**Gender and Family Violence Toolkit**

**Additional Documentation**

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**Annex A: Material from Human Rights Toolkit: Quick reference guide for cases involving women, girls and family/sexual violence**

Please note the following sections 7.1 to 7.5 and annex 8 have been taken directly from the Human Rights Toolkit (2017): [**http://www.fedcourt.gov.au/pjsi/resources/toolkits**](http://www.fedcourt.gov.au/pjsi/resources/toolkits)

**7.1 International Standards: Convention for the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW)**

All countries in the Pacific region (except for Tonga and Palau), have ratified CEDAW, which provides a framework for countries to address gender inequality, and discrimination against women. These haveemerged as big issues that Pacific societies are grappling with.

### 7.1.1 Key International Standards Involving Discrimination (including violence) Against Women

**Key Provisions of CEDAW**

Article 2 condemns discrimination against women in all forms (political, economic, social, cultural, civil or any other field) and require States to:

* Introduce new laws to protect women from discrimination (Art 2(b));
* Change existing laws that discriminate against women (Art 2(f)(g));
* Ensure legal protection from discrimination for women in court decisions (Art 2c);
* Ensure equality before the law (Art 15);
* Ensure public institutions (including courts) do not discriminate against women (Art 2(d));
* Change social and cultural patterns to address customary and other practices based on sex discrimination or gender stereotypes (Art 5(a)); and,
* Provide equality in education (Art 10), health (Art 12), employment (Art. 11), participation in public life (Art 7), nationality (Art 9), marriage, divorce, family relations, right to custody of children, to own marital property (all in Art. 16).

While CEDAW does not explicitly mention violence against women and girls, General Recommendation 19 clarifies that violence against women is a form of discrimination against women and is therefore covered by the Convention sections that ban discrimination against women. ‘Violence’ includes different forms such as physical, mental, economic or sexual violence as well as threats, or other ways of controlling the lives of others.

**Declaration on the Elimination of Violence Against Women (1993)**

* As with any Declaration, it is not legally binding or enforceable, but does set out national and international standards and a plan of action for combating violence against women; and
* Provides definition of ‘violence against women’: 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.

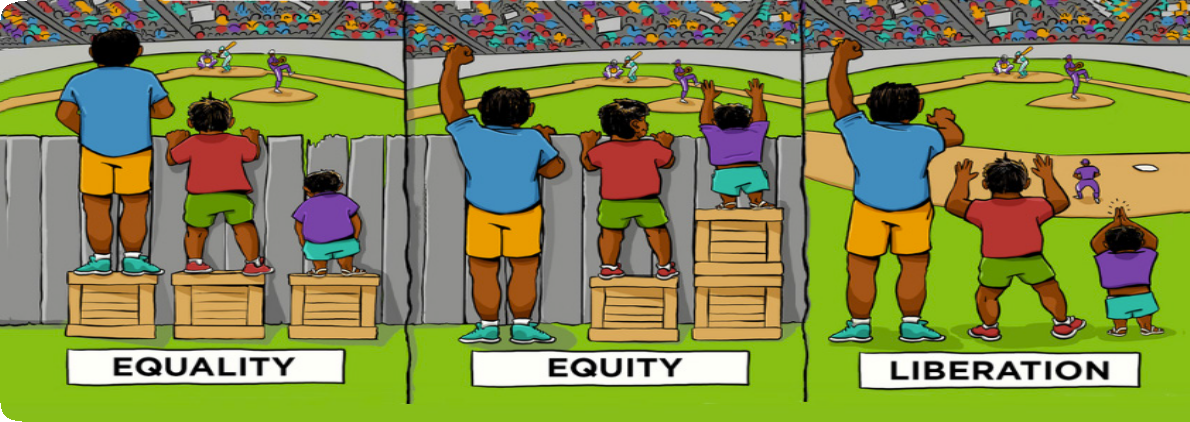
**The World Conference on Human Rights (1993)**

* Recognised violence against women as a human rights violation; and
* Called for the appointment of a Special Rapporteur on violence against women to follow up and monitor women’s rights.

**The Beijing Platform for Action (1995)**

* Identified specific actions Governments must take to prevent and respond to violence against women and girls;
* Identified ending violence as one of twelve key areas for priority action; and
* Used an expanded definition of forms of violence.

**7.2 Regional Standards**



### 7.1.2 Formal vs Substantive Equality

**‘Formal equality’:** Means everyone should be treated the same, whatever their circumstances. As shown in the left hand picture, formal equality, (as found in many Pacific constitutions), will not always achieve fair (equitable) outcomes.

**‘Substantive equality’ = Equity:** Takes into account that not everyone starts at the same level and that some groups may need extra help to access rights and opportunities on the same footing as others.

**‘Liberation’**: The third picture shows how the removal of systemic barriers (such as to access justice) helps everyone enjoy their rights and have the same opportunities.

While there are no binding regional standards, there has been regional attention paid to gender equality and women’s rights.

**7.3 Domestic Standards**

Awareness of the problem of violence against women has increased since national studies showed that some Pacific societies have amongst the highest rates of violence against women in the world. Many Pacific nations have responded with:

### 7.3.1 New Laws

Between 2009 and 2015, nine Pacific countries passed family protection and domestic violence legislation aimed at better protecting women and children from family violence. Many of these have been based on standards established in CEDAW and other international instruments. **[[1]](#footnote-1)**

### 7.3.2 Community-Based Campaigns

Aimed at changing deeply-held values that support attitudes of acceptance and normalisation of violence against women and other family members. These campaign approaches recognise that preventing violence requires coordinated efforts at all levels of society to change dominant community attitudes while also increasing women’s status in society.

### 7.3.3 Courts

Decisions of Pacific courts increasingly reflect and reinforce growing community rejection of violence against women and other family members by prioritising principles of equality and non-discrimination, including in cases where these conflict with cultural or customary practices. However, there are signs there is still some way to go. For example, a recent study by International Center for Advocates Against Discrimination (ICAAD)**[[2]](#footnote-2)** of sentencing decisions in sexual assault and domestic violence cases in seven Pacific countries found that judges continue to give heavy mitigating weight to gender stereotypes, cultural practices (such as customary reconciliation) and other ‘contentious factors’ to reduce the likelihood and length of custodial sentences in sexual violence and domestic violence cases. This was despite legislation in some countries explicitly prohibiting judges from taking such factors into account. This study shows how values that undermine women’s right to equal protection of the law can also be ingrained in judicial thinking, suggesting that this might be an area where specific judicial training and guidance could be helpful.

**7.4 Step 1: Understanding the Barriers Faced by Victims and Court’s Roles to Address Them**

Many victims lack trust in the system or take a calculated view that the likely economic, social and cultural costs to them of making or continuing with a criminal complaint,

outweigh the potential benefits of stopping the violence or

their family member being held accountable for his violence.

Women and children subject to family violence typically face strong social, cultural and economic pressure to ‘live with’ or try to manage family violence on their own, despite the damage and harm it causes them and their families. When victims do seek help, it is often in desperate situations when the violence has been going on for some time and often already reached very high, even life-threatening levels. Therefore, the quality of response to victims’ that do come forward to report violence is very critical.

Family violence is a crime, but is also much more complicated than many other crimes because the people involved often have ongoing relationships of love and affection. Victims often also have relations of economic dependence on perpetrators and lower levels of social and cultural power than them. These factors can make many victims feel very conflicted when they finally seek help from the police. On one hand they know they need protection and that what has been done to them is wrong, but on the other, they may feel fear, shame (especially in cases of sexual violence), and torn about bringing a complaint against someone they may love and need. They also often face strong pressure from other family members, community or religious leaders to try to solve the problem privately and outside of the criminal justice system.

Given all these pressures, it is hardly surprising that many victims who seek protection from the police during a crisis later withdraw their complaints. This is not because victims are undecided or weak, but often because victims lack trust in the system. This is understandable given the variable experiences they can have in their interactions with different law enforcement/justice actors and the lack of reliability and limited range of ‘safety net’ services and supports for victims.

It is the job of all actors involved in family violence cases to help change this balance and help create a more victim-supportive approach: one that recognises and respects the autonomy and decisions of victims, at the same time as reliably helps them to overcome the barriers that victims usually face when they bring or are part of cases involving family violence.

Police, prosecutors and judges must themselves be wholly convinced of the criminal nature of family violence and the ‘rightness’ of victims bringing forward their complaints, if they are to provide effective support to victims and be persuasive ‘ambassadors’ for the justice system. If justice actors themselves think that family violence is excusable, understandable or should be tolerated by victims, (which they often may do, because they have also grown up in communities where these are dominant beliefs), then there is little chance victims will receive proper support and protection. So it is key that court actors support victims of family violence wholeheartedly and take as much pressure off victims as possible by demonstrating behaviours and attitudes supportive of victims.

Family violence cases require that all parts of the justice system work in a coordinated way together: police, prosecution, public solicitor/legal aid providers, courts and corrections. The responses of these bodies must also be closely coordinated with health services, shelters, and social services (both government and non-government), to provide support to victims at all stages of the process. It is crucial that the process also provides appropriate and effective opportunities and encouragement for perpetrators (usually men) to learn how to change their behaviour so that violence in the family does not continue. In addition to assisting in individual cases, courts also have an important role to play in prevention of family violence, by conducting outreach and conveying clear messages to communities that violence within families is no longer acceptable and will be dealt with firmly by the courts.

**7.5 Measures to Make Court Processes Fairer to Women and Child Victims of Family Violence**

Many Pacific countries have already introduced family protection laws that include specialised services and coordinate the roles and responsibilities of relevant actors. Notwithstanding any specific laws, use these suggestions below to start planning actions to make your court more responsive to the needs of women and child victims of family violence (See Gender and Family Violence Toolkit 2017 for more guidance).

