Community Attitudes to Violence Against Women Survey: A Full Technical Report

Paper One of the Violence Against Women Community Attitudes Project

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State Government
Victoria

VicHealth

Community Attitudes to Violence Against Women Survey 2006

A full technical report

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Disclaimer

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Table of contents

List of Tables

List of figures

List of Abbreviations

AIC   Australian Institute of Criminology

CALD   Culturally and linguistically diverse

CATI   Computer assisted telephone interviewing

CATVAWS   Vic Health Community Attitudes To Violence Against Women Survey

95 CI   95% confidence interval

CIRCA   Cultural and Indigenous Research Centre Australia

IVAWS   International Violence Against Women Survey

LOTE   Speaks a language other than English at home

NESB   Non English speaking background

OSW   the then 'Office of the Status of Women'

RDD   Random digit dialling

RSE   Relative standard error

SCALD   Acronym for the four selected culturally and linguistically diverse groups in this study

SES   Socio economic status (refers to education, occupational status and employment)

SRC   Social Research Centre

Glossary

Culture	refers not only to race and ethnicity but also other forms of social differences such as socio economic status, labour market participation and other economic variables which are influenced by contemporary and historical social and economic factors
Gender	refers to the economic, social and cultural attributes and opportunities associated with being male or female in a particular point in time
Gender equality	means equal treatment of women and men in laws and policies, and equal access to resources and services within families, communities and societies at large
Gender equality scale	a scale comprised of five items (used by Inglehart & Norris 2003) to measure attitudinal support for gender equality
Rape	used interchangeably with the term "sexual assault" and "sexual violence" in this report. It is acknowledged, however, that these terms can often refer to different behaviours and definitions can vary across jurisdictions
Sex	used to refer to the biological characteristics which define humans as female or male
Socio-economic status	an umbrella term used in this report to refer to education, occupational status and employment
Violence against Women	refers to 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 private life

Executive Summary

This report presents the findings from a community survey, conducted on behalf of VicHealth in 2006. The survey aimed to gauge contemporary attitudes held by the community in Victoria toward violence against women, and to provide indicators of change in community attitudes since 1995. A total of 2800 persons were interviewed by telephone of which 2000 were randomly selected members of the general community (referred to in this report as the "main sample"), and 800 were members of four selected culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds (Chinese, Vietnamese, Italian and Greek), referred to in this report as the "SCALD sample". The response rates were 51% for the main sample and 42% for the SCALD sample[1].

The report also presents relevant findings from focus group research which was conducted both within the general community and with Indigenous members of the community. The purpose of the focus groups was to complement the survey research and scope out some of the issues relating to violence against women in more depth than possible in a telephone survey. In particular, it was felt that a focus group methodology, including Indigenous stakeholder consultations, was the most culturally appropriate approach to the investigation of these issues within the Indigenous community in Victoria.

How does the community define 'violence against women'?

What is defined as violence against women within the community varies. Some behaviours are much more consistently likely to be regarded as "always" violence than others. Eleven behaviours were read out to survey respondents who were asked to say whether these behaviours constituted violence. Pushing and slapping, forcing a partner to have sex, throwing or smashing objects near a partner to frighten them, or trying to scare or control one's partner by threatening to hurt family members were more consistently likely to be viewed as always domestic violence. Other behaviours, such as yelling abuse at one's partner, repeatedly criticising one's partner, controlling the social life of one's partner by denying them money and harassing one's partner by phone or email were more often "usually" or "sometimes" violence, indicating that whether and when these behaviours might be considered violence is context-dependent. Sometimes a behaviour is considered violent, at other times it is not. A simple "yes" or "no" to whether a behaviour is violent is not appropriate – the community discerns shades of grey in these behaviours. Other findings included:

- Sex differences within each of the main and SCALD samples were found for slapping or pushing, throwing or smashing objects near partner to frighten or threaten, yelling abuse, controlling the social life of one's partner by preventing them from seeing family and friends, controlling partner by denying them money, stalking and harassment by email. These differences reflected females within each sample being more likely than their male counterparts to regard these behaviours as violence;

- Sex differences between each sample for both males and females (male vs male, female vs female) were found for slapping and pushing, forcing partner to have sex, throwing or smashing objects near partner to frighten or threaten and stalking. These differences reflected both males and females in the main sample being more likely than their male and female counterparts in the SCALD sample to regard these behaviours as violence;

- Compared with males and females in the main sample and females in the SCALD sample, males in the SCALD sample were significantly less likely to view stalking, harassment by phone or email as 'always' violence.

Focus groups and interviews with Indigenous participants identified domestic violence, in particular family violence, as an important and serious issue of concern within the Indigenous community. The term 'violence against women' was most often associated with physical acts of violence.

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[1]   These response rates are comparable with those obtained in the Australian component of the 2004 International Crime Victimisation Survey (Challice & Johnson 2005) in which 6000 members of the Australian community were interviewed by telephone (53% response rate) as well as a booster sample of 1001 persons with Vietnamese or Middle Eastern backgrounds (46% response rate).

How serious is violence against women?

While the majority of survey respondents in both samples believed that violence against women in general is serious, respondents in the main sample were more likely to believe this than respondents in the SCALD sample. Beliefs about seriousness also varied with the behaviour in question. The behaviours perceived as most serious were forcing one's partner to have sex and scaring or controlling a partner by threatening to harm family members (78% of the main sample perceived these behaviours to be "very" serious). Other findings included:

- Females were significantly more likely than males in both samples to regard each of the eleven behaviours as serious;
- Males and females in the main sample were significantly more likely than their SCALD counterparts (females vs females, males vs males) to regard forcing one's partner to have sex, scaring or controlling one's partner by threatening to hurt family members, stalking and harassment by phone as serious;
- Yelling abuse, controlling the social life of one's partner by preventing them from seeing family and friends, controlling one's partner by denying them money and repeatedly criticising one's partner were perceived as the least serious behaviours;
- Males in the SCALD sample were, on average, significantly less likely than other respondents to perceive slapping or pushing, forcing one's partner to have sex, throwing or smashing objects near one's partner to frighten or threaten, scaring or controlling one's partner by threatening to hurt family members, stalking one's partner or harassing one's partner by phone or email as "very" serious.

Feedback from participants in the Indigenous component indicated that while awareness about the problem had increased, domestic or family violence was not viewed as negatively by the community as the respondents thought it should be. Many stakeholders felt this was most likely due to the relative prevalence of the issue in the community - as a result of the widespread nature of the problem of violence within the Indigenous community, there was a feeling that violence was 'accepted' to some extent.

Agreement with myths and stereotypes

There was a considerable spread of beliefs within both the main and SCALD samples relating to violence against women, and the degree to which individual community members adhered to myths or stereotypes about women and violence. Despite a concerted effort in recent years to increase awareness and education about violence against women, negative beliefs and stereotypes still exist within the community.

In particular and of some concern, a large proportion of the community, both male and female, held the views that

- domestic violence can be excused if it results from temporary anger or results in genuine regret;
- women going through custody battles often make up claims of domestic violence to improve their case; and
- rape results from men not being able to control their need for sex (responsibility for rape is therefore removed from men because it is regarded as not being within their control).

Negative attitudes toward women tended to be held more by males and those with weak support for gender equality.

When is physical force against women justified?

A series of scenarios were presented to survey respondents who were asked to indicate the degree to which a man would be justified in using force against his current or ex-partner. The vast majority of the community disagreed that force could be justified in any of the scenarios presented. Admitting to having sex with another man was the only scenario in which a slightly higher proportion of respondents in the main sample (4%) thought that force by a man might be justifiable against his wife or partner – three percent were unsure. There was stronger

disagreement with physical force against an ex-wife or ex-partner compared with a current wife or partner.

When asked if there were any other situation in which a man would be justified in using force against his wife or partner, 21 percent of males and 13 percent of females volunteered that a man would be justified in using force if he was trying to protect himself. To protect the children, and to stop his wife or partner from harming herself were also raised as situations justifying force.

Intervention in domestic violence disputes

While the majority of survey respondents indicated that they would be likely (either very or somewhat) to intervene in domestic violence disputes, there was a linear relationship between likelihood of intervening and familiarity with the victim. Respondents were most likely to say that they would intervene where a family member or close friend was a victim of domestic violence, and least likely to intervene when the incident involved a woman they didn't know. Respondents in the SCALD sample were significantly less likely than those in the main sample to say that they would intervene with someone they did not know very well. However, they were equally likely to intervene with a family member or close friend.

For those who indicated they would intervene in a domestic violence dispute, males were much more likely to say they would take a confrontational approach to intervention whereas females were more likely to offer emotional support and advice. For those who indicated that they would be very or somewhat unlikely to intervene with a family member or close friend, the most common reasons given were that it's "none of my business" or concern about their own personal safety.

Feedback from participants in the Indigenous component indicated that reporting on violent incidents was generally 'family business' and required a certain level of confidence and bravery, particularly if an individual was not assured total anonymity. A number of female participants felt it was "virtually impossible" for women who were victims of violence from close family members to report the crime.

Awareness and educational initiatives

Approximately three quarters of respondents in both the main and SCALD samples had recently seen, read or heard something in the media about violence against women. The main forms of media mentioned were television advertising and news and current affairs. Thirteen percent of those in the main sample who had seen something referred to the 'Australia says no' campaign. Fewer people in the SCALD sample recalled seeing this campaign - of those who had seen something only 4% of female SCALD respondents referred to this campaign.

The four key predictors of whether respondents had recently seen, read or heard something in the media were:

- higher education,
- higher proficiency in English,
- stronger support for gender equality, and
- a stronger belief that violence against women is a serious issue.

This finding may reflect the fact that those who are more prone to positive attitudes toward women are more likely to seek out, take an interest in and therefore recall media campaigns and interest in violence against women issues. It is also likely that television, radio, newspapers and magazines are more readily accessible by people with higher levels of education and higher levels of proficiency in English.

Changes in attitudes since 1995

Methodological and sampling differences between the survey conducted in 1995 on behalf of the then Office of the Status of Women and the 2006 survey conducted in Victoria mean that the two surveys are not directly comparable. Further, as the AIC did not have access to the 1995 survey data only limited proportional statistical testing could be undertaken on the

differences between the two surveys. Therefore the following differences should be taken as crude indicators of changes in community attitudes across time:

- forcing one's partner to have sex, throwing or smashing objects near one's partner to frighten or threaten, yelling abuse, controlling the social life of one's partner by preventing their contact with friends and family, repeatedly criticising and controlling one's partner by denying them money were significantly more likely to be seen as violence in 2006 than 1995;
- throwing or smashing objects near one's partner to frighten or threaten and repeatedly criticising were significantly more likely to be perceived as "very serious" in 2006 than 1995. However slapping or pushing and controlling one's partner by denying them money were both significantly less likely in 2006 to be perceived as "very serious";
- while the majority of people still view men as being the main perpetrators of domestic violence, 20 percent of respondents in 2006 believed that both men and women equally commit acts of domestic violence compared with 9 percent in 1995;
- 97% of respondents in 2006 agreed that domestic violence is an offence compared with 93% in 1995;
- 14% of respondents in 2006 agreed that domestic violence is a private matter to be handled in the family compared with 18% in 1995;
- 66% of respondents in 2006 agreed that women rarely make false claims of being raped compared with 59% in 1995;
- Six percent of respondents in 2006 agreed that women who are raped often ask for it compared with 15% in 1995.

Factors associated with attitudes toward violence against women

On a positive note, negative attitudes to violence against women are not held by the majority of the community. Those who hold negative beliefs can be differentiated from those who don't on a range of different variables, which helps to provide direction for where community awareness campaigns could be targeted. Some of these influences are stronger and more consistent than others and are worthy of some elaboration.

Sex

A strong and consistent association between sex and attitudes toward violence against women was found on most of the attitudinal measures included in the survey. On average, men held more violence-supportive attitudes than women. This was the case for both the main and SCALD samples.

Support for gender equality

A consistent finding in prior research is a relationship between violence-supportive attitudes and beliefs about gender equality and gender relations. Attitudes to gender equality were measured in the survey. When the effects of other factors were controlled, weak support for gender equality emerged as a significant predictor of violence-supportive attitudes across most of the measures included in the survey. This was generally true in both the main and SCALD samples.

Socio-economic status

The influence of three indicators of socio-economic status were investigated – education, occupation (white collar or not) and employment. The relationship between these indicators and violence-supportive attitudes was not as consistent or strong as those of sex and support for gender equality. However, these indicators were found to predict agreement with certain beliefs, such as "women going through custody battles often make up claims of domestic violence to improve their case" (less educated), "women rarely make false claims of being raped" (white collar worker), and "domestic violence can be excused if there is genuine regret afterward" (being unemployed).

Age

Age emerged as a significant predictor with a small number of measures in the survey, although not always in a consistent direction. In general, younger respondents were less likely

to hold violence-supportive attitudes than older respondents, both in the main and SCALD samples. For example, forcing a partner to have sex was significantly more likely to be regarded as domestic violence and very serious by younger rather than older respondents. Physical force against a current wife or partner was also viewed as significantly less justifiable by younger respondents in both the main and SCALD samples. This implies an age cohort effect in relation to acceptance and tolerance of violence against women. Controlling the social life of one's partner by preventing contact with family and friends, and controlling one's partner by denying them money were more likely to be viewed as domestic violence and very serious by older respondents, but only in the main sample.

Migration and settlement factors

Investigation of the relationship between factors associated with migration and attitudes to violence against women in the SCALD sample revealed some variation across the attitudes measured and the effects of these factors tended to be intermittent. However, significant factors found to be associated with holding violence-supportive attitudes (in addition to sex and support for gender equality) were: being born overseas, speaking a language other than English at home, having arrived in Australia since 1980 and having Chinese or Vietnamese heritage (as opposed to Greek or Italian).

The differences found between men and women in the SCALD sample on many of the measures in the survey suggest that attitudes toward violence against women in SCALD communities are influenced by the intersecting effects of gender and factors which may be variously associated with cultural heritage, migration or settlement.

Future directions

The findings suggest a number of avenues which could be pursued in changing community attitudes to violence against women. These include:

- Targeted education campaigns to both reduce uncertainty about what violence is, and provide information about when and where it occurs.
- Ensuring that awareness and education campaigns deliver a consistent, accurate and unambiguous message about the nature of domestic violence and when it should be reported.
- Emphasising criminal sanctions and social disapproval in mass media campaigns addressing violence against women.
- Providing factual information to counter myths and inaccurate beliefs which may exist within the community, for example, that forcing one's partner to have sex is domestic violence, that sexual violence occurs most frequently with known offenders rather than strangers, willingness of police to respond to domestic violence calls and length of time it takes to respond.
- Providing information about the consequences of reporting domestic violence, for example, likelihood of offender being arrested, whether victim will need to go to court. If reporting is to be encouraged then women need to know what will happen so they can make an informed decision about whether to report.
- Providing information about rights, entitlements and supports available to those affected by violence.
- Communicating to the community at large that violence is unacceptable and a violation of human rights, regardless of the cultural background of the victim or perpetrator.
- Further survey research with other recently arrived culturally and linguistically diverse communities to identify variations in attitudes and beliefs within those communities about violence against women.

In addition to community education, there are also a range of factors at the individual, organisational, community and societal levels that contribute to the formation of community attitudes to violence against women (e.g. childhood exposure to violence, some organisational and peer environments). This suggests the importance of also exploring a wider range of early intervention strategies.

1. Introduction

1.1 Background

VicHealth is an independent statutory authority funded by the Victorian government. Its mission is to build the capabilities of organisations, communities and individuals in ways that:

- Change social, economic, cultural and physical environments to improve health for all Victorians
- Strengthen the understanding and the skills of individuals in ways that support their efforts to achieve and maintain health.

The promotion of mental health and well-being is one of VicHealth's current health promotion priorities. Within this priority area, violence against women has been identified as a particular issue for focus given the evidential link between exposure to this form of violence and poor mental health. Research indicates that intimate partner violence alone contributes 9 percent to the total preventable disease burden in Victorian women aged 15-44[2].

The Violence Against Women Community Attitudes project is one of a number of activities being undertaken by VicHealth to support the primary prevention of violence against women. The aim of the project is to further develop the evidence and knowledge base required to foster community attitudes that support women to live free from exposure to violence, including threats of or fear of violence. Its specific objectives are to:

- Gauge contemporary community attitudes held in Victoria about violence against women and track changes in attitudes since 1995.
- Improve understanding of factors leading to the formation of contemporary community attitudes about violence against women, and
- Improve understanding of strategies that are effective in fostering community attitudes to support women to live free from exposure to violence.

The Violence Against Women Community Attitudes Project is being conducted to support VicHealth and its partners in planning and developing future activity to address community attitudes relating to violence against women. The core of the project is a survey of a cross section of the Victorian population on their attitudes to violence against women. This is the component which the Social Research Centre and the Australian Institute of Criminology were jointly commissioned to conduct and is the focus of this report.

Reviews have also been undertaken on behalf of VicHealth relating to social marketing campaigns and the factors which influence community attitudes to violence against women. While these reviews comprise separate components of the overall VicHealth project, some of their findings are incorporated into this report to provide context for the findings from the community survey.

1.2 What do we mean by violence against women?

Defining 'violence against women' is not straightforward. This is because there is lack of agreement about what is meant by 'violence' and what is meant by violence 'against women' (Mouzos & Makkai 2004). For example, is pushing someone or sending harassing text messages violence? If a husband verbally insults his wife or controls the purse strings is this violence against women? Mouzos & Makkai (2004) found that women who were victimised by a stranger were more likely to regard the behaviour as violence than if they were victimised by someone known to them, despite the behaviour being the same. This lack of agreement about what violence is undoubtedly contributes to inconsistencies in estimates of prevalence of violence against women and may mean that educational campaigns miss their target if the community (or elements of it) does not view certain behaviours as violence.

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[2] This was the finding of a study by Professor Theo Vos and his team with support from VicHealth and the Department of Human Services in 2003, following a review of the causes of poor mental health that indicated violence among women was an especially common phenomenon that had serious mental health impacts.

The 2004 International Violence Against Women Survey (IVAWS) measured three distinctive types of self-reported violence against women:

1.   Physical (including threats of physical violence)
2.   Sexual (including unwanted sexual touching), and
3.   Psychological or emotional (controlling behaviours such as insults, humiliation, restrictions on freedom).

One of the universally accepted definitions of violence against women is that of the United Nations. The United Nations Declaration on the Elimination of Violence Against Women General Assembly Resolution 48/104 (December 1993:2) defined violence against women 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 deprivations of liberty, whether occurring in public or private life".

While victimisation surveys provide estimates of prevalence of certain behaviours, the problem they potentially face is that the behaviours defined as violent are often determined by those who develop and interpret the surveys. That is, respondents are generally asked if they have experienced a particular behaviour, not whether they regard that particular behaviour as violence. This means that what may be interpreted in surveys as violence against women may bear little correlation with whether the respondent believed the behaviour was violent. At a broader level, this means that survey estimates of prevalence of violence against women may not reflect the community's understanding and interpretation of violence against women. As noted by Flood and Pease (2006) this distinction is important because the attitudes that the community holds in relation to violence against women play a pivotal role in

• the perpetration (and continued perpetration) of violence against women
• the way that victims respond to the violence (and indeed whether they even see themselves as victims), and
• how and whether the community responds to violence against women.

Within the community, the term violence against women can mean many different things and many different terms are used to describe it. Common terms include domestic violence, physical abuse, sexual violence, rape, sexual assault and harassment. Flood and Pease (2006) note that each term excludes some forms of violence and is subject to shifts in meaning. It is also likely that such terms are subject to different cultural interpretations (for example, the concept of rape within marriage may not exist within certain cultures and therefore would not fall within the scope of domestic violence for some people). Understanding how these terms are interpreted within the community is vital in terms of identifying where gaps in knowledge might lie, whether attitudes toward violence against women are shifting and where community awareness and education should be targeted.

1.3 The prevalence of violence against women

Estimating how often violence against women occurs within the community, and the percentage of women which experience violence, is not straightforward. Police data reflect the number of incidents which are reported to and recorded by police, but the vast majority of incidents are not reported to police. Victimisation surveys are another means of trying to identify prevalence of violence within the community but surveys also have their problems and findings will vary with the methodology used (mail out, phone or face-to-face), sex of the interviewer, whether the survey is dedicated to violence against women or forms part of a broader survey, degree to which surveys are random and representative of the community, willingness of respondents to answer truthfully, ability of respondents to remember accurately etc.

The 2005 Personal Safety Survey (ABS 2006a) interviewed 11,800 women face to face across Australia, aged 18 and over, about their experiences of violence. In the preceding twelve month period six percent of women reported to have experienced at least one incident of violence (physical and/or sexual). Five percent of women reported to have experienced at least one incident of physical violence in the previous twelve months.

The Australian component of the International Violence Against Women Survey (Mouzos & Makkai, 2004) interviewed 6677 women, using Computer Assisted Telephone Interviews (CATI), who were aged between 18 and 69 years, across Australia. This was a targeted survey investigating only violence against women. It found that in the preceding twelve month period 10 percent of the sample reported experiencing at least one incident of physical and/or sexual violence. Women were more likely to report experiencing physical violence (8%) than sexual violence (4%). The most common form of physical violence both in the preceding twelve months and during the lifetime was threats of physical harm. Indigenous women reported higher levels of physical violence than non-Indigenous women.   Indigenous women are also more likely than non-Indigenous women to experience sexual violence (Lievore 2003).

The IVAWS also found that women from non-English speaking backgrounds (NESB) reported experiencing less physical violence than those from English speaking backgrounds. Within the preceding twelve month period the rates of sexual violence were similar, but over the lifetime NESB women reported experiencing lower rates of physical, sexual and any violence compared with English-speaking women. However, these findings should not be interpreted to mean that violence is less prevalent for NESB women. Rather, Lievore (2003) suggests that what might be considered as violence by NESB women, as well as willingness to report violence, varies with personal, cultural, religious, language and institutional factors. There are likely to be barriers for NESB women in both identifying and reporting violence, in addition to those which exist for English-speaking women.

1.4 The 2006 Violence Against Women Community Attitudes Survey

The project which the Social Research Centre and the Australian Institute of Criminology were commissioned to conduct had two distinct phases.

Phase One

The first phase was a scoping study which aimed to:

- Identify surveys and other relevant forms of research designed to gauge community attitudes on violence against women that have been conducted in Australia since 1995 (the survey conducted by the then Office for the Status of Women);
- Identify relevant seminal international survey and research activity on community attitudes on violence against women conducted since 1995;
- Review the scope and methodologies employed in these surveys, as well as their findings; and
- Outline the implications of the above for the scope, design and implementation of the 2006 Community Attitudes Survey, including the implications for gauging attitudes in culturally diverse and Indigenous communities.

Phase Two

The aim of Phase Two was to design and conduct a survey to gauge community attitudes on violence against women in Victoria which:

- Could be used to compare key findings from the 1995 OSW survey;
- Was sensitive to the ethical and methodological issues associated with conducting research relating to violence against women;
- Produced reliable, valid and high quality data;
- Used methodologies, instruments and sampling procedures that enabled valid and reliable assessment of attitudes according to key socio-demographic variables;
- Produced findings compatible with the project aim of enhancing knowledge and understanding to inform policy and practice.

In addition to conducting a general community survey, it was further proposed to conduct a survey (same questions as those for the general community) with four culturally and linguistically diverse groups in Victoria and to conduct qualitative focus group research with both Indigenous and general community members to scope out some of the key issues

relevant within both communities. An Indigenous Advisory Committee provided guidance on the scope and nature of the research to be undertaken with the Indigenous community. Ten focus groups were held within the general community and eight 'mini-group' Indigenous community discussions were held, as well as eight Indigenous stakeholder/opinion leader interviews. This overall research plan is outlined in Figure 1.1.

Figure 1.1: Methodological Overview

Research Design

Scoping	• Planning Meeting with Project Advisory Group • Identify recent Aust/O'seas research • Assess implications for project **MAIN AGENCY: AIC**

	CULTURALLY DIVERSE	**GENERAL COMMUNITY**	**INDIGENOUS**

| Development, Design & Testing | • Specify target "CALD" groups
• 8 opinion leader interviews

MAIN AGENCY: SRC | • 10 general community focus groups (incl. some mixed gender groups) (Market Access)
• 10 cognitive pre-testing interviews (SRC)

MAIN AGENCY: SRC/MARKET ACCESS | • Utilise existing infrastructure
• Liaise with Indigenous Family Violence Taskforce members
• 8 in depth interviews with opinion leaders

MAIN AGENCY: CIRCA |

| Implementation | • Proven sampling methodology
• 800 interviews in 4 language groups
• Translated pre-survey letters questionnaire

MAIN AGENCY: SRC | • Proven response rates
• 2,000 general community interviews

MAIN AGENCY: SRC | • 8 mini groups (4 Melbourne, 4 Mildura)

MAIN AGENCY: CIRCA |

Preliminary Analysis, Detailed Documentation, Feedback & Review	• **Preliminary analysis** – preliminary overview using descriptive statistics and cross tablulations of the 5 main areas – violence generally, domestic violence, sexual violence and sexual harassment, community education, reduction measures • **Detailed Documentation** – synopsis of lit review, discussion of methodology, key findings, comparative analysis, future implications • **Feedback and Review** – Substantial amount of researcher time allocated to this phase of the project **MAIN AGENCY: AIC**

The scoping exercise from Phase One reviewed almost forty studies conducted in Australia and overseas since 1995 on community attitudes to and prevalence of violence against women. The purpose of the review was to outline the methodologies employed in previous research as well as the key findings. The main implications arising from the scoping study with regard to the design of the Victorian survey on community attitudes to violence against women included the need to:

- Identify key 1995 baseline measures for inclusion in the current survey to allow some degree of comparison with the earlier survey;

- Gauge community attitudes through questionnaires as well as focus groups. The focus group approach was the preferred approach especially when canvassing the perceptions of persons from Indigenous communities;

- Be well advanced in identifying possible questionnaire items and measures prior to the conduct of the qualitative research phases of the project so as to ensure 'design' benefit is gained from these phases of the research;

- Include issues in the questionnaire such as stalking and technology-based violence and harassment (e.g. email text messages);

- Include questions to identify 'attitudinal drivers' (e.g. socio-economic status and other demographics), and

- Incorporate issues of recall/recognition relating to awareness campaigns.

The quantitative component in Phase Two involved Computer Assisted Telephone Interviews (CATI) with 2000 randomly selected members of the general community across Victoria (main sample) and 800 members of four selected culturally and linguistically diverse communities (200 each of Chinese, Vietnamese, Italian and Greek backgrounds). It was deemed of interest to investigate attitudes in selected culturally and linguistically diverse (SCALD) communities to identify whether cultural background may be associated with differences in attitudes. Previous overseas research (see Chapter 2) indicates that this may be likely. The four above CALD communities in this study were selected for inclusion because their populations in Victoria (and across Australia) are high relative to others. At 30 June 2001 two percent of Victoria's population was born in Italy, while just over one percent were born in each of Greece, Vietnam and China or provinces respectively (ABS 2006b). Victoria was recorded as having the highest proportions of migrants from Italy, Greece or Vietnam than any other Australian state or territory.

It was also of interest to identify whether attitudes to violence against women vary with how long migrants have been in Australia (Chinese and Vietnamese migrants on average being more recent arrivals than Greek and Italian). Due to the fact that straightforward random sampling of the population would be an inefficient way of obtaining 200 respondents in each of these background groups (the majority of people randomly contacted within the community would not fall into these categories and it was necessary to obtain sufficiently large numbers within each group for purposes of statistical analysis) it was felt that a better and more efficient means of interviewing only people with these backgrounds was a surname-based approach using the white pages telephone directory. This involved the generation of a selection of known Chinese, Vietnamese, Italian and Greek surnames from the Electronic White Pages. Only first generation (born in the target countries) or second generation (one or both parents born in the target countries) immigrants were eligible for interview. This approach for interviewing people from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds was also used in the Australian component of the International Crime Victimisation Survey (Challice & Johnson 2005) in which people from Vietnamese and Middle Eastern backgrounds were interviewed. The approach was found to be an effective and cost-efficient means of contacting people for interview with these backgrounds.

The selected CALD survey was therefore a booster sample in which quotas for each of the four background groups were set and met. The main sample and SCALD sample were conducted separately. Hence, while the SCALD sample in the 2006 VicHealth Community Attitudes to Violence Against Women Survey was not strictly random in the way that the main sample was, it was nevertheless believed to be the most cost-efficient and close as possible to random as could be obtained.

The in-scope population for the surveys was persons living in private dwellings in Victoria aged 18 years and over. In households with more than one in scope person the 'next birthday' method of respondent selection was used to randomly select the person in the household to be interviewed. Given the subject matter of the survey and to ensure compatibility with the procedure employed in the 1995 survey conducted by the then Office of the Status of Women (OSW) it was decided that matched sex interviewing would be undertaken. That is, male respondents were interviewed by male interviewers and female respondents by female interviewers. Response rates were 51% for the main sample and 42% for the selected CALD sample. A full description of the methodology is provided in Appendix A. The questionnaire items are provided in Appendix B.

The quantitative survey was based in large part on questions included in the 1995 OSW Community Attitudes to Violence Against Women survey, conducted across Australia. This allowed for some general comparison on key questions over time. Some questions from the 1995 survey were reworded in the 2006 survey to clarify and improve the meaning of the question and to remove ambiguity. This decision was obviously made at the expense of comparability with the 1995 questions but it was deemed that the 2006 survey should be sufficient to stand alone as a survey addressing contemporary and meaningful issues. Contemporary items were also included in the 2006 questionnaire to reflect technological, social and attitudinal changes which may have occurred in the intervening ten year period (e.g. stalking and harassment by email). Cognitive pre-testing interviews were also conducted to refine wording of questions further and to identify the length of time it would take to administer the questionnaire.

Table 1.1 provides an overview of the two samples in the 2006 survey (main and SCALD), both unweighted and after adjustments were made so that the samples accurately reflect the age and sex distributions of the Victorian population.

Table 1.1. Characteristics of the main and selected CALD samples [a]

	Main sample				SCALD			
	Unweighted		Weighted		Unweighted		Weighted	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Sex								
Male	811	41	975	49	321	40	393	49
Female	1189	59	1025	51	479	60	407	51
Age								
18-24	139	7	260	13	47	6	73	9
25-34	262	13	377	19	75	9	117	15
35-44	406	20	390	20	192	24	292	36
45-54	418	21	353	18	208	26	133	17
55-64	362	18	270	13	120	15	82	10
65 and over	413	21	350	17	158	20	104	13
Birthplace								
Australia	1552	78	1514	76	175	22	260	33
Other	446	22	484	24	624	78	539	67
Speak LOTE at home								
Yes	215	11	267	13	670	84	640	80
No	1784	89	1732	87	129	16	159	20
Employment status								
Employed	1234	62	1313	66	382	48	447	56
Unemployed	58	3	49	2	53	7	49	6
Home duties	131	7	132	7	113	14	111	14
Student	62	3	106	5	25	3	37	5
Retired	469	24	367	18	203	25	131	16
Unable to work	34	2	26	1	22	3	21	3
Other	9	<1	6	<1	0	0	0	0
Formal Education								
Year 10 or below	391	20	313	16	280	35	210	26
Year 11 or 12	460	23	500	25	209	26	226	28
Trade/Apprentice	166	8	169	8	32	4	42	5
Other TAFE/ technical quals	105	5	102	5	31	4	37	5
Diploma	258	13	266	13	41	5	47	6
Degree or graduate diploma	418	21	437	22	154	19	185	23
Post Graduate	192	10	207	10	40	5	42	5
Total N	(2000)	(100)	(2000)	(100)	(800)	(100)	(800)	(100)

(a) Weighting is to effective sample sizes

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS, 2006 [computer file]

When compared to the Victorian population for sex and age, males and younger people were under-represented in both the main and SCALD samples (Table 1.1). When weighted according to age and sex distributions, Table 1.1 shows that:

- Males and females were equally distributed in both the main and SCALD samples;
- The age distribution of respondents was more evenly spread in the main sample while a higher proportion of the SCALD sample was aged between 35 and 44 years;
- 76 percent of the main sample was born in Australia compared with 33 percent of the SCALD sample;
- 13 percent of the main sample spoke a language other than English at home compared with 80 percent of the SCALD sample;
- While the majority of both samples were employed, a somewhat higher proportion of the SCALD sample was engaged in home duties (14% compared with 7%).

Year of arrival for Chinese, Vietnamese, Italian and Greek respondents

Of all Chinese and Vietnamese respondents in both samples (defined as those who were either born in China or Vietnam or had at least one parent who was, n=422), 87% were born overseas. Of all Greek and Italian respondents in both samples (defined as those who were either born in Greece or Italy or had at least one parent who was, n=491), 43% were born overseas. Hence a much higher proportion of Greek and Italian respondents were born in Australia compared with Chinese and Vietnamese respondents. Figures 1.1 and 1.2 show that the average years of arrival for each group (of those born outside Australia) were also different. Arrivals into Australia for Chinese and Vietnamese respondents were on average much more recent (49% arrived since 1990, median year 1989) than for Italian and Greek respondents (only 4% since 1990, median year 1963). This means that the opportunity for greater acculturation to Australia has, on average, been higher for Greek and Italian respondents.

Figure 1.2: Year of arrival for respondents not born in Australia with Chinese or Vietnamese background
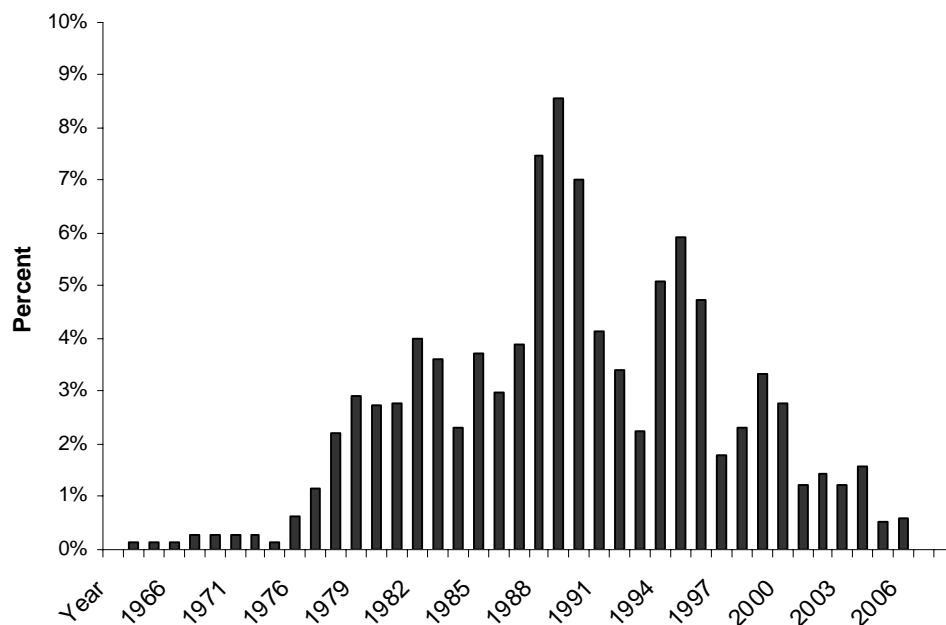
Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file], n=369

Figure 1.3: Year of arrival for respondents not born in Australia with Greek or Italian background
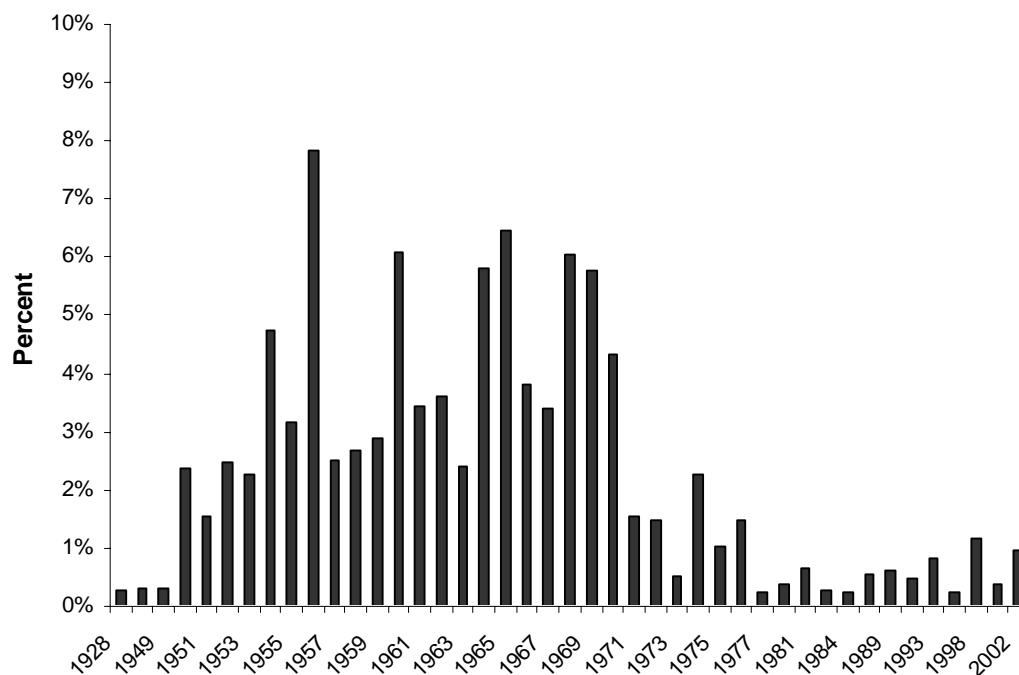
Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file], n=212

1.5 The structure of this report

The following chapters address particular themes of importance relating to violence against women. Flood and Pease (2006), in their review of factors which influence community attitudes, identified two key meta-factors which influence community attitudes to violence against women: gender and culture. The word gender refers to gender and gender attitudes, roles and relations while the word culture is used to refer broadly to class, race, ethnicity and other forms of social difference (other than gender). Gender, then, does not refer purely to sex differences and culture does not refer purely to race or ethnic background but also other variables which are influenced by contemporary and historical social and economic factors. It seemed appropriate to shape the discussion within each of the following chapters around these two broad meta factors. However, it should be borne in mind that many of the sub-components which might broadly comprise the meta-factor of "culture" were not able to be measured in the 2006 survey. While variables such as "country of birth/heritage" or "whether born in Australia or not" might comprise a sub-component of culture, these variables should not be interpreted as interchangeable with "culture".

Gender

A consistent finding in attitudinal research is that being male or female is a significant predictor of attitudes toward violence against women. Considerable research shows that males on average are less sympathetic toward female rape victims than are females (e.g. Nagel, Matsuo, McIntyre & Morrison 2005; Taylor & Joudo 2005). The OSW 1995 Attitudes to Violence Against Women survey found that females tended to define domestic violence more broadly than males and attached more seriousness to most forms of domestic violence. However Flood and Pease (2006) also noted that beliefs about the roles of men and women are an important predictor of attitudes toward violence against women. For example, those who support more traditional gender roles have greater acceptance of violence against women; those with more egalitarian beliefs about gender roles have less acceptance of violence against women. Inglehart & Norris (2003) link stronger egalitarian attitudes to nations with stronger economic growth and higher affluence. Throughout this report, therefore, the impact of both sex (male or female) and attitudes toward gender equality (comprised of a

score derived from the following five questionnaire items) will be investigated in relation to violence against women. This scale is based on a gender equality scale used by Inglehart & Norris (2003) and combines a battery of five items from the pooled 1995-2001 World Values Surveys which have been conducted in about 60 countries. These five items are similar to those commonly contained in psychological scales of gender equality and tap attitudes toward politics, the workforce, education and the family. Scores on the full five item scale were available across 60 countries for the 1995-2001 waves of the World Values Surveys and were calculated and compared by Inglehart & Norris (2003).

In ranking 60 countries according to their gender equality scores, Inglehart & Norris (2003) found that Australia ranked 11th behind other western countries such as Finland, Sweden, Germany, Canada and the United States. When plotted according to economic growth, the correlation between attitudes to gender equality and western countries became stronger. For a complete description of this scale and its derivation refer to Appendix C.

Gender Equality Scale (1=strongly agree, 5=strongly disagree)

1. On the whole, men make better political leaders than women.

2. When jobs are scarce men should have more right to a job than women.

3. A university education is more important for a boy than a girl.

4. A woman has to have children to be fulfilled.

5. It's okay for a woman to have a child as a single parent and not want a stable relationship with a man (reverse scored).

The Gender Equality Scale is scored so that a high score reflects greater support for equality between men and women while a low score reflects weak support for equality between men and women. The scores for item 5 are scored in reverse order so that when the scores for all five items are added up a high score consistently reflects greater support for gender equality. Figure 1.4 shows the proportions of male and female respondents in both the main and selected CALD samples who scored as either low, medium or high on the gender equality scale (refer to Appendix C for definitions of low, medium and high). For the main sample, males were significantly more likely than females to rate "low" on attitudes toward gender equality (reflecting weak support for gender equality) while females were more likely to believe in greater gender equality (stronger support for gender equality). For the selected CALD sample, however, over half of the males and about 40 percent of females rated as "low" on gender equality (significantly higher proportions than the main sample). The difference in attitudes toward gender equality between males and females in the selected CALD sample was therefore not nearly as marked as the difference in the main sample, but was nonetheless significant.

Figure 1.4: Attitudes toward gender equality by sample and sex
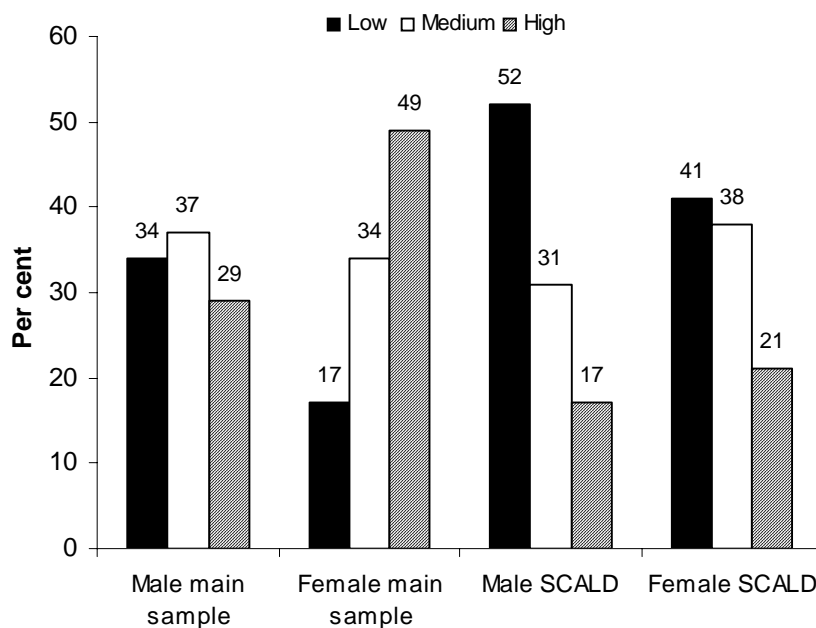
Note: Pattern differences significant between males and females in the main sample (p<.01) and in the SCALD sample (p<.05). Sex differences between the two samples significant to p<.01.

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Similarly, Figure 1.5 shows the proportions of male and female respondents who rated "high" on gender equality, as a function of whether or not they were born in Australia (combined samples). Again, while females were significantly more supportive of gender equality than males in general, those born in Australia had considerably more egalitarian views than those not born in Australia. Both males and females who were born in Australia were, on average, twice as likely as those born elsewhere to rate "high" on gender equality attitudes.

Figure 1.5: Proportions of all respondents rating high on gender equality by whether born in Australia or not (yes or no)
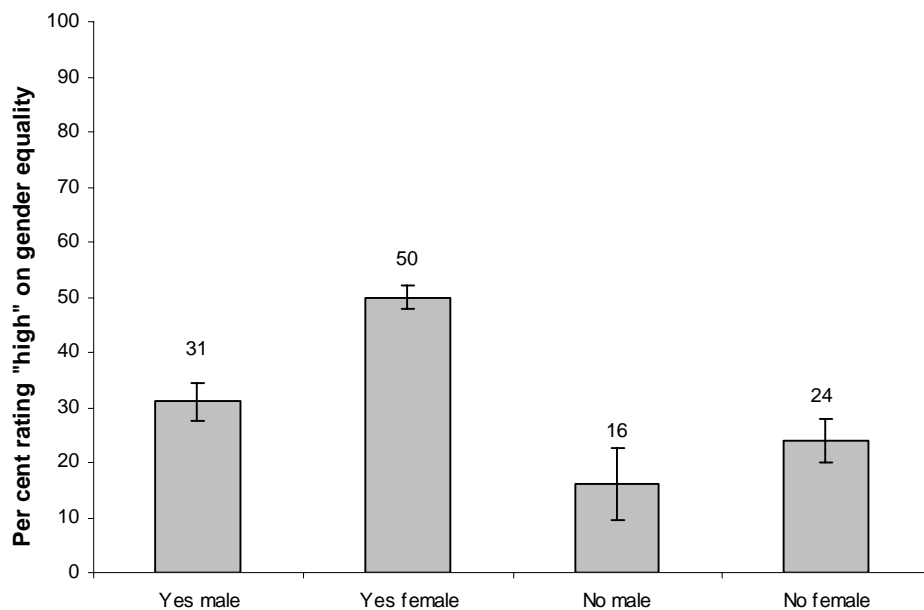
Note: Sex differences both within and between each sample significant to p<.01. Bars represent relative standard errors.

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Culture

Attitudes toward violence against women not only vary within cultures but can vary across cultural groups. In addition to demographic influences, attitudes may vary with country of birth, heritage, migration and settlement issues, societal norms laws and practices, cultural values, access to education, income, opportunities for employment, how women are regarded and treated more broadly within different communities and the roles of men and women within those communities. Australia has high ethnic diversity. At 30 June 2005 almost one quarter of the Australian population was born overseas (ABS 2006b). Of those born overseas, five percent were born in Italy, three percent were born in Greece, four percent were born in Vietnam and six percent were born in China or provinces (including Hong Kong and Taiwan). Of all people born overseas at 30 June 2005, about 60 percent had migrated from a country where English is either not an official language or where English is not the main language spoken by most of the population. Migration can increase women's vulnerability to violence, particularly when they are migrating from countries with patriarchal norms and values (Ahmad et al 2004). These women can face economic, informational, cultural and language barriers which can inhibit their access to support services and prevent them from becoming aware of the rights and laws in the country to which they are migrating. Vulnerability can also increase where family networks and social supports have been left behind.

