managerial status, contract status, full-time/part-time status, and methods of setting pay.
Expected change if quality prevention programming and infrastructure is implemented	Short and medium-term: Small advances towards reducing the gender pay gap across industries and occupations Long term: Gender pay parity.
Baseline data available	Data from the Australian Bureau of Statistics' Average Weekly Earnings Survey (n = 5500), the 2014 Australian Bureau of Statistics' Employee Earnings and Hours Survey (9,898,900 49.5% male, 50.5% female), the 2013 Household Income and Labour Dynamics Australia Survey (HILDA) report (interviews with eligible household members = 6872; interviews with at least one eligible household member = 810; eligible people completed self-completion questionnaire = 13,055), and the 2016 Workplace Gender Equality Agency (WGEA) report can be used for baseline data. In addition, data collected by the public sector commissions across the country can be used by states and territories to assist with measurement.
Other potential data sources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Australian Bureau of Statistics' Average Weekly Earnings, Australia – average weekly ordinary time earnings for full-time adult employees over 21 years of age. [Svy] [Rep] [Pub] [Disag]

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Australian Bureau of Statistics' Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia – average hourly total cash earnings for non-managerial workers paid at the adult rate. [Svy] [Rep] [Pub] [Disag] • Household Income and Labour Dynamics Australia Survey (HILDA) Survey – median total annual earnings for full-time employees aged 21 to 69 years of age. [Svy] [Disag] [Pub] • WGEA Gender Equity Insights 2016: Inside Australia's Gender Pay Gap. The WGEA also produces an analysis of reporting data each year. The Data Explorer tool on the WGEA website provides an analysis of gender pay equity which can be filtered by industry, employment type (full-time/part-time/casual) and organisation size. [Adm] [Pub] [Disag] • The Public Sector Commission of each state and territory provides annual Workforce Profile Reports. [Adm] [Pub] [Disag]
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Indicator 5.3	Superannuation gap and retirement gap
Recommended data source	Australian Bureau of Statistics' Employment Arrangements, retirement and superannuation Australia [Svy] [Disag] [Pub] [Rep]
Other drivers or reinforcing factors covered	Limits to women's independence in public life/ rigid gender roles.
Socio-ecological level	Societal/organisational.
Structure, norm or practice	Structure/practice.
National and/or jurisdictional	Both.
Frequency of data collection	Most recent reports are from 2000 and 2007.
Level of disaggregation	Jurisdiction, age group, socio-economic status, birth place, migration status, language spoken, year of arrival, indigenous status, education, occupation, family composition, household, disability status, remoteness, industry, sector, rate of pay, employee type, managerial status, contract status, full-time/part-time status, and family child care arrangements.

Expected change if quality prevention programming and infrastructure is implemented	<p>Short and medium-term: Small advances in reducing the superannuation and retirement pay gap across industries and occupations</p> <p>Long term: Superannuation and retirement pay parity.</p>
Baseline data available	Data released in the ISO Calculations of the Australian Tax Office Taxation Statistics 2013-2014, and the 2007 Australian Bureau of Statistics report (n = 29,972) can be used for baseline data.
Other potential data sources	<p>Australian Tax Office. [Adm] [Rep] [Pub] ISA Calculations of ATO Taxation Statistics 2013-2014 released in 2016.</p> <p>Industry Super Fund Australia. [Adm] [Pub] Industry Super Fund Australia releases regular reports on the gender gap in Australia.</p>

Indicator 5.4	Percentage of women who report feeling unsafe in public spaces
Recommended data source	<p>Personal Safety Survey (PSS). General Social Survey</p> <p>[Svy] [Rep] [Disag] [Pub]</p>
Other drivers or reinforcing factors covered	Limits to women's independence in public life/ rigid gender roles.
Socio-ecological level	Societal/organisational.
Structure, norm or practice	Structure/practice.
Process or outcome indicator	Outcome.
National and/or jurisdictional	Both.
Frequency of data collection	Every four years.
Population groups data is collected with/disaggregation	Jurisdiction, age, type of violence.
Expected change if quality prevention programming and infrastructure is implemented	It is difficult to predict the short- and medium-term changes to this indicator. The proportion of women reporting fearfulness of public spaces will be an outcome of not only the real level of safety in public spaces for women, but also the way public safety is reported in the media etc.
Baseline data available	Data from the 2012 PSS (n = 17,050) can be used as baseline data.

Comments	<p>The 2012 PSS includes the questions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In general, do you feel safe while using public transport alone at night? • In general, do you feel safe when walking alone in your local area at night? • In the last 12 months, have you felt safe when home alone at night?
Other potential data sources	General Social Survey [Svy] [Rep] [Disag] [Pub]

6. Limits to women's independence in relationships

Limiting or controlling women's social independence increases the probability of violence against women. Isolating women from support networks of family and friends is a well-known form of controlling behaviour and psychological abuse. Social structures and environments which limit opportunities for women to form strong relationships with other women can isolate them from emotional and practical support that could strengthen their autonomy and help them recognise early signs of violence.

Women, especially those with responsibility for children, may find it difficult to leave violent relationships if they are economically dependent on men, and if they lack independent friendships that provide emotional and logistical support.

Indicator 6.1	Percentage of women who report controlling behaviour in a relationship (men's control over women)
Recommended data source	<p>Personal Safety Survey (PSS).</p> <p>[Disag] [Pub] [Rep] [Svy]</p>
Other drivers or reinforcing factors covered	Rigid gender roles/ men's control of decision making/ limits to women's independence in public life.
Socio-ecological level	Individual.
Structure, norm or practice	Norm.
National and/or jurisdictional	Both.
Frequency of data collection	Every four years.
Level of disaggregation	Jurisdiction, age, type of violence.

Expected change if quality prevention programming and infrastructure is implemented	Short and medium-term: Increased rates of women reporting controlling behaviour in relationships as it becomes more socially acceptable to report such behaviour Long-term: These rates plateau.
Baseline data available	Data from the 2012 PSS (n = 17,050) can be used for baseline data.
Comments	Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander status is not available from the PSS. The published PSS data also has limited cross-correlations with existing demographic factors. The 2012 PSS has additional limitations which are discussed further in the Survey Instruments Annex.

7. Male peer relations emphasising aggression and disrespect towards women

Male peer relations are important sources of friendship and support for men. However, where they reinforce stereotypical and aggressive forms of masculinity, and/or the notion that relationships between men and women are fraught by conflict, this can result in disrespect for, objectification of, or hostility towards women.

The 2017 National Community Attitudes towards Violence Against Women Survey (NCAS) will include questions which seek to measure attitudes towards male peer relations that emphasise aggression and disrespect towards women. These items aim to gauge respondents' attitudes towards men being hostile/disrespectful towards women when they are among their male friends. The 2017 NCAS will also ask respondents about the gender composition of their social network in order to assess how this might influence their attitudes.

This driver could also potentially be measured through a regular analysis of qualitative and/or quantitative social media data.

Indicator 7.1	Male peer relations emphasising aggression and disrespect towards women
Recommended data source	National Community Attitudes towards Violence Against Women Survey (NCAS). [Disag] [Pub] [Svy] [Rep] NCAS 2017 will include new questions which seek to measure attitudes towards male peer relations that emphasise aggression and disrespect towards women.
Other drivers or reinforcing factors covered	Condoning of violence against women /condoning of violence in general.
Socio-ecological level	Individual and relationship / organisational and community.

Structure, norm or practice	Norm.
National and/or jurisdictional	Both.
Frequency of data collection	The next NCAS is scheduled for 2017 and another in 2021 (for release around 2018 and 2022 respectively).
Level of disaggregation	Jurisdiction, age group, socio-economic status, birth place, migration status, language spoken, year of arrival, indigenous status, education, occupation, family composition, household, disability status, and remoteness.
Expected change if quality prevention programming and infrastructure is implemented	<p>Short and medium-term: Proportion of the male population who report valuing peer relations which emphasise aggression and disrespect towards women will decrease. Backlash effects may also be evident in the short and medium-term.</p> <p>Long term: The proportion of the male population who report valuing peer relations which emphasise aggression and disrespect towards women will decrease.</p>
Baseline data available	2017 will be the first time the NCAS measures this driver. 2017 will therefore be the baseline.

INDICATORS: Reinforcing factors

Reinforcing factors underpin the drivers of violence against women. Alone they are insufficient predictors of violence against women, however paired with the gendered drivers they can increase the probability, frequency or severity of such violence.

The following list of proposed indicators measure the five main reinforcing factors of violence against women:

- Condoning of violence in general.
- Experience of, and exposure to, violence.
- Weakening of pro-social behaviour, especially harmful use of alcohol.
- Socio-economic inequality and discrimination.
- Backlash factors (when male dominance, power or status is challenged).

8. Condoning of violence in general

Studies show that people learn about violence not in isolation, but in the context of learning about and experiencing social norms about gender and gender (in)equality, particularly masculine gender identities. The violence that our society normalises, valorises or condones is in itself ‘masculinised’. The vast majority of acts of violence – whether against women or men, in public or private, in reality or in media and cultural representations – are perpetrated, or depicted as perpetrated, by men.⁷⁸

The valorisation of masculine violence in media and popular culture, or in male-dominated peer groups such as gangs or some sporting clubs, predicts a higher likelihood of all types of violence – including, but not only, violence against women.

Indicator 8.1	Gendered attitudes towards violence and acceptability of violence in general
Recommended data source	National Community Attitudes towards Violence Against Women Survey (NCAS). [Disag] [Pub] [Svy] [Rep] NCAS 2017 will include new questions which seek to measure respondents’ support for violence in general.
Other drivers or reinforcing factors covered	Condoning of violence against women; experience of and exposure to violence; male peer relations that emphasise aggression and disrespect towards women.
Socio-ecological level	Societal.
Structure, norm or practice	Norm.
Frequency of data collection	The next NCAS are scheduled for 2017 and 2021 (for release around 2018 and 2022 respectively).
Level of disaggregation	Jurisdiction, sex, age group, socio-economic status, birth place, migration status, language spoken, year of arrival, indigenous status, education, occupation, family composition, household, disability status, and remoteness.
Expected change if quality prevention programming and infrastructure is implemented	Short and medium-term: The proportion of the population who reject gendered attitudes towards violence and acceptability will increase Long-term: This proportion will plateau.
Baseline data available	2017 will be the first time the NCAS measures this driver. 2017 will necessarily be the baseline.

9. Experience of and exposure to violence

Exposure to violence as a child (such as witnessing abuse of a family member or friend), direct experience of violence (such as child physical or sexual abuse) or long-term exposure to other forms of violence either during childhood or adulthood (such as racial violence, community violence, armed conflict), can contribute to the normalisation of violence, especially where positive supports or reinforcements are lacking.

Male on male violence is also important to measure. International research suggests that men involved in physical violence are more likely to perpetrate violence against women than men who do not use physical violence over other men. This type of violent behaviour is linked to models of masculinity that emphasise dominance and power over women, and condone violence against women.⁷⁹

A range of indicators were identified, including those measuring exposure to violence in childhood, and those measuring direct experience of, or involvement in violence as an adult.

Indicator 9.1	Percentage of women who experienced violence reporting that children heard or saw the violence
Recommended data source	Personal Safety Survey (PSS). [Svy] [Disag] [Pub] [Rep]
Other drivers or reinforcing factors covered	Condoning of violence against women; condoning of violence in general.
Socio-ecological level	Societal.
Structure, norm or practice	Norm/practice.
National and/or jurisdictional	National.
Frequency of data collection	Data is collected annually.
Level of disaggregation	Jurisdiction, age, type of violence.
Expected change if quality prevention programming and infrastructure is implemented	Short and medium-term: Increased reports of children witnessing violence. Long-term: These rates will plateau and then fall.
Baseline data available	PSS 2012 data shows that, of the women who reported experiencing violence since age 15, over half a million women reported their children had seen or heard partner violence
Comments	Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander status are not available from the PSS. The published PSS data also has limited cross-correlations with existing demographic factors.