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| 7.5.1 Prior to Court Trial Processes |
| Ensure protection orders are readily available 24 hours by telephone through having an on-call judge available at all times. |
| Where suspects are not detained, consider use of orders that suspects must reside away from the family home until the case is determined, rather than victims and children having to leave their home and support network. |
| Work with police to develop SOPs for protocols to respond to complaints of family violence including:   * Ensuring that female police also attend crime scenes to take statements from female victims, witnesses and children; * All police are adequately trained in preserving crime scene evidence; * SOPS/training have been provided to all police on conducting family violence risk assessments and clear guidance is provided on pro-arrest and detention policies regarding family violence suspects, and prohibiting police from informally resolving complaints of family violence; and * All victims to receive independent legal advice and support at police stations during initial processing of a complaint and compulsory independent advice/counselling before withdrawing a complaint. |
| Work with police to prepare a list of advocates able to attend police stations/prosecution offices at short notice to provide advice and support to victims and separate legal representatives for suspects. |
| Work with prosecution services to ensure SOPs are in place that:   * Provide clear guidance on exercise of prosecutorial discretion not to lay charges; * Prohibit informal resolution of family/sexual violence complaints; * Provide time frames within which investigations must be finalised and indictments filed and take all possible steps to reduce delay (e.g. carefully assess whether there is a need for forensic evidence, especially where it will take a long time to procure); * Ensure adequate interim protection orders are in place for victims and witnesses and that they are enforced including orders for payments of maintenance to victims (from joint assets if necessary); * Provide guidance on laying appropriate charges in cases of family/sexual violence; * Allocate women prosecutors (wherever possible) to take statements from victims of family/sexual violence; * Provide guidance on collecting evidence for cases of criminal damages (in legal systems where this is also the responsibility of the prosecutor and dealt with concurrently with criminal charges) and material needed for victim impact statements for sentencing hearings; and * Keep victims regularly updated on all case developments and consult them on issues of dropping or reducing charges, and sentencing sought. |
| Judges to ensure interim victim protection orders and witness protection measures are adequate, in place and oversee their enforcement where necessary. |
| 7.5.2 During Trial Process |
| Use accelerated case management to make sure cases involving family violence are prioritised and heard quickly. Set and enforce standards in SOPs for how quickly they must be heard and finally dealt with. |
| Ensure court staff confirm in advance the attendance of all those needed for the case to proceed (to avoid adjournments). |
| Only grant adjournments if they are strictly necessary and take other measures to reduce delay (e.g. if suspect does not appear, issue warrants for their arrest and direct they be presented to the court). Demand high standards of professionalism from prosecutors and defence lawyers. I.e. do not readily grant adjournments if prosecutors or defence lawyers are poorly prepared or organised. Make complaints of unprofessional conduct to professional bodies if necessary. |
| Ensure sufficient security is in place and that no weapons are brought into the court house. |
| Wherever possible, ensure courts have separate entrances for victims of family violence and always have separate waiting areas for victims and prosecution witnesses. |
| Provide child-care, child-friendly space, private place for breast feeding for court parties. |
| Ensure court reimburses victim/prosecution witness transportation costs and provides food during waiting periods and secure accommodation where victims/witnesses are not local and hearings last several days. |
| Provide necessary supports to victims/witnesses/suspects suffering from any disabilities (see section below). |
| Provide training to judges hearing family violence cases including how to use CEDAW/CRoC/ constitutional rights of women and children and any special laws that apply to family violence cases. Also provide training on how judges can support the participation of victims, (including children), in court processes, such as by adopting a more informal manner, providing clear non-judgmental explanations, being sensitive to any fear or trauma of victims by providing encouragement, regular breaks etc. and allowing victims’ representatives/support persons to make submissions if they wish. |
| Consider ordering that court proceedings, especially those involving sexual violence and children, be held in closed court and that the victims and witnesses’ names be suppressed. |
| Ensure that suspects are offered legal representation (to ensure fair trial) but also to discourage suspects from directly cross-examining victims. If the suspect insists on their right to represent themselves, strictly exclude any improper, gender-biased or intimidating lines of questioning directed at victims or prosecution witnesses. |
| Consider ordering the removal from the court room of any person, (including the suspect if necessary), who fails to observe warnings regarding their conduct, intimidates or threatens the victim or any witnesses, or otherwise obstructs the hearing. |
| Consider creating a more informal setting for child victims to give their evidence, including the option of giving pre-recorded evidence or giving evidence in the court room but not in direct view of the suspect. |
| Consider giving the opportunity for the prosecution to present a victim impact statement in any sentencing hearing. |
| Consider developing and implementing sentencing guidelines for cases of sexual and family violence to ensure sentencing decisions consistently reflect the seriousness of crimes, including aggravating factors (i.e. abuse of trust or power, child victims, victims with disabilities etc.) and do not give weight to inappropriate mitigation factors including gender stereotypes and customary/cultural factors such as reconciliation. |
| 7.5.3 After Sentencing Processes |
| Work with the police and prosecution to ensure complete data sets are collected on all family/sexual violence cases including: charges laid, age/gender of victim and suspect, relationship between victim and suspect, interim measures ordered to protect victim or witness, legal representation of victim and suspect, final verdict, sentence (including aggravating or mitigation factors taken into account), any parole/early release granted, any repeated offending noted.  **A.8 Effect of Ratification in Domestic Law**  State constitutions usually clarify whether ratification of a treaty has the effect of automatically incorporating its articles into the country’s domestic legal system (as in ‘monist’ states), or whether domestic legislation is first required before effect can be given to the articles of the treaty (as in ‘dualist’ states).  All PICs that participate in the PJSI (except for the Marshall Islands) are based on British-style legal systems, which are generally dualist. This means that before the terms of a treaty can be directly applied by courts, they must first be supported by domestic legislation to give them domestic legal effect.  However, the absence of domestic legislation does not mean that courts can simply ignore ratified treaties. Rather, often constitutions require or explicitly allow for the content of treaties to be considered, such as is provided for in the Constitutions of Fiji, Tuvalu, and Papua New Guinea. Yet even if the country has not ratified the convention and there is no explicit constitutional provision, it is still possible for courts to consider human rights treaties, at least to resolve ambiguity or fill a gap in interpreting domestic law. Alternatively, common law precedent or customary international law may require the court to consider or give effect to the standard articulated in the treaty. |

**Annex B: Quick Reference Guide for Cases Involving Children**

**6.1 International Standards: Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRoC)**

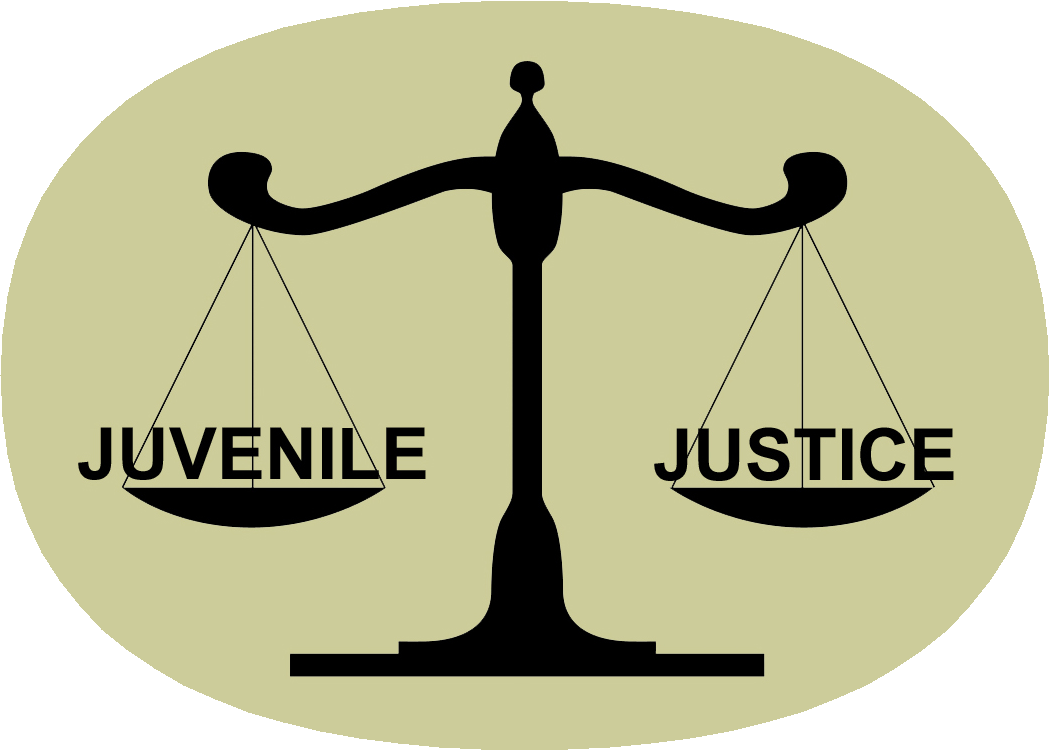
All Pacific countries have ratified the CRoC, which contains key principles and standards for dealing with all kinds of cases involving children. Some of the most important ones are:

**A ‘child’** is defined as any person **under the age of 18 years** (Article 1 CroC).

**In all actions concerning children**, whether undertaken by public or private social welfare institutions, **courts of law**, administrative authorities or legislative bodies, **the best interests of the child shall be a primary consideration** (Article 3 CRoC).

What is in the ‘best interests’ of any given child will vary according to the child’s individual situation, including their cultural background. It will also require consideration of who is taking the action, on what basis, for whose benefit and how it affects children generally or particular groups of children. What does not vary across cultures is the requirement that the child’s best interests should be **a primary consideration**, in other words, the child’s interests must be elevated above the ‘rights’ or interests of others, who may include the child’s parents, community, the state, or others.

**‘Right of child to be consulted’:** This principle requires that in any kind of case affecting a child, the views of the child have to be sought and taken into consideration, according to their age and maturity (Article 12 (1)(2) CRoC).



**Other important justice standards for children:**

* The United Nations Standard Minimum Rules for the Administration of Juvenile Justice 1985 (*‘The Beijing Rules’*);
* The United Nations Guidelines for the Prevention of Juvenile Delinquency (*‘The Riyadh Guidelines’*) and;
* The United Nations Rules for the Protection of Juveniles Deprived of their Liberty or *‘The JDLs’*, 1990; and

See also Family Violence & Youth Justice Project Toolkit 2014.