Ahmad et al (2004) refer to the concept of 'patriarchy' as an ideology that refers to a set of beliefs which justify male domination over women in society. Patriarchal societies are more likely to have sharply delineated sex roles and, while patriarchal beliefs exist in all societies to some degree, patriarchal beliefs are less likely to be found in western societies due to increased autonomy of women and increased access to education and employment. However, as Ahmad et al (2004) note, women from patriarchal societies may themselves accept and adhere to patriarchal norms and values. Ahmad et al (2004) found that South Asian women who adhered to more patriarchal values were less likely to judge spousal physical abuse as domestic violence compared with those women who disagreed with patriarchal social norms. If women themselves accept patriarchal norms and values then they are less likely to define behaviours as violence against women, less likely to judge them as

serious, less likely to report such behaviour to others and indeed be less likely to define themselves as a victim.

Figures 1.2 and 1.3 illustrated the potential for migration and heritage differences in attitudes to gender equality. However attitudes to gender equality per se did not appear to be associated with year of arrival into Australia for those born overseas, either for Chinese/ Vietnamese or Greek/Italian respondents (Figures 1.6 and 1.7). There was no consistent pattern of relationship observed to indicate that support for gender equality became stronger (more positive to women) the longer that respondents had been in Australia. This indicates that time since arrival in Australia (and hence greater opportunity for acculturation to Australia's rights and laws) does not appear in and of itself to be the key driver of attitudes to gender equality, at least for the selected CALD groups in this survey. While this may appear counterintuitive it is relevant to note that more recent arrivals into Australia for both Chinese/Vietnamese and Greek/Italian respondents were correlated with being younger, that is, year of arrival in the sample was to some degree age-related. This may partly help to explain why some of the more recent arrivals in Figures 1.6 and 1.7 appear to show stronger support for gender equality. Logistic regression modelling throughout the report will help to tease out the influence (if any) of recency of arrival through controlling the effects of other variables, including age.

Figure 1.6: Year of arrival for respondents not born in Australia with Chinese or Vietnamese heritage, plotted against attitudes to gender equality
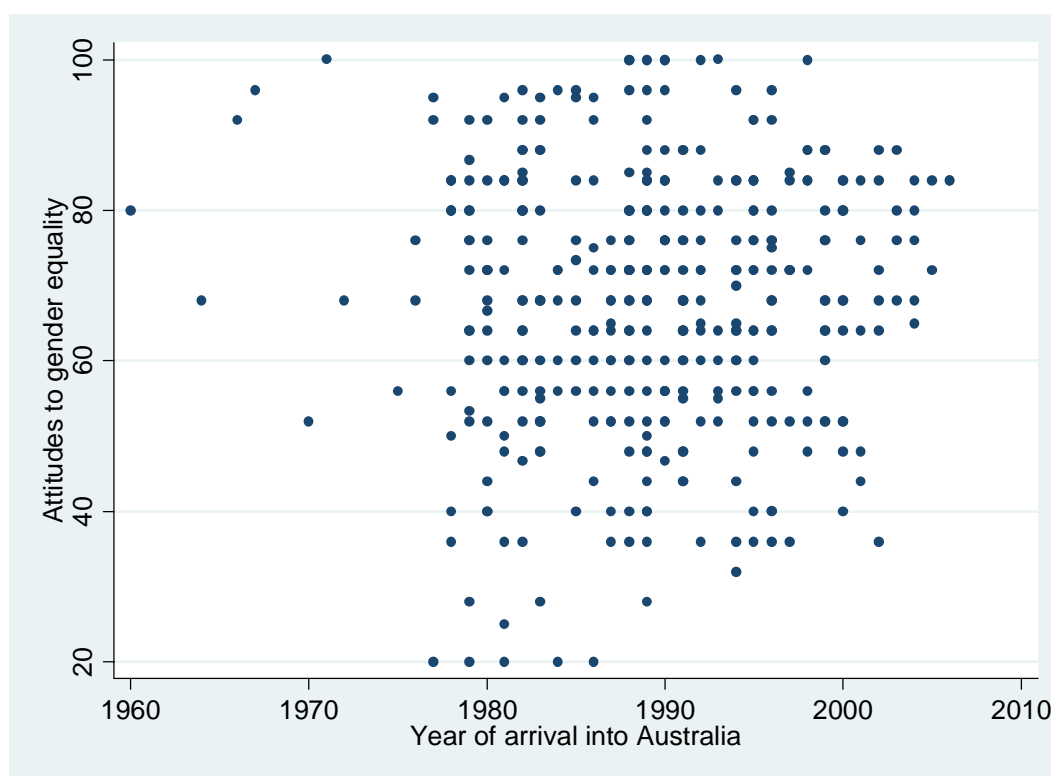
Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file], n=369

Figure 1.7: Year of arrival for respondents not born in Australia with Italian or Greek heritage, plotted against attitudes to gender equality
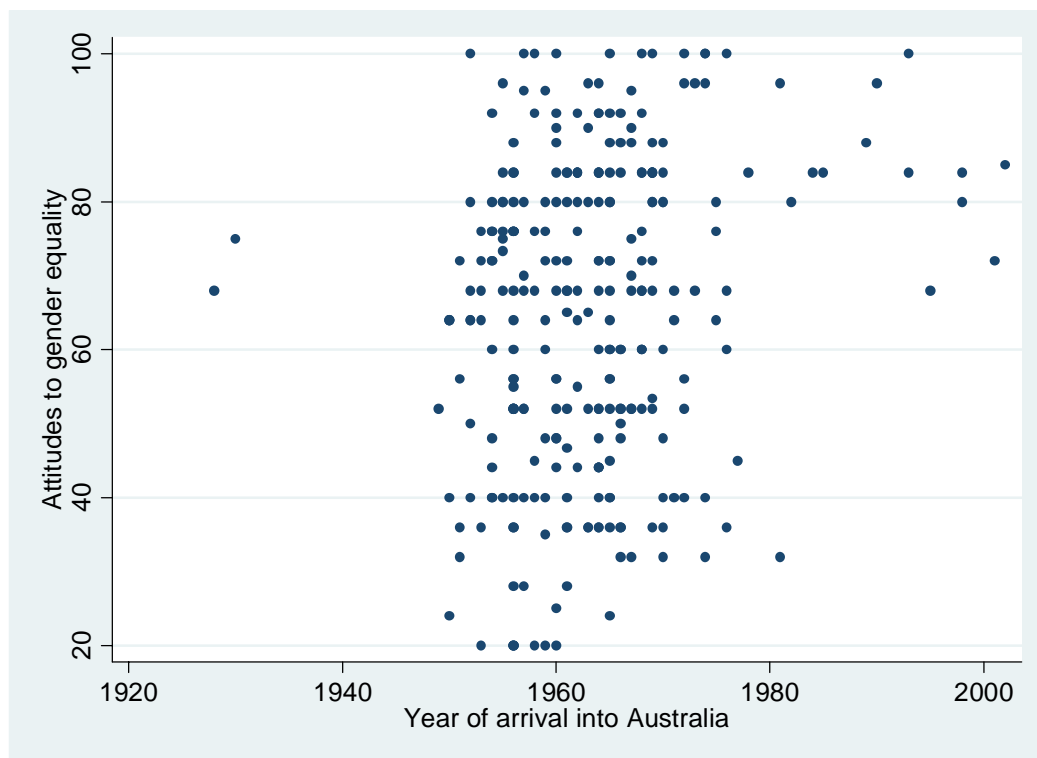
Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file], n=212

Flood & Pease (2006) note that the term 'culture' not only refers to race and ethnicity but also other forms of social difference such as socio economic status, labour market participation and other economic variables which are influenced by contemporary and historical social and economic factors. This report, therefore, also takes a broader approach to the term 'culture' – while the influence of heritage/country of birth on attitudes will be investigated in the following chapters, other cultural (socio-economic) influences such as occupational status, labour force participation and income will also be investigated.

Additionally, where appropriate, references will be made to qualitative findings from the Indigenous stakeholder and focus group discussions, conducted by the Cultural and Indigenous Research Centre Australia (CIRCA), as well as the focus groups held with the general community, conducted by Market Access.

1.6 Methodological issues and caveats

1.	In comparing the findings from this survey (main sample) to those from the 1995 OSW survey, a number of factors need to be considered. One key difference is that the 1995 survey was conducted across Australia while the 2006 survey was conducted across Victoria. Differences in the populations sampled mean that the findings may not be directly comparable. For example, in the 1995 community survey 62% of the sample was born in Australia compared with 76% in the 2006 survey. Comparisons also can only be based on the main sample, not the selected CALD sample. Another key difference is that, while many of the questions in 2006 were similarly worded in 1995, response options in 2006 allowed shades of grey (for example, always, usually, sometimes, never) while response options in 1995 tended to be more limited to yes/no dichotomies. While responses have been recoded in the 2006 survey when comparing with 1995 (always, usually, sometimes = yes), it is unclear to what degree, if any, the differences in response options may have affected how respondents answered the questions. The sequence in which questions were asked also differed between the two surveys. Given these differences, it is strongly advised against drawing definitive inferences between the 1995 and 2006 surveys. Rather, differences in findings should

be taken as crude indicators only. Where significance testing was conducted on percentages between the two surveys this was done using a "two independent sample z-test" (see Appendix D for an explanation of this test).

2.   Four culturally and linguistically diverse groups were selected for inclusion in the SCALD sample (Chinese, Vietnamese, Italian and Greek backgrounds). Although this sample throughout the report is referred to as the SCALD sample (selected CALD), to differentiate it from the main sample, the use of the term SCALD in this report is in no way meant to imply that these groups are representative of all culturally and linguistically diverse communities in Australia and the findings should not be interpreted as such. Rather, the use of the term SCALD in this report refers specifically to the four selected ethnic groups being sampled.

3.   The two samples have generally been kept separate in the analyses in the report. However, for purposes of logistic regression modelling, a "booster SCALD" sample was constructed which combined the SCALD sample with those from the main sample who were either born in one of the four SCALD countries or who had at least one parent who was. A total of 113 people were identified from the main sample as falling into this category and this number was therefore added to the SCALD sample of 800, bringing the total "booster SCALD" sample to 913. The rationale for using the "booster SCALD" sample when conducting logistic regression models was that we were interested in identifying key factors which emerged as important in influencing attitudes for all respondents who could be identified as having a background within one of the four selected CALD groups. When conducting logistic regression models for the main sample, the purpose was to identify key factors which emerged as important in influencing attitudes for the random and representative community sample – this means that the main sample remained intact (i.e. N=2000). Although 113 persons were therefore included in both samples for logistic regression modelling, the objectives of analysis in each were different.

4.   The 2006 survey data have been weighted in this report to represent the Victorian population by age, sex and geographic area. Throughout the report the data have been re-weighted to the effective sample sizes so that the original sample sizes are retained (2000 in the main sample and 800 in the SCALD sample) but appropriately weighted for purposes of inferential statistical analysis. The estimates in this report are subject to sampling error because they are derived from a sample of the population and not the whole population. In other words, the estimates may differ from results that would have been produced if the whole population in Victoria (aged 18 and over) had been surveyed. Where appropriate, 95% confidence intervals and the relative standard error (RSE) of the estimates have been calculated. A 95% confidence interval indicates that the probability is 0.95 that the true population estimate falls within this range. The RSE of the estimate indicates the extent to which an estimate might have varied because a sample was used and refers to the percentage of the estimate accounted for by the standard error (the RSE is the standard error divided by the estimate expressed as a percentage). Consistent with national standards (ABS 1996: 74) estimates with relative standard errors of over 25 percent are considered unreliable. While estimates with relative standard errors over 25 percent are presented in this report, caution should be exercised when referring to these estimates.

5.   The likelihood of finding significant differences between survey estimates increases as the sample size of N increases. This is because the power of statistical tests to detect small differences between estimates is enhanced when there are more cases (or persons) to analyse. This means that a small difference may be found to be significant with a large number of persons to analyse but the actual difference itself may not be very meaningful. In this report (except for Chapter 5 in which Ns are halved due to only half the samples being asked half the questions) the main sample has an N of 2000 and the SCALD sample has an N of 800. The booster SCALD sample has an N of 913. So as not to (misleadingly) highlight small differences due to the sample size, significance testing for the main sample when it equals N=2000 will be conducted at $p < .01$ (a one percent chance of error in saying there is a significant difference when there is not). For the SCALD and booster SCALD samples significance testing will be conducted at $p < .05$ (a five percent chance of error in saying there is a significant difference when there is not). This places a stricter significance level on the testing which is done on the main sample due to its large sample size.

2. Summary of research since 1995 relating to attitudes toward violence against women

Attitudes, values and beliefs about appropriate and inappropriate behaviour towards others are acquired through the socialisation process and particularly in early interactions with family, society, and peers. The development of negative attitudes can serve to reinforce behaviours, especially those which are violent. In recent years, there has been a concerted effort to address the issue of violence against women in Victoria and Australia as a whole. However, it has been recognised that in order to effectively respond to the issue of violence against women, a greater understanding of where the issue is located in the broad public opinion landscape is required (EKOS Research Associates Inc 2002).

Australian research

Since 1995, there have been over a dozen surveys and other relevant forms of research (see Table 2.1) designed to gauge community attitudes on some form of violence against women in Australia, or one or more of its States and Territories. Overall, the main focus of previous research in Australia examining community attitudes on violence against women has been predominantly on domestic violence. Few studies with the exception of those which focused on sexual assault have examined the broader context of violence against women generally. Surveys on attitudes on sexual violence against women generally focused on attitudes to "myths" about sexual violence.

International research

There has been a similar focus in the international literature (see Table 2.2) on domestic violence, although attitudes to sexual violence against women (specifically, rape) were canvassed in a number of studies as well. There was also a focus on perceptions and attributions of victim and perpetrator responsibility in certain situations, such as in an incident of domestic violence or sexual assault.

Tables 2.1 and 2.2 show that

- The degree to which behaviours are regarded as violence or an offence varies widely;
- Perceived seriousness of behaviours varies with sex, age and cultural influences;
- Acceptability of violent behaviour varies with sex, socio demographics and context;
- Males in general tend to hold more stereotypical attitudes in relation to violence against women and 'myths' about rape compared with females, and
- There are differences based on heritage and country of birth (possibly reflecting different cultural and background influences) in attitudes toward violence against women.

Table 2.1: Australian research into community attitudes to violence against women

Author/year /state	Scope, sample and method	Key findings
Australian Bureau of Statistics (1996) Australia	• 6,333 women aged 18 and over participated in either a personal or telephone interview completing the Women's Safety Survey • Participants were asked about their experiences of violence, as well as their perceptions about the last incident and reasons for not reporting to police • Information was also collected about women's feelings of safety when using public transport alone after dark, walking alone in their local area and while at home alone	• 27 percent of women surveyed who experienced an assault by a man did not report the last incident to police because they did not regard it as a serious offence • 35 percent of women reported that they felt unsafe when they had used public transport alone after dark at some time in the previous year and 52 percent of women felt unsafe while waiting for public transport • 34 percent of women felt unsafe walking alone in their local area after dark, and 22 percent felt unsafe while being home alone in the evening or at night

Davis & Lee (1996)
 	
Australia
	• 244 secondary school students (139 female; 105 male) aged between 14 and 16 years
	• A questionnaire containing seven sections was administered to the students
	• Included in the questionnaire were the following:
	  • A question on familiarity with the concept of sexual assault
	  • 6 questions on the perception of a "typical" sexual assault
	  • A question on personal fears of sexual assault
	  • 26-item, 5-point scale on myths about sexual assault
	  • 11-item attitudes towards forced sex within a relationship scale
	  • 21-item, 5 point attitudes towards women scale
	  • 12-item, 5 point attitudes towards heterosexual relationships scale
		• Girls were more likely than boys to report fear and to regard future assault as possible
		• Boys showed more myths about sexual assault, more stereotypes about typical sexual assault, more traditional attitudes towards women's roles, more traditional views about heterosexual relationships, and less negative views towards forced sexual intercourse
		• School year differences emerged suggesting that attitudes towards women, relationships and sexual assault may go through a process of development between the ages of 14 and 16
		• Sex differences occurred mainly on those items dealing with the meaning of girls' behaviour in dating situations
		• Responses suggested that sex-role stereotypes are well developed in adolescence, with males holding more traditional attitudes than females

Lovell (1996)
 	
South Australia
	• Consultations with informants from: the Domestic Violence Action Groups (DVAGs) in South Australia; country Women's Health Services and Shelters, other service providers, groups and individuals in both South Australia and interstate;
	• Telephone and face to face interviews/ discussions, questionnaires,
		• Issues of concern identified as:
		  • Distance and isolation
		  • Establishing confidentiality and trust
		  • Bush telegraph and gossip networks preventing women from talking about violence in their lives

	group meetings and sharing stories were all part of the process.	• Distinct male culture prevailing in rural communities • Sex role stereotyping • Medicalisation of domestic violence
Reddy, Knowles, Mulvany, McMahon & Freckelton (1997) Victoria	• Stratified random sample of 188 persons living in six suburbs of Melbourne representing low, middle and upper socio-economic levels • Participants were presented with vignettes describing two domestic violence situations, and were asked to assess attributions about the abusive husband and battered wife • Two vignettes were identical except for the outcome (one scenario ended with the husband being killed and the other scenario ended with the husband being taken away by police for assaulting his wife)	• Respondents tended to place blame on the male abuser, rather than on the female victim • Few respondents held the battered woman responsible for her own injuries • Respondents indicated that they believed that the violence was an ongoing and predictable aspect of the couple's relationship • Pattern of attitudes suggests a pervasive nihilism regarding the inevitability of domestic violence in the relationship • Findings indicate that people have different ideas about what causes domestic violence and the attributions are related to judgements made about the person who engages in violent behaviour
Office of Women's Policy, Northern Territory Government (1998) Northern Territory	• 164 respondents (97 females; 67 males) aged between 12 to 18 years • Questionnaire designed to test high school students knowledge about, and attitudes toward domestic violence and sexual abuse	• Majority of respondents agreed that domestic violence is a crime (98%); and that fighting between adults can affect children too (96%) • 90% of respondents disagreed that most girls who are raped ask for it • 90% of female respondents, compared to 69% of male respondents, disagreed that girls often say no to sex when they really mean yes • 89% of all respondents disagreed that domestic violence can be excused if alcohol is involved

Smith (1999)
 	
New South Wales
	• Focus groups (7 males; 4 females) were conducted with young people aged 16 to 18 years located on the Central Coast of New South Wales
	• Three questions were put to the focus groups:
	  • "What do young people's relationships look like?"
	  • "What does violence or abuse in relationships look like?"
	  • "How might violence in relationships be prevented?"
		• While there seems to be a belief that, generally, violence within relationships is unacceptable, for some this was found to be dependent on the circumstances of particular individual relationships
		• Fairly clear understanding that the major issues of violence are males and victims females
		• Acknowledgment that females also use violence in some forms to some degree
		• Young people's understandings of violence are informed by their personal experience as victims or witnesses of interpersonal violence

Apunipima Cape York Health Council (2000) Queensland	• Pilot group of 20 Aboriginal students at the Cairns campus of James Cook University • Four groups, each of 48 Aboriginal people living in four separate remote communities in Cape York • One group of 48 Aboriginal people living in a small mixed race township in Cape York • A total of 20 questions in relation to attitudes to domestic violence	• There was a high awareness of what constitutes domestic violence, although domestic violence was not seen as the same as family violence, or violence between persons dating • Women were more likely than men to acknowledge that relationship rape was a crime • There was considerable confusion about the expression "sexual harassment" • Roughly 90% of respondents thought that corporal punishment taught children right from wrong and was warranted • Blame for violence is overwhelmingly attributed to liquor • In terms of stopping or reducing domestic violence, apart from controlling alcohol consumption, the most frequently offered suggestions involved educational programs of some sort
Cultural Perspectives (2000) Australia	• Consultations were held with more than 280 people using focus groups, in-depth interviews and community meetings. • Participants included persons from the general community, from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds and Indigenous Australians. • Participants were selected from six language groups: Vietnamese, Cantonese, Bosnian, Tagalog (Filipino), Turkish and Arabic. • Attitudes of participant groups to defining domestic violence; when it is considered serious; its prevalence; the perceived causes; its acceptability; and its consequences were examined.	• Participants had a sound level of understanding of domestic violence, although sexual abuse was not spontaneously recognised as domestic violence; • Domestic violence was considered 'always serious' across all the research, although respondents from CALD backgrounds tended to state that physical violence is more serious; • There were mixed responses in terms of the prevalence of domestic violence, with Indigenous participants indicating that family violence is very prevalent and 'found all over'; • Men were more likely than women to believe that domestic violence was very prevalent; • Respondents reported a number of factors as causes of domestic violence, including financial and economic difficulties; drug and alcohol abuse; gambling; and previous experiences of domestic violence; • All groups considered that domestic violence was personally unacceptable and was also viewed as such by their community.

Indermaur, Blagg & Coase (2000)[3] Australia	• Stage one involved a series of focus group discussions and 'friendship pair' interviews in five diverse locations across Australia (Perth, Melbourne, Bendigo, Tamworth, Mt Isa) with 'mainstream' youth aged 12 to 20 (secondary school students, TAFE or university students, or young people working in either 'blue collar' or 'white collar' areas) • Younger children participated in affinity groups involving three to five friends • Further work was undertaken amongst specific 'risk' groups such as Aboriginal youth, homeless, NESB and 'victims' – i.e., youth already exposed or subjected to domestic violence • Stage two involved the interviewing of 5,000 young people aged 12 to 20 across all Australia (self completion of a questionnaire on attitudes and victimisation) • Sampling was conducted via stratified random sampling	• Most respondents rejected the use of violence in relationships • Young people were willing to classify a broad range of behaviours as "domestic violence", although a small proportion of young people still did not classify extremely violent behaviours as domestic violence • Differences in attitudes emerged based on whether the young people had witnessed or experienced domestic violence • Predictors of pro-violence attitudes included: socio-economic status (the more disadvantaged have more pro-violence attitudes); age (younger); sex (males); and Indigenous status (Indigenous)
Kane, Staiger & Ricciardelli (2000)	• Three groups (all males): • 23 men recruited from a community health service where they were participating in a family support program; • 30 Australian Rules football players recruited from an inner-city football club; and • a group of 30 community service volunteers recruited from the soup van by St. Vincent's de Paul • Four questionnaires were completed by participants: • Brief Anger-Aggression Questionnaire (5-point, 6 item scale) • Inventory of Beliefs about Wife Beating (two sub-scales: Wife Beating is Justified and Wives Gain from Beatings); • Interpersonal Dependency Inventory (48-item self-report instrument); and • Demographic questionnaire	• Men who used violence toward their partners were found to score significantly higher than both men on a football team and men volunteering for community service on aggression level and interpersonal dependency • No overall difference was found between men on a football team and men volunteering for community service in their attitudes to the acceptability of domestic violence • Results suggest that violent men experience high levels of dependency on their partners, and that excessive dependency may be related to the coercive and controlling behaviours common to abusive men.
Lane & Knowles (2000)	• 96 community members (48 males; 48 females) aged between 17 to 69 years • Three vignettes were used:	• Respondents assigned most of the responsibility for the violence portrayed in all conditions, with little responsibility being attributed to the victim or circumstances

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[3] The results from this research have also been published as part of the Partnerships Against Domestic Violence (PADV) (2001), Young people and domestic violence: Full Report, Commonwealth Attorney-General's Department, Canberra.

Victoria	- Vignette 1 involved no alcohol and moderate violence - Vignette 2 was identical except that the perpetrator drunk alcohol - Vignette 3 the perpetrator both drank alcohol and used a higher level of violence than in vignettes 1 and 2 - Participants responded to three attribution items (blame, causality and responsibility) for the perpetrator, victim and circumstances; 7-point scale; and selected one punishment for the perpetrator (six items) - Participants also completed the six item Acceptance of Interpersonal Violence scale (7-point scale)	- Respondents did not generally use alcohol consumption to excuse the violence - There were no differences related to sex or acceptance of interpersonal violence - Respondents generally supported milder forms of punishments such as fines or community service - Alcohol was found to be a salient factor in explanations for the violence, and if the perpetrator had been drinking recommendations for punishment were harsher - Participants were more likely to suggest a jail term when the victim was seriously injured
Pavlou & Knowles (2001) Victoria	134 community members (68 males; 66 females) aged between 18 to 64 years - Participants were given the same domestic violence scenario, with four variations: - Scenario A had no provocation by the wife; - Scenario D depicted the wife as most provocative; - Scenarios B and C contained only one provocation variable, that is, only jealousy or verbal aggression respectively. - The outcome (physical violence by the husband to the wife) was the same for all four scenarios. - Participants responded to three attribution items for the perpetrator and three for the victim on a 7-point scale - Participants assessed their affective reactions towards the perpetrator and the victim (7-point scale) - Participants also completed the Attitudes Toward Women scale (22 items, 5-point scale).	- Respondents overwhelmingly rejected the use of force in the domestic scenario presented - Attributions of responsibility, blame and cause were much higher for the perpetrator than for the victim, and the victim/wife was attributed very little responsibility, blame and cause for the event - Overall, respondents had little sympathy for the husband and a great deal for the wife - Respondents' negative attributions to the victim were higher for the high provocation scenario, where both verbal and a jealousy situation were present, than the other three scenarios - Across all scenarios, respondents with more traditional attitudes towards women attributed less responsibility, cause and blame to the perpetrator and more responsibility, cause and blame to the victim. They also saw the wife as more provocative and less sympathetic to the wife depicted in the scenario.
Xenos and Smith (2001) Victoria	608 secondary and university school students aged between 16 and 24 years - Self administered questionnaire booklet comprising: - Attitudes toward rape victims scale (25 item, 5-point scale) - Revised Attitudes toward women scale (21 item, 7-point scale) - Three sexual coercion vignettes (10-point scale)	- Males were less likely to believe a woman's claims of rape, and were more likely to attribute responsibility to the victim for the occurrence - Substantial proportion of students displayed conservative and traditional attitudes toward women - Younger secondary school students held more unfavourable attitudes toward rape victims than university school students

Australian Bureau of Statistics (2003) Australia	• 41,200 residents (males and females) of private dwellings included in the Monthly Population Survey aged 15 years and over completed the Crime and Safety Survey • Participants provided information on their experiences of crime, including their perceptions as to whether they considered the most recent incident to be a crime	• 58 percent of women and 57 percent of men considered the most recent incident of assault to be a crime • 77 percent of women surveyed considered the most recent incident of sexual assault to be a crime

Victorian Indigenous Taskforce (2003)
Victoria
	• Community consultations with each Indigenous community throughout the state of Victoria in relation to family violence, including factors/issues contributing to family violence	• Issues raised during community consultations with Indigenous people as contributing to family violence include:
		  • Cultural breakdown
		  • Unemployment- financial stress
		  • Alcohol and drug abuse
		  • Loss of role for men and women
		  • Learned behaviour
		  • Lack of support
		  • Shame to get support
		  • Lack of leadership
		  • Stress
		  • Victims follow through very quietly on Intervention orders
		  • Low self-esteem, low self-worth
		  • Poor standard of housing

Mouzos and Makkai (2004) Australia	• 6,677 women aged between 18 and 69 years participated in a telephone survey • Participants provided information on their experiences of physical and sexual violence from a current and former intimate partner, any other known male and a stranger • Participants also provided information on their perceptions to the violence, that is how serious they perceived the incident to be, and whether they considered it to be a crime	• Women who were victimised by a stranger were more likely to perceive the most recent incident of violence as a crime than women who were victimised by a person known to them • Victims of violence by previous/former intimate partners were more likely than those victimised by current partners to define the violence as a crime • Women who reported experiencing violence from a current boyfriend were more likely to classify the most recent incident of violence as 'something that just happened' more so than women who experienced violence from other known men or strangers • Whether injury was inflicted seems to influence a women's perceptions as whether they regard the incident to be a crime – just over two out of five women who were injured during the most recent incident of intimate partner violence considered the incident

		to be a crime, compared to 15% who did not sustain any injury
Taylor & Joudo (2005) Australia	• 210 members of the general public participated as 'jurors' in 18 mock sexual assault trials, held in a mock court room • Watched a one and a quarter hour trial take place live in front of them where a 'sexual assault victim' gave evidence and was cross-examined • 'Accused' was present in the courtroom but did not give evidence • Incident allegedly took place at an office party • Prior working relationship between victim and accused, friendly banter with sexual overtones, alcohol consumed by both victim and accused, victim did not report incident for two weeks and did not tell anyone at the party immediately afterward what had happened • Assessed attitudes toward victim, accused and also measured Attitudes toward Rape Victims scale	• Credibility of victim perceived as higher for females than males • Males held less favourable attitudes toward victims of rape in general than females • Those on lower incomes and who were more politically conservative in their views held more negative attitudes toward rape victims in general • A large number of jurors believed many of the myths which surround rape (e.g. a rape victim would shout and scream during rape, would immediately report the incident, flirting and dancing implies encouragement etc.)

Table 2.2: International research into community attitudes to violence against women

Author/year /country	Scope, sample and method	Key findings

Heaven, Connors & Pretorius (1998)
 	
Australia and South Africa
	• 136 psychology undergraduate students (23 male; 113 female) in Australia, and 76 (18 male; 58 female) at a traditionally White Afrikaans university in South Africa
	• Participants were provided with two vignettes:
	  • The first vignette described a mother of three who was assaulted as she crossed a dimly lit parking lot on a dark winter evening. Victim responsibility was manipulated in the two versions of the vignette – in the first version the victim was the president of the local historical society, and in the second version, the victim was a card dealer at the local casino
	  • The second vignette described a female student who was assaulted late one night as she walked alone to her campus residence Victim responsibility was manipulated – in the first version the victim resisted by screaming and fighting to break free, and in the second version, the victim offered no resistance
		• On the first vignette, Australians were less likely to blame the victim than South Africans
		• On the second vignette, Australians attributed less victim blame than South Africans
		• On both vignettes, victim blame was not a function of victim characteristics but rather the cultural group of the respondents. In both instances, the White South African respondents were more likely than the Australian respondents to blame the victim

Robinson (1999) Alabama, United States	• A randomised telephone survey (Omnibus Poll) of 403 Alabama residents aged 18 years or older • The survey contained seven domestic violence questions concerning public perception of the recent implementation of pro-arrest policies fir domestic violence by Alabama law enforcement agencies (scale of 0 to 4 respondents agreement to statements)	• Females, Caucasians, older respondents, the less-educated, and the wealthy were more likely to agree with police pro-arrest policies • Males, African-Americans, younger respondents, the well-educated, and the poor were less likely to agree with these policies

Mooney (2000)
 	
North London, England
	• North London Domestic Violence Survey comprising three stages:
	• Stage one:
	  • interviewer-administered questionnaire to 571 women and 429 men on avoidance behaviour, victimisation, policing and demographics
	  • Questionnaire included vignettes of a conflict situation where men could see themselves as using violence
	  • Males were asked for their opinion on violence, when it was justified – if ever – and if they had ever been violent to their
		• The vast majority of women considered physical violence that results in actual bodily harm to be domestic violence (92%), but mental cruelty was also seen by the vast majority of women as domestic violence (80%)
		• Rape was also viewed as domestic violence, indicating that most women do not support the myth that rape is only an offence if the woman is beaten
		• Definitions of domestic violence were found to vary by age, ethnicity and class

	partners (4-point scale) • Stage two: • Involved women respondents only; a sample of women interviewed for the first stage of the project were handed a supplementary self-complete questionnaire on domestic violence, together with a stamped addressed envelope (n=535) • This stage included questions on: definitions of domestic violence, the different forms of domestic violence perpetrated by current and former partners; their incidence and prevalence; the use of various agencies effectiveness • Stage three: • In-depth interviews with women who had experienced domestic violence (n=15)	• The perceptions of the males in terms of the likelihood that they would hit their partner could be divided into three groups: • Sexual infidelity: just under a third of the males indicates that they would be liable to hit their partners • Quarrels: a quarter of men said they would hit their partner if she hit them and 15% of all men would see this as justified • Domestic disputes: this is the least likely category for assault to be perceived as liable to occur. The one exception is the neglect of children • Both women and men have almost identical assessments in terms of their perceptions of men's ability to assault. The exception is the least likely assault category: disputes over domestic duties, where women see assault more likely compared to men
Verberg, Desmarais, Wood & Senn (2000) Canada	• Participants included 102 women and 68 men (aged between 18 to 85) who all lived in the same mid-sized Canadian city and indicated that they were single and available to date • Participants were recruited from a number of recreational and leisure groups/centres (gyms, retirement centres, socia clubs) • Participants were recruited for a larger study of positive and negative dating experiences across the life cycle that also included an assessment of participants' definitions of date rape ("How would you define date rape?")	• The majority of participants incorporated the concepts of consent and use of force in their definitions of date rape • The majority of participants also provided gender-neutral definitions of date rape, although awareness that rape was a gendered phenomenon was more evident among women than men • Women were more likely than men to emphasise rape and to mention and/or define consent
MacNeil, Stradling, MacNeil, Bethune & MacDonald (2001) Western Isles, Scotland	• Questionnaires were distributed to only four sampled post-code areas as well as left at service departments and central points in workplaces with large numbers of employees to be picked up • 106 participants aged between 25 and 75 years • Respondents were asked to consider four groups, all described by an association with domestic abuse: • Men who have abused others in their family or home • Women who have abused others in their family or home • Men who have been abused by others in their family or home • Women who have been abused by others in their family or home • Men and women who neither abuse others in their family or home, nor are abused by others in their family or home	• Just under half the respondents felt that domestic abuse experienced by women in the Western Isles was either high or very • Most respondents thought that abuse against men was minimal • People not associated with domestic abuse were seen as being well embedded in good strong family and social networks, with a high level of confidence and to be able to handle stress and take control of their own lives • Respondents scored men and women who have abused the scores for insecurity, possessiveness, the need to control, alcohol misuse or abuse and emotional and physical aggression. They also had the lowest scores for respecting others, taking responsibilities for their actions, handling stress and accepting men and women as equal partners

	• Respondents were asked to rate each of these groups on a wide range of situations, conditions and characteristics according to how closely such attributes were perceived to be associated with the group in question (5-point scale) • 12 group discussions (63 participants) were run with people who were active in the community. Discussions were structured around the above five areas	• The patterns merging from the women who responded to the survey and those from the men were very similar • Men who have been abused were viewed by the respondents as less successful in life, low educational success and income, as well as social isolation • Women who have been abused had some similarities with that of men who have been abused – they were seen by respondents as not particularly strong physically, and not attractive to others. They were felt not to have a good supportive social network, and to be seen as distant from their communities, on the fringes, unsupported and lacking in work skills
Lee & Law (2001) United States	• Cross-sectional survey using a convenience sample of 186 Asian American (Chinese, Japanese, Korean and Southeast Asians) respondents • 11-item questionnaire was developed to examine perceptions of issues related to sexual violence against women • 7 questions on respondents' perceptions of the severity and nature of the problem, preferred prevention measures, and help-seeking responses • 4 questions on respondents' knowledge of community services provided by the agency	• Respondents perceived the role of family members in the sexual victimisation of women as negligible, although respondents who had lived in the United States for more than 20 years were more inclined to recognise the potential role of family members as perpetrators • There was a general reluctance for the Asian American respondents to seek outside, professional help, with "feeling shameful" the most frequently cited barrier for respondents to seek outside professional help
Yoshioka, DiNoia & Ullah (2001) United States	• Short, self-administered questionnaires were distributed and completed (n=507) at five ethnic community fairs held in a northeastern urban area during the spring and summer of 1999 • Respondents of Chinese, Korean, Vietnamese, and Cambodian heritage were included the study • Two standardized measures were used: • Revised Attitudes Toward Wife Abuse Scale (4 or 6 point scale) • Likelihood of Battering Scale	• Between 24% and 36% of the sample agreed that violence was justified in certain situations, such as a wife's sexual infidelity, her nagging, or her refusal to cook or clean • Southeast Asian respondents were more supportive of attitudes supporting male privilege and the use of violence in specific situations in comparison with the East Asian respondents • Korean respondents were unique in their relatively weak endorsements of violence in contrast to the remaining three groups studied • Gender was found to be predictive of attitudes of male privilege, whereas educational level was predictive of one's endorsement of the use of violence in specific situations • Age was predictive of one's perception that battered women had some alternatives available to them

Basile (2002) United States	• 1,108 adult residents (18 year or older) of the United States were interviewed randomly by telephone as part of a 1997 national poll • Participants were asked a series of questions about marriage in relation to their perception of the occurrence and frequency of wife rape (5-point scale) • Participants were also asked to respond to three rape scenarios. The first involved the specific circumstances under which forced sex might occur in a marital relationship. Respondents were asked if they think that forcing sex on a wife by a husband "because he thinks she is leading him on" and "because she continually says no to sex" is rape • A series of items were collected to determine victim status (whether the respondent had been forced to have sex with a husband or intimate partner when they really did not want to)	• Respondent age and race were significant predictors of perceived occurrence of wife rape, with older respondents less likely to think that wife rape occurs • Blacks and other racial minorities were less likely than whites to think that wife rape occurs • More educated respondents compared to less educated respondents were more likely to believe the scenarios constitute rape • Current or past victims were more likely than non-victims to believe wife rape occurs

EKOS Research Associates Inc. (2002)
 	
Canada
	• National telephone survey of a random sample of 2,053 Canadians
	• Questionnaire was extensively tested with over 70 interviews prior to data collection
	• Series of ten focus groups were conducted across Canada. Separate groups were held with parents and non-parents in two cities, and mixed groups in the other cities
	• Participants were screened to ensure they had at least some interest in the topic
	• Questionnaire and focus group discussions covered:
	  • Issues related to public understanding and awareness of family violence
	  • levels of tolerance for family violence
	  • behavioural intentions with respect to intervening in a situation of family violence
	  • support for various ways to deal with family violence
		• Respondents have a quite expansive definition of family violence that goes beyond traditional conceptions focusing on physical violence within the immediate family
		• Individuals who have the most expansive definition of family violence tend to be women, people between the ages of 25 and 44, those who know someone who has experienced family violence or read or heard information about the subject, individuals who have children in the home and who are employed
		• More than three-quarters of the respondents believed that family violence should be an urgent priority for the federal government, as well as at the community level
		• Majority of respondents perceived the problem of family violence in society to be more serious today than ten years ago
		• A variety of factors were seen as influencing the occurrence of violence in the family, such as: stress, alcohol and drugs, lack of communication, history of violence, and need to control others

Elklit (2002) Denmark	• 312 (68 males; 242 females) Danish website visitors aged between 9 and 57 years • Attitudes Toward Rape Victim Scale (25-item, 5-point scale) questionnaire constructed to assess attitudes toward victim blame, resistance, credibility, denigration, responsibility, trivialisation and	• Men had consistently somewhat more negative attitudes toward rape victims than did women • Increasing age and education resulted in more favourable attitudes toward rape victims

	deservedness • Traumatic experiences measured by the Comorbidity Survey	
Tang, Wong & Cheung (2002) China	• Focus group discussions were conducted in three Chinese societies: • six groups in Hong Kong • nine groups in Beijing (PRC) • eight groups in Taipei (Taiwan) • Separate groups were held for male and female college students, and male and female blue-collar workers, professionals, and homemakers in each region • Trained moderators conducted discussions which focused on: • understandings of the term violence against women (VAW) • behaviours that would be classified as VAW • criteria in classifying behaviours as VAW • perceptions about the prevalence of VAW and its effects on victims and society • perceived factors in causing VAW • previous experiences with VAW • types of services for victims and perpetrators • types of punishment for perpetrators • the role of citizens and the state in combating VAW	• Chinese conceptions of women as legitimate victims of violence are constructed through representations of men as sick or being controlled by their impulses and of women as sex objects or naggers who trigger men's impulses or potential for violence • Although male and female participants were largely similar in their perceptions and attitudes towards various explanations and myths regarding VAW, male participants tended to endorse the shared responsibility explanation and to view women as active agents in causing VAW • Young and educated college students were more likely than older, less educated participants to reject various cultural myths, oppose victim-blaming explanations, and disrupt pro-violence social scripts
Bryant & Spencer (2003) New York, United States	• 346 (216 males; 129 females) undergraduate college students aged between 18 to 49 years • A questionnaire comprising two scales was distributed to the participants: • Domestic Violence Blame Scale (23 items, 6-point scale) that represent victim, perpetrator, societal and situational variables common to domestic violence • Straus Conflict Tactics Scale (19-items, 7-point scale) lists various tactics that might be used to resolve conflict	• Differences were found in how students attributed blame in domestic violence situations, with male students more likely than female students to attribute blame to victims of domestic violence • Male students who used violence in their dating relationships were more likely to attribute blame in domestic violence situations to the victim • Women were more likely to identify with victims of violence, and therefore more likely to blame the perpetrator of violence • Older students and students with a prior history of violence in their family of origin were more likely to attribute blame in domestic violence situations to societal factors
Fabiano, Perkins, Berkowitz, Linkenbach & Stark (2003)	• 618 students attending Western Washington University who received a mailed packet of research materials • The packet contained:	• For both importance of consent and willingness to intervene, men underestimated the healthy, supportive norms of other men • When men perceived consent before sexual activity to be a strong

Washington, United States	• National College Health Assessment (demographic information) • Violence Related Behaviors and Beliefs Insert (using modified items from the Discomfort with Sexism Scale and the College Date Rape Attitudes and Behviour Survey) – designed to assess students' attitudes and behaviours about violence and sexual assault, as well as to measure their perceptions of the typical student on the same topics (5-point scale)	norm for both females and males, they were more likely to report that consent was personally imperative • Men were more likely to intervene in a situation that leads to sexual assault when they perceived that other men were also likely to intervene in such a situation
Seelau, Seelau & Poorman (2003) United States	• 252 undergraduate students from a regional U.S. university (180 women; 72 men) aged between 18 to 46 years • Participants received a packet of materials containing a two-page summary of a domestic abuse situation that occurred between "a romantically involved couple", a 19-item questionnaire that included 8 scaled and 11 categorical dependent measures • Participants responded to one of four domestic abuse scenarios, in which the victims and perpetrators varied by gender and sexual orientation	• Overall, victim and respondent sex, rather than the couple's sexual orientation, primarily affected responses to domestic abuse • Domestic abuse perpetrated against women was perceived to be more serious and in need of intervention than abuse against men • Women were also more likely than men to believe the victim and to recommend criminal justice system interventions • Women and men responded no differently to gay and lesbian cases of domestic abuse than they did to heterosexual cases
Forbes, Adams-Curtis & White (2004) United States	• 264 (107 males; 157 females) college students from a small Midwestern university aged between 18 and 21 years • Participants received a booklet containing a number of scales used to measure the following: • Sexist Attitudes: Attitudes Toward Women Scale (16 item), Old-Fashioned Sexism Scale, Neosexism Scale, Modern Sexism Scale, Hostile Sexism Scale, Benevolent Sexism scale (7-point scales) • Burt's constructs: second generation Rape Myths Scale, and Adversarial Heterosexual Beliefs Scale (7-point scales) • Hostility Toward Women Scale (7-point scale) • Aggression: Conflict Tactics Scale (5-point scale), Sexual Experiences Survey (15-item scale)	• Second-generation measures of sexism and rape-supporting beliefs were found to be related to each other and to aggressive and sexually coercive behaviours • Relationships between attitude measures appeared to be based primarily on shared belief systems, whereas relationships between attitude measures and aggressive behaviour appeared to be based primarily on generalised hostility toward women • Men's hostility toward women, rather than sexist perceptions, or beliefs about rape are more closely related to their aggression and sexual coercion
Frese, Moya & Megias (2004) Spain	• 182 (91 males; 91 females; aged between 18 to 43 years) psychology undergraduates from the University of Granada, Spain • Participants were given a booklet that included instructions, questions about their sex and age, and a questionnaire to assess attitudes toward rape (Rape Myth Acceptance Scale; 7-point, 19 items scale) • Three short vignettes on rape scenarios were used depicting	• Participants with a high rape myth acceptance (RMA) attribute more responsibility to the victim, estimate victim trauma as less severe, and would be less likely to recommend the victim to report the rape to police than participants with low RMA • Characteristics of the context in which the rape takes place influence the social perception of this type of violence, with victim blame highest in the acquaintance rape situation, whereas in the

	acquaintance rape, marital rape and stranger rape, and participants were asked to: • Evaluate how much responsibility can be assigned to the woman for what has happened • Evaluate how much responsibility can be assigned to the male for what has happened • Whether the woman should report the incident to police • Each question was answered on a 5-point scale	marital and stranger rape, the responsibility of the woman was perceived similarly • There was no effect of participant's sex on rape attributions, rather results indicated that it was his or her preconceptions about rape.
Greger, Fischer & Eshet (2004) Israel	• Multi-stage cluster sampling design selected 900 students (10th to 12th grade) in the northwestern region of Israel • A self-report questionnaire which addressed the following topics: • Students' demographic background • The degree to which students endorsed date-rape and victim-blaming attitudes • Dating scripts related to who should call about, invite on, and pay for the date • The questionnaire consisted of 26 most often cited stereotypes graded on a 5-point scale	• Male students in lower grades were more likely than female students in all grades to support date-rape and victim blaming attitudes • Male students tended to endorse role and event schemata related to the length of the friendship, the time and location of the date • The majority of male and female students no longer support the view that "women who pay for their date or initiate the date are expressing an interest in having sex", nor did they support several of the stereotypes justifying sexual coercion by the victim's causal role • Students with lower SES were more likely than higher SES students to support stereotypes justifying sexual coercion by the time and the location of the date, the victim's behaviour, and the motive of the assailant
Lee, Pomeroy Yoo & Rheinbolt (2005) Texas, United States	• 169 college students attending one large public university located in an urban city in Texas • A total of 31 items (6-point scale) were used to measure students' attitudes regarding rape (28 items were drawn from the original Attitudes Toward Rape scale)	• Asian students were more likely than Caucasian students to believe women should be held responsible for preventing rape; to view sex as the primary motivation for rape; severe punishment is required for rapists; and rape is perpetrated by strangers • Males were more likely than females to think that women should be responsible for rape prevention and that victims precipitate rape • Males also held more negative attitudes toward women after rape
Nagel, Matsuo, McIntyre & Morrison (2005) St Louis, Missouri, United States	• 220 people (104 males; 101 females; aged 18 and over) responded to a randomly distributed mail questionnaire • Participants completed the Attitude Toward Rape Victim Scale (25 item scale designed to measure favourable versus unfavourable attitudes towards victims of rape) • Participants completed a demographics questionnaire	• African-American males differed from White and African-American females, whereas White males did not differ in attitude from the latter two groups • Younger participants expressed more favourable attitudes towards rape victims than older participants • Participants who are more educated reported more favourable

		perceptions of victims of rape than participants who are less educated
		• Having a greater income is associated with holding more sympathetic attitudes toward victims of rape

2006 Community Attitudes toward

Violence Against Women Survey

Findings

3. Defining 'violence against women' – What does this term mean to the community?

General community focus groups

The term 'violence against women' can mean different things to different people. In the general community focus groups, the tendency was for participants to initially think of domestic violence. All forms of sexual assault were next likely to be considered. Domestic violence was considered mainly home-based, or at the very least long-term, family-type relationship based. Focus group participants did not really think about domestic violence in the context of short-term relationships or dating. This definition of 'domestic' clearly stemmed from participants' understanding of the term 'domestic' as relating to the home or family situation.