Other potential data sources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Child Protection Australia Report (Australian Institute of Health and Welfare). The data is being collated through the Child Protection National Minimum Data Set (CP NMDS), which will provide a more comprehensive and accurate picture of children within the statutory child protection system. [Adm] [Pub] National Framework for Protecting Australia's Children 2009-2020 (National Framework). [Adm] [Pub]
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Indicator 9.2	Proportion of children aged 0-17 years who experienced any physical punishment and/or psychological aggression that constitutes abuse by caregivers in the past month
Recommended data source	Child Protection Australia Report (Australian Institute of Health and Welfare). The data is being collated through the Child Protection National Minimum Data Set (CP NMDS), which will provide a more comprehensive and accurate picture of children within the statutory child protection system. [Adm] [Pub]
Other drivers or reinforcing factors covered	Condoning of violence in general; harmful use of alcohol.
Socio-ecological level	Societal.
Structure, norm or practice	Norm/practice.
National and/or jurisdictional	National.
Frequency of data collection	CP NMDS data is collected annually.
Level of disaggregation	Jurisdiction, age, type of violence.
Expected changes if quality prevention programming and infrastructure is implemented	<p>Short and medium-term: Increased reports of child abuse and neglect.</p> <p>Long term: These reports will plateau.</p>
Baseline data available	Data from the 2013/14 Child Protection Report (as reported by the CP NMDS) can be used as baseline data.
Comments	Each jurisdiction currently has a different interpretation of child abuse or neglect. It might be helpful to standardise the definition/interpretation to ensure consistent and comparable data.
Other potential data sources	National Framework for Protecting Australia's Children 2009-2020 (National Framework). [Adm] [Pub]

Indicator 9.3	Percentage of men who have experienced violence by a male perpetrator in the past 12 months (male victims of male on male violence)
Recommended data source	Personal Safety Survey (PSS). [Svy] [Disag] [Pub] [Rep]
Other drivers or reinforcing factors covered	Condoning of violence against women; experience of and exposure to violence; male peer relations that emphasise aggression and disrespect towards women; harmful use of alcohol.
Socio-ecological level	Societal.
Structure, norm or practice	Norm.
National and/or jurisdictional	Both.
Frequency of data collection	Data collected annually.
Level of disaggregation	Jurisdiction, age, type of violence.
Expected changes if quality prevention programming and infrastructure is implemented	Short and medium-term: Reported rates of violence will increase with increased awareness. Long term: Experiences of male on male violence will plateau.
Baseline data available	Data from the 2014/15 Crime Victimisation Survey (n = 27,341) and the 2012 PSS (n = 17,050) can be used as baseline data.
Comments	Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander status are not available from the PSS. The published PSS data also has limited cross-correlations with existing demographic factors. Only respondents over the age of 18 are asked about experiences of sexual violence in the Crime Victimisation Survey.
Other potential data sources	Australian Bureau of Statistics' population based Crime and Victimisation Surveys (CVS) (as part of the Multipurpose Household Survey (MPHS)). [Svy] [Disag] [Pub] [Rep] CVS data can be disaggregated by: Jurisdiction, sex, age group, socio-economic status, birth place, migration status, language spoken, year of arrival, Indigenous status, education, occupation, family composition, household, disability status, and remoteness.

10. Weakening of pro-social behaviour, especially the harmful use of alcohol

An additional group of factors have been highlighted as increasing the probability of violence against women, because they negatively impact the behaviour of individuals who may otherwise generally uphold gender-equitable attitudes and non-violent behaviour. These reinforcing factors include any factor with potential to erode or weaken pro-social behaviour, enhance individualistic tendencies, or reduce concern for others and the repercussions of certain behaviours.

Alcohol is a factor that features in a disproportionate number of incidents of violence against women.⁸⁰ Although it is not a driver of violence against women, it becomes a reinforcing factor when it interacts with social norms and practices that condone or support violence against women, especially those relating to masculinity or negative peer group behaviour. Research is limited on the ways other drugs impact on violence against women, and drug-use in the context of gendered socialisation and power differentials.

A range of possible indicators were identified under this reinforcing factor. However, few assessed the attitudes or norms related to drinking and violence or anti-social behaviour, especially in relation to violence against women. In addition to the indicator presented below, qualitative reports should be conducted to further measure the link between alcohol abuse (particularly binge drinking), violence against women and the condoning of violence against women in contexts where alcohol has been consumed.

Indicator 10.1	<p>Percentage of population who report that, in the last 12 months, their drinking or being drunk:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • has had a harmful effect on their intimate relationship; • has had a harmful effect on their family members, including their children; • had played a role in them getting involved in a (verbal and/or physical) fight.
Recommended data source	<p>Gender, Alcohol and Culture: An International Study (GENACIS) survey.</p> <p>[Svy] [Disag] [Rep] [Pub]</p>
Socio-ecological level	Societal/individual.
Structure, norm or practice	Norm.
National and/or jurisdictional	Both.
Frequency of data collection	Sporadically. Previously collected in 2003 and 2008.
Level of disaggregation	Population over the age of 14; disaggregated by age; sex.

Expected changes if quality prevention programming and infrastructure is implemented	<p>Short and medium-term: Decreased rate of binge drinking among different age and population groups and a change in attitudes towards it</p> <p>Long-term: Binge drinking further reduced.</p>
Baseline data available	Data from the 2008 GENACIS survey (n = 2483: 1284 – women; 1199 – men) can be used as baseline data. In addition, states and territories can use 2016 jurisdictional reports from the Foundation for Alcohol Research and Education for further measurement at the local level.
Other potential data sources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Foundation for Alcohol Research and Education (FARE) Annual Alcohol Poll on attitudes and behaviours. [Svy] [Disag] [Pub] <p>FARE survey is conducted annually. Population over the age of 18; disaggregated by age; sex.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> National Drug Strategy Household Survey (NDSHS) (Australian Institute of Health and Welfare) [Svy] [Disag] [Rep] [Pub] <p>NDSHS collects data every two to three years.</p>

11. Backlash factors

Backlash theories point to the aggressive and sometimes violent resistance to change that has been demonstrated in the international research when rigid gender roles and stereotyped constructions of masculinity and femininity are challenged. For example, violence against women is more likely to be condoned in societies undergoing rapid social and economic change, where women are being propelled into more prominent roles in paid work and civic society.⁸¹ At an individual/relationship level, men who have fewer economic and social resources relative to their partners (whether in the form of employment, education or income) have been shown to be more likely to perpetrate violence against women, but this is primarily among men holding stereotypical beliefs about their roles as ‘providers’.⁸² Men with fewer resources than their partners who hold more egalitarian beliefs about gender roles do not have a greater risk of perpetration.⁸³ Increases in perpetration of violence in such circumstances indicate that violence is used as a tool to re-establish a perceived ‘natural’, ‘traditional’ or pre-existing gender order.

The 2017 National Community Attitudes towards Violence against Women Survey will include questions which seek to measure backlash factors. These items aim to gauge population-level attitudes which express denial of continued gender inequality and hostility towards women.

Indicator 11.1	Backlash factors
Recommended data source	<p>National Community Attitudes towards Violence against Women Survey (NCAS).</p> <p>[Disag] [Pub] [Svy] [Rep]</p> <p>NCAS 2017 will include new questions which aim to gauge population-level attitudes which express denial of continued gender inequality and hostility towards women.</p>
Other drivers or reinforcing factors covered	Male peer relations that emphasise aggression and disrespect towards women; condoning of violence against women; rigid gender roles; stereotypes of masculinity and femininity.
Socio-ecological level	Societal/community.
Structure, norm or practice	Norm/practice.
National and/or jurisdictional	Both.
Frequency of data collection	The next NCAS is scheduled for 2017 and another in 2021 (for release around 2018 and 2022 respectively).
Level of disaggregation	Jurisdiction, age group, socio-economic status, birth place, migration status, language spoken, year of arrival, indigenous status, education, occupation, family composition, household, disability status, and remoteness.
Expected changes if quality prevention programming and infrastructure is implemented	<p>Short and medium-term: Proportion of the population who express: denial of continued gender inequality; hostility towards women; and antagonism towards the women's movement, may increase.</p> <p>Long term: If effective strategies to address backlash are put into place, the proportion of the population who express these views will decrease.</p>
Baseline data available	2017 will be the first time the NCAS measures this driver. 2017 will necessarily be the baseline.

12. Socio-economic inequality and discrimination

The intersection of gender inequality with other forms of inequality such as discrimination or racism can increase violence against women. Any factor that undermines or limits women's access to social and economic power, together with the aforementioned gendered drivers, increases the risk of violence against them. Women in communities affected by multiple forms of discrimination and disadvantage may also be unwilling to report violence due to ableism, homophobia, mistrust or a sense of cultural solidarity to male members of their community.

Indicator 12.1	Proportion of population reporting having personally felt discriminated against or harassed in the past 12 months on the basis of a ground of discrimination prohibited under international human rights law
Recommended data source	General Social Survey (GSS) [Svy] [Disag] [Pub] [Rep]
Other drivers or reinforcing factors covered	Experience of and exposure to violence.
Socio-ecological level	Societal/ community/ individual/ system.
Structure, norm or practice	Structure/ norm/ practice.
National and/or jurisdictional	Both.
Frequency of data collection	Data collected every four years.
Level of disaggregation	Jurisdiction, sex, age group, socio-economic status, birth place, migration status, language spoken, year of arrival, indigenous status, education, occupation, family composition, household, disability status, and remoteness.
Baseline data available	Data from the 2014 General Social Survey (n = 12,932) can be used for baseline data.
Other potential data sources	The Australian Human Rights Commission's annual reports on alleged discrimination and breaches of human rights ⁸⁴ [Adm] [Disag] [Pub] Reports published annually.

Indicator 12.2	Proportion of population living below the poverty line, by sex and age
Recommended data source	Income and Expenditure Survey. [Svy] [Pub] [Disag] [Rep]
Socio-ecological level	Societal/community.
Structure, norm or practice	Structure.
National and/or jurisdictional	National.
Frequency of data collection	Data is collected every four years.

Level of disaggregation	Jurisdiction, sex, age group, socio-economic status, birth place, migration status, language spoken, year of arrival, indigenous status, education, occupation, family composition, household, disability status, and remoteness.
Baseline data available	Data from the 2011/12 Income and Expenditure Survey (n = 9744), and 2016 Gender Equality Index report can be used as baseline data.
Other potential data sources	The Gender Inequality Index http://hdr.undp.org/en/content/gender-inequality-index . [Adm] [Disag] [Pub] Data reported annually.

Indicator 12.3	Indigenous structural disadvantage
Recommended data source	National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Social Survey (NATSISS). [Svy] [Disag] [Pub]
Socio-ecological level	Societal/systems.
Structure, norm or practice	Structure.
National and/or jurisdictional	Both.
Frequency of data collection	Data collected every three years.
Level of disaggregation	Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander status; culture groups; health; disability; housing; income; education; employment; law and justice; and household financial stress.
Baseline data available	Data from the 2014/15 NATSISS (n=11178) can be used as baseline data.
Other potential data sources	Australian Institute of Health and Welfare's Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Health Performance Framework data, includes (among other things): life expectancy; health data; and child mortality data. [Adm] [Disag] [Pub]

Indicator 12.4	Proportion of population who hold discriminatory views around race, sexual orientation, religion, age, disability, etc.
Recommended data source	The Scanlon Foundation surveys – <i>Mapping Social Cohesion</i> . [Svy] [Rep] [Pub]
Socio-ecological level	Societal/individual.
Structure, norm or practice	Structure.
National and/or jurisdictional	Both.
Frequency of data collection	The 2015 Scanlon Foundation national survey is the eighth in the series, following earlier surveys in 2007, 2009, 2010, 2011, 2012, 2013, and 2014.
Level of disaggregation	Gender, age group, employment status, jurisdiction, educational attainment, place of birth, citizenship, year of arrival, religion, financial circumstances.
Baseline data available	2015 data (n = 1,500) can be used as baseline data
Comments	<p>The Scanlon Foundation survey asks respondents for their views on ‘the most important issue facing Australia today’ including topics such as immigration, multiculturalism, national identity, the wealth-gap, asylum seekers, and experiences of discrimination.</p> <p>Based on survey findings, the Scanlon Foundation also produces the Scanlon-Monash Index of Social Cohesion which provides an overview in the five core domains of social cohesion: belonging, worth, social justice, participation and acceptance and rejection.</p>

Box 7: Guidance for states and territories

Considering the diversity of the Australian populace, there are certain variations in particular population groups across regions and jurisdictions. States and territories are encouraged to think about specific types of violence faced by particular population groups that are priorities for them. States and territories could incorporate additional indicators, where available, to capture information relevant to their jurisdiction. That is, some drivers and reinforcing factors, such as discrimination, may be more important for some areas and so certain jurisdictions may wish to include additional indicators applicable to their groups. In addition, states and territories may also highlight intersectionality, and can do so with the aforementioned addition of relevant indicators.

