A high price to pay

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Foreword

PwC is extremely proud to have partnered with Our Watch and the Victorian Health Promotion Foundation (VicHealth) to develop this important report on the costs and benefits of preventing violence against women. Our Watch and VicHealth are organisations at the forefront of preventing violence against women and the report has benefited greatly from their input and partnership. The report has also benefited greatly from the work of the new national framework for the primary prevention of violence against women and their children in Australia.

The purpose of the report is to estimate the costs and benefits of preventing violence against women and understand the effectiveness of different prevention strategies. The report is intended to be a public submission to the Victorian Royal Commission into Family Violence and inform policymaking.

With domestic violence in the spotlight in Australia, we believe that Victoria and Australia have an unprecedented opportunity to invest in prevention and reduce violence against women. Victoria is well-placed to provide leadership in this space because of its strong history of building our understanding of best practice in investment in primary prevention.

We would also like to acknowledge the contribution of the Advisory Panel, which comprised of representatives from government, academia, community groups and research organisations to provide expert advice and guidance in the development of the report.

Yours sincerely,

James van Smeerdijk

Partner

Contents

Executive summary

Like many in the community, we at PwC, Our Watch and VicHealth are deeply saddened by the statistics and personal stories of violence against women. We join with the community in advocating that violence against women can and should be prevented. This report aims to provide further evidence of the cost of violence against women, and the benefits of investing in primary prevention. We define primary prevention as all work to prevent violence before it occurs. This includes work to address gender inequality, which sets the underlying social context that enables violence against women to occur.

This report demonstrates that the cost of violence against women to society remains high and is increasing. At the same time, there are significant potential cost savings and other economic and social benefits to be gained from primary prevention strategies that improve equality in relationships and society.

Primary prevention strategies include communications campaigns to address the drivers of violence against women, education campaigns to build respectful and equitable relationships and policy and institutional reform to improve gender equality. We estimate that violence against women costs $21.7 billion a year. Victims bear the primary burden of this cost. Governments (national and State and Territory) bear the second biggest cost burden, estimated at $7.8 billion a year, comprising health, administration and social welfare costs.

If no further action is taken to prevent violence against women, we estimate that costs will accumulate to $323.4 billion over a thirty year period from 2014-15 to 2044-45.

Our work to analyse the evaluations of programs and policies aimed at preventing violence against women has revealed many areas of promising practice. We acknowledge that preventing violence against women is a relatively recent area of focus, particularly in policy, legislative and institutional change and that there is a developing body of evidence to understand its effectiveness. Further work is needed to evaluate the promising areas of prevention programs and policies, particularly in the Australian context and over a period of time to understand the sustainability of impact.

Based on the available evidence, there are two areas of prevention work where there has been investment in research to demonstrate a quantifiable reduction in the prevalence of violence against women. These are community mobilisation and individual and direct participation programs. Community mobilisation programs are community driven, participatory projects aimed at mobilising multiple stakeholders to build gender equitable, respectful and violence free communities. Individual and direct participation programs are programs that provide education, support and skills development to groups of people. They can be targeted at building knowledge and skills for equal and respectful relationships, shifting attitudes and norms, empowering women, strengthening equitable parenting, and responding to the impacts of prior exposure to violence.

We estimate that if a similar reduction in violence against women were achieved as has been the case for other community mobilisation programs, the benefits would range from $35.6 million to $71.1 million over a lifetime.

We estimate that if a similar reduction in violence against women in Australia were achieved as has been the case for other individual and direct participation programs, the benefits would be respectively range from $2.2 billion to $3.6 billion.

These benefits far outweigh the initial program investment. We acknowledge that all prevention work is highly contextualised and further work is needed to be able to apply a similar program successfully in the Australian context. We also acknowledge that we have chosen the most effective programs in order to illustrate the potential benefits from prevention.

There is evidence to suggest that primary prevention activities are maximised when they are part of a multifaceted and mutually reinforcing package of programs and policies. The program benefits estimated here should not be viewed in isolation, but as part of a broader, multifaceted and long term prevention approach.

There are broader benefits from a more equitable and respectful society that is free from violence than just reduced costs. This report has only sought to estimate the cost benefit of reducing violence against women. This report points to other work to estimate the benefits of improving gender equality, but estimating this broader benefit is out of the scope for this report.

In estimating the benefits of investing in prevention, we note that this investment should not come at the cost of investing in response services.

There is potential to learn from other successful prevention programs in order to have an immediate impact on reducing violence against women in Victoria and Australia. There is an opportunity at all levels of government now to invest in mutually reinforcing activities to prevent violence against women and their children.

Violence against women and their children

Violence against women in Australia today

Violence against women is defined in the United Nation's *Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women* (1993) as:

Any act of gender-based violence that results in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or in private life.

The definition encompasses physical violence including sexual violence and harassment, economic violence, emotional and psychological violence. It encompasses all forms of violence against women regardless of place or whether the perpetrator is known to the victim/survivor or not.

The recent analysis conducted by Australia's National Research Organisation for Women's Safety (ANROWS) on the Australian Bureau of Statistics' (ABS) Personal Safety Survey, found that four out of 10 women have experienced at least one incident of violence since the age of 15.[1] The study notes that both men and women were more likely to be physically assaulted by a man than a woman and that a woman is most likely to experience violence in the home. The study acknowledges that gender is a substantial variable in understanding violence. In 2004 the Victorian Health Promotion Foundation (VicHealth) found that intimate partner violence was the leading contributor to ill-health, death and disease for women aged 15-44 in Victoria. Intimate partner violence is worse for women's health than other risk factors such as smoking, obesity and alcohol misuse.

We note that the statistics highlight the difference in experience of violence by different groups of women. The ANROWS *Fast Facts – Indigenous Family Violence* publication states that Indigenous women are 35 times more likely to be hospitalised due to family violence related assaults than non-indigenous women, pointing to the difference in severity of violence.[2]

Violence is a problem experienced by many women in Australia

49.5%

Percentage of women have experienced violence, partner emotional abuse or stalking since the age of 15

27.5%

Percentage of women have experienced violence or emotional abuse by a current or previous partner

Multiple victimisations are not uncommon

13%

Percentage of all women in Australia have experienced BOTH physical and sexual violence since age 15

Neither are multiple experiences of violence

1 in 4

Women in Australia have experienced more than one incident of violence my a male perpetrator since age 15

Violence against women is more likely to be perpetrated by a known man

35.6%

Percentage of women had experienced violence by a known person. 33.7% of women reported that violence was perpetrated by a known man

[1] Australia's National Research Organisation for Women's Safety, October 2015, *Violence against women: Additional analysis on the Australian Bureau of Statistics' Personal Safety Survey 2012,* Alexandria, NSW.
[2] Australia's National Research Organisation for Women's Safety, May 2014, *Fast Facts on Indigenous Family Violence.*

Violence against women is preventable. And as such, a public health approach towards reducing violence against women is valuable, as sustained and long term investment to change culture and behaviours is required to reduce violence and improve outcomes for women and children. VicHealth and Our Watch[3] are at the forefront of building our understanding of the primary prevention of violence against women. A multi-faceted public health approach has been shown to be successful in improving other preventable health burdens such as smoking or road trauma.[4]

Violence occurs within a social and cultural context and understanding the underlying causes of violence is complex. Our understanding of violence against women is conceptualised as an 'ecological' approach to violence. While it is an individual that perpetrates violence, the ecological model helps to illustrate how this individual behaviour is located within a broader social context and is dependent upon factors located at the individual, organisational, community, systemic and social levels. Research shows that the socio-ecological factors associated with higher levels of violence against women are the structures, norms and practices that reinforce gender inequality – in other words, gender inequality sets the social context for violence against women.

Prevention effort needs to focus on addressing the specific elements of gender inequality (i.e. the gendered drivers) that most consistently predict higher levels of violence against women and their children. To be most effective, prevention efforts need to be implemented in the wide variety of settings where people live, work, learn and play. This includes targeting prevention activities across a range of settings such as workplaces, schools, community organisations, sports clubs, media and popular culture where gender inequalities and violence-supportive attitudes and behaviour may be reinforced. Targeting prevention effort at systemic and institutional levels, such as parental leave policies designed to institute greater gender equality in parenting and caring roles, is also critical. As is the contribution of policy makers and prevention experts in working to shift societal and cultural attitudes towards violence and gender inequality.

The recently-released shared framework for the primary prevention of violence against women and their children in Australia, *Change the story*[5] draws on international evidence demonstrating that violence against women is more likely to occur where gender inequality is ingrained in social, cultural and organisational structures and practices. Key drivers of violence against women include; men's control of decision-making and limits to women's independence – in both relationships and public life – as well as rigid adherence to gender stereotypes and identities, and male peer cultures that emphasise disrespect for women. These drivers can be exacerbated by intersecting factors such as drugs and alcohol, but these intersecting factors are not inherently the primary causes of violence. Primary prevention strategies are targeted to address the key drivers of violence and to achieve changes in relation to these drivers. Other efforts to address intersecting factors can complement primary prevention strategies however they are not the focus.

Primary prevention aims to do more than reduce violence. Primary prevention aims to address the underlying determinants that lead to gender based violence, which are primarily related to gender inequality and a culture that excuses or accepts violence against women. Addressing these underlying determinants will have broader benefits than simply the avoided costs of reduced violence. For example, a society with greater gender equality may address the under-representation of women in economic participation. By improving access, the benefits can come in the form of improved productivity for the person but also to society.

At the time this report was being developed, there was unprecedented policy, research and program activity in the area of primary prevention of violence against women, and responses to family violence more broadly, across Australia. Recent developments include the Queensland Special Taskforce into Family Violence, led by Dame Quentin Bryce, the Senate Finance and Public Administration Committee's report domestic violence and the *National Plan to Reduce Violence Against Women and their Children* and the Victorian Royal Commission into Family Violence, which are all encouraging efforts to address violence against women. It is anticipated this this report will contribute to the evidence base and momentum that will help shape policy developments in the coming years.

[3] Our Watch is Australia's National Foundation for the Prevention of Violence against Women and their Children. Further information is available on the OW website http://www.ourwatch.org.au/

[4] Victorian Health Promotion Foundation, May 2015, *Submission to the Royal Commission into Family Violence.*

[5] Our Watch, ANROWS and VicHealth 2015, *Change the story: A shared framework for the primary prevention of violence against women and their children in Australia.*

Purpose of this report

The purpose of this report is to provide policy makers with information on the cost of the violence against women, to quantify the associated benefits from more effective prevention strategies, and to discuss the broader gains for example from a fairer society. This report begins by updating previous reports that have quantified the costs of violence against women. Looking at the literature on the effectiveness of programs and policies to prevent violence against women, we calculate the costs that would be avoided if violence were reduced. The report also looks at the other benefits of prevention efforts that go beyond the 'avoided costs of violence against women', for example, the productivity benefits of gender equality and healthier relationships, in private and public life.

This report focuses solely on the literature of primary prevention in violence against women. Primary prevention effort is focused on stopping something before it occurs. We have not included evaluation of work to respond to victims or perpetrators of violence, such as men's behaviour change programs. While a men's behaviour change program, is likely to have a preventive effect in terms of preventing additional violence, these programs are initiated after an incident and are not primary prevention activities. Any intervention that comes *after* violence has occurred is outside of the scope of this project.

Our focus has been on primary prevention strategies grouped into seven categories:

- **Direct participation programs** – These programs can be targeted at men, women and children at the individual, relationship or group level to build the knowledge and skills required to establish and sustain equal, respectful, non-violent gender relationships; build individuals' access to the resources required for such relationships (such as effective early parenting and connections to social networks and institutions); or to seek to prevent or address the impacts of other factors linked to violence against women (for example, child abuse).
- **Organisational and workforce development** – This methodology is based on the understanding that organisations and organisational cultures have a powerful role in influencing the behaviours of individuals and groups and so can play a role in violence reduction by modelling non-violent, equitable and respectful gender relations. Workforce development involves building the skills of relevant workforces to implement primary prevention activity either informally and opportunistically or at a more formal level.
- **Community mobilisation** – This methodology aims to mobilise and support communities to address violence against women and the social norms that make it acceptable. These strategies can also be used to increase community access to the resources required for action and to address broader community-level risk factors for violence against women, such as high rates of early school leaving or localised violent peer cultures.
- **Communications and social marketing** – These methodologies aim to use a range of communication media to raise awareness of violence against women and address attitudes, behaviours and social norms that contribute to this problem. This includes mainstream television, radio and print media as well as the internet and other social media, community forums, community arts and so on.
- **Advocacy** – Advocacy involves building collective activity and mobilisations to raise awareness of the issue of violence against women and to encourage governments, organisations, corporations and communities to take action on structures, policies and systems contributing to the problem.
- **Legislative and policy reform** – This involves the development of legislation, policies and programs that seek to address the factors underlying or contributing to violence against women.
- **Research, monitoring and evaluation** – Research and evaluation underpins activity in the other six areas by informing action, improving the evidence and knowledge base for future planning and enabling efforts to be both effectively targeted and monitored. Research findings are also important for advocacy and awareness-raising activity.

While this project is focused on primary prevention, we note that the investment in prevention cannot be at the expense of emergency service, police and justice responses. The increasing awareness of violence against women created by prevention activity means that more women are likely to recognise and disclose violence in their own lives, and seek support to respond to violence. Prevention should be viewed as a separate and additional investment to responding to victims of violence.

Our project approach

Literature review

We have reviewed the literature evaluating strategies to prevent violence against women and their children.

We have identified 98 evaluations of prevention strategies to assess the effectiveness to:

- Reduce violence perpetration and prevalence and/or
- Change the institutional structures, community or relationship practices and/or social norms (attitudes, beliefs and values) known to contribute to violence towards women

Of the 98 evaluations, 75 have provided us with data on the impact on the prevalence of violence, an analysis of which is included in this report.

Cost benefit analysis

In estimating the benefits of preventing violence against women, we have taken a cost-benefit analysis approach where the economic cost associated with violence is calculated and the benefit is measured by the degree to which that cost is avoided. To date there are a number of studies that have estimated the economic cost of either intimate partner violence specifically or violence against women. This includes studies by Access Economics[6] and KPMG.[7] Our approach adopts a similar methodology as those previous studies in order to provide an 'updated costs' but also to allow for comparability. Underpinning the calculations of the cost of violence is the estimated number of women experiencing violence, from the most Australian Bureau of statistics (ABS) Personal Safety Survey (PSS 2012). [8]

Our approach to updating the cost of violence can be broadly summarised as using two methods:

- Re-calculations using up to date prevalence statistics from the PSS and other data; and
- Escalating previously reported costs to 2014-15.

We estimated an annual cost of violence as it occurred in the base year of 2014-15 and also as lifetime cost over thirty years. This approach provides a better estimate of the longer term costs of violence against women.

Informed by our review of studies evaluating the effectiveness of primary prevention strategies, we estimated the benefits that could be gained as a result of reduced perpetration or victimisation of violence against women should similar initiatives be applied to the Australian context. The benefits shown are the avoided costs of violence.

However, primary prevention initiatives go beyond violence prevention. They seek to promote more gender equitable environments and relationships which will have further benefits to the economy. We will discuss how these benefits may further affect the Australian economy using studies available in the literature but due to limitations of data we did not quantify this benefit.

Structure of this report

This report is structured in four sections:

Section 1: Context

This section defines the problem of violence against women and our approach in this report to assess the effectiveness of prevention strategies and estimate the benefits of prevention.

Section 2: Costs of violence against women

This section updates previous estimates of the costs of violence against women in terms of both annual and lifetime costs.

Section 3: Prevention strategies

This section outlines the approach we have taken to review literature and assess the effectiveness of prevention strategies.

Section 4: Benefits of preventing violence against women

This section ties both the prevention strategies and the cost estimates together, estimating the benefits of particular prevention strategies based on the evidence reviewed in section 3. We also discuss the broader benefits to the economy of improving gender equality.

[6] *The Cost of Domestic Violence to the Australian Economy: Part I and Part II (2004) Access Economics.*
[7] *The cost of violence against women and their Children.(2009) The National Council to Reduce Violence against Women and their Children.*
[8] Australian Bureau of Statistics 2012. *Personal Safety, Australia, 2012.* Cat no. 4906.0

Costs of violence against women

The economic costs of violence against women

It is widely understood that violence against women has significant consequences for individuals, communities and society as a whole. Violence is a human rights abuse and has significant impacts on relationships, health and the economy. Some work has been done to date to quantify these impacts however the focus of this report is on the economic costs of violence against women. This report focuses on the economic impacts of violence against women updating previous studies by Access Economics[9] and KPMG.[10] The methodology used in these studies informed our costing approach:

- Re-calculating of costs from the bottom up using updated prevalence statistics from the most recent Personal Safety Survey and/or other updated cost data; or
- Escalating the costs in 2003 to 2014-15 as reported by Access Economics.

Further details to our approach to estimating the costs and the prevalence rates that underpin our analysis can be found in Appendix B.

In this section we calculated the economic cost incurred as a result of violence in the base year of 2014-15. The costs that are incurred as a result of violence and the stakeholders that incur are grouped into the following categories:

Table 1: Costs of violence against women grouped into discrete categories and the stakeholders that incur them

Cost category	Description	Stakeholder(s) incurring
Pain, suffering and premature mortality	Costs attributed to lost quality of life	• Women • Children • Perpetrators
Health costs	Costs to deliver health services to victims of violence. It covers the costs associated with the extended health effects of violence and not just the treatment of the initial trauma for example the costs associated with the treatment of depression and anxiety.	• Women • Commonwealth Government • State and Territory Governments • Society/community • Private insurance providers • Perpetrators
Production related costs	Lost productivity through absenteeism, being late or attending court. It includes lost productivity from unpaid/ voluntary work.	• Women • Employers • Society/community • Perpetrators
Consumption related costs	In the immediate short-term, these costs cover the damage to property and belongings but this also covers the lost economies of scale that victims of domestic violence would experience due to being less likely to be in further relationships in the future. In calculating costs for non-partner violence, it was assumed that this cost is not applicable.	• Women • Children • Society/community • Perpetrators
Second generation costs	For children who were in households experiencing violence but are not necessarily the target of violence themselves, there would be costs associated with their care or for government intervention. It was also assumed that this cost will not be incurred by those experiencing violence by non-partners.	• Women • State and Territory Governments

[9] *The Cost of Domestic Violence to the Australian Economy: Part I and Part II. (2004) Access Economics.*
[10] *The cost of violence against women and their Children. (2009) The National Council to Reduce Violence against Women and their Children.*

Cost category	Description	Stakeholder(s) incurring
Administrative and other costs	This category is largely comprised of the criminal justice costs for police, the courts and to incarcerate indicted perpetrators. It also includes the costs of other services such as interpreters, funerals and temporary accommodation.	• Women • Friends/family • State and Territory Government • Commonwealth Government • Society and community • Perpetrators
Transfer costs	Costs such as income support, victim compensation and lost taxes are not lost costs to society per se but are instead shifts in the economic powers of consumption from one part of society to another. Following violence against women this results in a loss of economic efficiency to occur which is known as a deadweight loss. It can also be thought of as the cost of the excess burden of taxation.	• Women • Friends/family • State and Territory Governments • Commonwealth Government • Society/community

Note: The cost categories are the same as those used in previous costings of violence against women to enable comparison, which were the Access Economics *The Cost of Domestic Violence to the Australian Economy: Part I and Part II. (2004)* and KPMG report *The cost of violence against women and their Children. (2009) The National Council to Reduce Violence against Women and their Children.*

In the following section, we will apply the definitions of a partner and types of violence as used by in the Personal Safety Survey conducted by the ABS.[11] Specific definitions of a current or previous partner and for the various types of violence can be found in Appendix B. In this analysis a partner is considered to be a person that the woman experiencing violence either currently living with or has lived with and that they are considered to be in a de facto or a married relationship (see definitions for current and previous partner).