Almost universally, physical violence within the home or family relationship was considered domestic violence. There was less consistency in whether verbal acts or mental and emotional abuse constituted domestic violence. While many participants agreed that something did not have to include physical abuse to be regarded as domestic violence, there were some dissenters who argued that without a physical component it was not really domestic violence. It was also mentioned that whether or not an incident should be regarded as domestic violence depended on the context and that it needed to take into account a range of factors associated with the relationship. For some, a single act of violence was not necessarily domestic violence and needed to be differentiated from more consistent and ongoing violence within a relationship.

When discussing the concept of sexual assault and sexual harassment there was a general acceptance that sexual assault usually involves a physical component. At one end of the spectrum was touching or fondling, while at the most serious end was penetration and rape. However there was some disagreement about whether the full range of these physical actions should be classed as sexual assault. For example, while some thought that fondling and touching were sexual assault, others believed that a behaviour such as pinching a woman on the bottom was acceptable in the context of flirting and sexual attraction. Others yet again believed that this might be classed as sexual harassment but not sexual assault. Many participants felt that sexual harassment was a difficult concept to define in terms of particular behaviours, partly because the line that determines harassment is somewhat grey and partly because the definition is both situation and person dependent.

Interviews and focus groups with Indigenous participants

When asked what the phrase 'violence against women' was felt to mean, the vast majority of spontaneous responses associated this phrase with physical acts of violence towards women:

"I just think of a brusied, battered woman"
"It makes it sound like violence than can kill someone"
"It's about men who belt their women"

Once prompted however, all participants acknowledged that other forms of violence also could fit within the definition of what constituted 'violence against women'. This included:

- Emotional violence: Women were more likely to make this connection;
- Incidents of family violence: "When you have parties and people get drunk, they start fighting. Family feuds involve the whole family"
- Harassment: Not linked to sexual harassment – The definition of 'harassment' generally tended to be anchored to workplace harassment;
- Elder abuse and neglect:
- Financial violence; and,
- Sexual violence: Less strongly linked to the notion of 'VAW' than other forms of violence.

The interviews and discussions with Indigenous stakeholders and community members revealed domestic violence and in particular 'family violence' to be an issue of significant concern. A number of stakeholders felt that 'domestic violence' was language more appropriate for the mainstream community as it typically denoted that violence is happening between two people.

'Family violence' was felt to be more suitable language when dealing with the issue in the Indigenous community as it communicated not only that violence was happening, but also that it could involve and/or affect the wider family.

Within family violence, a number of types of violence were identified as being issues within the Indigenous community. These included:

- Physical violence: This was felt to encompass any type of physical violence inflicted upon another individual;

- Emotional violence: Readily identified as an issue for the Indigenous community though felt to occur both in and out of the home and perceived to affect all parts of the community:

- Financial violence: Identified as a denial of access to funds or the irresponsible use of available funds for example, "the man takes all the money in the house and blows it on the pokies and leaves the woman at home with two kids";

- Sexual violence: This was perceived to typically occur within a family violence situation or, less commonly, outside the family environment;

- Violence against elders / Elder abuse: This could encompass children, young people and/or adults disrespecting, harassing and/or inflicting physical violence on elders in the community. This type of violence was mentioned quite frequently and was generally felt to be on the rise.

A number of stakeholders also mentioned that a minority of individuals in the community held relatively narrow definitions of what constituted violence, for example: "Some people still think it's just hitting – we need to change that". Stakeholders tended not to link sexual harassment within the broader family violence context. Rather, this was felt to be an issue that affected women specifically in the workplace and was often closely linked to bullying and expressions of emotional violence.

2006 survey

In the 2006 survey violence against women was broken down into two categories: domestic violence and sexual violence / harassment. Survey respondents were given a series of questions about different forms of behaviour relating to these two categories and asked about whether and to what degree they regarded each form of behaviour as either domestic violence or a form of violence against women.

Changes across time (%)

Table 3.1 shows the proportions of general community respondents in both 1995 and 2006 who regarded different behaviours as domestic violence or violence against women. For purposes of comparison, responses in 2006 were categorised into "yes" (always, usually, sometimes) or "no" (never). It can be seen that for all forms of behaviour (except one) which were asked in both 1995 and 2006, higher proportions of respondents in 2006 classified these behaviours as domestic violence. Denying partner money was the behaviour least likely to be perceived as domestic violence in both 1995 and 2006 (62% and 69% respectively). For the three more contemporary behaviours asked in 2006, about 9 in every 10 general community respondents regarded stalking and harassment by phone and email to be violence against women.

Table 3.1: Comparison of responses to domestic violence behaviours between 1995 and 2006 surveys (percentages)

Are these behaviours domestic violence?	1995 (N=2004)			2006 (N=2000)		
	Yes	**No**	**Unsure**	**Yes**	**No**	**Unsure**
Slapping or pushing partner to cause harm or fear	97	2	1	98	2	<1
Forcing partner to have sex	94	4	2	98 *	1	<1
Throwing or smashing objects near partner to frighten or threaten partner	91	8	1	98 *	<1	<1
Yelling abuse at partner	77	20	3	87 *	12	<1
Controlling social life of partner by preventing them from seeing friends and family	74	23	3	82 *	17	1
Repeatedly criticising to make partner feel bad or useless	71	26	3	83 *	17	<1
Controlling partner by denying partner money	62	33	5	69 *	29	2
Threaten to hurt	88	10	2	na	na	na
Tries to scare or control partner by threatening to hurt family members[a]	na	na	na	99	1	<1
Are these behaviours violence against women?						
Stalking[a]	na	na	na	93	6	1
Harassment by phone[a]	na	na	na	90	9	1
Harassment by email[a]	na	na	na	86	12	2

(a) Question not asked in 1995

* differences between 1995 and 2006 statistically significant at p<.01

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]; OSW 1995

Influence of gender

Sex

To examine how beliefs relating to violence against women differed between men and women, Figures 3.1 to 3.11 show the proportions of both the main and selected CALD samples who regarded each of these behaviours as violence, broken down by sex. Agreement that a particular behaviour comprised violence was further broken down into those who believed it was "always", "usually" or "sometimes" violence. Given the finding from the community focus groups study that many people believe violence against women is both person and context dependent, it seemed appropriate to allow shades of grey in responses rather than constrain responses to be either black or white (i.e. yes or no).

It can be seen that:

- The majority of both males and females in both the main and selected CALD samples viewed slapping and pushing, forcing partner to have sex, smashing objects, and threatening to hurt family members as 'always' violence against women;

- Sex differences within each sample were found for slapping or pushing, throwing or smashing objects, yelling abuse, preventing from seeing family and friends, denying partner money, stalking and harassment by email. These differences reflected females within each sample being more likely than their male counterparts to regard these behaviours as violence;

- Sex differences between each sample for both males and females (male vs male, female vs female) were found for slapping and pushing, forcing partner to have sex, throwing or smashing objects and stalking. These differences reflected both males and females in the

main sample being more likely than their male and female counterparts in the SCALD sample to regard these behaviours as violence;

- Compared with males and females in the main sample and females in the SCALD sample, males in the SCALD sample were significantly less likely to view stalking, harassment by phone or email as 'always' violence.

- Uncertainty about whether behaviour was violence within the SCALD sample was highest in relation to forcing partner to have sex, denying partner money, stalking and harassment by email.

Figure 3.1: Sex breakdown: If one partner in a domestic relationship slaps or pushes the other partner to cause harm or fear is this domestic violence?
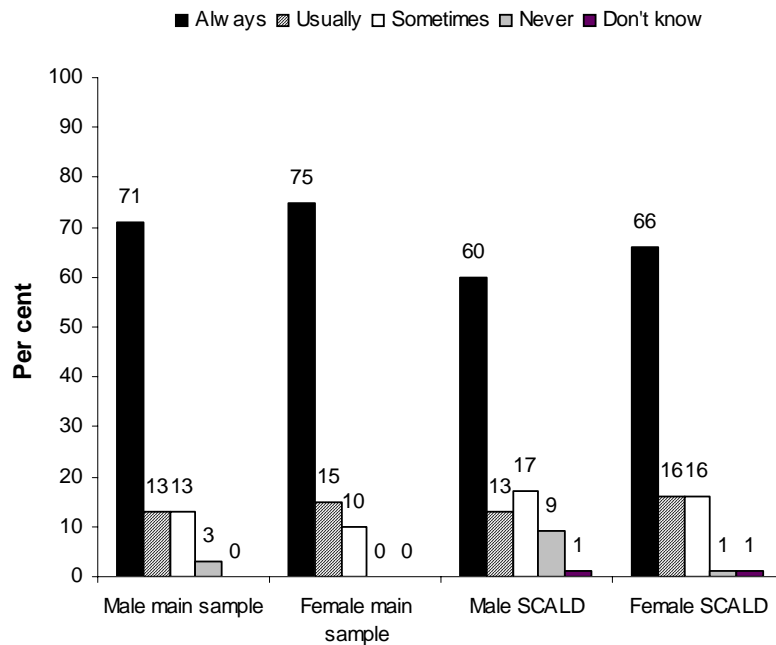
Note: Sex differences within and between each sample significant to p<.01.

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Figure 3.2: Sex breakdown: If one partner in a domestic relationship forces the other partner to have sex is this domestic violence?

■ Always ▨ Usually □ Sometimes ▨ Never ▨ Don't know
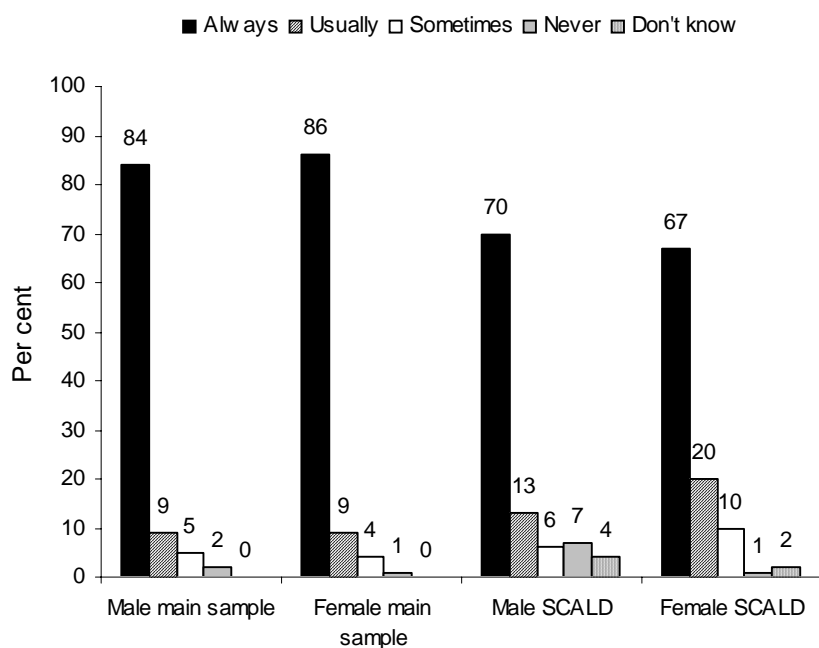
Note: Sex differences within and between the two samples significant to p<.01

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Figure 3.3: Sex breakdown: If one partner in a domestic relationship throws or smashes objects near partner to frighten or threaten is this domestic violence?
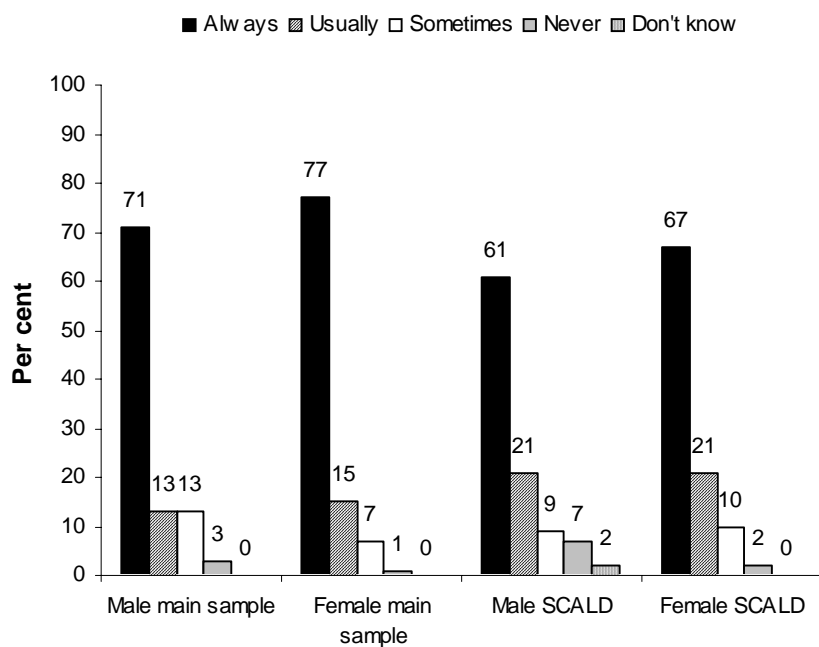
■ Always ▨ Usually □ Sometimes ▨ Never ▨ Don't know

Note: Sex differences within and between each sample significant to p<.01

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Figure 3.4: Sex breakdown: If one partner in a domestic relationship tries to scare or control the other partner by threatening to hurt other family members is this domestic violence?
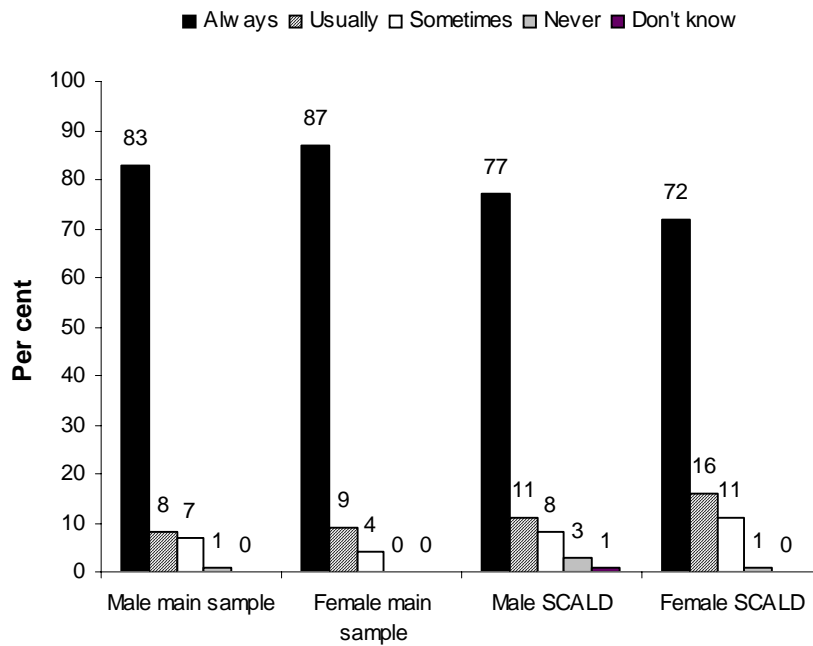
■ Always ▨ Usually □ Sometimes ▧ Never ■ Don't know

Note: Sex differences within main sample significant to p<.01. Female differences between the two samples significant to p <.01.

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Figure 3.5: Sex breakdown: If one partner in a domestic relationship yells abuse at the other partner is this domestic violence?

■ Always ▨ Usually □ Sometimes ▧ Never ■ Don't know

Note: Sex differences within each sample significant to p<.01. No sex differences between samples.

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Figure 3.6: Sex breakdown: If one partner in a domestic relationship controls the social life of the other partner by preventing them from seeing family and friends is this domestic violence?

Note: Sex differences within each sample significant to p<.01. No sex differences between samples.

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Figure 3.7: Sex breakdown: If one partner in a domestic relationship repeatedly criticises the other to make them feel bad or useless is this domestic violence?
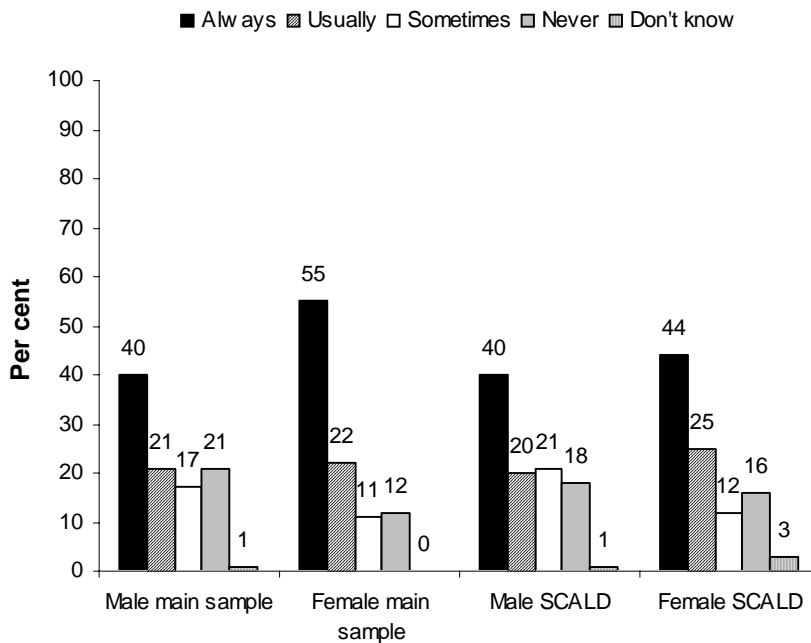
Note: Sex differences within main sample significant to p<.01. Female differences between the samples significant to p<.01. Male differences between samples not significant.

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Figure 3.8: Sex breakdown: If one partner in a domestic relationship tries to control the other by denying them money is this domestic violence?

■ Always ▨ Usually □ Sometimes ▨ Never ▨ Don't know
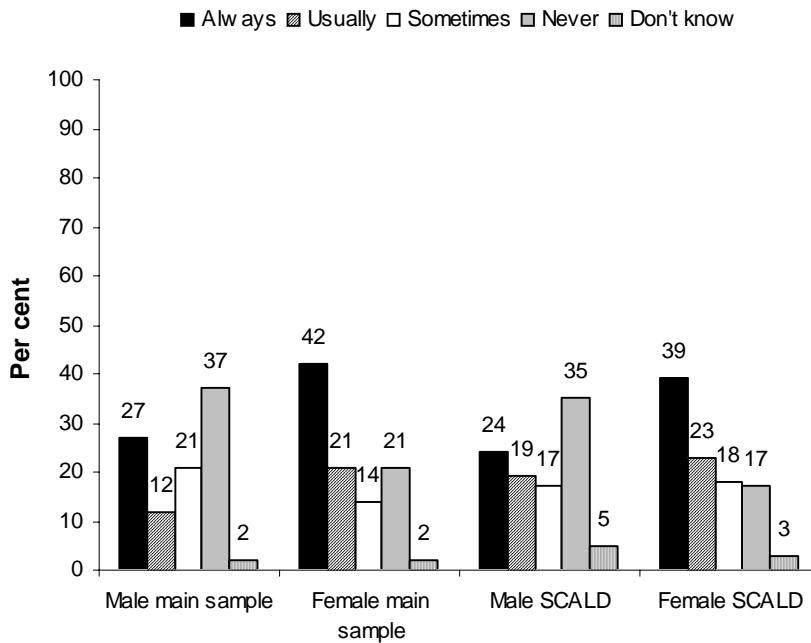
Note: Sex differences within each sample significant to p<.01. No sex differences between samples.

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Figure 3.9: Sex breakdown: Is stalking a form of violence against women?
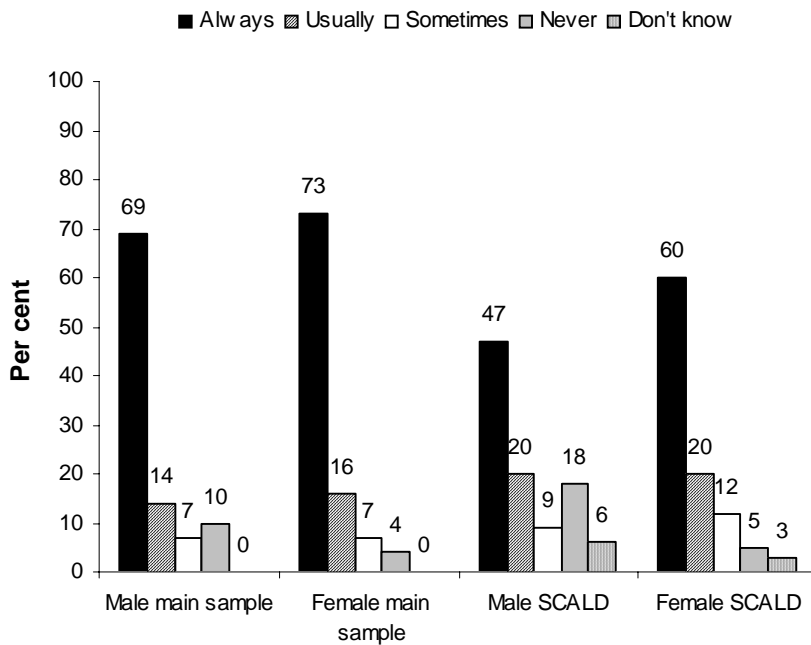
■ Always ▨ Usually □ Sometimes ▨ Never ▨ Don't know

Note: Sex differences within and between each sample significant to p<.01

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Figure 3.10: Sex breakdown: Is harassment via repeated phone calls violence against women?
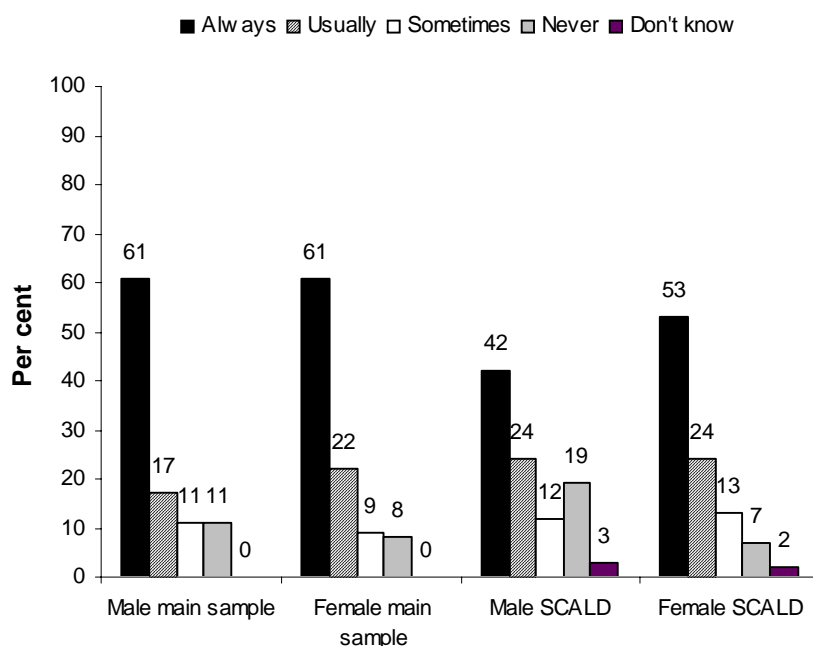
■ Always ▨ Usually □ Sometimes ▨ Never ■ Don't know

Note: Sex differences within SCALD sample significant to p<.01. Male differences between the samples significant to p<.01.

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Figure 3.11: Sex breakdown: Is harassment via repeated emails and text messages violence against women?
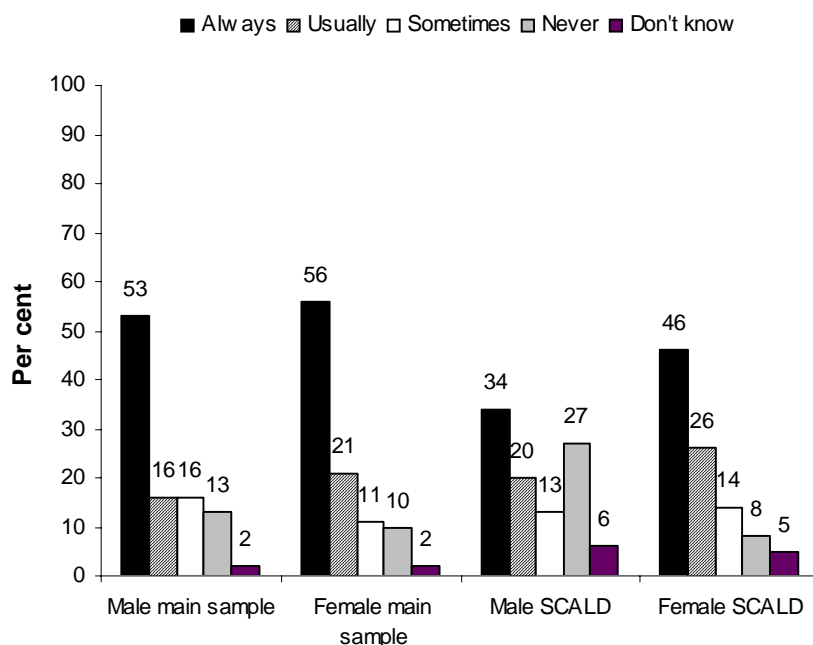
■ Always ▨ Usually □ Sometimes ▨ Never ■ Don't know

Note: Sex differences within each sample significant to p<.01. Male differences between the samples significant to p<.01. No female differences between samples.

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Gender equality

Support for gender equality was strongly associated with the degree to which respondents believed each behaviour was "always" violence (Table 3.2). Of those who were strongly supportive of gender equality (rated "high" on the gender equality scale), consistently higher proportions also believed that the behaviours were always violence. The relationship was also linear – lowest proportions of respondents believing behaviour was "always" violence tended to be those with weak support for gender equality.

Table 3.2: Percentage of main sample who believed behaviour was "always" violence, by attitudes toward gender equality (column percentages)

Are these behaviours always domestic violence / violence against women?	Gender Equality					
	Low		**Medium**		**High**	
	%	95 CI	%	95 CI	%	95 CI
Slaps/pushes to cause harm/fear	57	52 - 62	73	69 - 76	83	80 – 86
Forces partner to have sex	73	68 - 77	86	83 - 89	92	89 – 93
Throwing or smashing objects near partner to frighten or threaten partner	61	56 - 65	75	71 - 78	82	79 – 85
Tries to scare or control partner by threatening to hurt family members	75	70 - 79	85	81 - 88	92	89 – 94
Yelling abuse at partner	29	24 - 33	37	33 - 41	47	43 – 51
Controls social life of partner by preventing partner from seeing family and friends	39	34 - 43	48	43 - 52	58	54 – 62
Repeatedly criticises partner to make partner feel bad or useless	34	30 - 39	47	43 - 51	57	52 – 61
Controls partner by denying partner money	27	23 - 31	34	30 - 38	41	47 – 45
Stalking	56	51 - 61	72	68 - 76	79	75 – 83
Harassment by phone	51	46 - 56	61	57 - 65	67	63 – 71
Harassment by email	43	38 - 48	54	49 - 58	62	58 – 66
(N)	(506)		(709)		(784)	

Note: 95% confidence interval indicates that the probability is 0.95 that the true population figure lies within this range

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file], n=2000

Influence of culture

Whether born in Australia or elsewhere

Both the main and selected CALD samples were combined to investigate whether being born in Australia (or not) influenced attitudes about whether behaviours were considered violence. Overall, the vast majority of both those born in Australia and those born overseas regarded slapping and pushing, forcing partner to have sex, throwing or smashing objects to frighten or threaten partner and controlling partner by threatening to hurt family members as domestic violence.

Table 3.3 provides the proportions of respondents who believed that each behaviour was "not" domestic violence, by whether they were born in Australia. Those not born in Australia were significantly more likely than those who were to believe the following behaviours were not domestic violence:

- Slapping or pushing to cause harm or fear;
- Forcing partner to have sex;
- Throwing or smashing objects
- Yelling abuse at partner
- Repeatedly criticising
- Stalking

- Harassment by phone
- Harassment by email

Table 3.3: Percentage of combined samples believing behaviour is NOT domestic violence or violence against women, by whether born in Australia or not (column percentages)

Behaviour is NOT domestic violence	Was respondent born in Australia?			
	Yes	RSE[a]	No	RSE[a]
Slapping or pushing to cause harm or fear **	1	28	5	16
Forcing partner to have sex **	1	26	4	17
Throwing or smashing objects near partner to frighten or threaten**	2	20	5	16
Tries to scare or control partner by threatening to hurt family members	1	33	2	26
Yelling abuse at partner **	10	9	16	8
Controls social life by preventing partner from seeing family and friends	16	7	17	8
Repeatedly criticising to make partner feel bad or useless **	15	7	21	7
Denying partner money	29	5	26	6
Stalking **	6	12	12	10
Harassment by phone **	9	10	13	9
Harassment by email **	12	8	16	8
(N)	**(1774)**		**(1026)**	

Chi square differences significant to ** p<.01

(a) RSEs > 25 should be interpreted with caution

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data {computer file}, n=2800

Key predictors of beliefs about violence

To identify the demographic variables significantly associated with believing that behaviour was "always" violence, logistic regression models were conducted for five of the above behaviours (Tables 3.4 and 3.5). Models were conducted separately for the main sample (N=2000) and the booster SCALD sample (N=913). Controlling for the effects of the other variables in the models, it was found that:

For the main sample:
- Sex (being female) was a significant predictor of believing that preventing contact with family and friends, repeatedly criticising and denying partner money were "always" forms of violence against women. Sex did not differentiate forcing partner to have sex or stalking;
- Strong support for gender equality significantly predicted the belief that each of the behaviours was always violence;
- Younger respondents were more likely than older respondents to believe that forcing partner to have sex was always violence;
- Older respondents were more likely than younger respondents to believe that preventing contact with family and friends and denying partner money were "always" violence;
- Speaking a language other than English at home was associated with lower beliefs that behaviour was "always" violence for forcing sex, criticising and stalking.

For the booster SCALD sample:

- Sex (being female) was a significant predictor of believing that preventing contact with family and friends, denying partner money and stalking were "always" forms of violence against women. Sex did not differentiate forcing partner to have sex or criticising;

- Strong support for gender equality significantly predicted the belief that each of the behaviours was always violence (same as for the main sample);

- Younger respondents were more likely than older respondents to believe that forcing partner to have sex and stalking were always violence;

- Speaking a language other than English at home was associated with lower beliefs that behaviour was "always" violence for forcing sex, criticising and stalking (same as for the main sample);

- Those not born in Australia were more likely than those who were to regard denying partner money as always violence;

- Those more recently arrived into Australia (after 1980) were less likely to regard stalking as "always" violence, compared with those who were born in Australia; and

- Italian and Greek respondents were more likely than Chinese or Vietnamese respondents to regard forcing partner to have sex, criticising and denying partner money as "always" violence.

Table 3.4: Predictors of whether behaviour is "always" violence (odds ratios, main sample)

	Forcing sex	95 CI	Prevent contact	95 CI	Criticises	95 CI	Deny money	95 CI	Stalking	95 CI
Sex (female or male)	0.93	0.72 – 1.21	**0.48****	0.40 – 0.58	**0.57****	0.48 – 0.69	**0.52****	0.43 – 0.64	0.94	0.76 – 1.15
Gender equality (low or high)	**2.01****	1.47 – 2.74	**1.72****	1.41 – 2.10	**1.65****	1.35 – 2.00	**1.60****	1.30 – 1.97	**2.01****	1.60 – 2.51
Age (less than 44 or older than)	**0.57****	0.43 – 0.76	**1.57****	1.29 – 1.91	1.07	0.88 – 1.31	**1.74****	1.41 – 2.13	1.25	1.01 – 1.55
Occupation status (white collar)	1.48	1.07 – 2.03	0.89	0.71 – 1.11	0.96	0.77 – 1.20	0.85	0.67 – 1.07	1.12	0.88 – 1.43
Employed (no or yes)	1.13	0.83 – 1.56	1.23	0.98 – 1.55	1.17	0.93 – 1.48	1.24	0.97 – 1.58	0.94	0.73 – 1.21
Education completed (Up to year 12/trade or higher)	1.20	0.92 – 1.57	0.92	0.76 – 1.12	1.04	0.86 – 1.26	1.02	0.84 – 1.25	1.23	1.00 – 1.52
LOTE (no or yes)	**0.58****	0.39 – 0.86	1.11	0.83 – 1.52	**0.64****	0.47 – 0.86	0.92	0.67 – 1.27	**0.66****	0.48 – 0.90
Born in Australia (no or yes)	1.12	0.81 – 1.54	0.96	0.75 – 1.21	0.90	0.71 – 1.13	0.74	0.58 – 0.95	1.14	0.88 – 1.46
Remoteness (regional or city)	0.77	0.58 – 1.00	0.99	0.82 – 1.21	0.99	0.82 – 1.21	0.99	0.81 – 1.21	0.78	0.63 – 0.97
Model Chi square (9 df)	**99.40****		**121.81****		**88.08****		**101.74****		**75.71****	

significant to ** p<.01

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file], n=1993

## Table 3.5: Predictors of whether behaviour is "always" violence (odds ratios, booster SCALD sample)

	Forcing sex	95 CI	Prevent contact	95 CI	Criticises	95 CI	Deny money	95 CI	Stalking	95 CI
Sex (female or male)	1.19	0.85 – 1.66	**0.61****	0.45 – 0.82	0.82	0.61 – 1.12	**0.52****	0.38 – 0.72	**0.61****	0.45 – 0.83
Gender equality (low or high)	**3.38****	2.00 – 5.70	**2.83****	1.96 – 4.11	**2.33****	1.62 – 3.35	**2.67****	1.85 – 3.86	**2.89****	1.91 – 4.36
Age (less than 44 or older than)	**0.62***	0.43 – 0.91	1.13	0.80 – 1.60	0.76	0.53 – 1.09	0.82	0.56 – 1.19	**0.64***	0.44 – 0.92
Occupation status (white collar)	1.06	0.73 – 1.54	**0.72***	0.51 – 0.98	0.82	0.58 – 1.14	0.88	0.62 – 1.25	0.89	0.63 – 1.26
Employed (no or yes)	1.16	0.81 – 1.65	**1.43***	1.03 –1.99	1.01	0.72 – 1.41	0.97	0.67 – 1.37	1.05	0.75 – 1.48
Education completed (Up to year 12/trade or higher)	0.88	0.62 – 1.24	0.79	0.59 – 1.08	**0.63****	0.46 – 0.86	0.97	0.70 – 1.35	**0.66***	0.48 – 0.91
LOTE (no or yes)	**0.41****	0.25 – 0.68	1.15	0.80 – 1.66	**0.60***	0.42 – 0.87	0.70	0.48 – 1.02	**0.60***	0.40 – 0.89
Heritage (Chinese/Vietnamese or Italian/Greek)	**1.81***	1.03 – 3.15	1.50	0.94 – 2.41	**1.63***	1.02 – 2.62	**1.85***	1.12 – 3.07	1.44	0.88 – 2.35
Arrived in Aust prior to 1980	0.75	0.44 – 1.27	0.98	0.63 – 1.54	0.88	0.56 – 1.39	**2.50****	1.55 – 4.03	0.77	0.48 – 1.23
Arrived in Aust after 1980	0.76	0.41 – 1.42	0.94	0.56 – 1.60	0.70	0.41 – 1.19	**2.07***	1.16 – 3.67	**0.50***	0.29 – 0.87
Remoteness (regional or city)	1.10	0.65 – 1.86	0.96	0.63 – 1.46	0.97	0.64 – 1.48	0.80	0.52 – 1.23	0.90	0.57 – 1.42
Model Chi square (12 df)	**115.36****		**68.59****		**93.63****		**76.76****		**138.01****	

significant to ** p<.01   *p<.05

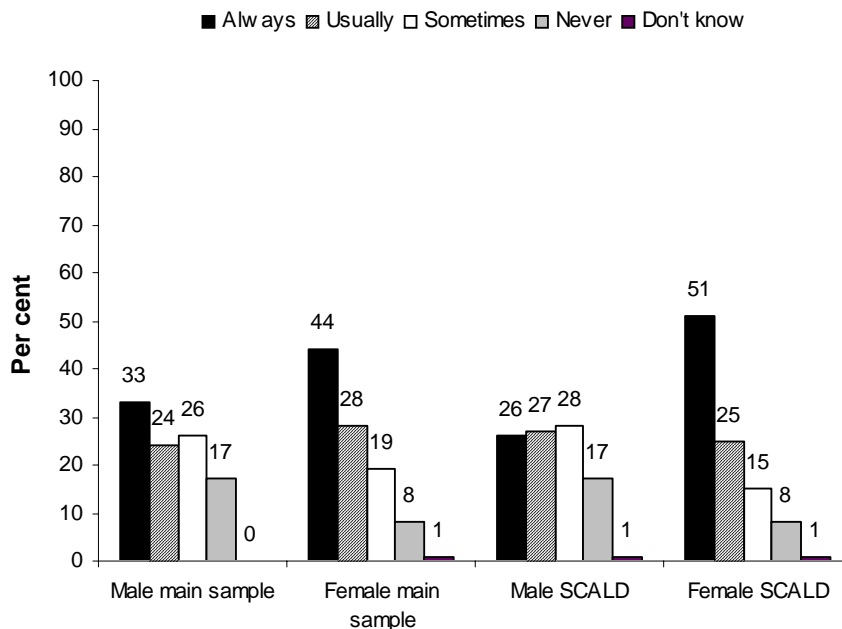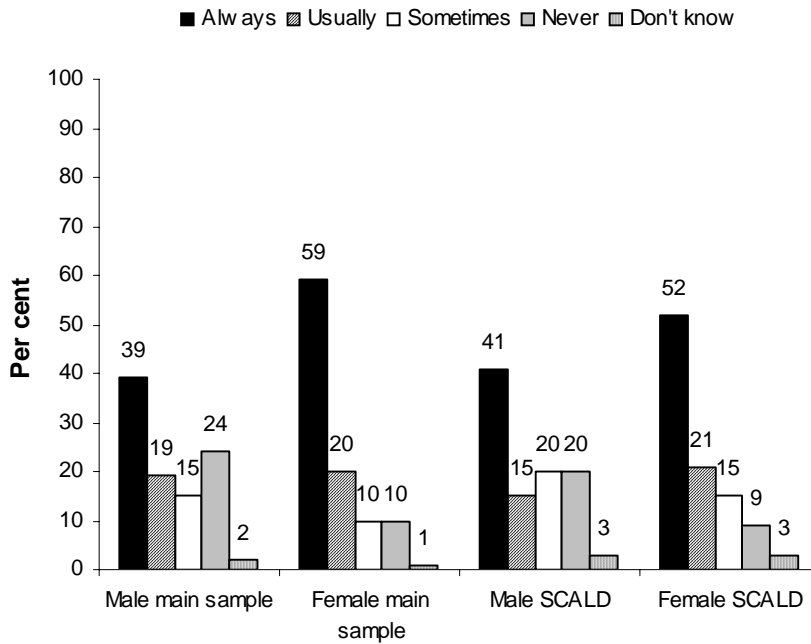Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file], n=899

Implications of findings

Overall, the vast majority of the community (both main and SCALD samples) defined many of the behaviours as violence. Whether a particular behaviour is regarded as 'violence' is influenced by a range of factors. This finding is consistent with the literature more generally (see Chapter 2). While pushing and slapping, forcing partner to have sex, smashing objects and threatening to hurt family members were more consistently likely to be viewed as violence, less physical and more psychological/emotional behaviours were less likely to be perceived as violence. Preventing contact with family and friends, criticising and denying partner money were least likely to be perceived as domestic violence, particularly by males. It is likely that the degree to which a behaviour is perceived as violence will be linked to the perceived seriousness of the behaviour – it would therefore be expected that pushing and slapping, forcing partner to have sex, smashing objects and threatening to hurt family members are perceived within the community as more serious than behaviours which are not physical. If so, this would indicate that the impact of the non-physical or 'hidden' behaviours may be being underestimated within the community.

The findings also show that some behaviours are much more consistently likely to be regarded as "always" violence than others. Pushing and slapping, forcing partner to have sex, smashing objects and threatening to hurt family members were more consistently likely to be viewed as always violence. Other behaviours, such as yelling abuse, criticising and denying partner money were more often "usually" or "sometimes" violence, indicating that whether and when these behaviours might be considered violence is context-dependent. Sometimes a behaviour is violence, at other times it is not. A simple "yes" or "no" to whether a behaviour is violent is not appropriate – the community discerns shades of grey in these behaviours.

When the effects of other variables were held constant, the key predictors of beliefs about whether behaviours were perceived as "always" violence primarily related to sex (being female), support for gender equality, age (younger for forcing sex, suggesting that acceptance of domestic rape is much lower with younger cohorts in both samples) and whether a language other than English was spoken at home. For the booster SCALD sample, additional key predictors were country of birth/heritage and recency of arrival into Australia. Those who spoke a language other than English at home in both samples were on average less likely to regard forcing partner to have sex, repeatedly criticising and stalking as "always" violence.

The higher degree of uncertainty amongst the selected CALD sample about whether some behaviours constitute violence is also an important finding. Flood & Pease (2006) noted that attitudes have a fundamental and causal relationship to the perpetration of violence. Those who hold violence-supportive beliefs are more likely to perpetrate violence (offender), be less likely to blame an offender or report it (victim), or more likely to tolerate and condone it (the community). By natural extension, if one is unsure about whether a behaviour is 'violence' it is easier to justify it (offender) or accept it (victim). Increasing awareness and knowledge about what behaviours are violence should help to reduce such uncertainty.

4. Beliefs about consequences of violent behaviours for victims

Interviews and focus groups with Indigenous participants

Perceptions about the Indigenous community's attitudes towards violence were quite varied when looking at the issue of domestic/family violence. Generally most stakeholders agreed that some inroads had been made in terms of raising awareness about family violence and how devastating family violence could be to all parties involved and dampening the 'taboos' associated with the issue: *"…it's less accepted now"; "people are more comfortable talking about it than before"*. In contrast to this increased awareness, sexual violence was still considered to be a very sensitive subject that the vast majority of community members were uncomfortable talking about.

Overall, there was a general consensus among stakeholders that domestic or family violence was not viewed as negatively by the community as it should be. Many stakeholders felt this was most likely due to the relative prevalence of the issue in the community – the issue in some way had affected all stakeholders, either directly or indirectly. As a result of the widespread nature of the problem, there was a feeling that violence was 'accepted' to some extent.

However there was certainly widespread acknowledgement that family violence issues had received much attention in recent years. This served to increase the perceived seriousness of the issue while also combating some of the attitudes tending to affirm family violence within communities. Several stakeholders attributed this to some of the work being conducted in Victoria to address the issue including the Department of Human Service's *'Family Violence Strategy'* project.

2006 survey

For each of the eleven behaviours (introduced in the previous section), respondents were asked to indicate how serious they thought each was. Respondents were also asked whether they thought it was mainly men or women who commit acts of domestic violence.

Changes across time (%)

Table 4.1 shows the proportions of general community respondents in both 1995 and 2006 who regarded different behaviours as either very serious, quite serious, not serious or who were unsure/did not know. It can be seen that for all forms of behaviour which were asked in both 1995 and 2006, fewer respondents in 2006 regarded slapping and pushing as "very" serious while more respondents regarded throwing or smashing objects to frighten or threaten partner and criticising as "very" serious. In both 1995 and 2006, the most serious of behaviours was forcing partner to have sex. In 2006, forcing partner to have sex and threatening to hurt family members were the two behaviours perceived as most serious.

Beliefs about who commits acts of domestic violence also appear to have changed somewhat – while the majority of people still view men as being the perpetrators of domestic violence, 20 percent of respondents in 2006 believed that both men and women equally commit acts of domestic violence compared with 9 percent in 1995.

Table 4.1: Comparing responses to seriousness of behaviours between 1995 and 2006 (percentages)

How serious is this behaviour?	1995 (N=2004)				2006 (N=2000)			
	Very	Quite	Not	Unsure	Very	Quite	Not	Unsure
Slapping or pushing to cause harm or fear	64	29	6	1	51**	41	7	1
Forcing partner to have sex	77	18	3	2	78	20	2	<1
Throwing or smashing objects near partner to frighten or threaten partner	47	40	12	1	57**	37	6	<1
Yelling abuse at partner	24	46	28	2	27	49	23	1
Controlling social life of partner by preventing them from seeing friends and family	46	38	14	2	43	41	15	1
Repeatedly criticising to make partner feel bad or useless	29	43	26	2	38**	45	17	0
Controlling partner by denying partner money	35	42	20	3	30**	44	24	2
Threaten to hurt	45	42	12	1	na	na	na	na
Tries to scare or control partner by threatening to hurt family members	na	na	na	na	78	20	2	0
Stalking	na	na	na	na	69	27	4	<1
Harassment by phone	na	na	na	na	53	41	5	1
Harassment by email	na	na	na	na	45	41	13	1

** Proportions responding "very" serious differed between 1995 and 2006 samples at p<.01

na Question not asked in survey of that year

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file], n=2000; OSW 1995

Table 4.2: Comparison of beliefs about perpetrators of domestic violence between 1995 and 2006 surveys (percentages)

Who commits acts of domestic violence?	1995			2006		
	Men	Women	Persons	Men	Women	Persons
Mainly men	49	51	50	42	39	40
Both, but mainly men	35	37	36	31	42	37
Both men and women equally	10	9	9 ^	24 **	17	20
Both, but mainly women	3	1	2	1	1	1
Mainly women	2	1	2	1	0	0
Unsure	1	1	1	1	1	2

^ Proportions responding 'both men and women equally' differed between 1995 and 2006 samples at p<.01

** Sex difference within sample for 2006 significant to p<.01

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file], n=2000; OSW 1995

Influence of gender

Sex

To examine how beliefs about seriousness of behaviours differ between men and women, Figures 4.1 to 4.11 show the proportions of both the main sample and SCALD samples who regarded each of these behaviours as very serious, quite serious, not serious or were unsure, by sex. It can be seen that:

- Females were significantly more likely than males in both samples to regard each of the eleven behaviours as serious;

- Males and females in the main sample were significantly more likely than their SCALD counterparts (females vs females, males vs males) to regard forcing partner to have sex, threatening to hurt family members, stalking and harassment by phone as serious;

- Forcing partner to have sex and threatening to hurt family members were considered the most serious of behaviours;

- Yelling abuse, preventing partner from seeing family and friends, denying partner money and repeatedly criticising were perceived as the least serious behaviours;

- Males in the SCALD sample were, on average, significantly less likely than other respondents to perceive slapping or pushing, forcing partner to have sex, throwing or smashing objects, threatening to hurt family members, stalking, harassment by phone or email as "very" serious.