The data sources listed under each indicator are not exhaustive. There may be some limitations in achieving the full complement of data information desired due to business/operational requirements and processes, legislation and other factors. However, where additional data sources are available at the jurisdictional level, states and territories are encouraged to expand upon them, invest in underdeveloped sources, and necessarily use these data sources to measure prevention where relevant. For example, jurisdictions could invest more funding in national surveys to increase sample sizes to enable data disaggregated by state, or to enhance the focus on particular population groups. Reports on longitudinal studies can also be of national significance, including those that draw their samples only from within one state or territory.

Long-term: Reducing prevalence of violence against women

In the long-term, we expect to see a reduction in the prevalence of violence against women in Australia. To gauge whether rates are indeed dropping, we must measure both 12-month and lifetime experiences of intimate partner violence and sexual violence.

Both these indicators of prevalence are measured through population based surveys. Such surveys are important for establishing comparable data on violence against women across a number of settings. They are also useful for examining patterns of violence across settings.⁸⁵

There is general international consensus on how to measure intimate partner violence and sexual violence, and well established measures exist that have been tested across a number of countries. Defining and measuring psychological or emotional violence is much more challenging, however. Until now, there have been no consistently used quantitative measures for psychological violence that accurately capture cross-cultural patterns of behaviour. Acts of emotional abuse are difficult to capture in survey research because of lack of agreement on what constitutes emotional or psychological violence. For example, there is debate around when insults or conflict within a relationship should be defined as abuse. Nonetheless, psychological abuse is consistently considered to be a component of intimate partner violence, and is an indicator included in the Sustainable Development Goals.

Box 8: How 'Partner' is defined in the Personal Safety Survey

What is a 'partner'?

The standard international definition for a partner is quite broad. It refers to any person with whom the respondent has had an intimate relationship, including married, common-law, cohabiting, non-cohabiting, and dating relationships.

How does the Personal Safety Survey define a 'partner'?

The Australian Bureau of Statistics's Personal Safety Survey defines the term 'partner' as the person the respondents lives with, or lived with at some point, in a married or de facto relationship.

Current partners: the person the respondent currently lives with in a married or de facto relationship

Previous partner: a person the respondent lived with at some point in a married or de-facto relationship from who the respondent is now separated. This includes a partner the respondent was living with at the time of experiencing violence; or a partner the respondent was no longer living with at the time of experience the violence.

Partner violence: refers to any incident of sexual assault, sexual threat, physical assault or physical threat by a current or previous partner. Partner violence does not include violence by a 'boyfriend/girlfriend or date'. For the Personal Safety Survey, a boyfriend/girlfriend or date refers to a person the respondent dated, or was intimately involved with but did not live with.

International best practice in conducting prevalence studies

Research on prevalence of violence against women has grown significantly in the past 20 years and we now have good examples of best practice. When designing and conducting prevalence studies the following practice principles should be followed:

DESIGN

- The study population should be representative of the broader population. The number of individuals selected from each stratum should be proportional to their actual distribution in the wider population (accounting for diversity in ethnicity, age, socio-economic background, location, etc.)
- Well-established dedicated questionnaires specifically designed to understand violence against women should be used, such as those from the World Health Organisation multi-country Study on Domestic Violence and Women's Health or the Australian Department of Human Services' violence against women module.

- Questions should be carefully framed and worded to elicit specific information, rather than asking generally about ‘violence’, they should inquire about specific acts, such as: hitting, kicking, throwing, shoving, etc.
- To determine the prevalence of violence, women should be asked about recent (past 12 months) *and* lifetime experiences of violence.

IMPLEMENTATION

- Interviews should ideally be conducted face-to-face to ensure privacy and confidentiality, and allow interviewers an opportunity to build rapport and safely elicit sensitive and potentially distressing information. It is therefore important that carefully selected and appropriately trained interviewers are used in surveys, with participants matched to interviewers of the same gender.
- Only one woman per household should be interviewed to ensure confidentiality. For ethical and methodological reasons, men and women from the same household should not be interviewed.
- Women should be asked about intimate partner violence as distinct from their experiences of non-partner violence and about the specific situations in which that violence was experienced, to avoid confusion about the location of violence and the perpetrator of each instance of violence.⁸⁶

Ethics and safety

There are obvious risks of under reporting when talking about sensitive topics such as violence against women, so extra care around safety and ethics needs to be taken. When conducting surveys on violence against women, women’s safety must be prioritised and built into the study design plans. Appropriate precautions must also be taken to ensure research is conducted in an ethical and sensitive manner.

Box 9 summarises the key ethical and safety principles, recommended by the World Health Organisation, that should guide all such research.⁸⁷

Box 9: Ethical and safety recommendations for conducting surveys on violence against women

The World Health Organisation recommends the following key ethical safety principles when conducting surveys on violence against women:

- The safety of respondents and the research team is paramount, and should guide all project decisions.
- Prevalence studies need to be methodologically sound and to build upon current research experience about how to minimise the underreporting of violence.
- Protecting confidentiality is essential to ensure both women's safety and data quality.
- All research team members should receive specialised training and on-going support.
- The study design must include actions aimed at reducing any possible distress caused to the participants by the research.
- Fieldworkers should be trained to refer women requesting or needing assistance to local services and sources of support. Where few resources exist, it may be necessary for the study to create short-term support mechanisms.
- Researchers and donors have an ethical obligation to help ensure their findings are properly interpreted and used to advance policy and intervention development.
- Questions regarding violence should only be incorporated into surveys designed for other purposes when ethical and methodological requirements can be met.

INDICATORS: Prevalence

This Guide recommends using 12-month prevalence indicators which align with the Sustainable Development Goals indicators 5.2.1 and 5.2.2 and also collecting data on lifetime prevalence.

Counting on change recommends the following long-term indicators:

Indicator 13.1	Proportion of women aged 18 years and older, subjected to physical, sexual or psychological violence, by a current or former intimate partner in the last 12 months, by form of violence and age group
Recommended data source	Personal Safety Survey (PSS). [Disag] [Pub] [Rep] [Svy]
Socio-ecological level	Individual.
National and/or jurisdictional	Both.
Frequency of data collection	Every four years.

Level of disaggregation	Jurisdiction, age, type of violence.
Expected change if quality prevention programming and infrastructure is implemented	<p>Short and medium-term: Little change in the 12-month prevalence of intimate partner violence</p> <p>Long term: As drivers of violence are addressed, prevalence rates of intimate partner violence to drop.</p>
Baseline data available	Data from the 2012 PSS (n = 17,050), the 2014 CVS (n = 27,341) and the Australian Longitudinal Study on Women's Health (n=58,000) can be used for baseline data.
Other potential data sources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Crime Victimization Survey. [Disag] [Pub] [Svy] [Rep] • Recorded Crime Victimization Reports (victims who have been recorded by police in the last financial year). [Adm] [Disag] [Pub] • Australian Longitudinal Study on Women's Health. This study includes some questions about both lifetime and current (12 months prior to the interview) experiences of intimate partner violence. [Svy] [Pub]

Indicator 13.2	Proportion of women aged 18 years and older subjected to sexual violence by persons other than an intimate partner in the last 12 months, by age group and place of occurrence
Recommended data source	<p>Personal Safety Survey (PSS).</p> <p>[Disag] [Pub] [Rep] [Svy]</p>
Socio-ecological level	Individual.
National and/or jurisdictional	Both.
Frequency of data collection	Every four years.
Level of disaggregation	Jurisdiction, age, type of violence.
Expected change if quality prevention programming and infrastructure is implemented	<p>Short and medium-term: Little change in the 12-month prevalence of sexual violence</p> <p>Long term: As drivers of violence are addressed, prevalence rates of sexual violence to drop.</p>
Baseline data available	Data from the 2012 PSS (n=17,050) can be used for baseline data.

Indicator 13.3	Percentage of women who have experienced sexual harassment in the past 12 months
Recommended data source	Personal Safety Survey (PSS). [Disag] [Pub] [Rep] [Svy]
Socio-ecological level	Individual.
National and/or jurisdictional	National.
Frequency of data collection	Every four years.
Level of disaggregation	Jurisdiction, age, type of violence.
Expected change if quality prevention programming and infrastructure is implemented	Short and medium-term: An increase in the number of women and girls who report sexual harassment in public spaces Long term: Prevalence rates and victim-blaming reduced.
Baseline data available	Data from the 2012 PSS can be used for baseline data. In addition, the study from Our Watch and Plan (n=600) provides useful information about community attitudes towards sexual harassment and prevalence that can also be used to form a baseline. The preliminary pilot data (n=292) from the La Trobe study would also provide useful information on sexual harassment, by gender identity and sexual orientation.
Other potential data sources	‘Shouting back: street harassment and justice’. A pilot survey conducted by the Australian Research Centre in Sex, Health & Society, at La Trobe University. [Svy] [Rq] [SS]

Indicator 13.4	Proportion of women subjected to physical, sexual or psychological violence, by a current or former intimate partner since age 15, by form of violence and age group
Recommended data source	Personal Safety Survey (PSS). [Disag] [Pub] [Rep] [Svy]
Socio-ecological level	Individual.
National and/or jurisdictional	Both.
Frequency of data collection	Every four years.
Level of disaggregation	Jurisdiction, age, type of violence.

Expected change if quality prevention programming and infrastructure is implemented	<p>Short and medium-term: Little change in lifetime prevalence of intimate partner violence</p> <p>Long term: As drivers of violence are addressed, 12-month prevalence rates of intimate partner violence to drop, with lifetime prevalence rates falling in the very long term.</p>
Baseline data available	Data from the 2012 PSS (n=17,050) can be used for baseline data.

Indicator 13.5	Proportion of women subjected to sexual violence by persons other than an intimate partner since age 15, by age group and place of occurrence
Recommended data source	<p>Personal Safety Survey (PSS).</p> <p>[Disag] [Pub] [Rep] [Svy]</p>
Socio-ecological level	Individual.
National and/or jurisdictional	National.
Frequency of data collection	Every four years.
Level of disaggregation	Jurisdiction, age, type of violence.
Expected change if quality prevention programming and infrastructure is implemented	<p>Short and medium-term: Little change in lifetime prevalence of sexual violence</p> <p>Long term: As drivers of violence are addressed, 12-month prevalence rates of sexual violence to drop and lifetime prevalence rates to fall in the very long-term.</p>
Baseline data available	Data from the 2012 PSS (n=17,050) can be used for baseline data.

5

Section 5: Data collection challenges and gaps

Counting on change is a world-first attempt to enable consistency when measuring progress towards the prevention and eventual elimination of violence against women at the national level. In Section 4, where the proposed indicators of change are outlined, we briefly acknowledged the challenges of tracking change. These challenges relate most notably to the measurement of prevention infrastructure and programming, but also to measuring change against the drivers and reinforcing factors of violence. The absence of a data-set or data collection mechanism poses obvious challenges to the tracking of progress, yet as this section will explain, even where data gathering mechanisms exist, there can still be significant challenges for those seeking to accurately track change in relation to this complex issue.

One of the key challenges is the lack of consistency in data across the country. Although domestic, family and sexual violence are recognised as national issues in Australia, there is significant variation across jurisdictions in the definitions used for these types of violence and the range of behaviours associated with each, as well as in legal and policy frameworks and data collection methods. These inconsistencies pose significant challenges to national data collection and analysis.

Much has been done over recent years to improve cross-jurisdictional consistency and other data collection challenges with regards to prevalence data and administrative data around our response to existing violence (see Box 10). As a result, Australian data sets are relatively robust by international standards. Nevertheless, there are still a number of challenges to the accurate and comprehensive national measurement of progress in *preventing* violence against women, which are discussed in this section. Ongoing attention to these issues will be necessary to improve data collection and analysis.

