



4124.0

Australian Women's Year Book

1997





AUSTRALIAN WOMEN'S YEAR BOOK 1997

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Cover illustration: Seraphina Martin, *Universal Mother*, 30 x 20 cm, 1992, colour etching. By arrangement with Helen Maxwell, aGOG.

Seraphina Martin was born in Italy. After beginning her print-making studies in Australia, she went to Paris where she graduated in 1977 with a Diploma in Fine Arts (Etching) from the Ecole Nationale des Beaux Arts. Seraphina has worked for over 15 years in Sydney as a print-maker and teacher of etching and print-making. She has had solo and group exhibitions of her work in Australia and overseas. She currently lectures at the Tin Sheds Art workshop, Sydney University. Since 1994 Seraphina has been exploring new print-making technologies such as solar plate etching, which eliminate the use of toxic solvents.

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Preface

The *Australian Women's Year Book 1997* provides a statistical backdrop for measuring Australia's progress in raising the status of women.

Published jointly by the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) and the Office of the Status of Women (OSW), the year book looks at women's position across a broad range of areas including living arrangements, health, housing, education, employment, income and income support, crime and justice, decision making and the role of women in voluntary work.

Statistics and indicators have been brought together from a variety of sources to offer a meaningful statistical profile of key aspects of women's lives. Time series data are included wherever possible, to provide a statistical basis for monitoring progress of women over time. Comparative data for women and men are presented following international guidelines.

Comprehensive, accurate and up-to-date statistics are essential if government is to develop economic and social policy that meets women's needs. Gender statistics will continue to be reported and analysed in annual ABS publications such as the *Year Book Australia*, *Australian Social Trends* and in other reports to be developed with OSW and specifically focused on women.

We wish to acknowledge the contribution of staff at other commonwealth departments.

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May 1997

Milestones for Australian women, 1986–96

- 1986** The *Affirmative Action (Equal Employment Opportunity for Women) Act 1986* was passed by parliament.
- 1987** Mary Gaudron became the first woman to be appointed to the High Court of Australia.
- 1987** The first female University Vice-Chancellor was appointed (Di Yerbury at Macquarie University).
- 1988** *A say, a choice, a fair go: the Government's National Agenda for Women* was released.
- 1988** The first female pilots in the Royal Australian Air Force graduated (Flight Lieutenant R. D. Williams and Flying Officer Hicks).
- 1989** Rosemary Follett became Australia's first female head of government (ACT).
- 1989** The first female station leaders of Australian National Antarctic Research Expeditions were appointed (Diana Patterson in Mawson and Alison Clifton on Macquarie Island).
- 1990** Two women became State Premiers, Dr Carmen Lawrence in Western Australia and Joan Kirner in Victoria.
- 1990** Deirdre O'Connor became the first female Federal Court Judge and president of the Administrative Appeals Tribunal.
- 1990** The Australian Government ratified International Labour Organisation Convention 156 on Workers with Family Responsibilities (ILO 156). It aims to enable workers, or those who wish to be employed, to do so without conflict between their employment and their family responsibilities, and without discrimination.
- 1990** The Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission was established with Miss Lois O'Donoghue as its first chairperson.
- 1990** Cathy Freeman (at age 16 years) became the first Aboriginal person to win a gold medal at the Commonwealth Games in Auckland, New Zealand.
- 1991** Dame Roma Mitchell was appointed Governor of South Australia and became Australia's first female vice-regal representative.

- 1991** The Law Institute appointed its first female president in its 132-year history (Gail Owen).
- 1992** The House of Representatives Standing Committee on Legal and Constitutional Affairs completed its Inquiry into Equal Opportunity and Equal Status for Women in Australia and published its report *Half Way to Equal*.
- 1992** Justice Elizabeth Evatt, President of the Australian Law Reform Commission, became the first Australian elected to the United Nations Human Rights Committee.
- 1992** The provisions of the *Sex Discrimination Act 1984* relating to sexual harassment were strengthened and the Act was extended to industrial awards.
- 1993** *Women — Shaping and Sharing the Future: the New National Agenda for Women, 1993–2000* was released.
- 1993** The *National Strategy on Violence Against Women* was released.
- 1994** Centenary of Women's Suffrage in Australia. In 1894 South Australia granted women the right to stand for parliament and the right to vote.
- 1994** 10th anniversary of the *Sex Discrimination Act* and the announcement of significant changes to improve the effectiveness of the Act.
- 1994** Dr Heather Munro became the first female president of the Royal Australian College of Obstetricians and Gynaecologists.
- 1995** Dr Wendy Craik became the first female director of the National Farmers' Federation.
- 1995** Jennie George became the first female President of the Australian Council of Trade Unions (ACTU).
- 1996** Senator the Hon. Margaret Reid became the first female President of the Senate.
- 1996** Nova Peris-Kneebone was the first Aboriginal woman to win an olympic gold medal (for hockey).
- 1996** 30th anniversary of the lifting of the marriage bar in the Australian Public Service.
- 1996** Professor Fay Gale became the first female President of the Australian Vice-Chancellor's Committee.

Source: Adapted from: the House of Representatives Standing Committee on Legal and Constitutional Affairs (1992) *Half Way to Equal: Report of the Inquiry into Equal Opportunity and Equal Status for Women in Australia*; *Women — Shaping and Sharing the Future: the New National Agenda for Women, 1993–2000*.

Definitions and references

Readers' attention is drawn to the definitions and references at the end of each chapter where terms used in the chapter are defined and their primary reference source given.

Symbols etc.

The following symbols used in tables mean:

ABS	Australian Bureau of Statistics
n.a.	not available
n.y.a.	not yet available
p	preliminary data
r	figures or series revised since previous edition
*	subject to high sampling variability
**	data suppressed due to high sampling variability or confidentiality
..	not applicable
—	nil or rounded to zero

Other usages

Unless otherwise stated, the terms women and men refer to people aged 15 years and over.

Where figures have been rounded, discrepancies may occur between the sums of the component items and totals.

For more information

Inquiries about women's policy issues and initiatives should be directed to:

Office of the Status of Women, Department of the Prime Minister and Cabinet
3-5 National Circuit, Barton ACT 2601
Telephone: (06) 271 5711, (06) 271 5752, (06) 271 5035 Facsimile: (06) 271 5751

General inquiries about the content and interpretation of the statistics in this publication should be addressed to:

Director, Social Analysis and Reporting Section, Australian Bureau of Statistics, PO Box 10,
Belconnen ACT 2616
Telephone: (06) 252 7187 Facsimile: (06) 252 6870

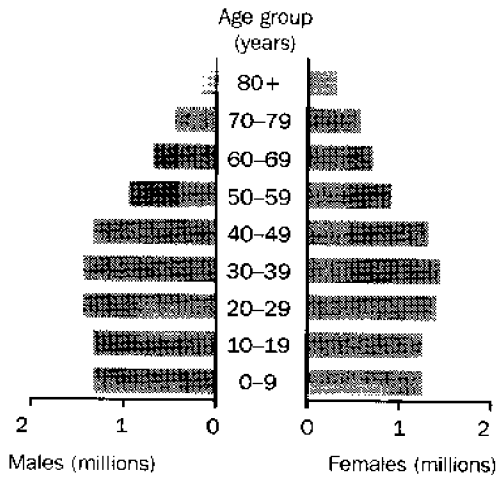
Inquiries about the availability of more recent data from ABS should be directed to Information Services in your nearest ABS office (see p. 183).