Figure 4.1: Sex breakdown: If one partner in a domestic relationship slaps or pushes the other partner to cause harm or fear how serious is this?
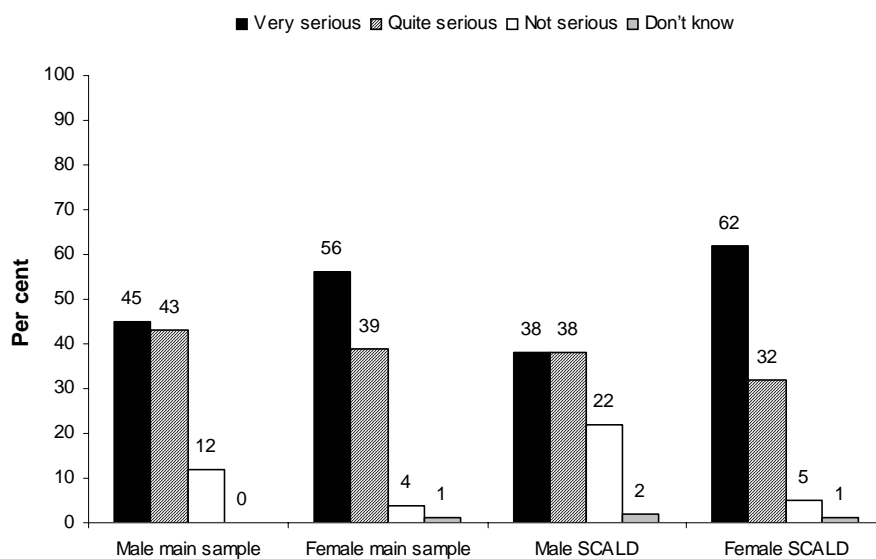
Note: Sex differences within each sample significant to p<.01. Male differences between the samples significant to p<.01. No female differences between samples.

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Figure 4.2: Sex breakdown: If one partner in a domestic relationship forces the other partner to have sex how serious is this?
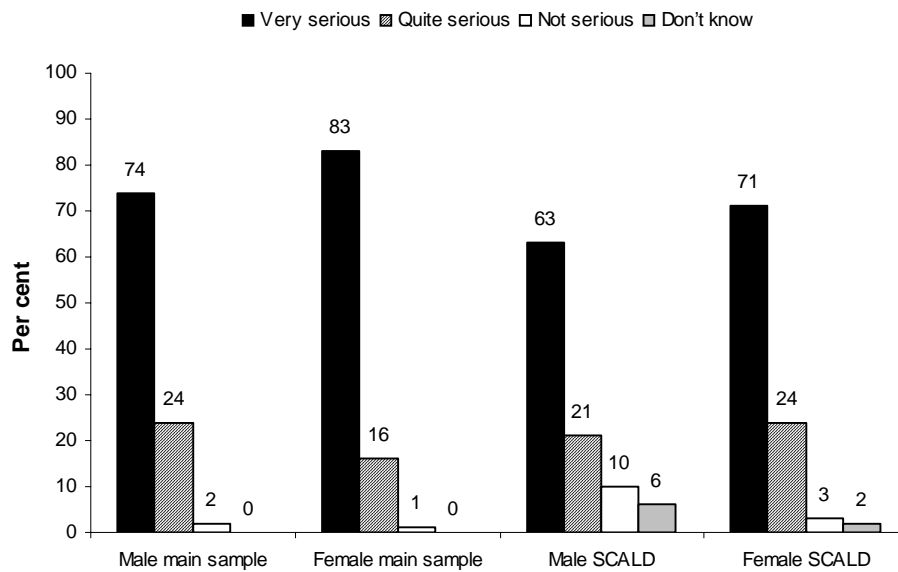
■ Very serious ▨ Quite serious ☐ Not serious ▥ Don't know

Note: Sex differences within and between each sample significant to p<.01

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Figure 4.3: Sex breakdown: If one partner in a domestic relationship throws or smashes objects to frighten or threaten how serious is this?
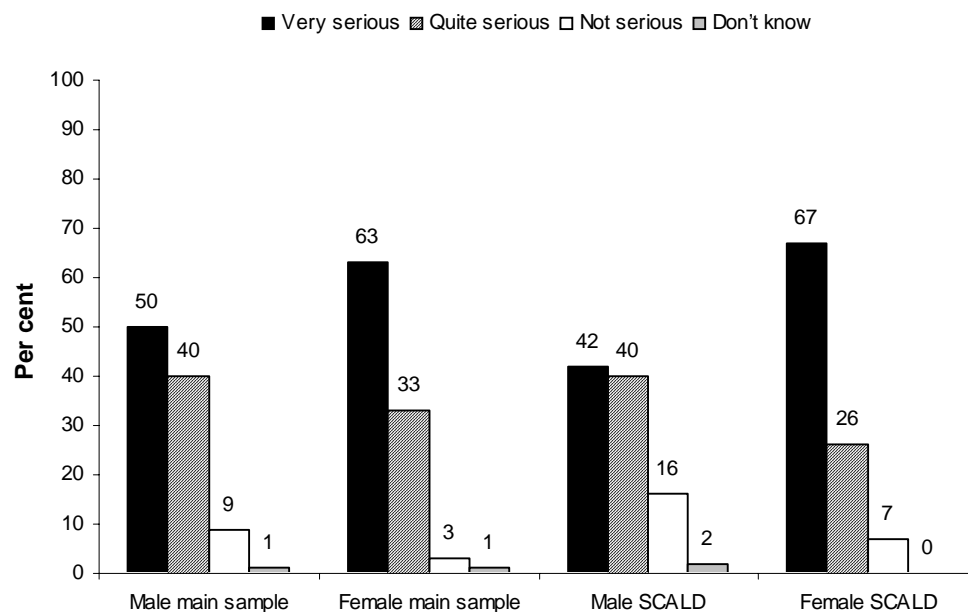
■ Very serious ▨ Quite serious ☐ Not serious ▥ Don't know

Note: Sex differences within and between each sample significant to p<.01

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Figure 4.4: Sex breakdown: If one partner in a domestic relationship tries to scare or control the other partner by threatening to hurt other family members how serious is this?
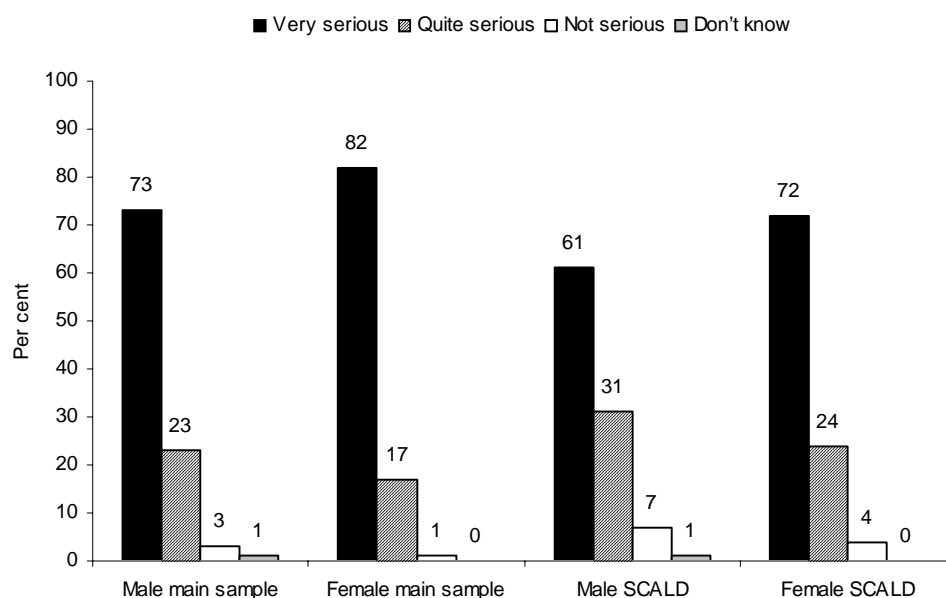
■ Very serious ▨ Quite serious □ Not serious ▨ Don't know

Note: Sex differences within and between each sample significant to p<.01

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Figure 4.5: Sex breakdown: If one partner in a domestic relationship yells abuse at the other partner how serious is this?
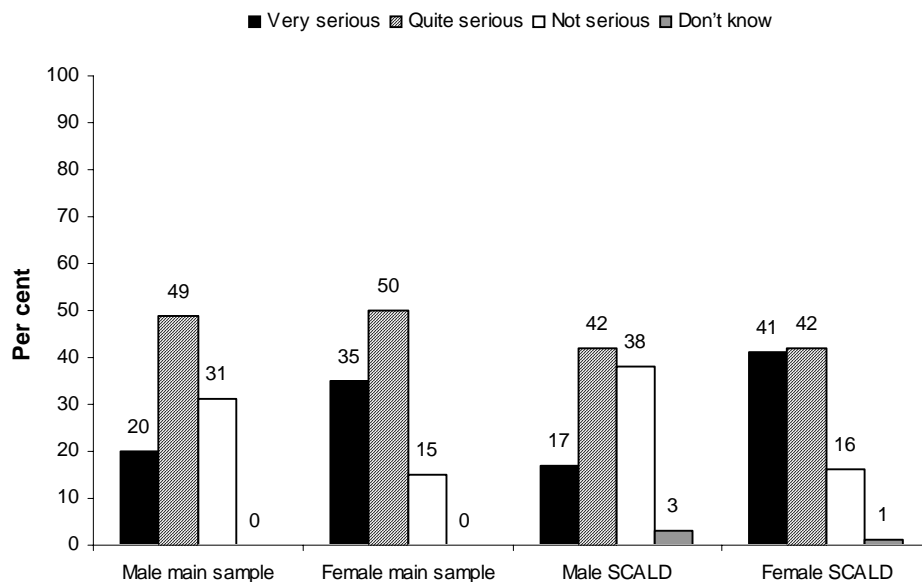
■ Very serious ▨ Quite serious □ Not serious ▨ Don't know

Note: Sex differences within each sample significant to p<.01. No sex differences existed between samples.

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Note: Sex differences within each sample significant to p<.01. No sex differences existed between samples.

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Figure 4.7. Sex breakdown: If one partner in a domestic relationship repeatedly criticises the other to make them feel bad or useless how serious is this?
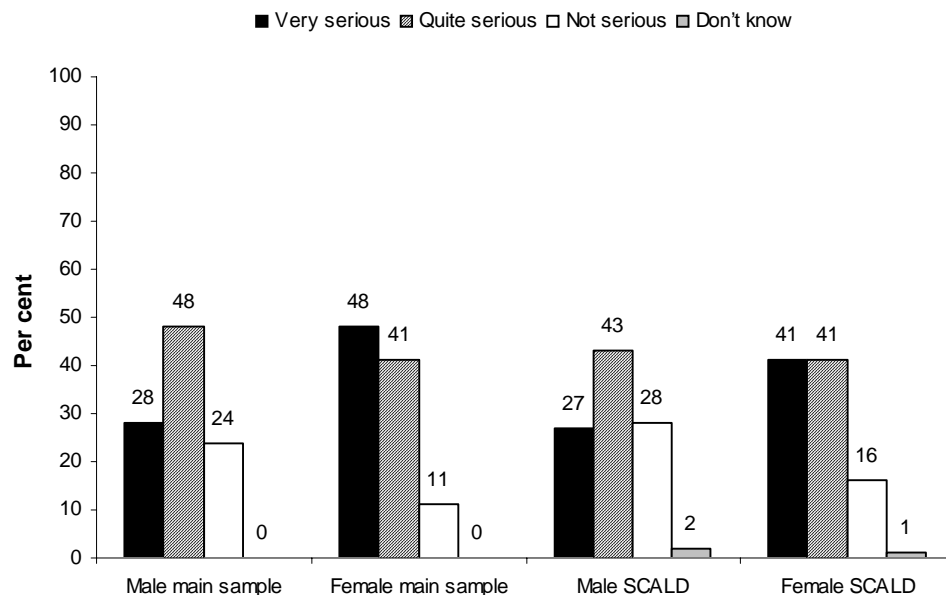
Note: Sex differences within each sample significant to p<.01. Female differences between samples significant to p<.01. No male differences between samples.

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Figure 4.8: Sex breakdown: If one partner in a domestic relationship tries to control the other by denying them money how serious is this?
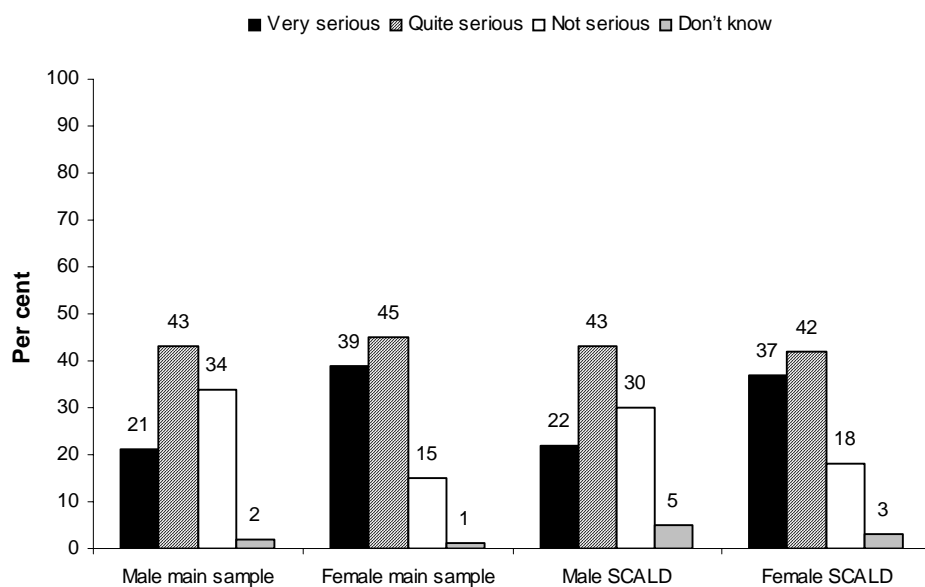
■ Very serious ▨ Quite serious ☐ Not serious ▨ Don't know

Note: Sex differences within each sample significant to p<.01. No sex differences existed between samples.

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Figure 4.9: Sex breakdown: How serious is stalking?
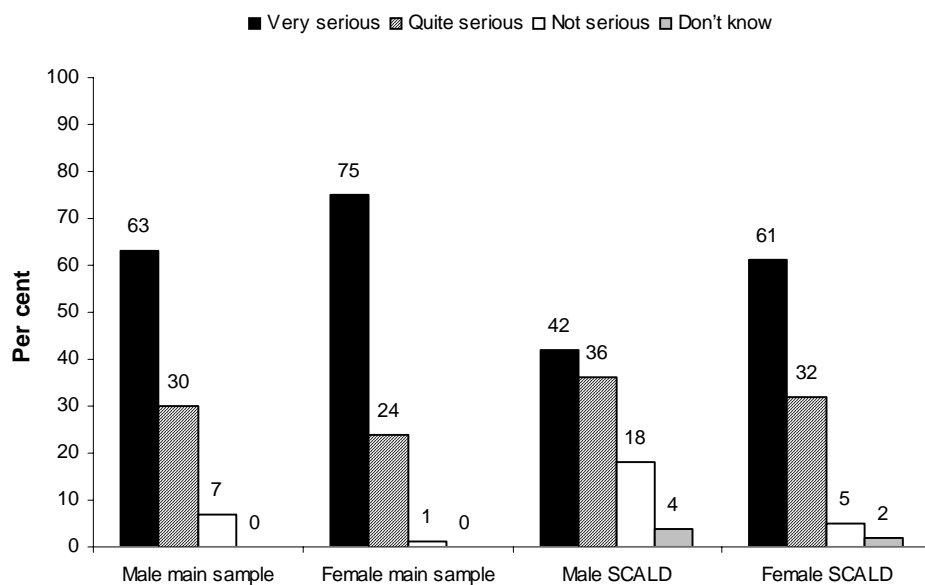
■ Very serious ▨ Quite serious ☐ Not serious ▨ Don't know

Note: Sex differences within and between each sample significant to p<.01

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Figure 4.10: Sex breakdown: How serious is harassment by repeated phone calls?
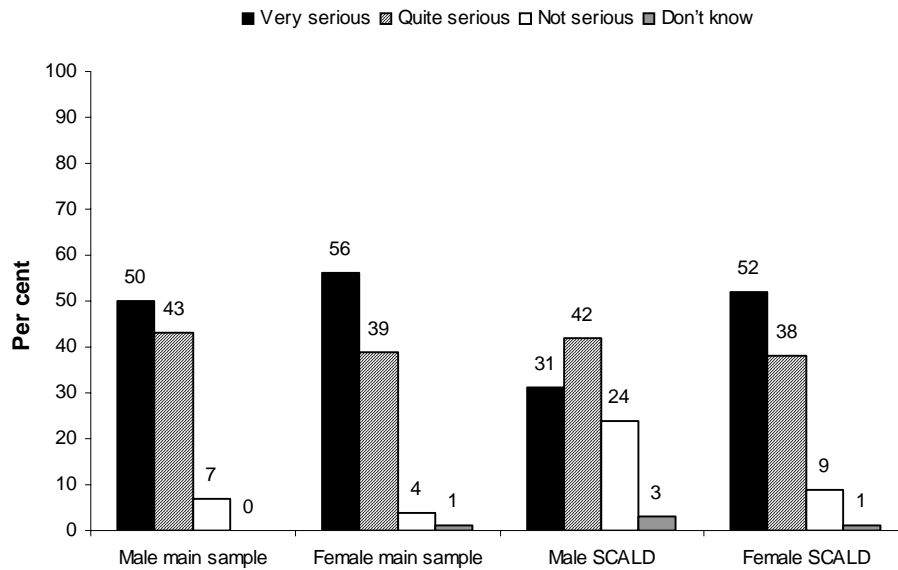
■ Very serious ▨ Quite serious □ Not serious ▨ Don't know

Note: Sex differences within SCALD sample significant to $p<.01$. No sex differences within main sample. Male differences between samples and female differences between samples significant to $p<.01$.

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Figure 4.11. Sex breakdown: How serious is harassment via repeated emails and text messages?

■ Very serious ▨ Quite serious □ Not serious ▨ Don't know

Note: Sex differences within each sample significant to $p<.01$. Male differences between samples significant to $p<.01$. No female differences between samples.

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Who commits and suffers from domestic violence?

Most respondents believed that it is males who mainly commit domestic violence. Table 4.3 shows that while the overall level of fear for victims was perceived to be worse for females, just under half of the main sample (both male and female) thought the level of fear was equally bad for both males and females. The SCALD respondents were more likely to perceive the fear to be worse for females, with just over a quarter of respondents thinking it was equally bad for both males and females. Six percent of males in the selected CALD sample believed the fear was worse for males.

Table 4.3: Perceptions of fear and harm resulting from domestic violence by whether victim is male or female (column percentages)

	Male Main Sample		Female Main Sample		Male SCALD		Female SCALD
Who commits domestic violence?							
Mainly men	73		81		70		65
Mainly women	1		1		7		1
Both men and women equally	24	**	17	^	21	**	31
Don't know	1		1		2		3
Level of fear for victims							
Worse for males	1		1		6		1
Worse for females	56		51	^	62	*	72
Same for males and females	42		48		29		26
Don't know	1		1		3		1
Who suffers physical harm?							
Men	1		1		4		2
Women	94	^	91		81	*	88
Both men and women equally	5		8		11		7
Don't know	0		0		4		2
Who suffers emotional harm?							
Men	7		3		11		3
Women	61	^	60	^	47	**	72
Both men and women equally	31		36		39		24
Don't know	1		1		3		1
Is violence against women common?							
Yes	66	**	82		57	**	75
No	25		10		26		13
Neither/Don't know	9		8		17		12
Is violence against women serious?							
Yes	93	**	98		79	**	89
No	5		1		12		5
Neither/Don't know	2		1		8		6
(N)	(975)		(1025)		(393)		(407)

Sex differences within samples significant to ** p<.01 * p<.05

^ Sex differences between samples significant to p<.05

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Overwhelmingly, women were judged to suffer the most physical harm. While no sex difference was found in the main sample, females in the SCALD sample were more likely than men to think this. About equal proportions of males (61%) and females (60%) in the main sample believed that women suffer more emotional harm. Males in the main sample were significantly more likely than males in the SCALD sample to believe this while females in the SCALD sample were significantly more likely than their main sample counterparts to think this. Females in both samples were significantly more likely than males to believe both that violence against women is common within the community and that it is serious (Figure 4.12). Males in the main sample were also significantly more likely than males in the SCALD sample to believe that violence against women is both common and serious.
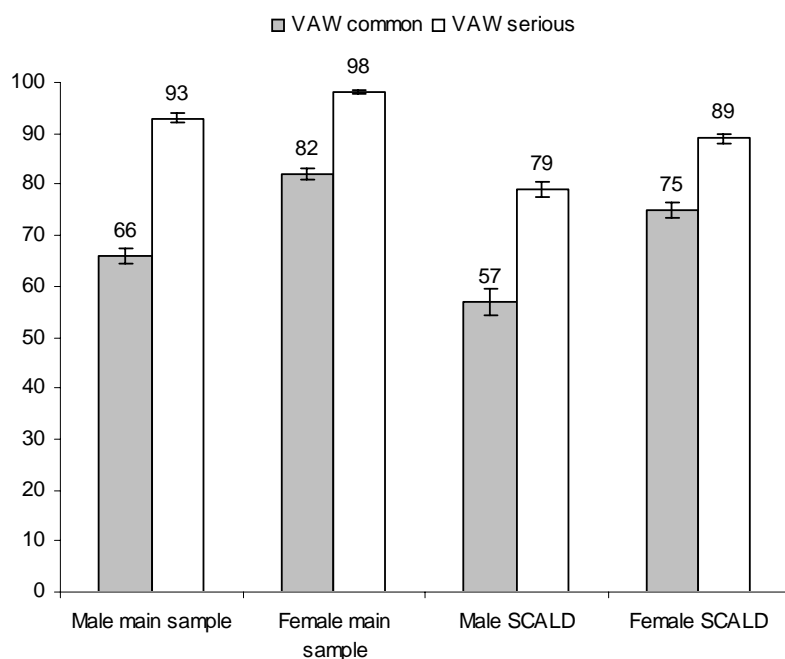
Note: Sex differences within each sample significant to p<.01. VAW thought to be significantly more common by males in the main sample than the SCALD sample, p<.01. Sex differences between samples for seriousness significant to p<.01. Bars represent relative standard errors.

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Gender equality

Again, attitudes toward gender equality were strongly associated with the degree to which respondents in the main sample believed behaviours were serious. For those strongly supportive of gender equality ("high"), consistently higher proportions rated each of the 11 behaviours as "very serious", compared with those whose support for gender equality was weak (Table 4.4).

Table 4.4: Percentage of main sample who regarded behaviour as "very serious", by attitudes toward gender equality (column percentages)

Whether behaviour is regarded as "very serious"	Support for Gender Equality					
	Low		Medium		High	
	%	95 CI	%	95 CI	%	95 CI
Slaps/pushes to cause harm/fear	35	30 - 40	52	48 - 56	60	55 - 64
Forces partner to have sex	63	58 - 68	76	73 - 80	89	86 - 92
Throwing or smashing objects near partner to frighten or threaten partner	43	38 - 48	56	52 - 60	66	62 - 70
Tries to scare or control partner by threatening to hurt family members	66	61 - 70	79	76 - 83	84	80 - 87
Yelling abuse at partner	20	16 - 24	25	21 - 28	35	31 - 39
Controls social life of partner by preventing them from seeing friends and family	33	29 - 38	39	35 - 43	54	50 - 58
Repeatedly criticises to make partner feel bad or useless	26	22 - 31	33	29 - 37	50	46 – 54
Controls partner by denying partner money	22	18 - 26	28	25 - 32	38	34 - 42
Stalking	54	49 - 59	67	63 - 71	80	76 - 83
Harassment by phone	48	43 - 53	50	46 - 54	58	54 – 63
Harassment by email	38	33 - 43	42	38 - 46	53	49 - 57
(N)	(506)		(709)		(784)	

Note: 95% confidence interval indicates that the probability is 0.95 that the true population figure lies within this range.

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Influence of culture

Whether born in Australia or elsewhere

Both the main and SCALD samples were combined to investigate whether being born in Australia (or not) influenced beliefs about seriousness of behaviours. Table 4.5 provides the proportions of respondents who believed that each behaviour was "not" serious, by whether they were born in Australia. Those not born in Australia were significantly more likely than those who were, to believe that behaviours were **not** serious, with the exceptions of preventing contact with family and denying partner money where no differences were found. This finding corresponds to the earlier finding in the previous chapter that those not born in Australia were less likely to regard certain behaviours as violence.

Table 4.5: Percentage of combined samples believing behaviour is NOT serious, by whether born in Australia or not (column percentages)

Behaviour is NOT serious	Was respondent born in Australia?			
	Yes	RSE[a]	No	RSE[a]
Slapping or pushing to cause harm or fear **	7	11	14	9
Forcing partner to have sex **	1	24	6	13
Throwing or smashing objects near partner to frighten or threaten partner **	6	12	12	9
Yelling abuse at partner **	21	6	29	6
Controlling social life of partner by preventing partner from seeing family and friends	15	7	17	8
Repeatedly criticising to make partner feel bad or useless **	15	7	24	6
Controlling partner by denying partner money	25	5	23	7
Tries to scare or control partner by threatening to hurt family members**	2	28	5	15
Stalking **	3	18	11	10
Harassment by phone **	6	12	13	9
Harassment by email **	13	9	20	7
(N)	**(1774)**		**(1026)**	

Chi square differences significant to ** p<.01

(a) RSEs greater than 25 should be interpreted with caution

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Key predictors of seriousness of behaviour

To investigate the key demographic factors predicting perceptions of a behaviour being considered "very serious", logistic regression models were conducted for five selected behaviours (Tables 4.6 and 4.7). Separate models were conducted for the main sample (N=2000) and the booster SCALD sample (N=913). Controlling for the effects of the other variables in the models it was found that:

Main sample

- Sex (being female) was a significant predictor of all five behaviours being perceived as "very serious";
- Strong support for gender equality significantly predicted seriousness of all five behaviours;
- Younger respondents were more likely than older respondents to regard forcing sex as "very serious";
- Older respondents were more likely than younger respondents to regard preventing contact with family and friends and denying partner money as "very serious"; and
- Speaking only English at home predicted seriousness of stalking.

Booster SCALD sample

- Sex (being female) was a significant predictor of all five behaviours being perceived as "very serious", mirroring the findings in the main sample;
- Strong support for gender equality significantly predicted seriousness of all five behaviours, mirroring the findings in the main sample;
- Younger respondents were more likely than older respondents to regard forcing sex as "very serious", mirroring the findings in the main sample. However, younger respondents were also

more likely to perceive stalking as more serious than older respondents – in the main sample there was no effect for age;

- Speaking only English at home was associated with higher perceived seriousness of forcing partner to have sex and preventing contact with family and friends;

- Italian and Greek respondents were more likely than Chinese and Vietnamese respondents to perceive the behaviours of preventing contact, slapping and pushing, denying money and stalking as "very serious";

- Those who arrived in Australia prior to 1980 were more likely than those born in Australia (second generation) to regard denying partner money as "very serious" while more recent arrivals were less likely than those born in Australia to regard forcing partner to have sex as "very serious".

Table 4.6: Predictors of whether behaviour is "very serious" (odds ratios, main sample)

	Forcing sex	95 CI	Prevent contact	95 CI	Slaps or pushes	95 CI	Deny money	95 CI	Stalking	95 CI
Sex (female or male)	**0.67****	0.53 – 0.84	**0.47****	0.39 – 0.57	**0.68****	0.56 – 0.82	**0.45****	0.37 – 0.56	**0.70****	0.57 – 0.86
Gender equality (low or high)	**2.48****	1.89 – 3.26	**2.01****	1.65 – 2.46	**1.52****	1.25 – 1.85	**1.87****	1.51 – 2.33	**2.34****	1.87 – 2.93
Age (less than 44 or older than)	**0.47****	0.37 – 0.61	**1.73****	1.41 – 2.12	0.93	0.76 – 1.13	**1.91****	1.54 – 2.37	1.03	0.83 – 1.28
Occupation status (white collar)	1.15	0.87 – 1.53	1.05	0.84 – 1.32	1.23	0.99 – 1.54	0.92	0.72 – 1.17	1.21	0.95 – 1.54
Employed (no or yes)	1.18	0.89 – 1.58	1.21	0.95 – 1.53	1.10	0.87 – 1.38	1.07	0.83 – 1.37	0.80	0.62 – 1.03
Education completed (Up to year 12/trade or higher)	0.91	0.72 – 1.16	0.81	0.66 – 0.98	1.18	0.98 – 1.43	0.93	0.76 – 1.15	1.03	0.84 – 1.27
LOTE (no or yes)	0.81	0.56 – 1.17	1.14	0.84 – 1.54	1.23	0.91 – 1.66	0.85	0.61 – 1.19	**0.72***	0.52 – 0.98
Born in Australia (no or yes)	1.20	0.91 – 1.59	1.03	0.81 – 1.32	1.23	0.97 – 1.55	0.84	0.65 – 1.09	1.09	0.85 – 1.40
Remoteness (regional or city)	0.95	0.75 – 1.20	1.12	0.92 – 1.36	0.93	0.77 – 1.13	0.99	0.80 – 1.22	0.95	0.77 – 1.17
Model Chi square (9 df)	**164.18****		**152.38****		**77.23****		**137.58****		**105.61****	

Statistically significant to ** p<.01

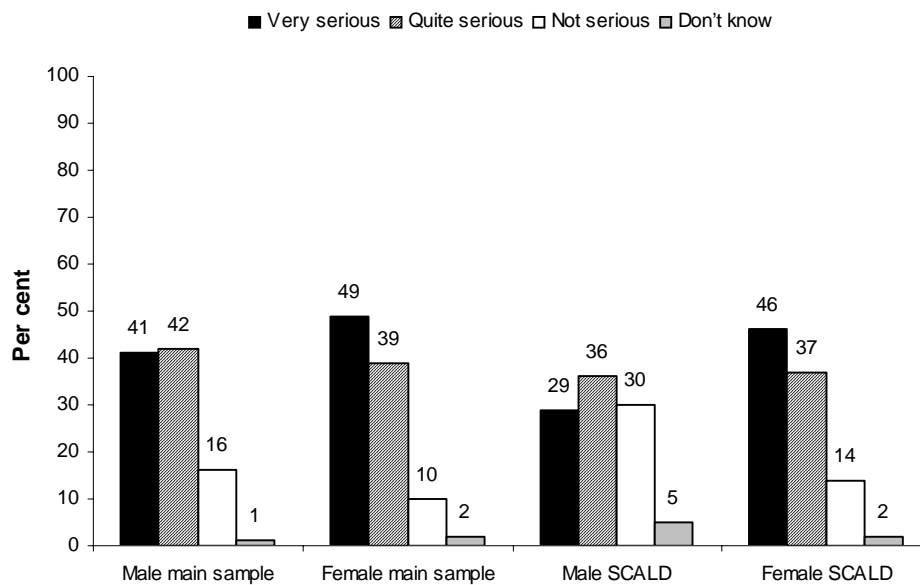Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file], n=2000

Table 4.7: Predictors of whether behaviour is "very serious" (odds ratios, booster SCALD sample)

	Forcing sex	95 CI	Prevent contact	95 CI	Slaps or pushes	95 CI	Deny money	95 CI	Stalking	95 CI
Sex (female or male)	**0.67***	0.48 – 0.92	**0.48****	0.35 – 0.65	**0.49****	0.37 – 0.66	**0.48****	0.35 – 0.67	**0.38****	0.27 – 0.53
Gender equality (low or high)	**1.88****	1.19 – 2.98	**2.57****	1.78 – 3.71	**2.21****	1.51 – 3.23	**2.06****	1.41 – 3.00	**1.99****	1.31 – 3.00
Age (less than 44 or older than)	**0.60***	0.41 – 0.86	1.24	0.87 – 1.77	0.91	0.64 – 1.29	1.13	0.77 – 1.66	**0.61***	0.41 – 0.88
Occupation status (white collar)	0.96	0.66 – 1.39	0.78	0.56 – 1.09	0.82	0.59 – 1.14	0.74	0.52 – 1.06	0.95	0.66 – 1.35
Employed (no or yes)	1.04	0.73 – 1.49	1.00	0.71 – 1.39	0.86	0.61 – 1.19	1.14	0.80 – 1.62	1.22	0.85 – 1.74
Education completed (Up to year 12/trade or higher)	1.31	0.93 – 1.84	1.08	0.79 – 1.47	0.88	0.65 – 1.20	1.03	0.73 – 1.43	1.22	0.87 – 1.69
LOTE (no or yes)	**0.61***	0.39 – 0.94	**0.67***	0.46 – 0.96	1.07	0.74 – 1.56	0.77	0.53 – 1.13	0.73	0.49 – 1.09
Heritage (Chinese/Vietnamese or Italian/Greek)	1.28	0.74 – 2.21	**1.98****	1.21 – 3.23	**2.27****	1.40 – 3.68	**1.98****	1.18 – 3.31	**3.39****	2.06 – 5.59
Arrived in Aust prior to 1980	0.60	0.36 – 1.00	0.81	0.51 – 1.27	0.63	0.40 – 1.00	**2.08****	1.29 – 3.35	0.92	0.56 – 1.50
Arrived in Aust after 1980	**0.46***	0.25 – 0.85	1.15	0.66 – 1.98	0.82	0.48 – 1.39	1.28	0.71 – 2.31	0.68	0.39 – 1.18
Remoteness (regional or city)	1.37	0.85 – 2.22	**1.58***	1.03 – 2.42	1.30	0.85 – 1.99	1.49	0.94 – 2.34	0.94	0.59 – 1.49
Model Chi square (11 df)	**95.09****		**86.44****		**94.57****		**83.84****		**195.19****	

Statistically significant to ** p<.01   *p<.05

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file], n=913

It was hypothesised in the previous chapter that there may be a link between whether a behaviour is regarded as 'violence' and perceived seriousness of that behaviour. Table 4.8 shows that a link does exist but it is not consistent and depends on the behaviour. Where a behaviour is regarded as "always" violence it is more likely to be regarded as "very serious" for

- forcing a partner to have sex;
- throwing or smashing objects to frighten or threaten partner;
- controlling social life of partner by preventing contact with family and friends;
- trying to scare or control partner by threatening to hurt family members; and
- stalking.

For other behaviours the link appears to be weaker. For example, of those who believed slapping and pushing to cause harm or fear to be "always" domestic violence, only 62 percent regarded this behaviour as "very serious". Of those who believed harassment by phone or email was "always" violence against women, only 53 percent and 47 percent, respectively, regarded these behaviours as "very serious". Clearly, some behaviours can be defined as always violence while at the same time not being perceived as very serious.

Table 4.8: Degree of association between whether behaviour is "always" violence and whether perceived as "very serious" (combined samples)

Behaviour is "always" violence	n	Percentage of n who believe behaviour is "very serious"
Slapping or pushing to cause harm or fear	1962	62
Forcing partner to have sex	2242	86
Throwing or smashing objects	1992	72
Yelling abuse at partner	1084	60
Preventing contact with friends and family	1363	74
Repeatedly criticising to make partner feel bad or useless	1288	67
Denying partner money	955	68
Threaten to hurt family members	2767	75
Stalking	1844	81
Harassment by phone	2513	53
Harassment by email	2424	47

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file], n=2800

Characteristics associated with belief that men commit domestic violence

The majority of respondents in both the main (77%) and SCALD (67%) samples believed that it was mainly men who committed acts of domestic violence. Table 4.9 shows that, compared with those who believed it was mainly men, those who did not believe it was mainly men or were unsure were more likely to:

In the main sample
- Be male;
- Have weak support for gender equality; and
- Not be a white collar worker.

In the SCALD sample
- Be older;
- Have weak support for gender equality;
- Not be a white collar worker;

- Not be born in Australia;
- Be unemployed;
- Be educated up to Year 12 or trade qualification (as opposed to a higher qualification); and
- Speak a language other than English at home and be less proficient in English.

Females in the SCALD sample were no more or less likely than males to think that domestic violence is committed mainly by men.

Table 4.9: Characteristics associated with belief that it is mainly men who commit domestic violence for main and SCALD samples, column percentages

		Is it mainly men who commit domestic violence?			
		Main sample		SCALD sample	
		Yes	No/Unsure	Yes	No/Unsure
Sex					
	Female	54**	42	49	54
	Male	46	58	51	46
Age					
	Less than or equal to 44 years of age	52	49	65**	51
	45 or older	48	51	35	49
Gender equality					
	Low	23**	35	43**	54
	Medium	36	33	35	34
	High	41	32	22	12
Occupational status					
	White collar	58**	48	45**	28
	Not white collar	42	52	55	72
Born in Australia					
	Yes	77	71	39**	20
	No	23	29	61	80
Annual gross income[a]					
	Less than $40,000	31	38	42	50
	$40,000 or more	69	62	58	50
Employed?					
	Yes	66	63	60**	48
	No	34	37	40	52
Highest level of education achieved					
	Up to Year 12 or trade qualification	48	53	56**	69
	Higher qualification	52	48	44	31
Language other than English spoken at home?					
	Yes	12	18	77**	87
	No	88	82	23	13
Proficiency in English					
	Very good or good	-	-	71**	58
	Poor or not at all	-	-	29	42
(N)		(1541)	(459)	(538)	(262)

Chi square analyses significant to ** $p<.01$.

(a) A large number of respondents in both samples did not provide a response for income and are excluded from this table.

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Implications of findings

Perceptions about seriousness of behaviours vary with a range of factors. These include the behaviour in question, sex, support for gender equality and other cultural and demographic influences. Forcing a partner to have sex and threatening to hurt family members were regarded as the most serious behaviours, mirroring the findings in the previous chapter that these behaviours were most frequently defined as always domestic violence. However, the link between whether a behaviour is defined as violence and whether it is perceived as serious is not

a consistent one. It is possible for a behaviour to be regarded as "always" violence but its seriousness not to be very high. The community appears quite able to differentiate between the two, and also appears to attribute higher seriousness to domestic rape and threats to family members.

Yelling abuse, controlling a partner's social life by preventing them from seeing family and friends, controlling a partner by denying them money and repeatedly criticising were perceived as the least serious behaviours and this is consistent with the finding in the previous chapter that these behaviours were also less likely to be considered violence. That some behaviours are regarded as less serious than others is not an unreasonable finding, given that judgements about seriousness are comparative. However it is noticeable that these behaviours have an emotional and more insidious nature to them, potentially resulting in longer term and more 'hidden' damage to the victim. Violence which involves rape and threats to family members may serve to trigger a more immediate emotional reaction for some people within the community than behaviours which involve psychological manipulation.

It was also evident that, while females were in general more likely to regard all behaviours as more serious than males (reflecting a strong sex difference) and support for gender equality was strongly associated with perceptions of seriousness, there were also a range of cultural differences in attitudes toward seriousness. When the effects of other variables were controlled for, younger respondents were more likely than older respondents in both samples to regard forcing sex as "very serious". Younger respondents were also more likely in the previous chapter to define forcing sex as "always" violence in both samples, suggesting an age cohort effect in relation to acceptance and perceived seriousness of domestic rape. When recency of arrival was controlled for, Chinese and Vietnamese respondents were, on average, still less likely to regard certain behaviours as "very" serious than Italian and Greek respondents. Respondents who arrived in Australia prior to 1980 were more likely than those born in Australia (second generation) to regard denying partner money as "very serious", perhaps reflecting the fact that second generation respondents may be more likely to have greater independence and their own income compared with their first generation parents. More recent arrivals into Australia (after 1980) were less likely than those born in Australia to regard forcing partner to have sex as "very serious". There were also sex differences between the main and SCALD samples in perceptions of seriousness of behaviours. Again, these findings have implications for the continuation of these behaviours to be both perpetrated and condoned. The findings also suggest that if beliefs about what constitutes violence against women can be changed then changes in perceptions of seriousness might follow.

5. To what degree does the community adhere to myths and truths about violence against women?

The beliefs and attitudes that both individuals and societies hold in relation to violence against women fundamentally shape and determine the judgements that we make in relation to women and violence, and our behavioural responses to it. In essence (Flood & Pease 2006), they impact directly on:

- The perpetration (and continued perpetration) of violence against women;
- Women's risk of violence and their response to it; and
- The community's response to victims of violence (empathy, willingness to help, levels of intervention, degree to which behaviours are condoned and therefore sanctioned).

These attitudes and beliefs also impact on victims at an institutional level. Consider rape victims at court, at the mercy of both the judiciary and juries (members of the public), or a woman applying for a domestic violence order or restraint against a 'model' husband, or a victim of date rape where the accused says that she consented and she says that she didn't and it boils down to one person's word against the other.

In relation to ethnic women and attitudes within the criminal justice system, Lievore (2003; 70) noted the following:

> All too often, service responses, including those of the criminal justice system, are predicated on the notion that people from particular regions or countries form a homogeneous group. Representatives of the criminal justice system may also unconsciously accept racist and sexist stereotypes. Prejudice, ethnocentricity and failure to provide adequately trained interpreters or to explain Australian laws, legal processes and services, mean that ethnic women's access to justice is negatively impacted.

A considerable body of research has focused on the degree to which the community adheres to "myths and misconceptions" about women and rape. A range of questionnaire instruments have been developed and tested which address attitudes toward rape, victims of rape and rape myth acceptance (e.g. Burt 1980; Nagel et al 2005; Ward 1988). These studies generally find that more positive attitudes toward women are associated with age (younger), sex (female), race/ethnicity, education (higher) and income (higher). Males, on average, are commonly found to hold less positive attitudes toward females than women. These findings are important because they show the diversity of attitudes and beliefs which are held within the community, that these attitudes are associated with certain demographics, allow for assessment of change over time and provide a means of linking attitudes to behaviour. For example, Taylor & Joudo (2005) found that the attitudes which jurors bring with them into a courtroom relating to rape and rape victims is strongly determinant of the judgements they make about the victim and the accused and their judgements of guilt. Many of the 'jurors' in this study (members of the public who had volunteered to participate as jurors in the study) adhered to a range of myths and incorrect stereotypes about rape and these affected how they interpreted what they saw and the judgements they made.

Studies investigating sex differences in sexual assault cases have commonly found that female jurors are, on average, more likely than male jurors to believe the defendant guilty (Clark & Nightingale 1997; Fischer 1997). Vrij and Fischer (1997) found that males attribute more responsibility to sexual assault victims than females, and as a result find the victim more blameworthy.

Interviews and focus groups with Indigenous participants

A series of attitudinal statements about violence were read out to Indigenous participants. Relevant statements were:

1. *"Family violence can be excused if alcohol is involved"*

All participants disagreed with this statement and felt that family violence was never acceptable, regardless of whether alcohol was involved or not.

2. *"Family violence is a criminal offence"*

Again, participants overwhelmingly agreed with this statement. While some acknowledged that this had not always been the case, there was widespread agreement that violence within the

family was behaviour that could now be prosecuted. However a number of older women felt that the nature of the 'criminal offence' was too subjective a phenomenon and had undergone recent changes: "Yeah, the Police still say it's a domestic, but under new law, Police only have to caution the men….they don't have to remove them from the premises".

3. *"Family violence can be excused when people get so angry that they lose control just temporarily"*

Views around this attitude statement were mixed. Some people were adamant that a temporary loss of control was not an excuse for violent behaviour. Some older men and women agreed that there were occasions where an individual may 'snap' and have difficulty controlling their behaviour, particularly if this was coupled with an addiction to drugs or gambling. Some younger women were a little less forgiving and were adamant that "if someone gets hurt, it (violence) can't be excused … but if it doesn't hurt anyone, it might be OK".

2006 survey

Seven statements relating to domestic violence beliefs and six statements relating to sexual violence beliefs which were included in the 1995 survey were replicated in the 2006 survey. An additional eight statements relating to domestic violence and an additional four statements relating to beliefs about sexual violence against women were added to the 2006 survey. Respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement with each of the statements. However, due to time constraints in the 2006 survey, not all of these statements could be read out to all respondents. Therefore, approximately half the sample responded to one half of the statements, the other half of the sample responded to the other half of the statements. It is important to note that the percentages presented below, therefore, do not relate to the entire sample.

Changes across time (%)

Table 5.1 shows the proportions of general community respondents in both 1995 and 2006 who agreed or disagreed with each of the statements. For the statements in both surveys, a slightly higher proportion in 2006 agreed that domestic violence is a criminal offence and that it's hard to understand why women stay in violent relationships. For the more contemporary items relating to domestic violence in the 2006 survey, it is noteworthy that of those who responded to each statement (approximately half the sample):

- a quarter agreed that domestic violence can be excused if it results either from temporary anger or where the violent person genuinely regrets what they have done;
- half agreed that a woman can leave a violent relationship if she really wants to; and
- just under half agreed that women going through custody battles often make up claims of domestic violence to improve their case.

For the sexual violence against women statements, fewer respondents in 2006 believed the legal system treats rape victims badly or that women who are raped often ask for it. Of those who responded to each statement in 2006 (half the sample):

- 15 percent agreed that women often say 'no' when they mean 'yes'; and
- 38 percent agreed that rape results from men not being able to control their need for sex.

Table 5.1 also highlights that in 2006 a large proportion of the main sample neither agreed nor disagreed, or were unsure, about many of the statements relating to both domestic violence and sexual violence.

Table 5.1: Comparing beliefs about domestic and sexual violence between 1995 and 2006 surveys

Level of agreement with domestic violence statements	1995 (N=2004)			2006		
	Agree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Disagree	Neither/ Unsure[e]
Domestic violence is a criminal offence[a]	93	5	2	97**	2	1
Most people who experience domestic violence are reluctant to go to the police[a]	92	5	3	97**	1	2
Most people turn a blind eye to or ignore domestic violence[a]	83	14	3	84	10	6
It's hard to understand why women stay in violent relationships[a]	77	22	1	81**	17	2
Domestic violence is more likely to occur in migrant families[a]	16	66	18	18	58	24
Domestic violence is a private matter to be handled in the family[a]	18	80	2	14**	82	4
Domestic violence rarely happens in wealthy neighbourhoods[a]	8	85	7	9	85	6
Police now respond more quickly to domestic violence calls than they did in the past[a]	na	na	na	40	17	43
Domestic violence can be excused if it results from people getting so angry they temporarily lose control[b]	na	na	na	23	75	2
Domestic violence can be excused if the victim is heavily affected by alcohol[b]	na	na	na	8	91	1
Domestic violence can be excused if the offender is heavily affected by alcohol[b]	na	na	na	8	92	0
Most women could leave a violent relationship if they really wanted to[b]	na	na	na	50	45	5
Where one domestic partner is physically violent toward the other the violent person should be made to leave the family home[b]	na	na	na	91	7	2
Domestic violence can be excused if the violent person genuinely regrets afterward what they have done[b]	na	na	na	24	72	4
Women going through custody battles often make up claims of domestic violence to improve their case[b]	na	na	na	46	29	25
Level of agreement with sexual violence statements	**1995** (N=2004)			**2006**		
	Agree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Disagree	Neither/ Unsure
The legal system treats rape victims badly[c]	77	15	8	65**	25	10
Women are more likely to be raped by someone they know than by a stranger[c]	76	16	8	76	13	11
Women rarely make false claims of being raped[c]	59	34	7	66**	23	11
Women often say 'no' when	18	79	3	15	77	8

they mean 'yes'[c]						
Women who are sexually harassed should sort it out themselves rather than report it[c]	20	78	2	11**	86	3
Women who are raped often ask for it[d]	15	83	2	6**	92	2
Rape results from men not being able to control their need for sex[d]	na	na	na	38	57	5
A women cannot be raped by someone she is in a sexual relationship with[d]	na	na	na	5	93	2
Sexual assault can be excused if the victim is heavily affected by alcohol[d]	na	na	na	4	96	0
Sexual assault can be excused if the offender is heavily affected by alcohol[d]	na	na	na	3	96	1

(a) In 2006 this question was asked of 1007 respondents

(b) In 2006 this question was asked of 993 respondents

(c) In 2006 this question was asked of 1004 respondents

(d) In 2006 this question was asked of 996 respondents

na This question was not asked in 1995

(e) The category "neither/unsure" includes those who neither agreed nor disagreed, or who did not know

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]; OSW 1995.