Box 10: The National Data Collection and Reporting Framework

In 2013 the Australian Government Department of Social Services funded the Australian Bureau of Statistics to develop the National Data Collection and Reporting Framework (the Framework) – due to be implemented by 2022. The aim of this Framework is to create nationally consistent data definitions and collection methods and to improve organisations' understanding of client characteristics, needs and service demand. It includes projects by Australian Bureau of Statistics and the Australian Institute of Health and Welfare. In 2014, the Department of Social Services funded the Australian Bureau of Statistics to work with state and territory police agencies to add family, domestic, and sexual violence indicators (flags) into their existing victims and offenders recorded crime datasets. These datasets collect data on all victims and offenders of family and domestic violence and include the victims and offenders of homicide. The Department of Social Services has also funded the Australian Bureau of Statistics to conduct two other data projects that identify what data is currently being collected by Criminal Courts and Corrective Service agencies and options for this data contributing to the implementation of the Framework. In addition, the Department of Social Services is contributing funding to the Australian Institute of Health and Welfare to conduct a cross-jurisdictional data project on family, domestic, and sexual violence. In partnership with the Department of Social Services, the Australian Bureau of Statistics, jurisdictional agencies and other stakeholders, the Australian Institute of Health and Welfare is:

- producing a national report collating family, domestic, and sexual violence relevant datasets
- scoping the development of a family, domestic, and sexual violence data sharing clearing house
- progressing the addition of family, domestic, and sexual violence flags to Australian Institute of Health and Welfare datasets (including those related to health, homelessness and child protection)
- scoping the development of a services-level client management and reporting system, and
- supporting the Department of Social Services in convening a Data Improvement Working Group under the National Plan.

Box 11: Commonwealth resources to guide consistent collection of data

The Australian Bureau of Statistics and Australian Institute of Health and Welfare have begun addressing many of the data gaps in this area, however there remain data challenges and inconsistencies at the state and territory level. States and territories would benefit from the development of a collaborative approach to addressing these inconsistencies. This could include developing and agreeing on standardised monitoring and reporting template, and agreeing on a standardised minimum data set and administrative approach to data collection. Collaboration of this kind would improve consistency and comparability of results across jurisdictions.

Training and capacity development for departmental staff on the importance of good data recording is crucial. Improved data recording processes will improve the overall quality of data that can be derived from administrative by-product data sets. Consistent data collection also helps government departments better perform their statutory roles and provides many organisational benefits.

There are particular opportunities to improve consistency of data on the prevalence of sexual harassment. The anti-discrimination boards and equal opportunity commissions in each state/territory keep records of reported incidents of sexual harassment. It is recommended that each jurisdiction use this data to inform prevention monitoring and assessments of prevalence in their respective region. Accurate state/territory level data on sexual harassment in the workplace (and in public spaces) would also be useful in establishing a baseline.

It would also be useful for states and territories to establish data partnerships to enable the pooling of resources. If states/territories provide resources for national data collection work, the sample can increase in size, enabling data to be disaggregated by each state/territory in a more robust manner. This is particularly pertinent to the collection of accurate data on specific population groups, where greater sample sizes will enable a more accurate representation of the prevalence of violence against women in those groups. This in turn can help inform an intersectional analysis of prevalence and experiences of violence.

Box 12: Guidance for states and territories

To contribute to the ongoing refinement of data collection methods, in 2014 the Australian Bureau of Statistics released the *Foundation for a National Data Collection and Reporting Framework for Family, Domestic and Sexual Violence*, which provided the basis for consistent collection of administrative by-product data. The publication set out data items in relation to persons, events, and transactions.

This 2014 publication builds on the earlier 2009 Australian Bureau of Statistics *Data Quality Framework*, also designed to guide improvements in data collection. The framework outlines seven dimensions of quality which are key to the collation of data: 1) institutional environment, 2) relevance, 3) timelines, 4) accuracy, 5) coherence, 6) interpretability, and 7) accessibility. Aside from providing an explanation of each of the seven dimensions, this resource also provides guidance for data users and producers on how to apply the framework.

The Australian Bureau of Statistics has also produced a series of publications about the collection of nationally consistent violence against women data. These publications and the aforementioned resources are available on the Australian Bureau of Statistics' website.

Challenges related to existing population-level survey data

There are some gaps in existing population-level data that inhibit the collation of data for key indicators of the drivers of violence against women. The Personal Safety Survey and, to a lesser extent, the Crime Victimization Survey, together contribute to the current evidence base for family violence, intimate partner violence and sexual violence in Australia. The Personal Safety Survey is the most comprehensive quantitative study of interpersonal violence in Australia, with over 17,000 women and men completing the survey in 2012. Great efforts have been taken to ensure that the Personal Safety Survey is as representative as possible, however specific population groups remain likely to be under-represented and under-recorded. As is the case for many large-scale population-level surveys of this kind, data available from the Personal Safety Survey is limited by challenges arising from size, design, cost constraints, and other practicalities. For example, people who speak a language other than English or people living with disabilities may not be interviewed, and may therefore be underrepresented in the survey, due to lack of appropriate resources to facilitate access (for example, an interpreter). Residents of non-private dwellings, such as university residences, aged-care facilities, and shelters are also excluded from the survey. In addition, there are a range of populations for whom the Personal Safety Survey does not currently collect demographic information, including transgender and gender diverse people, and Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples.⁸⁸

Definitions of violence used in the Personal Safety Survey and the Crime Victimization Survey focus on physical and/or sexual violence, with some questions in the Personal Safety Survey on partner emotional abuse. Further data is required to provide insight into broader understandings of violence, such as financial abuse, technology-facilitated abuse and technology-facilitated stalking.⁸⁹

Consequently, these data sources to date provide a somewhat incomplete picture of the true extent of the multiple forms of intimate partner violence, family violence, and sexual violence experienced by women in Australia, and this should be a consideration in survey reviews.⁹⁰

The Personal Safety Survey and the Crime Victimization Survey are victim surveys, not perpetrator surveys. This means that these surveys ask people about their experiences of victimisation and the data gathered represents victims' perceptions of incidents. The number of perpetrators cannot be inferred from the number of victims nor is it valid to assume that patterns of perpetration mirror patterns of victimisation.⁹¹ It would be helpful from a prevention perspective to better understand the patterns and dynamics of perpetration in the Australian context, and it may be necessary to develop a companion perpetration survey with this goal.

Limitations in administrative data

As many of Australia's existing data systems were not originally developed for the purpose of prevention monitoring, there is currently a reliance on administrative datasets for obtaining information about the nature of and response to violence against women.⁹² The collation of administrative data, sometimes referred to as administrative by-product data, involves the production of statistics from data that have been collected for some other purpose (usually administrative). The reliance on administrative data presents a number of challenges and limitations, acknowledged in the development of the National Data Collection and Reporting Framework, including:

- The lack of consistent data definitions or identification methods for concepts such as family, intimate partner, and sexual violence, and child abuse/neglect
- Differences in information collection processes across and within agencies
- Disparate and organisation-specific standards and classifications
- The lack of a clear distinction in some data sets between different types of violence (for example, family violence, intimate partner violence, and sexual violence)
- Poor or inconsistent collection and/or record keeping of demographic information and the under-representation of specific population groups in the datasets.⁹³

As a key example, many of these challenges related to using administrative data to track progress can be found in police records. There is currently no standardised definition of 'intimate partner violence' used by police units nationwide; the police protocol for responding to intimate partner violence differs in each state and territory, and there is no central list of key data points for collection when police attend domestic disturbances – which might assist with the identification of incidents of intimate partner violence. This means that reported crime data are not being accurately captured by administrative data, possibly impacting on prevention programming and funding.⁹⁴

Hidden data and under-recording present significant barriers when it comes to accurately collecting data on violence against women. Many of the identified issues around data collection and deficiencies in data on certain populations are exacerbated by hidden reporting and under-recording. In cases of hidden reporting, a victim may seek services, or report an incident of violence, but not disclose intimate partner violence or sexual violence as the reason for the contact.⁹⁵ Under-recording refers to the inaccurate or incomplete recording of an offence, for example, if an individual presents as a victim of assault, and the record-taker makes an incorrect assumption about the nature of the

incident.⁹⁶ Hidden reporting and under-recording may be exacerbated by the complexity of intimate partner violence, and how services respond to it.⁹⁷ Incidents of violence against women are varied in nature and treated differently depending upon the context of the disclosure. Disclosed incidents may be classified as criminal under state or territory legislation. When these are disclosed to health personnel or other support services, depending on the circumstances surrounding the disclosure, the incident may or may not be perceived as intimate partner violence. Moreover, because intimate partner violence is often ongoing and involves a pattern of behaviour, there are difficulties around classification and measurement. For example, there may be an ongoing history of incidents between the persons involved, incorporating different forms of violence, which may be classified and handled differently by different agencies and services. Also, despite the ongoing pattern of behaviour, it may be that only a single incident is recorded by the civil or criminal justice system and classified as intimate partner violence. Consequently, the recorded incident may misrepresent the complexity of the situation.⁹⁸

Under-recording is more likely in departments, agencies and services that are not primarily focused on violence against women, and occur because databases are not equipped with the necessary tools for the collection of such information. For example, housing and homelessness service providers often do not collect detailed information regarding experiences of violence. This may be due to various reasons including the way questions are asked in data collection tools; respondents being uncomfortable with questions, and limited options on their data screen. Intimate partner violence may not be recorded as a reason for seeking housing services because of the practitioner's focus on meeting the person's immediate need for these services.⁹⁹

Challenges of existing data sets for particular population groups

As discussed in Section 2, to adequately capture an accurate picture of violence and its drivers, as experienced by the diversity of women in Australia, a greater level of nuance and disaggregation is required across indicators and data sources.

There are significant limitations in the quality of demographic information on particular population groups collected by agencies, departments, specialist domestic, family and sexual violence services, and others responding to violence against women. There is a critical need to improve and reduce limitations in available data for various population groups to more accurately measure violence against women across the whole population. Particular population groups such as Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people, people from certain cultural and linguistic groups, lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender and queer communities and people with intersex variations, and people with disabilities, may face an increased risk of violence or may be more likely to experience particular forms of violence, but are heavily under-represented in current data sets. Although basic demographic information collected on the broader populace may be reliable, consistent and available, information on particular population groups is often missing or inaccurate, for many reasons, including:

- Demographic information is not collected because particular systems do not make it mandatory to do so
- Demographic information is not collected because the process relies on unsolicited self-identification by individuals

- Demographic information is not collected because the process relies on a service provider's judgement that data is required in that context
- Sample sizes for population groups within a given dataset are too small
- There is a lack of cross-correlation with other demographic data.¹⁰⁰

Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities

Better data is needed to improve our understanding of the drivers and impacts of violence against Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander women and their children. Standards have been set out by the Australian Bureau of Statistics on the collection of an individual's Aboriginal and/or Torres Strait Islander status,¹⁰¹ but more work remains to be done to ensure consistency of application across agencies, departments and service providers.

As part of the Third Action Plan under the National Plan, the Commonwealth Government has committed to funding additional studies to improve our understanding of what it would take to reduce domestic, family and sexual violence in Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities, and a major study is underway at the time of writing.¹⁰² The inclusion of questions about family and domestic violence in the National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Health Survey is also under consideration.

This work will help identify the impacts of this violence and identify what additional services and supports are needed, but additional work will be needed to improve the tracking of progress to *prevent* violence against Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander women.

Culturally and linguistically diverse communities

Information about experiences of violence against women from culturally and linguistically diverse communities varies and the collection methodologies differ amongst data sources. This means that data is not only limited, but its comparability is compromised. For example, some agencies collect information about an individual's country of birth or language spoken at home, while others use operational information to gain an approximate idea of the number of people from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds who engage with their services. The Australian Bureau of Statistics' *Standards for Statistics on Cultural Diversity*¹⁰³ recommend at a minimum four items to determine culturally and linguistically diverse status: 1) country of birth, 2) main language other than English spoken at home, 3) proficiency in spoken English, and 4) Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander status. *Counting on change* recommends that, where appropriate, these Australian Bureau of Statistics' standards be applied consistently to data sets to improve the quality of data on violence against women in these communities.