Population, birth and fertility

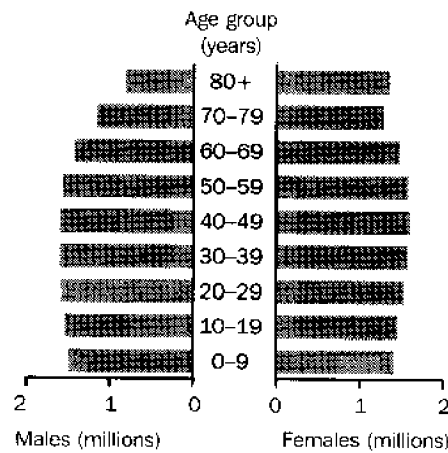


Summary graphs

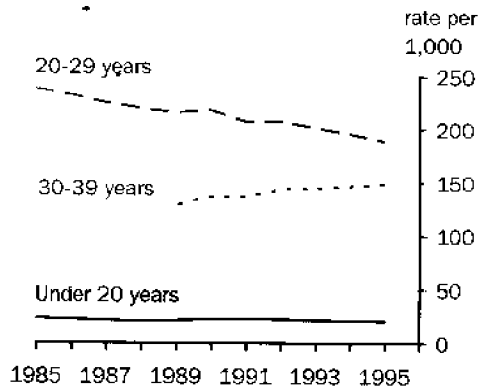
Population structure, 1996



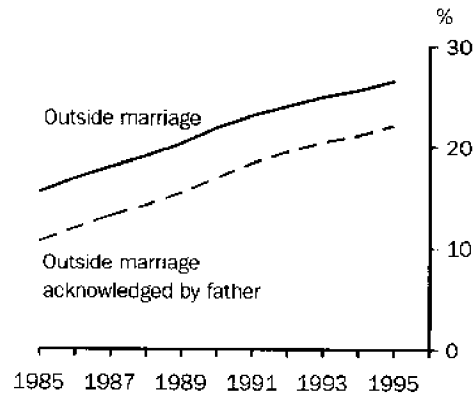
Projected population structure, 2051



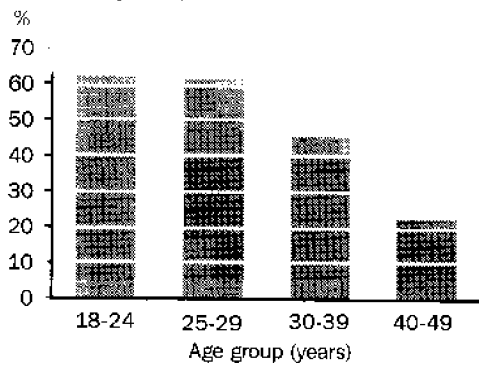
Age-specific fertility rates



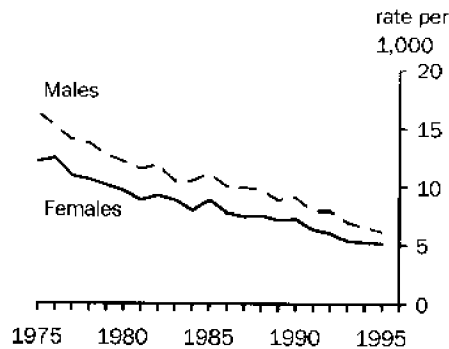
Proportion of births outside marriage



Proportion of women who used contraception, 1995



Infant mortality rates



Introduction

The composition of the population depends on the interaction of three factors, fertility, mortality and net overseas migration. Since the turn of the century, the main source of growth in Australia has been natural increase (the difference between births and deaths). However, during the last 20 years, both fertility and mortality rates have declined, resulting in the ageing of the population.

This change in composition has significant implications for the social structure of society and the provision of services such as health and housing.

While the total population is ageing, the Indigenous population has a relatively young population, due to high fertility and lower life expectancy.

About one-quarter of the Australian population were born overseas. Programs and policies governing migration have varied over the years, resulting in changes in the composition of migrants. For example, the proportion of migrants from non-English speaking backgrounds has increased significantly in recent years. Both women and men from these countries have specific needs, due to language difficulties and lack of family support networks.

Women now have more control over their reproductive health due to the availability of various forms of contraception and advancements in medical technology. As a result, many women are choosing to delay childbirth.

Statistical activities

Projections of the Populations of Australia, States and Territories (Cat. no. 3222.0), released in 1996 includes four alternative projections of the population of Australia from 1995 to 2051.

Australian Demographic Trends (Cat. no. 3102.0) is scheduled for release during 1997. It will provide an overview of Australia's past and current population trends, with an emphasis on changes in the last 10–20 years.

Results from the 1996 Census of Population and Housing will be available progressively during 1997.

Population

The structure, size and distribution of the Australian population is affected by changes in fertility, mortality and net migration. The population has grown steadily this century, despite fluctuations in rates of growth from year to year. These fluctuations are mainly due to variations in net migration, as growth from natural increase (the difference between births and deaths) has remained relatively steady.

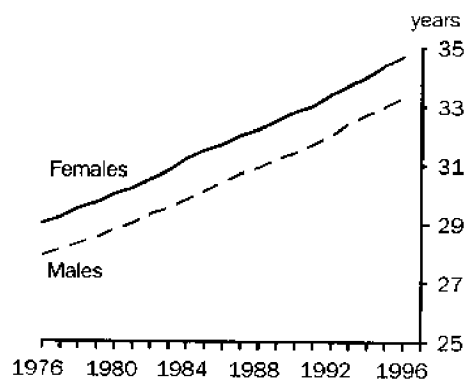
In June 1996, 50.2% of the Australian population was female. During the last decade, the number of females and males has increased by an annual average of 1.4% and 1.3% respectively. In 1996 there were 9.2 million females and 9.1 million males (see Summary Indicators p. 12).

The population is projected to increase to between 25 and 28 million by the year 2051, with females comprising around 51% of the population.

The median age of females and males has increased steadily over the last 20 years. In 1996 the median age of females was 34.7 years compared to 29.0 years in 1976. The comparative figures for men were 33.3 and 27.9 years, respectively.

In June 1996 people aged 65 years and over comprised 12% of the total population. By 2051, this is projected to increase to 23%. At this time, women are expected to account for 56% of those aged 65 years and over, the same proportion as in 1996 (see Summary Graphs p. 2).

Median age of the population



Source: *Estimated Resident Population by Sex and Age: States and Territories of Australia* (Cat. no. 3201.0).

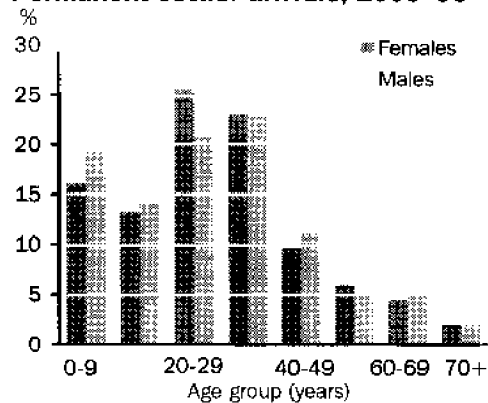
Life expectancy of both females and males has been relatively unchanged for the last three years (see p. 47). Given current mortality patterns, girls born in 1995 are expected to live until 80.8 years and boys until 75.0 years.

Immigration

In 1995-96, 99,100 settlers arrived in Australia. This was a 7% increase since 1985-86. Female immigrants outnumbered males, accounting for 55% of settler arrivals.

One-quarter of female settlers were aged 20-29 years compared to one-fifth of male settlers. The largest proportion of male settlers were aged 30-39 years (23%), 16% of female settlers and 19% of male settlers were aged 0-9 years and would have arrived in Australia with their parents.

The largest proportion of female settlers in 1995-96 arrived from China (13%). This was almost four times the proportion of female settlers who arrived from China in 1985-86. This increase can in part be

Permanent settler arrivals, 1995-96

Source: *Migration, Australia* (Cat. no. 3412.0).

explained by Chinese people already settled, bringing their family members to Australia.

In 1995-96, the eligibility categories that female and male settlers entered Australia under varied. 52% of female settlers arrived in Australia in the family migration category (the majority as spouses and fiancées), compared to 41% of male settlers. 18% of

female settlers and 23% of male settlers arrived under the skill eligibility category.

Emigration

There were 28,700 permanent departures from Australia in 1995-96. Just over half of these departures were made by women.

Of all women who left Australia permanently, 39% were born in Australia and 46% were former settlers. Those born in New Zealand represented the largest group of former settlers leaving Australia (31%), while a further 25% were born in the United Kingdom and Ireland.

Half of all female emigrants and 45% of male emigrants were aged 20-39 years. A significant proportion of female and male emigrants were aged 0-9 years. These children would be moving with their parents.

Permanent settler arrivals

Selected country of birth	1985-86		Selected country of birth	1995-96	
	Females	Males		Females	Males
	%	%		%	%
United Kingdom and Ireland	17.2	17.3	China	13.4	8.9
New Zealand	13.6	15.1	New Zealand	11.6	13.3
Viet Nam	6.9	8.6	United Kingdom and Ireland	10.8	13.9
Philippines	6.3	2.7	Former Yugoslav Republics	7.3	8.3
China	3.4	3.4	Viet Nam	4.3	2.7
Hong Kong	3.4	3.4	Hong Kong	4.3	4.6
	'000	'000		'000	'000
Total settlers	45.9	46.6	Total settlers	54.3	44.8

Source: *Migration, Australia* (Cat. no. 3412.0).

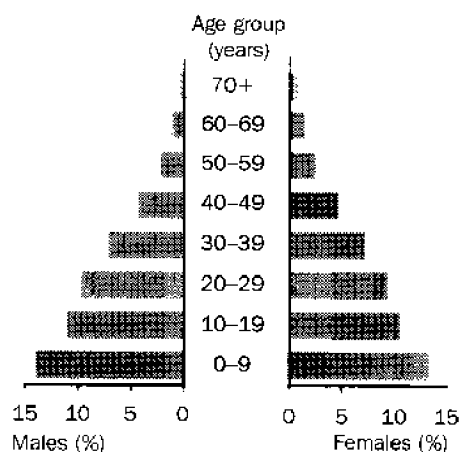
Indigenous population

Based on 1991 population census data, it was projected that there were 319,200 Indigenous people in Australia in 1996. 49.8% of the Indigenous population were women.

The Indigenous population has a younger age structure than the total population. The median age of the Indigenous population was 21.1 years for women and 20.1 years for men, considerably lower than for the total Australian population.

In 1996, the age profile of Indigenous females and males was similar. It was estimated that almost half of Indigenous people were aged under 20 years. In contrast, 28% of the total population were in this age group. Less than 10% of the Indigenous population were aged 50 and over.

Projected Indigenous population, 1996



Source: Unpublished data, Experimental Projections Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Population.