Influence of gender

Sex

The degree to which males and females differed in their beliefs about domestic violence is shown in Table 5.2. Of those who responded to each statement in the main sample (half the sample), males were significantly

More likely than females to agree that:

- Domestic violence is a private matter to be handled within the family;
- Domestic violence rarely happens in wealthy neighbourhoods;
- Most women could leave a violent relationship if they really wanted to;
- Domestic violence can be excused if the violent person genuinely regrets afterward what they have done;

Of those who responded to each statement in the SCALD sample, males were significantly

More likely than females to agree that:

- Domestic violence is a private matter to be handled in the family;
- Domestic violence can be excused if it results from people getting so angry they temporarily lose control;
- Domestic violence can be excused if the victim is heavily affected by alcohol;
- Domestic violence can be excused if the violent person genuinely regrets afterward what they have done;
- Women going through custody battles often make up claims of domestic violence to improve their case.

Less likely than females to agree that:

- Domestic violence is a criminal offence;
- Most people who experience domestic violence are reluctant to go to the police;
- Most people turn a blind eye to or ignore domestic violence;
- It's hard to understand why women stay in violent relationships.

In relation to sex differences between the two samples, key findings were that:

- Males in the main sample were significantly more likely than males in the SCALD sample to agree that domestic violence is a criminal offence;
- Both males and females in the main sample were significantly less likely than their SCALD counterparts to agree that domestic violence is a private matter to be handled in the family; and
- Agreement that domestic violence can be excused if it results either from temporary anger or the offender being heavily affected by alcohol or the offender regretting afterward what they have done was significantly higher for both males and females in the SCALD sample compared with the main sample.

Table 5.2: Comparing beliefs about domestic violence by sex and sample

Strongly or somewhat agree that…	Male Main Sample		Female Main Sample		Male SCALD		Female SCALD	
	% Agree	RSE	% Agree	RSE	% Agree	RSE	% Agree	RSE
Domestic violence is a criminal offence[a]	96^	1	97	1	90**	3	97	1
Most people who experience domestic violence are reluctant to go to the police[a]	96^	1	98^	1	84*	3	90	2
Most people turn a blind eye to or ignore domestic violence[a]	81^	3	87	2	69*	6	83	3
It's hard to understand why women stay in violent relationships[a]	82^	3	81	2	63*	6	75	5
Domestic violence is more likely to occur in migrant families[a]	19	12	17^	11	23	15	31	11
Domestic violence is a private matter to be handled in the family[a]	18**^	13	10^	15	39**	10	23	13
Domestic violence rarely happens in wealthy neighbourhoods[a]	14**	15	5^	20	22	15	20	15
Police now respond more quickly to domestic violence calls than they did in the past[a]	42	7	39	6	31*	13	45	9
Domestic violence can be excused if it results from people getting so angry they temporarily lose control[b]	25^	10	20^	10	44*	11	31	11
Domestic violence can be excused if the victim is heavily affected by alcohol[b]	8^	19	8	15	28**	15	14	17
Domestic violence can be excused if the offender is heavily affected by alcohol[b]	9^	18	7^	17	20	19	15	17
Most women could leave a violent relationship if they really wanted to[b]	56**	5	44^	5	58	8	58	7
Where one domestic partner is physically violent toward the other the violent person should be made to leave the family home[b]	88	2	93^	1	84	4	85	3
Domestic violence can be excused if the violent person genuinely regrets afterward what they have done[b]	29**^	9	19^	10	57**	8	35	10
Women going through custody battles often make up claims of domestic violence to improve their case[b]	50	6	42^	6	56**	9	29	11

(a) This question was asked of 475 main and 225 SCALD males and 532 main and 200 SCALD female respondents

(b) This question was asked of 500 main and 169 SCALD males and 493 main and 207 SCALD female respondents

Sex differences within sample significant to * p<.05 ** p<.01

^ Sex differences between samples significant to p<.01

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Beliefs about sexual violence also differed according to sex (Figures 5.1 to 5.10). Males in both the main and SCALD samples were significantly more likely than females to agree that:

- Women who are sexually harassed should sort it out themselves rather than report it; and
- Rape results from men not being able to control their need for sex.

However, in the SCALD sample, males were also significantly more likely than females to agree that:

- Women often say 'no' when they mean 'yes'; and
- Women who are raped often ask for it.

In terms of sex differences between the samples, males in the main sample and females in the main sample were significantly more likely than their SCALD counterparts to agree that:

- Women are more likely to be raped by someone they know than by a stranger;

and less likely to agree that:

- A woman cannot be raped by someone she is in a sexual relationship with;
- Sexual assault can be excused if the victim or offender is heavily affected by alcohol.

Figure 5.1: Sex breakdown: The legal system treats rape and sexual assault victims badly[a]
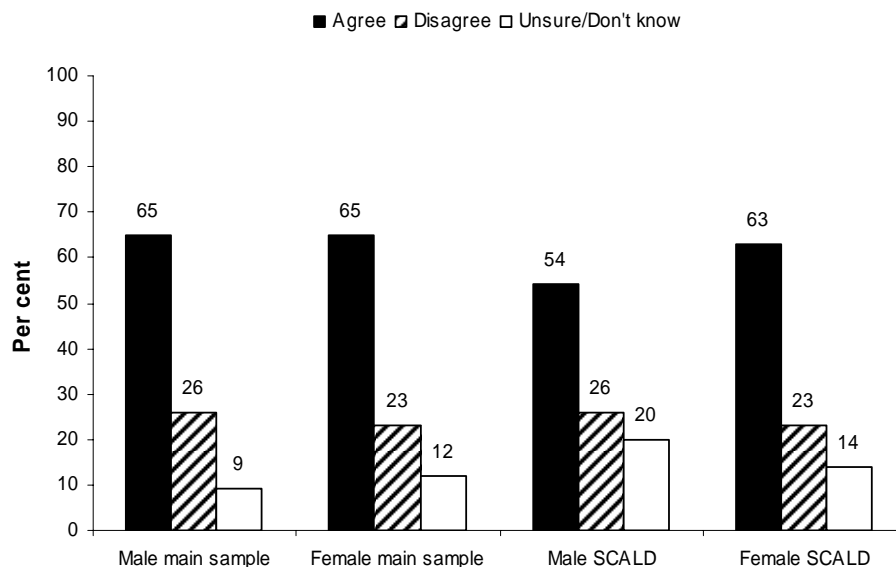
(a) This question was asked of 487 main sample and 179 SCALD male respondents and 516 main sample and 204 SCALD female respondents.

Note: Male differences between samples significant to p<.01. No other differences significant.

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Figure 5.2. Sex breakdown: Women are more likely to be raped by someone they know than by a stranger[a]
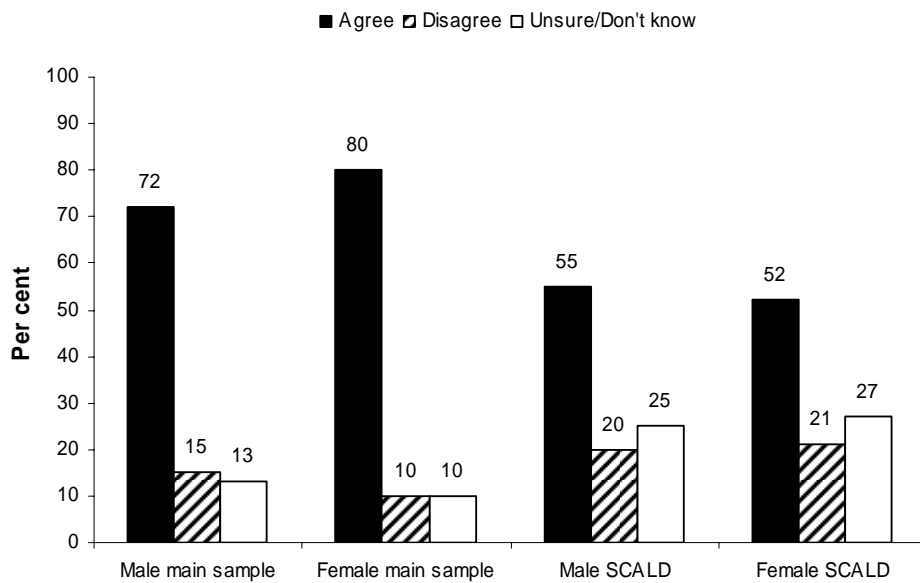
■ Agree ▨ Disagree □ Unsure/Don't know

(a) This question was asked of 487 main sample and 179 SCALD male respondents and 516 main sample and 204 SCALD female respondents.

Note:Sex differences between samples significant to p<.01. Sex differences within each sample not significant.

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Figure 5.3. Sex breakdown: Women rarely make false claims of being raped[a]
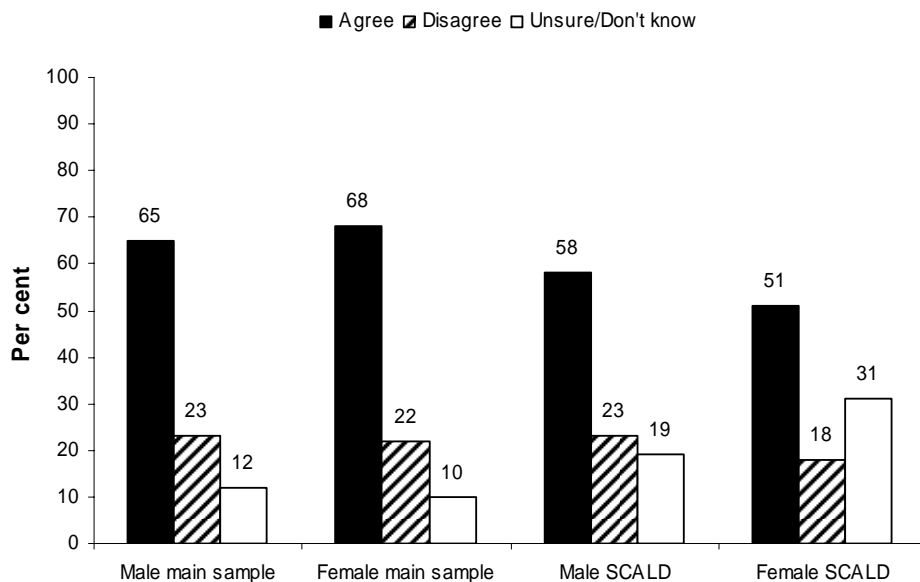
■ Agree ▨ Disagree □ Unsure/Don't know

(a) This question was asked of 487 main sample and 179 SCALD male respondents and 516 main sample and 204 SCALD female respondents.

Note: Female differences between samples significant to p<.01. No other differences significant.

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Figure 5.4. Sex breakdown: Women often say "no" when they mean "yes"[a]
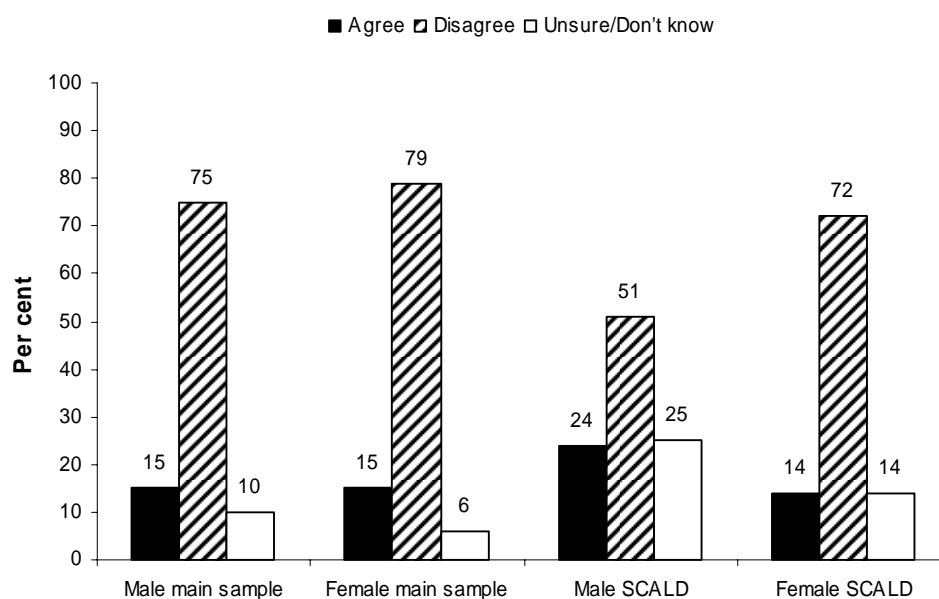
■ Agree ▨ Disagree ▢ Unsure/Don't know

(a) This question was asked of 487 main sample and 179 SCALD male respondents and 516 main sample and 204 SCALD female respondents.

Note: Sex differences within the SCALD sample were significant to p<.01. Sex differences between the samples significant to p<.01.

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Figure 5.5: Sex breakdown: Women who are sexually harassed should sort it out themselves rather than report it[a]
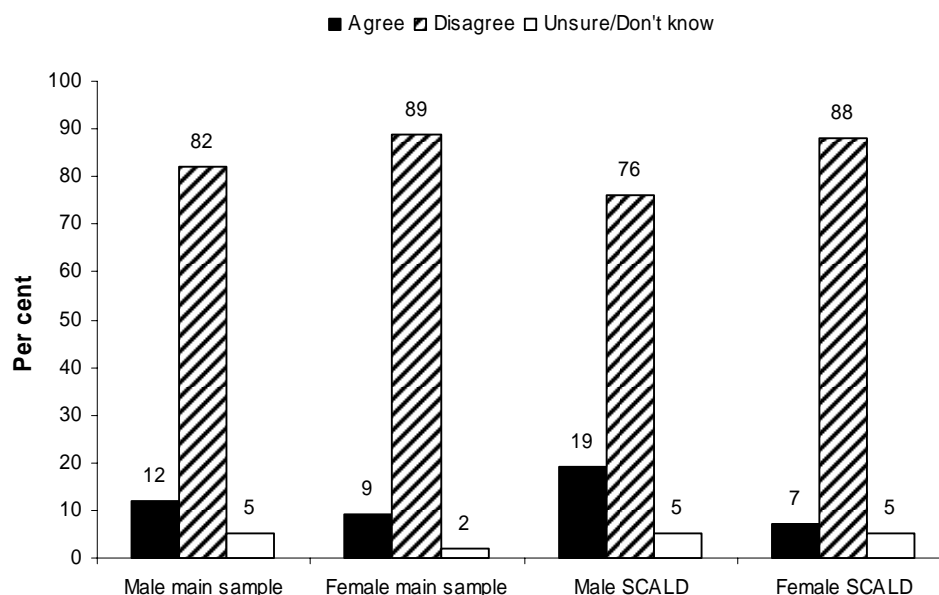
■ Agree ▨ Disagree ▢ Unsure/Don't know

(a) This question was asked of 487 main sample and 179 SCALD male respondents and 516 main sample and 204 SCALD female respondents.

Note: Sex differences within both samples significant to p<.01. Differences between samples not significant.

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Figure 5.6: Sex breakdown: Women who are raped often ask for it[a]
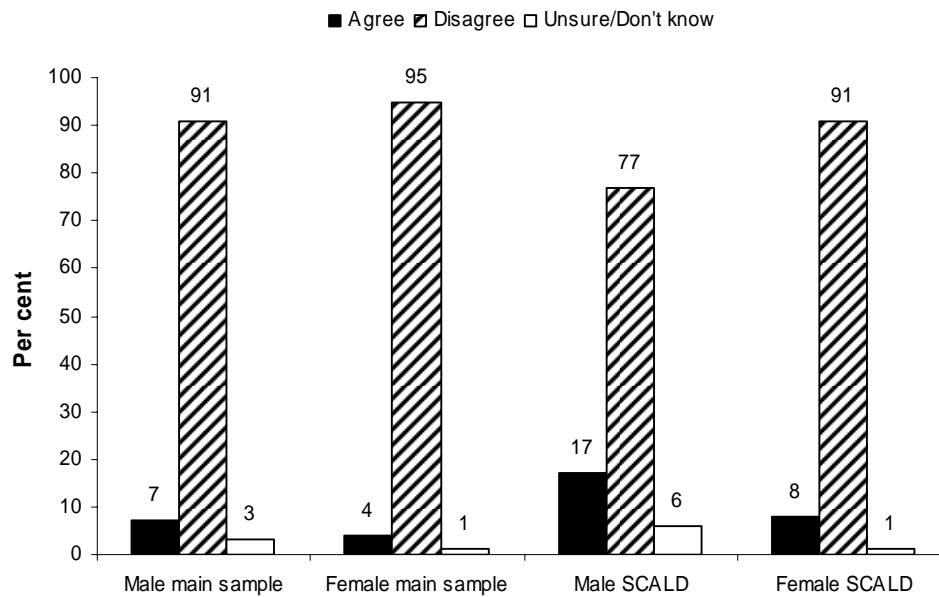
■ Agree ▨ Disagree ▢ Unsure/Don't know

(a) This question was asked of 488 main sample and 213 SCALD male respondents and 508 main sample and 204 SCALD female respondents.

Note: Sex differences within the SCALD sample significant to p<.01. Male differences between samples significant to p<.01. Female differences between samples not significant.

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Figure 5.7: Sex breakdown: Rape results from men not being able to control their need for sex[a]
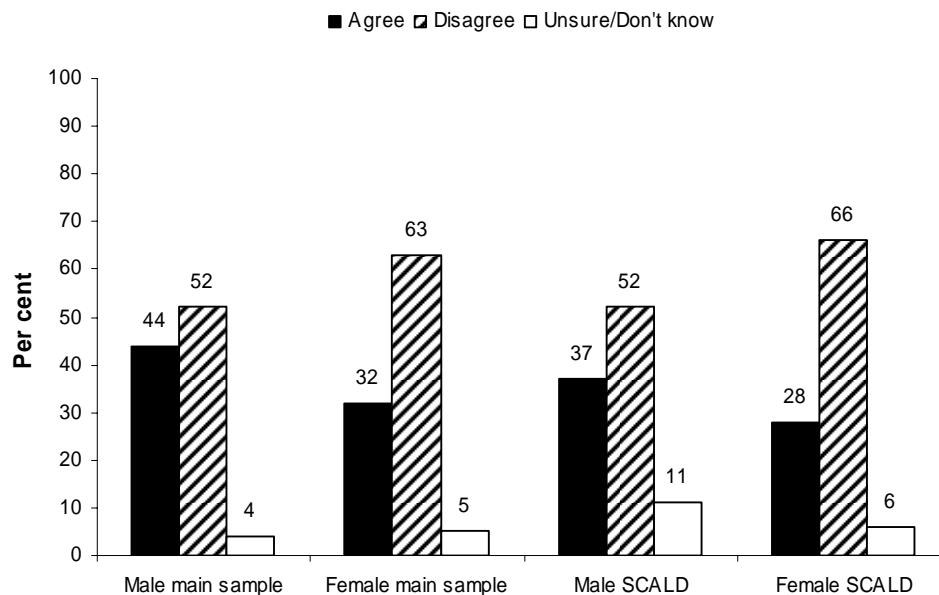
■ Agree ▨ Disagree ▢ Unsure/Don't know

(a) This question was asked of 488 main sample and 213 SCALD male respondents and 508 main sample and 204 SCALD female respondents.

Note: The differences between males and females in main sample significant to p<.01 and between males and females in SCALD sample significant to p<.05.

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Figure 5.8: Sex breakdown: A woman cannot be raped by someone she is in a sexual relationship with[a]
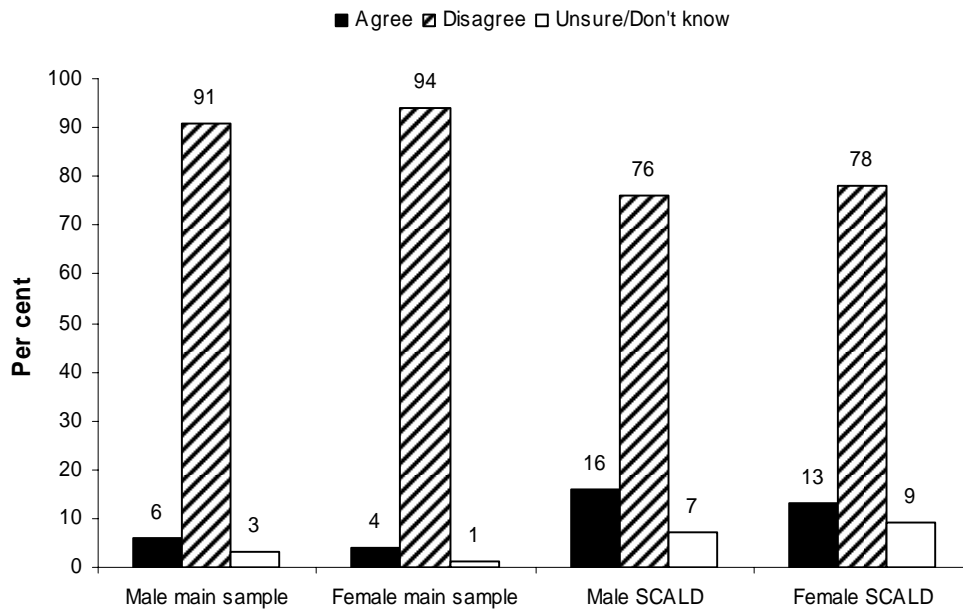
■ Agree ▨ Disagree □ Unsure/Don't know

(a) This question was asked of 488 main sample and 213 SCALD male respondents and 508 main sample and 204 SCALD female respondents.

Note: Sex differences between samples significant to p<.01. No sex differences within samples.

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Figure 5.9: Sex breakdown: Sexual assault can be excused if the victim is heavily affected by alcohol[a]
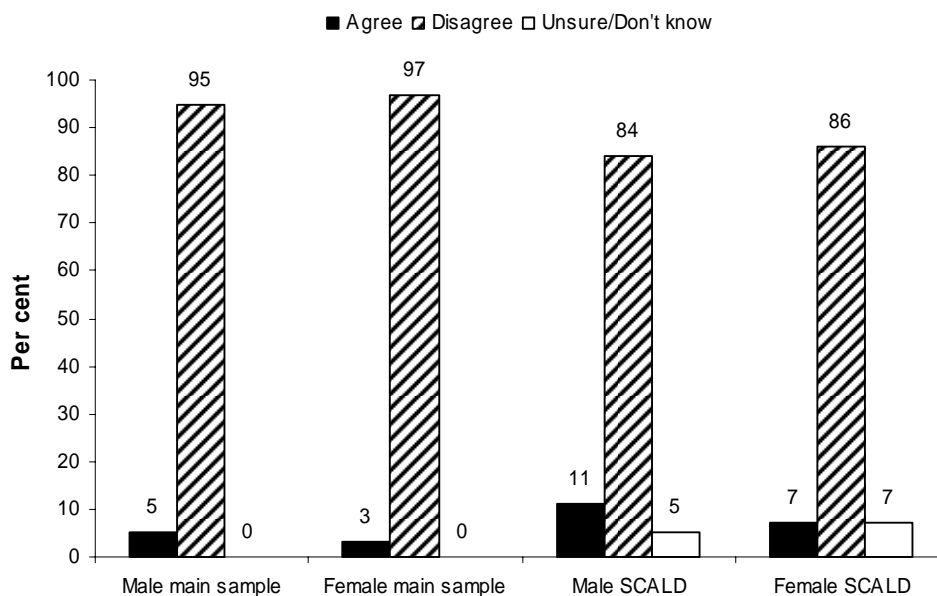
■ Agree ▨ Disagree □ Unsure/Don't know

(a) This question was asked of 488 main sample and 213 SCALD male respondents and 508 main sample and 204 SCALD female respondents.

Note: Sex differences between samples significant to p<.01. No sex differences within samples.

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Figure 5.10: Sex breakdown: Sexual assault can be excused if the offender is heavily affected by alcohol[a]

■ Agree ▨ Disagree ▢ Unsure/Don't know
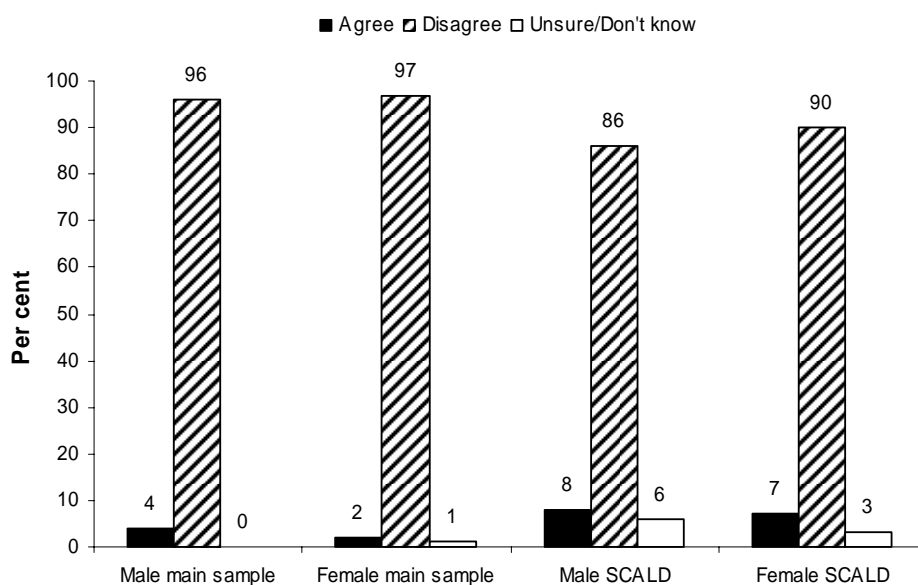
(a) This question was asked of 488 main sample and 213 SCALD males and 508 main sample and 204 SCALD female respondents

Note: Sex differences between samples significant to p<.01. No sex differences within samples.

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Gender equality

Attitudes toward gender equality were again associated with the level of agreement or disagreement with statements relating to domestic violence and sexual violence (Table 5.3). As each statement was responded to by only half of each sample, Table 5.3 combined the main and SCALD samples. Compared with those who had weak support for gender equality, those who strongly supported gender equality had higher proportions of people agreeing with positive statements about women and lower proportions of people agreeing with negative statements about women.

Agree with statement	Support for Gender Equality					
	Low		**Medium**		**High**	
	%	95 CI	%	95 CI	%	95 CI
Domestic violence can be excused if person gets so angry they lose control[a]	42	37 - 47	23	19 - 28	16	12 - 22
Domestic violence can be excused if offender heavily affected by alcohol[a]	20	16 - 24	8	5 - 11	4	2 - 7
Violent partner should have to leave the home[a]	84	80 - 87	90	86 - 93	92	89 – 95
Domestic violence can be excused if person genuinely regrets what they have done[a]	51	45 - 56	25	21 - 30	14	10 – 19
Women going through custody battles often make up claims of domestic violence[a]	58	53 - 63	42	37 - 47	35	30 – 41
Women are more likely to be raped by someone they know[b]	62	57 - 67	67	62 - 72	80	75 - 84
Women rarely make false claims of being raped[b]	59	54 - 64	61	56 - 66	68	63 – 73
Women often say "no" when they mean "yes" [b]	26	22 - 31	15	12 - 19	7	5 - 10
Women who are raped often ask for it[c]	19	15 - 23	4	3 - 7	2	1 - 4
Rape results from men not being able to control their need for sex[c]	51	46 - 57	34	29 - 39	26	22 - 31
A women cannot be raped by someone she is in a sexual relationship with[c]	16	12 - 20	6	4 - 9	3	1 - 6
(N) where superscript = a	(431)		(483)		(455)	
(N) where superscript = b	(458)		(468)		(460)	
(N) where superscript = c	(421)		(520)		(473)	

Note: 95% confidence interval indicates that the probability is 0.95 that the true population figure lies within this range.

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Influence of culture

Key predictors of agreement with statements

To investigate the key demographic, social and cultural factors predicting agreement with statements, logistic regression models were conducted for five selected statements, combining both the main and SCALD samples[4] (Table 5.4). In these models country of birth / heritage (Chinese/Vietnamese or Italian/Greek) were entered as dummy variables and separately contrasted with "everyone else" in the sample. Controlling for the effects of the other variables in the models the key predictors significantly associated with agreement with each statement at p<.01 were as follow.

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[4] Samples were combined for the logistic regression models because only half the samples responded to each statement (reduced Ns) and RSEs were unreliable when tested separately with the booster SCALD sample.

Women going through custody battles often make up or exaggerate claims of domestic violence in order to improve their case

- Male
- Weak support for gender equality;
- Being older rather than younger;
- Less educated.

Domestic violence can be excused if it results from people getting so angry that they temporarily lose control

- Male
- Weak support for gender equality;
- Unemployed;
- Speaking a language other than English at home.

Women are more likely to be raped by someone they know than by a stranger

- Strong support for gender equality;
- Higher level of education.

Domestic violence can be excused if, afterwards, the violent person genuinely regrets what they have done

- Male
- Weak support for gender equality;
- Unemployed.

Rape results from men not being able to control their need for sex

- Male
- Weak support for gender equality;
- Not a white collar worker (lower occupational status)
- Less educated.

Sex and support for gender equality consistently predicted agreement with these statements. Socio-economic variables (occupation, employment and education) also influenced agreement but the impact of these variables was less consistent.

Table 5.4: Predictors of agreement with selected statements (odds ratios, combined samples)

	Women going through custody battles often make up claims of domestic violence	95 CI	Domestic violence can be excused if it results from temporary anger	95 CI	Women are more likely to be raped by someone they know than by a stranger	95 CI	Domestic violence can be excused if it results in genuine regret	95 CI	Men can't control their need for sex	95 CI
Sex (female or male)	**1.65****	1.31 – 2.08	**1.48****	1.13 – 1.92	0.82	0.63 – 1.05	**2.17****	1.66 – 2.84	**1.49****	1.17 – 1.89
Gender equality (low or high)	**0.65****	0.50 – 0.84	**0.59****	0.43 – 0.80	**1.68****	1.25 – 2.25	**0.45****	0.32 – 0.62	**0.55****	0.42 – 0.71
Age (less than 44 or older than)	**1.39****	1.09 – 1.78	1.17	0.89 – 1.55	1.19	0.91 – 1.57	1.41*	1.07– 1.86	1.00	0.77 – 1.28
Occupation status (white collar)	0.81	0.61 – 1.06	1.01	0.74 – 1.38	1.29	0.96 – 1.72	1.21	0.88 – 1.66	**0.63****	0.48 – 0.83
Employed (no or yes)	1.07	0.81 – 1.41	**0.59****	0.44 – 0.80	1.01	0.76 – 1.36	**0.55****	0.40 – 0.75	1.12	0.84 – 1.48
Education completed (Up to year 12/trade or higher)	**0.56****	0.44 – 0.71	0.73*	0.56 – 0.96	**1.72****	1.32 – 2.23	0.76	0.58 – 1.00	**0.72****	0.56 – 0.91
LOTE (no or yes)	1.57*	1.07 – 2.30	**1.80****	1.16 – 2.78	0.71	0.48 – 1.07	1.36	0.89 – 2.07	0.73	0.51 – 1.04
Chinese/Vietnamese heritage (no or yes)	0.64	0.32 – 1.28	0.80	0.34 – 1.89	0.47	0.22 – 1.00	2.08	0.98 – 4.42	0.82	0.43 – 1.54
Greek/Italian heritage (no or yes)	0.74	0.41 – 1.32	0.40*	0.18 – 0.89	1.27	0.66 – 2.45	1.06	0.55 – 2.04	0.70	0.41 – 1.20
Whether born in Australia (no or yes)	1.11	0.70 – 1.44	1.00	0.72 – 1.41	0.79	0.56 – 1.11	0.67*	0.48 – 0.93	0.99	0.74 – 1.33
Remoteness (regional or city)	0.90	0.69 – 1.16	1.00	0.74 – 1.35	0.83	0.63 – 1.11	0.85	0.63 – 1.16	0.91	0.70 – 1.18
Sample (main or SCALD)	0.79	0.43 – 1.45	1.75	0.80 – 3.81	0.70	0.36 – 1.36	1.02	0.53 – 1.99	1.03	0.59 – 1.79
Model Chi square (12 df)	101.27**		106.30**		139.68**		194.71**		89.80**	
(N)	(1359)		(1359)		(1379)		(1359)		(1403)	

Significant to ** p<.01 *p<.05

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Implications of findings

A number of important implications arise from these findings relating to beliefs about domestic and sexual violence against women.

1. There is a considerable spread of views within the community relating to violence against women, and the degree to which individual community members adhere to myths and stereotypes about women and violence.

2. Despite a concerted effort in recent years to increase awareness and education about violence against women, negative beliefs and stereotypes still exist within the community.

3. In particular and of some considerable concern, a large proportion of the community, both male and female, hold the views that

    –   domestic violence can be excused if it results from temporary anger or results in genuine regret;

    –   women going through custody battles often make up claims of domestic violence to improve their case; and

    –   rape results from men not being able to control their need for sex (responsibility for rape is therefore removed from men because it is not within their control).

4. Negative attitudes toward women tend, on average, to be held more by males and those with weak support for gender equality. Other attitudinal drivers relate to age, occupational status, education and employment. When the effects of other variables were controlled, no significant effects of country of birth/heritage emerged when the significance level was set to $p<.01$.

5. There appears to be a considerable amount of uncertainty within the community relating to what could reasonably be called 'factual' statements. Examples are whether domestic violence is a criminal offence, the speed with which the police respond to domestic violence calls, the neighbourhoods in which domestic violence occurs (wealthy neighbourhoods as well as poor ones), and the fact that women are more likely to be raped by people they know. Uncertainty about these statements could mean that people are less likely to call police because they don't know whether a particular behaviour is a crime, or how long it takes police to respond to a domestic violence call, or whether they will be taken seriously because they don't "fit" what they perceive to be the stereotypical incident. These findings provide clear avenues for targeted community education campaigns.

6. Uncertainty which relates to 'non-factual' statements is much more difficult to counter but nevertheless an important finding. These beliefs are much more insidious in nature but difficult to change because empirical evidence based on data is not available in the way that it is for 'factual' statements. However, in contrast to those who hold firm negative attitudes, those who are uncertain about negatively-worded statements by definition retain the potential to be influenced and swayed in their views through increased and regular exposure to societal norms relating to violence against women and the message that for violence against women, Australia says NO!.

6. Are there any circumstances in which physical force may be justified?

The previous chapter identified several statements that referred to whether a violent behaviour could be 'excused'. These related to alcohol consumption by the victim or the offender, if the behaviour resulted from temporary anger or if the offender genuinely regretted the behaviour afterward. There was a higher tendency to excuse violent behaviour if there was genuine regret afterward. However, although similar, whether a behaviour can be 'excused' is not the same as whether the behaviour can be 'justified'. The first implies that the behaviour was wrong, the second implies that it was not.

2006 survey

Changes across time

In the 2006 survey respondents were asked whether they agreed or disagreed that a man would be justified in using physical force against his wife or partner in a range of scenarios. While three of these questions were replicated from the 1995 survey, four others were reworded so that a direct comparison is not possible, and two new statements were included. Table 6.1 shows the proportions of general community respondents in both 1995 and 2006 who agreed or disagreed with each of the statements.

Table 6.1: Comparisons between 1995 and 2006 surveys (percentages)

Level of agreement with domestic violence statements	1995 (N=2004)			2006 (N=2000)		
	Agree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Disagree	Neither/Unsure
Current wife or partner						
Argues with or refuses to obey him	1	98	1	1	98	1
Wastes money	1	98	1	2	97	1
Keeps nagging him	2	96	2	2	97	1
Doesn't keep the house clean	1	98	1	na	na	na
Doesn't have meals ready on time	1	98	1	na	na	na
Refuses to sleep with him	1	98	1	na	na	na
Admits to sleeping with another man	6	90	4	na	na	na
Doesn't keep up with domestic chores	na	na	na	1	98	1
Refuses to have sex with him	na	na	na	1	98	1
Admits to having sex with another man	na	na	na	4	93	3
Doesn't keep the children well behaved	na	na	na	2	97	1
Socialises too much with her friends	na	na	na	2	97	1
Puts her own career ahead of the family	na	na	na	1	97	1
Former wife or partner						
If she refuses to return to the relationship	na	na	na	1	98	1
In order to get access to his children	na	na	na	2	97	1
If she tries to turn the children against him	na	na	na	1	97	2
If he thinks she is unreasonable about property settlement or financial issues	na	na	na	1	97	1
If she commences a new relationship	na	na	na	1	98	1

na Question not asked in 1995

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

For the three statements asked in both surveys, the proportions of respondents who did not believe force was justified were similar. In 2006, the vast majority of both the main and SCALD samples disagreed that force was justified in all scenarios. Admitting to having sex with another man was the only scenario in which a slightly higher proportion of the main sample (4%) thought that force might be justifiable – three percent were unsure.

Influence of gender

Sex

Sex differences were primarily between male and female SCALD respondents (Figures 6.1 to 6.9). The only scenario in which sex differences appeared between males and females in the main sample was where a man's wife or partner admitted to having sex with another man (males more likely to agree that physical force was justified than females). In the SCALD sample, males were significantly more likely than females to agree that force was justified if a man's wife or partner:

- argues with or refuses to obey him;
- wastes money;
- doesn't keep up with the domestic chores;
- keeps nagging him; and
- admits to having sex with another man.

However the proportions of all respondents who agreed with the use of force in both samples were very low – the vast majority of all respondents disagreed that force could be justified.

Figure 6.1: Sex breakdown: Physical force justified if man's wife or partner argues with or refuses to obey him
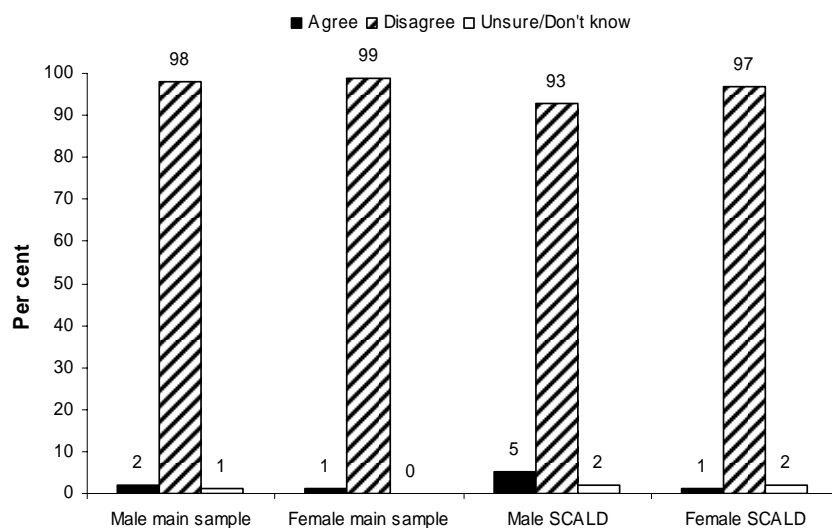
Note: Differences between male and female SCALD respondents were significant to p<.01.
Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Figure 6.2: Sex breakdown: Physical force justified if man's wife or partner wastes money
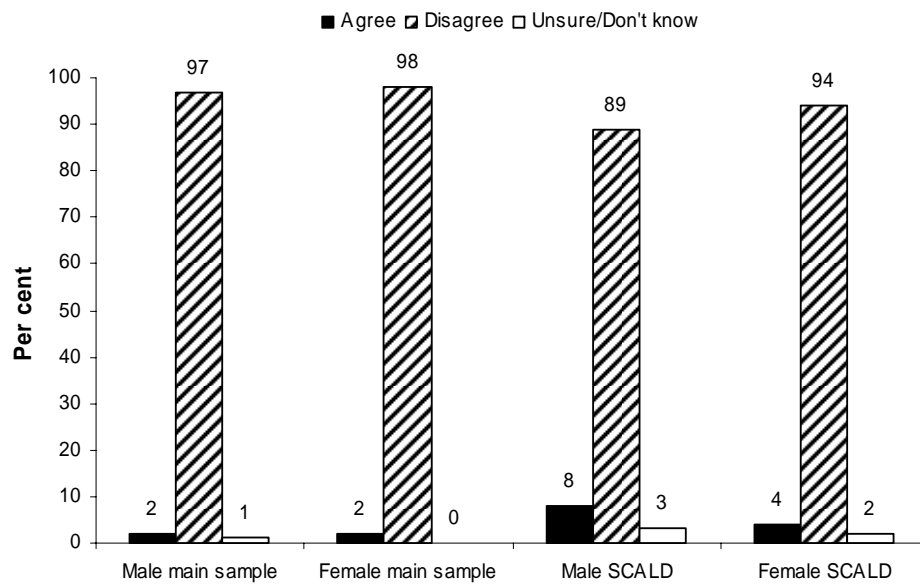
Agree ■ Disagree ▨ Unsure/Don't know □

Note: Differences between male and female SCALD respondents were significant to p<.05.

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Figure 6.3. Sex breakdown: Physical force justified if man's wife or partner doesn't keep up with the domestic chores
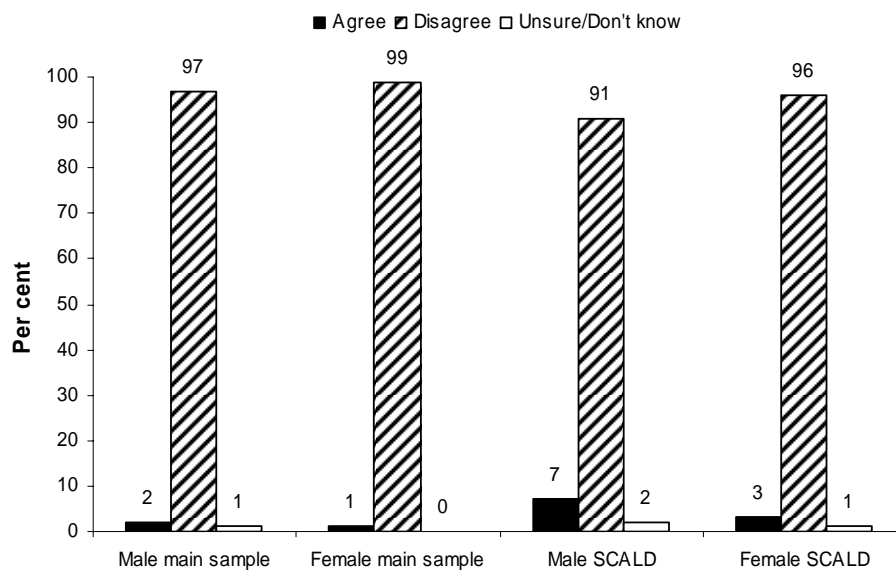
Agree ■ Disagree ▨ Unsure/Don't know □

Note: Differences between male and female SCALD respondents were significant to p<.01.

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Figure 6.4: Sex breakdown: Physical force justified if man's wife or partner keeps nagging him
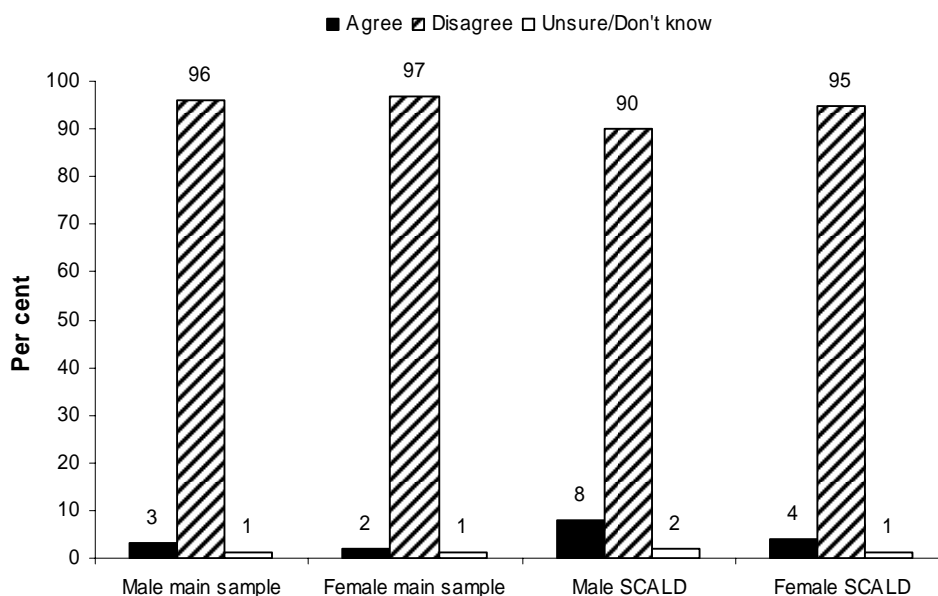
Note: Differences between male and female SCALD respondents were significant to p<.01.