LGBTQI communities

There is a considerable lack of data on the prevalence of domestic, family and sexual violence for people who are lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender or queer, or for people with intersex variations. The majority of Australian police crime data and larger scale surveys on sexual violence fails to

take into account sexuality or gender identity. This means that data tends not to be able to provide insights into the experiences of violence for people in these groups. Moreover, terminology used in surveys can further limit data captured on members of LGBTQI communities, as questions may not be termed in a way that corresponds with the ways LGBTQI people self-identify.¹⁰⁴

Women with disabilities

While there is emerging evidence that women with disabilities experience higher rates of gender-based violence than other women,¹⁰⁵ reliable and consistent data recording on violence against women with disabilities remains severely lacking. This is partially due to the range of definitions for disability applied in different survey contexts, which prevents reliable comparisons.¹⁰⁶ Additionally, in the disability sector, there are various definitions of violence such as abuse, neglect, incidents, and allegations. Some women with disabilities may also be excluded from population level surveys, for example previous iterations of the Personal Safety Survey only covered private residences, excluding those living in supported accommodation, many of whom are women with disabilities. They may also be excluded from participation due to an absence of appropriate communication supports and disability access provisions.

Women with disabilities are also likely to be under-represented in administrative data sets as they experience unique barriers to accessing information about what violence is; appropriate supports to enable them to report violence, and support services (such as phone lines or crisis accommodation). Women also report unique barriers to disclosing violence, including fear of having their disability support from their partner or service withdrawn; lack of alternative or portable disability supports¹⁰⁷ and discrimination in the child protection system, all of which occur within the broader context of systematic and social discrimination. Finally, even where women do contact police or access support services, disability status is not routinely included in most administrative data sets. In the absence of reliable data on the prevalence of violence against women with disabilities, we rely on small-scale qualitative studies, or quantitative data produced in other countries where data disaggregation includes disability status.

The challenge of measuring social norms

As explained in *Change the story*, social norms – the rules of conduct and models of behaviour expected by a society or social group – are one of the three key ways in which the drivers of violence against women are strengthened or challenged. While surveys are often able to capture the attitudes of individuals and so provide valuable information about collectively held attitudes that inform broader social norms,¹⁰⁸ mechanisms for measuring social norms themselves (within various strata of the populations, including organisations, communities or other social groups) would provide vital information to inform targeted prevention activities.

Social norms have long been considered difficult to accurately measure and quantify, particularly via survey tools. This was in part due to the multi-step process required to correctly identify and quantify a social norm. However, in recent years, there has been a significant increase in available international data, together with methods for measuring change.¹⁰⁹ Although social norms were not a component of the 1995, 2009, and 2013 National Community Attitudes towards Violence Against Women surveys, the potential to directly measure social norms in future waves of the survey is being considered.

Lack of longitudinal data

There is currently a lack of longitudinal data on violence against women that could trace relationships between drivers, reinforcing factors and experiences or perpetration of violence. Longitudinal studies, in which researchers conduct several observations of the same subjects over an extended period, can be highly effective in determining variable patterns over time. Longitudinal data also allows researchers to learn more about causal relationships. For example, longitudinal research could be used to further shed light on the causal direction and potential pathways between exposure to violence in childhood and experiences or perpetration of violence later in life.¹¹⁰

At the time of writing, the Department of Social Services is working with researchers responsible for a range of longitudinal and/or national surveys to include a consistent set of questions on domestic, family and sexual violence. These researchers have formed a working group that includes representatives from the following projects: Footprints in Time: Longitudinal Study of Indigenous Children (LSIC), Growing up in Australia: The Longitudinal Study of Australian Children (LSAC), the National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Health Survey (NATSIHS), the Australian Longitudinal Study on Women's Health (ALSWH), the Survey of Recently Separated Parents (SRSP), and the Maternal Health Study and Aboriginal Families Study.

While the collection of large-scale, longitudinal data can be relatively costly and resource intensive, investment in longitudinal research that monitors experiences and perpetration of violence, and drivers and reinforcing factors of violence, will significantly improve our ability to monitor progress in prevention at the national level.

The importance of effective data collection systems and improved analysis

Measuring the complex change required to prevent and ultimately eliminate violence against women requires a nationally coordinated approach to data collection against the indicators outlined in this Guide. A robust data collection framework is crucial to the implementation of shared standards and definitions to facilitate standardised data collection nationwide. At present, gaps in data on violence against women and obstacles to data collection are issues across Australian jurisdictions. As a consequence of these gaps in existing data sets – including process indicators to track improvements in prevention infrastructure, and population-level data to measure the drivers and reinforcing factors of violence against women – the capacity of the states, territories and Commonwealth to track their own progress in preventing violence against women and plan for future policies and initiatives may be restricted. Furthermore, some of the limitations related to prevalence and response data also have the potential to lead to some particular population groups being overlooked, double-counted or over emphasized, resulting in poorly targeted prevention and early intervention strategies; duplications in service provision, and ineffective or insufficient expenditure on some responses to violence against women.¹¹⁰

It is also important to note that properly tracking progress in prevention relies not only on improved data collection systems but also on improved data analysis methods. An additional set of challenges in measuring the reinforcing factors of violence against women (see Section 4) are the difficulties around measurement and analysis of these factors *as they relate to the drivers of violence*. To date

there has been very limited research, data collection and analysis conducted which helps paint a more nuanced picture of the relationship between the reinforcing factors and the gendered drivers. Reinforcing factors such as an individual's exposure to violence, harmful use of alcohol, and socio-economic inequality and discrimination are, undoubtedly, important to measure in and of themselves. But when it comes to tracking progress on the prevention of violence against women in a meaningful and holistic way, reinforcing factors should be analysed not alone but *in conjunction* with their links to the drivers of violence against women.

Improved quality within data sets, improved links between data sets, and improved data analysis will ultimately set the tone for a more comprehensive approach to monitoring prevention.¹¹² Some work to achieve this has commenced through projects led by the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) including *Defining the Data Challenge*,¹¹³ *Bridging the Data Gaps*,¹¹⁴ the *National Data Collection and Reporting Framework*¹¹⁵ and the *Directory of Family and Domestic Violence Statistics*.¹¹⁶ The Australian Institute of Health and Welfare is also progressing work in this area. The implementation of the proposed national framework is a long-term goal that will require concerted and sustained effort from all jurisdictions, and is of particular importance in this context.

6

Section 6: Key elements of prevention monitoring

In this final section of *Counting on change*, we outline the key elements needed to provide a more comprehensive picture of the status of the drivers and reinforcing factors of violence against women, at a national and state/territory level. The four elements below are needed to effectively collect data, report on findings, and reduce gaps in the current body of knowledge.

1. A coordination mechanism
2. A process for data collection and analysis
3. A process for reporting and communicating the findings
4. A research strategy to reduce data gaps.

Figure 7: Key elements of prevention monitoring



Element 1: A coordination mechanism

A coordinated approach to data collection is essential. Limitations in data and in the aggregation of data sets mean that violence against women is currently not reported or recorded in a way that is sufficiently comprehensive to measure progress.¹¹⁷ To develop a comprehensive national picture of violence against women—both at an individual level and as a structural issue—greater consistency of data collection and reporting will be needed, across different jurisdictions, across different areas of the service system, and over time. Close collaboration between governments and relevant government agencies on developing a national prevention monitoring mechanism, including building on the work which is already underway, is key.

There are many challenges when it comes to achieving a coordinated approach to data collection. Firstly, it requires a clear and shared understanding of violence against women and the various types of violence that this term includes. Secondly, there needs to be agreement about the objectives of data collection and the procedures and infrastructure required to support data collection. Different departments, agencies, and funded services use different definitions of violence against women (especially in relation to intimate partner violence), as well as different definitions of the data items used to measure and respond to it (for example, police protocols in response to reports of violence). This can produce data sets which: a) are inconsistent and incommensurate with each other; b) are of limited use for additional purposes (namely policy development), and c) result in divergent conclusions about the extent, severity and frequency of violence against women. Where the data is collected according to different standards, meaningful comparisons of data is difficult.¹¹⁸ Furthermore, inconsistencies across departments and agencies can lead to problems in measuring prevention efforts.

To address these issues, the overall coordination of the availability, usability, integrity, and security of data should be entrusted to a reliable and authoritative agency. A coordinating mechanism is required to develop and implement consistent reporting standards, goals and strategic directions and to create an authorising environment for data management. At the time of writing, several initiatives were underway to improve measures of prevalence, however more work is required to further improve the coordination of national and/or jurisdiction level measures of the underlying drivers and reinforcing factors of violence against women. This would also include highlighting key data gaps, and providing a regulated set of initiatives to fill these gaps.¹¹⁹

To measure change over time, the coordinating mechanism and the sources that data will be drawn from must be resourced over the long term. Sustained investment in data collection is integral to the prevention process to facilitate efficient and effective use of collated evidence. A well-resourced coordinating mechanism could ensure that data is not only collated but communicated in a timely manner. Additional investment in streamlined data access for research purposes will lead to availability of further information, and will inform Australian policy makers about the effectiveness of prevention initiatives. In addition, continued investment in online data access, analysis tools, and accredited data linkage providers can be expected to boost the capacity of research organisations to access data for research.

The prevention of violence against women is complex, drawing on multiple sectors and a wide range of data sets for accurate measurement. The proposed coordination mechanism would collate and analyse data, and report on Australia's progress in terms of the collective impacts of efforts to change the underlying drivers of violence against women, in addition to prevalence rates. Together with government and non-government organisations, the violence against women sector, academic bodies and data translation experts, the coordinating mechanism would provide consistency, accuracy and rigor to ongoing monitoring and reporting on the evolution of prevention in Australia.

Element 2: A process for data collection and analysis

As outlined in *Section 4: Proposed indicators of change*, the use of existing data sets will be central to measuring progress towards prevention of violence against women. In addition, it will be necessary to expand and improve existing data sets in order to gather all the data needed to measure drivers and reinforcing factors of violence against women, prevention infrastructure, and prevalence.

It is recommended that the process of data collection culminate in the publication of a series of reports presenting both qualitative and quantitative data gathered at the national and state/territory levels. Regular reports, aligning with the availability of national data sets, should:

- Assess progress towards structural, normative, and practice-based gender equality through an intersectional approach.
- Inform future policy development and investment in prevention and gender equality initiatives.
- Assist with the development and/or refinement of initiatives and policy, by pointing to gaps and opportunities to improve a jurisdiction's progress over time against select measures.
- Identify opportunities to refine data collection processes or establish new processes to gain a more comprehensive picture of gender equality and the drivers of violence.

Taken together, these reports could provide Australia with a more comprehensive and nuanced understanding of the drivers and reinforcing factors of violence against women, and how progress towards the prevention of violence is tracking. Importantly, the creation of the reports could further demonstrate that monitoring and communication of data is a key prevention action in and of itself. Connecting primary prevention practitioners and advocates with more sophisticated data will enable them to better monitor progress and inform the development of effective future policies and initiatives.

While these reports would be primarily produced for Australia's domestic policy development purposes, they could also be used to report on Australia's progress towards gender equality internationally, including as part of our work towards the Sustainable Development Goals. For further details on the Sustainable Development Goals and Australia's reporting obligations, please refer to *Section 2: About this Guide*. Regular reports on our progress in prevention may also be a useful tool to showcase the leadership of Australia in this context, and provide a useful basis for other countries to establish their own prevention monitoring frameworks.

Element 3: A process for reporting and communicating findings

The reporting of data trends will provide crucial information in an accessible format on the progress of prevention; the drivers and reinforcing factors of violence, and the outcomes of prevention programming. These reports should be publicly available to improve prevention effectiveness, quality, and efficiency.