Country of birth of people born overseas, 1996

Selected country of birth	Females	Males
	%	%
United Kingdom and Ireland	28.7	28.7
New Zealand	6.9	7.2
Italy	5.8	6.5
Former Yugoslav Republics	4.3	4.6
Viet Nam	3.6	3.5
	'000	'000
Total overseas born(a)	2 120.3	2 088.7

(a) Includes people born in other countries.

Source: *Migration, Australia* (Cat. no. 3412.0).

Overseas born

At 30 June 1996, 23% of the female and male population had been born overseas. This was a slight increase from 1986, due primarily to an increase in the number of people born in non-English speaking countries. In 1986, 11% of females and 12% of males in the Australian population were from non-English speaking countries compared to 14% for both women and men in 1996 (see Summary Indicators p. 12).

People born in the United Kingdom and Ireland still comprised the largest group of people born overseas (29% of both females and males born overseas).

Fertility

The total fertility rate, or the number of children one woman would expect to bear during her child bearing lifetime, was 1.8 in 1995. Over the last decade the total fertility

rate has fluctuated at around this rate (see Summary Indicators p. 14).

The net reproduction rate is the number of daughters that a group of newborn female babies would bear during their lifetime, if they adhered to the age-specific birth and death rates for that year. The net reproduction rate was 0.88 in 1995, a decline from 1985 when the rate was 0.91.

During the last decade, age-specific fertility rates for women aged 20–29 years have decreased, while fertility rates for women aged 30–39 have increased (see Summary Graphs p. 2). In 1985, the fertility rate for women aged 20–29 years was 242 births per 1,000 women, compared to 188 per 1,000 in 1995. In contrast, the fertility rate for women aged 30–39 increased from 114 to 149 births per 1,000 women.

Data on Indigenous births is available for four states and territories, the Northern Territory, Western Australia, South Australia

Fertility rate(a), 1995

Selected state/territory	Indigenous women	All women
Northern Territory	2.9	2.4
Western Australia	2.8	1.9
South Australia	2.3	1.8
New South Wales	2.1	1.9

(a) Per woman.

Source: *Births, Australia* (Cat. no. 3301.0).

and New South Wales. In 1995, the fertility of Indigenous women in these states was higher than that of all women. The largest difference was recorded in Western Australia, with the fertility rate for Indigenous mothers being 2.8, compared to 1.9 for all mothers.

Contraception

In 1995, 45% of women aged 18–49 years reported that either they, or their partner, currently used a method of contraception. The proportions of women using contraception varied according to age. For example, 62% of women aged 18–24 used

Use of contraception by women aged 18–49 years and their partners, 1995

Method	18–24	25–29	30–39	40–49	Total
	%	%	%	%	%
Used contraception	62.0	61.3	45.7	22.4	44.9
Contraceptive pill	43.8	39.0	26.0	9.6	27.1
Condom	15.1	17.4	12.3	6.4	12.0
Natural methods(a)	*0.9	2.4	2.8	2.0	2.1
Intra uterine device	1.0	*0.9	1.9	3.1	1.9
Other(b)	1.3	1.5	2.6	1.3	1.7
Did not use contraception	38.0	38.7	54.3	77.6	55.1
All women	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

(a) Includes rhythm/Billings etc.

(b) Includes withdrawal, diaphragm and other methods of contraception.

Source: Unpublished preliminary data, National Health Survey.

contraception, compared to 22% of women aged 40–49 (see Summary Graphs p. 2).

At any age, there will be some women who are not using contraception because they are not sexually active. This was more likely to be the case for younger than older women. The main reasons older women did not use contraception were because they had had a hysterectomy, or they or their partner had been sterilised. Women aged 25–29 years were most likely to report they did not use contraception because they were either pregnant or trying to get pregnant.

The most common form of contraception at all ages was the pill, used by 27% of women. Condoms were the second most common form of contraception.

Use of the pill declined with age. 44% of women aged 18–24 years used the pill, compared to 10% of women aged 40–49 years. 3% of women aged 40–49 years used an intra uterine device (IUD), compared to 1% of young women.

Births

In 1995, 256,200 live births were registered, a 4% increase since 1985 when 247,300 children were born. Over this period the number of women aged 15–44 years increased by 13% (see Summary Indicators p. 14).

The median age of mothers has increased steadily over the last 10 years. In 1985, the median age of mothers was 27.3 years,

Age of mothers

Age group (years)	1985		1995	
	'000	%	'000	%
Under 20	14.6	5.9	12.6	4.9
20–24	63.5	25.7	47.2	18.4
25–29	95.2	38.5	83.6	32.6
30–34	55.6	22.5	77.4	30.2
35–39	16.2	6.6	30.1	11.8
40 and over	2.2	0.9	5.0	1.9
Total(a)	247.3	100.0	256.2	100.0

(a) Includes not stated.

Source: *Births, Australia* (Cat. no. 3301.0).

compared to 29.1 years in 1995 (see Summary Indicators p. 14).

Women aged 25–29 years represented the largest proportion of mothers in both 1985 and 1995 (38% and 33% respectively).

However, the proportion of mothers aged 35 and over in 1995 (14%) was nearly double that of 1985.

For the states where data were available on Indigenous births in 1995, teenage mothers represented 23% of all Indigenous mothers. The highest proportion of Indigenous mothers were aged 20–24 years (35%). The median age of Indigenous mothers was significantly younger than the median age of all mothers (23–24 years, compared to 29.1 years).

In 1995, 68,100 births (27%) were to mothers who were not in a registered marriage. The proportion of births outside marriage has increased steadily during the last 10 years from 16% of births in 1985 (see Summary Indicators p. 14). This is partly

due to the increasing proportion of people living in de facto relationships. In 1995, 22% of births were outside marriage and acknowledged by the father, that is, the father signed the birth registration form. This was an increase from 11% in 1985 (see Summary Graphs p. 2).

In 1995 unmarried mothers tended to be younger than married mothers, with median ages of 24.9 and 30.1 years respectively. Women under 25 years accounted for half of confinements outside marriage compared to just under one-quarter of all confinements.

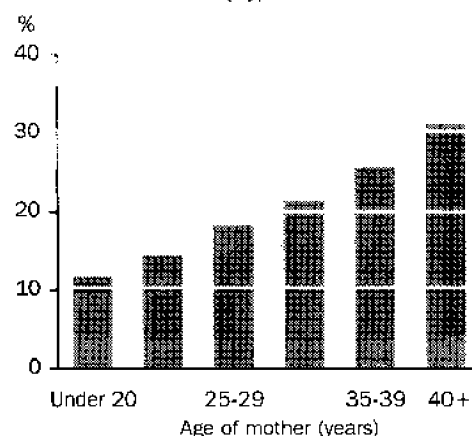
Childbirth

The average duration of pregnancy in 1993 was 39.2 weeks. The majority (90%) of pregnancies lasted between 37 and 41 weeks. Preterm births, those less than 37 weeks, accounted for 6% of all pregnancies (16,200). Teenage mothers and those aged over 35 were more likely to have a preterm birth.

In 1993, 68% of confinements (174,000) resulted in deliveries that required no medical intervention. Caesarean section was the method of delivery in 19% of confinements. A further 13% required another form of medical intervention, such as forceps or vacuum extraction.

As the age of mother increases, the likelihood of a caesarean birth increases. Teenage mothers were least likely to have a caesarean birth (11%), while 31% of births to women aged 40 years and older were caesarean.

Caesarean births(a), 1993

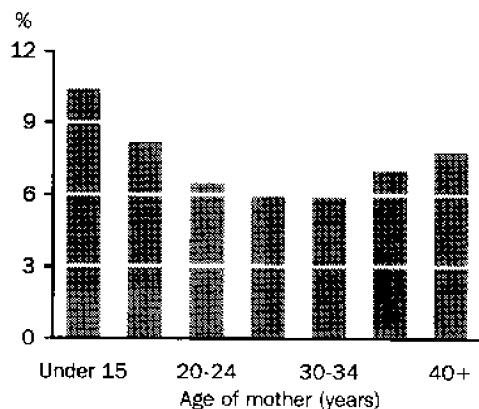


(a) As a proportion of births to mothers in each age group.

Source: Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, *Australia's Mothers and Babies*.

In 1995, 13 in 1,000 confinements resulted in twins, and 0.4 in 1,000 resulted in other multiple births. The proportion of confinements resulting in multiple births has increased substantially in the last 20 years. This is due mainly to the increased use of in vitro and other fertilisation techniques.

Birthweight is considered to be a key indicator of health status of babies. In 1993, 6% of all babies born weighed less than 2,500g and were therefore considered to be of low birthweight. The percentage of low birthweight babies tended to be higher for babies born to younger and older mothers. 10% of babies born to mothers under 15 years and 8% of babies born to mothers over 40 years, had a low birthweight. These women were also more likely to have preterm births. Indigenous mothers were twice as likely to have a baby with low birthweight.

Low birthweight babies(a), 1993

(a) As a proportion of births to mothers in each age group.

Source: Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, *Australia's Mothers and Babies*.

The likelihood of a baby having a low birthweight is much greater for multiple births. Half of the twins born in 1993 had a low birthweight, as did almost all triplets (96%).