**6.2 Why we need different to have different justice standards for children?**

Everyone knows from their own experience that children differ from adults in their physical and psychological development and in their emotional and educational needs. Advances in neuroscience also show that the parts of the brain responsible for decision-making and impulse control are still developing during a person's teens, even later in boys, which affects their capacities to understand consequences and to exercise judgement.

For these reasons, all legal systems should be based on the idea that children beneath a certain age should not be charged or prosecuted in criminal justice systems. This is known as the ‘age of criminal responsibility’ and is usually found in each country’s penal code.

The CRoC Committee recommends that the ‘age of criminal responsibility’ be set for between 14-16 years old. The global average age of criminal responsibility is 12 and this is considered the minimum acceptable to the UN Committee on the Rights of the Child. Many countries, including in the Pacific, do not currently meet this standard.

**Age of Criminal Responsibility**

* Solomon Islands: 8 years
* Papua New Guinea: 7 years
* Tonga: 7 years
* Kiribati: 10 years
* Fiji: 10 years
* Most Pacific countries also require evidence a child aged between

10-14 years was ‘capable of knowing they did wrong’.

Even when children are over the age of criminal responsibility, most Pacific countries have additional requirements that must be met before children aged 10-14 years can be charged and prosecuted. They also often have special sentencing rules to reflect the lower responsibility for crimes by children and try to avoid or minimise imprisonment to give the child the best opportunities for rehabilitation and getting ‘back on track’.

These standards also apply to older adolescents in the 15-17 age group, who are the children most frequently in trouble with the law. International standard say that **all children under 18 years old should only be detained or imprisoned as an absolute ‘last resort’.** If they are imprisoned, it must be for the shortest length of time possible and in facilities separated from adults and that cater to their physical, educational and other special needs as children (CRoC Article 37(b)).

**6.3 Checklist for Judges in Deciding What Law to Apply in Criminal Cases involving Children**

* Know the exact age of the child at the time of the alleged offence, based on birth certificate or other documents where possible. If none are available, determine age based on statements of parents, other relatives and the child;
* Based on the law, decide if the child can be legally charged or prosecuted: that is, you must be satisfied the child is above the criminal age of responsibility and (typically) if aged between 10-14, make a finding as to whether the particular child is capable of knowing they did wrong;
* Find out if there is a special system of justice for children in your country. If yes, then apply those standards consistently with the CRoC, and Constitutional standards; and
* If no, then strictly apply minimum CRoC standards (see 6.4). Also apply any special Constitutional or other laws. Finally, modify the process as much as you can to make it child-friendly (see 6.5).

**6.4 Minimum Standards for Criminal Cases Involving Children**

Some Pacific countries already have specialist criminal justice processes for children, as recommended by the CRoC. These typically involve having judges with special training, different criminal justice procedures and laws and different penalties with a greater focus on rehabilitation and reintegration of children in the community.

Whether a specialised child justice system exists or not, all courts need to work in close coordination with other key actors across the justice chain in dealing with cases involving children. These include the police, the prosecution, the public solicitor/other legal aid service, government social services/child welfare authorities, correctional services, as well as probation officers, youth support workers, community and religious leaders, parents, teachers and other important adults in children’s lives.

**Whether or not specialist justice streams exist for children in your country, these are the minimum standards that all courts should always apply in cases involving children.**

**Arrest:**

* Both the child and parents or guardian must be informed of charge as soon as possible (CRoC Article 40(2)(b)(ii));
* A child should not be questioned/investigated without a parent/guardian or lawyer being present during the interview (CRoC Article 40(2)(b)(ii)); and
* Police and prosecutors should try to divert children from criminal prosecution where possible (CRoC Article 40(3)(b)).

**Detention:**

* Only to be used for any child under age of 18 as an absolute last resort and for the shortest period possible (CRoC Article 37(b));
* All children under 18 years must always be held in separate facilities from adults and be able to maintain contact with their family and be given access to age-appropriate health, recreational, educational and other relevant facilities (CRoC Article 37(c));
* All children in detention should have access to legal assistance to challenge their detention and be brought before a court as soon as possible (CRoC Article (37(d)); and
* Children must never be mistreated, forced to confess, tortured or treated in a cruel or degrading way (CRoC Article 37(a)).

**During Trial:**

* Courts should actively take steps to assist children and reduce any stigma children may face due to any aspect of having a case in court;
* All children should have access to legal advice and representation in any kind of case. (CRoC Article 40(2)(b)(ii) & (iii));
* The privacy of children must be specially protected (CRoC Article 40(2)(b)(vii)). Cases involving children should be held in closed court. Court listings, judgments, other public records should not identify children by name (See also Rules 8 and 21 of *the Beijing Rules*); and
* Ensure children fully receive all their ‘fair trial’ rights such as: to be treated as innocent unless proven guilty (CRoC Article 40(2)(b)(i)); to have a fair hearing before a competent, independent and impartial judge (CRoC Article 40(2)(b)(iii)); to have legal representation, to examine witnesses (CRoC Article 40(2)(b)(iv)); and to appeal the verdict or the sentence (CRoC Article 40(2)(b)(v)).

**Sentencing:**

* Sentences must take into account the child's age and aim at promoting social reintegration and the child’s constructive role in society.’ (CRoC Article 40(1));
* Imprisonment must be used ‘only as a measure of last resort and for the shortest appropriate period of time’. (CROC Article 37(b)). Alternatives to imprisonment should be provided (CRoC Article 40(3)(b)) examples include providing probation, supervision orders, educational/vocational programs;
* No death penalty or life imprisonment without the possibility of release for anyone under the age of 18 at the time of the offence (CRoC Article 37(a);
* Right to appeal sentence (CRoC Article 40 (2)(b)(v));
* As with detention, imprisonment of children must be separate from adults and be able to maintain contact with their family (CRoC Article 37(c)); and
* Criminal records should be cleared when a child turns 18.

**6.5 Measures to Make Court Processes Fairer to Children**

Below are some measures judges and court staff should take to make justice processes more responsive to the needs of children (under 18 years old) who are ‘in trouble’ with the law. Use these as a guide for completing your own assessment of how ‘child-responsive’ your court is.

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| **6.5.1 Pre-court Processes** |
| Ensure an on-call judge is readily available 24/7 hours by telephone to hear applications regarding whether a child can be detained or not.  Work with the police/prosecution to develop a set of Standard Operating Procedures (SOPs) that cover:   * The investigation of alleged offences by youth/children (under age 18) including the need for a lawyer and parent/guardian to be present during any questioning; * Instructions to avoid detaining children, except as a last resort; * Where detention is used as a last resort, instructions that the child be brought before a judge within a strict and short time limit. If this is not done, (for whatever reason), instructions that the child must be immediately released; * Guidance for diverting cases involving children from the criminal justice system including (at minimum) the options of: on the spot warning; caution; mediation; community conferences; and * Adopt a different colour court file to alert anyone dealing with the case to the fact that it concerns a child and that child standards must be applied to all aspects of handling the case**.** |
| Work with The Public Solicitor to develop a roster of lawyers who can be contacted by the police both during and out of working hours to assist youth/child suspects being interviewed or investigated by the police. |
| Work with the prosecutor to develop a SOP for cases involving children, including ensuring every charge sheet includes a clear statement highlighting that the charges relate to a youth/child, and providing their date of birth. |
| **6.5.2 In Court Processes** |
| Allocate separate court hearing days to deal with cases involving children more efficiently, discreetly and using a more informal layout for court room furniture. |
| Strict guidelines should be issued that judges can only order pre-trial detention (for any period) of a child for the most serious cases of violent crimes against the person and never for property offences. |
| Ensure any children being brought from prison to the court are transported separately from adults and held at the court separately from adults and special attention is given to them (to provide information, food/water, access to bathroom etc.). |
| Use a faster case management system that prioritizes cases involving children, especially those in detention.  Set and enforce strict standards for how quickly cases involving children must be heard and finally dealt with by the court. Especially for those in pre-trial detention, strict time limits should be applied which requires children to be released on bail.  Ensure court staff confirm in advance the attendance of all those needed for cases involving children to proceed (to avoid delays and adjournments). |
| Ensure court sittings for children are held in private court (closed and not open to the public) and that their name is not publicly displayed anywhere (e.g. in court listings) and is removed from any public court report or judgment. |
| Ensure that every child has a lawyer present at every hearing (They can be appointed by the Public Solicitors Office, another legal aid provider or appointed by the court.) |
| Ensure there is a group of judges in each court who have received special training for handling cases involving children, and make sure one of these judges is appointed to all cases involving children. |
| Provide judges the opportunity to receive training in 1. International standards relating to juvenile justice, constitutional standards and any special laws that apply to children and 2. how to engage with children, such as by adopting a more informal manner, providing explanations that are clear and age appropriate, encouraging the child’s participation in the court process and taking the child’s views into account in all the issues before the court. |
| Encourage judges to always consider referring relevant issues in child cases to a ‘Community Conference’ comprised of the child, his/her family, the victim, police, lawyer, conference convener and any other interested and relevant party (e.g. customary chiefs/pastor). Ensure that the court considers any recommendations made by the Community Conference in deciding any sentence. |
| Ensure judges are aware that sentences must take account of the child’s age and should focus on rehabilitation more than punishment. Prison should only be used in the most serious cases as a last resort and be for the shortest possible period in a facility separated from adults. Custodial sentence can always be supplemented with other community-based rehabilitation activities. |
| **6.5.3 After Appearance in Court** |
| Work with the correction authorities to oversee and ensure that:   * Children in custody (including while in pre-trial detention) are kept separate from adults and have age appropriate health, recreation and education facilities, access to their families etc.; and * Community-based alternatives to custodial sentences are supported and encouraged. |
| Work with the police/prosecution to ensure that (at minimum) the following data is collected: the child’s exact age at the time of the offence; gender; home island; whether diverted/charged; type of charge; outcome; reoffending rates. |
| Notwithstanding any other law, ensure that the details relating to a conviction of young offenders be cleaned from there record when they turn eighteen years old. |

**Annex C: Court Family Violence Self-Assessment Tool**

The Court Family Violence Self-Assessment Tool is designed to help you understand how well you aredoing in each of the “good practice” areas outlined in this toolkit, namely: prevention; victim focus (access, safety, fairness); perpetrator accountability; and, collaboration.