One option for streamlining the data reporting process would be to create a website or database to review state, territory and Commonwealth achievements on prevention, drawing on the latest available information provided by each jurisdiction. A similar system is used by the National Health Priority Areas (NHPA) to assess hospital performance.¹²⁰ Regular ‘progress in prevention’ reports could be communicated through such a platform. This would give both policy makers and stakeholders the opportunity to identify areas of progress, and highlight ongoing gaps in prevention processes and data collection. Such a platform would also guarantee the availability of the reports and ensure the public is properly informed about prevention, both in their respective jurisdiction, and nationwide.

Element 4: A research strategy to reduce data gaps

To comprehensively address prevention and gender equality, it is necessary to improve upon the key gaps in the data sets as outlined in *Section 5: Data collection challenges and gaps*. Some key strategies could include:

- Future development and strengthening of data access protocols to enhance the use of data and dissemination of research results
- Building on the work undertaken by the Australian Bureau of Statistics in standardising definitions and related terminology and introducing and implementing a coding system to accurately record the relationship between victims and perpetrators, and the nature of the violence, so that the specific types of violence experienced by women are properly captured in datasets
- Making clear guidelines available within each agency (together with an accompanying monitoring system) to further strengthen consistency across systems, agencies and departments throughout Australia¹²¹
- Targeting currently unrepresented populations, using data collection techniques that seek to address the unique challenges faced by these groups due to individual circumstances and living arrangements (for example: those living in care, in institutions or in remote areas)¹²²
- Building on existing efforts under the National Plan; including a national data framework informed by relevant Commonwealth standards that supports development of shared data definitions, a national minimum data set, a data dictionary, and standardised data collection methods
- Collection of data in ways that facilitate disaggregation, the establishment of baseline measures, and comparison over time.¹²³

Box 13: Guidance for states and territories

To improve consistency, increase alignment and build on the evidence base for violence against women, this Guide encourages cross-jurisdictional dialogue on definitional alignments, and the development of a ‘data dictionary’ as a central registry for labels, definitions, formats, scales, ranges and instructions. The standardisation of terminology will facilitate data comparison and improve the integrity and quality of each state and territory’s respective data sources.

Conclusion

Violence against women and their children is a prevalent, serious and preventable human rights abuse. We know violence against women can be prevented, but also that this is a challenging and long-term endeavour. A key challenge identified by *Change the story* was how to measure progress towards this goal at the population-level over time.

Counting on change provides guidance and advice about how to consistently collect and report data in response to this challenge. It provides funders and policy-makers with an evidence-based, best-practice guide to measuring population-level progress towards the elimination of violence against women. This in turn should help guide the development of context-specific monitoring and evaluation frameworks.

But *Counting on change* is only a first step. A concerted and ongoing effort is required to establish a coordinated response to data collection and reporting to ensure effective monitoring of progress towards prevention. A coordinated and holistic approach to tracking progress has the potential to deliver enormous benefits. By helping us to better understand and measure the complex social change required to end violence against women and their children, it will help inform future policy development and investment in the prevention and gender equality initiatives that we know are needed to achieve this critical goal.

Glossary of terms

Backlash refers to the resistance, hostility or aggression with which gender equality or violence prevention strategies are met by some groups or individuals. Challenges to established gender norms and identities, or entrenched ideas about the roles of men and women, are often resisted by those who strongly adhere to such norms, and see them as traditional or natural. Backlash can include attempts to discredit evidence and arguments about gender inequality or the gendered nature of violence, and efforts to preserve existing gender norms and hierarchies, with the result that progress towards violence prevention and gender equality can be slowed or even reversed.¹²⁴ In some cases, backlash can lead to an increase in violence itself.¹²⁵

Domestic violence refers to acts of violence that occur between people who have, or have had, an intimate relationship. While there is no single definition used across jurisdictions in Australia, the central element of domestic violence is an ongoing pattern of behaviour aimed at controlling a partner through fear, for example by using behaviour which is violent and threatening. In most cases, the violent behaviour is part of a range of tactics to exercise power and control over women and their children, and can be both criminal and non-criminal. Domestic violence includes physical, sexual, emotional, psychological and financial abuse.¹²⁶

Family violence is a broader term than domestic violence, as it refers not only to violence between intimate partners but also to violence between family members. This includes, for example, elder abuse and adolescent violence against parents. Family violence includes violent or threatening behaviour, or any other form of behaviour that coerces or controls a family member or causes that family member to be fearful.¹²⁷ In Indigenous communities, family violence is often the preferred term as it encapsulates the broader issue of violence when it occurs within extended families, kinship networks and community relationships, as well as intergenerational issues.¹²⁸

Intersectionality refers to the interconnected nature of social categorisations – such as gender, race, class, disability, sexual orientation, etc. – as they apply to a given individual or group, regarded as creating overlapping and interdependent systems of discrimination or disadvantage.

Intimate partner violence refers to any behaviour by a man or a woman within an intimate relationship (including current or past marriages, domestic partnerships, familial relations, or people who share accommodation) that causes physical, sexual or psychological harm to those in the relationship. This is the most common form of violence against women.¹²⁹

Non-partner sexual assault is sexual violence perpetrated by people such as strangers, acquaintances, friends, colleagues, peers, teachers, neighbours, and family members.¹³⁰

Norms – see social norms.

Physical violence can include slaps, shoves, hits, punches, pushes, being thrown down stairs or across the room, kicking, twisting of arms, choking, and being burnt or stabbed.

Psychological and emotional abuse can include a range of controlling behaviours such as control of finances, isolation from family and friends, continual humiliation, threats against children or being threatened with injury or death.

Sexual violence is sexual activity that happens where consent is not obtained or freely given. It occurs any time a person is forced, coerced or manipulated into any unwanted sexual activity, such as touching, sexual harassment and intimidation, forced marriage, trafficking for the purpose of sexual exploitation, sexual abuse, sexual assault and rape.

Social norms refer to rules of conduct and models of behaviour expected by a society or social group. They are grounded in the customs, traditions and value systems that develop over time in a society or social group.

Violence against women refers to any act of violence that is specifically directed against a woman because she is a woman or that affects women disproportionately, that causes or could cause physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of harm or coercion, in public or private life. This definition encompasses all forms of violence that women experience (including physical, sexual, emotional, cultural/spiritual, financial, and others) that are gender based.

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Appendix A: Alignment with the sustainable development goals

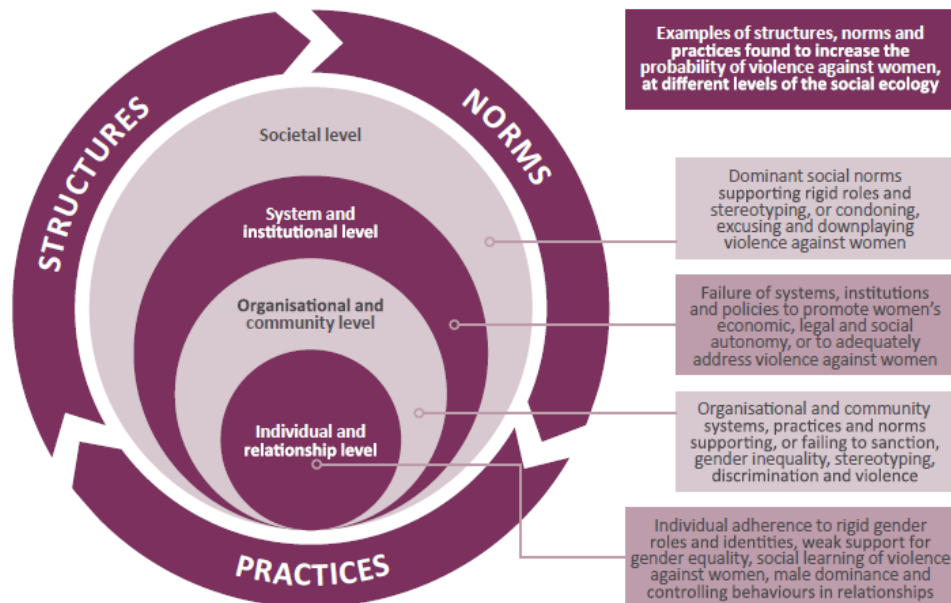
COUNTING ON CHANGE INDICATORS AND CORRESPONDING GLOBAL SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT GOALS INDICATORS	
COUNTING ON CHANGE INDICATORS	CORRESPONDING SDG INDICATOR
Number of students (K-12) reached by Respectful Relationships Education initiatives using the whole school approach. <i>[Suggested measures for prevention infrastructure and quality programming]</i>	4.7.1 Extent to which [...] education for sustainable development, including gender equality and human rights, are mainstreamed at all levels in: (a) national education policies; (b) curricula; (c) teacher education; and (d) student assessment.
2.4 Proportion of time women spend in unpaid care work compared to men. <i>[Medium-term indicator – Driver]</i>	5.4.1 Proportion of time spent on unpaid domestic and care work, by sex, age and location.
4.4 Percentage of political representatives who are women. <i>[Medium-term indicator – Driver]</i>	5.5.1 Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments and local governments.
4.5 Percentage of Ministers and members of Cabinet who are women. <i>[Medium-term indicators – Driver]</i>	
4.2 Percentage of managerial positions (private sector) occupied by women. <i>[Medium-term indicator – Driver]</i>	5.5.2 Proportion of women in managerial positions.
5.2 Gender pay gap. <i>[Medium-term indicator – Driver]</i>	8.5.1 Average hourly earnings of female and male employees, by occupation, age and persons with disabilities.
9.2 Proportion of children aged 0-17 years who experienced any physical punishment and/or psychological aggression by caregivers in the past month. <i>[Medium-term indicator – Reinforcing factor]</i>	16.2.1 Proportion of children aged 1-17 years who experienced any physical punishment and/or psychological aggression by caregivers in the past month.
9.3 Percentage of men who report having experienced violence by a male perpetrator in the past 12 months (male victims of male on male violence). <i>[Medium-term indicator – Reinforcing factor]</i>	16.1.3 Proportion of population subjected to physical, psychological or sexual violence in the previous 12 months.

COUNTING ON CHANGE INDICATORS AND CORRESPONDING GLOBAL SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT GOALS INDICATORS	
COUNTING ON CHANGE INDICATORS	CORRESPONDING SDG INDICATOR
12.1 Proportion of population reporting having personally felt discriminated against or harassed in the past 12 months on the basis of a ground of discrimination prohibited under international human rights law. <i>[Medium-term indicator – Reinforcing factor]</i>	10.3.1 Proportion of the population reporting having personally felt discriminated against or harassed within the previous 12 months on the basis of a ground of discrimination prohibited under international human rights law.
12.2 Proportion of population living below the poverty line, disaggregated by sex and age. <i>[Medium-term indicator – Reinforcing factor]</i>	10.2.1 Proportion of people living below 50 per cent of median income, by age, sex and persons with disabilities.
13.1 Proportion of women aged 18 years and older, subjected to physical, sexual or psychological violence, by a current or former intimate partner, in the last 12 months, by form of violence and age group. <i>[Prevalence indicator]</i>	5.2.1 Proportion of ever-partnered women and girls aged 15 years and older, subjected to physical, sexual or psychological violence, by a current or former intimate partner, in the last 12 months, by form of violence and age group.
13.2 Proportion of women aged 18 years and older subjected to sexual violence by persons other than an intimate partner in the last 12 months, by age group and place of occurrence. <i>[Prevalence indicator]</i>	5.2.2 Proportion of women and girls aged 15 years and older subjected to sexual violence by persons other than an intimate partner in the last 12 months, by age group and place of occurrence.

APPENDIX B:

Alternative text for figures

Figure 1: Socio-ecological model of violence against women.



This image shows the different factors which influence the occurrence of violence against women and their children. The figure represents violence as the outcome of interactions among many factors at four levels.

It shows examples of structures, norms and practices found to increase the probability of violence against women, at different levels of the social ecology.

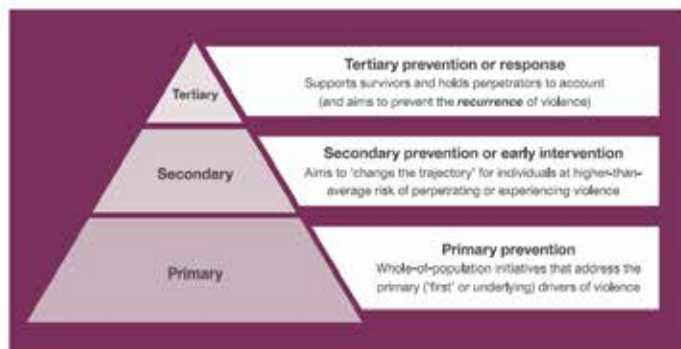
The highest level is the societal level: dominant social norms supporting rigid roles and stereotyping, or condoning, excusing and downplaying violence against women.