Assisted conception

Infertile couples can be treated by in vitro fertilisation (IVF) and gamete intrafallopian transfer (GIFT) in order to assist conception. In 1994 there were 23 IVF units in Australia and five in New Zealand. Due to confidentiality, the following data includes both Australian and New Zealand centres.

In 1994, 8,098 treatment cycles of IVF (using uterine transfer of embryos) and 3,653 cycles for GIFT were commenced. 84% of IVF cycles and 87% of GIFT cycles progressed to the stage of oocyte retrieval, that is, the retrieval of an immature egg cell (ovum) from the ovary. Pregnancies

resulted from 12% of these IVF cycles and 24% of GIFT cycles.

Of the 2,300 pregnancies conceived in 1994 from IVF, 74% resulted in a live birth, as did 75% of pregnancies from GIFT. About one-fifth of both IVF and GIFT pregnancies resulted in spontaneous abortion. 17% of IVF pregnancies and 27% of GIFT pregnancies, of at least 20 weeks gestation, resulted in multiple births in 1994.

Perinatal and infant mortality

Both infant mortality rates (deaths within 12 months of birth) and perinatal death rates (within four weeks of births) have declined markedly over the past two decades (see Summary Indicators p. 14). Factors such as health education and the availability of health services for pregnant women and newborn babies have led to this decline.

Number and pregnancy rates for selected stages of treatment commenced in 1994

Stage of treatment	IVF	GIFT
Treatment cycles started	8 098	3 653
Cycles with oocyte retrieval	6 795	3 163
Cycles with embryo/gamete transfer	5 524	1 470
	rate(a)	rate(a)
Clinical pregnancy rate	13.9	27.6
Live birth pregnancy rate	10.2	20.7

(a) Rate per 100 oocyte retrieval cycles.

Source: Australian Institute of Health and Welfare and the Fertility Society of Australia, *Assisted Conception, Australia and New Zealand*.

Although the mortality rate remains higher for male than female infants, the gap has closed since 1975. Female infant mortality rates dropped from 12.1 per 1,000 live births in 1975 to 5.1 in 1995. The corresponding decline for males was 16.3 to 6.1 deaths per 1,000 live births.

Data on Indigenous infant mortality is available for South Australia, Western Australia and the Northern Territory. In 1995, the Northern Territory had the highest rate of Indigenous infant mortality,

18.5 deaths per 1,000 Indigenous live births. The lowest rate was in South Australia, 16.2 per 1,000 live births.

In 1995, the total perinatal death rate was 8.1 per 1,000 live births and fetal deaths. The perinatal death rate was lower for female babies than male babies, 7.6 and 8.7 respectively. Babies born to teenage mothers and mothers over 40 years had a higher perinatal death rate, 14.1 and 12.0 respectively.

Summary indicators

Population	units	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990
Total population						
Females	'000	8 018	8 146	8 283	8 427	8 554
Males	'000	8 000	8 118	8 249	8 388	8 511
Median age						
Females	years	31.7	32.0	32.2	32.5	32.8
Males	years	30.4	30.7	30.9	31.2	31.4
Overseas born (of population)						
Females	%	20.5	20.9	21.4	21.9	22.2
Males	%	21.9	22.1	22.6	23.0	23.3
Born in non-English speaking countries (of population)						
Females	%	11.4	11.7	12.0	12.4	12.7
Males	%	12.3	12.6	12.9	13.2	13.4
Growth rate						
Females	%	1.4	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.5
Males	%	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.5
Settler arrivals						
Females	'000	52.3	64.5	75.8	66.6	61.0
Males	'000	51.0	63.8	75.7	64.5	60.6
Projections	units	2001	2006	2011	2016	2021
Total population						
Females	'000	9 632	10 105	10 547	10 969	11 375
Males	'000	9 538	9 990	10 405	10 791	11 153

Population	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
Total population						
Females	8 669	8 774	8 861	8 956	9 060	9 185
Males	8 615	8 715	8 796	8 887	8 989	9 105
Median age						
Females	33.0	33.4	33.7	34.0	34.4	34.7
Males	31.7	32.0	32.4	32.7	33.0	33.3
Overseas born (of population)						
Females	22.5	22.5	22.5	22.4	22.5	22.7
Males	23.4	23.4	23.2	23.1	23.1	23.3
Born in non-English speaking countries (of population)						
Females	13.0	13.2	13.3	13.4	13.5	13.8
Males	13.7	13.8	13.8	13.8	13.9	14.1
Growth rate						
Females	1.3	1.2	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.4
Males	1.2	1.2	0.9	1.0	1.2	1.3
Settler arrivals						
Females	59.0	48.2	34.8	41.1	46.6	54.3
Males	57.6	46.0	30.9	36.9	40.8	44.8
Projections	2026	2031	2036	2041	2046	2051
Total population						
Females	11 759	12 106	12 403	12 648	13 086	13 280
Males	11 482	11 768	12 007	12 210	12 616	12 794

Births	units	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989
Women aged 15-44 years	'000	3 654	3 734	3 820	3 903	3 975
Proportion of female population	%	r46.2	r46.6	r46.9	r47.1	r47.2
Number of births	'000	247.3	243.4	244.0	246.2	250.9
Crude birth rate (per 1,000 population)	no.	15.7	15.2	15.0	14.9	14.9
Total fertility rate (per woman)	no.	1.93	1.87	1.85	1.84	1.84
Births outside marriage (of total live births)	%	15.5	16.8	18.0	19.0	20.2
Births outside marriage acknowledged by father (of total births outside marriage)	%	68.2	70.6	73.0	74.4	75.9
IVF pregnancies	no.	536	675	866	1 151	1 133
Infant mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)	no.	10.0	8.8	8.7	8.7	8.0
Perinatal mortality rate (per 1,000 live births and fetal deaths)	no.	11.8	11.5	10.6	10.7	9.9
Characteristics of mothers	units	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989
Median age (all confinements)	years	27.3	27.5	27.7	27.9	28.2
Median age at married first confinement	years	26.3	26.5	26.8	27.1	27.3
Aged under 20 years (all confinements)	%	5.9	5.9	5.8	5.7	5.7
Aged 40 years and over (all confinements)	%	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.1	1.2

Births	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
Women aged 15-44 years	4 031	4 067	4 084	4 088	4 097	4 117
Proportion of female population	r47.1	r46.9	r46.5	r46.1	45.8	45.4
Number of births	262.6	257.2	264.2	260.2	258.1	256.2
Crude birth rate (per 1,000 population)	15.4	14.9	15.1	14.7	14.5	14.2
Total fertility rate (per woman)	1.91	1.85	1.90	1.87	1.85	1.82
Births outside marriage (of total live births)	21.9	23.0	24.0	24.9	25.6	26.6
Births outside marriage acknowledged by father (of total births outside marriage)	77.1	79.5	81.0	81.7	82.2	83.3
IVF pregnancies	1 236	1 312	1 511	1 707	2 254	n.y.a.
Infant mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)	8.2	7.1	7.0	6.1	5.9	5.7
Perinatal mortality rate (per 1,000 live births and fetal deaths)	10.3	9.6	9.4	8.2	8.0	8.1
Characteristics of mothers	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
Median age (all confinements)	28.3	28.5	28.7	28.9	29.0	29.1
Median age at married first confinement	27.6	27.8	28.0	28.3	28.5	28.6
Aged under 20 years (all confinements)	5.8	5.8	5.4	5.1	5.0	5.0
Aged 40 years and over (all confinements)	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.6	1.8	1.9

Definitions and data references

- Age-specific fertility rates** — live births registered during the calendar year, according to age of mother, per 1,000 of the female resident population of the same age, as estimated for 30 June. Births to mothers under 15 years are included in the 15–19 year age group, and births to mothers aged 50 years and over are included in the 45–49 year age group.
Reference: *Births, Australia* (Cat. no. 3301.0).
- Birth** — the delivery of a child, irrespective of the duration of pregnancy, who after being born, breathes or shows any other evidence of life such as a heart-beat. Multiple births are counted separately.
Reference: *Births, Australia* (Cat. no. 3301.0).
- Confinement** — pregnancy resulting in at least one live birth.
Reference: *Births, Australia* (Cat. no. 3301.0).
- Crude birth rate** — the number of live births registered during the calendar year per 1,000 of the mean estimated resident population at 30 June of that year.
Reference: *Births, Australia* (Cat. no. 3301.0).
- Ex-nuptial births** — those where the parents were not in a registered marriage at the time of the birth, irrespective of whether the parents married at a later date or if the child was subsequently adopted.
Reference: *Births, Australia* (Cat. no. 3301.0).
- Family visa category** — migrants sponsored by a relative who is an Australian citizen or permanent resident in Australia.
Reference: Bureau of Immigration, Multicultural and Population Research, *Immigration Update*.
- GIFT** — gamete intrafallopian transfer is an assisted conception method used to treat infertility. In this procedure, ova and sperm are placed directly into the fallopian tubes and fertilisation then occurs in vivo.
Reference: Australian Institute of Health and Welfare and the Fertility Society of Australia, *Assisted Conception, Australia and New Zealand*.
- Growth rate** — change in the population during the year expressed as a percentage of the population in June of each year.
Reference: *Australian Demographic Statistics* (Cat. no. 3101.0).
- Infant mortality rate** — the number of deaths of children under one year of age per 1,000 live births.
Reference: *Deaths, Australia* (Cat. no. 3302.0).
- IVF** — in vitro fertilisation is an assisted conception method used to treat infertility. In this procedure, ova and sperm are collected from the parents and fertilised in a laboratory.
Reference: Australian Institute of Health and Welfare and the Fertility Society of Australia, *Assisted Conception, Australia and New Zealand*.
- Life expectancy** — the average number of years a person might expect to live if the age-specific death rates of the given period continued throughout their lifetime.
Reference: *Deaths, Australia* (Cat. no. 3302.0).
- Low birthweight** — babies with a birthweight of less than 2,500g.
Reference: Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, *Australia's Mothers and Babies*.
- Median age** — the age at which half the population is older and half is younger.
Reference: *Estimated Resident Population by Sex and Age: States and Territories of Australia* (Cat. no. 3201.0).
- Net reproduction rate** — the number of daughters that a cohort of newborn female babies would bear during their lifetime, if they adhered to the prevailing age-specific fertility and mortality rates for that year. It accounts for women who will not survive until the end of their reproductive life.
Reference: *Births, Australia* (Cat. no. 3301.0).