It uses a simple sliding scale (no, can improve, yes), which will help you determine where your strengths and weaknesses are. Simply tallying the number of no/can improve responses in each section will provide you with an insight into where there is greatest room for improvement. This information, combined with other sources of information such as access to justice assessments (if you haven’t done one it is recommended) and court data, should inform the decisions you make about strategies that will enable improvement. These strategies should be outlined in your Court Family Violence Plan (see Annex D).

It is recommended that the self-assessment tool be completed in the first instance by individuals and that a one day workshop be held to discuss the findings. The more individuals that complete the form, the more you will understand how well you are doing. It is important that people complete the questionnaire as honestly as possible, remembering that the aim of the exercise is to measurably improve the accessibility and responsiveness of your services to the victims of family violence.

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| **Focus Area 1: PREVENTION** | **No** | **Can Improve** | **Yes** |
| **Understanding family violence** |  |  |  |
| Have judicial officers received training on the cause and consequences of family violence? |  |  |  |
| Have court officers received training on the cause and consequences of family violence? |  |  |  |
| If training has been provided, did it actively challenge the attitudes, practices and behaviours that perpetuate family violence? |  |  |  |
| **Public engagement** |  |  |  |
| When engaging with the media, do judicial officers consistently send a message that family violence is against the law? |  |  |  |
| Does your court provide anonymised family violence judgments and sentencing decisions to the media to highlight the courts decisions on family violence? |  |  |  |
| Do judicial officers deliver public speeches condemning family violence? |  |  |  |
| Does your court do awareness raising about laws relating to family violence? |  |  |  |
| Does your court have printed materials about the laws relating to family violence? |  |  |  |

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| **Focus Area 2: VICTIM FOCUS** | **No** | **Can Improve** | **Yes** |
| **Access** |  |  |  |
| Have you undertaken an Access to Justice Assessment? |  |  |  |
| Do you have an understanding of the specific needs of different groups of court users (e.g. women, men, girls, boys, older people, disabled people, rural people, etc.)? |  |  |  |
| Does your court have a clear policy on court fee waivers for people experiencing financial hardship? |  |  |  |
| Does your court display/provide clear information on court fee waivers for people experiencing financial hardship? |  |  |  |
| Does your court record the types of cases that court fee waivers are granted for, including the gender of the applicant? |  |  |  |
| If your court administers protection orders, can applicants lodge an application orally (by phone or in person), rather than in writing? |  |  |  |
| Is there a fee for protection orders? |  |  |  |
| Are protection orders issued on the same day? |  |  |  |
| Does your court have a procedure to react quickly if a protection order is breached? |  |  |  |
| Does your court have an accelerated/prioritised hearing process for GFV cases? |  |  |  |
| Have you established protocols to ensure that courts are accessible during emergencies, humanitarian crisis, post disaster periods, pandemics and political upheavals? |  |  |  |
| **Safety – physical** |  |  |  |
| Does your courthouse have a private room that victims can go to in order to rest/relax? |  |  |  |
| Does your courthouse use guards for security? |  |  |  |
| Do you have a security screening process for all people that enter your courthouse? |  |  |  |
| Does your court record security incidents? |  |  |  |
| Does your court analyse security incident information so that similar incidents can be prevented? |  |  |  |
| Does your courthouse have facilities that enable victims to give evidence via video-link (so that they needn’t be confronted by the offender)? |  |  |  |
| Can your court put witness protection measures in place? |  |  |  |
| Can your court order the perpetrator to live outside the family home (so the victim can stay home) during the pre-trial and trial period? |  |  |  |
| **Safety – psychological** |  |  |  |
| Have your judicial officers been trained in client service (so that they know how to treat people respectfully)? |  |  |  |
| Have your court officers been trained in client service (so that they know how to treat people respectfully)? |  |  |  |
| Does your court provide information (verbally or in writing) to victims/offenders so that they understand the court process? |  |  |  |
| Does your courthouse have easy to read signs so that people understand where to go? |  |  |  |
| Does your court have closed hearings for protection orders? |  |  |  |
| **Fairness** |  |  |  |
| Does your court record sex disaggregated data on filing, finalisation and clearance rates for family violence cases? |  |  |  |
| Can your court state the average length of time to determine family violence cases? |  |  |  |
| Does your court review family violence case outcomes, with a view to analysing whether or not women are receiving fair outcomes? |  |  |  |
| Have judicial officers received training on bias/gender stereotypes and their impact on judicial reasoning? |  |  |  |

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Focus Area 3: PERPETRATOR ACCOUNTABILITY** | **No** | **Can Improve** | **Yes** |
| Does your court publish anonymised family violence judgments and sentencing decisions on PACLII? |  |  |  |
| Does your court record sex disaggregated data on victims and offenders in family violence cases? |  |  |  |
| Does your court record family violence case sentencing outcomes? |  |  |  |
| Are domestic violence offenders being sentenced? |  |  |  |
| Are offenders who breach protection orders being sentenced? |  |  |  |
| Does your court have sentencing guidelines for family violence cases, which prohibit the application of gender myths and stereotypes? |  |  |  |
| Does your court record recidivism statistics? |  |  |  |
| Have judicial officers received training on bias/gender stereotypes and their impact on judicial reasoning? |  |  |  |
| Have judicial officers received training on perpetrator manipulative behaviours and minimum standards for perpetrator rehabilitation? |  |  |  |
| Does your court review sentencing outcomes to ensure that family violence sentences are not too lenient? |  |  |  |

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| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Focus Area 4: COLLABORATION** | **No** | **Can Improve** | **Yes** |
| Does your court maintain an up to date contact list of key partners (justice, health, non-government organisations)? |  |  |  |
| Does your court have a clear referral process for court officers to use (e.g. where to direct clients for information/support)? |  |  |  |
| Does your court document referrals (frequency and to whom)? |  |  |  |
| Does your court record whether the women who access your court are assisted to do so (e.g. by a women’s support service or legal aid)? |  |  |  |
| Does your court have information sharing arrangements with key partners? |  |  |  |
| Do you meet regularly with key partners to ensure court users receive a coordinated service? |  |  |  |
| Where a woman is killed, is there a compulsory critical case review process in place whereby all relevant actors review what happened, what each agency did, and what more could have been done to prevent her death so that all actors across the justice chain can ‘learn lessons’? |  |  |  |

**Annex D: Court Family Violence Plan Template**

Drawing upon your Court Family Violence Self-Assessment and your Access to Justice Assessment, your Court Family Violence Plan provides a roadmap that will assist you to measurably improve the accessibility and responsiveness of your services to the victims of family violence. It is recommended that your plan span a maximum of three years and that progress be reviewed twice yearly.

It is good to start your plan with an introduction, which tells the reader why you are writing a plan and what you are hoping to achieve. The overarching goal of PJSI gender and family violence activities is to: measurably improve the accessibility and responsiveness of court services to the victims of family violence, resulting in improved victim satisfaction with court and justice outcomes. You may like to borrow this goal for your court’s family violence plan.

You can then step through a basic story about the specific outcomes you’d like see, how you will achieve them, who will be responsible for each action and within what time frame. You also need to outline how you will measure progress. While you don’t necessarily need to include it in your plan (but many organisations do), it is important to consider the resource (both money and people) requirements of your strategies so that they are realistic and achievable.

After a brief introduction, many organisations choose to display the rest of this information in table form. Below are some templates to help you start planning. A small number of suggested outcomes and actions are included but these are ideas only. You can borrow these ideas but it is important that your plan responds specifically to the needs you have identified and that it makes sense to you.

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Focus Area 1: PREVENTION** | | | |
| **Outcome 1: Increase court engagement in prevention activities** | | | |
| **Action: What?** | **Rationale: Why?** | **Responsibility & Resourcing: Who and how?** | **Progress indicators** |
| Example: Conduct a public awareness campaign on family violence via radio. | To educate the public about their rights (to live free from family violence) and the ways in which they can access help. | To be undertaken collaboratively with other government agencies and key civil society organisations.  Key court representative:  Technical assistance: | Campaign conducted  Could undertake a survey of attitudes/ knowledge of  rights prior to and following campaign |

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| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Focus Area 2: VICTIM FOCUS** | | | |
| **Outcome 1: Improved access to justice for the victims of family violence** | | | |
| **Action: What?** | **Rationale: Why?** | **Responsibility & Resourcing: Who and how?** | **Progress indicators** |
| Example: Establish a private room for victims to wait with their families before family violence court hearings. | Victims often feel afraid to wait with offenders before court. This would promote their psychological safety. | Key court representative:  Technical assistance: | Room utilised by women (and their families) prior to court. |

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| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Outcome 2: Improved safety for family violence victims using the courts** | | | |
| **Action: What?** | **Rationale: Why?** | **Responsibility & Resourcing: Who and how?** | **Progress indicators** |
| Example: Establish a private room for victims to wait with their families before family violence court hearings. | Victims often feel afraid to wait with offenders before court. This would promote their psychological safety. | Key court representative:  Technical assistance: | Room utilised by women (and their families) prior to court. |

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Outcome 3: Improved fairness for family violence victims using the courts** | | | |
| **Action: What?** | **Rationale: Why?** | **Responsibility & Resourcing: Who and how?** | **Progress indicators** |
| Example: Provide unconscious bias training for judges and magistrates. | We all have unconscious bias but it is important it doesn’t impact on judicial decision making. | Key court representative:  Technical assistance: | Number of judges and magistrates who have received unconscious bias training. |

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| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Focus Area 3: PERPETRATOR ACCOUNTABILITY** | | | |
| **Outcome 1: Less inappropriately lenient sentences for the perpetrators of family violence** | | | |
| **Action: What?** | **Rationale: Why?** | **Responsibility & Resourcing: Who and how?** | **Progress indicators** |
| Example: Sentencing guidelines for family violence cases to be developed. | Clear guidelines for sentencing will promote fairness, consistency and sentences that  reflect the gravity of crimes committed. | Key court representative:  Technical assistance: | Sentencing guidelines developed  Judges and magistrates utilising sentencing guidelines and  report finding them useful (determined by a follow up questionnaire) |

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Focus Area 4: COLLABORATION** | | | |
| **Outcome 1: Ensure that basic administrative processes/information facilitate collaboration** | | | |
| **Action: What?** | **Rationale: Why?** | **Responsibility & Resourcing: Who and how?** | **Progress indicators** |
| Example: Update contact lists for key partner agency and non-government service providers. | Good service provision requires collaboration. | Key court representative:  Technical assistance: | List updated |

**Annex E: Material from Access to Justice Toolkit: Stakeholder Focus Group Discussions and Access to Justice Surveys**

Please note the following sections 3 to 4 have been taken directly from the Access to Justice Assessment Toolkit (2014): [**https://www.fedcourt.gov.au/pjsi/resources/toolkits/access-to-justice/Access-To-Justice-Toolkit-v2.pdf**](https://www.fedcourt.gov.au/pjsi/resources/toolkits/access-to-justice/Access-To-Justice-Toolkit-v2.pdf)

**3 Stakeholder Focus Group Discussions**

Many courts in the Pacific have not yet been involved in any form of Access to Justice Assessment. An appropriate starting point in this instance is to conduct a range of stakeholder focus group discussions with representatives of different interest groups. This will enable courts to commence engagement on the issue and determine the need for on-going or additional assistance.