The second level is the system and institutional level: failure of systems, institutions and policies to promote women's economic, legal and social autonomy, or to adequately address violence against women.

The third level is the organisational and community level: organisation and community systems, practices and norms supporting, or failing to sanction, gender inequality, stereotyping, discrimination and violence.

The fourth and final level is the individual and relationship level: individual adherence to rigid gender roles and identities, weak support for gender equality, social learning of violence against women, male dominance and controlling behaviours in relationships.

Figure 2: The relationship between primary prevention and other work to address violence against women

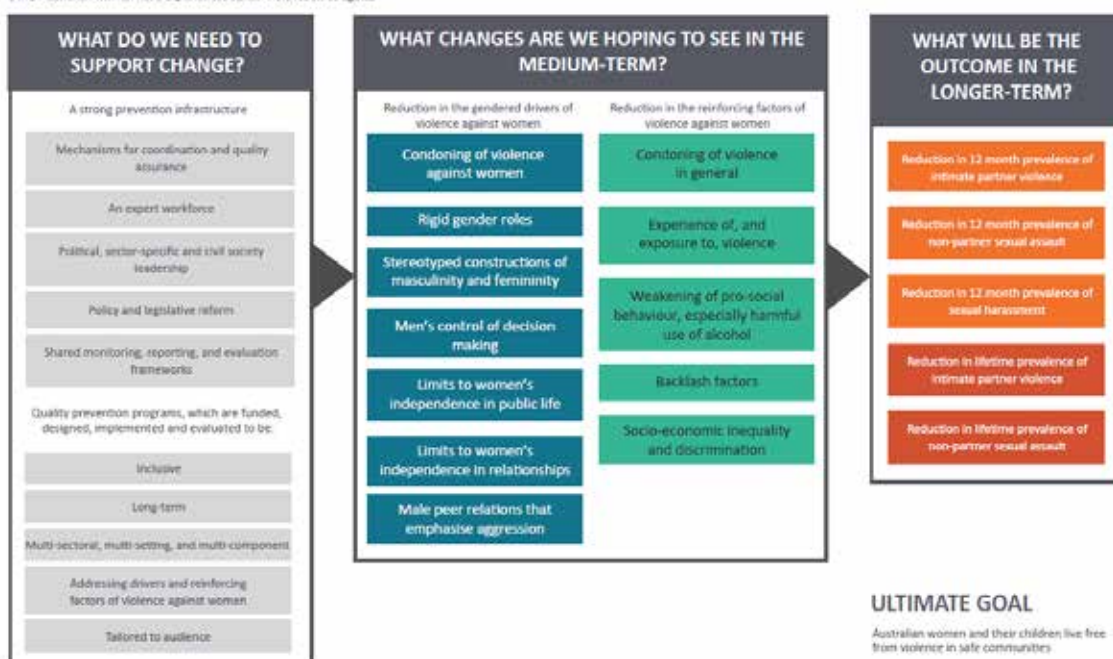


This image shows a triangle with a flat base cut into three sections. The largest section at the base of the triangle refers to primary prevention: whole-of-population initiatives that address the primary ('first' or underlying) drivers of violence. The middle section refers to secondary prevention or early intervention which aims to 'change the trajectory' for individuals at higher-than average risk of perpetrating or experiencing violence. The top part of the triangle refers to tertiary prevention or response which supports survivors and holds perpetrators to account (and aims to prevent the recurrence of violence).

Figure 3: Conceptual framework for Counting on change - Key elements to measure when tracking change towards elimination of violence against women

CURRENT PICTURE

1 in 4 Australian women have experienced physical or sexual violence by an intimate partner since age 15.
1 in 5 Australian women have experienced sexual violence since age 15.



This image presents the conceptual framework of the Guide. Currently in Australia, 1 in 4 women have experienced physical or sexual violence by an intimate partner since age 15. And 1 in 5 women have experienced sexual violence since age 15.

The image is split into three panels. The panel on the far-left covers what we need to support change (i.e.: the infrastructure we need to establish and maintain for prevention). The middle panel covers the changes we hope to see in the medium term. And the panel on the far right outlines the outcomes we expect to see in the longer term.

The panel on the far-left outlines the domains required to establish a strong prevention infrastructure. These domains are: mechanisms for co-ordination and quality assurance; an expert workforce; political, sector-specific and civil society leadership; policy and legislative reform; and shared monitoring, reporting and evaluation frameworks. We also need quality prevention programs which are: inclusive; long-term; multi-sectoral/multi-component; address the drivers and reinforcing factors of violence against women; implemented across settings; and tailored to the audience.

The middle panel outlines reductions which we hope to see in the drivers and reinforcing factors of VAW across all levels of the socio-ecological model. The drivers include:

- Condoning of violence against women
- Rigid gender roles
- Stereotyped constructions of masculinity and femininity
- Men's control of decision making
- Limits to women independence in public life
- Limits to women's independence in relationships
- Male peer relations that emphasis aggression

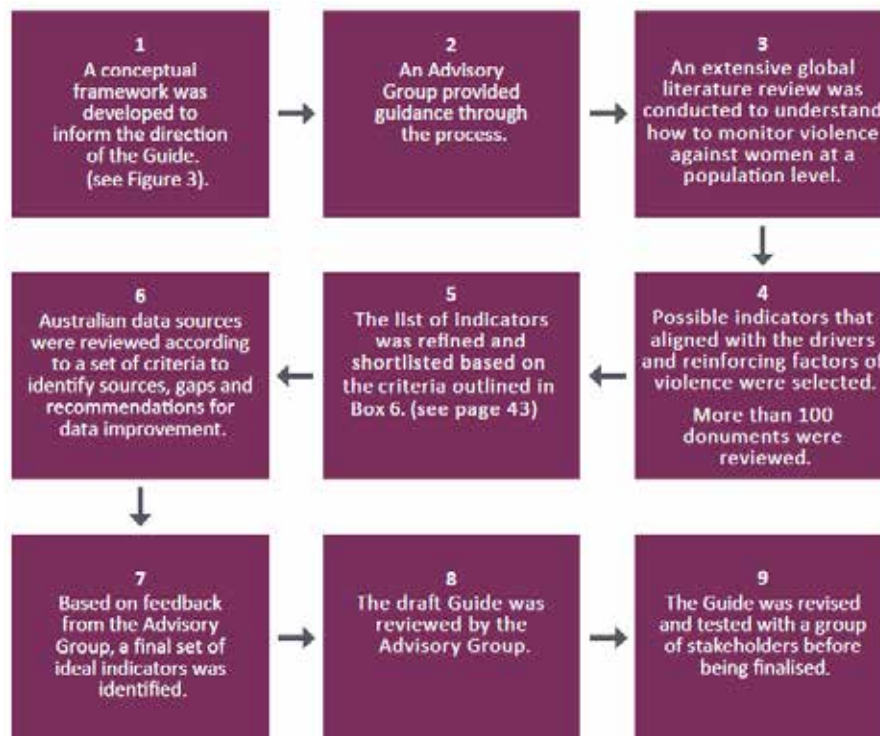
The reinforcing factors include:

- Condoning of violence in general
- Experiences of and exposure to violence
- Weakening of pro-social behaviour, especially harmful use of alcohol
- Backlash factors
- Socio-economic inequality and discrimination

The panel on the far-right outlines the outcomes we expect to see in the longer term. These include:

- Reductions in 12-month and life-time prevalence of intimate partner violence;
- Reductions in 12-month and life-time prevalence of non-partner sexual assault; and
- Reduction in percentage of women and girls who experience sexual harassment in the past 12 months

Figure 4: Methodology used to develop the guide



This image shows nine key steps undertaken to develop the Guide. There are nine boxes in total, each presenting a key step. Arrows between each box indicate the chronology of the nine steps.

Box 1: A conceptual framework was developed to inform the scope and direction of the Guide.

Box 2: An Advisory Group was established to provide guidance throughout the development process.

Box 3: An extensive global literature review was conducted to understand how to monitor violence against women at a population level.

Box 4: Possible indicators that aligned with the drivers and reinforcing factors of VAW were selected. More than 100 documents were reviewed.

Box 5: The list of indicators was refined and shortlist based a set of criteria outlined in Box 6.

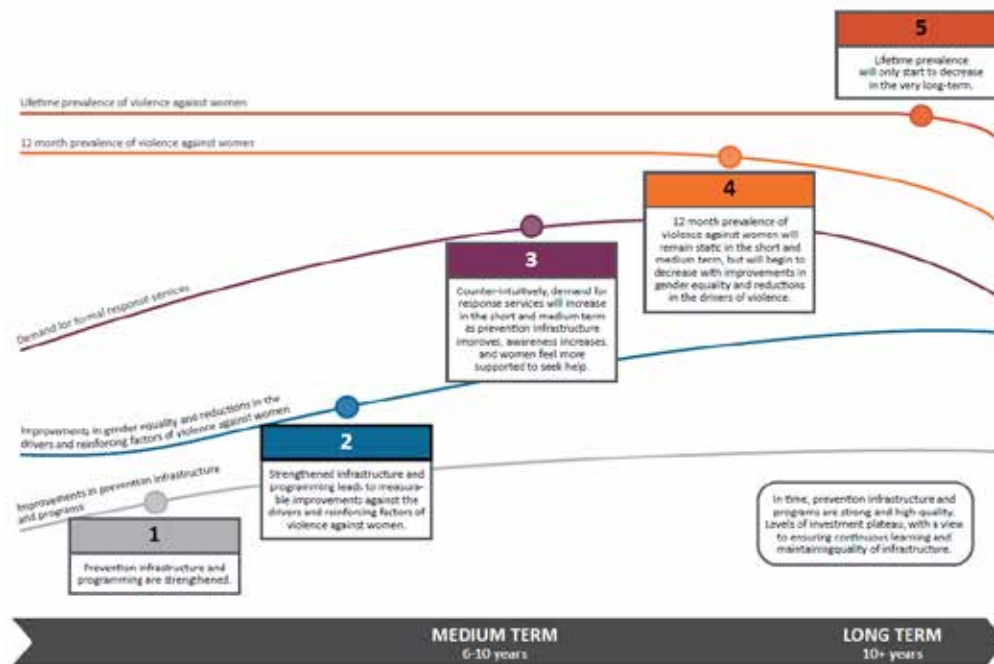
Box 6: Australian data sources were reviewed according to a set of criteria to identify sources, gaps, and recommendations for data improvement.

Box 7: Based on feedback from the Advisory Group, a final set of ideal indicators was identified.

Box 8: The draft Guide was reviewed by the Advisory Group.

Box 9: The Guide was revised and tested with stakeholders before being finalised.

Figure 5: Expected process of change over time



This image illustrates the changes we expect to see over the short, medium, and long-term. A black arrow runs the length of the bottom of the page representing the progress of time, with two specific time frames outlined: medium-term (six to ten years) and long-term (ten plus years). Sitting above the black arrow are a series of coloured lines, all of which run from the left-hand side of the image to the right-hand side.

Just above the black arrow is a grey line which represents improvements in prevention infrastructure and programs. This dark grey line is relatively horizontal but arches upwards slightly in the medium term before plateauing in the long term.

Sitting just above the grey line is a blue line which represents the improvements in the gendered drivers and reinforcing factors of violence against women. This blue line mirrors the trajectory of the grey line. The blue line plateaus in the long term.

Above the blue line is a purple line which represents demand for formal response services. This purple line rises rapidly in the medium term before dipping in the long-term.

Close to the top of the image are two lines: one orange and one red. The red line representing lifetime prevalence rates and, sitting just below this is the orange line representing 12-month prevalence rates of violence against women in Australia. Both orange and red lines remain horizontal in the medium term. As we enter the long term, the orange line dips downward slightly and continues on a downward trajectory in the long term. The red line only begins to dip once we are well into the long term.