Using these definitions, we have grouped these costs into the more specific experiences of violence: partner violence, and violence by any person. The precise definitions of these experience groups are as follows:

Table 2: Prevalence of violence categories

Category	Definition
Women experiencing partner violence	If a woman were to experience physical violence, sexual violence or emotional abuse by a current or previous partner they are considered to have experienced partner violence
Women experiencing all violence including partner and non-partner violence	If a woman were to experience physical violence, sexual violence, emotional abuse (by a partner) or stalking by any perpetrator they are considered to have experienced any violence by any person

For simplicity, we will shorten the description of these experiences as:

- women experiencing partner violence – partner violence and
- women experiencing violence – all violence

[11] Australian Bureau of Statistics 2012. *Personal Safety, Australia, 2012.* Cat no. 4906.0

In 2014-15 the estimated number of women having any of these experiences over a 12 month period as follows:

Table 3: Estimated number of women experiencing partner violence and all violence in 2014-15

Type of experience	Description	Number of women experiencing violence in 2014-15*
Partner violence	Proportion of women experiencing physical violence, sexual violence or emotional abuse by a partner	470,309
All violence	Proportion of women experiencing physical violence, sexual violence, partner emotional abuse or stalking	1,032,835

*Estimates were calculated by applying the respective prevalence rates in 2012 to the population of women aged 18 and over in 2014-15. ABS analysis of the Personal Safety Survey showed no statistically significant increase in the prevalence of violence between the 2005 and 2012 survey. Therefore it was assumed that there is no increase in the prevalence rate of violence between 2012 and the present.[12]

In 2014-15, we estimate that over one million women had experienced some form of physical violence, sexual violence, emotional abuse, stalking or any combination of them over the previous 12 month period.

This is estimated to cost of $21.7 billion in 2014-15. For women experiencing physical violence, sexual violence or emotional abuse by a partner, this is estimated to cost $12.6 billion.

This is higher than the 2009 KPMG study that estimated the cost of violence against women in 2021-22 to be $13.6 billion (2008-09 dollars) or $15.7 billion (2014-15 dollars). [13]

It is likely that the difference in costs between the studies are a result in changes to underlying prevalence data used in the analyses, in particular the definitions for emotional abuse and stalking used by the ABS and population growth. For the former, the most recent survey reports on emotional abuse perpetrated by current and previous partners whereas in the past it recorded only emotional abuse perpetrated by current partners. In addition, the recent survey includes a broader range of emotionally abusive behaviours and more detail about the experience which means that results in the most recent survey and past iterations are not strictly comparable.

These costs can be broken down to the seven cost categories previously described and is as follows:

Table 4: The annual cost of violence against women to the Australian economy in 2014-15.

Cost categories ($ million) 2014-15 real	Partner violence	All violence
Pain, suffering and premature mortality	4,738.3	10,405.6
Health	617.2	1,355.5
Production related	926.1	2,031.9
Consumption related*	4,316.9	4,316.9
Administrative and other	883.9	1,721.8
Second generation*	300.7	300.7
Transfer costs	811.9	1,515.6
Total	**12,595.0**	**21,648.0**

Source: PwC

* It was assumed that consumption costs and second generation costs are not applicable to non-partner violence, which is the same approach used in the report, *The cost of violence against women and their Children.*[14]

[12] Australian Bureau of Statistics 2012. *Personal Safety, Australia, 2012.* Cat no. 4906.0
[13] Ibid.
[14] *The cost of violence against women and their Children. (2009) The National Council to Reduce Violence against Women and their Children.*

The relative magnitude of each cost category can be found in Table 5. By far, the cost of pain, suffering and premature mortality constitutes the largest proportion of the total cost of all violence at 48 per cent which equates to $10.4 billion. It represents a conceptual (rather than direct or indirect) cost of violence associated with the loss in quality of life either due to morbidity or premature death following violence. Calculating this loss in quality of life involves the use of disability adjusted life years (DALYs) which are a numerical representation of a loss of a life year with a 0 representing a year in good health, a 1 representing death and the values in between representing the degrees to which a person experiences a reduced quality of life. By assuming the value for a life year is $182,000,[15] the total cost of loss of quality of life is then calculated as the cost of pain, suffering and premature mortality.

Table 5: The relative proportion of the cost of all violence for each cost category with and without pain, suffering and premature mortality

Cost categories	per cent of total cost of all violence	per cent of total cost not including pain and suffering
Pain, suffering and premature mortality	48 per cent	–
Health	6 per cent	12 per cent
Production related	9 per cent	18 per cent
Consumption related	20 per cent	38 per cent
Administrative and other	8 per cent	15 per cent
Second generation	1 per cent	3 per cent
Transfer costs	7 per cent	13 per cent

When the cost of pain, suffering and premature mortality is excluded, we can see that of the remaining costs, the cost of consumption represents 38 per cent of the total. This category is comprised of the cost to repair or replace damaged or destroyed property and lost economies of scale. The remaining $4.2 billion (98 per cent of the consumption cost) is attributed to the lost economies of scale which is a result of women experiencing partner violence being 14 to 19 per cent less likely to be in a de facto or married relationship in future and therefore less likely to live in a multi person household.[16] These women therefore experience a reduced economy of scale when purchasing goods and services for themselves. It was assumed that women experiencing non-partner violence will experience it away from the home and that it would not affect their future likelihood of being in a multi person household.[17]

The third largest component is the cost of administration which includes the cost to administer justice to perpetrators and to deliver support services such as counselling for the victims and perpetrator rehabilitation programs. A majority of the administration cost is made up of the criminal justice component which totals at $1.3 billion.

The costs of lost productivity refers to the opportunity cost to victims and perpetrators being unable to attend work due to death, illness or imprisonment. Employers themselves incur a cost in the form of paying for leave and undertaking administration processes. It also values the costs from loss of unpaid work which doesn't necessarily earn income but is still valuable to society. Examples of these unpaid activities are child raising and domestic chores. The cost of lost productivity is anticipated to cost $2.1 billion to the economy.

Unsurprisingly, the resulting loss of income translates to a loss of taxation revenue for government at approximately $449 million. Coupled with lost taxation revenue, Government will also incur costs either in the provision of income support, victim compensations and to fund services delivered as a result of violence. This imbalance introduced as a result of lower income and increased expenditure elsewhere results in inefficiency to the economy as represented by the deadweight loss. This forms the transfer cost category and it is estimated that this inefficiency will cost the economy $1.5 billion in 2014-15.

[15] Best Practice Guidance note, Value of Statistical Life. December 2014. Department of Prime Minister and Cabinet
[16] The Cost of Domestic Violence to the Australian Economy: Part I and Part II. (2004) Access Economics.
[17] *The cost of violence against women and their Children. (2009) The National Council to Reduce Violence against Women and their Children.*

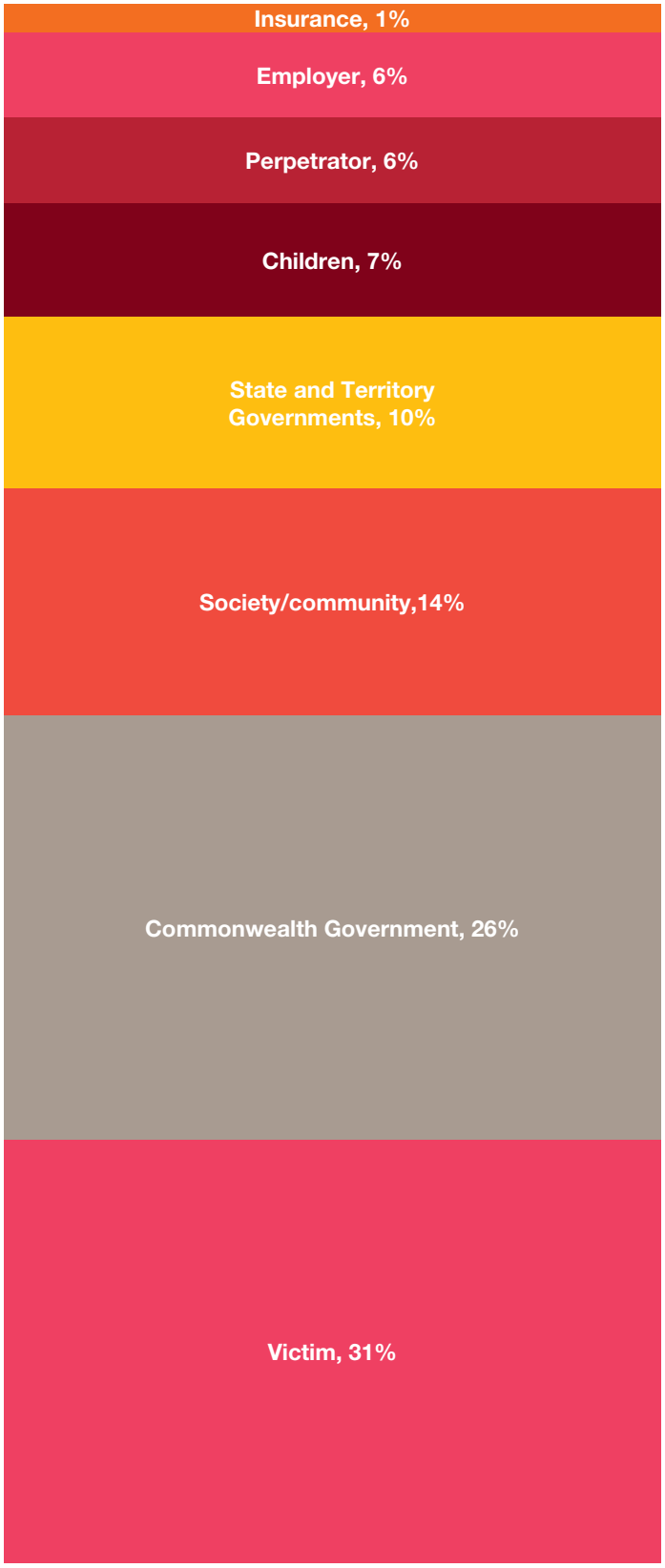
The health costs associated with violence is the cost associated with higher utilisation of health services to treat the effects of violence. This does not only include the cost to treat immediate physical and psychological trauma of violence but also the longer term health costs such as depression and anxiety and substance abuse.

Finally, the costs also include costs to children in women's care when violence occurred, whether it was witnessed or not. For women experiencing non-partner violence it was assumed that the events of violence occurred away from the home where the child resides and therefore it would not have a similar cost impact as for women experiencing partner violence.[18] While we acknowledge that there are maybe indirect ramifications to the children of women who experience non-partner violence, the associated adverse effects on these children may be extremely varied (as non-partner can encapsulate a wide variety of known or unknown perpetrators) and may produce an estimate with a wide degree of uncertainty. Therefore, the cost of violence by non-partner persons is very likely an underestimate of the true cost.

This final category is a combination of short-term costs such as the costs of child services notifications, childcare and changing schools but also some longer term costs of juvenile and adult crime committed by children witnessing violence when they grow older. In total it is estimated to cost $300.7 million and forms the smallest proportion of the total cost. It should be noted that this estimate is likely to be highly conservative because it does not account for all aspects of a child's experience when witnessing or being in the care of a woman experiencing violence. Some of these costs could be incurred from other possible impacts such as poorer educational outcomes and future reduced employability which will incur further costs. It also does not consider the costs if abuse were to occur to the child directly which is beyond the scope of this analysis.

Many would expect that victims would bear the brunt of the costs of violence and our analysis confirms this by showing that victims bear 31 per cent or approximately $6.7 billion of the total cost of violence. Governments, both State and Commonwealth then bear 36 per cent or $7.8 billion in order to deliver health services, criminal justice and social welfare for victims. The immediate society and community that the victims live in also bear some of the costs associated with violence as this group would stand to lose out on the lost productivity and the lost economies of scale for victims of violence. The following chart orders the stakeholders incurring the cost of violence against women from smallest to largest.

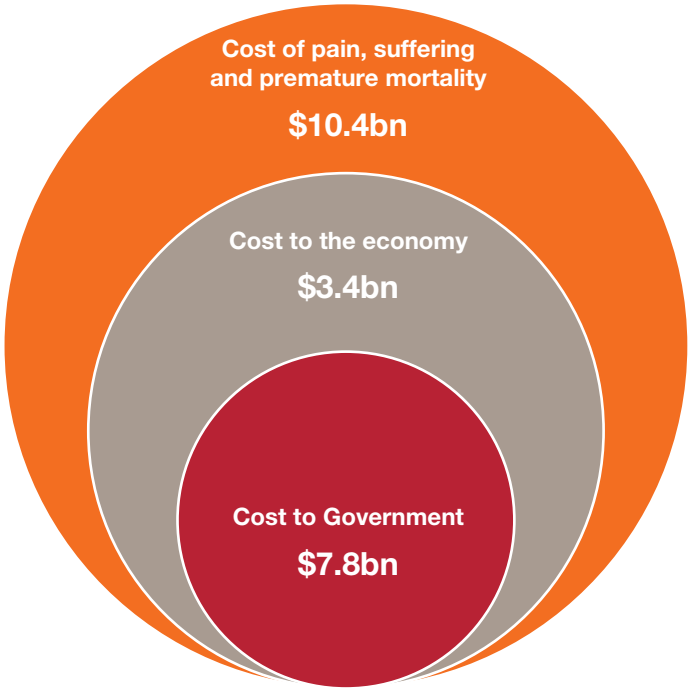
Figure 1: Proportions of cost allocated to stakeholder



[18] *The cost of violence against women and their Children. (2009) The National Council to Reduce Violence against Women and their Children.*

In the following diagram, we disaggregate the fiscal costs to the economy and to government away from the non-fiscal cost but equally important cost of pain, suffering and premature mortality. As previously shown, a significant proportion of this cost is still the cost of pain, suffering and premature mortality which signifies the value of loss of life for women experiencing violence. Economically, $3.4 billion is lost either due to victims or other members of society funding for their own services or due to lost opportunity costs. Finally, all levels of Government are expected to fund a significant portion of the costs and the costs incurred here is from loss of revenue but also in funding services for victims and perpetrators.

Figure 2: Disaggregated costs of violence against women



The cost incurred for every victim of violence

We have included the per victim cost of violence in 2014-15. It is estimated that for women experiencing physical violence, sexual violence and emotional abuse by a partner, each of them will incur an on average cost of approximately $27,000 per person. In comparison, the most recent report in 2009 suggests a cost of $20,766 in 2008-09 dollar value which in 2014-15 real terms is approximately $24,000.[19] Accounting for the slight increase in cost per victim, the differences between estimates may be explained in the different prevalence numbers used in calculating the per person costs and also other slight differences in methodological approaches. As it was assumed that consumption and second generation (i.e. children) costs are not applicable to women experiencing non-partner violence, the resulting per victim cost is lower at approximately $17,000 per person. We re-iterate the caveats that as a result of these simplifying assumptions, it is anticipated that the per person costs for non-partner violence may be an underestimate of the true cost.

It is important to note that our calculations do not account for the potential long term damage that an experience of violence may have for children or young people. Although it has been documented that children who experience violence against their mothers are also more likely to experience adverse effects,[20] these impacts and costs were not included in previous costings, and are therefore excluded from our calculations to enable comparability.

Table 5: Estimated annual per person cost for each woman experiencing violence

Annual cost per victim (2014-15 real)	All violence
Pain, suffering and premature mortality	10,075
Health	1,312
Production related	1,969
Consumption related*	9,179
Administrative and other	1,879
Second generation*	639
Transfer costs	1,726
Total	**26,780.2**

Source: PwC

* Costs only applicable to partner violence

[19] *The cost of violence against women and their Children.* (2009) The National Council to Reduce Violence against Women and their Children.
[20] Australian Institute of Family Studies,

The cost of pain, suffering and premature mortality still form the largest component of the total cost at $10,075 per victim. Following a violent event, a victim would seek to utilise healthcare services to treat not only the immediate pain and suffering but also will return to the health system to treat their longer term effects of their trauma which is estimated to cost $1,312 for every victim. Police may also seek to arrest and incarcerate perpetrators of violent crime while other victims would seek civil court avenues to divorce partners, fight for child custody or to place apprehended violence orders against perpetrators. The resulting cost for this is approximately $1,879 for victims of partner violence and $1,490 for violence perpetrated by non-partners.

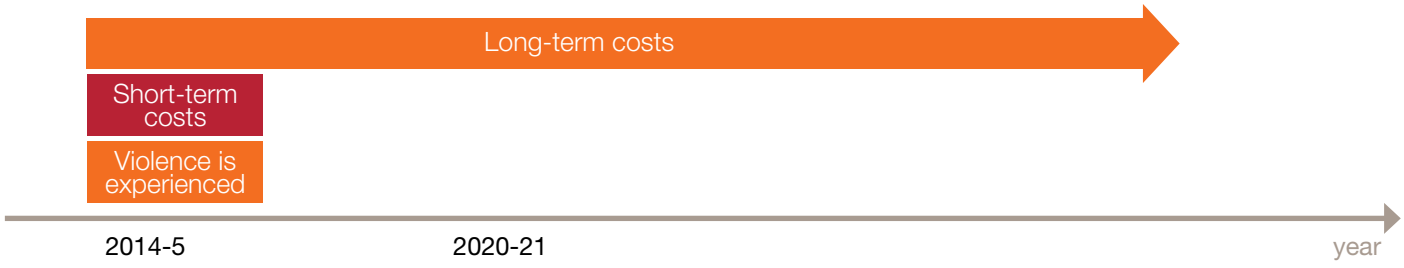
Victims are also more likely to be late to work or to be absent altogether and similarly for perpetrators although for entirely different reasons. This contributes to a total loss in productivity per victim of $1,969. For victims who experience violence from their partners, their children do not escape these effects as they end up changing schools, and may be separated from their parents following child protection interventions and in the longer term are themselves predisposed to crime. This costs a total of $639 per victim but may be an underestimate of the true costs facing the children in care of victims. Victims of partner violence are typically less likely to form future relationships and therefore lose the benefit of living in a larger household that can pool their resources and enjoy the resulting economies of scale.[21] This forms a large part of the cost per victim at $9,179.

Government, community groups, friends and family would also come together to help victims of violence through temporary accommodation, income and welfare support and financial support. Whilst there is not necessarily a net loss to society, this disruption however introduces a deadweight loss to the economy and the resulting per victim cost is $1,726.

The cost of violence over a lifetime

Up to this point, we have only estimated the costs incurred in the year that it is experienced. We acknowledge though that the costs of violence may go on for a much longer duration than one year. For example, health costs can continue to be incurred for many years after the event of violence to treat the longer term health effects. Conversely, costs to replace damaged property is assumed to only be incurred in the same year that the event of violence occurs and is therefore considered to be a short-term cost. The following diagram conceptualises how the difference between the short-term costs (i.e. the costs that are confined in the year that violence occurred) and the long-term costs that continue over a longer period of time. It was assumed that for the longer term costs, the annual costs are repeated up to the defined duration. Appendix B details the assumed duration for each long-term cost

Figure 3: Conceptual diagram of the lifetime cost of violence as the combination of short-term cost which is incurred in the year that violence is experience and also over the longer term



It was estimated that the lifetime costs of all violence for the 10-year cohort of victims is approximately $362 billion in 2014-15. A significant component of this cost is the $262 billion for the non-economic cost of pain, suffering and premature mortality. The total lifetime cost for the remaining fiscal categories is $90 billion. The lifetime cost for the women in the base year of 2014-15 alone is estimated to be $307 billion of which $230 billion is comprised of the cost of pain, suffering and premature mortality while $78 billion is attributed to the remaining fiscal costs. The following table details the lifetime costs of violence against women.