This section outlines how to plan, implement and use information gathered from these focus group discussions.

**3.1 What are Stakeholder Focus Group Discussions?**

*“A focus group brings together individuals sharing certain key characteristics to discuss a particular topic. A moderator asks the group a set of questions in a conversational manner that allows them to respond to, and elaborate on, the comments of others. This can result in a deeper, more thoughtful discussion than an interview, as the comments of research participants trigger thoughts and ideas among others.”*[[3]](#footnote-3)

Stakeholder Focus Group Discussions are meetings (ideally held on a routine basis) with people who represent the views of different groups within the community, including vulnerable groups. The meetings are semi-structured. That is they aim to receive feedback on a range of pre-determined issues but also allow enough flexibility to enable participants to raise other issues.

Feedback should be used by the courts to inform planning processes. This can include identifying priority areas that require attention and developing concrete plans to address those areas.

Stakeholder Focus Group Discussions should be undertaken periodically, for example either every year or in the lead up to preparation of strategic plans. This form of dialogue can be used to discuss progress and build public confidence in courts and justice institutions more broadly. If undertaken periodically, these discussions can also inform the annual reporting processes of courts.

It is important to note that the objective of these discussions is to focus on policy issues and not on the results of individual cases.

**3.2 Objective of Stakeholder Focus Group Discussions**

It is important for courts to obtain feedback periodically from representatives of the community they represent. This feedback should cover both the quality of services they are providing and whether or not there are areas that should be addressed by courts that are currently not being addressed. That is to say, are there people who face challenges accessing justice?

Focus Group Discussions will assist courts in their planning processes and in determining how to best use their resources. It does this by ensuring community input into these processes, helping to target allocation of resources with identified needs.

**3.3 How to Identify Issues for Discussion?**

Section 2 identified the range of issues that courts could potentially examine in Access to Justice Assessments. It is important that assessments remain focused and prioritise some of these issues. Priorities will vary from country to country. A key first step involves deciding on what issues should become the focus of the assessments.

Courts should seek to limit the number of issues to a maximum of five specific areas of priority.

There are a number of sources of information courts can use to determine what issues to focus on:

* **Internal Consultations:** This can include discussions with judges and registrars. Reviewing annual reports or trends in cases being filed or pending in court should also assist in determining priorities. Although this is a starting point, priorities identified by courts should be cross-checked with other sources;
* **Informal external consultations:** court staff should seek the views of external observers to either confirm priorities identified by courts or provide alternative priorities. This can include other justice sector agencies, civil society organisations or off the record discussions with journalists.
* **Secondary sources:** a range of secondary sources can also be used to cross-check identified priorities. These can include reports from local organisations like human rights commissions or ombudsman. Other examples include the US State Department annual country assessments or reports from development agencies (e.g.: UNDP, UNIFEM) or organisations such as Human Rights Watch.

The box below provides an example of how this was done in Tuvalu.

**Using initial interviews to define topics to include in an Assessment**

The Access to Justice Assessment in Tuvalu started with a series of meetings with stakeholders with an interest in the justice sector. The following categories of people were interviewed:

1. **Justice Sector Agencies**: courts, People’s Lawyer, Attorney General’s office, private solicitors;
2. **Government:** police, local government representatives, members of parliament and Ministry of Home Affairs; and
3. **Civil Society**: umbrella organisation of NGOs, Tuvalu Family Health Association.

These interviews were used to identify the key topics included in the assessment. Based on discussions with these partners a Focus Group Discussion guide was drafted that included sections on: legal knowledge and access to information; access to legal services (in particular court services); and social order and family law issues.

**3.4 Identifying Appropriate Stakeholders**

The stakeholders to invite for discussions will vary from country to country and will depend also on the priority issues identified. The courts should identify between three-five different categories of stakeholders and hold separate focus group discussions for each category of stakeholder.

Potential stakeholders will include the following:

* Representatives from women’s interests;
* Representatives from youth interests;
* Customary leaders and/or lay officers from local level courts;
* Religious leaders;
* Representatives from different minority ethnic or religious groups;
* Representatives from rural or remote communities;
* Members of civil society organisations with an interest in justice issues; and
* Representatives from other vulnerable groups such as intellectual or physical disabilities, HIV/AIDS positive or vulnerable employee groups.

For the reasons discussed in the box above, when a particular target group is identified, it is important to speak to actual members of that group and not only people who represent the group.

**Are Representatives really ‘Representative’?**

In selecting the interest groups you wish to target it is important to be clear about the type of people you wish to receive information from. Sometimes there will be a significant difference in information obtained between an organisation that represents particular groups and people that come directly from that group.

Two examples:

1. In Tuvalu, we wanted to ask youth about their experiences with the law. This was in particular because people had identified alcohol and related social order problems affecting youth as a significant issue. A discussion was organised with the Tuvalu National Youth Council. All the participants were well educated, to quote one of the participants, ‘law-abiding citizens’. They had limited personal experience with courts and as a result were not able to speak on behalf of youth who face difficulties with the law.
2. Asking the most marginalized members of a village about their access to legal services is very different to asking a village leader how people in his village access legal services. In some instances the main reason why people do not access legal services is because they are afraid of their village chief. You won’t find this out if you only speak to the village chief and assume they speak on behalf of everyone in the village.

**3.5 Who to Involve – Court Staff**

The Stakeholder Focus Group Discussion process will require human resource from judges and court staff at three levels:

1. **Leadership:** ownership and leadership from the most senior members of the judiciary is required. This includes commitment from the Chief Justice and other senior members of the management team. In most cases the Chief Justice or another senior judge, should open focus group discussions.
2. **Implementation:** the court will need to dedicate some staff resources to the stakeholder focus group discussion process. Courts can either facilitate focus group discussions themselves or identify a skilled facilitator. Both have advantages and disadvantages. A facilitator from the court will add increased legitimacy to the process. However, people may feel more comfortable speaking to a trained facilitator, especially if providing constructive criticism of the court. If court staff facilitate the discussions this should be done by senior members of the court registry staff. Irrespective, court registry staff will need to be involved in the design and preparation of the focus group discussions.
3. **Support:** judicial officers across all levels should be made aware of the process and the objectives of the focus group discussions. It is important to obtain their support for the discussions and also to reassure judicial officers that the purpose is to strengthen service delivery rather than assess the performance of particular judges.

Where possible, judicial officers should not conduct focus group discussions themselves. If judges are involved it will limit the amount of objective feedback from participants on quality of legal services. Participants might also become too focused on individual court cases rather than on broader policy issues. The best practice is for a judge to be present at the opening and introduce the discussion, then leave and allow the participants to continue the discussion with the facilitator.

**3.6 Preparing the Discussions and Drafting a Questionnaire**

The Stakeholder Focus Group Discussion process involves courts hosting three to five detailed discussions with representatives from different interest groups. There are two aspects to this: the substantive content and the logistical arrangements.

**3.6.1 Preparing the Substance**

Focus Group Discussions are semi-structured discussions. This means that the objective will be to obtain responses across a number of key issues. However, the discussions should be open and should not follow a rigid format.

Prior to the Focus Group Discussions the court will want to draft a broader outline of a questionnaire for the discussions. A draft questionnaire was prepared for the assessment in Tuvalu.

It is best to test the Questionnaire Guide through several ‘pilot’ discussions. In Tuvalu, the field guide was tested with discussions with Island Court judges and Land Court judges prior to being used for community consultations. On each occasion it was updated and questions were amended or deleted following the tests.

Testing the Questionnaire Guide also provides the facilitator with an opportunity to become familiar with the approach and the questions they will be asking. This is crucial to ensure the facilitator is comfortable with implementing the Guide.

**3.6.2 Preparing the Logistics**

A Focus Group Discussion should be held for each Stakeholder Group identified. Ideally, this would bring together representatives from more than one organisation.

The ideal number of participants for each focus group discussion is between five to ten people. Any more than ten people and the session will become difficult to facilitate. It will also limit the opportunity for everyone to participate.

Invitations to participants should be sent in advance. The invitation should include some explanation of the objective of the discussion, providing participants with time beforehand to consider the issues and prepare for the meeting.

As Focus Group Discussions will generally last approximately two to three hours, they should be held in a location that is comfortable and convenient to the participants. The location should encourage open discussion. In many instances, the court will have facilities that can be used for the discussion. In some countries, where budgets exist, it will be more appropriate to hire seminar or workshop facilities.

The actual resource costs involved in hosting the focus group discussions will vary depending on the jurisdiction. It may be possible to minimize costs by using court facilities. Costs involved could include:

* Hire of seminar / workshop facilities to host focus group discussions;
* Travel or per diem costs for participants involved in the discussions, although this is not generally recommended as it creates an incentive for groups to participate; and
* In some instances it may be useful to recruit a consultant to assist in the facilitation of the focus group discussions.