Non-English speaking countries — all overseas countries except United Kingdom, Ireland, New Zealand, South Africa, Canada and the United States of America.

Reference: *Estimated Resident Population by Country of Birth, Age and Sex, Australia* (Cat. no. 3221.0).

Perinatal mortality rate — the number of babies who are stillborn or die within four weeks of birth, per 1,000 total births.

Reference: *Causes of Death, Australia* (Cat. no. 3303.0).

Permanent settler arrivals — people arriving from overseas with the intention of settling permanently in Australia including: those with migrant visas. (regardless of stated intended period of stay), New Zealand citizens who indicate an intention to settle, and those who are otherwise eligible to settle, such as overseas born children of Australian citizens.

Reference: *Migration, Australia* (Cat. no. 3412.0).

Preterm birth — births before 37 weeks of gestation.

Reference: Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, *Australia's Mothers and Babies*.

Projected population — is calculated using the cohort component method which takes a base year population for each sex by single years of age and advances it year by year by applying assumptions about future fertility, mortality and migration. Several series of population projections are produced based on different combinations of assumptions about mortality, fertility and migration. The assumptions underlying Series A most closely reflect prevailing trends and comprise: declining rates of mortality; a constant level of fertility (total fertility rate of 1.88 for Australia); low levels of overseas migration (rising to 70,000 per year by the year 2000 then remaining constant); and continuing high levels of interstate migration.

Reference: *Projections of the Populations of Australia, States and Territories* (Cat. no. 3222.0).

Projected population (Indigenous) — a standard approach to population estimation was not possible as satisfactory data on births, deaths and internal migration are not generally available. Therefore, a method based on the use of life tables and census data was used. The medium series was used, that is, it implies a medium overall growth rate.

Reference: *Experimental Projections of the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Population* (Cat. no. 3231.0).

Skill visa category — migrants with special occupational skills, distinguished talents or a business background that will make an economic contribution to Australia.

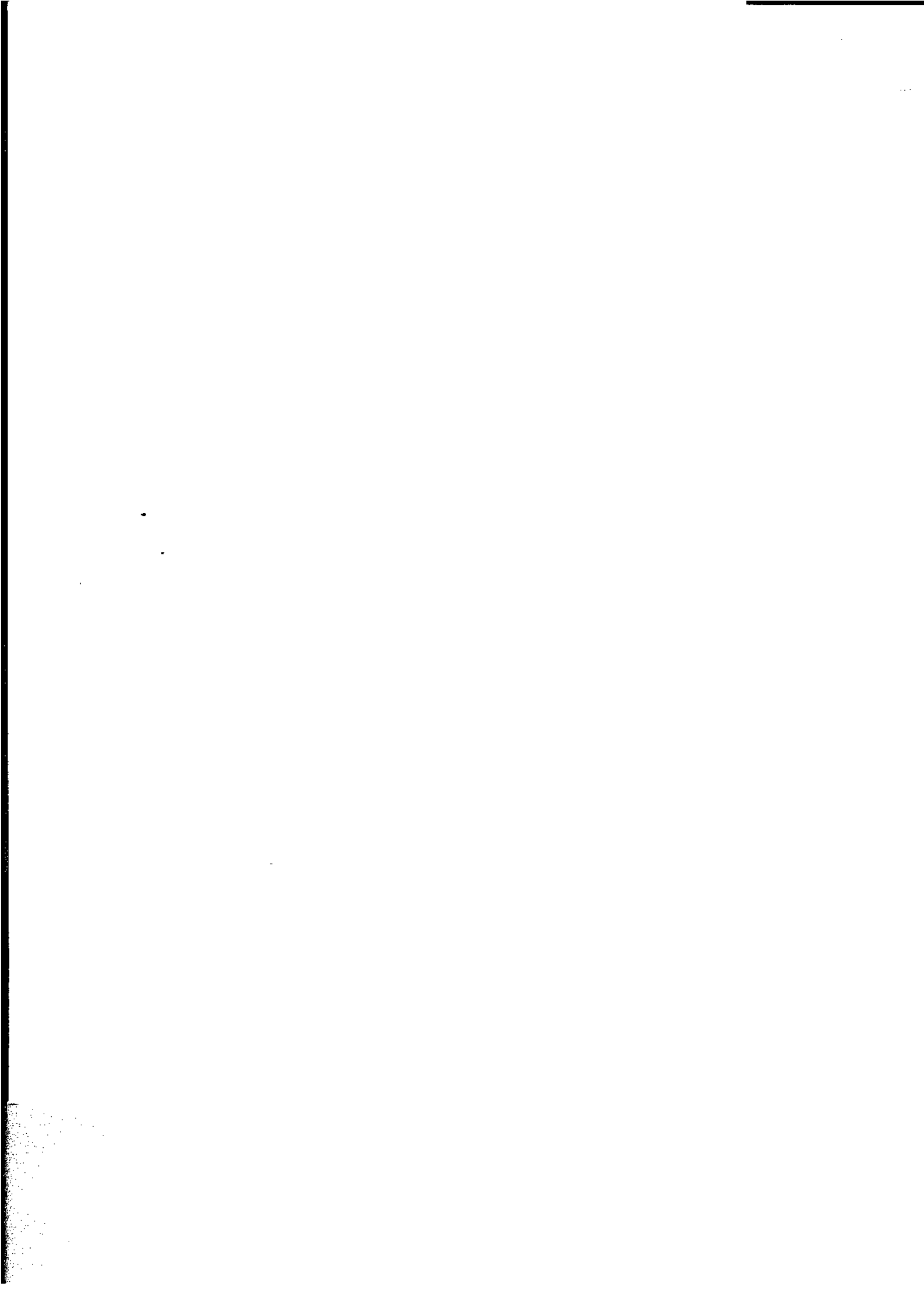
Reference: Bureau of Immigration, Multicultural and Population Research, *Immigration Update*.

Total fertility rate — represents the number of children a woman would bear during her lifetime if she experienced the age-specific fertility rates of the year during her childbearing lifetime.

Reference: *Births, Australia* (Cat. no. 3301.0).

Total population — estimated resident population at 30 June.

Reference: *Estimated Resident Population by Sex and Age, States and Territories of Australia* (Cat. no. 3201.0).

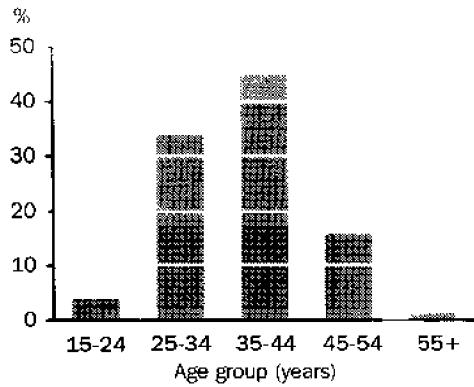


**Living arrangements
and housing**

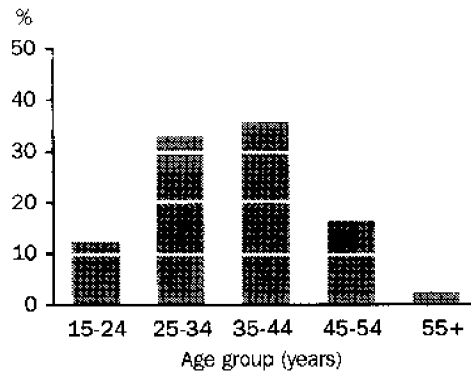


Summary graphs

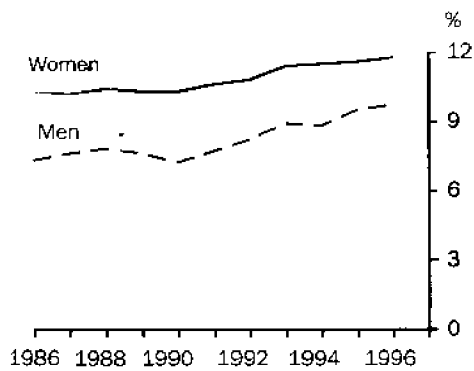
Women in couple families with dependants, June 1996



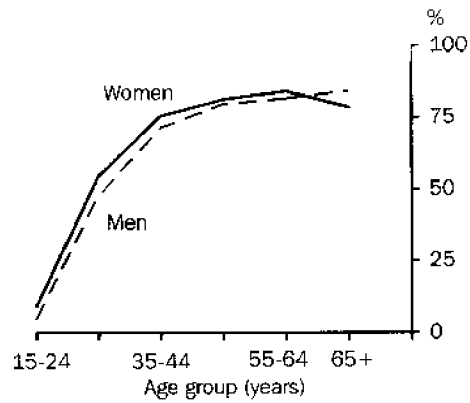
Lone mothers with dependants, June 1996



Proportion of people living alone



Home owners and purchasers, 1994



Introduction

Over the past 20 years there have been significant changes in the structure of Australian families. The stereotypical family of two parents with dependent children no longer accounts for the majority of families. Greater diversity in living arrangements is evident through increases in the number of one parent families, the proportion of couples choosing to live in de facto relationships, as well as the proportion of the population living alone.