[21] Access Economics, 2004, *The Cost of Domestic Violence to the Australian Economy: Part I and Part II* (2004).

Table 6: Lifetime costs of violence for the 10 year cohort and the victims of 2014-15

Cost category ($ million, 2014-15 real)	Lifetime cost for women experiencing violence in 2014-15
Pain, suffering and premature mortality	241,930
Health	18,095
Production related	2,541
Consumption related	48,375
Administrative and other	3,086
Second generation	2,332
Transfer costs	7,048
Total	**323,406**

Source: PwC

Prevention strategies

Methodology and approach

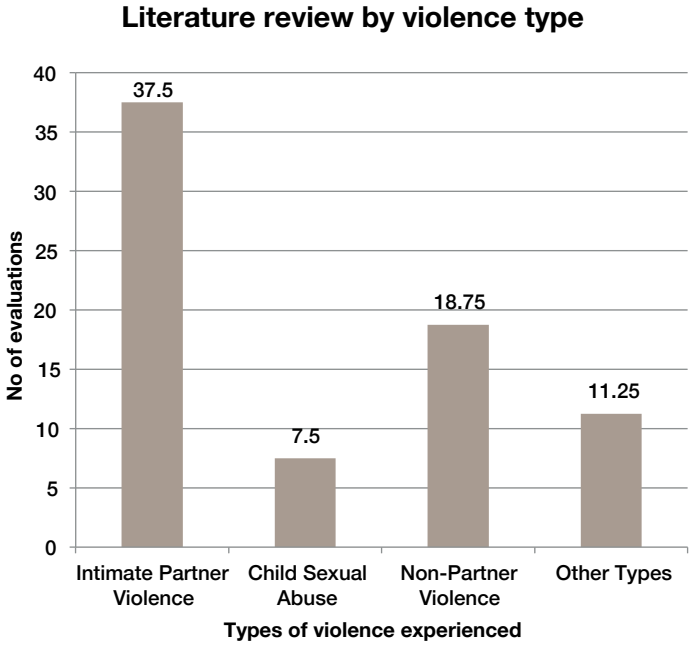
Prevention of violence against women is a relatively new area in research with a growing evidence base of evaluations. Most of the prevention strategies have been evaluated for process or impact on the drivers of violence against women and not future perpetration or victimisation due to the resource intensive nature of them and the need for longitudinal designed studies. Many Australian programs have been well-evaluated in the former category, but none in the latter. We need more systematic evaluations on the different prevention strategies, however we can draw some conclusions based on the evidence we have from the prevention strategies deployed in various parts of the world.

We have adapted Cochrane's systematic approach to assess and review literature evaluating prevention strategies. Our approach provides an unbiased synthesis of the evidence base that was available to us, with respect to given interventions for pre-specified populations, outcomes, and research designs.

We included in the literature review those evaluations which synthesized evidence on the impacts of programs to reduce violence against women (i.e. research that extended to measure changes in perpetration or prevalence of reporting). We included reviews where the primary objective was to evaluate interventions designed to prevent or reduce violence against women and girls and must have included empirical results from two or more impact evaluations. Impact evaluations from reviews were eligible if they included experimental designs or quasi-experimental designs with well-defined comparison groups and measured for changes in prevalence of violence.

We reviewed 75 evaluations of prevention strategies. The majority of evaluations were on intimate partner violence, which reflects the historic policy and evaluation focus on this form of violence.

Figure 4: Reviewed evaluations by type of violence



**Child Sexual Abuse included cases of children/teen marriage and pregnancy

**Other Types included verbal abuse, injury and gender discrimination

Figure 5: Reviewed evaluations by country

*Impact evaluations include those evaluations with an evidence base proven by before and after study evaluations or quasi experimentations in reducing the violence against women.

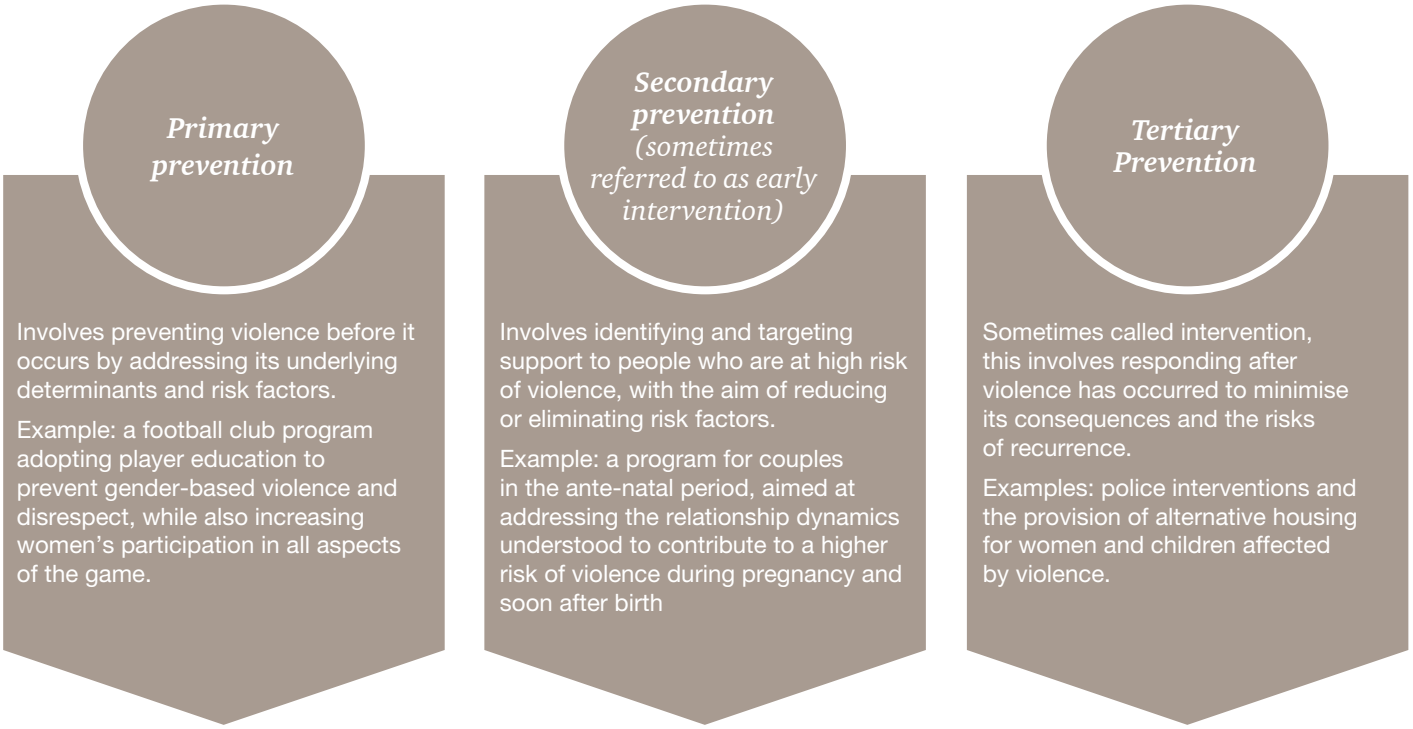
Primary prevention strategies

Prevention strategies are divided into three temporal points, according to when they occur in the timeline of violence against women occurring:

1. Primary prevention refers to strategies aimed at preventing violence before it occurs, including whole-of-population strategies.
2. Secondary prevention (early intervention) refers to programs that involve early detection of risk or early manifestations of the problem. In terms of violence against women policy and programming, it refers to interventions that target individuals or population sub-groups showing early signs of engaging in violent behaviour, or becoming a victim of violence, or who may be particularly at risk of developing violent behaviours.
3. Tertiary prevention (response or intervention) refers to the responses set in motion after the violence has occurred. They aim to reduce the consequences and impacts of violence and prevent recurrence.

Source: ACSSA issues – Reflecting on primary prevention of violence against women – The public health approach (No. 11 2012)

Figure 6: Definitions of primary, secondary and tertiary prevention



Source: National Community Attitudes towards Violence Against Women Survey (NCAS) Stakeholder Report 2014

What is "primary prevention"?

Primary prevention is a public health term, referring to actions aimed at changing behaviour and/or environments to prevent an undesirable social consequence. It may be targeted at a large or specific population. Primary prevention has become a priority of policy development, implementation and funding—in Australia and internationally—with a large increase in the number of studies, reports, policy frameworks, funding rounds, tenders, and programs for "primary prevention". This is the case in relation to a range of health and social issues, including HIV AIDS, road trauma and cigarette smoking. This represents a real shift in how prevention—generally—has been conceived and there is significant activity occurring in the primary prevention space, particularly in prevention education programs.

Primary prevention is often targeted for delivery in an education-based format, tailored to the local context. We have used the same categorisation of prevention strategies as the new national framework for the prevention of violence against women.[22] These basic concepts can be used for the development of primary prevention in a wide range of settings.

Primary prevention methodologies

There are seven key methodologies identified in public health literature as being effective to create population-level impact. As described in section 5, these methodologies have proven effective in addressing other significant health and social issues, in particular where they have been executed simultaneously across the community and with a sustained base of investment.

These methodologies can be applied to the primary prevention of violence against women in the following ways:

Direct participation programs

These programs can be targeted at men, women and children at the individual, relationship or group level to build the knowledge and skills required to establish and sustain equal, respectful, non-violent gender relationships; build individuals' access to the resources required for such relationships (such as effective early parenting and connections to social networks and institutions); or to seek to prevent or address the impacts of other factors linked to violence against women (for example, child abuse).

Organisational and workforce development

This methodology is based on the understanding that organisations and organisational cultures have a powerful role in influencing the behaviours of individuals and groups and so can play a role in violence reduction by modelling non-violent, equitable and respectful gender relations. Workforce development involves building the skills of relevant workforces to implement primary prevention activity either informally and opportunistically or at a more formal level.

[22] Our Watch, VicHealth & ANROWS, 2015, *Change the story: A shared framework for the primary prevention of violence against women and their children in Australia.*

Community mobilisation

This methodology aims to mobilise and support communities to address violence against women and the social norms that make it acceptable. These strategies can also be used to increase community access to the resources required for action and to address broader community-level risk factors for violence against women, such as high rates of early school leaving or localised violent peer cultures.

Communications and social marketing

These methodologies aim to use a range of communication media to raise awareness of violence against women and address attitudes, behaviours and social norms that contribute to this problem. This includes mainstream television, radio and print media as well as the internet and other social media, community forums, community arts and so on.

Advocacy

Advocacy involves building collective activity and mobilisations to raise awareness of the issue of violence against women and to encourage governments, organisations, corporations and communities to take action on structures, policies and systems contributing to the problem.

Legislative and policy reform

This involves the development of legislation, policies and programs that seek to address the factors underlying or contributing to violence against women.

Research, monitoring and evaluation

Research and evaluation underpins activity in the other six areas by informing action, improving the evidence and knowledge base for future planning and enabling efforts to be both effectively targeted and monitored. Research findings are also important for advocacy and awareness-raising activity.

Challenges of evaluating prevention strategies

Evaluating and drawing a direct causal link between a prevention strategy and reduced perpetration of violence is problematic. Violence and the drivers of violence against women are complex and situated in a social and cultural context. Primary prevention to reduce violence against women works by targeting the complex, systemic causes of violence. The knowledge base continues to expand about the causes of violence, but the key social factors include gender inequality and social norms around gender roles, violence, and sexual behaviour.[23]

Primary prevention strategies can be targeted at aspects of causation, or aim to effect change in individual communities, but these are incremental steps toward broad-scale social change to remove the conditions that lead to violence against women. Bronfenbrenner's social–ecological model is a prominent example of conceptualising the multi-level causation that underpins a systemic change approach to violence against women prevention[24] The multiplicity of causal factors, and different layers of influence required to change behaviour at a societal level, make it difficult for evaluators and their stakeholders to identify exactly what outcomes they need to know about in order to decide whether a program is effective or not and then how to best extract that information in a sensitive area of research.

We conducted a review of the existing evidence on impact of interventions that aim to prevent violence against women and girls, or address key risk factors for such violence. The focus of the review was on intimate partner violence, non-partner sexual violence, child sexual abuse (including teen marriage and pregnancies) and other types. We also conducted a keyword search in Google Research. Our inclusion criteria consisted of the following:

- Completed reviews or individual studies (including randomised control trials, quasi-experimental studies, cohort evaluations, qualitative studies, pre- and post-test designs, case studies, and opinions of respected experts)
- Studies focusing on interventions intended to prevent violence (primary prevention)
- Studies focusing on the effectiveness of interventions in either preventing/reducing further violence against women
- Studies from high-, medium- and low-income, and from development, humanitarian and conflict affected contexts

Evaluations of the programs show mixed results with the evidence themselves showing various degrees of rigor. Whilst a few evaluations have attempted to use randomised control trial methodologies many have used before and after studies and qualitative studies and some not having appropriate controls. Some studies evaluate outcomes immediately after a programme ends with only a few attempting to conduct longer term follow up. Many studies looked at outcomes on the determinants or risk factors to violence against women such as gender norms, gender equality, attitudes towards violence and socioeconomic factors like poverty; very few evaluations actually attempt to assess the impact of the programs on the levels of violence against women.

These studies are also usually concentrated in either developed or developing countries Taken together, with the evidence available to date it may be difficult to generalise to different population groups and to estimate the long term impact on violence against women.

[23] (Davis, Fujie Parks, & Cohen, 2006; Evans et al., 2009; VicHealth, 2007).
[24] (Quadara & Wall, 2012).

We acknowledge that investment in rigorous evaluation has been limited and the there is no one-size-fits-all approach to evaluation.[25] Programs have provided valuable lessons that would guide future primary prevention strategies. Some of these lessons include:

- Primary preventions have been shown to be more effective when combining a multi-component approach. For example the *Bell Bajao* program in India that involved a media campaign and community mobilisation activities showed greater impact to those exposed to both interventions than just the media campaign alone.[26]
- Previous implementations of the prevention strategies show that change takes time. A consistent approach to evaluating the effectiveness after the prevention strategies are implemented, at definite time intervals with before and after studies or similar approaches, will help identify the degree to which each prevention strategy has been effective. For example, *Safe Dates*, which is a schools-based initiative targeting teenagers to help them "recognise the difference between caring, supportive relationships and controlling, manipulative, or abusive dating relationships" implemented in USA showed a 56 per cent reduction in a duration of four years.
- There are multiple determinants that interact to enable sexual assault to occur. Primary prevention must therefore tackle the inherent complexity of social issues that allow sexual assault to be perpetrated. A multi-level perspective acknowledges that individual-level change is difficult to maintain without environmental change to support individual efforts. In other words, individuals are shaped by their environments and by intervening to change environments individual behaviour change will also be impacted.[27]

Effectiveness of prevention strategies

Our literature review evidenced that some of the methodologies implemented across the different countries showed effective reduction in violence against women. Two methodologies which proved to be of substantial value in prevention violence against women were community mobilisation and individual and group participation programs (see Table 8 below). Their effectiveness was backed by quantitative data which showed definite improvements through program implementations. Also, evidence from campaigns like *Bell Bajao* (a communications and social media marketing campaign in India) indicates that prevention strategies are much more effective when used in conjunction with each other. For example, social marketing campaigns provide significant improvements in attitudes which when used with individual and group participation programs acts as a strong catalyst for violence reduction.

The literature review reflected that a lot of prevention work is being done in Australia at present, especially in Victoria, however there is limited evaluation of its impact in reducing prevalence. As primary prevention is an emerging field, evaluations tend to focus on principles and processes for effective program implementation, and this literature will be valuable in the future as extensive practice knowledge will be required to implement comprehensive prevention strategies.

We also acknowledge that program implementations for different prevention strategies would need to be tailored and customised; considering the political, social and economic factors of the regions in which these programs will be implemented. So the extent to which these prevention strategies will be effective is dependent on several factors, and difficult to estimate with a high certainty at any point in time.

[25] VicHealth, (2013) *Trends in evaluation: Preventing violence against women Paper 2.*
[26] *Bell Bajao: two arms: one media only intervention and one with media and community mobilisation activities (Heise, 2011), ACSSA wrap (No. 11 2012)*
[27] (Trickett, 2009).

Table 7: Prevention strategies included in this project

Prevention strategy	Evidence base	Effectiveness
Communications and social marketing	Three programs implemented across Africa and South America evidenced with systematic reviews and face-to-face interviews	Significant improvements in attitudes have been reported through communications and social marketing interventions; however a quantitative measure on how much impact had been made is inconclusive.
Policy, legislative and institutional reform	Two case studies in Iceland and USA providing evidence that strong legislative policies can promote gender diversity which will help in healthier societies and lesser violence	No significant decrease in domestic violence has been shown with policy and legislation reform till date. Policy reform in conjunction with community mobilisation, communications and group participation programs maybe a better approach to the future, as programs when combined produced a higher cumulative effect in the past examples.
Community mobilisation	Five programs with media campaigns in Africa, USA and Asia evidenced with before and after studies	One of the strongest prevention strategies in the prevention of violence against women. Increasing awareness through education programs is proven to be a strong detractor in violence prevention. If a tailored, evidence based program, with a similar theory of change to Stepping Stones were developed for the Australian context and delivered in 2014/15 will result in a reduction of the risk of violence in the base year by 6.3 per cent to 9.5 per cent, two years later we anticipate seeing a reduction by 19 per cent to 28.5 per cent.
Organisational development	One program enrolled 23 new organisations from across sectors into its Accreditation Program adopting prevention programs in Workplace; also several programs across organisations promoting gender equality; two other programs which focus on gender equality and providing safe workplaces for women in Australia	While several organisations have taken up the cause of gender diversity and safety, post-intervention data on preventing violence against women is lacking and inconclusive.
Collective advocacy	Two programs with a focus on Australia driving policy changes	Evidence of the effectiveness of such interventions is limited, as rigorous evaluations are few. Methodological and conceptual shortcomings include only gauging participants' satisfaction with the programme, or assessing attitudes and not behaviours. Post-intervention follow up is often short and comparison groups lacking.
Individual or group participation	Two programs focusing on economic empowerment, four relationship level interventions, two school curriculum based interventions, two programs focused on masculinity, four training programs for women; with a focus on the developing countries in Asia, Africa, South America and North America	Individual and group participation programs, especially in young men and women groups had proven to improve relationships and prevent violence in the future. If a tailored, evidence based program, with a similar theory of change to Safe Dates were developed for the Australian context and delivered in 2014/15, this would result in an immediate reduction in physical violence, sexual violence and emotional abuse by partners and other persons from 9.5 per cent to 18.9 per cent. Four years after the program ended, we anticipate a reduction in risk of violence by 14 per cent to 28 per cent.

We understand and acknowledge that many of these prevention strategies described above lacked before and after studies identifying the impact made by many of the program implementations.

There is a need for further evaluations in order to fully grasp the extent to which each of these prevention strategies are effective in preventing violence against women.

The benefits of preventing violence against women

The benefits of avoided costs of violence

In order to understand the potential benefits in preventing violence, we have used a demonstration approach where we have estimated the benefits should similar reductions in the prevalence of violence be observed in Australia as reported in other prevention program evaluations. We will also demonstrate the benefits for individuals who participate and experience reductions in violence over a 10 year span.

We focus in particular on two strategies due to the relative strength in available evidence and also their positive findings in reducing violence against women. These are community mobilisation and individual or group participation programs. In this chapter we summarise the potential benefits and the approach used in the calculations. Details of the calculations can be found in Appendix B.