**.**

**Compensating Participants?**

Should participants be paid? Providing payments to participants has two negative aspects. First, it affects objectiveness. They are more likely to provide answers the facilitator is after because they are receiving remuneration. Second, it can lead to expectations that programmes should only operate if they are associated with payments. This reduces community commitment to the results.

On the other hand, there is a need to acknowledge that people are taking time out of their busy schedules to participate. In some countries in the region, it has also become common practise to provide allowances for participation.

This issue arose in the course of organising Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) in Tuvalu. For meetings with Island Court and Land Court judges it was agreed that they would be reimbursed equivalent to their sitting fees. For FGDs with community groups a contribution was made to the community group organisation. Another preferred approach is to provide an allocation for lunch and a transport allowance if required. This can be done in recognition of their participation in the meeting.

**3.7 Conducting the Focus Group Discussion**

The agenda should include the following aspects:

1. An opening by either the Chief Justice or a senior judge explaining the purpose of the Focus Group Discussions;
2. An introductory session that allows participants to introduce themselves and make preliminary opening comments;
3. Facilitated questioning across the key priority areas identified by the Court;
4. An opportunity for participants to raise issues that may not have been covered; and
5. Closing remarks including summary on how information will be used.

At least two court staff will be required to participate through the whole Focus Group Discussion: a facilitator and a note-taker. Focus Group Discussions will ideally be no shorter than one hour and no longer than three hours. In Tuvalu, two hours was allocated for each Focus Group Discussion.

It is important to try and encourage all participants to share their opinions throughout the session. The facilitator plays an important role in providing everyone with an opportunity to contribute equally.

It is important also to ensure that the discussion does not become focused on individual cases. It is fine to use cases as an example of particular issues. However, the Focus Group Discussions cannot review case decisions or assess performance on particular cases. It is important to emphasize this at the beginning of the session and to remind participants if too much time is spent discussing individual cases.

**Tips for Conducting Successful Focus Group Discussions**

There are a number of useful tricks to facilitating Focus Group Discussions. Facilitators should:

1. Be well prepared and familiar with the questionnaire. This encourages a more free flowing conversation;
2. Encourage an open conversation. This includes ensuring a comfortable setting and also opening the discussion in a way that encourages informality and a relaxed atmosphere;
3. View the questionnaire as a tool that is not set in stone. Flexibility is required, allowing the conversation to take its course; and
4. At the same time, the facilitator needs to balance a listening role with a guiding role. If a

few people are dominating the conversation or too much time is spent on certain issues the facilitator needs to take control of the discussion and guide it forward.

It can be useful to set guidelines at the beginning of the conversation. In Tuvalu the following guidelines were introduced to participants:

1. The FGD aimed to receive feedback on different issues, NOT to discuss the merits of individual cases;
2. Everyone was encouraged to participate and have an equal say;
3. The information would be treated in confidence. Notes were taken but names would not be used in reports; and
4. There were no right or wrong answers. Everyone’s views are equally important and should be respected.

Finally, the process of conducting a Focus Group Discussion can also be a useful exercise for educating the public about the work of the judiciary. Experience from Tuvalu, as shown in the box below, highlighted that people are keen to obtain more information on the court system and used the focus group discussions to raise their own questions.

**Two-Way Sharing of Information in Tuvalu**

In February 2013, a Focus Group Discussion was held with community members from a village at the northern end of Funafuti. Thirteen people turned up to the discussion, held in the church.

As the facilitator worked his way through the questions, the participants were keen to ask a few themselves. A lady wanted to know how a case involving reckless driving causing death did not go to court and was asking if it was now possible to negotiate resolutions to these cases. A man asked for an explanation of the difference between the Island Court and the Land Court. Another woman had a few questions to ask about the adoption process.

The difficulty comes in trying to balance these general questions with specific advice about particular cases. At the close of the discussion, one of the participants used the opportunity to seek advice on a land case, involving payment of rent for the land the church was on.

**3.8 Documenting Findings**

Detailed notes should be made for each of the Focus Group Discussions. Notes should preferably be typed and saved accordingly so they can be referred to again in the future.

At the completion of all of the Focus Group Discussions, it will be necessary to compare the findings from each discussion. Courts should document these in the form of a summary report that can be circulated for comment within the court. Some courts may also feel comfortable sharing this summary with the groups who participated in the Stakeholder Focus Group Discussion.

**4 Access to Justice Surveys**

This section will describe the benefits of Access to Justice surveys and provide some introductory comments on planning and conducting Access to Justice surveys. The section covers the following areas:

* What is an Access to Justice survey?
* What Approaches exist to conducting surveys
* Planning and Implementing an Access to Justice survey

The section will use several examples of surveys that have been conducted in the region to guide this discussion.

**4.1 What is an Access to Justice Survey?**

An Access to Justice survey collects information from a broad range of respondents to assist justice sector agencies plan and deliver their services based on actual need.

The most rigorous (and expensive) type of survey is a randomly selected, representative sample of the population based on a mathematical formula. The information obtained can then be viewed as being representative of the population. Other survey approaches randomly select respondents from the population or target groups. These approaches also provide important information, often at a much cheaper cost.

As opposed to Focus Group Discussions, a survey is generally quantitative in nature. Information that is collected is in response to fixed questions. In most cases, respondents will need to choose responses from a number of possible options. This allows the responses to be compiled and provides an overall picture. If the survey is broad enough it also allows for responses to be compared between different groups of people. This can be particularly important because it highlights areas where people may be missing out on justice services.

**Strengths and Weaknesses of Access to Justice Surveys**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Access to Justice surveys are not recommended for all countries in the Pacific. The list below identifies some benefits and weaknesses of using a survey-type approach.** | |
| **Benefits** | **Weaknesses** |
| * Greater ability to capture views of broad section of population, including marginalised groups; | * Is expensive and time consuming to implement; |
| * Allows for analysis between groups or types of users; | * Requires specialized expertise and detailed attention in designing tools; |
| * More empirically rigorous – provides more reliable data; | * Doesn’t explain *why* particular findings occur, only documents that they do occur; |
| * Can allow for cross-reference to broader data sources; and | * Interpretation of results subject to bias; and |
| * Provides data on a broad range of issues. | * To be representative in small populations requires a large sample, in proportion to population size. |

**4.2 Approaches to Conducting Access to Justice Surveys**

There are a broad range of options available for conducting Access to Justice surveys. This toolkit outlines three categories of approaches that have been taken and includes examples for each category.

More detailed information about the different tools available, along with links to examples mentioned below, are provided in the Annex.

**4.2.1 Inclusion of Justice Issues in Broader Social/Economic Surveys**

There are a number of examples, including examples in the region, where access to justice issues have been covered in broader social or economic surveys. Governments, often with the support of donors, conduct household surveys to measure progress on economic and/or social indicators. Over the last decade, the surveys are increasingly including sections that cover dispute resolution, access to legal services or related issues. The box below provides three examples:

**Three Examples of Justice Issues Covered by Broader Surveys:**

1. **Papua New Guinea’s Household Income & Expenditure Survey (HIES), 2009**

In 2009, PNG’s National Statistical Office conducted a nation-wide HIES Survey, with support from the World Bank. This survey is statistically representative of the population. The substantive part of the survey covered 10 sections including: income and expenditure, access to health and education and housing. One section was focused on dispute resolution. The section asked respondents to identify (against a list) actual disputes experienced in the past 12 months, who was involved in the dispute and its impact. Respondents were asked more detailed questions on the most serious dispute they had experienced. This included: who they asked for advice (and why), how they sought to resolve the dispute, the cost of resolution and their satisfaction with the resolution process.

1. **People’s Survey in Solomon Islands, 2011**

Introduced under RAMSI’s engagement in Solomon Islands, the People’s Survey is an annual stocktake of progress across a range of issues. The 2011 survey gathered people’s perceptions on a range of economic, public service delivery, governance and law and justice issues. Of the nine substantive sections in 2011, two focused specifically on justice issues: Section D (Safety) and Section I (Resolution of Disputes). Topics include perceptions of justice sector actors; causes of conflict; frequency of disputes; dispute resolution processes; and costs of resolving disputes. The survey uses both quantitative and qualitative tools. It gathers data primarily on perceptions rather than actual experience (with the exception of several questions on disputes in Section I). The survey is driven by RAMSI and it is unclear to what extent Justice Sector agencies use the results.

1. **Demographic & Health Survey, Marshall Islands, 2007**

The Republic of Marshall Islands was one of four countries to conduct comprehensive demographic and health surveys in the Pacific in 2007. The surveys were supported by ADB. In the Marshall Islands the Government’s Economic Policy, Planning & Statistics Office (EPPSO) implemented the survey. The survey was quantitative with a sample representative of the

As the examples above indicate, one of the challenges with sections included in broader surveys is that it reduces ownership. On justice issues, for example, courts would be less involved in the design of the survey and, as a result, less interested in the results. All of the surveys above are implemented and the results analysed by agencies outside of the justice sector. A consequence of this is that courts, and other justice sector agencies, are less involved in the design and less committed to implementing the findings.

**4.2.2 Justice Sector-Wide Surveys**

A number of countries undertake Access to Justice surveys at a sector-wide level. The surveys frequently cover a broad range of topics with the results of interest to the judiciary, other justice sector agencies, civil society and the legal profession more broadly. These forms of surveys are becoming increasingly common.

In the United States, the United Kingdom and Australia, sector-wide Access to Justice assessments are normally carried out by civil society organisations. The results are presented as recommendations to courts and other justice sector agencies. The box below describes the recently launched “Legal Need in Australia” survey conducted by the New South Wales Law and Justice Foundation (LJF).

**Legal Australia-Wide Survey: Legal Need in Australia, 2012**

In 2012, the NSW LJF published its report on legal needs in Australia. The report draws on telephone interviews with over 20,000 respondents. Results are representative for each state. Respondents were asked about their experiences relating to 129 different types of legal problems across 12 broad categories. In addition, information on the characteristics of legal problems and demographic information was collected. The demographic information allows the report to make findings specific to the needs of particular groups. Those with the most significant needs were: people with a disability, indigenous people, the unemployed, single parents, people living in disadvantaged housing and people living primarily on government payments.