These changes can be attributed to a number of causes including, changes in social attitudes, legislative changes (such as the introduction of the *Family Law Act 1975*) and the ageing of the population.

Living arrangements and associated housing needs change throughout the family life cycle but are also influenced by other factors such as income and health.

Access to adequate and affordable housing continues to be an objective of governments. To this end, public housing and rental assistance are available to support people to find suitable housing. Australians have a high rate of home ownership and support is also given to some groups of people who wish to purchase a home.

The Supported Accommodation Assistance Program (SAAP) is a joint program of commonwealth and state governments which assists people who are homeless, at risk of becoming homeless, or in crisis.

Statistical activities

The first Family Characteristics Survey was conducted in April 1997. The survey, planned to be conducted every three years, collects information about family formation and composition. Data collected for the first time in 1997 include care and visiting arrangements for children whose parents no longer live together and child support payments.

The 1993 evaluation of the SAAP, *Moving Forward*, highlighted the need for more effective data collection, analysis and reporting. The SAAP National Data Collection commenced in July 1996 and will produce nationally consistent data including the socio-demographic characteristics of clients and why they are seeking assistance. Results will be available during 1997.

Family status

A family is comprised of people related through blood, marriage or adoption. While many family relationships extend beyond the household, families are defined for statistical purposes in terms of those related people who live together.

In June 1996, 83% of women aged 15 years and over were members of a family. 59% of women were married (either registered or de facto) and 8% were lone mothers (with either dependent or non-dependent children). The remainder (15%) were non-dependent children, dependent students living with their parent(s), or other family members.

Family size has decreased slightly during the last decade from an average of 3.3 people in 1986 to 3.1 people in 1996.

Social changes which have contributed to this decline include an increase in the proportion of women delaying childbirth until their 30s (see p. 7), a decline in fertility in the 1970s and the formation of smaller families as a result of divorce and separation.

Couple families

The majority (84%) of families were couples, either with or without dependants. However, the proportion of families which are comprised of two parents and dependent children has continued to decline, from 46% in 1986 to 41% in 1996 (see Summary Indicators p. 28). Nearly one-third of women live in a couple family without dependants. This includes women who are yet to have children, those whose children have left home and those who will never have children.

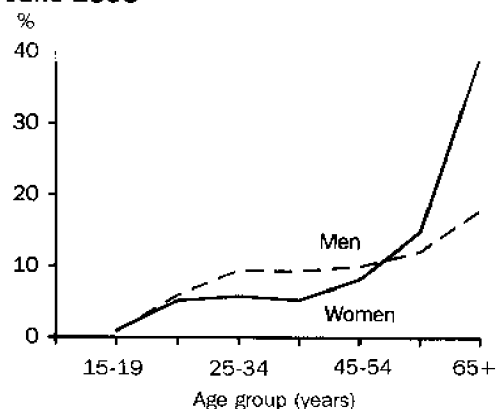
Family status of people aged 15 years and over, June 1996

Family status	Women		Men	
	'000	%	'000	%
<i>Member of a family</i>	5 660.2	82.7	5 562.0	82.7
Couple	4 044.7	59.1	4 130.3	61.4
With dependants	1 950.3	28.5	2 003.5	29.8
Without dependants	2 094.4	30.6	2 126.8	31.6
Lone parent	567.3	8.3	101.2	1.5
With dependants	407.3	5.9	61.2	0.9
With non-dependants only	160.0	2.3	40.0	0.6
Other(a)	1 048.2	15.3	1 330.4	19.8
<i>Not a member of a family</i>	1 186.1	17.3	1 164.3	17.3
Living alone	807.1	11.8	654.5	9.7
Not living alone	379.0	5.5	509.9	7.6
Total	6 846.3	100.0	6 726.3	100.0

(a) Includes dependent students, non-dependent children and other family members.

Source: *Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Families, Australia* (Cat. no. 6224.0).

Proportion of people living alone, June 1996



Source: *Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Families, Australia* (Cat. no. 6224.0).

Most women in couple families with dependants (79%) were aged 25–44 years (see Summary Graphs p. 20). In older age groups there is a drop in the proportion of women with dependants, due to children leaving home or remaining at home but no longer being dependent.

Lone parent families

There were 672,000 one parent families in June 1996, representing 14% of all families. 85% of these families were headed by a woman and 70% of all one parent families had one or more dependent children (467,200).

The proportion of families with one parent and dependent children has remained relatively stable during the past decade. In 1996, 8% of all families were lone mothers with dependent children, while 1% were lone fathers with dependent children (see Summary Indicators p. 28). However, in the 10 years to 1996, the proportion of all

families with dependants who are one parent families has increased from 14% to 19%. Women with dependent children are thus increasingly more likely to be lone parents.

In June 1996, lone mothers with dependants tended to be younger than mothers in a couple. 45% of lone mothers were aged under 35, compared to 38% of mothers in a couple (see Summary Graphs p. 20).

Living alone

More women than men live alone. In June 1996, 12% of women (807,100) and 10% of men (654,500) were living alone. This was an increase since June 1986 when the comparable figures were 10% and 7% respectively (see Summary Indicators p. 28).

The difference between the number of women and men who live alone is primarily due to the greater number of older women, mainly widows, who live alone. Men were slightly more likely than women to live alone from the age of 20 to 45 years.

However, after this age the proportion of women living alone increases dramatically. 40% of women aged 65 and over lived alone in 1996.

Family dynamics

Families are formed and reformed in various ways: through the starting or ending of relationships (either married or de facto); through the death of a family member; through the birth of a child; or a

Marital status of women

Marital status	1985	1995
	%	%
Never married	24.2	27.0
Married	60.1	56.4
Widowed	10.7	9.7
Divorced	5.0	6.8
Total	100.0	100.0
	'000	'000
Total	6 087.9	7 179.7

Source: *Marriages and Divorces, Australia* (Cat. no. 3310.0).

child leaving home. Many of these changes are concerned with partnering. In the absence of longitudinal information on family transitions, the dynamics of families are best examined in terms of trends in marital status.

During the last decade there has been an increase in the proportion of women who have never married and a corresponding decrease in the proportion of women who are in a registered marriage. In June 1995, 27% of women aged 15 and over had never married, compared to 24% in 1985. This is largely a reflection of the increased age at which couples now enter registered marriage. However, as age increases so does the likelihood that a woman will have been married. For example, in 1995 less than 5% of women in their 50s had never married.

Marriages

The marriage rate has decreased during the last decade. In 1985, there were

48 marriages per 1,000 not married women, compared to 35 per 1,000 in 1995 (see Summary Indicators p. 28).

Women tend to marry men who are older than themselves. In 1995, the median age at marriage of women was 26.8 years, compared to 29.2 years for men. During the past decade the median age at marriage for both women and men has slowly increased from 24.5 years for women and 27.0 years for men in 1985. Both the increasing age at first marriage and the increased incidence of remarriage following divorce are responsible for this increase.

Reflecting the increasing age at marriage, the age distributions of women who married in 1985 and 1995 differ. Over half of women who married in 1985 were less than 25 years, compared to just over one-third of brides in 1995.

Age of bride

Age group (years)	1985(a)	1995
	%	%
Under 25	53.6	36.4
25-34	32.3	44.4
35-39	5.6	7.4
40-44	3.2	4.4
45-49	2.0	3.3
50 and over	3.3	4.1
Total	100.0	100.0
	'000	'000
Total	115.5	109.4

(a) Data for 1985 were affected by late registrations in NSW.

Source: *Marriages and Divorces, Australia* (Cat. no. 3310.0).

De facto relationships

Associated with the decline in the marriage rate and the corresponding fall in the proportion of women who are in a registered marriage, there has been an increase in the proportion of couples living in de facto relationships. In 1992, there were 345,200 de facto couples, representing just under 10% of women and men aged 15 and over who were living with a partner.

Women in de facto relationships tended to be younger than those in a registered marriage. 70% of women in a de facto relationship were under 35, compared to 29% of women in registered marriages.