The calculations used here are based on reported outcomes of evaluation studies of programs undertaken in an overseas country. It is not the intention of this chapter to suggest that by rolling out these programs without appropriate contextualising or as a 'stand-alone', they will result in the reported reductions in violence. Rather, this report points to the types of programs and likely benefits of a sustained and multi-faceted prevention approach.

Community mobilisation

Community mobilisation programs are a set of methods that aim to motivate and support communities to address violence against women and the social norms that make it acceptable. An example of such a program is *Stepping Stones*. Implemented in countries like Uganda and South Africa, participants would undergo group exploration and are encouraged to think critically at the societal norms and values influencing their attitudes and behaviours.

Findings from an evaluation study into *Stepping Stones* in South Africa reported a 38 per cent a reduction in physical and sexual violence perpetration by men towards their partner two years after experiencing the program.[28] We use the findings of this evaluation study to inform the potential gains benefits to Australia if similar reductions in violence were observed. We note that the study reported on the self-reported reduction in men's perpetration of violence against their partners. Therefore to use the findings of this evaluation we have made the assumption that the reported reduced perpetration of violence equals reduced prevalence of violence.

We have first estimated the number of heterosexual couples in Australia. It was reported that in 2009-10, 53 per cent of Australians aged 18 and over were in a registered marriage while 11 per cent were in a de facto relationship.[29] According to the 2011 census, same-sex couples represented 1 per cent of all couples in Australia.[30] Assuming that the proportion of people in relationships remain the same, we estimate that there are approximately 64 million women in heterosexual de facto or registered marriages from 2014-15 to 2023-24 with 5.8 million women in such relationships in 2014-15 alone. Of these couples, we have assumed that 1 per cent of the men per year attend a community mobilisation program. We note that programs like *Stepping Stones* are not male targeted or a couples program however we focus on the men's participation based on the reported reductions in male perpetration of violence towards their partners. We estimate therefore that approximately 69,000 men may attend this program from 2014-15 to 2023-24.

Assuming that there has been no change in the rate of violence towards women by their partners in 2012, approximately 1.5 per cent of these women in relationships per year which is estimated to be approximately 1,000 women may experience violence in that decade.[31]

Additionally, we apply a range of discounting of 50 to 75 per cent to the reported reduction in violence perpetration to account for the program being evaluated in a developing country. After discounting, we anticipate that these women experience 9.5 per cent to 19 per cent reduction in violence by their partners.

As a result of this reduction in violence, we estimate that prevalence is reduced by approximately 98 to 196 women from 2014-15 to 2023-24. As a minimum, we expect that there will be a one year benefit ranging from $2.6 million to $5.1 million in the year that these women experience the reported reduction in violence prevalence. If the effect were

[28] Jewkes, R., Nduna, M., Levin J., Jama, N., Dunkle, K., Puren, A., & Duvvury, N.(2008). Impact of stepping stones on incidence of HIV and HSV-2 and sexual behavior in rural South Africa: Cluster randomized controlled trial. British Medical Journal337: a506.

[29] Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS), (2012). Australian Social Trends March 2012. Love Me Do. [online] Cat no. 4102.0. Available at: http://www.abs.gov.au/socialtrends [Accessed 6 Nov. 2015].

[30] Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS), (2013). Australian Social Trends July 2013, Same-Sex Couples. [online] Cat no. 4102.0. Available at: http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/abs@.nsf/Lookup/4102.0Main+Features10July+2013 [Accessed 6 Nov. 2015].

[31] Australian Bureau of Statistics 2012. Personal Safety, Australia, 2012. Cat no. 4906.0

sustained for an additional 10 years after, we anticipate a benefit of $18 million to $36 million. Finally, if we assume that this effect is sustained over a lifetime this presents a potential gain in the order of $35.6 million to $71.1 million. Details of the calculations can be found in Appendix B.

We assume the program cost is approximately $250,000 per year based on comparable programs. This equates to a 10-year cost of approximately $2.5 million. This is only an indicative cost because a community mobilisation program may entail a variety of events or activities to be delivered to the community and are designed based on the strategies and objectives of the program. It must be noted that this figure must be treated with a degree of uncertainty and is likely to change once an appropriate program for the community is designed.

Table 8: The anticipated benefits of a community mobilisation program in Australia by violence reduction in prevalence of violence and the avoided cost.

Reduction in women experiencing physical and sexual partner violence		One year benefit from the avoided cost of violence ($ million, 2014-15		10 year benefits from the avoided cost of violence ($ million, 2014-15 real)		Lifetime benefits from avoided cost of violence ($ million, 2014-15 real)	
Low	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low	High
98	196	2.6	5.1	18.0	36.0	35.6	71.1

Source: PwC

Individual or group participation

Individual or group participation programs (also known as direct participation) are programs that engage and involve men, women and children at the individual, relationship or group level to build the knowledge and skills required to establish and sustain equal, respectful, non-violent gender relationships. A well-known example of this type of program is the American *Safe Dates* program, which is a school-based initiative targeting teenagers to help them "to stop or prevent the initiation of dating violence victimization and perpetration, including the psychological, physical, and sexual abuse that may occur between youths involved in a dating relationship". [32] It is one of the better evaluated programs and outcomes were reported up to four years after program delivery which suggests that the program has long lasting effectiveness in reducing the risk of violence.

The evaluation into the *Safe Dates* program reported a reduction in physical violence, sexual violence and emotional abuse perpetration one month after program end.[33] A follow-up study was also undertaken on those participants four years after the program and reported a 56 to 92 per cent reduction in perpetration and victimisation.[34]

To demonstrate the potential benefits that can be gained from similar levels of reduction, we have calculated the number of year 12 graduations per year from 2014-15 to 2023-24. In 2014, there were approximately 16,000 women in year 12 in government schools. This is compared to an estimated 68,000 women in Australia.[35] In a separate report, it was shown that of the women in the population from the age of 15 – 64 years, only 63 per cent of them have a year 12 attainment. This proportion was therefore used as a proxy year 12 graduation rate.[36] Combining this information, we were therefore able to estimate the number of women graduating year 12 from a government school in Victoria and Australia.

As the evaluated program is a schools-based program, we have assumed that a majority of the women graduating from a government school were exposed to a similar program four years prior to graduation. However, to be conservative, we have assumed a discount of 10 per cent to account for some students already undergoing similar programs. A recent report by ANROWS suggests that 3.1 per cent of women aged 18 – 24, experience intimate partner violence in a year.[37] Intimate partners include a past or previous partner, boyfriends, girlfriends or dates. Based on this proportion, it was estimated that of the women graduating year 12 in Australia from 2014-15 to 2023-24, approximately 13,000 of these women may experience intimate partner violence.

When we apply the reported 56 per cent as the low range and 92 per cent as the higher range in reduction in violence towards these women, it was estimated that prevalence of violence would be reduced by approximately 7,400 to 12,000. At a minimum this will confer a one year benefit in the year of graduation of $158.6 million to $260.6 million, followed by a 10-year gain ranging from $1,117.7 billion to $1,836.2 billion. Finally, if we once again assume optimistically that these women are able to avoid violence over a lifetime, this confers a potential benefit of $2,210 billion to $3,631.1 billion.

We assume that the present value cost to deliver such a program to this group of women to be approximately $3.4 million. This should be taken as an indicative cost only as the resulting cost may change following the design and contextualisation of a relevant program.

[32] Crimesolutions.gov, (2015). Safe Dates. [online] Available at: https://www.crimesolutions.gov/ProgramDetails.aspx?ID=142 [Accessed 2 Nov. 2015].
[33] Foshee VA et al.(1998) An evaluation of safe dates an adolescent dating violence prevention programme. American Journal of Public Health, 88:45–50.
[34] Foshee, V., Bauman, K., Ennett, S., Suchindran, C., Benefield, T. and Linder, G. (2005). Assessing the Effects of the Dating Violence Prevention Program "Safe Dates" Using Random CoefficientRegression Modeling. Prevention Science, 6(3), pp.245-258.
[35] Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) Schools, Australia, 2014 Cat no. 4221.0
[36] Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) Education and Work, Australia, May 2014. Cat no. 6227.0
[37] Australia's National Research Organisation for Women's Safety, October 2015, Violence against women: Additional analysis on the Australian Bureau of Statistics' Personal Safety Survey 2o12, Alexandria, NSW.

Table 9: The anticipated benefits of individual or group participation programs in Australia by number of women avoiding violence and the avoided cost.

	Reduction in women experiencing physical and sexual intimate partner violence		One year benefit from the avoided cost of violence ($ million, 2014-15		10 year benefits from the avoided cost of violence ($ million, 2014-15 real)		Lifetime benefits from avoided cost of violence ($ million, 2014-15 real)	
	Low	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low	High
Victoria	1,761	2,893	37.9	62.3	267.4	439.3	528.8	868.7
Australia	7,361	12,092	158.6	260.6	1,117.7	1,836.2	2,210.2	3,631.1

Source: PwC

The benefits from other primary prevention programs

We have reviewed the evidence evaluating communications and social media campaigns; policy legislative and institutional reform; multifaceted, mutually reinforcing prevention strategies; collective advocacy and organisational development. Though the results from individual evaluation studies are mixed and many are unable to show and statistically significant changes in the prevalence or attitudes towards violence, there is some evidence to show that applying multiple methodologies at the same time can have a positive outcome in reducing the prevalence of violence. For example, the *Bell Bajao* program which involves a combination of a media campaign and community mobilisation activity showed much greater results for survey respondents who were exposed to both interventions as opposed to the media campaign alone.[38]

Additionally, the implementation of prevention strategies in relation to other health issues demonstrates the potential value of mutually reinforcing methodologies executed simultaneously and with centralised leadership and coordination, and with intensive monitoring. While further research and particularly in the Australian context is needed to uncover the effectiveness of these programs, there is compelling evidence to suggest that these prevention strategies should not be run in isolation but as part of a co-ordinated and multi-pronged suite of approaches that addresses the underlying causes of violence against women.

Increasing knowledge and through education programs is proven to be a strong factor in violence prevention. We have estimated that if a tailored, evidence based program, with a similar theory of change to *Stepping Stones* were delivered in 2014-15, it would result in a reduction of the risk of violence in the base year by 6.3 per cent to 9.5 per cent, two years later we anticipate seeing a reduction by 19 per cent to 28.5 per cent.

Also, Individual and group participation programs, especially in young men and women groups had proven to improve relationships and prevent violence in the future. If a program similar to *Safe Dates* were to be tailored to Australian and delivered; would result in an immediate reduction in physical violence, sexual violence and emotional abuse by partners and other persons from 9.5 per cent to 18.9 per cent. Four years after the program ended, we anticipate a reduction in risk of violence by 14 per cent to 28 per cent.

The broader benefits of increasing equality

The connection between gender inequality and of violence against women

The links between the prevalence of violence against women and the extent of gender inequality are highly complex and have been the subject of study for a long time. Unlike the typical approach to studying the epidemiology of a disease which occurs within a social context, the perpetration of violence is a product of its social context.[39] The study of violence against women has evolved beyond looking for risk factors borne by the individual perpetrator or victim but to consider societal factors. However, the most recent evidence is sufficient to conclude that gender inequality is the most consistent predictor of violence against women.[40]

To date, there is strong consensus in the research attitudes towards gender inequality together with acceptance of violence forms the two significant factors to the perpetration of intimate partner violence.[41] Unsurprisingly gender unequal attitudes and norms which support a dynamic in which men are in charge and women subordinate, would also contribute towards structural inequality in society. Structural inequality is defined as

[38] CMS Communication, *End line survey on domestic violence and HIV/AIDS, 2010.* (2011), Breakthrough: New Delhi, India.
[39] Jewkes. R, (2002), *Intimate partner violence: causes and prevention*, Lancet, 359(9315):1423-9.
[40] Our Watch, VicHealth, ANROWS (2015), *Change the story: A shared framework for the primary prevention of violence against women and their children in Australia.*
[41] *VicHealth (2014), Australians' attitudes to violence against women. Findings from the 2013 National Community Attitudes towards Violence Against Women Survey (NCAS), Victorian Health Promotion Foundation, Melbourne, Australia.*

"a condition that arises out of attributing an unequal status to a category of people in relation to one or more other categories of people, a relationship that is perpetuated and reinforced by a confluence of unequal relations in roles, functions, decision rights, and opportunities"[42]

Structural inequality can be visible in workplace participation, the unequal distribution of unpaid labour in the home, traditional roles and expectations for men and women and representation in positions of leadership.

A recent study from the United Nations surveyed men and women across Asia and the Pacific in order to uncover the prevalence and factors associated with the perpetration of violence. The study found that significant contributors to violence are factors related to gender norms and/or relationships practice. Similarly, in the perpetration of non-partner rape it was shown that gender norms and sexual practices also form the major risk factors. It should be noted however that to varying degrees other factors such as previous experience of childhood abuse, witnessing abuse and psychological factors such as alcohol abuse and depression also form contribute towards the perpetration of violence against women.[43]

Key components of a primary prevention approach include strategies that challenge these cultural norms, structures and practices in society. Therefore by challenging these notions the benefits gained go beyond just the avoided cost of violence but can also contribute to the benefits gained by addressing the structural inequalities in society. In the following section we discuss the structural inequalities in Australia today and the benefits that can potentially be gained by addressing it.

Structural inequality in Australia

The ABS collects and summarises a series of gender specific measures across six different domains. These domains represent how men and women compare in terms of economic security; education; health; work and family balance; safety and justice; and democracy, governance and citizenship.[44] In general it reports that women fare much better than men in health and education but are still lagging behind in economic security, safety, work and family balance and are still far behind in terms of filling leadership positions.

In comparison with other countries around the world Australia is ranked 24th in the world in terms of the Gender Gap Index (GGI).[45] The GGI is an indicator used by the World Economic Forum to rank how well countries are doing in terms of gender equality through the Global Gender Gap Report. The GGI represents the degree of equality present in a country from a range of '0' being total inequality to '1' being equality. This index is calculated by measuring the gap in outcomes between men and women in four categories which are:

- Economic participation and opportunity
- Educational attainment
- Health and survival
- Political empowerment

In this report, Australia currently ranks 24th in the world with a GGI of 0.741, falling from 15th since the 2006 report. As a comparison, the top three ranked countries are Iceland, Finland and Norway with a respective GGI of 0.859, 0.845 and 0.837 while the bottom three are Yemen, Pakistan and Chad with GGIs of 0.515, 0.552 and 0.576.

In summary the report shows that whilst women in Australia in 2014 are typically healthier and better educated than men, they are less likely to:

- participate in the labour force;
- work at full-time capacity;
- be represented in senior management or company leadership positions; and
- be representing the Commonwealth or the States politically.

The benefit of better economic participation for women

Findings from the Gender Indicators statistics released by the ABS show women have poorer economic participation than men.[46] It showed that in 2014-15, women's employment participation rate was 65.1 per cent and employment to population ratio of 61.6 per cent compared to 78.3 per cent and 74.3 per cent for men. For the women who are employed, a larger proportion of them are involved in part-time work compared to men (43.8 per cent and 14.6 per cent).

This difference in employment and volume of work performed has unsurprisingly resulted in women showing different levels of income than men including retirement income. The median female to male rate ratio of adult weekly total cash earnings for 2014 is 0.69 which means that for every AUD$ 1 that a male employee earns, a woman would 69 cents. An alternative way to view the wage gap is the proportion of the difference between an average man and woman's wage over the average man's wage. As of 2014-15 this gap is at 17.9 per cent.[47] This inequality in income leaves women more reliant on aged

[42] Esdc.gc.ca, (2015). Labour Market Agreements for Persons with Disabilities | ESDC. [online] Available at: http://www.esdc.gc.ca/eng/jobs/training_agreements/lma_disabilities/index.shtml [Accessed 29 Oct. 2015].
[43] Fulu, E., Warner, X., Miedema, S., Jewkes, R., Roselli, T. and Lang, J. (2013). Why Do Some Men Use Violence Against Women and How Can We Prevent It? Quantitative Findings from the United Nations Multi-country Study on Men and violence in Asia andthe Pacific. Bangkok: UNDP, UNFPA, UN Women and UNV.
[44] Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) Gender Indicators, Australia, Aug 2015. Cat no. 4125.0.
[45] World Economic Forum, (2014). The Global Gender Gap Report. [online] World Economic Forum. Available at: http://www3.weforum.org/docs/GGGR14/GGGR_CompleteReport_2014.pdf
[46] Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) Gender Indicators, Australia, Aug 2015. Cat no. 4125.0.
[47] Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) Average Weekly Earnings, Australia, May 2015. Cat no. 6302.0

pension at retirement as we see that women at preservation age (55-64 years) have a much lower superannuation income than men in 2011-12 (median income of $64,942 versus $107,000). Lower retirement income also means that older women make up the largest and growing cohort of homeless persons. 2011 homelessness statistics have shown that in Victoria alone, 58 per cent of homeless persons aged 75 and over are women.[48]

We can also see a discrepancy in the amount of time women spend on employment and unpaid work compared to men. Men appear to spend at least two more hours in employment related work than women per day and conversely, women spend at least two and a half more hours than men per day undertaking unpaid work. This difference in time spent is more pronounced when caring for children as we see that women would spend approximately twice the amount of time than men.

There is a great potential opportunity to be gained by improving the gender equality in employment. If the gap in labour participation, full-time employment and wages can be closed this would lead to increased income for women which in turn translates to increase government revenue through taxation. Further along the improved economic and financial independence would lead to an increase in spending in the local economy thereby stimulating growth.

Several studies have analysed the links between increasing women's participation in the labour force and growth. McKinsey notes that economic growth drivers are workforce participation and productivity, and a key driver for both these factors is women's participation in the workforce. It suggested that if there is a uniform participation rate of 84 per cent amongst all the states in the United States, this would add 5.1 million women to the workforce which is equivalent to a growth of 3-4 per cent.[49] To fully tap into the role of women to improve the productivity of the economy relies on utilization of their skills and preparing them through training and education for productivity enhancing work.

Another study by Goldman Sachs, has showed that raising female to male employment levels would potentially boost the US, Eurozone and Japanese GDP by 9 per cent, 13 per cent and 16 per cent respectively. The evidence suggests that this benefit could be derived during the period of transition itself instead of at the end. In the Eurozone, the process of closing the male and female employment gap has accounted for half of the rise in its employment rate and also 0.4 per cent points in its 2.1 per cent trend growth in GDP.[50] Closer to home, a study in New Zealand has shown that increasing female participation for women to the average of the top five OECD nations would have increased GDP by 5.1 per cent.[51] Whilst there are varying degrees of effect, there appears to be strong agreement between studies that increasing labour participation of women would lead to a positive drive in growth.