The reports main key finding was the important link between legal problems and non-legal needs. This led to recommendations to increase distribution of legal information through non-legal service providers (e.g. health, welfare, housing) and to ensure legal service providers can better advise clients about other non-legal services available, including through stronger coordination between legal agencies and other human service providers.

There are numerous examples of justice-sector wide surveys conducted in developing countries, including a wide range of Access to Justice surveys. Most of these surveys are conducted for donor agencies and the findings are generally used to design donor programs. A UNDP review of 23 Access to Justice assessments that it has supported in the Asia-Pacific region, documents examples of some of these surveys. To date, none of these assessments have been conducted in countries in the Pacific.

**4.2.3 Surveys focusing on Specific Issues**

The final approach is to conduct surveys focusing on specific issues. There are numerous examples of this type of approach, including several from the Pacific. The Pacific surveys have been implemented by other justice sector agencies. Examples include the series of “Community Crime Victimization Surveys” conducted by the police in urban centres in PNG and discussed in the box below.

**Lae Urban Community Crime Victimisation Survey, 2010**

The PNG Government’s Law and Justice Sector Secretariat conducted a survey on community perceptions of crime and the level, extent and type of crime in the urban centre of Lae in 2010. This included data on community views about justice sector agencies. 382 respondents were selected using the 2000 Census and previous surveys to ensure different urban areas and age-brackets were covered. Survey results showed an increase in crime across most of the categories covered.

This was the third time the survey was done in Lae. Surveys are also used in Kokopo and National Capital District. This allows the Government to compare results over time and to allocate resources to each of the areas and design strategies to target specific types of crime based on identified need.

There are very few examples of courts using targeted surveys to support their activities in the Pacific. A very small pilot was developed and tested under PJDP in the Marshall Islands in 2011. The box below describes that experience.

**Piloting an Access to Justice Survey in the Marshall Islands**

As part of research conducted under Phase 1 of PJDP a small survey was designed and tested in Majuro, Marshall Islands. The survey was divided into three sections: (i) demographic information; (ii) legal knowledge and access to information; and (iii) experience of actual disputes. The survey questions were designed following interviews with a number of stakeholders and incorporated requests from the judiciary to examine issues relating to land disputes. The survey was implemented primarily by a clerk of the court in Marshallese with assistance from the adviser. Respondents were selected randomly from three geographic locations in Majuro representing different socio-economic characteristics.

Several interesting findings arose from the survey. Over 60% of households who responded had no formal right to land they lived on. They were living on land at the invitation of the formal landowners and if they experienced disputes would have limited ability to bring their dispute to court. This confirmed other research on socio-economic issues in urban areas of the Marshall Islands. The main type of disputes experienced by respondents were, equally, fighting, land, domestic violence and debt problems and a number of these disputes remained unresolved or the respondents did not follow up on complaints. Respondents identified information on family issues (e.g. adoption, divorce) as being their primary need followed by land and crime. Community leaders and the radio were identified as the most effective means of distributing information.

**4.3 Planning and Implementing an Access to Justice Survey – Issues for Consideration**

Implementing an Access to Justice survey can be a complex undertaking. In most cases it will involve significant effort and, depending on the method adopted, financial commitment. For this reason, it is crucial upfront to determine the aim of the survey. All other aspects of preparing and conducting a survey will be influenced by the aim. This section will outline some of the issues involved in planning and implementing an Access to Justice survey.

**4.3.1 Defining the Purpose of an Access to Justice Society**

Access to Justice surveys can address a number of purposes for courts. For example, they can provide courts with an overall picture of service delivery and issues faced by people in accessing courts. Partnering with other justice sector agencies, they can identify key access to justice issues more broadly. They can also focus on specific issues or groups of people and assist courts in developing relevant policies to address those issues.

Initial Access to Justice surveys are generally undertaken at a sector-wide level. This allows courts to obtain an overall picture of how people view the justice system and justice needs. It also ensures that areas are not overlooked purely because questions were not asked in relation to those areas. In countries where donors support these surveys, donors also prefer overall surveys because these can be used to assist in identifying areas of support for donor programs.

Courts may wish to focus surveys on specific issues or groups of people. This approach is generally undertaken either where there are specific, identifiable issues that need to be addressed or there are donors or civil society organisations with a specific focus willing to support the court’s work.

Where courts undertake Stakeholder Focus Group Discussions as a first step this will assist in both determining if they need to undertake broader Access to Justice surveys and identifying the focus of those surveys.

**4.3.2 Defining the Survey Method**

Defining the survey method will often depend on two main factors. First, the purpose of the survey will determine what type of survey needs to be implemented. Second, the budget available will also affect the approach that is taken.

Surveys that are representative of the population at large or specific geographic or socio-economic groups will provide the most accurate data and be most influential. However, implementing these surveys requires specific technical expertise. These types of surveys are also generally expensive and there are limited organisations in the Pacific with experience in undertaking these types of surveys.

Courts may wish to start with more targeted or less statistically valid surveys that provide a snapshot of the population without being definitive.

**4.3.3 Resourcing and Access to Justice Survey**

As has been noted above, implementing Access to Justice surveys, depending on the approach taken, can be expensive exercises. Courts will rarely have the technical capacity in-house to undertake the surveys and as a result will need to seek assistance from external parties.

A starting point for seeking information on surveys may be to contact government departments that frequently undertake surveys (e.g.: departments responsible for statistics or research) or university faculties with experience in this area.

As has been noted above, it may be possible to ‘piggy back’ on surveys that are already planned on other issues. This means, that modules on access to justice would then be added to survey questionnaires that cover a broader range of issues. This approach can be effective for a number of reasons. It means that costs can be shared between a number of parties. It also means that the court can draw on the technical expertise of other actors in developing and implementing surveys. It does however, limit ownership of the court in conducting the surveys and means that the court is dependent on other actors for timing and content.

For countries with significant donor activity, it may be possible to engage donors to support implementation of surveys. Donors are progressively seeking to develop and monitor programs based on a more reliable evidence base. Quantifiable analysis in the form of survey results can provide this evidence base and as a result donors may be interested in supporting these kinds of research. Donors already support access to justice surveys in the Solomon Islands (through the *People’s Survey*) and in Papua New Guinea (where a dispute resolution section exists in a World Bank supported Households Income and Expenditure Survey).

**4.3.4 Drafting a Survey Questionnaire**

It is important to emphasize several key issues when designing a survey.

**First,** surveys must be developed to respond to the local context. This means both asking questions in a culturally appropriate manner and ensuring the substance is applicable to the local context. Generally the starting point for developing surveys is to look at other examples.

There are benefits in ensuring consistency across countries because it means results can be compared. However, this must be balanced with ensuring appropriateness in the local context. For this reason surveys must be field tested prior to implementation.

**Examples of Access to Justice Surveys**

Full copies of the following survey questionnaires are provided in the Annex:

* **Marshall Islands Judiciary ‘pilot’ survey PJDP**: this survey questionnaire was designed specifically for the High Court of the Republic of the Marshall Islands in relation to the PJDP Customary Dispute Resolution Research.
* **People’s Survey, the Solomon Islands**: this survey provides an example of access to justice and dispute resolution questions inserted into a broader governance survey questionnaire.
* **Household Income and Expenditure Survey, PNG**: this survey provides an example of dispute resolution sections inserted into a broader socio-economic survey questionnaire.
* **Legal Knowledge, Attitudes and Perceptions Survey, Open Society Justice Initiative**: this survey is a civil society designed survey for measuring access to justice from a community perspective.

**Second,** it is a constant balancing act between wanting to gather as much information as possible and ensuring that the surveys are easy to administer. Larger scale quantitative surveys can take as long as two to three hours to administer. This places a significant burden on respondents. Except where modules are included in broader surveys, it is good practise to ensure surveys can be completed in between 30-60 minutes by respondents.

**Third,** people rarely enjoy talking about justice issues. If you are talking to strangers about justice issues they often link this to problems. For this reason, it is crucial that surveys are clearly explained to respondents, that information is kept confidential and that surveys are administered in a comfortable and private environmental. It can also help to commence the survey with less confronting questions prior to discussing issues like actual disputes experienced.

**Fourth,** it is useful to ensure that accurate socio-demographic data is collected. This allows you to compare data across categories of people when analysing results and identifying trends for specific or vulnerable groups. A good practice is to examine the background questions in other social or economic surveys conducted in your country.

**Annex F: Access to Justice Overview to the Cook Island Indicators**

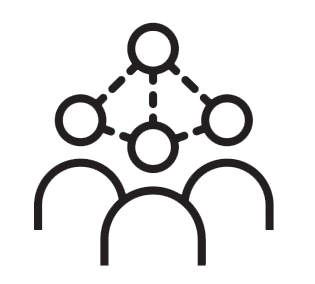
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| **Sex and juvenile disaggregated data**  For Sexual and Gender Based Violence cases, present data on cases filed and finalised, for the last five years if available, by:   * In criminal matters (i) sex of offender (ii) sex of survivor/victim; * In juvenile matters involving children under 18 years (i) a child is a perpetrator and (ii) a child is a victim/survivor in a criminal matter; * In family violence matters the number of Family Protection Orders where the applicant/ survivor/victim is a woman, child or man; * The average final sentence in violence cases in which the survivor/ victim is a woman or child (The ICAAD Track GBV research will present this information for sexual assault, murder/manslaughter and domestic violence cases).   In family law matters, present data on cases filed and finalised, for the last five years if available, by (i) sex or applicant (ii) sex of respondent. |
| **Cook Island Indicator 5**    Disaggregate cases filed by:   * Number of female applicants that are granted a court fee waiver in their civil cases; and * Number of male applicants that are granted a court fee waiver in their civil cases. |
| **Cook Island Indicator 6**    Disaggregate cases filed by:   * Number and percentage of criminal cases disposed through a Circuit Court; * Number and percentage of family cases disposed through a Circuit Court; * Number and percentage of other civil cases disposed through a Circuit Court; and * Disaggregate family and other civil cases disposed through a Circuit Court by the sex of the applicant party. |