62% of women in a de facto relationship had never been married. Women in de facto relationships were more likely to have been previously divorced than women in registered marriages (28% compared to 8%).

Australian-born women were slightly more likely to be in a de facto relationship than women born overseas (6% and 4% respectively).

Divorce

In 1976, the *Family Law Act 1975* came into effect. Under this legislation, the irrevocable breakdown of a marriage became the only ground for divorce. Following this change in legislation, which made it easier for couples to obtain a divorce, the rate of divorce increased, leading to an increase in the proportion of divorced people in the population. In 1976,

Women living with a partner, 1992

Age group (years)	De facto relationship		Registered marriage	
	'000	%	'000	%
15-24	113.8	32.9	170.3	4.5
25-34	132.1	38.2	918.3	24.3
35-44	63.8	18.4	982.7	26.0
45-54	29.9	8.6	729.8	19.3
55-64	*3.4	1.0	525.0	13.9
65 and over	*2.6	*0.8	456.7	12.1
Total	345.6	100.0	3 782.7	100.0

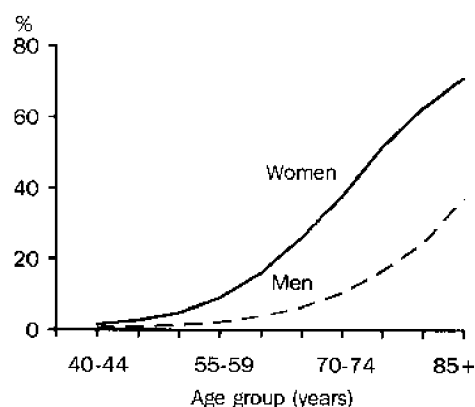
Source: Unpublished data, Survey of Families in Australia.

2% of women were divorced compared to 7% in 1995.

The divorce rate peaked at 18.8 per 1,000 married women in 1976, the first year of operation for the new Family Law Act, but declined soon after. In the early 1980s the divorce rate was about 12 per 1,000 married women. During the past decade, the rate has shown a slight upward trend from 10.9 divorces per 1,000 married women in 1985 to 12.3 in 1995 (see Summary Indicators p. 28). In 1995, 49,700 divorces were granted, the highest number since 1976, when 63,200 divorces were granted.

The median age at divorce in 1995 was 37.1 years for women and 39.9 years for men. The median duration of marriage until separation has been similar through the last decade and was 7.6 years in 1995 (see Summary Indicators p. 28).

In 1995, just under half of divorce applications were lodged by the wife, about

Widows and widowers(a), 1995

(a) As a proportion of the population in the relevant age group.

Source: *Marriages and Divorces, Australia* (Cat. no. 3310).

one-third were lodged by the husband and the remainder were joint applications.

Widowhood

The proportion of women who are widows has remained stable during the past decade, at around 10%. There were four widows to every widower in 1995. The higher number of widows is mainly due to women's greater life expectancy (see p. 46) and the tendency for most women to marry men a few years older than themselves (see p. 24).

The proportion of women who are widowed increases considerably with age. In 1995, 2% of women aged 40-44 years were widowed, compared to 16% of women aged 60-64 years and 71% of women aged 85 and over. There is a corresponding increase for men, although not at the same rate (37% of men aged 85 and over were widowed).

Housing

Housing needs and arrangements vary as people move through different stages of the family life cycle. Both the types of dwellings people live in and their housing tenure are affected. In 1994 most people owned or were purchasing a home. 36% of women and 32% of men owned their own home, while 25% of both women and men were purchasing a home. Many of these women and men would have been co-owners and co-purchasers.

Owners and purchasers

For both women and men, the probability of owning or purchasing a home increased until the age of 64 years. After this age there was a slight decline in the proportion of women in this group (see Summary Graphs p. 20). With the exception of those aged 65 years and over, women were slightly more likely than men to own or be purchasing their home at all ages. This is related to the fact that many homes are jointly owned by

Type of housing tenure, 1994

Type	Women	Men
	%	%
Owner	36.3	32.3
Purchaser	24.7	24.9
Renter	22.1	20.5
Rent free	11.7	13.3
Boarder	4.9	8.8
Total(a)	100.0	100.0
	'000	'000
Total(a)	6 903.4	6 770.0

(a) Includes other type of tenure.

Source: Unpublished data, Australian Housing Survey.

couples where on average women are slightly younger than men.

In 1994, 83% of couple families without dependants were either home owners or purchasers, compared to 79% of couples with dependants. Lone parents with dependants were less likely to own or be purchasing their own home (44% of lone mothers and 61% of lone fathers).

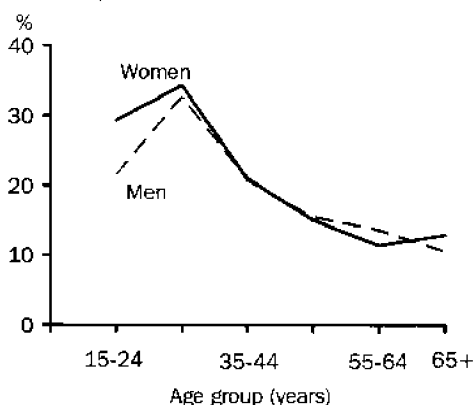
Over half of women living alone were home owners compared to just over one-third of men living alone. Again this reflects the differing age profiles of men and women who live alone with women more likely to be in older age groups where home ownership rates are higher.

Renters

The peak age for renting in 1994 was 25-34 years, when one-third of women and men were renters. The decline in the proportion of renters in older age groups is mainly due to families purchasing their own home.

One parent families were more likely to be renting (46%) than couple families (18%).

Renters, 1994



Source: Unpublished data, Australian Housing Survey.

Half of lone mothers with dependants were renters, compared to just over one-third of lone fathers with dependants. Given their older age profile, women living alone were less likely to be renting than men living alone (30% to 41% respectively).

Of all female renters, one-third lived in public housing and a further one-tenth were on public housing waiting lists. One-fifth of all male renters lived in public housing, with 7% on waiting lists.

Summary indicators

Family status	units	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990
People living in a family (of population)						
Women	%	85.1	84.6	84.8	84.4	84.6
Men	%	86.4	85.5	85.6	85.3	85.9
People living alone (of population)						
Women	%	10.3	10.2	10.4	10.3	10.3
Men	%	7.3	7.6	7.8	7.6	7.2
Couple families with dependants (of all families)	%	45.8	45.5	45.7	44.7	44.3
One parent families with dependent children (of all families)						
Female head	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	6.8	7.1
Male head	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	0.9	1.0
Marriages						
	units	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989
Marriage rate per 1,000 unmarried women	rate	47.5	45.8	43.9	43.6	42.6
Median duration of marriage to separation	years	7.6	7.6	7.3	7.3	7.3
Divorces						
Divorce rate per 1,000 married women	rate	10.9	10.6	10.6	10.8	10.7
Divorces involving children	%	60.6	59.7	58.6	57.5	55.3

Family status	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
People living in a family (of population)						
Women	84.3	84.0	83.3	83.3	83.3	82.7
Men	85.1	84.7	83.7	83.9	83.2	82.7
People living alone (of population)						
Women	10.6	10.8	11.4	11.5	11.6	11.8
Men	7.7	8.2	8.9	8.8	9.5	9.7
Couple families with dependants (of all families)	43.7	43.4	42.9	41.6	41.4	40.6
One parent families with dependent children (of all families)						
Female head	7.4	7.9	7.9	7.8	8.5	8.4
Male head	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.2	1.2	1.3
Marriages	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
Marriage rate per 1,000 unmarried women	41.6	39.6	39.1	37.9	36.4	35.0
Median duration of marriage to separation	7.3	7.4	7.4	7.6	7.7	7.6
Divorces						
Divorce rate per 1,000 married women	10.9	11.5	11.5	12.1	12.0	12.3
Divorces involving children	55.6	54.2	52.9	52.6	n.a.	n.a.

Definitions and data references

Average size of family — average number of members in family.

Reference: *Focus on Families: Demographics and Family Formation* (Cat. no. 4420.0).

Couple families — those in which there are two married people (including de facto).

Reference: *Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Families, Australia* (Cat. no. 6224.0).

De facto relationship — where a man and woman live together as husband and wife but are not registered as married to each other.

Reference: *Focus on Families: Demographics and Family Formation* (Cat. no. 4420.0).

Dependants — all family members under 15 years of age and family members aged 15–24 years attending an educational institution full-time, except those classified as husbands, wives, lone parents or other family heads.

Reference: *Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Families, Australia* (Cat. no. 6224.0).

Divorce rate — the number of divorces granted per 1,000 married women.

Reference: *Marriages and Divorces, Australia* (Cat. no. 3310.0).

Divorces involving children — divorces of couples with unmarried children of the marriage, who were under 18 years of age at the time of application for divorce. Under the *Family Law Act 1975*, children adopted or born outside marriage and children from a former marriage may be included. Excludes married children and those aged 18 or over.

Reference: *Marriages and Divorces, Australia* (Cat. no. 3310.0).

First marriage rate — number of people marrying for the first time per 1,000 never married people at 30 June.

Reference: *Marriages and Divorces, Australia* (Cat. no. 3310.0).