A series of numbered boxes (from one to five) provide a narrative for the change we expect to see.

Box 1: Prevention Infrastructure and programming are strengthened

Box 2: Strengthened infrastructure and programming leads to measurable improvements against the drivers and reinforcing factors of violence against women.

Box 3: Counter-intuitively, demand for response services will increase in the short and medium term as prevention infrastructure improves, awareness increases, and women feel more supported to seek help.

Box 4: 12 month prevalence of violence against women will remain static in the short and medium term, but will begin to decrease with improvements in gender equality and reductions in the drivers of violence.

Box 5: Lifetime prevalence will only start to decrease in the very long-term.

A box with rounded corners sits in the bottom right hand corner of the image. Text in the box reads: In time, prevention infrastructure and programs are strong and high-quality. Levels of investment plateau, with a view to ensuring continuous learning and maintaining quality of infrastructure.

Page 49:

Figure 6: Matrix of how selected indicators track across the ecological model and across structures, norms and practices.

	Individual	Organisational / community	Institutional	Societal	Structures	Norms	Practices
Drivers	1.1	3.1	1.1	4.2	2.2	1.1	4.1
	1.2	3.2	1.2	4.4	2.3	1.2	4.2
	1.3	4.3	1.5	4.5		1.4	3.2
	1.4	5.1	2.2	4.6		1.5	4.3
	2.1	5.4	2.3	5.1		2.1	6.1
	2.2	6.1	3.1	5.2		2.2	7.1
	2.3	7.1	3.2	5.3		2.3	
	2.4		4.1	5.4			4.1
				3.1			5.4
				3.2			4.2
				7.1			
Reinforcing Factors	8.1	12.1	11.1	12.1	8.1	11.1	12.1
	9.2	12.4	12.1	12.3	9.1	12.1	9.2
	9.3		12.2	9.2	12.2	9.2	10.1
	10.1			9.3	12.3	9.3	11.1

This image shows how the 32 medium-term indicators cut across all levels of the social ecological model (individual, organisational/community, institutional and societal) and across structures, norms and practices. Many indicators sit across more than one socio-ecological level.

Figure 7: Key steps to make it happen



This image is of a jigsaw puzzle made up of four pieces. The four piece of the puzzle represents the four key elements of prevention monitoring:

1. A coordination mechanism;
2. A process for data collection and analysis;
3. A process for reporting and communications; and
4. A research strategy to reduce data gaps.

Endnotes

- 1 While the focus of *Change the story*, and *Counting the change*, is the primary prevention of violence against women, the inclusion of the phrase ‘and their children’ is to acknowledge that many women who experience violence have children in their care. Exposure to violence against their mothers or other caregivers causes profound harm to children, with potential impacts on attitudes to relationships and violence, as well as behavioural, cognitive and emotional functioning, social development, and – through a process of ‘negative chain effects’ – education and later employment prospects. Because violence against women has such direct and significant impacts on children, preventing it will also prevent associated harm to and consequences for children.
- 2 Our Watch, Australia’s National Research Organisation for Women’s Safety (ANROWS) & VicHealth. (2015). *Change the story: A shared framework for the primary prevention of violence against women and their children in Australia*. Melbourne, Australia: Our Watch.
- 3 Fifty-five per cent of women with children presenting to specialist homelessness services nominated escaping violence as their main reason for seeking help.

Australian Institute of Health and Welfare. (2012). *Specialist homeless services data collection 2011-12* (Cat. No. HOU 267). Retrieved from <http://www.aihw.gov.au/WorkArea/DownloadAsset.aspx?id=60129542529>.
- 4 Children exposed to family violence are classified as experiencing ‘emotional abuse’, which, while a broader category, is the most commonly substantiated type of harm (39 per cent) in child protection notifications across Australia.

Australian Institute of Health and Welfare. (2015). *Child Protection Australia 2013-14, Child Welfare Series No. 61*. (Cat. No. CWS 52.) Retrieved from <http://www.aihw.gov.au/WorkArea/DownloadAsset.aspx?id=60129550859>.
- 5 Police across Australia dealt with 239,846 domestic violence incidents in 2015, an estimated 657 domestic violence matters on average every day of the year (or one every two minutes) – calculated for police data sourced across all states and territories.

Blumer, C. (2015, June 5). Australian police deal with a domestic violence matter every two minutes. ABC News. Retrieved from <http://www.abc.net.au/news/2015-05-29/domesticviolence-data/6503734>.
- 6 Survey extrapolated to population figures on the basis of 3.8 per cent of all women surveyed reporting having experienced physical or sexual violence from a non-partner in the past 12 months (and approximately 9 million women over the age of 18 in Australia).

Australian Bureau of Statistics. (2013a). *Personal Safety, Australia 2012*. (Cat. No. 4906.0.) Retrieved from <http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/abs@.nsf/mf/4906.0>.
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- 8 Cox, P. (2015). *Violence against women: Additional analysis of the Australian Bureau of Statistics' Personal Safety Survey 2012*, Horizons Research Report, Issue 1, Australia's National Research Organisation for Women's Safety, Sydney. Retrieved from <http://anrows.org.au/publications/horizons/PSS>.
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- 10 The elimination of violence against women is also a specific target of the new United Nations Sustainable Development Goals, to which Australia is committed.
- 11 Internationally there are a number of programs or initiatives that have proven successful at reducing future levels of violence for those participating, when compared to similar groups that did not undertake the program. Many more initiatives, in Australia and abroad, have been effective in shifting the attitudes, behaviours, and practices that are known to drive violence.

Ellsberg, M., Arango, D.J., Morton, M., Gennari, F., Kiplesund, S., Contreras, M. & Watts, C. (2014). Prevention of violence against women and girls: What does the evidence say? *The Lancet*, 385, pp.1555-1566.

Fulu, E., Kerr-Wilson, A. & Lang, J. (2014). *What works to prevent violence against women and girls? Evidence review of interventions to prevent violence against women and girls*. Retrieved from http://r4d.dfid.gov.uk/pdf/outputs/VAWG/What_Works_Inception_Report_June_2014_AnnexF_WG23_paper_prevention_interventions.pdf.

Arango, D.J., Morton, M., Gennari, F., Kiplesund, S. & Ellsberg, M. (2014). Interventions to prevent or reduce violence against women and girls: A systematic review of reviews. *Women's Voice and Agency Research Series*, 10.

Heise, L. (2011). *What works to prevent partner violence: An evidence overview*. Retrieved from <http://strive.lshtm.ac.uk/system/files/attachments/What%20works%20to%20prevent%20partner%20violence.pdf>.
- 12 This includes physical or sexual assault, or threats. Some victims experience violence from more than one perpetrator, hence the total exceeds 100 per cent.

Diemer, K. (2015). ABS Personal Safety Survey: Additional analysis on relationship and sex of perpetrator. Retrieved from <https://violenceagainstwomenandchildren.files.wordpress.com/2015/07/abs-personal-safety-survey-victim-perpetrator-sex-and-relationship6.pdf>.
- 13 Mouzos, J. (1999). Femicide: An overview of major findings. *Australian Institute of Criminology*, (124), 1. Retrieved from http://www.aic.gov.au/media_library/publications/tandi_pdf/tandi124.pdf.

Statistics Canada (2003). Family violence in Canada: A statistical profile 2003, *Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics*, Ministry of Justice, Canada. Retrieved from <http://www.statcan.gc.ca/pub/85-224-x/85-224-x2003000-eng.pdf>.

- 14 16.9 per cent of women reported experiencing intimate partner violence since age 15, and 5.3 per cent of males.

Australian Bureau of Statistics. (2013a). *Personal Safety, Australia 2012*. (Cat. No. 4906.0.) Retrieved from <http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/abs@.nsf/mf/4906.0>.

Cox, P. (2015).

- 15 One woman in five has experienced sexual violence over their lifetime compared to one in twenty men.

Australian Bureau of Statistics. (2013a).

99 per cent of women experiencing sexual assault were assaulted by a male.

Cox, P. (2015).

- 16 In 2012, 17 per cent of all women and 5 per cent of men had experienced violence by a partner since the age of 15.

Australian Bureau of Statistics. (2013a).

- 17 Our Watch, ANROWS & VicHealth. (2015).

- 18 Our Watch, ANROWS & VicHealth. (2015).

- 19 Our Watch, ANROWS & VicHealth. (2015).

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World Health Organization & London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine. (2010). *Preventing intimate partner and sexual violence against women: Taking action and generating evidence*. Retrieved from <http://www.who.int/reproductivehealth/publications/violence/9789241564007/en/>.

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Webster, K., Pennay, P., Bricknall, R., Diemer, K., Flood, M., Powell, A., Politoff, V. & Ward, A. (2014). *Australians' attitudes to violence against women: Full technical report, Findings from the 2013 National Community Attitudes towards Violence Against Women Survey*, Victorian Health Promotion Foundation, Melbourne, Australia. Retrieved from <https://www.vichealth.vic.gov.au/media-and-resources/publications/2013-national-community-attitudes-towards-violence-against-women-survey>.

- 25 World Health Organization & London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine. (2010). *Preventing intimate partner and sexual violence against women: Taking action and generating evidence*. Retrieved from <http://www.who.int/reproductivehealth/publications/violence/9789241564007/en/>.
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- 27 The National Plan includes four high-level indicators of change related to or demonstrating such reduced prevalence: 1) reduced prevalence of domestic violence and sexual assault, 2) reduced deaths due to these types of violence, 3) reduced proportion of children exposed to domestic violence, and 4) an increased proportion of women who feel safe in their communities.

Council of Australian Governments. (2011). *National plan to reduce violence against women and their children 2010-2022*, p.10. Retrieved from https://www.dss.gov.au/sites/default/files/documents/08_2014/national_plan1.pdf.

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Our Watch, ANROWS & VicHealth. (2015).

- 29 The National Plan includes four high-level *Indicators of Change* and seven *Measures of Success* that are being monitored by the Department and measured through a series of independent evaluations. The National Plan's *Indicators of Change* are: 1) reduced prevalence of domestic violence and sexual assault, 2) increased proportion of women who feel safe in their communities, 3) reduced deaths related to domestic violence and sexual assault, 4) reduced proportion of children exposed to their mother's or carer's experience of domestic violence. *Indicators of Change* 1, 2, and 4 also appear as indicators in the Guide.

The National Plan's *Measures of Success* are: 1) increased intolerance of violence against women, 2) improved knowledge, skills and behaviour of respectful relationships by young people, 3) reduction in the proportion of Indigenous women who consider that family violence, assault and sexual assault are problems for their communities and neighbourhoods, 4) increased proportions of Indigenous women are able to have their say within community on important issues including violence, 5) increased access to and responsiveness of services for victims of domestic/family violence and sexual assault, 6) increased rates of women reporting domestic violence and sexual assault to police, and 7) a decrease in repeated partner victimisation. The seven *Measures of Success* cover response, early intervention, and prevention, with only one indicator (Measure 1) focusing on prevention at a population level and another indicator (Measure 2) focusing on prevention for a specific age group.

Department of Social Services. (2014). Second Action Plan 2013-2016 – Moving Ahead – of the National Plan to Reduce Violence against Women and their Children 2010-2022. Retrieved from https://www.dss.gov.au/sites/default/files/documents/09_2014/dss012_14_book_tagged_reduced.pdf.

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Victorian Government. (2015). *Measuring the Toll: The Family Violence Index*. Retrieved from <https://4a5b508b5f92124e39ff-ccd8d0b92a93a9c1ab1bc91ad6c9bfdb.ssl.cf4.rackcdn.com/2015/05/150518-Measuring-the-Toll-The-Family-Violence-Index.pdf>.

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- 32 There is a difference between an index and a monitoring framework. An index combines data from across a number of fields to create a single indicator that can measure progress on a particular issue in society, while monitoring refers to the routine tracking and reporting of priority information about a project or program: its inputs, activities, outputs, outcomes, and impacts.

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UN AIDS. (2002). *Monitoring and evaluation operating manual*. Geneva, Switzerland. UN AIDS and The World Bank. Retrieved from http://www.unaids.org/sites/default/files/media_asset/jc808-moneval_en_0.pdf.

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