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Figure 6.5: Sex breakdown: Physical force justified if man's wife or partner refuses to have sex with him
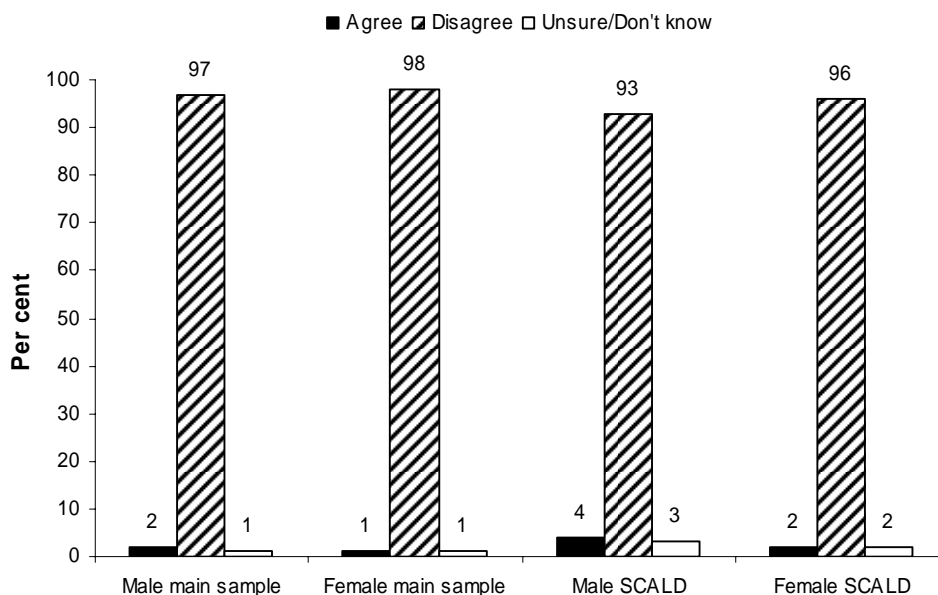
Note: No significant differences existed within or between samples

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Figure 6.6: Sex breakdown: Physical force justified if man's wife or partner admits to having sex with another man
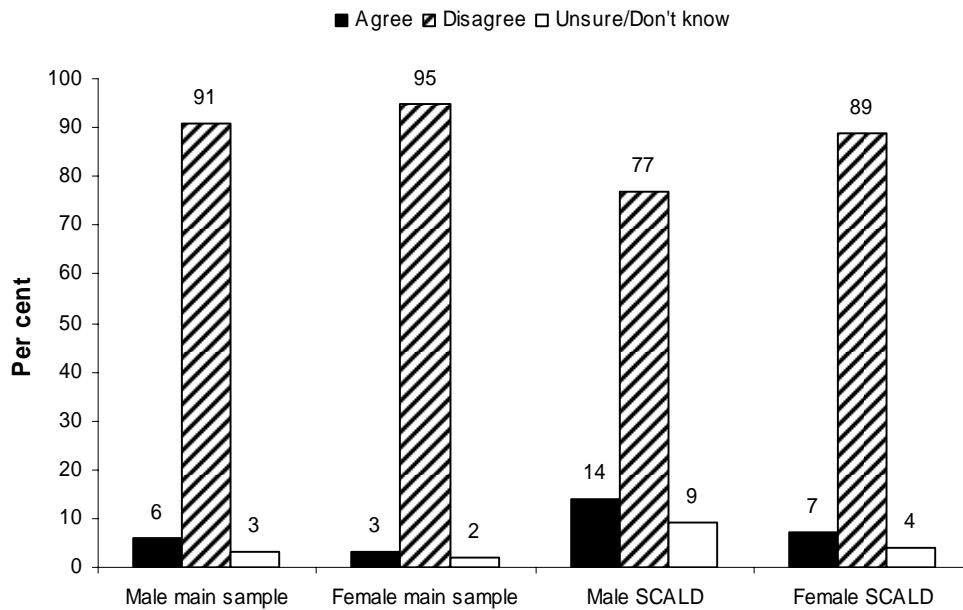
■ Agree ▨ Disagree □ Unsure/Don't know

Note: Differences between males and females in SCALD sample significant to p<.05.

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Figure 6.7: Sex breakdown: Physical force justified if man's wife or partner doesn't keep the children well behaved
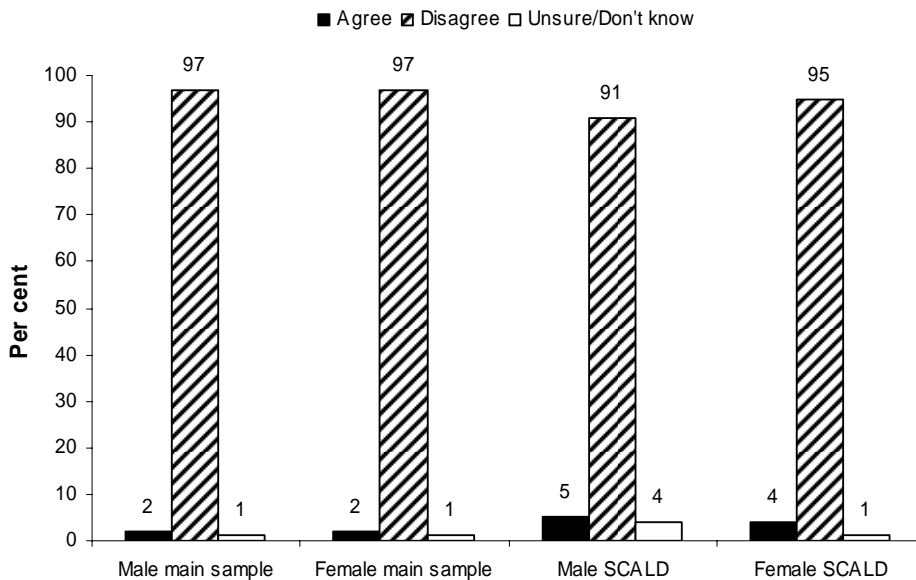
■ Agree ▨ Disagree □ Unsure/Don't know

Note: No significant differences existed within or between samples.

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Figure 6.8: Sex breakdown: Physical force justified if man's wife or partner socialises too much with her friends
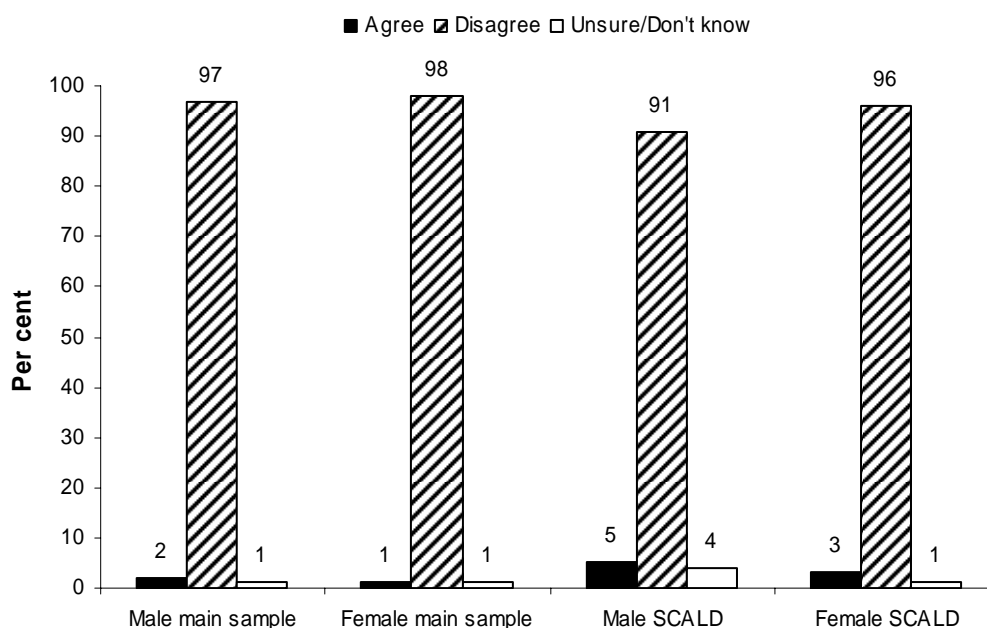
■ Agree ▨ Disagree □ Unsure/Don't know

Note: Sex differences within SCALD sample significant to p<.01

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Figure 6.9: Sex breakdown: Physical force justified if man's wife or partner puts her own career ahead of the family
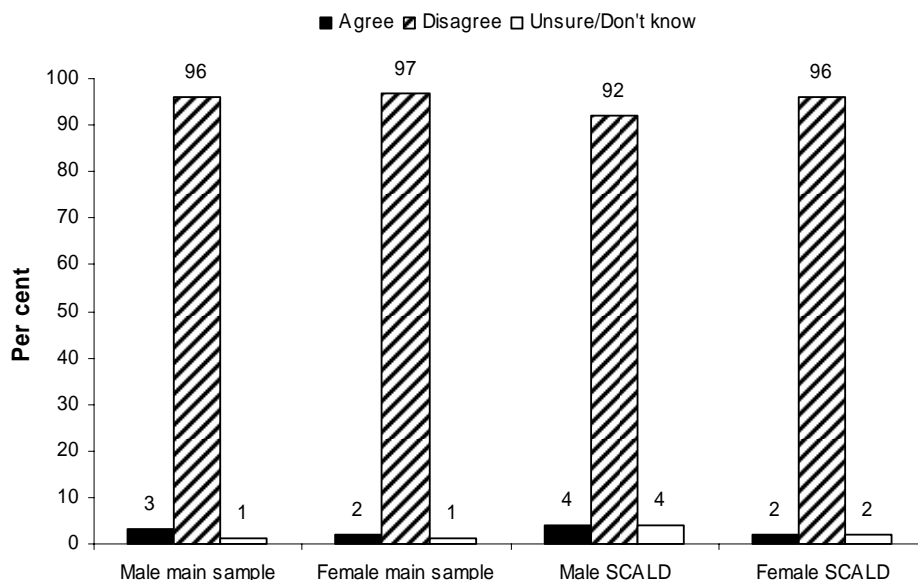
■ Agree ▨ Disagree □ Unsure/Don't know

Note: No significant differences existed within or between samples.

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Principal components analysis of the nine statements relating to justification of force against a wife or partner revealed that responses to these items were correlated (rs ranged from 0.40 to 0.62) and loaded onto one factor ($\alpha = 0.89$, see Appendix C). Disagreement on one item was associated with disagreement on the others. These items were therefore added together and

averaged to provide a score on a single scale, referred to as 'justification of physical force against a partner' scale.

Respondents were also asked, in an open ended question, whether there were any other circumstances in which it might be acceptable for a man to use physical force against his wife or partner. Twenty-one percent of males and 13 percent of females volunteered that a man would be justified in using force if he was trying to protect himself (Table 6.2). This difference between males and females was significant. To protect the children, and to stop the wife or partner from harming herself were also raised as situations justifying force.

Table 6.2: Are there any other circumstances in which it might be acceptable for a man to use physical force against his wife or partner (percentages, combined samples)?

	Males	95 CI	Females	95 CI
To protect the children	7	6 - 9	6	4 - 7
To protect himself **	21	19 - 24	13	13 - 21
To stop her harming herself	3	2 - 5	4	3 - 5
To stop her hurting someone else	3	2 - 4	1	1 - 2
If she were hysterical	0	-	1	0 – 1
If she were having an affair/adulterous	2	1 - 3	1	1 – 2
Mental illness	1	0 - 1	1	0 - 1
(N)	(1368)		(1432)	

** significant to p<.01

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file], n=2800

Five new statements were included in the 2006 survey addressing the justification of physical force against a man's ex-partner (Table 6.3). While the vast majority of both the main and selected CALD samples disagreed with the use of force against an ex-partner, there was more variability within the selected SCALD sample. In particular, SCALD males were significantly more likely than SCALD females to believe force to be justified against an ex-partner in four of the five situations. Again, principal components analysis showed that responses to these items were strongly correlated with each other (rs ranged from 0.40 to 0.60) and loaded onto one factor (α = 0.82, see Appendix C). Disagreement on one item was associated with disagreement on the others. These items were therefore added together and averaged to provide a score on a single scale, referred to as 'justification of physical force against an ex- partner' scale.

Table 6.3: Proportion of respondents who agreed (strongly or somewhat) that a man would be justified in using physical force against his ex-partner by sex and sample

	Male main sample		Female main sample		Male SCALD		Female SCALD	
	% Agree	95 CI	% Agree	95 CI	% Agree	95 CI	% Agree	95 CI
If she refuses to return to the relationship	1	0 - 1	1	0 - 1	3	1 - 5	1	0 - 3
In order to get access to his children	2	1 - 4	1	1 - 2	6**	4 - 10	3	2 - 6
If she tries to turn the children against him	2	1 - 3	1	1 - 2	7**	5 - 11	3	2 - 6
If he thinks she is unreasonable about property settlement and financial issues	2	1 - 3	1	1 - 2	6**	4 - 10	1	1 - 3
If she commences a new relationship	1	0 - 2	1	0 - 2	5**	3 - 9	1	0 - 2

** differences between male and female SCALD respondents significant to p<.01

Note: 95% confidence interval indicates that the probability is 0.95 that the true population figure lies within this range.

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Comparing justification of force against a current vs an ex partner

The two composite justification of physical force scales were dichotomised into those who 'strongly' disagreed (highest end scale point) vs everyone else. Figures 6.10 and 6.11 show that while strong disagreement with force was significantly higher for females in both samples,

- the use of physical force against an ex-partner was considered much less justifiable than against a current partner;

- males in the SCALD sample were the least likely of all respondents to "strongly" disagree that the use of physical force can be justified.

Figure 6.10: Percentage of main and SCALD samples who strongly disagreed that physical force against a current wife or partner could be justified
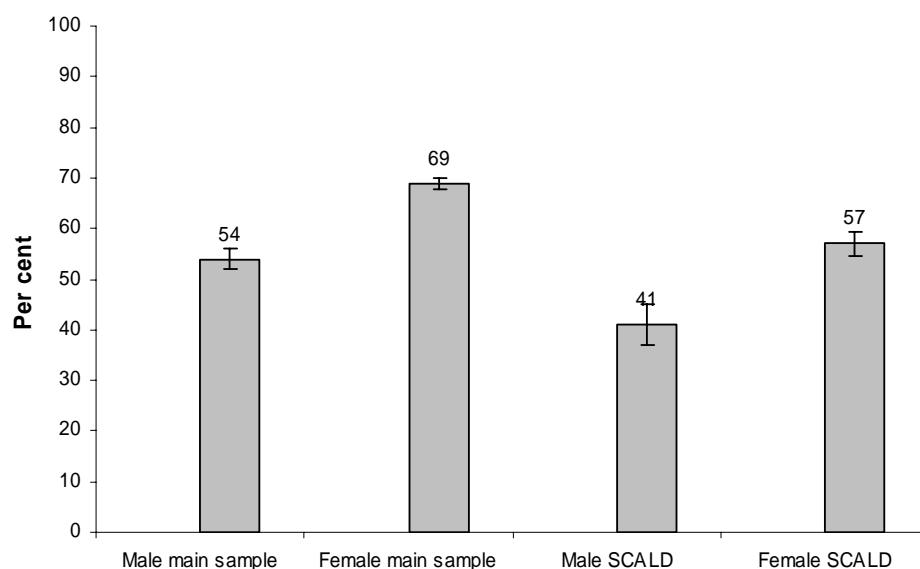
Note: Sex differences within each sample and between each sample significant to p<.01. Bars represent relative standard errors.

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Figure 6.11: Percentage of main and SCALD samples who strongly disagreed that physical force against an ex-wife or ex-partner could be justified
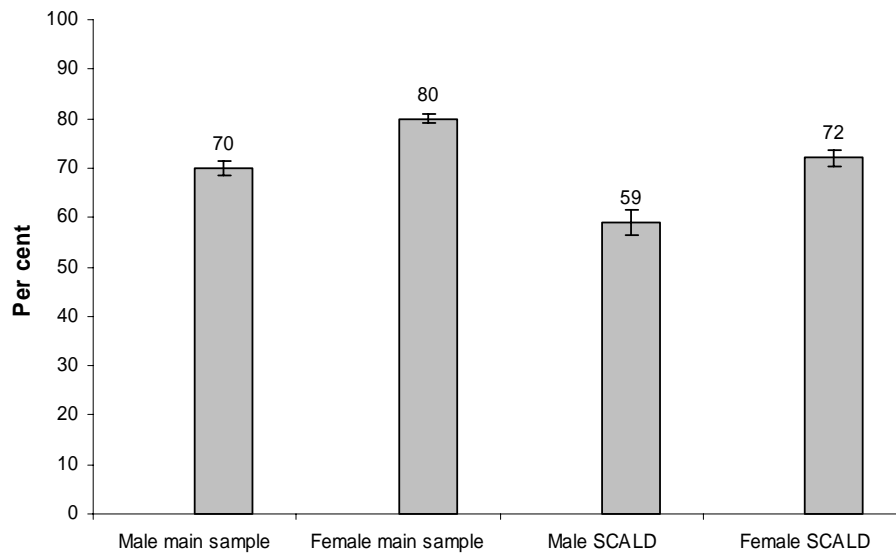
Note: Sex differences within each sample and between each sample significant to p<.01. Bars represent relative standard errors.

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Influence of culture

The characteristics associated with whether respondents "strongly" disagreed that the use of physical force could be justified against either a current partner or an ex-partner are shown in Tables 6.4 and 6.5, respectively. It can be seen that strong disagreement with the justification of force scales was generally associated with:

- sex (being female)
- age (younger)
- stronger support for gender equality
- higher occupational status
- being born in Australia
- having a higher rather than lower income
- being employed
- having a higher level of education, and
- not speaking a language other than English at home.

Table 6.4: Characteristics associated with belief that physical violence by a man against his wife or partner can be justified, column percentages

	Physical violence by a man against his wife or partner can be justified			
	Main sample		SCALD sample	
	Do not strongly disagree	Strongly disagree	Do not strongly disagree	Strongly disagree
Sex				
Female	42**	57	43**	59
Male	58	43	57	41
Age				
Less than or equal to 44 years of age	41**	58	52**	69
45 or older	59	42	48	31
Gender equality				
Low	42**	15	60**	32
Medium	35	36	31	39
High	23	49	9	29
Occupational status				
White collar	44**	63	30**	49
Not white collar	56	37	70	51
Born in Australia				
Yes	70**	79	18**	48
No	30	21	82	52
Annual gross income[a]				
Less than $40,000	43**	26	54**	36
$40,000 or more	57	74	46	64
Employed?				
Yes	55**	72	52	60
No	45	28	48	40
Highest level of education achieved				
Up to Year 12 or trade qualification	59**	43	67**	54
Higher qualification	41	57	33	46
Language other than English spoken at home?				
Yes	19**	10	87**	73
No	81	90	13	27
Proficiency in English				
Very good or good	-	-	57**	77
Poor or non-existent	-	-	43	23
Location				
Regional	39	37	13	15
City	61	63	87	85
(N)	(765)	(1235)	(410)	(390)

chi square differences significant to ** p<.01

(a) data on annual gross income was available for 2408 respondents

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Table 6.5: Characteristics associated with belief that physical violence by a man against his ex-wife or ex-partner can be justified, column percentages

		Physical violence by a man against his wife or partner can be justified			
		Main sample		SCALD sample	
		Do not strongly disagree	Strongly disagree	Do not strongly disagree	Strongly disagree
Sex					
	Female	41**	55	41**	56
	Male	59	45	59	44
Age					
	Less than or equal to 44 years of age	42**	55	56	62
	45 or older	58	45	44	38
Gender equality					
	Low	47**	18	60**	39
	Medium	36	35	30	38
	High	17	46	10	23
Occupational status					
	White collar	43**	60	35	42
	Not white collar	57	40	65	58
Born in Australia					
	Yes	71	77	21**	38
	No	29	23	79	62
Annual gross income[a]					
	Less than $40,000	43**	29	51*	41
	$40,000 or more	57	71	49	59
Employed?					
	Yes	58**	68	54	57
	No	42	32	46	43
Highest level of education achieved					
	Up to Year 12 or trade qualification	61**	45	62	60
	Higher qualification	39	55	38	40
Language other than English spoken at home?					
	Yes	20**	11	85*	78
	No	80	89	15	22
Proficiency in English					
	Very good or good	-	-	63	69
	Poor or non-existent	-	-	37	31
Location					
	Regional	39	37	14	14
	City	61	63	86	86
(N)		(490)	(1510)	(277)	(523)

chi square differences significant to ** p<.01 *p<.05

(a) data on annual gross income was available for 2408 respondents

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Key predictors of strong disagreement with physical force against a current wife or partner scale

To investigate the key demographic factors predicting strong disagreement that physical force can be justified against a current wife or partner, logistic regression models were conducted for the main sample and the booster SCALD sample (Table 6.6). After controlling for the effects of the other variables in the models the key predictors significantly associated with strong disagreement were:

For the main sample
- Sex (being female)
- Strong support for gender equality
- Age (younger rather than older)
- Being employed
- Higher level of education
- Speaking only English at home

For the SCALD sample
- Sex (being female)
- Strong support for gender equality
- Age (younger rather than older)
- Speaking only English at home
- Being in a city location (rather than regional)
- Being born in Australia (second generation)

For both samples, then, sex, support for gender equality, age and speaking only English at home were key predictors of strongly disagreeing that physical force against a current wife or partner could be justified. In the SCALD sample, second generation respondents (those born in Australia) were significantly more likely than those born overseas to strongly disagree that physical force could be justified.

Table 6.6: Predictors of strong disagreement with physical force against a current wife or partner, logistic regression (odds ratios)

	Main sample			Booster SCALD sample		
	Odds	RSE	95 CI	Odds	RSE	95 CI
Sex (female or male)	0.55**	0.10	0.45 – 0.68	0.57**	0.16	0.41 – 0.78
Gender equality (low or high)	2.33**	0.11	1.87 – 2.90	2.55**	0.20	1.71 – 3.82
Age (less than 44 or older than)	0.64**	0.11	0.52 – 0.79	0.68*	0.18	0.47 – 0.99
Occupation status (white collar)	1.23	0.12	1.00 – 1.61	1.25	0.18	0.88 – 1.77
Employed (no or yes)	1.53**	0.12	1.20 – 1.96	0.99	0.18	0.70 – 1.41
Education completed (Up to year 12/trade or higher)	1.67**	0.10	1.36 – 2.05	1.20	0.17	0.97 – 1.66
LOTE (no or yes)	0.39**	0.15	0.29 – 0.54	0.66*	0.20	0.44 – 0.98
Remoteness (regional or city)	1.07	0.11	0.87 – 1.32	1.59*	0.23	1.02 – 2.50
Born in Australia (no or yes)	1.11	0.13	0.86 – 1.43	-	-	-
Heritage (Chinese/Vietnamese or Italian/Greek)	-	-	-	1.23	0.26	0.74 – 2.05
Arrived in Aust prior to 1980 (compared to born in Aust)	-	-	-	0.53**	0.24	0.33 – 0.85
Arrived in Aust after 1980 (compared to born in Aust)	-	-	-	0.30**	0.28	0.17 – 0.53
Model Chi square	303.20**			179.45**		
N (df)	1993 (9)			899 (11)		

Significant to   *p<.05   **p<.01

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Implications of findings

Overall, the community in general does not appear to believe that physical violence against women is justifiable. The vast majority of respondents did not believe force to be justifiable in any of the scenarios presented. Exceptions to this were where a man needed to protect himself or the children. Force was marginally more likely to be justified by males than females where a wife or partner admitted to having sex with another man. In the SCALD sample males were also more likely than females to view force as being justified in certain scenarios. After controlling for the effects of other factors in the SCALD sample, country of birth/heritage in and of itself did not emerge as a significant predictor of strong disagreement with force against a current partner. Rather, the key factors which were important in predicting strong disagreement that force could be justified were sex, support for gender equality, age and speaking only English at home. Employment and education also predicted strong disagreement in the main sample while second generation respondents in the SCALD sample were more likely to disagree that force could be justified. Overall, force against an ex-partner was considered as much less justifiable than against a current partner.

7. Factors impacting on action by victims and intervention by others

A range of factors impact on whether victims of violence take action, and what action they take. In order to take action, of course, victims must know what behaviours are criminal and they must also define that particular behaviour themselves as violence and an offence, and serious enough to warrant action. The 2005 Personal Safety Survey (ABS 2006a) found that of those women who had experienced an incident of physical assault by a male perpetrator in the previous twelve months, just over half (53%) did not perceive the assault as a crime. It was established in Chapters 3 and 4 that there is considerable diversity in what the community regards as violence and the seriousness of particular behaviours. It was also established that many people within the community are unsure about whether behaviours are violent and whether they are serious. Many people were also unaware of whether domestic violence is an offence or not, and a small minority did not know if domestic rape comprised violence against women.

However, even if these obstacles do not exist, there are many barriers to reporting violence and these barriers can vary with a range of social and cultural factors. Rates of reporting of sexual violence to police are known to be notoriously low and many women are unwilling to go through the formal court process associated with prosecution of offenders. Lievore (2003) identified some of the key barriers that discourage victims from reporting violence. These include:

Fear

- Fear of not being believed
- Fear of being blamed
- Fear for family and friends
- Fear of retribution by offender or offender's friends or family
- Fear of having to give evidence and be cross-examined
- Fear they will be identified in the media and personal details and history
- Fear of shame

Personal barriers

- Too trivial or inappropriate to report
- Not a 'real' crime
- Not clear that harm was intended
- Deal with it themselves
- Regard it as a private matter
- Shame and embarrassment
- Don't want family or others to know
- Desire to protect offender, relationship or children

In the Australian component of the International Violence Against Women Survey (Mouzos & Makkai 2004), 14 percent of women who experienced violence from an intimate partner, and 16 percent of women who experienced violence from someone else, reported the most recent incident to police. Stranger violence was twice as likely to be reported to police as violence by a friend or family member. Reporting violence by an ex-partner was also more likely than violence by a current partner.

General community focus groups

Focus group participants commonly found the questions of whether, when and how to intervene in domestic violence situations quite complex, and noted that making a decision to intervene was difficult. On one hand, they understood that their intervention might be helping another person in need; while on the other hand, they had numerous concerns about interfering in another person's life and were unsure of the implications of intervening for either themselves or the other people involved.

"You hear a scream in the air and … you should go and do something, you could call the police, you just don't know what to do, you know. How do you deal with it? Get involved?"

"I find it very difficult for another man to try and walk into another woman's or man's marriage … I don't know if I'd be game enough to do it, you know."

"You could make it worse … I can't accept the fact that any slaps or anything like that should be done, but are you overstepping your boundary?"

"It's not easy to figure out, you know. What happens if they've got kids and if you call the Department of Social Security or something like that and they might take the kids away or break up the family."

"We woke up one night to some horrific thing going on next door … we were both sort of in the lounge room, like, what do we do? Do we leave it? Do we call? Like, what if nothing's going on, they're just chucking stuff around having a fight. What if she's getting beaten up? What if, what if? And, sort of, while we're thinking all this, it stopped and ended and that was it, so we were, like, back to bed. So, whether this was the right thing or not, I don't know, but it's a sort of hard one, like you're really stepping on, you know."

A range of different issues were acknowledged as playing a role in the consideration of whether to intervene in a situation of violence against women. These could be grouped into factors associated with the situation and factors associated with personal beliefs.

Situational factors

- The frequency of violence – if the situation was the first instance of domestic violence observed in a relationship, then participants admitted being much more likely to let it go on the assumption that it was a once off and would not be repeated. On the other hand, they commonly reported being more likely to intervene in repetitive cases, as they felt that the repetition was indicative of a greater need for assistance. A related issue for some was that it was not possible to be sure whether a situation involved violence unless it was personally witnessed, and that to assume violence on the basis of overhearing yelling or arguing, without any other evidence was not appropriate.

- The severity of the violence – if more severe, then participants suggested that they would be more likely to intervene in order to protect the person. However, they also acknowledged that they were more likely to be concerned for their own safety in instances of severe violence, and that this might discourage them from intervening directly.

- The nature of the relationship with the people involved – the question of whether to intervene was somewhat related to whether the situation involved friends, family members, neighbours who were well known, neighbour who were not well known or strangers. Generally, participants suggested that the closer they were to someone, the more likely they were to feel a need to intervene.

- The perception of personal threat from being involved – participants indicated that if they felt that there was a possibility that intervention had the potential to escalate to personal threat, then they were more reluctant to intervene. Based on these discussions, the potential for threat tended to be assessed partly on the basis of the severity of the violence, so that in more severe cases participants were more reluctant to become involved personally (although they might be more likely to call the police).

Personal belief factors

- One must take responsibility for their social environment – some participants were adamant that any forms of violence, and especially violence against women, were wrong. Therefore they experienced a sense of social responsibility when confronted by violence, and that the right thing was to try to stop the violence.

- The situation is "none of my business" – this reasoning seemed to apply predominantly to situations of domestic violence, where participants were reluctant to intervene in other people's relationships, noting that unless they had substantial awareness of the nature of the relationship and the history of the situation, then intervention was somewhat presumptuous.

In this context, some also noted that they would not intervene unless they felt that there was an invitation to do so, whether that be implicit or explicit.

- Cultural differences – on the basis of a belief that different cultural groups had different values and levels of acceptability of violence, especially domestic violence, some participants noted that they were unsure when it was appropriate to intervene. They were reluctant to make an issue of an instance that might be considered acceptable within the culture in which it existed. Some also noted in this context, that not knowing about different cultures meant that they were even less confident with how the people involved might respond to their intervention.

Interviews and focus groups with Indigenous participants

Indigenous participants generally acknowledged that reporting on violent incident/s was generally 'family business' and required a certain level of confidence and bravery, particularly if an individual was not assured total anonymity. A number of female participants felt it was "virtually impossible" for women who were victims of violence from close family members to report the crime.

Most participants agreed with the view that it was risky for members of the wider community to get involved in other individuals' incidents of violence. A number of participants acknowledged that this was a part of Indigenous culture that challenged how the community could deal with violence positively. A number of participants felt so strongly about this view, that they felt it was best to simply not get involved in the first place: "It doesn't matter which side you are taking 'cause it causes friction between community members".

While many agreed that some women in the community who were survivors of violence returned to their partners after an incident (or incidents), the fact that they did so was not felt to be linked to the need to report the crime to authorities: "It shouldn't be a reason to not get involved…even if she's not prepared to leave, she does need moral support".

Other participants felt that the notion of 'leaving' was a difficult construct to promote in the Indigenous community as close familial relationships characterise the culture of so many communities: "The whole point is to reunite families".

In terms of the perceived likelihood of victims reporting a violent crime, most participants felt that it was "not very likely" as it could cause "embarrassment" for those directly or indirectly involved. The predominant rationale for this was that women "don't want to cause more hassle" for their own family, their partner or indeed their partner's family. As a result, many participants said that by reporting a violent incident, a woman would be likely to "make the situation worse on herself … they might be abused by family members of the perpetrators and shunned by other community members". This was particularly the case if the woman involved had children, as the fear was that women in this position would be left homeless, most likely with her children.

2006 Survey

Respondents in the 2006 survey were asked how likely they would be to intervene in any way at all if

- A woman that they didn't know was being physically assaulted by her partner in public;
- A neighbour that they didn't know very well was being physically assaulted by her partner; and
- A family member of close friend of theirs was currently a victim of domestic violence.

While the majority of respondents indicated that they would be likely (either very or somewhat) to intervene in all three situations, there was a linear relationship between likelihood of intervening and familiarity with the victim (Table 7.1). Respondents were most likely to say that they would intervene where a family member or close friend was a victim of domestic violence, and least likely to intervene with a woman they didn't know. There were also differences between the main and selected CALD samples. SCALD respondents were significantly less likely than the main respondents to say that they would intervene with someone they did not know very well. However, they were equally likely to intervene with a family member or close friend.

Table 7.1: Proportions of main and SCALD samples likely to intervene in a domestic violence incident

Level of agreement with domestic violence statements	Main sample			SCALD sample		
	Likely	Unlikely	Don't know	Likely	Unlikely	Don't know
Woman don't know being physically assaulted **	81	18	1	65	33	2
Neighbour don't know well being physically assaulted **	84	15	1	70	28	2
Family member or close friend a victim of domestic violence	95	4	1	94	5	1

** differences between main and SCALD respondents significant to p<.01

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Sex

Female respondents in the selected CALD sample were significantly less likely than males to say they would intervene in a situation with a woman they didn't know or a neighbour while no sex differences existed where the victim was a family member or close friend (Figures 7.1 to 7.3). In contrast, females in the main sample were significantly more likely than males to say they would intervene with a family member or close friend but no sex differences existed in the other two scenarios. Females in the main sample were significantly more likely than females in the SCALD sample to say they would intervene where they didn't know the victim or the victim was a neighbour.

Figure 7.1: Sex breakdown: Likelihood of intervening in any way at all if a woman that you didn't know was being physically assaulted by her partner in public
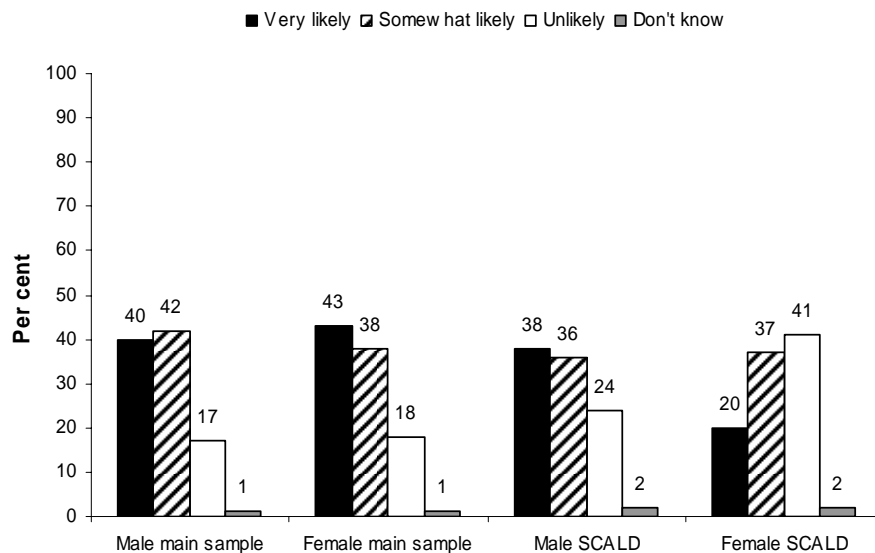
Note: Sex differences within SCALD sample significant to p<.01. Female differences between samples significant to p<.01.

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Figure 7.2: Sex breakdown: Likelihood of intervening in any way at all if a neighbour that you didn't know well was being physically assaulted by her partner
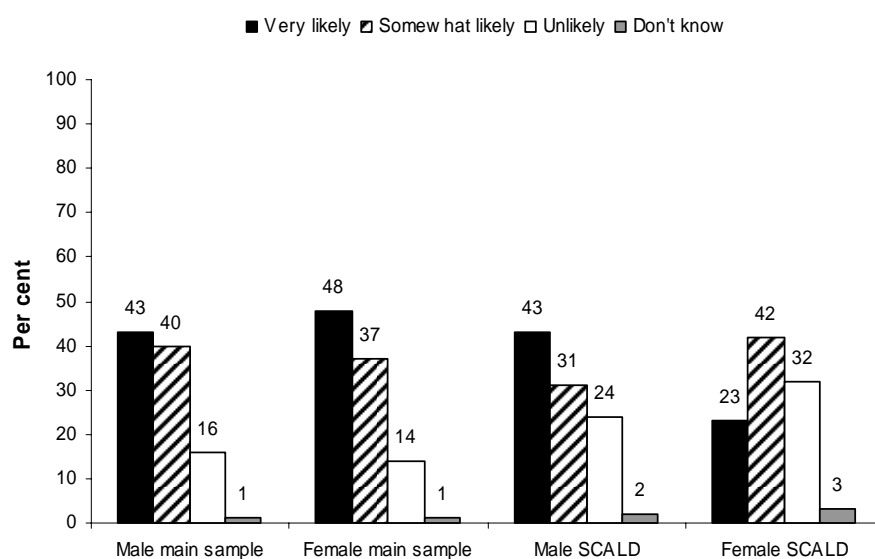
■ Very likely ▨ Somew hat likely □ Unlikely ▨ Don't know

Note: Sex differences within SCALD sample significant to p<.01. Female differences between samples significant to p<.01.

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Figure 7.3: Sex breakdown: Likelihood of intervening in any way at all if a family member or close friend was currently a victim of domestic violence
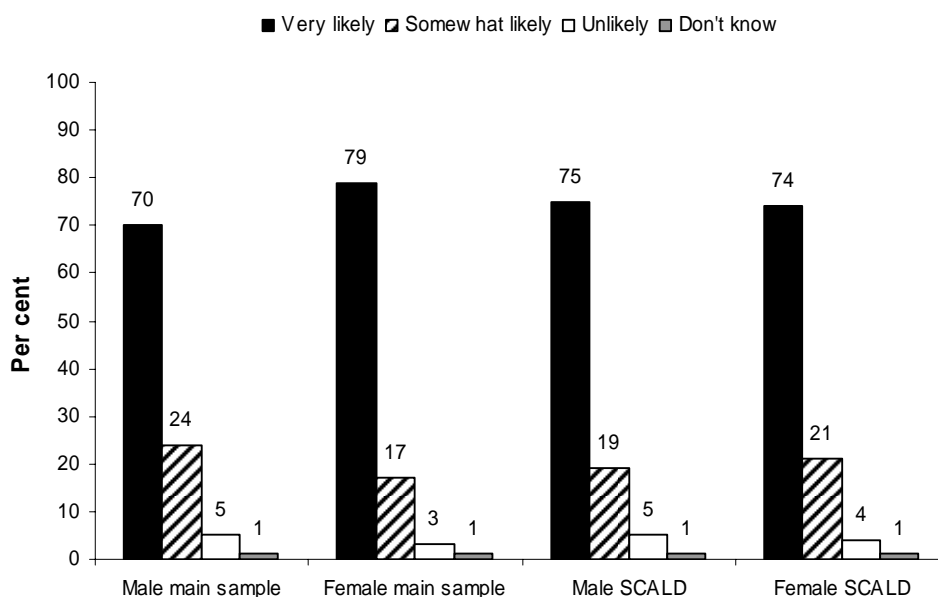
■ Very likely ▨ Somew hat likely □ Unlikely ▨ Don't know

Note: Sex differences within main sample significant to p<.01

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Predicting likelihood of intervention

Logistic regression models were conducted to identify demographic and attitudinal factors which significantly predicted whether respondents were "very likely" to intervene in each of the three scenarios. Table 7.2 shows that:

- Sex was significantly associated with likelihood of intervening in all three scenarios. However, with non-familiar victims males were more likely to say they would intervene while females were more likely to intervene with a family member or close friend. This may reflect a need for different types of intervention in these cases – a woman being assaulted in public or a neighbour that one does not know well may be regarded as being more likely to require a confrontational and/or personally risky intervention which may be assumed to be more suited to a male intervention. Intervening with a family member or close friend, however, may be perceived as less likely to involve confrontation, (for example, offering assistance and talking about the situation) which may be assumed to be more suited to a female intervention.

- Strong support for gender equality predicted likelihood of intervention in all three situations.

- Younger respondents were more likely than older respondents to intervene with a family member or close friend.

- Chinese/Vietnamese respondents were significantly less likely to intervene with someone they didn't know compared with the rest of the combined sample.

- Both Chinese/Vietnamese and Greek/Italian respondents were less likely to intervene with a neighbour they didn't know well, compared with the rest of the sample;

- Regional respondents were more likely to intervene with a woman they didn't know compared with those in city locations;

Table 7.2: Predictors of being "very likely" to intervene (logistic regression, odds ratios, combined samples)

	A woman you don't know being publicly assaulted		A neighbour you don't know well		A family member or close friend	
	Odds ratio	RSE	Odds ratio	RSE	Odds ratio	RSE
Demographic and/or cultural influences						
Sex (female or male)	1.34 **	0.09	1.26 **	0.08	0.79 **	0.09
Age (less than 44 or older than)	1.02	0.09	1.12	0.09	0.72 **	0.10
Occupation status (White collar)	0.90	0.10	0.97	0.09	1.02	0.11
Employed (no or yes)	1.14	0.10	1.28	0.10	1.23	0.11
Education completed (Up to year 12/trade or higher)	0.93	0.09	0.91	0.09	1.02	0.10
LOTE (no or yes)	1.01	0.13	1.24	0.13	0.96	0.15
Chinese/Vietnamese (vs other)	0.57 **	0.17	0.59 **	0.17	1.42	0.19
Italian/Greek (vs other)	0.89	0.13	0.74 **	0.13	1.07	0.15
Arrived before 1980 (vs born here)	1.26	0.12	0.95	0.12	1.25	0.14
Arrived after 1980 (vs born here)	0.99	0.15	0.84	0.15	1.11	0.17
Remoteness (regional or city)	0.77 **	0.09	0.87	0.09	0.87	0.10
Attitudinal influences						
Gender equality (low or high)	1.69 **	0.09	1.81 **	0.09	1.60 **	0.11
Strongly disagree that physical force against partner can be justified (no or yes)	1.19	0.10	1.38 **	0.10	1.50 **	0.11
Strongly disagree that physical force against ex-partner can be justified (no or yes)	1.30	0.11	1.35 **	0.11	1.05	0.11
Violence against women is a serious issue (no or yes)	1.21	0.10	1.25	0.10	1.33 **	0.11
Model Chi square	145.96 **		190.62 **		124.56 **	
N (df=15)	(2779)		(2779)		(2779)	

** significant to p<.01

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

- A strong belief that physical force against a current or ex-partner can not be justified predicted likelihood of intervention with a neighbour or close friend;
- Believing that violence against women is a serious issue predicted intervention with a family member or close friend.

Types of intervention

In the general community focus group discussions, the types of intervention that participants indicated they would consider were:

- Contacting the police or other emergency services - to some degree this was considered the safest option, especially in more severe cases of violence. However, participants were reluctant to use this mechanism for people they knew and unless they had some sense of the frequency and severity of violence.
- Personal intervention at the time – attempting to stop the situation yourself at the time of the incident. This approach was typically suggested in cases where the person intervening felt that there was no personal threat to them.
- Personal intervention at a later date – such as talking to the person when next seeing them. This mechanism was considered appropriate for friends and neighbours who were at least on acquaintance terms.
- Keeping an eye on the situation, and intervening if it becomes more of a problem. This approach was also commonly described for friends and neighbours who were acquaintances.

When thinking about whether to intervene, the anticipated type of intervention was of critical importance. For example, participants talked about being more likely to intervene through a personal approach with people they know, whereas they would be most likely to call the police in instances that involved strangers and where they were unsure of the degree or history involved in the violence. In the case of friends, participants wanted to be able to help and support them, rather than just report the incident and stop the violence.

In the 2006 survey, where respondents indicated that they would be very or somewhat likely to intervene if a family member or close friend was currently a victim of domestic violence, they were also asked in what ways they would intervene (open ended). A variety of interventions were proposed (Table 7.3). The most common ones were offering support and advice to the victim and reporting the situation to the police. However, differences were also found between males and females.

Within the main sample males were significantly:

- Less likely to offer support and advice to the victim
- Less likely to suggest places to go for help, support or counselling;
- Less likely to report the situation to police;
- Less likely to offer shelter or refuge;
- More likely to speak to or confront the perpetrator or intervene between the parties;

Within the SCALD sample males were significantly:

- Less likely to suggest places to go for help, support or counselling;
- Less likely to offer shelter or refuge; and
- More likely to speak to or confront the perpetrator or intervene between the parties.

These findings are highly sex specific – males are much more likely to take a confrontational approach to intervention whereas females are much more likely to offer emotional support and advice.

For those who indicated that they would be very or somewhat unlikely to intervene with a family member or close friend, the most common reasons given were that it's "none of my business" or worry about personal ramifications and safety (Table 7.4).

Table 7.3: Methods of intervention for respondents who felt likely to intervene where victim was a family member or close friend (column percentages)

	Male main sample		Female main sample	Male SCALD		Female SCALD
Offer support and advice to victim / talk to them about it	33	**	51	45		45
Speak to the perpetrator	16	**	8	13	*	7
Confront the perpetrator	13	**	5	8	*	3
Intervene / step in between the parties	30	**	13	34	**	24
Suggest places to go for help, support or counselling	19	**	36	14	*	22
Report the situation to police	38	**	49	39		40
Offer shelter or refuge to victim / encourage them to leave	15	**	28	7	*	14
Get support from other family members and friends	5		6	2		4
Other	4		1	1		1
Don't know	2		2	2		2
(N)	(917)		(990)	(369)		(387)

Significant to * p<.05   **p<.01

Note: multiple responses allowed

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Table 7.4. Reasons given for being unlikely to intervene where victim was a family member or close friend (column percentages)

	Male	Female
It's none of my business/ up to them to sort it out	44	50
Wouldn't know the full story or all of the circumstances	17	8
Worried about my safety/ repercussions	28	34
Other	7	10
Don't know	16	7
(N)	(73)	(46)

Note: multiple responses allowed

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Implications of findings

While there appears to be a high degree of willingness within the community to get involved and intervene in cases of domestic violence, people consider a range of factors when making any decisions about intervention. These relate to

- Familiarity with the victim;
- Knowledge of the relationship and its history;
- Severity of the violence;
- Consistency of the violence (repeated or once only);
- Reluctance to get involved in case it is not domestic violence or assistance is not desired;
- Uncertainty about differences in cultural norms where ethnicity involved;
- Not wanting to meddle in other people's business; and
- Concern about personal safety.

Likelihood of intervention increases with familiarity and closeness of the victim. Chinese/Vietnamese and Italian/Greek respondents were less likely to say they would intervene where the victim was not known or was unfamiliar to them compared with the rest of the respondents – this may partly reflect different cultural norms and attitudes toward intervention in external relationships. However lack of confidence in being able to provide assistance or feeling insecure in Australian society generally may also partly explain these findings, particularly for women who can't speak English. A strong sex difference emerged in terms of the types of intervention that males and females said they would engage in. Males were much more likely to take a confrontational approach to intervention, while females were more likely to offer emotional support and advice.

8.   Perceived changes over time

In the 1995 survey respondents were asked to indicate whether they thought community attitudes to violence experienced by women had changed over the previous five to 10 years. Eighty three percent of respondents thought that attitudes had changed while 15 percent thought they had not. Of those in the 1995 survey who thought that attitudes had changed, 32 percent thought that there was more awareness of the issue generally and 23 percent thought that it was less taboo than it had previously been. Table 8.1 indicates the ways in which respondents in 2006 thought that attitudes have changed over the previous ten years – findings from the 1995 survey are also provided in this table. In 2006, compared with ten years ago:

- Thirty seven percent of the community sample thought that there was now more awareness generally, and females were more likely to think this than males;
- Twenty four percent thought that the issue of violence against women was now less taboo, more out in the open, and females were more likely than males to think this;
- Twenty seven percent thought that society is now less tolerant of violence against women;
- Fifteen percent referred to more media attention now; and
- Eleven percent did not think attitudes had changed and nine percent did not know.

Table 8.1: Ways in which community attitudes toward violence against women were perceived to have changed

| | 1995 | | | 2006 | | |
| | Previous 5 to 10 years | | | Previous 10 years | | |
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Positive changes						
More awareness generally	33	31	32	33	40	37
More out in the open, exposed, not taboo any more	21	26	23	21**	28	24
Society less tolerant of violence against women	17	14	15	27	26	27
More media attention/coverage	14	11	12	13	17	15
More help/services for women	8	15	12	na	na	na
More women being outspoken against violence	7	11	9	na	na	na
More sympathy for victims	5	12	8	na	na	na
Victims more prepared to report violence	6	8	7	na	na	na
More community responsibility	6	7	6	na	na	na
Improved laws/ legal support	5	5	5	na	na	na
More reporting / doing something about it	na	na	na	9	9	9
Courts /authorities less tolerant of violence against women	na	na	na	3	4	4
More support/ help available	na	na	na	8**	15	12
Negative changes						
Courts/authorities too lenient, biased against women	na	na	na	2	3	3
People ignore violence / turn away	na	na	na	4	5	5
Violence against women seen as okay/ tolerated by community	na	na	na	3	5	4
Attitudes have not changed	na	na	na	14**	8	11
Don't know if attitudes have changed or not	na	na	na	10	9	9

Note: multiple responses allowed

** sex differences within sample significant to p<.01

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file], n=2000; OSW 1995.