A study using economic modelling has shown that a wage gap decrease by 1 per cent would result in a gain of 0.5 per cent of GDP to the Australian economy. The results also indicated that a complete reduction of the gender wage gap to zero would result in a growth to the economy by 8.5 per cent of GDP.[52]

Besides contributions to economic growth, women's increased participation to the workforce can also produce fiscal benefits from their increase in income. A study in Germany conducted to show the fiscal effects of mothers return to the labour market, showed that integration of mothers who wished to return to work would generate nearly €9 billion of additional taxes and €15.6 billion in additional contributions.[53] Besides a fiscal return for Government, the greater economic independence conferred through increased employed would afford women to be greater consumers of goods and services. Studies have shown that women have a different spending preference than men and that they are more likely to focus their purchases to the benefit of the health and education of their children. More specifically, it was observed that as women's income increases the likelihood of children entering school earlier but also women would spend more to provide good nutrition and healthcare to their children. In the short-term this increased expenditure would benefit sectors such as food, healthcare and education but in the long run this expenditure on the next generation is expected to improve human capital and increase future economic growth.[54]

The benefits of women as leaders

In both political and private sector leadership, men still outnumber women in the non-public sector and in government. In 2013/14 only 17.3 per cent of CEOs and heads of businesses are comprised of women. Even in management positions and other executive positions we see that women only make up approximately a quarter of the people in these roles. The Federal parliament of Australia is comprised of only 30.5 per cent of women. However, women are much better represented in public sector positions. We see that women make up 40.1 per cent and 47.4 per cent of Senior Executives and Executive Level Managers. Finally, women make up 34.6 per cent of Commonwealth Justices and Judges in Australia.[55]

[48] Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) Census of Population and Housing: Estimating homelessness, 2011. Cat no. 2049.0
[49] Unlocking the full potential of women in the U.S. economy. 2011. McKinsey&Company
[50] Daly K, April (2007), Gender Inequality, Growth and Global Ageing, Global Economics Paper no:154, Goldman Sachs.
[51] Bryant, J., Jacobsen, V., Bell, M. and Garrett, D. (2004), Labour Force Participation and GDP in New Zealand, New Zealand Treasury Working Paper 04/07
[52] Cassells, R., Vidyattama, Y., Miranti R. and McNamara, J. (2009) The impact of a sustained gender wage gap on the Australian economy, Report to the Office for Women, FAHCSIA, Canberra, Commonwealth of Australia.
[53] Maier, F. and Carl, A. (2003), The Costs of Non-Equality: German report European Expert Group on Gender and Employment Report to the Equal Opportunities Unit, DGEmployment
[54] The Power of The Purse: Gender Equality and Middle-class spending, August 2009, Goldman Sachs
[55] Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) Gender Indicators, Australia, Aug 2015. Cat no. 4125.0.

Studies have shown that allowing for more representation of women in groups will increase the likelihood that decisions are consideration of group preferences and the broader population which would lead to more democratic outcomes. Women in legislative bodies are also more likely to support expenditure in health, education but also legislation that promotes the interests of women, children and families.[56] The latter forming a positive feedback whereby an increased in equality would further the representation of women in the economy and in public life thus further adding to the benefits.

In their *Women Matter* report, McKinsey shows that companies with top-quartile representation of women in executive committees are able to perform significantly better financially than companies without any representation. Specifically, they've shown that representative companies report a return of equity by 41 per cent and average earnings before interest and tax (EBIT) increase by 56 per cent compared to companies with no women at the top.[57] Beyond financial impacts, a company with a more gender diverse board is linked to a positive economic growth and social responsiveness for the firm. This is attributed to improved stakeholder relationships, increased accountability and ethical conduct following the increase in gender diversity on boards.[58]

The case for equality

It is not the intention of this study to suggest that a primary prevention strategy that addresses the gender inequality determinant of violence would also lead to benefits of increased employment and better representation in private and public life. However, the structures of gender inequality that disadvantages women are also the same factors that contributes to the risk of women experiencing violence and therefore by addressing this underlying cause, it should not only derive a benefit through the avoided cost of violence but also in the form of better access to power and resources to women, with the resulting benefits for society as a whole.

[56] OECD (2014), Women, Government and Policy Making in OECD Countries: Fostering Diversity for Inclusive Growth, OECD Publishing. http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264210745-en

[57] Women Matter 2010, Women at the top of corporations: Making it happen, Mckinsey&Company

[58] Galbreath, J, (2011), Are there gender-related influences on corporate sustainability? A study of women on board of directors, Journal of Management and Organisation, 17: 17-38.

Appendices

Appendix A – Summary of program evaluations

Community mobilisation and strengthening

Community strengthening methodology aims to mobilise and support communities to address violence against women and the social norms that make it acceptable. These strategies can also be used to increase community access to the resources required for action and to address broader community-level risk factors for violence against women, such as high rates of early school leaving or localised violent peer cultures.

Program in study	Study design	Sample size	Outcome measured	Program description
SASA!	Qualitative face-to-face interviews	180	Participants participated in interviews, questionnaires and focus groups and measured their knowledge of human-rights, self-reported violence in all its forms and discussions towards resistance to change.	A community mobilisation intervention in Uganda and seeks to change community attitudes, norms and behaviours that result in gender inequality, violence and an increased HIV vulnerability for women. The interventions are designed to systematically work with a broad range of stakeholders within the community to promote a critical analysis and discussion of power and power inequalities.
Stepping Stones	Systematic review	14,630 (combined across studies)	Studies that were selected in this review needed to have biological outcomes and/or behavioural outcomes including HIV incidence, reduction in risky practices, increased awareness in HIV, increased gender equality and changes in knowledge and attitudes towards HIV stigma and gender.	A program implemented in Africa and Asia that uses a combination of methods including reflection on behaviour and attitudes, role-play and drama to address gender based violence and relationship skills
Program H	Quasi Experimental study (Brazil)	742	A Gender-Equitable Men (GEM) scale was used to evaluate attitudes towards gender norms. respondents also provided information on HIV related risk and prevention factors, including STI symptoms, condom use, number of sexual partners, and intimate partner violence, as well as on socio demographic characteristics.	An engagement with young men and their communities in critical reflections about rigid norms related to manhood. It includes group educational activities, community campaigns, and an evaluation model (the GEM scale) for assessing the programme's impact on gender-related attitudes. The methodology has also been adapted for use in the Balkans, India, Peru, Tanzania, Vietnam and other sites around the world

Individual or group direct participation programs

Economic empowerment

It is known that poverty and the lack of economic agency is a key contributor to domestic violence. Across various settings the frequency and severity of violence against women appear to be higher in low socioeconomic groups. A common theory is that the associated stress of poverty is the mediating factor between violence and poverty however there is not enough evidence to assert this. It is asserted that the link between the two may be through masculine identity and because men are unable to live up to the ideals of a 'successful manhood' and to regain that ideal they would resort to violence. Regardless of the cause, it is known that economic empowerment can provide a protective effect as it would allow women to reduce relationship based on economic dependence and allow them to challenge or exit abusive and violent relationships.

Program in study	Study design	Sample size	Outcome measured	Program description
Intervention with Microfinance for AIDS and Gender Equity (IMAGE)	Cluster randomised control trial	7 villages	Interviews were performed following enrolment but before disbursement, follow up interviews were done 2 years later and the third cohort was interviewed at the beginning and end of the 3 year study period. Measures include household economic wellbeing, social capital gender equity, HIV awareness, sexual behaviour and HIV incidence.	A program that combines financial services and skills building in HIV prevention, gender norms, cultural beliefs and intimate partner violence. It targets South African women living in rural areas.
Creating Futures	Before and after study	232	A self-completed questionnaire upon recruitment, at two weeks, followed by 6 months and 12 months after the program. It measures socioeconomic indicators, gender indicators and health and HIV indicators.	A series of workshops that encourages participants to reflect on and critically analyse their livelihoods and develop skills for strengthening them using existing resources.

Relationship level interventions

Interventions that aim to change the attitudes and beliefs of gender roles are typically delivered to individuals in either gender segregated or gender mixed groups. These interventions usually target school aged teenagers to address gender norms early in a person's life before stereotypes and beliefs become deeply ingrained.

Program in study	Study design	Sample size	Outcome measured	Program description
Safe Dates (USA)	Randomised control trial	1886	At baseline and follow up, participants were given questionnaires that covered behavioural and experience of various types of abuse and violence.	A school and community initiative targeting 13-15 year old boys and girls with the goal of helping teens to 'recognise the difference between caring, supportive relationships and controlling, manipulative, or abusive dating relationships. It is an evidence-based curriculum and involves a role-playing, group discussions, a poster contest and theatre production. An adaptation of the program is currently in place in South Africa but it is yet to be evaluated.

Program in study	Study design	Sample size	Outcome measured	Program description
Youth Relationship Project	Randomised control trial			A Canadian program that was designed to help at-risk youth (aged 13-17 years) to develop healthy, non-abusive relationships wit h their current and future dating partners. It involves 18 weekly two-hour sessions that raises the awareness of gender-based violence and develops skills like personal responsibility, communication and community participation.
Love U2: Communication Smarts	Before and after study	233	Survey assessment covering knowledge from the programme, acquired skills and attitudes towards relationship violence.	A program that teaches healthy relationship education for dating violence prevention among high-risk youth from low socioeconomic areas. It involves workshops spanning seven modules that addresses relationships conflict management, communication skills and an additional module about dating violence.
Safe Homes And Respect for Everyone (SHARE)	Cluster randomised trial	11,452	Baseline and follow-up visits were conducted to collect information of domestic violence as a primary outcome and risk behaviours and HIV incidence as a secondary outcome.	A community-based intervention in Uganda that uses training workshops including capacity building of professionals around domestic violence, reproductive health, community activism and counselling services.

School curriculum based interventions

Whilst some relationship level interventions are framed in a school setting, their main objective is to address relationship or dating violence. Another form of school-based interventions are the ones that caters to all students and are primarily about addressing the norms and attitudes towards gender and violence.

Program in study	Study design	Sample size	Outcome measured	Program description
Mentors in Violence Prevention	Before and after study	468	Participants were given surveys measuring acceptance of sexist beliefs, self-efficacy and assessment of peers.	A program that was adapted into a more gender violence specific curriculum from the general violence prevention curriculum. It covers five topic areas of gender roles, types of abuse, alcohol and consent, harassment and homophobia using interactive dialogue sessions.

Program in study	Study design	Sample size	Outcome measured	Program description
Second Step: Student Success Through Prevention	Longitudinal study	3616	Participants completed self-report measures assessing verbal/ relational bullying, physical aggression, homophobic name calling, and sexual violence victimization and perpetration before and after the implementation of the sixth-grade curriculum	A middle school program that teaches communications, coping and decision-making skills for adolescents as they navigate common pitfalls such as peer pressure, substance abuse and bullying. The program aims to address the more general form of violence as opposed to violence against women.

Masculinity

The notion of masculinity as a cause of violence against women is rooted in the notion that the male identity is associated with power and asserting that power. We previously discussed that men in situations of poverty experience a crisis in male identity as they lack that social or economic power and therefore are unable to meet their social expectations of being a man. As a result of this crisis, they would resort to violence as a means of reclaiming that power. Programs that address masculinity aim to transform the notions of masculinity from associations with violence.

Program in study	Study design	Sample size	Outcome measured	Program description
How to help a sexual assault survivor: What men can do	Before and after study	217	Participants and the control group were given a survey and a series of behavioural questions that measured sexually coercive behaviour, behavioural intent to rape and a sexual experience survey that asks respondents to indicate their most serious level of sexually coercive behaviour.	A one hour program that includes a videotape describing a rape situation involving male on male rape, discussions around the video and basic skills on how to help a victim recover from rape.
Tostan	Before and after study	Quasi-experimental study of 40 villages in Senegal —20 participated in the intervention, 20 did not; began in 2001	Women who lived in the Tostan villages reported less violence in the past 12 months than did those in the comparison communities. The differences were significant for women who participated in the Tostan programme and those who did not, although participants had a greater decrease. The prevalence of FGM among girls aged 0–10 years reported by mothers in the Tostan communities was significantly lower than in the comparison villages	Tostan, a community based educational programme in Senegal; consists of four themes: hygiene, problem solving, women's health, and human rights (including FGM); additional educational and community mobilisation activities were held in the communities

Training programs for women

Most violence prevention programs in low-income and middle-income countries use participatory group training, which consists of a series of educational meetings or workshops with targeted groups of individuals. The goal of such programs is not only to prevent violence against women and girls, but also to address underlying expectations about male and female roles and behaviour, and to support the development of new skills for communication and conflict resolution through a process of critical reflection, discussion, and practice. There is a wide range of training durations, target groups, and components. Violence against women and girls prevention components are often embedded in programs that aim to improve sexual and reproductive health, or livelihood programs such as microfinance or vocational training.

Program in study	Study design	Sample size	Outcome measured	Program description
Empowerment and Livelihood for Adolescents Programme	Before and after study	2-year RCT ITT analysis of more than 4800 adolescent girls; interviews were done in 2008, follow-up surveys in 2010	A reduction of about 17 per cent (from a baseline of 21 per cent) shows that almost no girls living in communities where ELA programme operates report having sex unwillingly	Assessment of Empowerment and Livelihood for Adolescents Programme; designed to improve the cognitive and non-cognitive skills of adolescent girls through adolescent development clubs
Berhane Hewane	Before and after study	Quasi-experimental analysis done between 2004–06; used χ^2 tests, proportional hazard models, and logistical regression	At baseline, the likelihood of having ever been married among girls aged 10–14 years decreased with years of education. At the endpoint, girls in the intervention group were much less likely than were girls at the control site to have gotten married. However, among girls aged 15–19 years, those in the intervention area had a higher likelihood of having gotten married	2-year pilot project that sought to reduce child marriage in rural Ethiopia (Amhara) by supporting girls to stay in school and group training
Nairobi Study	Before and after study	Adolescent girls aged 13–20 years, attending secondary schools	5 months after the intervention, the rate of sexual assault among the intervention group decreased by 60 per cent, whereas no difference was shown for the comparison group. Disclosures of sexual assault also increased significantly in the intervention group but not in the comparison group	Quasi-experimental study in four neighbourhoods in informal settlements in Nairobi in 2012. Empowerment and self-defence intervention. 6 2-h intervention sessions for 6 weeks

Program in study	Study design	Sample size	Outcome measured	Program description
Life skills course	Before and after study	Quasi-experimental study in rural Maharashtra, India, 1997–2001. Bivariate and multivariate logistic regression used	Between 1997 and 2001, the proportion of marriage in young girls (aged 11–17 years) steadily decreased in the intervention villages (including girls who did not participate in life skills training). Median marriage age increased from 16 years to 17 years.	A life skills course that sought to delay the age of marriage by 1 year. The course was taught 1 h in the evening each weekday for 1 year by an educated village woman

Communications and social marketing

Intervention methodologies aim to use a range of communication media to address attitudes, behaviours and social norms that contribute to this problem. This includes mainstream television, radio and print media as well as the internet and other social media, community forums, community arts and so on. The media plays a vital role in shaping societal norms, including gender norms and stereotypes and can also be employed to positively influence our broader culture.

For example, in Nicaragua and throughout Central America and beyond, two home grown social soap television series, Sexto Sentido (Sixth Sense) and Contracorriente (Turning the Tide) have moved millions of viewers to challenge the status quo of gender stereotypes and gender based violence. The Nicaraguan feminist non-government organisation Puntos de Encuentro (Puntos) produces and broadcasts their television series as part of a sustained, multipronged, coordinated approach to foster an enabling environment for individual and collective change and action. This approach is grounded in long-term collaborative relationships with hundreds of organisations, institutions, and coalitions, in addition to journalists, media outlets, and health and social service providers throughout the region who are working on the same issues. Two-thirds of viewers talked with others about the series, with more than half saying they had talked about issues of violence against women.

Regular viewers had more gender-equitable views about gender roles and relationships, were more likely to say that a man hitting his wife is unjustifiable under any circumstances, and feel that they and their group of friends could jointly do something to solve problems of domestic violence; they were also more likely to know of a centre that provides attention for cases of domestic violence. In Australia, organization such as White Ribbon had been working for the last few years in increasing awareness on the issue. There are several other examples (detailed in the table below) showing how effective Communication and social marketing had been raising awareness and providing education in topics surrounding VAW. It is best measured by the cumulative effects it provides in conjunction with other programs with all the effective stakeholders working in conjunction.

Communications must provide pathways for individuals to move from being passive witnesses to active participants who reject and interrupt violence, and recognition that everyone has to be part of the solution, such as Breakthrough's Bell Bajao campaign in India. Inspiration, training, and support of individuals to challenge attitudes that perpetuate violence and violent acts can empower community members to take action and confront violators. With support, individuals can start to have conversations that challenge gender roles and violence against women and girls. Group conversations can help women and men to recognise that they are not alone in their positive hopes and beliefs, and men and boys might hold themselves and each other accountable for discriminatory or violent actions. These changes in individuals and peer groups can have a ripple effect throughout the community.

Program in study	Study design	Sample size	Outcome measured	Program description
Soul City	Before and after study	1979 at baseline and 1981 at follow up	Face-to-face interview surveys that measured exposure to the campaign and indicative behaviours including knowledge and awareness of support services, personal attitudes towards violence, community norms and behaviours towards domestic violence.	Edutainment program in South Africa combining TV and radio drama to cover topics such as health and social issues including HIV and violence against women.
Open Your Eyes	Before and after study	804	Mail in survey measuring awareness of campaign, of services, attitudes about the issue of violence, perception as to the severity of DV.	A media campaign in rural USA that ran print and television ads. It was based on the health belief model and each ad depicted confronting scenes of violence against women and the ensuing result. The ads concluded with information of the prevalence of DV and a hotline number to contact for support.
Unnamed rural media campaign	Before and after study	1020	Phone based interview on random participants. Interviews assessed approval of DV, not talking about DV and nothing can be done about DV and exposure to campaign.	Rural public health education campaign in the USA. The campaign went for 7 months using various media outlets and focused on raising awareness of domestic violence, its various forms and impact on health and children and also to encourage disapproval and to take action against violence.
Somos Diferentes, Somos Iguales (We are different, we are equal)	Longitudinal panel study over 3 years	Estimated at 4800 participants	the quantitative component examined people's perception of their local context (social capital) as well as their sense of collective efficacy, understood to mean their perception that their immediate circles (friends, family members, barrio) could organize and implement collective actions related to HIV and domestic violence	A Nicaraguan program that aimed to empower women and young people to take control of their lives and to promote women's rights and gender equalities. The program included a national television series, radio talk show and community activities.
Bell Bajao	Before and after study	1204 at baseline and 1590 post-campaign.	Survey respondents were assessed in their knowledge and attitudes towards domestic violence as well as knowledge of the law and women's legal rights.	A cultural and media campaign in India to model constructive ways to 'interrupt' violence through simple actions.

Policy, legislative and institutional reform

Legislation and policy can be a major tool in directly addressing violence through criminal justice and prevention but it can also play a role in changing a society's cultural and social norms. While it will be very difficult to evaluate the impact a particular policy as it never operates in isolation with other government policy or intervention, it is still useful to understand how a governments shaping of gender equality legislation can impact on society. We will use Iceland as a case study as it currently ranks at number one in the gender gap index for 2014 as assessed by the World Economic Forum.

Case study: Gender policy and legislation in Iceland

Policies against exploitation

Iceland has introduced legislation to deal with sexual offences against women. In 2006 amendments were made to introduce heavier punishments for domestic and sexual violence. In 2007 Iceland broadened the legal definition of rape and introduced heavier punishments. In 2009 Iceland made purchasing sexual services illegal, decriminalising prostitution and putting the criminal responsibility on the buyer. In 2010 Iceland introduced a ban on strip clubs. Whilst no direct evaluation on the effectiveness of this legislation were made, statistics on the prevalence of rape in Iceland since 2006 has fallen from 2007 (28.5 per 100,000 people) to 2009 (24.9 per 100,000 people). Following the Swedish model, Iceland made purchasing sexual services illegal in 2009,whilst this decriminalises prostitution it puts the criminal responsibility onto the buyer. In 2010 Iceland introduced a ban on commercial displays on nudity (i.e. strip bars).

Labour market policies

As provided for in Iceland's Act on *Equal Status and Equal Rights of Women and Men* ("Equality Act"), enterprises and institutions that have over 25 employees are required to have a gender equality program in place, or incorporate gender equality principles into their personnel policy. Failure to do so can result in a fine. Furthermore, the Equality Act prescribed for equal representation of men and women which cannot not be lower than 40% in national and local government committees, councils and boards (when there are more than three representatives in a body). This quota has since been extended in the Gender Quota Act to include the boards of private and publicly owned companies with over 50 employees who must achieve this 40% goal by September 2013. However there are no fines or penalties in place if companies do not comply and it has initially appeared that this has not been effective in achieving results. In relation to wage equality, the Equality Act has sought to increase transparency by providing that employees are permitted to disclose their wage terms as they see fit.