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| **Cook Island Indicator 7**  Disaggregate cases filed by:   * Number and percentage of criminal cases where the defendant receives legal aid; * Number and percentage of family cases where the applicant party receives legal aid; * Number and percentage of other civil cases where the applicant party receives legal aid; and * Number and percentage of women who receive legal aid to assist them to bring their family law or civil cases. |
| **Cook Island Indicator 8**  In addition to a general selection on client complaint and feedback mechanisms related to court staff and judicial officers, include:   * Results of client satisfaction surveys and actions the court has taken in response; and * Consider targeted court user surveys focussing on a part of the courts work where there are a significant number of applicants or victims/survivors who are women, children or people living with a disability. |
| **Cook Island Indicator 13**  Court produces or contributes to an Annual Report that is publicly available in the following year.   |  |  |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | | **2011** on PacLII | **2012** on PacLII | **2013** on PacLII | **2014** on PacLII | **2015** published but not on PacLII |   Present last five years of information on Court Annual Reports and how they are published. |
| **Cook Island Indicator 14**  Information on court services that is publicly available, including information on how to bring:   * Family Law Cases; and * Family Protection Orders/ Restraining Orders.   How is this information published: on PacLII, on noticeboards, on court websites? |









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| **Cook Island Indicator 15**    Court publishes judgements on the Internet (through PacLII or their own website).  Include information on the publication on PacLII or a court website (from the last reporting years) on:   * The number and percentage of criminal cases finalised in 2016 that were published on PacLII or a court website; * The number and percentage of family cases finalised in 2016 that were published on PacLII or a court website; and * The number and percentage of civil cases finalised in 2016 that were published on PacLII or a court website.     In the Magistrates Court:   * The number and percentage of criminal cases finalised in 2016 that were published on PacLII or a court website; * The number and percentage of family cases finalised in 2016 that were published on PacLII or a court website; and * The number and percentage of civil cases finalised in 2016 that were published on PacLII or a court website. |
| **Disability Inclusive Courts**    Present disaggregated data on the number of clients who needed assistance:   * To locate, enter and navigate court proceedings within the court-room; * To read a document; * To hear what is being said in court; and * To understand what is happening in the court hearing as well as what preparation may be required before the hearing day.   Consider including a narrative on the ways that the court engaged with CSOs working with people living with a disability to identify how to make the services of the court more disability-inclusive. |
| **Collaborating with Others**  A narrative of the specific services provided by courts for women and girls who are survivors of violence, as well as those services that are undertaken in collaboration with Government agencies and/or Civil Society Organisations.  This narrative can also highlight multi-sectoral working meetings that the court leadership has arranged on family law and violence against women and children issues with key government agencies and CSOs to seek feedback on how the current procedures are working and barriers faced by women, children and other vulnerable groups in accessing the courts for their cases. |

**Annex G: National Outcome Standards for Perpetrator Interventions**

Please note the following is available at: [**https://plan4womenssafety.dss.gov.au/wp-content/uploads/2018/08/nationaloutcomestandardsreportweb.pdf**](https://plan4womenssafety.dss.gov.au/wp-content/uploads/2018/08/nationaloutcomestandardsreportweb.pdf)

Women and their children’s safety is the reason why our systems must intervene effectively against perpetrators. Effective perpetrator interventions must give women and their children confidence that they will be supported and protected if they report violence and must minimise any trauma women and their children experience as a result of their involvement with perpetrator interventions (for example during the court process and during the conduct of programmes and case management).

**Standard 1 Women and their children’s safety is the core priority of all perpetrator interventions**

Perpetrator interventions must include elements focused on assessing, monitoring and responding to changes in the perpetrator’s risk of committing further violence against the women and their children who have experienced his violence. Effective programmes for perpetrators must also have in place mechanisms that provide opportunities for victim/survivors to access ongoing partner contact, family or other support services wherever appropriate.

Perpetrator interventions must have regard to the needs of women and their children from diverse cultures, and communities and circumstances so they can help all victim/survivors get suitable support whenever they are involved with the perpetrator accountability system.

Our systems and services must play an effective role in ending perpetrators’ violence by working together at every opportunity to identify, keep sight of and engage with perpetrators.

**Standard 2 Perpetrators get the right interventions at the right time**

It is imperative that our systems and services share relevant information about perpetrators and victims wherever possible\*, including information on victim/ survivor safety and perpetrator risk. This information must be used to help the perpetrator accountability system to respond in integrated ways so that the right parts of the system can engage with the perpetrator at the most effective times to reduce the risk of him committing violence and minimise the impacts of any violence that does occur.

We must ensure that we intervene swiftly with perpetrators as soon as an instance of their violence is identified in ways that stop their violence and give the perpetrator opportunities to change his violent behaviours and attitudes.

Perpetrator interventions must be designed to respond effectively to perpetrators from diverse cultures, and communities and circumstances at all the key points of engagement with them in the perpetrator accountability system. Effective interventions with perpetrators must include specific responses suited to ending as early as possible the violence of perpetrators who are engaging with the system for the first time as well as responses suited to minimising harm from persistent re-offending.

\* Sharing of information must remain consistent with all relevant legislation, including information privacy provisions and principles

**Standard 3 Perpetrators face justice and legal consequences when they commit violence**

Legal, civil and community justice responses to perpetrators are a powerful tool that can interrupt and address violence against women and their children.

This standard shifts the burden from women and their children to protect themselves and places that responsibility firmly back onto our justice and legal systems. It puts systems in the position of being accountable for ensuring that perpetrators face appropriate justice and legal consequences for their violence; that perpetrators understand what those consequences mean; that the victim/survivor is informed about the consequences that the perpetrator faces; and that the system responds effectively to perpetrators who do not comply with the mandatory justice and legal consequences and sanctions placed on them (for example an intervention order or an order to attend a behaviour change or other offender programme).

Justice and legal systems accountability involves making systems competent at engaging effectively with perpetrators from diverse cultures, communities and circumstances and facilitating a sense of justice for all victim/survivors.

**Standard 4 Perpetrators participate in programmes and services that enable them to change their violent behaviours and attitudes**

Behaviour change programmes, other offender programmes and clinical services aimed at enabling perpetrators to stop their violence can play an important role in the perpetrator accountability system.

This standard is about inviting or mandating men to engage with and complete programmes designed to enable them to take responsibility for their violence and work towards changing their violent behaviours and attitudes. Providing targeted interventions sends a message to the community that perpetrators of violence can change.

To respond effectively to all perpetrators, perpetrator programmes and services must be adaptable for perpetrators from diverse cultures, communities and circumstances, and engage effectively with perpetrators with diverse needs.

This standard also highlights the role of perpetrator programmes and services in helping to keep the perpetrator visible to the accountability system regardless of whether he achieves attitude and behaviour change. This enables the perpetrator accountability system to maintain risk and safety monitoring of the perpetrator so the system can intervene if necessary to prevent further violence.

It is important that victim/survivors are assisted to understand that the perpetrator’s participation in a behaviour change programme is not guaranteed to result in him stopping his violence. It is also important to inform victim/survivors that even without behaviour change, the perpetrator programme can play an important role in maintaining their safety.

Programmes and services for perpetrators should integrate with sectors, such as the mental health, or the alcohol and other drug sector, to help perpetrators to address factors that are directly linked to their offending or to their readiness to respond to programmes and services. Perpetrator interventions must also include mechanisms for providing victim/survivors with access to ongoing partner, family or other support services wherever appropriate, particularly women and their children who have not had contact with support services before.

**Standard 5 Perpetrator interventions are driven by credible evidence to continuously improve**

The evidence base for perpetrator interventions is not yet comprehensive. The perpetrator accountability system and interventions are in the early stages of development with an evidence base emerging over time.

This standard supports evidence-based and evidence-building practices within the agencies, structures, services and programmes that make up the perpetrator accountability system. There is a need to ensure the consistent evaluation of programmes and services and to utilise the available Australian and international evidence base to strengthen new and existing interventions.

Evaluative processes must be built into perpetrator interventions to build the evidence base for ‘what works’, promote innovation based on evidence, and actively engage in continuous improvement.

**Standard 6 People working in perpetrator intervention systems are skilled in responding to the dynamics and impacts of domestic, family and sexual violence**

A range of people, both generalist and specialist professionals and practitioners, can have a significant impact in addressing and reducing violence against women and their children through their interactions with perpetrators.

People working in the perpetrator accountability system require support and access to professional development opportunities enabling them to understand the dynamics of domestic, family or sexual violence, including gender dynamics, intervene safely and appropriately with perpetrators, and understand the impact interventions can have on women and their children who experience the perpetrator’s violence.

We must build workforce (and community) capability to provide interventions that are effective with perpetrators from diverse cultural and community circumstances. This standard gives effect to the need for broad development of competencies in working with perpetrators from diverse backgrounds.

**Annex H: Power & Control Wheel**

Diagram

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**Annex I: Equality & Respect Wheel**

Diagram

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PJSI Toolkits are available on: http://www.fedcourt.gov.au/pjsi/resources/toolkits

**Gender and Family Violence Toolkit**

1. Vanuatu Family Protection Act 2009; Fiji Domestic Violence Decree 2009; Marshall Islands Domestic Violence Prevention and Protection Act 2011; Palau Family Protection Act 2012; Samoa Family Safety Act 2013; Kiribati Te Rau n Te Mweenga Act 2013; Tonga Family Protection Act 2013; Solomon Islands Family Protection Act 2014; Kosrae State Family Protection Act 2014. [↑](#footnote-ref-1)
2. ICAAD ‘An Analysis of Judicial Sentencing Practices in Sexual & Gender-Based Violence Cases in the Pacific Island Region’, 2015. http://www.paclii.org/other/general-materials/ICAAD-Analysis-of-Judicial-Sentencing-Practices-in-SGBV-Cases.pdf. [↑](#footnote-ref-2)
3. ABA Rule of Law Initiative, “Access to Justice Assessment Tool: A Guide to Analyzing Access to Justice for Civil Society Organizations”, New York, 2012. [↑](#footnote-ref-3)