Influence of gender

Sex

In the 2006 survey respondents were asked to indicate whether, compared with ten years ago,

- domestic violence against women has increased, decreased or stayed the same,
- sexual assault against women has increased, decreased or stayed the same,
- people are now more or less likely to intervene in a domestic violence dispute; and
- people are now more willing to talk about having been a victim of adult domestic violence.

Figures 8.1 to 8.4 show that:

- While females in both the main and SCALD samples were significantly more likely than males to believe domestic violence had increased in the past 10 years, this sex difference was greater in the SCALD sample. Forty seven percent of SCALD females believed domestic violence had increased, compared with 33 percent of SCALD males and 39 percent of females in the main sample.
- Females in both samples were significantly more likely than males to believe that sexual assault against women has increased in the past ten years.
- Females in both samples had a greater belief that people are more likely to intervene in a domestic violence dispute now compared with ten years ago;
- While the majority of males and females in both samples believed that people are now more willing to talk about being a victim of domestic violence, males and females in the main sample were significantly more likely than their SCALD counterparts to believe this.
- For each question there was a large amount of uncertainty about the answer, and this uncertainty was greater for SCALD females than other respondents.

Figure 8.1: Sex breakdown: Has domestic violence against women increased or decreased compared with 10 years ago?
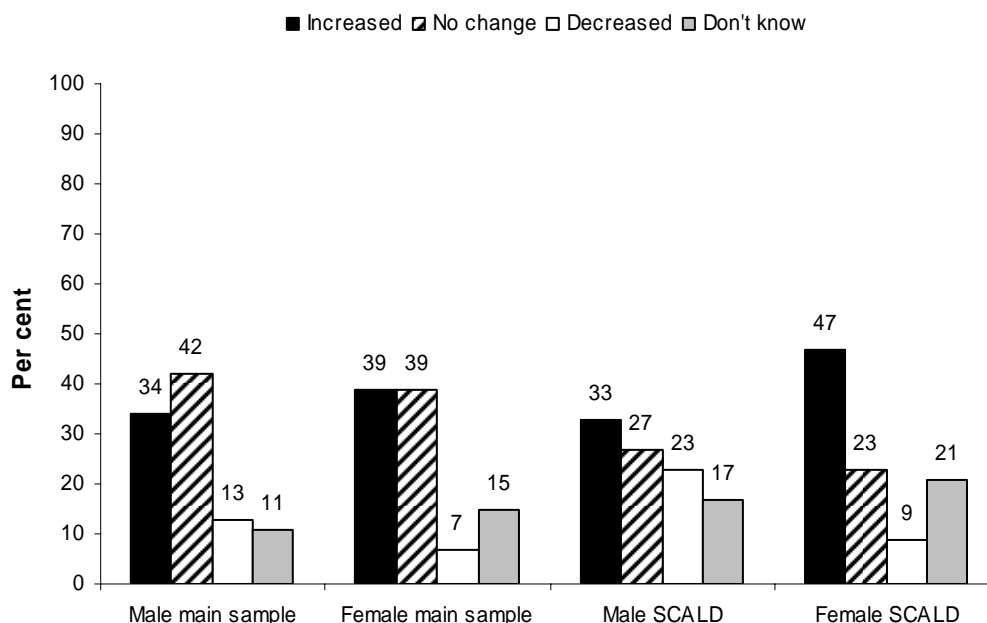
Note: Sex differences both within and between each sample significant to p<.01

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Figure 8.2. Sex breakdown: Has sexual assault against women increased or decreased compared with 10 years ago?
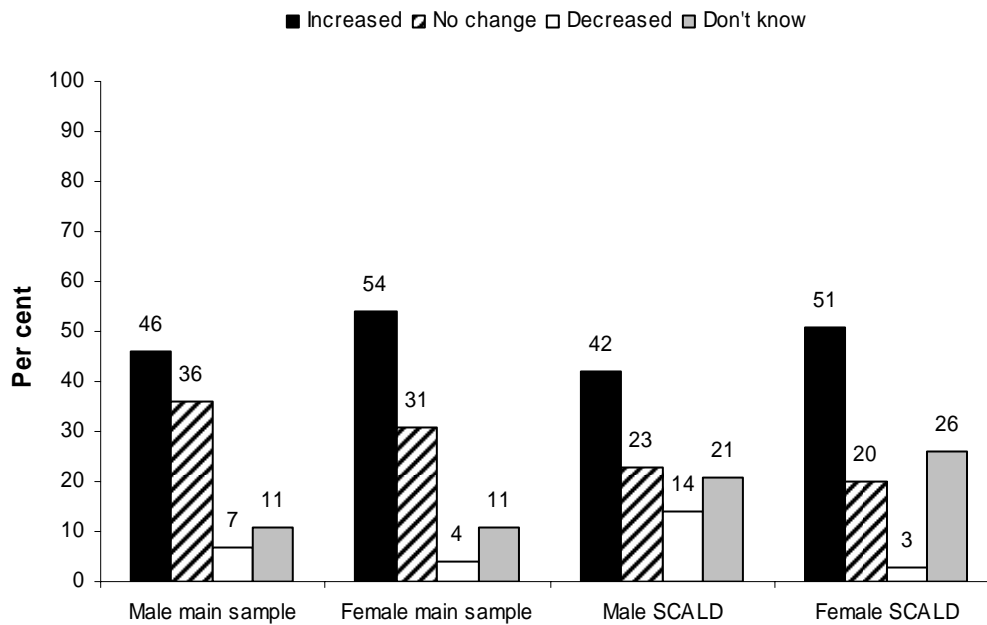
■ Increased ▨ No change □ Decreased ▨ Don't know

Note: Sex differences both within and between each sample significant to p<.01

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Figure 8.3: Sex breakdown: Are people more or less likely to intervene in a domestic violence dispute compared with 10 years ago?
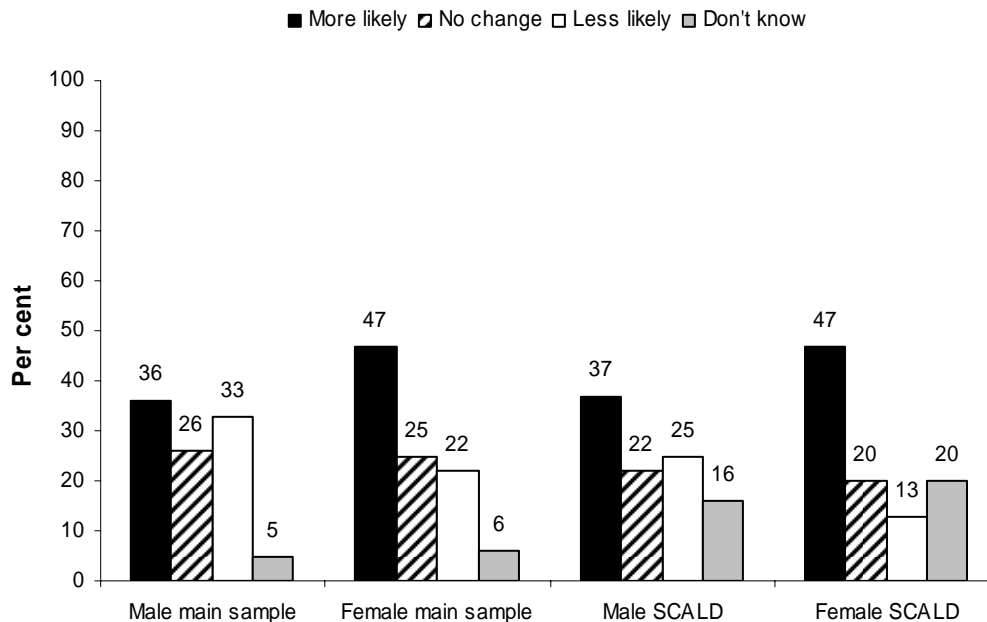
■ More likely ▨ No change □ Less likely ▨ Don't know

Note: Sex differences both within and between each sample significant to p<.01

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Figure 8.4: Sex breakdown: Has proportion of people willing to talk about being an adult victim of domestic violence increased compared with 10 years ago?

■ Increased ▨ No change □ Decreased ▨ Don't know

Note: Sex diferences in response patterns within SCALD sample significant to $\underline{p}$<.05. Sex differences between samples significant to $\underline{p}$<.01.

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Predictors of beliefs about changes

For the 2006 survey, logistic regression models were conducted to identify demographic factors which significantly predicted beliefs relating to change in the four behaviours. Tables 8.2 and 8.3 show that, compared with ten years ago and taking into account the effects of the other variables, the key predictors for beliefs about change were as follow:

Domestic violence against women has increased

- In the main sample, the key variables associated with this belief were being female, older, not white collar and speaking a language other than English at home;

- In the SCALD sample, the key variables were being female, stronger support for gender equality, less educated and living regionally (rather than in cities). Chinese and Vietnamese respondents were more likely than Greek and Italian respondents to believe that domestic violence has increased in the past 10 years.

Sexual assault against women has increased

- In the main sample, being female, not white collar and speaking a language other than English were significantly associated with the belief that sexual assault against women had increased in the past ten years;

- In the SCALD sample, being female, less educated and regionally based were significantly associated with this belief.

Willingness to talk about being a victim of domestic violence has increased

- In the main sample stronger support for gender equality and being white collar were significantly associated with the belief that willingness to talk about being a victim of domestic violence had increased in the past ten years;

- In the SCALD sample those respondents more recently arrived in Australia (since 1980) were less likely than those born in Australia to believe this.

People more willing now to intervene in a domestic violence dispute

- In the main sample being female, younger, employed, with stronger support for gender equality predicted the belief that people were more willing now to intervene in a domestic violence dispute compared with ten years ago;
- In the SCALD sample being female, less educated and being located in a main city were significantly associated with this belief. In addition, those more recently arrived in Australia (since 1980) were less likely than those born in Australia to believe this.

Table 8.2: Predictors of beliefs about changes in past 10 years (odds ratios, main sample)

	DV has increased	95 CI	Sexual assault has increased	95 CI	Willingness to talk has increased	95 CI	Intervention more likely	95 CI
Sex (female or male)	**0.76****	0.62 – 0.92	**0.68****	0.56 – 0.82	0.92	0.75 – 1.13	**0.67****	0.55 – 0.82
Gender equality (low or high)	0.85	0.69 – 1.04	0.83	0.68 – 1.01	**1.37****	1.09 – 1.71	**1.54****	1.26 – 1.88
Age (less than 44 or older than)	**1.69****	1.38 – 2.07	1.25	1.03 – 1.51	1.08	0.87 – 1.34	**0.52****	0.43 – 0.63
Occupation status (white collar)	**0.67****	0.53 – 0.84	**0.61****	0.49 – 0.76	**1.48****	1.16 – 1.89	1.10	0.87 – 1.37
Employed (no or yes)	1.16	0.92 – 1.47	1.10	0.88 – 1.39	0.80	0.62 – 1.03	**1.39****	1.10 – 1.77
Education completed (Up to year 12/trade or higher)	0.80	0.66 – 0.98	0.85	0.71 – 1.03	0.78	0.64 – 0.97	1.15	0.95 – 1.40
LOTE (no or yes)	**1.81****	1.33 – 2.45	**1.46**	1.09 – 1.98	1.00	0.72 – 1.40	0.97	0.71 – 1.31
Born in Australia (no or yes)	0.91	0.72 – 1.17	0.93	0.73 – 1.18	1.05	0.81 – 1.36	0.86	0.68 – 1.10
Remoteness (regional or city)	**0.78****	0.64 – 0.95	0.83	0.69 – 1.00	1.13	0.91 – 1.39	1.11	0.91 – 1.35
Model Chi square (9 df)	98.50**		81.48**		25.17**		150.81**	

** significant to p<.01

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file], n=1993

Table 8.3: Predictors of beliefs about changes in past 10 years (odds ratios, booster SCALD sample)

|		95 CI		95 CI		95 CI		95 CI
Sex (female or male)	**0.58****	0.43 – 0.78	**0.63****	0.47 – 0.84	0.93	0.68 – 1.27	**0.66****	0.49 – 0.89
Gender equality (low or high)	**1.51***	1.05 – 2.17	1.32	0.93 – 1.88	1.13	0.77 – 1.66	1.09	0.76 – 1.55
Age (less than 44 or older than)	0.95	0.67 – 1.35	1.02	0.72 – 1.43	0.95	0.67 – 1.34	0.82	0.58 – 1.16
Occupation status (white collar)	1.00	0.72 – 1.40	1.12	0.81 – 1.54	1.32	0.94 – 1.86	1.04	0.75 – 1.44
Employed (no or yes)	1.02	0.73 – 1.41	1.00	0.73 – 1.38	1.12	0.80 – 1.56	1.23	0.89 – 1.69
Education completed (Up to year 12/trade or higher)	**0.50****	0.37 – 0.68	**0.66****	0.49 – 0.89	0.85	0.62 – 1.16	**0.63****	0.46 – 0.85
LOTE (no or yes)	1.29	0.88 – 1.88	0.99	0.70 – 1.42	1.36	0.93 – 1.99	1.08	0.75 – 1.55
Heritage (Chinese/Vietnamese or Italian/Greek)	**0.60***	0.38 – 0.97	0.92	0.58 – 1.46	0.91	0.55 – 1.49	0.79	0.50 – 1.25
Arrived in Aust prior to 1980	1.68*	1.07 – 2.66	1.29	0.83 – 2.01	0.95	0.59 – 1.52	0.66	0.42 – 1.03
Arrived in Aust after 1980	0.92	0.54 – 1.56	0.70	0.42 – 1.18	**0.47****	0.27 – 0.82	**0.54***	0.32 – 0.90
Remoteness (regional or city)	**0.48****	0.32 – 0.74	**0.64***	0.42 – 0.97	0.97	0.62 – 1.51	**1.56***	1.02 – 2.38
Model Chi square (11 df)	68.46**		44.10**		25.92**		33.53**	

Significant to ** p<.01 *p<.05

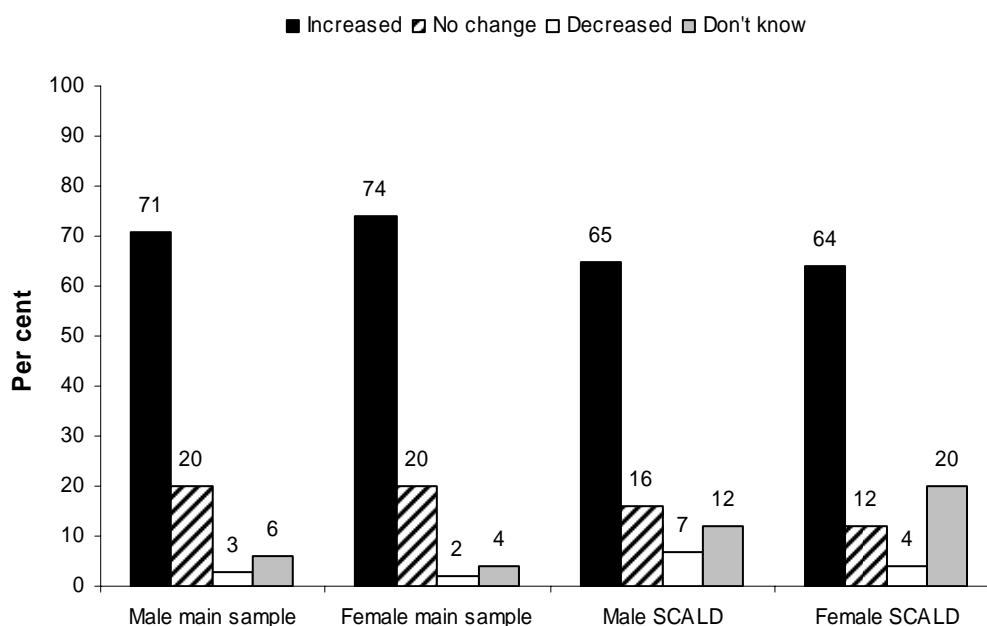Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file], n=913

Implications of findings

Perceived changes in attitudes and behaviours over the past 10 years are mixed. On the positive side, the vast majority of respondents clearly believed that people's willingness to talk about being a victim of domestic violence has increased, reflecting a more general view that it is now less "taboo" as a subject than it was 10 years ago. Many people felt that there is much more awareness now about domestic violence, that it is more out in the open and that society is less tolerant toward violence against women generally.

When asked about changes in the prevalence of domestic and sexual violence, however, there was considerably more diversity in responses. Many simply did not know and this uncertainty was higher amongst the SCALD sample than the general community sample. While females were more likely in general to think that both domestic and sexual violence had increased and that intervention is now more likely, those who had a more pessimistic view of change over the previous ten years were more likely to:

- Be older rather than younger;
- Have lower occupational status;
- Be less educated; and
- Speak a language other than English at home, or not be born in Australia.

Those based in a regional (rather than city) location were more likely to believe that both domestic and sexual violence had increased, while those in a city location were more likely to believe that people are now more willing to intervene in domestic violence disputes. Those more recently arrived into Australia were less likely to perceive that willingness to talk about being a victim and likelihood of intervention in domestic violence disputes had increased in the previous ten years, compared with those born in Australia (second generation respondents).

These findings imply that younger Australians, with higher socio-economic status perceive changes in attitudes and behaviours over the past ten years to be positive rather than negative. These differences may in part be due to differences in the knowledge and exposure to violence which might accompany these characteristics.

9. Awareness and educational initiatives

General community focus groups

Many participants felt that media coverage of issues of violence against women, especially domestic violence and sexual harassment, had increased over recent years, and that this had contributed to an increased awareness and understanding of these issues in the community generally.

"I think because of the media exposure to everything, it's brought out a lot more."

"There's more ads on TV … help lines and, um, in women's magazines you'll find there's quite a lot of articles on violence."

"Some topics, like Sex in the City which I don't particularly like, but, I say to my wife, 'Do you ever speak about sex with friends' … they brought up the issues that women talk about between each other."

However, there was also some criticism of what participants regarded as a sensationalist approach to reporting, which meant that some stories might be covered for their perceived titillation or sexual nature, rather than being objective coverage of the issues of violence against women.

"The news always loves it, it's just interesting news … I think the media just likes talking about bad news, like, they hype it up."

"All the nitty gritty details."

"I think there is more sensationalism, that's what it is."

Interviews and focus groups with Indigenous participants

There was some awareness of activities that had been implemented to raise the profile of violence as an issue in Indigenous communities. The initiatives or promotional activities mentioned included:

- Television advertising with women talking about their experience of violence – a number of women were aware of this campaign;
- Brochures and flyers about violence against women at Aboriginal Medical Services;
- Slogans on t-shirts;
- Local family violence action groups - "They had a women's day where women each did a tile to place in the Aboriginal Advancement League" and,
- Grassroots meetings that focus on discussing the issues with the community.

Participants were also invited to offer their suggestions for what types of initiatives they felt might be beneficial to making the community more aware of the issue of violence, and more importantly, decrease the incidence of violence within the community. A range of suggestions were given:

- Shame the perpetrators – One participant felt that this could be applied in the same way that 'Circle Sentencing' was being rolled out in Indigenous communities across the country[5]; ;
- Adopt a zero-tolerance strategy in the community for certain types of violence – For example, one older participant spoke about this in terms of elder abuse "That can't be. That kind of violence has to be shut down mate … it's beyond humanity";
- Tackle violence by reaffirming other social values – One example given by participants included educating young people on their Aboriginality and their cultural heritage. The benefit of this was that this information may be a way to engage young people with traditional Aboriginal values – values that are quite removed from violence;

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[5] Circle Sentencing involves taking the sentencing court to a community setting where community elders and a Magistrate sit in a 'circle' and discuss an offence and an offender. The offender's backgrounds as well as the effects of the offence are discussed, leading to the development of a sentence for the offender. The presence of community members and/or the victims of the crime incite shame from the offender. Circle Sentencing is therefore thought to be a significant deterrent for offenders repeating their behaviour.

- Help give men in the community strategies around anger management;
- Have the community work more closely with Police to develop culturally appropriate strategies for how to deal with violent incidents in the community. Some participants felt that this may help shift the issue away from intervention orders and a general over-reliance on 'pieces of paper' to stop violence;
- Apply more resources to the issue of violence generally;
- Utilise positive, strong and appropriate role models in communications that address issues around violence;
- Promote the issue within the community via 'violence days', community forums or similar grassroots activities – Talking about the issue more was seen to be a method of addressing stigmas associated with an issue that was still relatively taboo: "We need to tackle the issue head-on" ;
- Greater school-based education opportunities, particularly with regards to sexual assault and/or violence – this was felt to be another way of making the issue more acceptable to talk about;
- Real-life stories from victims of violence were felt to be a powerful way of engaging the community around a challenging issue, with some feeling that this may help break down some of the 'diehard' negative attitudes that surround violence within the Indigenous community – "more reality advertising would be good".

2006 survey

Respondents were asked whether they had recently seen, read or heard anything in the media about violence against women. This may have been advertising on television, a news or current affairs program or in newspapers or magazines or on the radio. This question was essentially a recall question, requiring respondents themselves to recall what they had seen, read or heard. Approximately one quarter of respondents in both the main and selected CALD samples responded "no" to this question: they had not seen, read or heard anything in the media recently (Figure 9.1).

Figure 9.1: Sex breakdown: Proportion of respondents who had recently seen, read or heard something in the media about violence against women
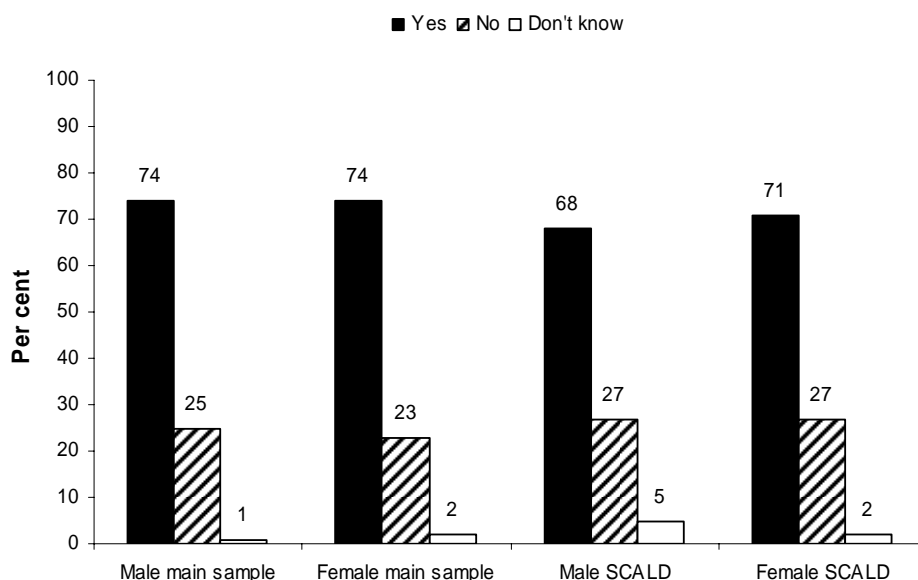
Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Predicting whether respondents had seen something in the media

A logistic regression model showed that the four key predictors of whether respondents reported seeing, reading or hearing anything recently about violence against women were:

- higher education,
- higher proficiency in English,
- stronger support for gender equality, and
- a stronger belief that violence against women is a serious issue.

This finding may reflect the fact that those who are more prone to positive attitudes toward women are more likely to seek out, take an interest in and therefore recall media campaigns and interest in violence against women issues. It is also likely that television, radio, newspapers and magazines are more readily accessed by people with higher levels of education and higher levels of proficiency in English.

Those who responded "yes" to the above question were asked to say what it was they had seen, read or heard in the media. These were open ended, free recall responses. Table 9.1 shows that the main forms of media mentioned were television advertising and news and current affairs. Thirteen percent of those who had seen something referred to the 'Australia says no' campaign in the main sample. Fewer people in the SCALD sample recalled seeing this campaign - of those who had seen something only 4% of female SCALD respondents referred to this campaign.

Table 9.1. What respondents had recently seen, read or heard in the media about violence against women (column percentages)

	Male main sample	Female main sample	Male SCALD	Female SCALD
Specific advertising campaigns				
'Australia says no' campaign	13	13	9	4
'White ribbon day' campaign	0	1	0	0
Other VAW advertising	1	1	2	2
Ad campaign (not further defined)	7	12	10	5
Campaign booklet/ brochures	0	1	0	0
General advertising				
TV advertising	36	37	29	42
Radio advertising	1	2	4	12
Newspaper advertising	3	2	3	7
Magazine advertising	1	1	0	0
News/ current affairs				
News/ current affairs (not further defined)	13	15	11	19
News/ current affairs on TV	18	18	13	13
News/ current affairs on radio	2	3	3	5
News/ current affairs newspapers	25	18	14	14
News/ current affairs magazines	2	3	0	2
TV show	1	2	1	1
Don't know	13	8	11	4
(N)	(719)	(762)	(268)	(288)

Note: multiple responses allowed

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file],

Knowledge about where to go for help

Respondents were asked if they would know where to go for outside advice or support for someone about a domestic violence issue. Figure 9.2 shows that, for the main sample, females were significantly more likely than males to know where to go. For the SCALD sample, however, this pattern was reversed. Females were significantly less likely to know where to go for outside help than males.

Figure 9.2: Sex breakdown: Would respondents know where to go for outside help for someone about a domestic violence issue?

■ Yes ▨ No ▢ Don't know

	Male main sample	Female main sample	Male SCALD	Female SCALD
Yes	52	67	63	47
No	47	32	32	47
Don't know	1	1	5	6
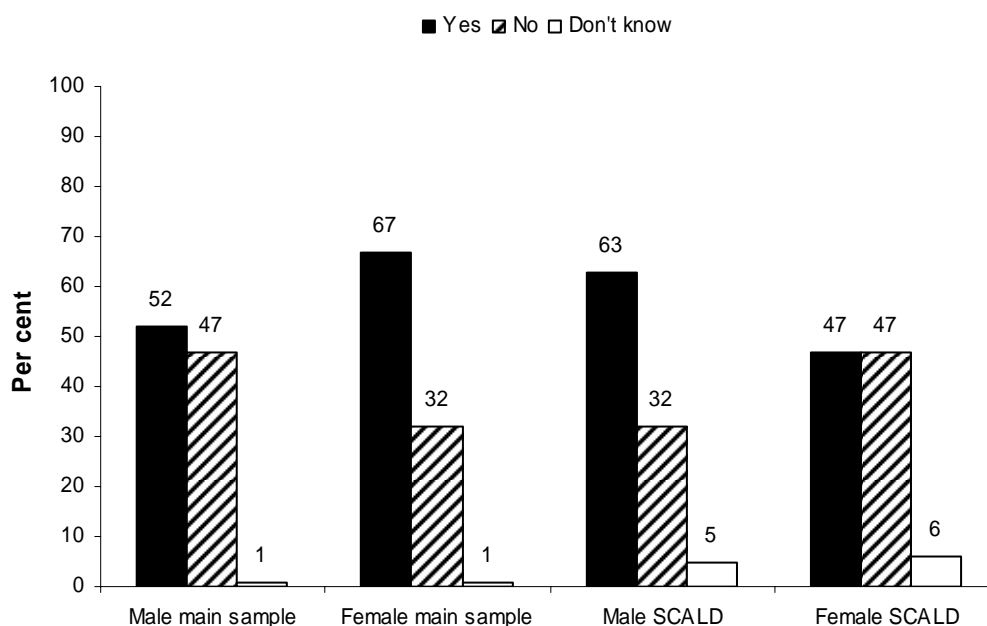
Note: Sex differences both within and between samples significant to p<.01

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Characteristics associated with knowing where to go for help

Logistic regression models (Table 9.2) showed that, taking into account the effects of the other variables, significant predictors of a respondent knowing where to go for help about domestic violence were:

For the main sample

- Being female;
- Being strongly supportive of gender equality;
- Higher education.

For the selected CALD sample

- Being male;
- White collar worker;
- Having seen, read or heard something in the media recently about violence against women.

	Main sample		Booster SCALD sample	
	Odds ratio	95 CI	Odds ratio	95 CI
Sex (female or male)	0.57**	0.47 – 0.70	1.65**	1.22 – 2.24
Age (less than 44 or older than)	1.19	0.97 – 1.45	1.31	0.93 – 1.85
Occupational status (not white collar/white collar)	1.18	0.94 – 1.48	1.48*	1.06 – 2.05
Employed (no or yes)	0.91	0.72 – 1.14	0.80	0.58 – 1.11
Education completed (Up to year 12/trade or higher)	1.49**	1.23 – 1.81	1.16	0.85 – 1.58
LOTE (no or yes)	1.08	0.79 – 1.46	1.01	0.70 – 1.45
Gender equality (low or high)	1.39**	1.13 – 1.71	1.22	0.85 – 1.75
Remoteness (regional or city)	0.94	0.77 – 1.14	1.27	0.83 – 1.92
Read seen or heard something in media recently	1.25	1.02 – 1.54	1.40*	1.04 – 1.90
Believe domestic violence is a serious issue	1.04	0.82 – 1.31	0.82	0.59 – 1.12
Born in Australia (no or yes)	1.02	0.81 – 1.30	-	-
Speaks English very well or well (no or yes)	-	-	1.28	0.87 – 1.89
Arrived prior to 1980 (vs born in Australia)	-	-	0.73	0.46 – 1.13
Arrived after 1980 (vs born in Australia)	-	-	0.74	0.43 – 1.27
Chinese/Vietnamese or Greek/Italian	-	-	1.18	0.74 – 1.90
Model Chi square	91.04**		48.90**	
df	11		14	
(N)	(1993)		(899)	

Significant to ** p<.01 * p<.05

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, VicHealth CATVAWS 2006 weighted data [computer file]

Implications of findings

About three quarters of survey respondents had recently read, seen or heard something about violence against women in the media. These respondents were more likely to have a higher level of education, higher proficiency in English, stronger support for gender equality and a stronger belief that violence against women is a serious issue – these findings could indicate that those who feel strongly about violence against women may be more likely to take an interest in and recall media campaigns and advertising. They may also indicate that television, radio and newspapers may be more readily accessible for people with these characteristics. While females were more likely than males within the main sample to know where to go for help about domestic violence, this pattern was reversed in the selected CALD sample. Females in the SCALD sample were less likely than both males in the SCALD sample and females in the main sample to know where to go for help. The findings from the logistic regression models suggest that accessibility to knowledge within the selected CALD sample about where help might be sought was more prevalent for white collar males – accessibility to such information for females within this sample may be more limited. Within the main sample knowledge about where to go was higher for females, those with strong support for gender equality and higher education.

10. Concluding comments – where to from here?

Definitions within the community of violence against women, and the perceived seriousness of such behaviours vary. While some behaviours, such as forcing a partner to have sex (domestic rape), slapping and pushing, throwing objects and threatening to hurt family members were more consistently regarded as "always" violence and were more consistently seen as serious, other behaviours were much less likely to be viewed as violent or serious. Judgements about many of the less physical behaviours, such as yelling abuse and criticising, are in many cases context-dependent. That is, sometimes they are violence and sometimes they are not, it depends. There are shades of grey in these behaviours and it is by no means straightforward that these behaviours should fall within the scope of "violence" as far as the community is concerned.

Feedback from participants in the Indigenous component identified domestic violence, in particular family violence, as an important and serious issue of concern within the Indigenous community. The term 'violence against women' was most often associated with physical acts of violence. Feedback from participants in the Indigenous component indicated that while awareness about the problem of violence within Indigenous communities had increased, domestic or family violence was not viewed as negatively by the community as the respondents thought it should be. Many stakeholders felt this was most likely due to the relative prevalence of the issue in the community - as a result of the widespread nature of the problem, there was a feeling that violence was 'accepted' to some extent.

The survey also revealed that the community's adherence to many myths and stereotypes about women and violence in general is also broad. In particular and of some considerable concern, a large proportion of the community, both male and female, hold the views that

- domestic violence can be excused if it results from temporary anger or results in genuine regret;
- women going through custody battles often make up claims of domestic violence to improve their case; and
- rape results from men not being able to control their need for sex (responsibility for rape is therefore removed from men because it is regarded as not being within their control).

Adherence to these beliefs, both in terms of what violence is, whether it is serious, and myths and stereotypes, are crucial in (a) the perpetuation of offenders committing violence against women, (b) whether victims perceive themselves as victims, (c) whether and how victims react to violence, (d) judgements that the community makes about women and violence, and (e) willingness of the community to intervene with or react against violence against women.

A broader question raised in this research is how messages about domestic violence as criminal behaviour ought to be framed in community education strategies. To date emphasis has been placed in these strategies on increasing awareness that domestic violence is a crime, both as a means of conveying the seriousness of the behaviour and of encouraging women to take action. However, only some types of behaviour canvassed in this study and included in prevailing definitions of domestic violence are crimes. For example, though they may have serious health and social consequences for their victims, socially isolating one's partner or denying them money are not criminal behaviours (though they are included in some definitions of violence in some state based domestic violence laws). For this reason, community education campaigns which adopt a broader definition of violence, while at the same time conveying that domestic violence is a crime, have the potential to be ambiguous. This suggests the need for greater clarity in future campaigns about which particular behaviours are crimes, while at the same time continuing to highlight the health, social and economic consequences of the range of domestic violence behaviours.

Factors associated with holding violence supportive attitudes

On a positive note, negative beliefs overall are not held by the majority of the community. That is, those who hold negative beliefs can be differentiated from those who don't on a range of different variables. Some of these influences are stronger and more consistent than others and are worthy of some elaboration.

Sex

A strong and consistent association between sex and attitudes toward violence against women was found on most of the attitudinal measures included in the survey. On average, men held more violence-supportive attitudes than women. This was the case for both the main and SCALD samples.

Support for gender equality

A consistent finding in prior research is a relationship between violence-supportive attitudes and beliefs about gender equality and gender relations. Attitudes to gender equality were measured in the survey. When the effects of other factors were controlled, weak support for gender equality emerged as a significant predictor of violence-supportive attitudes across most of the measures included in the survey. This was generally true in both the main and SCALD samples.

Socio-economic status

The influence of three indicators of socio-economic status were investigated – education, occupation (white collar or not) and employment. The relationship between these indicators and violence-supportive attitudes was not as consistent or strong as those of sex and support for gender equality. However, these indicators were found to predict agreement with certain beliefs, such as women make up claims of domestic violence in order to gain tactical advantage in contested child custody cases (lower education), "women rarely make false claims of being raped" (white collar worker), and "domestic violence can be excused if there is genuine regret afterward" (being unemployed).

Age

Age emerged as a significant predictor with a small number of measures in the survey, although not always in a consistent direction. In general, younger respondents were less likely to hold violence-supportive attitudes than older respondents, both in the main and SCALD samples. For example, forcing a partner to have sex was significantly more likely to be regarded as domestic violence and very serious by younger rather than older respondents. Physical force against a current wife or partner was also viewed as significantly less justifiable by younger respondents in both the main and SCALD samples. This implies an age cohort effect in relation to acceptance and tolerance of violence against women. Controlling the social life of one's partner by preventing contact with family and friends, and denying one's partner money were more likely to be viewed as domestic violence and very serious by older respondents, but only in the main sample.

Migration and settlement factors

Investigation of the relationship between factors associated with migration and attitudes to violence against women in the SCALD sample revealed some variation across the attitudes measured and the effects of these factors tended to be intermittent. However, significant factors found to be associated with holding violence-supportive attitudes (in addition to sex and support for gender equality) were:

- being born overseas;
- speaking a language other than English at home;
- having arrived in Australia since 1980; and
- having Chinese or Vietnamese heritage (as opposed to Greek or Italian).

The differences found between men and women in the SCALD sample on many of the measures in the survey suggest that attitudes toward violence against women in SCALD communities are influenced by the intersecting effects of gender and factors which may be variously associated with cultural heritage, migration or settlement. The fact that differences were found on some measures between the Italian/Greek and Chinese/Vietnamese samples after controlling for the effects of other variables suggests that there are other factors not measured in this study which influence attitudinal differences between people of different cultural heritage.

Caveats

The relationship between attitudes toward violence and violent behaviour

While the findings in this survey indicate that the majority of community members do not overall hold violence-supportive attitudes, attitudes do not necessarily translate into behaviour. What was measured in this study was what people said they believed or perceived, not actual behaviour or the link between the two. Flood & Pease (2006), in their review of the factors which influence community attitudes toward violence against women, noted that there is considerable research to show that people might say one thing and do another. An attitude may express an intention at a particular time but behaviour consistent with that intention may be thwarted by obstacles or lack of opportunity or expectations of others or social norms or the social context (Ajzen & Fishbein 2005). Social psychological research shows that attitudes are also not stable but can vary with mood, social context or over time. Community attitudes may therefore show greater intolerance towards violence against women (attitudes between the 1995 and 2006 surveys indicates this to be so) but this does not necessarily mean that violence will decline as a result.

Attitudes as self-presentation

It also can not be ruled out that some respondents may have given responses to interviewers in which they presented themselves positively so as not to be seen as holding violence-supportive attitudes. While it is possible that self-presentation may have affected some of the responses given by some participants, a number of indicators suggest that the impact of self-presentation on responses was limited – these include the anonymity of the survey, survey responses ranged across the entire spectrum of negative to positive and that clear and regular patterns emerged in the data (consistent with previous research) makes it unlikely that self-presentation affected the findings to any substantial degree. Self-presentation, however, also provides a reason for why attitudes expressed to an interviewer may not always translate into behaviour.

Targeting mass media campaigns

Mouzos & Makkai (2004) identified five themes which mass media campaigns could utilise to reduce violence against women. These five themes are equally applicable here in attempting to change attitudes toward violence against women:

1. Criminal sanctions: a traditional emphasis on legal threats and that violence is a crime.
2. Community intervention: an approach encouraging friends and neighbours to report domestic violence or intervene in an appropriate manner with the victim or perpetrator.
3. Social disapproval: a theme emphasising shame and embarrassment for offenders ('i.e. real men don't hit women').
4. Consequences: a theme based on the impact of violence on their partner or children.
5. Help is available: emphasising that help is available for both the victim and the offending male to address his offending behaviour.

Donovan & Vlais (2006), in their review of communication and public education campaigns which focus on violence against women, emphasised the need for awareness and education campaigns to focus on both individual and societal levels to maximise the effectiveness of such campaigns. They suggested that a comprehensive communication strategy for Australia could include the following sorts of campaigns:

- Individual level campaigns targeting the immediate safety of women and children.
- Societal and specific institution campaigns that foster a positive institutional environment to facilitate the above.
- Societal campaigns that target whole communities to support and advocate for policy/legislative action to ensure appropriate institutional responses to women and men who seek help and to men who don't.
- Societal campaigns to achieve changes in social norms about violence in general and various connotations/concepts of masculinity that endorse or tacitly condone male violence.
- Societal campaigns to achieve changes in perceptions and reality of patriarchal power and privilege.

There is also a need to be aware of and counter media messages from other sources that could undermine the above campaigns. Cartoons, comics, movies, advertising and how violence against women is reported in editorial all should be monitored and countered where necessary.

Future directions

The findings in this report suggest a number of avenues which could be pursued in changing community attitudes toward violence against women. These include:

- Targeted education campaigns to both reduce uncertainty about what violence against women is, and provide information about when and where it occurs.

- Ensuring that awareness and education campaigns deliver a consistent, accurate and unambiguous message about the nature of domestic violence and when it should be reported.

- Emphasising criminal sanctions and social disapproval in mass media campaigns addressing violence against women.

- Providing factual information to counter myths and inaccurate beliefs which may exist within the community, for example, that forcing one's partner to have sex is domestic violence, that sexual violence occurs most frequently with known offenders rather than strangers, willingness of police to respond to domestic violence calls and length of time it takes to respond.

- Providing information about the consequences of reporting domestic violence, for example, likelihood of offender being arrested, whether victim will need to go to court. If reporting is to be encouraged then women need to know what will happen so they can make an informed decision about whether to report.

- Providing information about rights, entitlements and supports available to those affected by violence.

- Communicating to the community at large that violence is unacceptable and a violation of human rights, regardless of the cultural background of the victim or perpetrator.

- Further survey research with other recently arrived culturally and linguistically diverse communities to identify variations in attitudes and beliefs within those communities about violence against women.

In addition, while community education is important, Flood & Pease (2006) note that there are a range of factors at the individual, organisational, community and societal levels that contribute to the formation of community attitudes to violence against women (e.g. childhood exposure to violence, some organisational and peer environments). This suggests the importance of also exploring and investing in a wider range of primary prevention strategies.

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Appendix A - Methodology

Survey overview

The in-scope population for the 2006 Community Attitudes to Violence Against Women Survey (CATVAWS) was persons aged 18 years of age and over who were residents of private households in Victoria. Data collection was by Computer Assisted Telephone Interviewing (CATI).

The quantitative phase of the CATVAWS project comprised the survey instrument being administered to two separate samples:

- the main sample - a random survey of 2,000 Victorian adults stratified by Department of Human Services (DHS) health region, and
- the selected culturally and linguistically diverse (SCALD) sample - a separate sample of 800 Victorian residents of Chinese (200), Vietnamese (200), Italian (200) or Greek (200) background.

The sampling technique for the main sample was Random Digit Dialling (RDD). Approach letters introducing the survey were mailed to all households where randomly generated telephone numbers could be matched to an address in the Electronic White Pages (EWP). The respondent within each household was selected using the "next birthday" method and a range of strategies were adopted to maximise response, including repeated call backs to establish contact, the operation of a 1800 number by the Social Research Centre, and interviewing in languages other than English.

For the SCALD sample, a surname-based sampling approach was used. This involved the generation of a selection of known Chinese, Vietnamese, Italian and Greek surnames from the Electronic White Pages. Only first generation (born in the target countries) or second generation (one or both parents born in the target countries) immigrants were eligible for interview. This approach for interviewing people from selected culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds was also used in the Australian component of the International Crime Victimisation Survey (Challice & Johnson 2005) to interview people with Vietnamese and Middle Eastern backgrounds and was found to be an effective means of contacting people with these backgrounds. The SCALD survey questionnaire, survey procedures and response maximisation techniques were identical to those in the main survey.

Data collection for the CATVAWS was characterised by:

- The need for a sensitive approach, given the nature of the subject matter;
- The need to contain overall interview length by randomly allocating respondents to specific "blocks" of questions;
- The need for respondent – interviewer gender matching, to encourage forthright responses and to be consistent with the method used in the 1995 OSW survey.
- The need to take into account cultural sensitivities in relation to the subject matter, particularly for the SCALD sample.

Table A1 provides a summary of the survey statistics. The average interview length for SCALD survey interviews was 32 minutes, over 8 minutes longer than the main sample survey (23 minutes). Feedback from the interviewing team suggests the longer interview length for the SCALD sample reflects time invested in making the culturally appropriate introductions and "small talk" prior to commencing the interview proper.

Table A1: Survey overview for both main and SCALD samples

Interviews completed	2000	800
Response rate	51%	42%
Start date	7-March 06	24-March 06
Finish date	2-May 06	24-May 06
Average interview length (minutes)	23.3	31.6

Main sample sampling procedures

The main sample survey used a stratified random sampling methodology. The strata consisted of the eight Victorian DHS health regions, with 400 interviews conducted in each of the three metropolitan health regions, totalling 1,200 metropolitan interviews, and 160 interviews conducted in each of the five health regions in the rest of Victoria, totalling 800 regional interviews. It was agreed that this design provided for robust all of State results.

The main sample was generated using the 'known blocks' version of random digit dialling (RDD). Previous research shows that the representation of groups of interest for the study, such as single or divorced persons, transient persons, and young persons generally, is improved by using random digit dialling.

The steps involved in the sample generation process were:

- Drawing a random selection of records from the latest commercially available release of the Electronic White Pages (EWP) [6], to be used as "seed" numbers for random number generation (all selections from the EWP are by definition from known blocks)

- Retaining the eight digit exchange prefix of the listed number (for example 03 9557 45) and randomly generate the last two digits, to create a new randomly generated 10 digit telephone number

- Washing the resultant numbers against the latest electronic business listings to remove known business numbers and against the EWP to identify which randomly generated telephone numbers can be matched to the EWP listings. This matching process allowed the sample to be segmented as 'matched' (i.e. the number generated matches a number contained in the EWP listing) or 'unmatched'.

A total of 10,528 records were randomly selected from the EWP and were used as the "seed" numbers for random number generation. Given the age of the DtMS address listings against which randomly generated numbers were matched, and the known positive impact of an approach letter on response rates, it was agreed that Sensis's "MacroMatch" service would be used to obtain an up-to-date mailing address for the matched sample.

MacroMatch is a service that uses Sensis directory listings [7] to provide the latest known address information for listings of matched numbers. Using this service increases the likelihood that approach letters will reach the named household at the given address, and reduces the proportion of return to sender and unopened letters. Just over a third of the RDD sample generated for the survey were matched to a current address listing and, as such, sent an approach letter

SCALD sampling procedures

The RDD method of sample generation that was used for the main sample component of the survey was not cost effective for the SCALD sample because of the relatively small number of persons of Chinese, Vietnamese, Italian or Greek origin living in Australia, even in areas with high concentrations of these populations. Using the RDD approach would have required an extraordinarily high number of contacts to be made and then discarded in order to achieve the numbers of interviews required with people of these backgrounds.

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[6] Desk top Marketing Services (DtMS), July 2004
[7] The online White Pages listing which is updated daily.

An electronic white pages surname-based approach to SCALD sample generation was therefore used. Initially, this involved sample purchases from Cultural and Indigenous Research Centre Australia (CIRCA), a specialist in multicultural and Indigenous research. A total of 4,000 sample records were provided by CIRCA – 1,000 for each of the four cultural groups of interest. Mobile phone numbers were excluded from this sample, leaving an initial total of 3,959 SCALD sample records (see also Table A2, column B).

Due to a number of factors, such as the lower proportion of in-scope contacts[8] and lower participation rates than anticipated, some additional sampling had to be generated to achieve the target number of interviews for persons of Chinese (1,049 additional records generated), Italian (778) and Greek (573) background. The additional sample generation process involved using the same surnames as the original sample provided by CIRCA, selecting all Victorian records with these surnames from the EWP, de-duplicating against the sample provided by CIRCA, and randomly selecting additional records for call initiation from the pool of eligible surname records.