Committees and institutions

The Centre for Gender Equality, under the control of the Minister of Social Affairs and Social Security in Iceland, provides counselling and education in relation to gender equality. The Centre has initiated several projects such as the 'Men Take Responsibility' project which provides therapy for men who have engaged in violence against women.

The Gender Equality Complaints Committee established in 1991 is in place to rule on cases where the Equality Act has been breached. This committee consists of three lawyers and is appointed for three year terms.

Family equality

According to Iceland's Act on Maternity/Paternity Leave and Parental Leave, both men and women are entitled to paid maternity/paternity leave and unpaid parental leave. By enabling the both parents time off to tend to their baby, this act promotes the balance between work and home life. This has had success with 87.7% of fathers taking up a period of paternity leave in as at 2006. However, since its introduction the parental leave legislation has been amended to lower parental leave payments and this has reduced the amount of father's taking paternity leave.

Impact on the gender equality and prevention of violence against women due to the effective legislation policies in Iceland

Impact on gender equality

Iceland is ranked number 1 in the world in the Global Gender Gap Report as at 2014 and has been so since 2006. Over this time period, there has been improvement in Iceland's economic participation and opportunity score which looks at women in the labour force and in the political empowerment score which considers women's participation in parliament (despite a drop in this score from 2013 to 2014). While it is not possible to directly correlate these improvements to the policy and institutional initiatives put in place by Iceland over the past 10 years, as an overall trend this improvement can be observed.

Impact violence against women

Reports by the Minister for Welfare in 2012 showed that since 1996 when surveys on violence were first conducted, until the most recent survey of 2008 there was no significant decrease in domestic violence despite legislation and various intervention programs in place. It was suggested that while empowerment of women had prevented some violence, other factors that increase violence had effectively cancelled out that protective effect. Alcohol consumption being a risk factor for violence was shown to have risen from 4.9 litres to 7.5 litres per person aged above 15 years from 1996 to 2007. The survey showed an annual prevalence of violence to be 4% which is estimated to be 44,000 to 49,000 women experiencing violence in 2008. More up to date statistics may show a difference in the prevalence of violence against women given the extended length of time for the relatively new violence legislation to come into force.

World Economic Forum, The Global Gender Gap Report 2014, http://reports.weforum.org/global-gender-gap-report-2014/economies/#economy=ISL accessed 4 September 2015

Central intelligence Agency, The World Factbook: Iceland, https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/ic.html accessed 4 September 2015

Einarsdóttir T, 2010, The Policy on gender equality in Iceland, European Parliament accessed 4 September 2015

UNODC Assaults, Kidnapping, Robbery, Sexual Offences, Sexual Rape, Total Sexual Violence, 2014, http://knoema.com/atlas/Iceland/topics/Crime-Statistics/Assaults-Kidnapping-Robbery-Sexual-Rape/Rape-rate?section=intro&utm_expid=42012176-33.S2Sl-JDbSL2xRYLTb5x9bw.1&utm_referrer=https%3A%2F%2Fwww.google.com.au%2F accessed 4 September 2015

Ministry of Welfare: [Male Violence against Women in Intimate Relationships (excerpts)] February 2012

Case study: Impact of the *Violence against Women Act* (VAWA) in USA

According to the US Bureau of Justice, the rate of intimate partner violence in the USA fell by 53 per cent between 1993 and 2008 and the number of intimate partner homicides of women decreased by 26 per cent. Many experts attribute this decline to the *Violence against Women Act* (VAWA), first authorised by Congress in 1994, which provides funding for many of the intervention and prevention programmes. The Act originally authorised US$1·6 billion in funding in 5 years and has been re-authorised three more times since then. A study of more than 10 000 jurisdictions between 1996 and 2002 showed that jurisdictions that received VAWA grants had significant reductions in the numbers of sexual and aggravated assaults compared with jurisdictions that did not receive VAWA grants.

Collective advocacy

A *Right to Respect: Victoria's Plan to Prevent Violence against Women 2010–20* was a ground-breaking policy developed in Victoria that aimed to end violence against women and girls. It was the first public policy of its kind worldwide with a focus on primary prevention of violence across individual, community, and societal levels. *A Right to Respect* was created on the basis of a long history of advocacy and intervention to respond to violence against women and girls, which was led at the onset by women's organisations in Victoria and across Australia, advocating for policy reform and established response services for sexual assault and intimate partner violence. *A Right to Respect* was launched in 2009 with a costed plan for a 4-year pilot implementation in two urban sites and one rural site. However, the program was not implemented but the framework and the policy development process provide a model for similar policies.

Another example is the White Ribbon organisation and the No to Violence campaign, which committed to working across government and sectors to advance primary prevention and promote preventative action to change the attitudes and behaviours that perpetuate violence. In July 2011, the NSW legislative council conducted an inquiry into domestic violence trends and issues. White Ribbon submitted into the inquiry and presented at the subsequent hearings. This activity to advance primary prevention has been replicated in other states and territories.

Organisational development

Organisations at a global scale had been taking steps towards adopting prevention programs in workplace. White Ribbon Australia has been championing *The White Ribbon Workplace Accreditation Program,* which is now into its second year following a successful pilot. As of August 2015, White Ribbon enrolled 23 new organisations from across sectors into the White Ribbon Australia Workplace Accreditation Program. Australia's leading edge, internationally recognised workplace based prevention program provides a safe and structured environment that enables workplaces to raise awareness of and take positive action to help stop violence against women. 1 in 5 employees surveyed after the pilot program noticed changes in how others in their organisations thought about or behaved toward women.

The workplace has been identified as a priority setting for health action and improvement in VicHealth's Strategy and Business Plan 2009–2013. Late in 2009 VicHealth established a new program, *Creating Healthy Workplaces*, to enhance and sustain workplace health promotion research, policy and practice in Victoria by building the evidence base on effective workplace health interventions. VicHealth's Creating Healthy Workplaces program focused on five factors that influence health, one of which was violence against women.

Another program was The Equal Footing Pilot Program (Program) which was commissioned in 2014 with Victorian Government funding to develop a new and accessible entry point for workplaces to engage in the prevention of violence against women through the promotion of gender equality and respectful relationships. This Program aimed to develop a unique platform for organisations across sectors and industries to begin their engagement with the issue of gender equality in the workplace. It was identified that Equal Footing provided a unique 'trigger point' to initiate gender equality conversation within organisations, however implementation needs to be tailored to each organisation's circumstances. Different organisations and sectors have different work processes and business models to be considered in planning Program implementation. The Program provided important early learning on ideas to inform conversations in different work contexts.

Appendix B – Approach to estimating costs and benefits

Definitions

There are strict definitions for the various types of violence and for the relationships that the perpetrator(s) may have to a woman. When discussing the costs associated with violence we have applied the definitions set by the ABS in the 2012 Personal Safety Survey.[59]

When discussing the term 'partner', we specifically refer to woman's current or previous partner which have the following definitions:

Current partner	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 whom the respondent is now separated. 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 experiencing violence.

A 'non-partner' refers to any of the following persons:

Stranger	Someone the respondent did not know, or someone they only knew by hearsay
Boyfriend/girlfriend or date	This relationship may have different levels of commitment and involvement that does not involve living together. For example, this will include persons who have had one date only, regular dating with no sexual involvement, or a serious sexual or emotional relationship. It excludes de facto relationships
Other known persons	Includes violence by any other known man or woman who does not fit into any of the above categories: • Father/Mother – Includes step-parents • Son/Daughter – Includes step-children • Brother/Sister – Includes step-siblings • Other male/female relative or in-law • Friend – is someone one knows, likes and trusts • Acquaintance/Neighbour – An acquaintance is anybody that the respondent recognises or knows in some way and is not perceived to be a 'stranger'. A neighbour is a person who lives or is located close to the respondent's place of residence • Employer/boss/supervisor • Co-worker/co-volunteer • Counsellor/psychologist/psychiatrist • Doctor • Teacher • Priest/Minister/Rabbi etc. • Prison officer • Ex-boyfriend/Ex-girlfriend • Any other known person/s

In the PSS, the ABS defines violence as any incident involving the occurrence, attempt or threat of either physical or sexual assault experienced by a person since age 15. Physical and sexual violence are also strictly defined as follows:

[59] Australian Bureau of Statistics 2012. *Personal Safety, Australia, 2012.* Cat no. 4906.0

Physical violence	Any incident involving the occurrence, attempt or threat of physical assault experienced by a person since the age of 15. This includes any incident of Physical assault or Physical threat.
Physical assault	Involves the use of physical force with the intent to harm or frighten a person. Assaults may have occurred in conjunction with a robbery and includes incidents where a person was assaulted in their line of work (e.g. assaulted while working as a security guard). Various types of physical assault were identified, including: • Pushed, grabbed or shoved – Includes being pushed off a balcony, down stairs, or across the room • Slapped – Includes a hit with an open hand. Excludes slaps with a belt or bat, etc. • Kicked, bitten or hit with a fist – Excludes being hit with an open hand • Hit you with something else that could hurt you – Includes being hit with a bat, hammer, belt, pot, ruler, etc. Does not include being punched • Beaten – Includes punching, hitting or slapping in a repetitive manner • Choked – Includes being choked by hands, a rope, a scarf, a tie or any other item • Stabbed – With a knife • Shot – With a gun • Any other type of physical assault – Includes burns, scalds, being dragged by the hair, being deliberately hit by a vehicle Physical assault excludes incidents of sexual assault or sexual threat which also involved physical assault, and excludes incidents that occurred during the course of play on a sporting field. Physical assault also excludes incidents of violence that occurred before the age of 15 – these are defined as Physical Abuse. If a person experienced physical assault and physical threat in the same incident, this was counted once only as a physical assault. If a person experienced sexual assault and physical assault in the same incident, this was counted once only as a sexual assault.
Physical threat	Is an attempt to inflict physical harm or a threat or suggestion of intent to inflict physical harm, that was made face-to-face where the person believes it was able to and likely to be carried out. Physical threat includes incidents where a person was threatened in their line of work. Various types of physical threats were identified, including: • Threaten or attempt to hit with a fist or anything else that could hurt – Includes threats or attempts to slap, punch, spank or hit in any way with a fist or weapon such as a bat, hammer or pot • Threaten or attempt to stab with a knife • Threaten or attempt to shoot with a gun – The gun may or may not have been aimed at the respondent. Includes situations where a gun was left in an obvious place or if the respondent knew that the perpetrator had access to a gun. Includes toy guns, starter pistols etc., if the respondent believed they were real • Threaten or attempt to physically hurt in any other way It excludes any incident of violence in which the threat was actually carried out and incidents which occurred during the course of play on a sporting field. If a person experienced sexual threat and physical threat in the same incident, this was counted once only as a sexual threat.
Sexual violence	Sexual violence is defined as any incident involving the occurrence, attempt or threat of sexual assault experienced by a person since the age of 15. This includes any incident of Sexual assault or Sexual threat.

Sexual assault	An act of a sexual nature carried out against a person's will through the use of physical force, intimidation or coercion, and includes any attempts to do this. This includes rape, attempted rape, aggravated sexual assault (assault with a weapon), indecent assault, penetration by objects, forced sexual activity that did not end in penetration and attempts to force a person into sexual activity. Incidents so defined would be an offence under State and Territory criminal law. Sexual assault excludes unwanted sexual touching – this is defined as Sexual harassment. Sexual assault also excludes incidents of violence that occurred before the age of 15 – these are defined as Sexual Abuse. If a person experienced sexual assault and sexual threat in the same incident, this was counted once only as a sexual assault. If an incident of sexual assault also involved physical assault or threats, this was counted once only as a sexual assault.
Sexual threat	Involves the threat of acts of a sexual nature, that were made face-to-face where the person believes it is able to and likely to be carried out. If a person experienced sexual assault and sexual threat in the same incident, this was counted once only as a sexual assault.

To reiterate the UN's definition of violence in the *Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women* (1993), violence is considered to be

Any act of gender-based violence that results in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or in private life.

The definition above doesn't focus on the actions committed, rather if focusses on the outcome towards victims of violence. Therefore focussing on the physical aspects of violence alone (that is physical violence and sexual violence) will not appropriately capture other acts that don't necessarily result in physical harm but psychological harm.

The acts of violence also do not necessarily occur in isolation from one another for example victims of physical violence from a partner may also experience some form of emotional abuse. Therefore when discussing the prevalence of partner violence and/or non-partner violence we will consider acts of emotional abuse and stalking which are defined by the ABS as follows:

Emotional abuse	Emotional abuse occurs when a person is subjected to certain behaviours or actions that are aimed at preventing or controlling their behaviour with the intent to cause them emotional harm or fear. These behaviours are characterised in nature by their intent to manipulate, control, isolate or intimidate the person they are aimed at. They are generally repeated behaviours and include psychological, social, economic and verbal abuse. For the PSS, a person was considered to have experienced emotional abuse where they reported they had been subjected to or experienced one or more of the following behaviours (that were repeated with the intent to prevent or control their behaviour and were intended to cause them emotional harm or fear): • Stopped or tried to stop them from contacting family, friends or community – Where a partner tries to or limits or prevents the respondent's social access to any person that they want to see, and where a partner restricts or tries to restrict the respondent's access to environments in which they may make friends (e.g. community or interest groups)

- Stopped or tried to stop them from using the telephone, Internet or family car – Where a partner hides the phone/removes the phone cord, puts password protection on the computer/removes the power cord, or hides the car keys from a respondent. Also includes where a respondent felt that they needed a car, but were restricted from purchasing one by their partner
- Monitored their whereabouts (e.g.. constant phone calls) – Where a partner monitors a respondent's activity. Includes actions such as checking all telephone call lists/logs on the phone or on a phone bill, monitoring website history to see what sites that the respondent has visited, or checking mileage on the car odometer
- Controlled or tried to control where they went or who they saw
- Stopped or tried to stop them knowing about or having access to household money – Includes situations where a partner intentionally does not disclose their income to the respondent, or does not give authority for the respondent to operate one or more bank accounts. Includes situations where the respondent receives only an 'allowance' from their partner and demands justification of spending (e.g. receipts)
- Stopped or tried to stop them from working or earning money – Includes situations where a partner prevents a respondent from working, or is forced to only work at limited times/ days or hours. Also includes situations where a respondent has expressed interest in gaining employment, and their partner has either restricted them from this, or has forcibly 'talked them out of' it (e.g. "you should prioritise your family over yourself", or "who would want to employ you?"). Includes situations were a partner has stopped the respondent from doing volunteer work, or 'helping out' a friend/organisation (e.g. reading stories at the children's school)
- Stopped or tried to stop them from studying – Includes situations where the respondent is not allowed by their partner to study or is forced to only study at limited times/days or hours, and situations where the respondent has expressed interest in study, and their partner has either restricted them from this, or forcibly 'talked them out of' this (e.g. "you should prioritise your family over yourself", or "you aren't smart enough for that"). Also includes situations where a partner has stopped the respondent from undertaking formal, as well as informal education (e.g. adult learning courses held at local community centres or high schools)
- Deprived them of basic needs such as food, shelter, sleep or assistive aids – Includes situations where a partner deprives the respondent of any assistive aids' such as a walking frame, wheelchair or hearing aids etc. Includes situations where a respondent is deprived of medical or psychological care, or is intentionally locked out of the home by a partner. Also includes situations where a respondent is forced to sleep elsewhere (e.g. on the floor, couch etc.), other than a bed and where the respondent is forced to eat differently to their partner (e.g. only rice)
- Damaged, destroyed or stole any of their property
- Constantly insulted them to make them feel ashamed, belittled or humiliated – Constant put downs, name calling, bullying or making fun of the respondent (either in company, when the couple are alone, in front of children, etc). Also includes situations where a partner constantly insults a respondent's standard of hygiene, appearance, cooking or cleaning etc., or makes them feel 'dumb' or 'useless'
- Lied to their child/ren with the intent of turning them against them – Telling the respondent's children that the respondent doesn't love them, want them, or have time for them. (e.g. "Daddy has a new girlfriend, he loves her more than he loves you"). Any lies or "tall tales" told to the children that were intended to cause the respondent emotional harm or fear
- Lied to other family members or friends with the intent of turning them against them
- Threatened to take their child/ren away from them
- Threatened to harm their child/ren
- Threatened to harm other family members or friends
- Threatened to harm any of their pets
- Harmed any of their pets
- Threatened or tried to commit suicide

Stalking	Stalking involves various behaviours, such as loitering and following, which the person believed were being undertaken with the intent to harm or frighten. To be classified as stalking more than one type of behaviour had to occur, or the same type of behaviour had to occur on more than one occasion. • The definition of stalking is based on State and Territory legislation. It is defined by a range of behaviours which the person believed were undertaken with the intent to harm or frighten. Behaviours include: • Loitered or hung around outside person's home • Loitered or hung around outside person's workplace • Loitered or hung around outside person's place of leisure or social activities • Followed them – Note: if a person was watched and followed in the same incident and this only happened once, this is not defined as stalking • Watched them – Note: if a persons was watched and followed in the same incident and this only happened once, this is not defined as stalking • Interfered with or damaged any of the person's property • Gave them, or left material where they could find it, that they found offensive or disturbing – Includes anything that was intended to harm or frighten the respondent, for example, pornographic material, destroyed photographs, articles about murders, dead animals • Telephoned them, sent them mail or contacted them electronically with the intent to harm or frighten – 'Contacted electronically' includes contacting the respondent by SMS messages, emails, or placing information about them on a website, with the intent to harm or frighten them

Therefore to better align our analysis with the definitions of violence set by the UN and to account for the challenges in estimating the prevalence of the respective types of violence we will describe the experience of violence when discussing costs as follows:

- Women experiencing partner violence – If a woman were to experience physical violence, sexual violence or emotional abuse by a current or previous partner they are considered to have experienced partner violence.
- Women experiencing violence – if a women were to experience physical violence, sexual violence, emotional abuse (by a partner) or stalking by any perpetrator they are considered to have experienced violence.

For simplicity, we will shorten the description of these experiences as:

- Women experiencing partner violence – partner violence
- Women experiencing violence – all violence

Prevalence of violence against women

The prevalence of a condition is the measure of the number of persons in a population experiencing that condition in a defined period of time. This measure is typically applied in health and medical statistics but is also applied to estimate the degree to which violence against women is occurring in society. A primary source of statistics regarding the experience of violence is the PSS as collected by the ABS.[60] The survey collects and reports on the extent of violence experienced by men and women aged 18 and over.

It measures the experience of physical and sexual violence as well as emotional abuse and stalking over a 12 month period or over the lifetime of the respondent (experienced from age 15). The following table shows the proportion of the female adult population (aged over 18 years) that has experienced violence over the last 12 months:

Type of violence	Prevalence perpetrated by partners (current or previous)	Total prevalence
Physical violence	1.4 per cent	4.6 per cent
Physical assault	1.1 per cent	3.0 per cent
Physical threat	0.5 per cent	2.2 per cent
Sexual violence	0.3 per cent	1.2 per cent
Sexual assault	0.3 per cent	1.0 per cent
Sexual threat	0.0 per cent	0.2 per cent
Emotional abuse*	4.7 per cent	2.5 per cent

Source: PSS 2012, ABS[61]

*Emotional abuse is considered to only be perpetrated by a partner (past or present).

In some instances, the PSS also reports the relationship of the perpetrator of violence thereby providing data on partner and non-partner violence. The estimated prevalence rates for partner, non-partner and all violence are as follows:

Type of experience	Description	Prevalence rate
Partner violence	Proportion of women experiencing physical violence, sexual violence or emotional abuse by a partner	5.1 per cent
All violence	Proportion of women experiencing physical violence, sexual violence, partner emotional abuse or stalking	11.2 per cent

Source: PSS 2012, custom data request[62]

These estimates report if violence was experienced over a period of time, but does not measure the frequency or severity of violence. Analysis undertaken by the ABS suggests that between the 2005 and 2012 survey, there was no statistically significant changes to the rate of prevalence of violence over the past 12 months as experienced by women. Due to changes in definitions and increased behavioural examples in the survey questions, emotional abuse and stalking are not comparable between the aforementioned surveys. Based on these findings and without further evidence to the contrary, we have therefore assumed that the prevalence rates in 2014-15 have not increased since what is reported in 2012. By applying this rate to the female population aged over 18 years, we therefore estimate the number of women experiencing violence in 2014-15 to be:

[60] Australian Bureau of Statistics 2012. *Personal Safety, Australia, 2012.* Cat no. 4906.0
[61] Ibid
[62] Ibid

Type of experience	Description	Number of women experiencing violence in 2014-15
Partner violence	Proportion of women experiencing physical violence, sexual violence or emotional abuse by a partner	470,309
All violence	Proportion of women experiencing physical violence, sexual violence, partner emotional abuse or stalking	1,032,835

The data is subject to several limitations which may result in an underestimate of rate of prevalence of violence, the limitations are the result of:

- the nature of it being a self-reported survey;
- the survey captures only self-reported violence, though the ABS has made all possible attempt to reduce any non-response bias; and
- constraints of length of interview time and reducing the burden placed on respondents, the survey only enquires about the most recent incident that occurred. Therefore if a person had experienced more than one experience of violence over the same time within that period, then the prevalence of violence is underestimated.

Estimating the annual costs of violence

The estimation of costs associated with an adverse event are usually separated into direct and indirect costs. Direct costs are those that are incurred in order to treat or in response to an event. For example, the associated health costs to treat injury following violence or the criminal justice costs incurred in order to arrest and prosecute perpetrators of violence. Indirect costs are the flow on costs which happen following the event of violence. Examples of these are the costs to care for children who are in a household experiencing violence and the increased reliance on social welfare. A specific type of indirect cost is the cost of lost opportunity. These are the costs that are incurred as a result of reduced economic participation following violence. Examples of lost opportunity costs are those related to lost income from being unable to work.

For the purposes of this analysis we have grouped the costs into the following categories:

Pain, suffering and premature mortality	Costs attributed to lost quality of life
Health costs	Costs to deliver health services to victims of violence. It covers the costs associated with the extended health effects of violence and not just the treatment of the initial trauma for example the costs associated with the treatment of depression and anxiety.
Production related costs	Lost production through absenteeism, being late or attending court. These costs are incurred not only by the victim but also by the perpetrator and employers.
Consumption related costs	This category is comprised of a short term costs of damage to property and belongings and long term costs of lost economies of scale that victims of domestic violence would experience due to being less likely to be in further relationships in the future. In calculating costs for non-partner violence, it was assumed that this category is not applicable.
Second generation costs	This category includes the costs associated with the care or Government intervention for children who were in households experiencing violence. It was also assumed that this cost will not be incurred by those experiencing violence by non-partners.
Administrative and other costs	This category is comprised of the criminal justice costs for police, the courts and to incarcerate indicted perpetrators. It also includes the costs of other services such as interpreters, funerals and temporary accommodation.
Transfer Costs	Costs such as income support, victim compensation and lost taxes are not lost costs to society per se but are instead shifts in the economic powers of consumption from one part of society to another. This shift in transfer results in a loss of economic efficiency to occur which is known as a deadweight loss. It can also be thought of as the cost of the excess burden of taxation.

The categories above can be further disaggregated into sub-categories The table below provides details of these sub-categories and if they are applicable to the costs of non-partner violence.

Cost category	sub-category	Applicable to non-partner violence?
Pain, suffering and premature mortality	Cost of pain, suffering and mortality due to domestic violence	Yes
Health costs	Health costs	Yes
Production costs	Cost of victim absenteeism from paid work due to injury, emotional distress or attending court	Yes
	Cost of victims late or leaving early from paid work	Yes
	Cost of perpetrators absent due to harassing victims	Yes
	Cost of perpetrators absent due legal and criminal justice process	Yes
	Cost of perpetrators absent due to attending family court	No
	Cost of victim absent from unpaid work	Yes
	Cost of perpetrator unable to perform unpaid work	Yes
	Cost of management time to process absentees	Yes
	Costs of searching, hiring and retraining new employees	Yes
	Annual lost income of victims who should have survived	Yes
Consumption costs	Cost of damaged or destroyed property	No
	Loss of economies of scale	No
Second generation costs	Cost of child protection services	No
	Cost of out-of-home care services	No
	Cost of childcare	No
	Cost of remedial care and special education	No
	Cost of changing school	No
	Cost of juvenile crime in 214/15 associated with DV	No
	Cost of adult crime in 214/15 associated with DV	No
Administration and other costs	Cost of perpetrator incarceration	Yes
	Court system costs to prosecute perpetrators of DV	Yes
	Private legal costs faced by perpetrator	Yes
	Police costs	No
	Cost of civil court appearances (AVOs, divorce and custody orders)	No
	Coronial costs to investigate deaths	Yes
	Costs for temporary accommodation for DV victims	No
	Counselling costs	Yes
	perpetrator program costs	Yes
	Funeral costs	Yes
	Cost of interpreter services	Yes
	Imputed carer costs	No

Cost category	sub-category	Applicable to non-partner violence?
Transfer costs	Lost taxes	Lost taxes were calculated separately for partner and non-partner violence
	Income support costs	Yes
	Financial support from family and friends	Yes
	Victim compensation	Yes
	Deadweight loss	Deadweight loss for partner violence and non-partner violence were calculated separately based on the calculated lost taxes

Our methodology adopts the methodology used by the reports *The cost of violence against women and their Children*[63] and *The Cost of Domestic Violence to the Australian Economy: Part I and Part II*.[64]

In brief, our methodology to calculate the annual cost of partner violence involved either of the following types:

Re-calculation	Re-calculating using the approach detailed in the report *The Cost of Domestic Violence to the Australian Economy: Part I and Part II* and updating the figures with recent prevalence statistics and cost data where possible
Escalation	Reported costs were escalated to 2014-15 values by: • calculating the reported cost per victim; • applying an escalation factor (e.g. CPI) to express the value in 2014-15 real terms; and • multiplying the per victim cost to the calculated prevalence of partner violence in 2014-15.

In order to calculate the cost of non-partner violence and all-violence we applied a similar assumption as that of the report by KPMG.[65] This report assumes that the per-victim costs for certain costs were the same for victims of partner or non-partner violence. Therefore, to calculate the cost of non-partner violence, we have:

- calculated the cost per victim for each cost; and
- multiplied the per victim cost to the calculated prevalence of non-partner or all violence.

To calculate the cost of all violence, this required special consideration of costs that are applicable to both partner and/or non-partner violence. Where a cost is applicable to non-partner and partner violence, we have multiplied the per victim cost to the prevalence of all violence similar to approach used to calculate non-partner violence. However, should a cost be applicable only to partner violence, then the cost of partner violence was used for that sub-category.

In the following table we now summarise the approach used to calculate each sub-category.

[63] *The cost of violence against women and their Children.(2009) The National Council to Reduce Violence against Women and their Children.*
[64] *The Cost of Domestic Violence to the Australian Economy: Part I and Part II (2004) Access Economics.*
[65] *The cost of violence against women and their Children.(2009) The National Council to Reduce Violence against Women and their Children.*

Cost category	Sub-category	Calculation type	Calculation description
Pain, suffering and premature mortality	Cost of pain, suffering and mortality due to domestic violence	Escalation	The calculation for the subjective nature of 'pain and suffering' was made using measures of burdens of diseases associated with the health burdens of women experiencing violence. This is typically measured using DALYs. To calculate the DALYs associated with violence in 2014-15, we first calculated the DALY per victim as reported by *Access Economics*[66] and multiplied this value to the prevalence of women experiencing violence in 2014-15. The cost of pain, suffering and premature mortality was then calculated by multiplying the total DALYs with the value of a statistical life year of $182,000 in line with best practice guidance by the Department of Prime Minister and Cabinet.[67]
Health costs	Health costs	Escalation	Similar to the approach used to calculate the cost of pain, suffering and premature mortality we first derived a per victim cost for the individual disease/injury states associated with violence. This unit cost was then multiplied by the prevalence of women experiencing violence in 2014-15. In order to escalate the value to 2014-15 real terms we then applied a further escalation factor using the Australian Institute of Health and Welfare's Health Price Index[68]
Production costs	Cost of victim absenteeism from paid work due to injury, emotional distress or attending court	Re-calculation	This sub-category was calculated using the approach detailed in *The Cost of Domestic Violence to the Australian Economy: Part I and Part II (2004).* Per the approach, it was assumed that women who experience physical assault, sexual assault or stalking would take seven days, eight days and ten days off work respectively.[69] This time off results in lost income for the victim but incurs on-costs for the employers. The calculation were updated to include the most recent labour participation rates[70] and average income[71] as reported by the ABS.
	Cost of victims late or leaving early from paid work	Re-calculation	Similar to the cost of absenteeism, victims of violence are more likely to also be late for work resulting in lost productivity either for themselves or the employer. The basic assumption of time lost from being lost was maintained but the updates include recent reemployment rates and average income.
	Cost of perpetrators absent due to harassing victims	Re-calculation	The assumed time lost by perpetrators to harass victims was kept but employment rates and average income were updated.
	Cost of perpetrators absent due legal and criminal justice process	Re-calculation	Legal processes include court cases for apprehended violence orders (AVOs), criminal court appearances and incarceration.[72] Updates to this sub-category include recent criminal court and AVO statistics as well as recent employment rates and average income.
	Cost of perpetrators absent due to attending family court	Re-calculation	Family court attendances include divorce court and custody order court appearances that are associated or as a result of intimate partner violence. Updates were made using recent employment rates and average income.

[66] *The Cost of Domestic Violence to the Australian Economy: Part I and Part II (2004) Access Economics.*
[67] Best Practice Guidance note, Value of Statistical Life. December 2014. Department of Prime Minister and Cabinet
[68] AIHW Health Expenditure Australia 2012-13
[69] *The Cost of Domestic Violence to the Australian Economy: Part I and Part II (2004) Access Economics.*
[70] Australian Bureau of Statistics *2012. Personal Safety, Australia, 2012. Cat no.* 4906.0
[71] Australian Bureau of Statistics ABS 2012–Average Weekly Earnings, Australia (Dollars)–Original. Cat no. 6302.0
[72] NSW Criminal Court Statistics 2014. http://www.bocsar.nsw.gov.au/Documents/CCS-Annual/ccs2014.pdf

Cost category	Sub-category	Calculation type	Calculation description
	Cost of victim absent from unpaid work	Re-calculation	Unpaid work includes household chores and voluntary work. Using recent statistics, we updated the time a woman would typically spend on chores.[73] The cost of unpaid work was valued at 30 per cent of the updated average lost income.
	Cost of perpetrator unable to perform unpaid work	Escalation	The lost time was updated in a similar method as the pain, suffering and premature mortality category by calculating the lost hours per victim from the *Access Economics* report and then multiplying it to the 2014-15 prevalence of violence. The cost of unpaid work was valued at 30 per cent of the updated average lost income.
	Cost of management time to process absentees	Re-calculation	Managers would typically have to undertake administrative work for the time lost due to absenteeism calculated for victims and perpetrators which results in avoidable lost productivity. The average weekly income for a person in a managerial role was updated.
	Costs of searching, hiring and retraining new employees	Re-calculation	The cost to replace victims who have passed away as a result of violence was estimated as a proportion of their salary. The updated data used here is only the average income.
	Annual lost income of victims who should have survived	Escalation	The per victim cost was calculated and then multiplied by the prevalence of violence in 2014-15. The values were then escalated using the wage price index (WPI).[74]
	Cost of damaged or destroyed property	Re-calculation	The number of women experiencing physical and sexual assault was updated while the per victim cost of replacement was escalated using CPI.[75]
Consumption costs	Loss of economies of scale	Escalation	In the *Cost of Domestic Violence to the Australian Economy* report, regression modelling was used to estimate the reduced probability of women to be in a future partnered relationship resulting in them losing the benefit of living in a multi-person household. The cost of lost economies of scale was estimated by calculating the cost per victim and then multiplying it to the 2014-15 prevalence. The value was further escalated to 2014-15 real dollars using CPI.

[73] Australian Bureau of Statistics ABS *2006–How Australians Use Their Time. Cat no*. 4153.0
[74] Australian Bureau of Statistics 2015 *Wage Price index, Australia, Jun 2015.* Cat no. 6345.0
[75] Australian Bureau of Statistics 2015. Consumer Price Index, Australia, Jun 2015. Cat no. 6401.0

Cost category	Sub-category	Calculation type	Calculation description
Second generation costs	Cost of child protection services	Re-calculation	The numbers of physical and sexual assault victims were updated along with the proportion of children who witness violence using the most recent PSS.[76] The per child cost of child protection services were updated using the most recent Report on Government Services.[77]
	Cost of out-of-home care services	Re-calculation	Similar as above but the per child cost of out of home services were updated from the most recent Report on Government Services
	Cost of childcare	Escalation	The number of children in care when women experienced violence was updated from the PSS 2012. The per child cost was the same the cost used in the *Cost of Domestic Violence to the Australian Economy* report and escalated to 2014-15 using CPI.
	Cost of remedial care and special education	Escalation	See cost of childcare
	Cost of changing school	Escalation	See cost of childcare
	Cost of juvenile crime in 214/15 associated with DV	Escalation	See loss of economies of scale
	Cost of adult crime in 214/15 associated with DV	Escalation	See loss of economies of scale

[76] Australian Bureau of Statistics 2012. *Personal Safety, Australia, 2012.* Cat no. 4906.0
[77] Productivity Commission (2015). Report on Government Services 2015. Australian Government

Cost category	Sub-category	Calculation type	Calculation description
Administration and other costs	Cost of perpetrator incarceration	Re-calculation	The number of incarcerations in Australia was estimated using NSW criminal court statistics[78] and extrapolated to Australia using population data.[79] The average time of incarceration was kept the same as used in the *Cost of Domestic Violence to the Australian Econo*my report. The per-day cost of incarceration was updated using recent Report on Government Services.
	Court system costs to prosecute perpetrators of DV	Re-calculation	The number of court appearance were updated using NSW criminal court statistics and extrapolated to Australia using population data. Costs of criminal finalisation was updated using the most recent Report on Government Services.
	Private legal costs faced by perpetrator	Escalation	Private legal costs were escalated from the *Cost of Domestic Violence to the Australian Economy* report using the WPI[80]
	Police costs	Re-calculation	The number of police notifications related to partner violence was updated using NSW criminal court statistics while the per person cost of a police attendance was updated using the most recent Report on Government Services.
	Cost of civil court appearances (AVOs, divorce and custody orders)	Re-calculation	Solicitor costs were escalated using WPI while AVO costs were escalated using CPI. The number of custody orders and divorces associated with partner violence were estimated by calculating a ratio of divorce/custody order per victim and then applying that ratio to the current prevalence of violence. The number of AVOs issued were updated using the most recent Report on Government Services.
	Coronial costs to investigate deaths	Escalation	See loss of economies of scale
	Costs for temporary accommodation for DV victims	Re-calculation and escalation	The costs are made up of a Government component and victim funded component. For the government component, the number and cost of homeless services provided to victims of partner violence were updated using the most recent Report on Government Services. While the victim funded component was escalated in the same way as the cost of lost economies of scale
	Counselling costs	Escalation	See loss of economies of scale
	perpetrator program costs	Escalation	See loss of economies of scale however WPI was used as the escalation factor
	Funeral costs	Escalation	See loss of economies of scale
	Cost of interpreter services	Re-calculation	The number of victims seeking support was updated from the 2012 PSS while the proportion of women who require interpreter services were updated from the 2011 Census. Persons were considered to need interpreter services due to not being able to speak English either 'not at all' or 'not well'. The cost of interpreter services were escalated using CPI.
	Imputed carer costs	Escalation	See loss of economies of scale

[78] NSW Criminal Court Statistics 2014. http://www.bocsar.nsw.gov.au/Documents/CCS-Annual/ccs2014.pdf
[79] Australian Bureau of Statistics 2015 *Australian Demographic statistics*. Cat no. 3101.0
[80] Australian Bureau of Statistics 2015 *Wage Price index, Australia, Jun 2015.* Cat no. 6345.0

Cost category	Sub-category	Calculation type	Calculation description
Transfer costs	Lost taxes	Re-calculation	The personal tax rate was calculated using the most recent individual income tax rates[81] which was applied to the lost income by victims and perpetrators. A 30 per cent company tax rate was also applied to a portion of employer costs.
	Income support costs	Escalation	See loss of economies of scale
	Financial support from family and friends	Re-calculation	Calculated using the same per victim cost as used by *Access Economics* and escalated using CPI.
	Victim compensation	Re-calculation	The number and costs of victims compensation claims related to partner violence was estimated using the NSW Victims Compensation Tribunal report[82] and then extrapolated to Australia.
	Deadweight loss	Re-calculation	A deadweight loss of 28.75 per cent was applied to the total of the above transfer costs.

Calculation of lifetime costs

The approach used to calculate the lifetime costs is an adapted approach employed in the report *The Cost of Domestic Violence to the Australian Economy: Part I and Part II*.[83] Costs are assumed to be incurred from the year that violence is experienced over a period of years. For costs that go longer than one year, it was assumed that these costs were repeated annually up to the specified duration. A discount rate was then applied to estimate the net present value in 2014-15. For the remainder of this section, we detail how the length of time for each cost category was assumed to be incurred.

The PSS 2012, described the experience of violence against women by broad age groups as follows:

Broad age groups	% of women within each age group experiencing violence during the last 12 months
18 to 24 years	12.8
25 to 34 years	8.1
35 to 44 years	5.5
45 to 54 years	4.3
55 years or more	1.5

Source: ABS, Personal Safety Survey 2012[84]

By using the age in the middle of each age group, we calculated the weighted average age that a woman will experience violence to be 32. Using this information, we create a profile of the long-term costs of violence based on the age where violence is experienced on average. This profile is summarised in the table below. As described in *The Cost of Domestic Violence to the Australian Economy: Part I and Part II*, it was assumed that short-term costs are only incurred in the year that violence is experienced.

[81] Australian Tax Office (ATO) 2015. *Individual income tax rate* Tax rates 2014-15, accessed September 2015, < https://www.ato.gov.au/Rates/Individual-income-tax-rates/ >

[82] Victims Services 2013 Victims Compensation Tribunal New South Wales Chairperson's Report 2012/2013. http://www.victimsservices.justice.nsw.gov.au/Documents/chairpersons_2012-13.pdf. Attorney General and Justice

[83] The Cost of Domestic Violence to the Australian Economy: Part I and Part II. (2004) Access Economics.

[84] Australian Bureau of Statistics 2012. Personal Safety, Australia, 2012. Cat no. 4906.0

Table 10: Duration in which each cost sub-category are expected to be incurred.