The surname-based approach for the SCALD sample had a number of limitations, including the exclusion of households with unlisted telephone numbers and the exclusion of females in the SCALD groups of interest who married into other ethnic groups (such as a Vietnamese women marrying a non-Vietnamese man).

A total of 5,549 SCALD sample records were generated over three phases to complete the interviewing quota:

1. Original MacroMatched sample from CIRCA (2,259 records were sent an approach letter)
2. Supplementary MacroMatched sample, generated internally (1,053 records, approach letter sent)
3. Additional sample from DtMS, generated internally (2,237 records – sample initiated towards the end of data collection to enable quotas to be met - no approach letter sent)

As all records in the SCALD sample were selected from the EWP, address details were available for all SCALD sample records to facilitate approach letter mailing. Similar to the main sample component, Phase 1 SCALD sample records were MacroMatched in order to obtain an up-to-date mailing address. Any record without a full address match was excluded from the Phase 1 SCALD sample.

The MacroMatch rate (numbers successfully matched as a per cent of DtMS addressed-matched records) for the SCALD sample (57%) was much lower than for the main sample (73%), particularly for the Chinese (47%) and Vietnamese (48%) samples. This perhaps suggests higher mobility and / or increasing use of unlisted numbers amongst SCALD sample members, relative to the general population.

Table A2: Address matching rates for SCALD sampling								
Phase			Phase 1		Phase 2		Phase 3	
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H
	Initial CIRCA sample	CIRCA sample after cleaning	Macro-Matched records (initial selections)	Macro-match rate	Additional Macro-Matched selections	Total letter sample	Additional DtMS matched records (no letter)	Total SCALD matched records
Chinese	1000	986	459	47%	420	879	655	1534
Vietnamese	1000	996	483	48%	0	483	0	483
Italian	1000	987	651	66%	616	1267	655	1922
Greek	1000	990	666	67%	17	683	927	1610
Total	4000	3959	2259	57%	1053	3312	2237	5549

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[8] With the qualifying criteria being refined during the project development process from persons *self-identifying* with the cultural group of interest (irrespective of birthplace), to being first or second generation migrants only.

Whilst the Vietnamese component of the study was completed from the Phase 1 sample, supplementary sample generation was required to complete the Chinese, Italian and Greek quotas. Under Phase 2, letters were sent and calls were initiated to an additional 1,053 Macromatched selections (Table A2, column E). With the Chinese, Italian and Greek quotas still not filled from Phase 2 selections, it was necessary to make additional selections (Table A2, column G) to complete the SCALD component. Given the constraints of the project budget and schedule, and anecdotal feedback from the interviewing team that the approach letter may not have been having the intended impact amongst SCALD sample members, no MacroMatching was undertaken for Phase 3 records, and no approach letter was sent.

The surname-based approach for the SCALD survey had a number of limitations, including the exclusion of households with unlisted telephone numbers; and the exclusion of females in the SCALD groups of interest who married into other ethnic groups (such as a Vietnamese women marrying a non-Vietnamese man).

In-scope sample selection

Main sample

The in-scope population for the main sample survey was the non-institutionalised population of Victoria aged 18 years or over. As such the in-scope population excluded:

- Residents of institutional quarters (prisons, nursing homes, etc) and military bases
- Persons incapable of undertaking the interview due to a physical or mental health condition (including too old / frail)
- Persons perceived to be under the influence of drugs or alcohol, and
- Non-English speaking persons outside of the four target SCALD backgrounds for this survey.

Households with no person aged 18 years or over in residence and those located outside Victoria, even though sourced from Victorian telephone directory listings, were also considered out of scope.

The next birthday method was used to select the person 18 years or older in the household. No substitution of individuals within household was undertaken.

SCALD Sample

Essentially the same procedures for identifying in-scope sample members were used for the SCALD sample as the main sample. However, in order to interview members of the targeted SCALD backgrounds the following screening question was asked:

"We are particularly interested in speaking with people of particular backgrounds. Is there anyone in this household who was born in (target country), or who has a parent born in (target country)?"

In instances where there were two or more household members fitting this criterion, the next birthday method was used to select a respondent from within that household.

Callbacks

A 15 call protocol was used for the study, whereby up to six attempts were made to establish contact with the selected household, and upon making contact, up to a further nine attempts were made to achieve an interview with the selected respondent. This call regime was adopted to help improve the representativeness of the achieved sample. Previous experience suggested that the representation of groups such as young persons, males and working persons is improved by using an extended call cycle.

Initial contact attempts were made between 5.00 pm and 9.00 pm on weekdays, and 10.00 am and 4.00 pm on weekends. Failing contact during these times, calls were then initiated on weekdays between 9.00 am to 5.00 pm. Appointments were made for any time within the hours of operation of the call centre.

Procedures for interviewing in languages other than English

Non-English language interviewing for the main sample was limited to the four target languages for the SCALD component. Where the preferred language of interview of the selected sample member was identified as one of those for follow up, initially these records were stockpiled until the SCALD survey commenced (ensuring a reasonable workload for a bi-lingual interviewer). Where the preferred language could not be identified, the procedure was to set a soft appointment for another time, on the off-chance that another household member may then be available to help identify the language required. Where the preferred language was not one of the four target languages, the record was assigned the code "language difficulty, no follow up" and no further call attempts were made. Questionnaires were translated by CIRCA to ensure consistency of wording across all interviews conducted in languages other than English (in both surveys).

Questionnaire pilot testing

A two-stage approach to pilot testing was adopted, comprising an initial pilot test of nine interviews, followed by revisions to the questionnaire and re-testing of 26 interviews. Minor sequencing, order, wording amendments and question deletions to the draft questionnaire were agreed through the pilot testing process.

One of the main issues arising from the pilot test was questionnaire length (the average pilot test interview duration was approximately 40 minutes). The questionnaire was carefully reviewed and as a result some questions were deleted while two others were split into two separate blocks of questions and randomly allocated to respondents in split-half blocks.

Splitting questionnaire blocks (Chapter 5 in this report)

Rather than delete further questions it was decided to split two of the longest questionnaire items (DV6 and SV3, refer Appendix B) into two separate blocks of questions and to randomly allocate respondents to these split-half blocks. DV6 comprised a series of 16 agree / disagree statements about domestic violence and SV3 comprised 10 agree / disagree statements about sexual assault and harassment. In any given interview, respondents were sequenced to answer only half of these statements.

In the main sample survey 997 respondents went through DV6 Block A and 1003 through DV6 Block B. For SV3, 1006 respondents went through Block A and 994 through Block B. Table A3 illustrates how respondents were randomly allocated to each of the possible combinations for DV6 and SV3.

Table A3: Allocation of respondents to blocks of questions for DV6 and SV3

Table A3: Allocation of respondents to blocks of questions for DV6 and SV3		
DV6 Block:	**SV3 Block:**	**Number of respondents**
Main sample		
A	A	499
A	B	498
B	A	507
B	B	496
SCALD sample		
A	A	200
A	B	200
B	A	200
B	B	200

In-scope samples and response rates

The response rate is defined as the number of achieved interviews as a proportion of sample members who could be contacted within the call cycle and were not identified as out of scope. The final overall response rate for the main sample was 51% (Table A4) and for the SCALD sample was 42% (Table A5). Within the SCALD sample, it is noticeable that the Vietnamese sample had a much higher response rate than the Chinese, Greek or Italian respondents (Table A6).

Table A4: Sampling and response rates for the main sample			
Main sample final call outcome	**Numbers initiated**	**As a % numbers initiated**	**As a % in scope contacts**
Total numbers initiated	**10,430**		
Telstra message, number disconnected	2,651	25.4%	
Not a residential number	1,061	10.2%	
Total unusable sample	**3,712**	**35.6%**	
Unresolved at end of call cycle			
Engaged	33	0.3%	
Answering machine	197	1.9%	
No answer	910	8.7%	
Appointment made	213	2.0%	
Fax/Modem	713	6.8%	
Language difficulty (follow up)	120	1.2%	
Wrong number / respondent not known	29	0.3%	
Total unresolved at end of call cycle	**2,215**	**21.2%**	
Out of scope contacts			
No one 18 plus in household	51	0.5%	
Too old / frail to do survey	260	2.5%	
Selected respondent away duration	136	1.3%	
Claims to have done survey	10	0.1%	
Language difficulty (no follow up)	128	1.2%	
Total out of scope contacts	**585**	**5.6%**	
In-scope contacts			
Completed interviews	**2,000**	**19.2%**	**51.0%**
Household refusals	1,139	10.9%	29.1%
Respondent refusals	468	4.5%	11.9%
Other refusals (includes mid survey terminations)	311	3.0%	7.9%
Total in-scope contacts	**3,918**	**37.6%**	**100.0%**

Table A5: Sampling and response rates for the SCALD sample

SCALD sample final call outcome	Numbers initiated	As a % numbers initiated	As a % in scope contacts
Total numbers initiated	**5,163**		
Telstra message, number disconnected	369	7.1%	
Not a residential number	84	1.6%	
Total unusable sample	**453**	**8.8%**	
Unresolved at end of call cycle			
Engaged	38	0.7%	
Answering machine	160	3.1%	
No answer	662	12.8%	
Appointment made	321	6.2%	
Fax/Modem	146	2.8%	
Language difficulty (follow up)	73	1.4%	
Wrong number / respondent not known	22	0.4%	
Total unresolved at end of call cycle	**1,422**	**27.5%**	
Out of scope contacts			
No one first or second generation in household	1309	25.4%	
Too old / frail to do survey	16	0.3%	
Selected respondent away duration	32	0.6%	
Claims to have done survey	10	0.2%	
Language difficulty (no follow up)	33	0.6%	
Total out of scope contacts	**1400**	**27.1%**	
In-scope contacts			
Completed interviews	800	15.5%	42.4%
Respondent refusals	927	17.9%	49.1%
Refusal, type not identified, including mid survey terminations	161	3.1%	8.5%
Total in-scope contacts	**1,888**	**36.6%**	**100.0%**

Table A6: Sampling and response rates for the SCALD sample by sub-group

SCALD	Chinese %	Vietnamese %	Greek %	Italian %
Total numbers where contact attempted	1,388	456	1,741	1,540
Unusable	12.6%	0.7%	5.7%	11.4%
Unresolved	21.2%	40.8%	31.0%	23.6%
Out of scope	29.3%	9.5%	30.5%	28.2%
In scope	36.9%	49.0%	32.8%	36.8%
Interviews (%)	14.4%	43.9%	11.5%	13.0%
Number of interviews	**200**	**200**	**200**	**200**
Response rate	**38.2%**	**86.4%**	**35.3%**	**35.4%**

Data processing

In addition to conducting the telephone survey, the Social Research Centre was responsible for the data entry and the editing of the raw data for integrity, coding errors and internal consistency, prior to providing the final clean data file to the AIC. Some composite "banner" variables were

constructed by SRC and added to the data file. These included occupational status and gender equality variables (see Appendix C).

Weighting

In general, survey weights are an estimate of the inverse of the probability associated with selecting a particular household or person in the sample. They serve two major purposes:

1. They enable the survey estimates to be corrected for non-response and coverage problems; and
2. They enable the survey estimates to conform to a known distribution of the population of interest, thereby better representing that population to which the survey estimates generalise.

To weight the main sample data, a three stage weighting procedure was adopted:

- A 'chance of selection' pre-weight to adjust for the number of in-scope persons within each household and the number of private telephone lines per household
- A post stratification weighting to 2004 ABS estimated residential population figures by DHS region and age (18-24, 25-34, 35-44, 45-54, 55-64, 65 plus), and
- A final weighting adjustment to align the regional gender distribution of the achieved sample with that of the total population.

To weight the SCALD data, the first step was to identify an appropriate target population for both first generation (Chinese / Hong Kong / Vietnamese / Italian / Greek born population) and second generation (Australian born persons whose parents were born in China / Hong Kong / Vietnam / Italy / Greece). The 2001 ABS Census of Population and Housing (age, sex and birthplace) were used to weight the SCALD sample. The weighting adjusted for age within each ethnicity. A post weight factor was applied to adjust for gender within each ethnicity.

Apart from Table 1.1 in this report (which presents both unweighted and weighted data), all data presented in this report have been weighted by age and sex and then reweighted to the effective sample size.

Appendix B – Questionnaire

MODULE 1: VIOLENCE GENERALLY AND VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN

VAW3 I'd like to start with a question about your own personal safety. In your everyday life what is the main form of violence you personally are most worried about? (PROBE: What else? Anything else?)

1. Response given (Specify)
2. Don't Know
3. Refused

VAW4 Thinking about violence against women in particular, do you agree or disagree that violence against women is a serious issue for our community?
(PROBE: Strongly agree / disagree or somewhat agree / disagree).

1. Strongly agree
2. Somewhat agree
3. (Neither agree or disagree)
4. Somewhat disagree
5. Strongly disagree
6. (Don't Know / Can't Say)
7. (Refused)

VAW6 And do you agree or disagree that violence against women is common in our community?
(PROBE: Strongly agree / disagree or somewhat agree / disagree).

1. Strongly agree
2. Somewhat agree
3. (Neither agree or disagree)
4. Somewhat disagree
5. Strongly disagree
6. (Don't Know / Can't Say)
7. (Refused)

MODULE 2: DOMESTIC VIOLENCE

*[ROTATE ORDER OF PAIRED STATEMENTS, BUT ALWAYS START WITH DV2A AND DV2B]

DV2 Now thinking about domestic violence. I'd like you to tell me whether or not you regard the following sorts of behaviour as domestic violence and how serious you think they are?
DV2a If one partner in a domestic relationship slaps or pushes the other partner to cause harm or fear, is this a form of domestic violence? (IF YES, PROBE: Would you say that is always the case, usually the case, or just sometimes).

1. Yes, always
2. Yes, usually
3. Yes, sometimes
4. No
5. (Don't Know)
6. (Refused)

DV2b And how serious is this, would you say very, quite, not that serious or not at all?
(PROMPT IF REQUIRED: Do you regard one partner in a domestic relationship slapping or pushing the other partner to cause harm or fear to be …. (READ OUT)

1. Very serious
2. Quite serious
3. Not that serious, or
4. Not at all serious
5. (Don't Know)
6. (Refused)

DV2c If one partner in a domestic relationship forces the other partner to have sex, is this a form of domestic violence? (IF YES, PROBE: Would you say that is always the case, usually the case, or just sometimes).

1. Yes, always
2. Yes, usually
3. Yes, sometimes
4. No

5. (Don't Know)
6. (Refused)

DV2d And how serious is this, would you say very, quite, not that serious or not at all?
(PROMPT IF REQUIRED: Do you regard one partner in a domestic relationship forcing the other partner to have sex to be …. (READ OUT))
1. Very serious
2. Quite serious
3. Not that serious, or
4. Not at all serious
5. (Don't Know)
6. (Refused)

DV2e If one partner in a domestic relationship throws or smashes objects near the other partner to frighten or threaten them, is this a form of domestic violence? (IF YES, PROBE: Would you say that is always the case, usually the case, or just sometimes).
1. Yes, always
2. Yes, usually
3. Yes, sometimes
4. No
5. (Don't Know)
6. (Refused)

DV2f And how serious is this, would you say very, quite, not that serious or not at all?
(PROMPT IF REQUIRED: Do you regard one partner in a domestic relationship deliberately throwing or smashing objects near the other partner to frighten or threaten them to be …. (READ OUT))
1. Very serious
2. Quite serious
3. Not that serious, or
4. Not at all serious
5. (Don't Know)
6. (Refused)

DV2g If one partner in a domestic relationship tries to scare or control the other partner by threatening to hurt other family members, is this a form of domestic violence? (IF YES, PROBE: Would you say that is always the case, usually the case, or just sometimes).
1. Yes, always
2. Yes, usually
3. Yes, sometimes
4. No
5. (Don't Know)
6. (Refused)

DV2h And how serious is this, would you say very, quite, not that serious or not at all?
(PROMPT IF REQUIRED: Do you regard one partner in a domestic relationship trying to scare or control the other partner by threatening to hurt other family members as…. (READ OUT))
1. Very serious
2. Quite serious
3. Not that serious, or
4. Not at all serious
5. (Don't Know)
6. (Refused)

DV2i If one partner in a domestic relationship yells abuse at the other partner is this a form of domestic violence? (IF YES, PROBE: Would you say that is always the case, usually the case, or just sometimes).
1. Yes, always
2. Yes, usually
3. Yes, sometimes
4. No
5. (Don't Know)
6. (Refused)

DV2j And how serious is this, would you say very, quite, not that serious or not at all?
(PROMPT IF REQUIRED: Do you regard one partner in a domestic relationship yelling abuse at the other partner as…. (READ OUT))
1. Very serious
2. Quite serious
3. Not that serious, or
4. Not at all serious
5. (Don't Know)
6. (Refused)

DV2k If one partner in a domestic relationship controls the social life of the other partner by preventing them from seeing family and friends, is this a form of domestic violence? (IF YES, PROBE: Would you say that is always the case, usually the case, or just sometimes).
1. Yes, always
2. Yes, usually
3. Yes, sometimes
4. No
5. (Don't Know)
6. (Refused)

DV2l And how serious is this, would you say very, quite, not that serious or not at all?
(PROMPT IF REQUIRED: Do you regard one partner in a domestic relationship controlling the social life of the other partner by preventing them from seeing family and friends as …. (READ OUT))
1. Very serious
2. Quite serious
3. Not that serious, or
4. Not at all serious
5. (Don't Know)
6. (Refused)

DV2m If one partner in a domestic relationship repeatedly criticises the other one to make them feel bad or useless, is this a form of domestic violence? (IF YES, PROBE: Would you say that is always the case, usually the case, or just sometimes).
1. Yes, always
2. Yes, usually
3. Yes, sometimes
4. No
5. (Don't Know)
6. (Refused)

DV2n And how serious is this, would you say very, quite, not that serious or not at all? (PROMPT IF REQUIRED: Do you regard one partner in a domestic relationship repeatedly criticizing the other one to make them feel bad or useless as…. (READ OUT)
1. Very serious
2. Quite serious
3. Not that serious, or
4. Not at all serious
5. (Don't Know)
6. (Refused)

DV2o If one partner in a domestic relationship tries to control the other partner by denying them money, is this domestic violence? (IF YES, PROBE: Would you say that is always the case, usually the case, or just sometimes).
1. Yes, always
2. Yes, usually
3. Yes, sometimes
4. No
5. (Don't Know)
6. (Refused)

DV2p And how serious is this, would you say very, quite, not that serious or not at all? (PROMPT IF REQUIRED: Do you regard one partner in a domestic relationship trying to control the other partner by denying them money as …. (READ OUT))
1. Very serious
2. Quite serious
3. Not that serious, or
4. Not at all serious
5. (Don't Know)
6. (Refused)

DV4 Do you think that it is mainly men, mainly women or both men and women that COMMIT ACTS of domestic violence? (IF BOTH PROBE TO CLARIFY: Mainly men, mainly women or both equally).
1. Mainly men
2. Both – but men more often
3. Both - equally
4. Both – but women more often
5. Mainly women
6. (Don't Know / Can't Say)
7. (Refused)

DV4c Do you think that men or women would be more likely to suffer PHYSICAL HARM as a result of domestic violence?
1. Men
2. (Equal)
3. Women
4. (Don't know)
5. (Refused)

DV4b And do you think that men or women would be more likely to suffer EMOTIONAL HARM as a result of domestic violence?
1. Men
2. (Equal)
3. Women
4. (Don't know)
5. (Refused)

DV4a Thinking about both female and male victims of domestic violence, would you say the LEVEL OF FEAR experienced is worse for males, worse for females or equally bad for both? (PROBE TO CLARIFY: A BIT WORSE OR MUCH WORSE)
1. Much worse for males
2. A bit worse for males
3. Equally bad for both males and females
4. A bit worse for females
5. Much worse for females
6. (Don't know)
7. (Refused)

*[SET QUOTA SO THAT 1000 RESPONDENTS ASKED BLOCK A AND THE OTHER 1000 ASKED BLOCK B]

DV6 I am going to read out some statements about domestic violence. For each one please tell me whether you strongly agree, somewhat agree, somewhat disagree or strongly disagree. There are no right or wrong answers.
(STATEMENTS – BLOCK A)
a) Domestic violence is a criminal offence
b) Most people who experience domestic violence are reluctant to go to the police
c) Most people turn a blind eye to, or ignore domestic violence
d) It's hard to understand why women stay in violent relationships
e) Domestic violence is more likely to occur in migrant families
f) Domestic violence is a private matter to be handled in the family
g) Domestic violence rarely happens in wealthy neighbourhoods
h) Police now respond more quickly to domestic violence calls than they did in the past
(STATEMENTS – BLOCK B)
i) Domestic violence can be excused if it results from people getting so angry that they temporarily lose control

j) Domestic violence can be excused if THE VICTIM is heavily affected by alcohol
k) Domestic violence can be excused if THE OFFENDER is heavily affected by alcohol
l) Most women could leave a violent relationship if they really wanted to
m) In domestic situations where one partner is physically violent towards the other it is entirely reasonable for the violent person to be made to leave the family home
n) Domestic violence can be excused if, afterwards, the violent person genuinely regrets what they have done
o) Women going through custody battles often make up or exaggerate claims of domestic violence in order to improve their case
p) It's a woman's duty to stay in a violent relationship in order to keep the family together

(RESPONSE FRAME)
1. Strongly agree
2. Somewhat agree
3. (Neither agree or disagree)
4. Somewhat disagree
5. Strongly disagree
6. (Don't Know / Can't Say)
7. (Refused)

*[ROTATE STATEMENTS]
DV7 Now, do you agree or disagree that a man would be justified in using physical force against his wife or partner if she … (PROBE: Strongly agree / disagree or somewhat agree / disagree).
(STATEMENTS)
a) Argues with or refuses to obey him
b) Wastes money
c) Doesn't keep up with the domestic chores
d) Keeps nagging him
e) Refuses to having sex with him
f) Admits to having sex with another man
g) Doesn't keep the children well behaved
h) Socialises too much with her friends
i) Puts her own career ahead of the family

(RESPONSE FRAME)
1. Strongly agree
2. Somewhat agree
3. (Neither agree or disagree)
4. Somewhat disagree
5. Strongly disagree
6. (Don't Know)
7. (Refused)

DV8 Are there any (other) circumstances you can think of in which it might be acceptable for a man to use physical force against his wife or partner? (MULTIPLE RESPONSE)
1. To protect the children
2. To protect himself
3. Other (Specify)
4. None/ Can't think of any
5. Don't Know
6. Refused

DV9 Thinking about ex-partners now. Do you agree or disagree that a man would be justified in using physical force against his ex-partner in the following circumstances. (PROBE: Strongly agree / disagree or somewhat agree / disagree).
(STATEMENTS)
a) If she refuses to return to the relationship
b) In order to get access to his children
c) If she tries to turn the children against him
d) If he thinks she is unreasonable about property settlement and financial issues
e) If she commences a new relationship

(RESPONSE FRAME)
1. Strongly agree
2. Somewhat agree
3. (Neither agree or disagree)

4. Somewhat disagree
5. Strongly disagree
6. (Don't Know)
7. (Refused)

DV10a How likely do you think you would be to intervene IN ANY WAY AT ALL if a woman that didn't know was being physically assaulted by her partner in public? The options are very likely, somewhat likely, somewhat unlikely or very unlikely.
1. Very likely
2. Somewhat likely
3. Somewhat unlikely
4. Very unlikely
5. (Don't Know)
6. (Refused)

DV10b How likely do you think you would be to intervene IN ANY WAY AT ALL if a neighbour, that you didn't know all that well, was being physically assaulted by her partner? The options are very likely, somewhat likely, somewhat unlikely or very unlikely.
1. Very likely
2. Somewhat likely
3. Somewhat unlikely
4. Very unlikely
5. (Don't Know)
6. (Refused)

DV10c If you became aware that a family member or close friend of yours was currently a victim of domestic violence, how likely would you be to intervene IN ANY WAY AT ALL. Again the options are very likely, somewhat likely, somewhat unlikely or very unlikely.
1. Very likely (GO TO DV11)
2. Somewhat likely (GO TO DV11)
3. Somewhat unlikely
4. Very unlikely
5. (Don't Know) (GO TO DV12)
6. (Refused) (GO T0 DV12)
*(UNLIKELY TO INTERVENE)

DV10d What are your main reasons for feeling that you would be unlikely to intervene? PROBE FOR A COMPLETE RESPONSE)
1. Response given (Specify) (GO TO DV12)
2. Don't Know (GO TO DV12)
3. Refused (GO TO DV12)

*(LIKELY TO INTERVENE)
DV11 In what way would you intervene if a family member or close friend was currently a victim of domestic violence?
1. Response given (Specify)
2. Don't Know
3. Refused

*(ALL)
DV12 Compared with ten years ago, do you think that nowadays people are more likely to intervene in a domestic violence dispute, less likely or that there has been no change? (PROBE: A LOT OR A LITTLE)
1. A lot more likely
2. A little more likely
3. No change
4. A little less likely
5. A lot less likely
6. (Don't Know / Can't Say)
7. (Refused)

*(ALL)
DV13 Thinking about the last ten years, would you say the proportion of people willing to talk about having been victims of ADULT domestic violence has increased, decreased or stayed the same?
(PROBE: Is that a lot or a little?)
1. Increased a lot
2. Increased a little

3. The same
4. Decreased a little
5. Decreased a lot
6. Don't Know / Can't Say
7. Refused

DV14 And still thinking about the last ten years would you say domestic violence against women has increased, decreased or stayed the same? (PROBE: Is that a lot or a little?)
1. Increased a lot
2. Increased a little
3. The same
4. Decreased a little
5. Decreased a lot
6. (Don't Know / Can't Say)
7. (Refused)

DV15 Do you agree or disagree that if you needed to get outside advice or support for someone about a domestic violence issue you would know where to go? (PROBE: Strongly agree / disagree or somewhat agree / disagree).
1. Strongly agree
2. Somewhat agree
3. (Neither agree or disagree)
4. Somewhat disagree
5. Strongly disagree
6. (Don't Know)
7. (Refused)

MODULE 3: SEXUAL VIOLENCE & HARASSMENT

SV1a Now thinking generally about violence against women, not just domestic violence. Do you regard stalking to be a form of violence against women. By stalking I mean being repeatedly followed or watched at home or work? (IF YES, PROBE: Would you say that is always the case, usually the case, or just sometimes).
1. Yes, always
2. Yes, usually
3. Yes, sometimes
4. No
5. (Don't Know)
6. (Refused)

SV1b And how serious is this, would you say very, quite, not that serious or not at all?
(PROMPT IF REQUIRED: Do you regard stalking to be …. READ OUT)
1. Very serious
2. Quite serious
3. Not that serious, or
4. Not at all serious
5. (Don't Know)
6. (Refused)

SV2a Do you regard harassment via repeated phone calls to be a form of violence against women? (IF YES, PROBE: Would you say that is always the case, usually the case, or just sometimes).
1. Yes, always
2. Yes, usually
3. Yes, sometimes
4. No
5. (Don't Know)
6. (Refused)

SV2b And how serious is this, would you say very, quite, not that serious or not at all? (PROMPT IF REQUIRED: Do you regard harassment via repeated phone calls to be …. READ OUT)
1. Very serious
2. Quite serious
3. Not that serious, or
4. Not at all serious
5. (Don't Know)
6. (Refused)

SV2c Do you regard harassment via repeated emails, text messages and the like to be a form of violence against women? (IF YES, PROBE: Would you say that is always the case, usually the case, or just sometimes).
1. Yes, always
2. Yes, usually
3. Yes, sometimes
4. No
5. (Don't Know)
6. (Refused)

SV2d And how serious is this, would you say very, quite, not that serious or not at all? (PROMPT IF REQUIRED: Do you regard harassment via repeated emails, text messages and the like to be …. READ OUT)
1. Very serious
2. Quite serious
3. Not that serious, or
4. Not at all serious
5. (Don't Know)
6. (Refused)

*[SET QUOTA SO THAT 1000 RESPONDENTS ASKED BLOCK A AND THE OTHER 1000 ASKED BLOCK B, ENSURE THAT 500 OF THOSE WHO ANSWERED DV6 BLOCK A ARE ASKED ARE ASKED SV3 BLOCK A AND THE OTHER 500 SV3 BLOCK B / AND 500 OF THOSE WHO ANSWERED DV6 BLOCK B ARE ASKED ARE ASKED SV3 BLOCK A AND THE OTHER 500 SV3 BLOCK B]

SV3 I'm now going to read out some statements about sexual assault and harassment. For each one, please tell me whether you strongly agree, somewhat agree, somewhat disagree or strongly disagree. There are no right or wrong answers.
(STATEMENTS – BLOCK A)
a) The legal system treats rape and sexual assault victims badly
b) Women are more likely to be raped by someone they know than by a stranger
c) Women rarely make false claims of being raped
d) Women often say 'no' when they mean 'yes'
e) Women who are sexually harassed should sort it out themselves rather than report it
(STATEMENTS – BLOCK B)
f) Women who are raped often ask for it
g) Rape results from men not being able to control their need for sex
h) A woman cannot be raped by someone she is in a sexual relationship with
i) Sexual assault can be excused if the VICTIM is heavily affected by alcohol
j) Sexual assault can be excused if the OFFENDER is heavily affected by alcohol
(RESPONSE FRAME)
1. Strongly agree
2. Somewhat agree
3. (Neither agree nor disagree)
4. Somewhat disagree
5. Strongly disagree
6. (Don't Know / Can't Say)
7. (Refused)

SV3a Thinking about the last ten years would you say SEXUAL ASSAULT against women has increased, decreased or stayed the same? (PROBE: Is that a lot or a little?)
1. Increased a lot
2. Increased a little
3. The same
4. Decreased a little
5. Decreased a lot
6. (Don't Know / Can't Say)
7. (Refused)

MODULE 4: COMMUNITY ATTITUDES / CAMPAIGN RECALL

ATT1 In the last ten years, in what ways, if any, do you think community attitudes to violence against women have changed?
1. None / community attitudes haven't changed
2. Response give (Specify)
3. Don't Know
4. Refused

ATT2 Have you recently seen read or heard anything in the media about violence against women? It might have been advertising on television, a news or current affairs program or perhaps in newspapers or magazines or on the radio? (IF NO PROBE: Nothing at all?)
1. Yes
2. No (GO TO ATT4)
3. (Don't know / Can't say) (GO TO ATT4)
4. (Refused) (GO TO ATT4)

*(SEEN SOMETHING IN MEDIA)
ATT3 What was it that you saw, read or heard about violence against women?
1. Response given (Specify)
2. (Don't Know)
3. (Refused)

*(ALL)
ATT4 The statements I'm about to read out describe attitudes which different people have. There are no right or wrong answers, only opinions. For each statement please tell me whether you strongly agree, somewhat agree, somewhat disagree or strongly disagree
(STATEMENTS)
a) On the whole, men make better political leaders than women.
b) When jobs are scarce men should have more right to a job than women.
c) A university education is more important for a boy than a girl
d) A woman has to have children to be fulfilled
e) It's OK for a woman to have a child as a single parent and not want a stable relationship with a man
(RESPONSE FRAME)
1. Strongly agree
2. Somewhat agree
3. (Neither agree nor disagree)
4. Somewhat disagree
5. Strongly disagree
6. (Don't Know / Can't Say)
7. (Refused)

MODULE 5: DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

DEM Finally, to help us analyse the results of this survey, it's important that we understand a little bit about your household. I only need a couple more minutes of your time and all answers are completely confidential.
DEM1 How old were you last birthday?
1. Age given (RECORD AGE IN YEARS (RANGE 18 TO 99) (GO TO DEM1B)
2. (Refused)
*(REFUSED AGE)
DEM1a Which of the following age groups are you in? READ OUT
1. 18 - 24 years
2. 25 - 34 years
3. 35 - 44 years
4. 45 – 54 years
5. 55 – 64 years
6. 65 – 74 years, or
7. 75 + years
8. (Refused)

DEM2 Are you of Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander origin?
1. No
2. Yes, Aboriginal
3. Yes, Torres Strait Islander
4. Yes, both Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander
5. (Refused)

DEM3a In which country were you born?
1. Australia (GO TO DEM4a)
2. Pacific Islands
3. United Kingdom / Ireland
4. New Zealand
5. North America
6. South and Central America or the Caribbean
7. Italy
8. Greece
9. Turkey
10. Other Europe
11. Lebanon
12. Other Middle East (Iran, Iraq, Jordan, Kuwait, Israel, Syria, Saudi Arabia)
13. North Africa (Morocco, Tunisia, Algeria, Egypt, Libya)
14. Horn of Africa (Somalia, Sudan, Ethiopia, Eritrea)
15. Other Africa
16. Central Asia (Afghanistan, Georgia, Kazakhstan)
17. South Asia (India, Pakistan, Nepal, Bangladesh)
18. China
19. Vietnam
20. Other East or Southeast Asia
21. Other (specify)
22. (Don't know)
23. (Refused)

*(NOT BORN IN AUSTRALIA)

DEM4 In what year did you first arrive in Australia to live?
1. Year given (Specify) (ALLOWABLE RANGE: 1900 TO 2006)
2. Don't know
3. Refused

DEM4a In which country was your mother born?
1. Australia
2. Pacific Islands
3. United Kingdom / Ireland
4. New Zealand
5. North America
6. South and Central America or the Caribbean
7. Italy
8. Greece
9. Turkey
10. Other Europe
11. Lebanon
12. Other Middle East (Iran, Iraq, Jordan, Kuwait, Israel, Syria, Saudi Arabia)
13. North Africa (Morocco, Tunisia, Algeria, Egypt, Libya)
14. Horn of Africa (Somalia, Sudan, Ethiopia, Eritrea)
15. Other Africa
16. Central Asia (Afghanistan, Georgia, Kazakhstan)
17. South Asia (India, Pakistan, Nepal, Bangladesh)
18. China
19. Vietnam
20. Other East or Southeast Asia
21. Other (specify)
22. (Don't know)
23. (Refused)

DEM4b In which country was your father born?
1. Australia

2. Pacific Islands
3. United Kingdom / Ireland
4. New Zealand
5. North America
6. South and Central America or the Caribbean
7. Italy
8. Greece
9. Turkey
10. Other Europe
11. Lebanon
12. Other Middle East (Iran, Iraq, Jordan, Kuwait, Israel, Syria, Saudi Arabia)
13. North Africa (Morocco, Tunisia, Algeria, Egypt, Libya)
14. Horn of Africa (Somalia, Sudan, Ethiopia, Eritrea)
15. Other Africa
16. Central Asia (Afghanistan, Georgia, Kazakhstan)
17. South Asia (India, Pakistan, Nepal, Bangladesh)
18. China
19. Vietnam
20. Other East or Southeast Asia
21. Other (specify)
22. (Don't know)
23. (Refused)

*(ALL)

DEM5 Do you speak a language other than English at home?
1. Yes
2. No (GO TO DEM7)
3. Don't know (GO TO DEM7)
4. Refused (GO TO DEM7)

DEM5a This may not apply to you but, would you say that you speak English…? (READ OUT)
1. Very well
2. Well
3. Not well, or
4. Not at all

*(SPEAK A LANGUAGE OTHER THAN ENGLISH)

DEM6 What is the main language other than English you speak at home?
1. Arabic
2. Australian Indigenous Languages
3. Cantonese
4. Mandarin
5. Croatian
6. Greek
7. Hindi
8. Italian
9. Macedonian
10. Spanish
11. Turkish
12. Vietnamese
13. Other (Specify)
14. Don't know
15. Refused

*(ALL)

DEM7 Which of the following categories best describes your household?
READ OUT
1. Person Living Alone
2. Married or de-facto couple with no children
3. A couple with a child or children at home
4. A couple whose children have left home
5. A single parent with a child or children at home
6. A single parent whose children have left home
7. Non-related Adults Sharing House/Apartments/Flat, or
8. Some other sort of household

9. (Refused)

DEM8 What is the highest level of formal education you have completed?
(NOTE: IF UNSURE OR AMBIGUOUS PROBE FURTHER)
(IF YEAR 12 OR BELOW, PROBE FOR TRADE OR APPRENTICESHIP, ETC)
1. Primary School
2. Year 10 or below
3. Year 11
4. Year 12
5. Trade / apprenticeship qualification
6. Other TAFE/ Technical
7. Certificate or Diploma / Associate Diploma
8. Degree or Graduate Diploma
9. Post Graduate
10. Other (Specify)
11. (Don't Know)
12. (Refused)

DEM9 Do you currently do any paid work at all in a job, business or farm? (IF NOT EMPLOYED
PROBE: What would you say is your main activity at the moment?)
1. Employed
2. Unemployed
3. Engaged in home duties
4. A student
5. Retired, or
6. Unable to work
7. Other (Specify)
8. (Don't know)
9. (Refused)

*(HAVE A JOB)

DEM11 What is your (main) occupation?
1. Manager/Administrator (senior managers, government officials, farmers and farm managers)
2. Professional (architects, lawyers, accountants, doctors, scientists, teachers, health professionals such as optometrists, dentists & registered nurses, professional artists)
3. Associate professional (technical officers, technicians, enrolled nurses, medical officers, police officers, computer programmers, scientific officers)
4. Trades persons (building, electrical, metal, printing, vehicle, horticulture, marine trades persons)
5. Advanced clerical or service (bookkeepers, library assistants, flight attendants, secretaries / personal assistants, payroll clerks)
6. Intermediate clerical, sales or service (sales reps, child care workers, waiters, driving instructors, nursing assistant, teaching or nursing aids)
7. Intermediate production and transport (road, rail, machine, mobile or stationary plant operators/drivers)
8. Elementary clerical, sales or service (check out operator, mail / filing clerk, courier, telemarketer, security guard, parking inspector)
9. Labourers & related workers (cleaner, process worker, tradesmen's assistants, farm labourers, construction and mining labourers, food handling)
10. Unsure

*(OTHER ADULTS IN HOUSEHOLD)

DEM12 Are you the main income earner in the household? (INTERVIEWER NOTE: If equal
earners, code as 1)
1. Yes (GO TO DEM14)
2. No

*(NOT THE MAIN INCOME EARNER)
DEM13 Could you tell me please what sort of work the main income earner in your household does?
1. Manager or administrator work
2. Professional work
3. Technician or associate professional work
4. Tradesperson or related work
5. Advanced clerical or service work
6. Intermediate clerical, sales or service work
7. Intermediate plant operator / transport work
8. Elementary clerical, sales or service work
9. Labourer or related work
10. Not in paid work
11. Other (Specify)
12. (Don't know / Can't say)
13. (Refused)

*(ALL)
DEM14 EXCLUDING mobile phone numbers, dedicated faxes, modems or business phone numbers, how many phone numbers do you have in your household? (NOTE: Only include mobile phones if they are connected to the household telephone number.)
1. Number of lines given (Specify) RECORD WHOLE NUMBER (ALLOWABLE RANGE 1 TO 10)
2. Refused (PROGRAMMER NOTE: RECORD IN DATA AS 888)
3. Don't know/ Not stated (PROGRAMMER NOTE: RECORD IN DATA AS 999)

DEM16 (Just to confirm) including you, how many people aged 18 years and over live in this household?
1. Number given (Specify) RECORD WHOLE NUMBER (ALLOWABLE RANGE 1 TO 20)
2. Don't know (PROGRAMMER NOTE: RECORD IN DATA AS 999)
3. Refused (PROGRAMMER NOTE: RECORD IN DATA AS 888)

*(PROGRAMMER NOTE IF DEM7=7 (SHARED HOUSEHOLD) SAY "your total income" FOR ALL OTHERS SAY "your household's total income".)

DEM17 And just one question about income. Which of the following best describes (your / your household's) total approximate annual income, from all sources, before tax or anything else is taken out?
(READ OUT) (IF QUERIED ON REASON FOR THIS QUESTION, REPLY 'We are interested in how income relates to peoples' attitudes to violence.)
1. Less $20,000
2. $20,000 – less than $40,000
3. $40,000 – less than $80,000
4. $80,000 – less than $120,000, or
5. $120,000 or over
6. (Don't know)
7. (Refused)

DEM18 And finally, could I just confirm your postcode please?
DISPLAY POSTCODE FROM SAMPLE WHERE AVAILABLE
1. Postcode from sample correct
2. (Specify postcode) (ALLOWABLE RANGE 2000 TO 3999 and 8000 to 8999)
3. Don't know postcode (Specify suburb, town or locality)
4. Can't say / refused

CLOSE That's the end of the survey. I would like to thank you very much on behalf of VicHealth and the Social Research Centre for your co-operation in this survey.

Appendix C – Scale items and scale reliabilities

Gender equality scale (adapted from Inglehart & Norris 2003)

(1 strongly agree to 5 strongly disagree)

1. On the whole, men make better political leaders than women.
2. When jobs are scarce men should have more right to a job than women.
3. A university education is more important for a boy than a girl.
4. A woman has to have children to be fulfilled.
5. It's OK for a woman to have a child as a single parent and not want a stable relationship with a man (reverse scored).

Cronbach's alpha = 0.69 (similar to that found by Inglehart & Norris 2003).

A gender equality score was calculated for each respondent from ATT4 based on the following:

	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5
Strongly Agree	1	1	1	1	5
Agree	2	2	2	2	4
Neither	3	3	3	3	3
Disagree	4	4	4	4	2
Strongly Disagree	5	5	5	5	1

The sum of each statement was calculated to give each respondent a score out of 25. The score was then multiplied by 4 to provide a gender equality score for each respondent out of 100.

Valid responses for all 5 statements making up the scale were provided by 1,863 respondents in the main sample and 682 respondents in the SCALD sample:

- 123 respondents in the main sample and 96 respondents in the SCALD sample provided a 'don't know' or 'refused' response to 1 of the items comprising the scale. In these cases the score across the 4 valid items was multiplied by a factor of 5 in order to provide an equivalent 100 points score

- 13 responses in the main sample and 16 respondents in the SCALD sample had "refused" or "don't know" responses on two items. For these cases their valid ratings were multiplied by 6.67 to provide a 100 point equivalent, and

- 1 respondent in the main sample and 5 respondents in the SCALD sample had a "refused" or "don't know" response on three items on the scale. In these instances the valid scores were multiplied by a factor of 10 to derive a 100 point equivalent score.

The Inglehart & Norris (2003) study which used this scale found that the mean gender equality rating in post-industrial nations was around 80. For the CATVAWS the mean score was around 83. Taking this into account, the gender equality scale was divided into three categories: Low < 75; Medium 75 to 90; High >90. For purposes of logistic regression analysis, this scale was dichotomised into low (low or medium) or high (high).

Physical violence against current partner justification scale

(1 strongly agree to 5 strongly disagree)

Do you agree or disagree that a man would be justified in using physical force against his wife or partner if she…
1. Argues with or refuses to obey him.
2. Wastes money.
3. Doesn't keep up with the domestic chores.
4. Keeps nagging him.
5. Refuses to have sex with him.
6. Admits to having sex with another man.
7. Doesn't keep the children well behaved.
8. Socialises too much with her friends.
9. Puts her own career ahead of the family.

All 9 items loaded onto one factor, accounting for 54 percent of the variance. All items loaded at .67 or higher. Cronbach's alpha = 0.89.

Physical violence against ex-partner justification scale

(1 strongly agree to 5 strongly disagree)

Do you agree or disagree that a man would be justified in using physical force against his ex-partner…
1. If she refuses to the return to the relationship.
2. In order to get access to his children.
3. If she tries to turn the children against him.
4. If he thinks she is unreasonable about property settlement and financial issues.
5. If she commences a new relationship.

All 5 items loaded onto one factor, accounting for 59 percent of the variance. All items loaded at .70 or higher. Cronbach's alpha = 0.82.

Socio Economic Status

Socio-economic status is an umbrella term which, in this report, refers to occupational status, employment and education.

Occupational status

The occupational status variable created for this study is not perfect but nonetheless provides a useful summary sub-component of socio-economic status. It was derived as follows:

Upper White	Managers and Administrators Professionals Associate Professionals
Lower white	Advanced Clerical and Service Workers Intermediate Clerical and Service Workers Elementary Clerical and Service Workers
Upper Blue	Tradespersons and Related Workers
Lower Blue	Intermediate Production and Transport Workers Labourers and Related Workers
Employed NFI	Employed NFI
Not in paid work	

For the purposes of analysis in this report, this variable was further categorised into white collar (upper white or lower white) versus non-white collar (everything else).

Employment

The employment variable was dichotomised for logistic regression purposes into "employed" vs "not employed" and categorised according to the following:

Employed	Employed
Not employed	Unemployed Engaged in home duties Student Retired Unable to work Other

Education

The education variable was dichotomised for logistic regression purposes into "up to year 12 or trade/apprenticeship" vs "higher qualification"

Up to Year 12 or Trade/ apprenticeship	Primary school Year 10 or below Year 11 Year 12 Trade/Apprenticeship qualification
Higher level of education than Year 12 or Trade/ apprenticeship	Other TAFE/technical qualification Certificate or Diploma Degree or graduate diploma Post graduate qualification

Measure of remoteness

The Australian Standard Geographical Classification was used to provide a measure of "remoteness" of respondents. This classification places postcodes into five categories of remoteness - Major cities, Inner regional, Outer regional, Remote and Very remote. There were no respondents in either the main or SCALD samples with postcodes in either the "remote" or "very remote" categories - there is only a very small area in Victoria classified as remote. In the survey, then, this variable was dichotomised into either "regional" (comprising inner and outer regional) or "city".

Appendix D – Testing statistical differences between the 1995 and 2006 surveys

As the AIC did not have access to the raw data set for the 1995 OSW survey, statistical inference testing between responses to the 1995 and 2006 surveys was limited to using the 'z-test for comparing two independent proportions'. Percentages tested were taken directly from the findings reported in the detailed report of the 1995 survey findings (OSW 1995).

Z-test for comparing two independent proportions

Example: Do the proportions of respondents within two independent surveys who responded "yes" to a particular question differ at p<.01?

Survey	N	Frequency (n)	Proportion "yes"
Survey 1	261	127	0.487
Survey 2	160	65	0.400

Pooled proportions

p(hat) = (frequency1 + frequency2) / (n1 + n2)

q(hat) = 1 – p(hat)

Standard error for pooled proportions

Sp = SQRT [p(hat) x q(hat) x (1/n1 + 1/n2)]

z-test

z = (p(hat)1 – p(hat)2) / Sp

Question: do the two independent proportions answering "yes" differ between the samples at p<.01?

HO: p1=p2   H1: p1 not equal to p2

Using a two tailed test at α=0.01, the critical value of z = +/- 2.58

p(hat) = (127+65) / (261+160) = 192/421 = 0.456

q(hat) = 1 – p(hat) = 1 – 0.456 = .544

Sp = SQRT [0.456 x 0.544 x (1/261 + 1/160)] = 0.05

z = (0.487 – 0.400) / 0.05 = 0.087/0.5 = 1.74

Decision: Differences in proportions between those responding "yes" between the two independent samples are not significant at p<.01