Cost category	Sub-category	Duration type	Duration period
Pain, suffering and premature mortality	Cost of pain, suffering and mortality due to domestic violence	Long-term	52 years (the life expectancy of the average women at age 32[85])
Health costs	Health costs	Long-term	33 years
Production costs	Cost of victim absenteeism from paid work due to injury, emotional distress or attending court	Short-term	One year
	Cost of victims late or leaving early from paid work	Short-term	One year
	Cost of perpetrators absent due to harassing victims	Short-term	One year
	Cost of perpetrators absent due legal and criminal justice process	Short-term and long- term	One year for the short term component and two years for lost productivity following perpetrator incarceration
	Cost of perpetrators absent due to attending family court	Short-term	One year
	Cost of victim absent from unpaid work	Short-term	One year
	Cost of perpetrator unable to perform unpaid work	Short-term	One year
	Cost of management time to process absentees	Short-term	One year
	Costs of searching, hiring and retraining new employees	Long-term	three year
	Annual lost income of victims who should have survived	-	-
Consumption costs	Cost of damaged or destroyed property	Short-term	One year
	Loss of economies of scale	Long-term	20 years
Second generation costs	Cost of child protection services	Short-term	One year
	Cost of out-of-home care services	Short-term	One year
	Cost of childcare	Short-term	One year
	Cost of remedial care and special education	Short-term	One year
	Cost of changing school	Short-term	One year
	Cost of juvenile crime in 214/15 associated with DV	Long-term	6 years
	Cost of adult crime in 214/15 associated with DV	Long-term	60 years

[85] Australian Institute of Health and Welfare 2015. Australian Burden of Disease Study: Fatal burden of disease 2010. Australian Burden of Disease Study series no. 1. Cat. no. BOD 1. Canberra: AIHW.

Cost category	Sub-category	Duration type	Duration period
Administration and other costs	Cost of perpetrator incarceration	Long-term	two years
	Court system costs to prosecute perpetrators of DV	Short-term	One year
	Private legal costs faced by perpetrator	Short-term	One year
	Police costs	Short-term	One year
	Cost of civil court appearances (AVOs, divorce and custody orders)	Short-term	One year
	Coronial costs to investigate deaths	Short-term	One year
	Costs for temporary accommodation for DV victims	Short-term	One year
	Counselling costs	Short-term	One year
	Perpetrator program costs	Short-term	One year
	Funeral costs	Short-term	One year
	Cost of interpreter services	Short-term	One year
	Imputed carer costs	Long-term	10 years
Transfer costs	Lost taxes	Short-term and long-term	One to two years as this sub-category is calculated from the lost productivity costs
	Income support costs	Long-term	Three years
	Financial support from family and friends	Short-term	One year
	Victim compensation	Short-term	One year
	Deadweight loss	Short-term and l ong-term	Calculated from lost taxes, income support, financial support from family and friends, victim compensation and the Government costs for services all of which have variable lengths.

The periods for the long-term costs are determined as follows:

Pain, suffering and premature mortality

The cost of pain, suffering and premature mortality was divided based on the share of years life lost (YLL) and years lived with disability (YLD) as reported in *The Cost of Domestic Violence to the Australian Economy: Part I and Part II*.[86] Using the YLLs and the number of deaths following violence we then estimated the average years of life lost per victim to be 20 years. It should be noted that the number of deaths are not exclusively homicide related but also include mortality following other health burdens associated with violence. Therefore, the cost of the YLL component is incurred for 20 years while the YLD component is expected to be incurred for the remainder of a woman's life or the difference between the average life expectancy for a woman aged 32 and the years of life lost.[87] This YLD duration is calculated to be 27 years.

Health costs

Similar to the cost of pain, suffering and premature mortality, we divided the costs for health to the shares of YLL and YLD. The YLD component of the health costs were again expected to be incurred for the remainder of the victim's natural life of 27 years while the YLL component is expected to be a one year cost that is incurred upon the victim's death.

Production costs

The average duration of lost productivity faced by a perpetrator of violence was calculated by weighting the duration of incarceration for each offence against the estimated number of incarcerations. The following table shows the number of incarcerations and the associated average number of years in incarceration. The weighted average duration of perpetrator incarceration for committing violence against women was calculated to be 2.1 years. For the purposes of this analysis we have rounded this to 2 years as the cost of 0.1 year is considered to be relatively immaterial.

[86] *The Cost of Domestic Violence to the Australian Economy: Part I and Part II (2004) Access Economics.*

[87] Australian Institute of Health and Welfare 2015. Australian Burden of Disease Study: Fatal burden of disease 2010. Australian Burden of Disease Study series no. 1. Cat. no. BOD 1. Canberra: AIHW.

Table 11: The estimated number of incarcerations in Australia attributed to partner violence towards women and the average duration of incarceration

Offence	Total number of female partner violence incarceration in Australia*	Average duration of incarceration[88]
Murder	39	13.6
Attempted murder	6	2.3
Assault	2,147	1.7
Sexual Assault	316	3.5
Indecent assault and other	88	1.6
Abduction	37	3.0
Other offences	122	1.0

* Calculated by scaling the number of incarcerations in NSW to Australia and taking into account the proportions that are attributed to partner violence against women[89]

For our report we have not calculated the long-term cost of productivity due to women who have died due to homicide. As the average age where women will experience violence was calculated as 32 years, we have calculated the age of premature death to be age 64 which is after the age that women in Australia expect to retire (63 years).[90] Therefore, on average a victim's experience of violence will typically result in their death after retirement and no loss of productivity following premature mortality was calculated.

Finally, the cost that employers incur to search, hire and re-train a new employee is assumed to happen over three years or the average number of years that a worker will naturally turnover.[91]

Consumption costs

The long-term costs following the loss of economies of scale are expected to be incurred for 20 years. The children's component of this cost is discounted by 50 per cent to allow for the fact that children are likely to move out of their family home and form their own household within that 20 year period.[92]

Second generation costs

It was assumed that a proportion of children who witness partner violence would go on to commit both juvenile crime and adult crime in the future. The duration in which juvenile crime is assumed to occur is between the ages of 10 to 16 years whilst adult crime is expected to occur for 60 years or the life expectancy at age 17.[93]

Administration costs

The approach to estimate the average number of years in incarceration is the same as that used for production costs. The cost for long-term care or imputed carer is expected to be incurred over a 10 year period.[94]

Transfer costs

The cost of income support provided by Government is assumed to be incurred for three years.[95] The duration of lost taxes and deadweight loss is based on the costs of lost productivity and the individual sub-categories of the transfer category.

Discount rate

A discount rate of 5 per cent was applied to estimate the current value of the future costs

[88] *The Cost of Domestic Violence to the Australian Economy: Part I and Part II (2004) Access Economics.*
[89] Ibid 2004.
[90] Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS), Retirement and retirement intentions., Australia, July 2012 to June 2013, Cat no. 6238.0
[91] *The Cost of Domestic Violence to the Australian Economy: Part I and Part II (2004) Access Economics.*
[92] *The Cost of Domestic Violence to the Australian Economy: Part I and Part II (2004) Access Economics.*
[93] Ibid.
[94] Ibid.
[95] Ibid.

Calculating the benefits

Community mobilisation programs

This program type is not a specific type of delivery but an approach that aims to mobilise and support communities to address violence against women and their children and the social norms that make it acceptable. The results from the evaluations show promise in reducing the prevalence of violence but we note that they were undertaken in developing countries. The following table summarises the available evidence on reduction in violence.

Table 12: Summary of the effectiveness of community mobilisation programs

Program name	Result	Degree of reduction	Duration	Study setting
Stepping Stones	Decrease in the proportion of men perpetrating physical or sexual violence towards their partner[96]	38 per cent	2 years after the program	South Africa
SASA!	All forms of domestic violence had decreased in the community though note that upon introduction there was a reported increase in physical violence as a result of men's backlash[97]	48 per cent decrease in physical violence. 54 per cent and 52 per cent decrease in emotional violence as reported by women and men respectively. 42 per cent and 52 per cent reduction in sexual violence as reported by women and men	2 years into an ongoing program	Uganda
Program H	Decrease in domestic violence perpetration in both intervention arms[98]	36 per cent	Not reported	India

Though these are all different types of community mobilisation programs delivered in different countries, a comparison of their effectiveness suggests that at the lowest range there is a 38 per cent decrease in the prevalence of violence while at the highest we see a 54 per cent decrease in emotional abuse reported by women. Given the limitations in available evidence and applicability to the Australian context, we therefore made the following adjustment in order to estimate the benefits:

- We focus on the reported reduction in violence from the evaluation of the Stepping Stones program. This was for two reasons. One is that of the countries evaluated, South Africa is relatively the most applicable to Australia and second, its estimated effect is also the lowest range of possible benefits and is therefore a more conservative estimate of effectiveness;
- We limited the applicability of the effect of this intervention to physical and sexual partner violence as this was the reported findings from the study;
- What have assumed a lag time of two years based on the findings. E.g. those experiencing a reduction in 2014-15 have experienced the program in 2012-13; and
- We applied a range of discount rates (50 per cent and 75 per cent) to account for the lack of generalizability due to the program being evaluated in South Africa. After discounting, we estimate a reduction in violence of 9.5 per cent to 19 per cent

We have focused the applicability of the reduction in violence to a sub-population of women based on the reported findings of the *Stepping Stones* evaluation study above. Because the findings report that men are less likely to perpetrate violence against their partners, we have assumed that this translates to their female partners being less likely to experience violence. As a result of this, we have simulated a scenario where a proportion of male partners in Australia have participated in a similar program and are therefore less likely to perpetrate violence against their partners. It should be noted that community mobilisation programs do not necessarily only target men or couples exclusively however for the purposes of our analysis we have made the assumption of male partner participation on the basis of the reported findings.

[96] Jewkes, R., Nduna, M., Levin J., Jama, N., Dunkle, K., Puren, A., & Duvvury, N.(2008).Impact of stepping stones on incidence of HIV and HSV-2 and sexual behavior in rural South Africa: Cluster randomized controlled trial. British Medical Journal337: a506.

[97] Raising Voices and the Center for Domestic Violence Prevention. Mobilising communities to prevent domesticviolence, Kawempe Division, Uganda. Impact Assessment. http://www.engagingmen.net/files/resources/2010/elizabeth.starmann/Raising_Voices_Impact_Evaluation_2003.pdf, accessed 3 September 2015.

[98] Verma RK et al (2008). From research to action – addressing masculinity and gender norms to reduce HIV/AIDS related risky sexual behavior among young men in India. Washington, DC, Population Council,

In order to do this we firstly use reported data from the ABS to estimate the number of women who are in heterosexual relationships in Australia from 2014-15 to 2023-24. It was reported that in 2009-10, 53 per cent of Australians aged 18 and over were in a registered marriage while 11 per cent were in a de facto relationship.[99]

According to the 2011 census, same-sex couples represented only 1 per cent of all couples in Australia.[100] Using this information and the projected population of Australia we have therefore estimated the following number of women to be in heterosexual de facto relationships or marriages from 2014-15 to 2023-24.[101]

2014-15	2015-16	2016-17	2017-18	2018-19	2019-20	2020-21	2021-22	2022-23	2023-24
5,842,893	6,057,443	6,163,277	6,268,416	6,372,480	6,475,320	6,577,790	6,680,942	6,785,530	6,893,239

It was assumed that of the male partners of these women, one per cent of them a year have participated in a community mobilisation program. We additionally assume that participants will only go through the program once and to account for previous participants, we deduct the estimated number of participants of one year from the year before. For example, the number of persons in 2015-16 who have participated is estimated to be 60,574 while in 2014-15 it is estimated to be 58,429. Therefore the number of new participants by 2015-16 is 2,146 men.

2014-15	2015-16	2016-17	2017-18	2018-19	2019-20	2020-21	2021-22	2022-23	2023-24
58,429	2,146	1,058	1,051	1,041	1,028	1,025	1,032	1,046	1,077

The PSS 2012 reports that 1.5 per cent of women experience partner violence in the last 12 months.[102] Therefore, assuming that the prevalence rate of violence does not change up to 2023-24, we estimate that of the women whose partners attend a community mobilisation program, the following number of women are at risk of violence.

2014-15	2015-16	2016-17	2017-18	2018-19	2019-20	2020-21	2021-22	2022-23	2023-24
876	32	16	16	16	15	15	15	16	16

The discounted reduction in violence was applied evenly to this group of women to calculate the number of women avoiding violence each year.

The lifetime benefits were then calculated using the same approach as the lifetime cost of violence. The 10-year gain was calculated by limiting to 10 years, any long term costs that go longer than that. For costs that occur after the 10-year duration, those costs were assumed to not be incurred. In order to estimate the one year benefits, we assume a per victim cost of $26, 780 per person per year based on the calculated annual cost of violence and multiply this by the number of women who are prevented from violence. We then calculated the present value of the annual benefits for women from 2015-15 to 2023-24 who avoid violence.

We estimated the cost to deliver a 'community mobilisation' program in Australia by using the approximate costs of a different program already delivered in Australia. We have not estimated the cost to deliver *Stepping Stones* in Australia because this would require a detailed program design to adapt it to the Australian context which is beyond the scope of this report. We additionally do not wish to suggest that this particulat program is necessarily appropriate to be delivered in Australia and we include it in our analysis as a demonstration of the potential benefits as a community mobilisation program. A community mobilisation program recently delivered to culturally and linguistically diverse (CALD) communities was estimated to cost $250,000 per year.[103] Therefore to deliver such a program over a period of 10-years we estimate that this will cost approximately $2.5 million.

[99] Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS), (2012). Australian Social Trends March 2012. Love Me Do. [online] Cat no. 4102.0. Available at: http://www.abs.gov.au/socialtrends [Accessed 6 Nov. 2015].

[100] Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS), (2013). Australian Social Trends July 2013, Same-Sex Couples. [online] Cat no. 4102.0. Available at: http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/abs@.nsf/Lookup/4102.0Main+Features10July+2013 [Accessed 6 Nov. 2015].

[101] Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS), (2015)–Population Projections, Australia, 2012 (base) to 2101. Cat no. 3222.0

[102] Australian Bureau of Statistics 2012. *Personal Safety, Australia, 2012. Cat no. 4906.0*

[103] Commercial in confidence

Individual or group participation

Individual or group participation programs (also known as direct participation) are programs that engage and involve men, women and children at the individual, relationship or group level to build the knowledge and skills required to establish and sustain equal, respectful, non-violent gender relationships. A well-known example of this is the American *Safe Dates* program, which is a school-based initiative targeting teenagers to help them "recognise the difference between caring, supportive relationships and controlling, manipulative, or abusive dating relationships". It is one of the better evaluated programs and outcomes were reported up to four years after program delivery which suggests that the program has long lasting effectiveness in reducing the risk of violence. A summary of the effectiveness of the Safe Dates program is as follows:

Table 13: Summary of results from evaluations of individual or group participation programs

Program name	Result	Degree of reduction	Duration	Study setting
Safe Dates	A reduction in the composite score of various behavioural outcomes for physical, sexual and psychological abuse.	25 per cent less psychological abuse 60 per cent less sexual violence perpetration 60 per cent less violence perpetration	1 month after program end	USA
		56 per cent to 92 per cent reduction in perpetration and victimisation	4 years	

The evaluation studies (upon program end and after four years) suggests that there is a further beneficial increase up to four years after the program. The authors ruled out attrition and increase in socially desirable reporting as the cause of the favourable effects. Instead they attributed the positive outcomes to the program imparting relationship skills that were incorporated into their early dating 'careers'.[104]

Similar to the approach used to estimate the benefit of a community mobilisation program in Australia, we have generalised the effectiveness of a similar *Safe Dates* program in Australia by assuming:

- that women graduating year 12 from a government school have already been exposed to a similar program four years prior to graduation;
- a mass rollout of such a program across all government schools in Australia; and
- due to program being run in the USA, there is no need to discount the findings due to reduced generalisability.

As we have assumed that government secondary school children have been exposed to this program, we first estimated the number of women that graduate year 12 from a government school from 2014-15 to 2023-24. In 2014, there were approximately 16,000 women in year 12 in government schools in Victoria. This is compared to an estimated 68,000 women in Australia.[105] In a separate report, it was show that of the women in the population from the age of 15 – 64 years, only 63 per cent of them have a year 12 attainment. This proportion was therefore used as a proxy year 12 graduation rate.[106] It was reported that the number of children attending school from 2013 to 2014 grew at similar proportions to the growth in the number of children aged five to 17.[107] Assuming that this pattern remains the same until 2023-24, we have therefore estimated the number of year 12 graduations from 2015-16 onwards using the projected population of people aged five to 17.[108] The resulting estimates of women graduating year 12 from government schools are as follows:

[104] Foshee VA et al. Assessing the effects of the dating violence prevention program "Safe Dates" using random coefficient regression modelling. Prevention Science, (2005), 6:245–257.
[105] Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) Schools, Australia, 2014 Cat no. 4221.0
[106] Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) Education and Work, Australia, May 2014. Cat no. 6227.0
[107] Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) Schools, Australia, 2014 Cat no. 4221.0
[108] Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS), Population Projections, Australia, 2012 (base) to 2101. Cat no. 3222.0

	2014-15	2015-16	2016-17	2017-18	2018-19	2019-20	2020-21	2021-22	2022-23	2023-24
Victoria	10,244	10,594	10,778	10,967	11,166	11,376	11,590	11,801	12,004	12,181
Australia	42,820	44,285	45,053	45,845	46,673	47,554	48,445	49,330	50,178	50,918

A recent report by ANROWS suggests that 3.1% of women aged 18 – 24, experience intimate partner violence in a year.[109] Assuming that the reported rate of intimate partner violence does not change until 2023-24, we estimate that of the women graduating year 12 in each year, the following may experience intimate partner violence

	2014-15	2015-16	2016-17	2017-18	2018-19	2019-20	2020-21	2021-22	2022-23	2023-24
Victoria	318	328	334	340	346	353	359	366	372	378
Australia	1327	1,373	1,397	1,421	1,447	1,474	1,502	1,529	1,556	1,578

We focus on the experience of intimate partner violence to better capture relationships beyond a partner that a woman lives with. Intimate partners capture boyfriends and dates which therefore provides a better reflection of the types of relationships that these women may form at this younger age.

It was lastly assumed that 10% of students already experience a similar program and therefore to account for programs already in existance we have discounted the calculated value by that rate. We finally apply the 56 per cent reduction in violence as the lower range and 92 per cent as the upper range towards the women experiencing intimate partner violence each year until 2023-24.

Our approach to calculate the lifetime, 10-year and one year benefits are the same as that used in the calculations for community mobilisation.

We have finally estimated an approximate cost of delivering such program annually in Australia based on the costings of a similar schools based relationship program in Australia. At approximately $50 per student per over five years, this therefore equates to an approximate annual cost of $10 per student per year.[110] This cost includes setup costs for a program. Therefore we multiply this value by the estimated number of women graduating year 12 to approximate the costs to deliver a similar program in Australia. We note once more that this cost is an indicator based on a school based program currently being delivered in Australia. It is not our intention to suggest that the costs of future programs will be the same nor that programs created in other countries can be applied to Australia without appropriate contextualisation.

[109] Australia's National Research Organisation for Women's Safety, October 2015, Violence against women: Additional analysis on the Australian Bureau of Statistics' Personal Safety Survey 2012, Alexandria, NSW.

[110] Commercial in confidence

Thank you

We would like to thank the Advisory Panel who have worked on this report and to the broader group who have shared with us their knowledge and expertise in the field of preventing violence against women. Their active and candid participation in the analysis and development of the report was the key success factor for this document. We greatly appreciate their willingness to take the time to make this important document possible. Thank you once more for helping us show why it is worthwhile preventing violence against women in Australia.

We note that participation in the Advisory Panel does not indicate approval or endorsement of the report's findings.

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- Kelsey Hegarty, Violence Against Women Forum, University of Melbourne
- Emma Fulu, Affiliated with What Works to Prevent Violence Against Women and Girls Global Programme
- Antonia Quadara, Australian Institute of Family Studies
- Andrew Gargett, Aboriginal Family Violence Prevention and Legal Service Victoria
- Marilyn Beaumont, Australian Women's Health Network

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