Marriage rate — number of marriages per 1,000 not married women aged 15 years and over at 30 June. In 1984 there were abnormal delays in the registration of New South Wales marriages. These and subsequent delays in 1985 had been made up by 1986.

Reference: *Marriages and Divorces, Australia* (Cat. no. 3310.0).

Median age at marriage — the age at which there are as many people marrying above the age as there are marrying below it.

Reference: *Marriages and Divorces, Australia* (Cat. no. 3310.0).

Median duration of marriage to separation — the median interval between the date of marriage and the date of final separation. That is, the date from which the period of living apart is calculated for the purpose of establishing grounds for divorce.

Reference: *Marriages and Divorces, Australia* (Cat. no. 3310.0).

Lone parent families — a parent with at least one child of their own.

Reference: *Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Families, Australia* (Cat. no. 6224.0).

Owners — people who do not owe anything for loans used to purchase the dwelling nor have a mortgage.

Reference: *Australian Housing Survey: Selected Findings* (Cat. no. 4181.0).

Purchasers — people who own their home but are still paying off the mortgage or loan for that home.

Reference: *Australian Housing Survey: Selected Findings* (Cat. no. 4181.0).

Renters — people who pay rent for the dwelling, hold the current lease or other form of tenure for the dwelling and the owner or purchaser of the dwelling is not a usual resident of the dwelling.

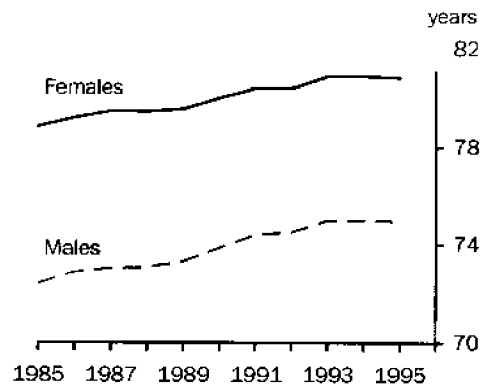
Reference: *Australian Housing Survey: Selected Findings* (Cat. no. 4181.0).

Health

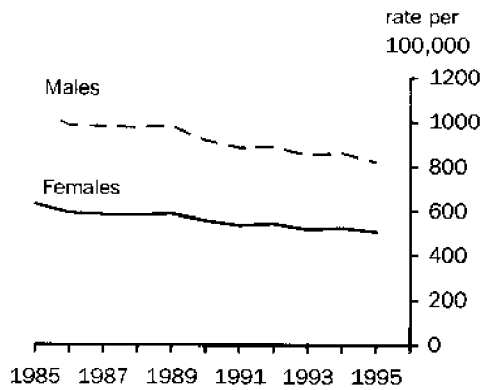


Summary graphs

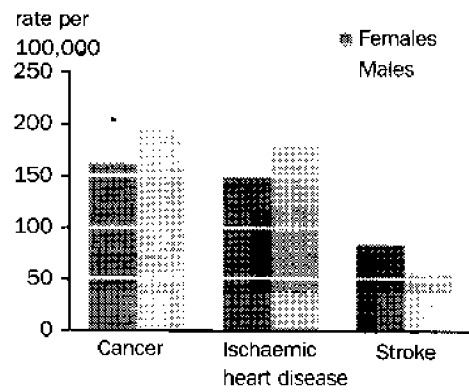
Life expectancy at birth



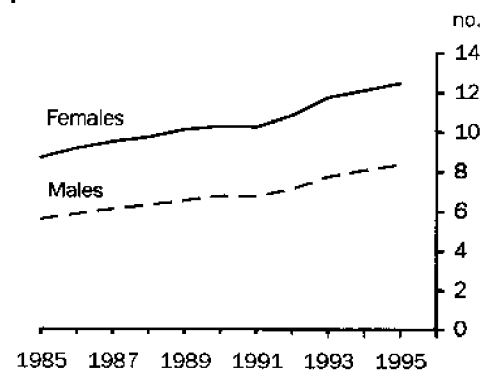
Standardised death rate



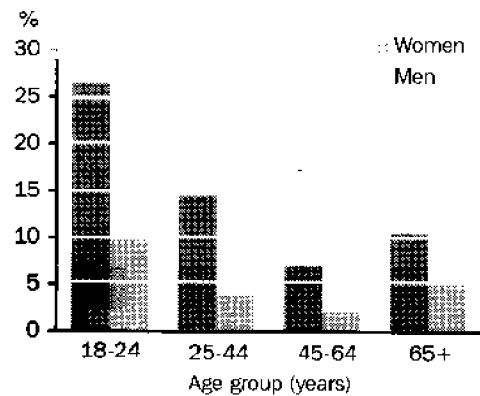
Crude death rate, 1995



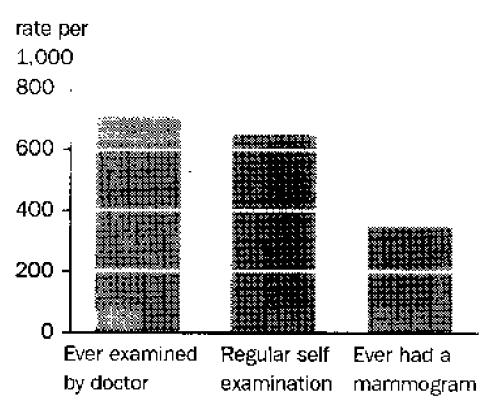
Average Medicare services per person



Proportion of people who were underweight, 1995



Breast cancer screening of women aged 18 and over, 1995



Introduction

Overall, Australia is one of the healthiest nations in the world. Life expectancy for both women and men is high, with women expected to live slightly longer than men. However, this is not the case for Indigenous Australians, who have a significantly lower life expectancy and lower standard of health.

Women tend to use more health services than men. This is related to their specific health needs, such as those associated with child bearing and their longer life expectancy.

Preventative health services are an important aspect of health care in Australia. For women, services are available for screening of cervical cancer (pap smear test) and breast cancer (mammograms and examinations). Screening can detect cancers at an early stage, increasing the chance of long-term survival.

Statistical activities

First results from the 1995 National Health Survey were released in December 1996 (Cat. no. 4392.0). This publication contains national estimates for indicators of health status, health related actions taken, health risk factors and women's health topics. During the next 18 months a number of other publications will be released.

Results from the 1995 National Nutrition Survey will be released in the second half of 1997.

The Health and Welfare of Australia's Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples (Cat. no. 4704.0), a joint publication by the ABS and the Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, was released in April 1997. The publication presents information on housing and environmental health issues, health risk factors, perceptions of health and access to and use of health services.

The Survey of Mental Health and Well-being will be conducted during 1997. The survey will estimate the prevalence of several major mental disorders, such as depression, anxiety and Post Traumatic Stress Disorder.

The 1998 Survey of Disability, Ageing and Carers is currently being developed.

The Women's Health Australia study, funded by the Department of Health and Family Services, is being undertaken by a research team at the University of Newcastle. It is a longitudinal study designed to track several cohorts of women over a 20 year period. The aim of the study is to clarify cause and effect relationships between a range of biological, psychological, social and lifestyle factors and women's physical health, emotional well-being and use of and satisfaction with health services. Approximately 40,000 women have been recruited to the study and analysis of the baseline data has begun.

Mortality

In 1995, the method of calculating life expectancy changed. Life expectancy is now calculated using three years of population and deaths data, in order to reduce the impact of annual fluctuations. Using this new method, life expectancy for females born in 1995 was 80.8 years, compared to 75.0 years for males (see Summary Indicators p. 46).

The life expectancy of Indigenous people is calculated using an alternative method, based on census counts. In 1993, life expectancy was estimated to be 64 years for females and 57 years for males.

Leading causes of death, 1995

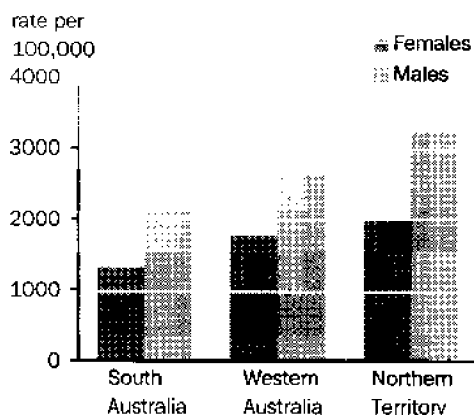
Selected causes of death	Females	Males
	%	%
<i>Circulatory diseases(a)</i>	46.1	39.6
Ischaemic heart disease	22.9	24.4
Stroke	12.9	7.7
<i>Cancer(a)</i>	24.9	28.9
Breast	4.5	—
Lung	3.4	7.1
Colon	2.8	2.6
Prostate	—	3.9
Dementia	3.8	1.7
Accidents	2.7	4.5
Bronchitis, emphysema and asthma	1.5	1.6
Suicide	0.8	2.8
	'000	'000
Total(b)	58.9	66.2

(a) Other types of diseases are included in the sub-total.

(b) Includes deaths by other causes.

Source: Unpublished data, Death Registrations.

Standardised(a) Indigenous death rate, 1995



(a) Standardised to June 1991 population.

Source: Deaths, Australia (Cat. no. 3302.0).

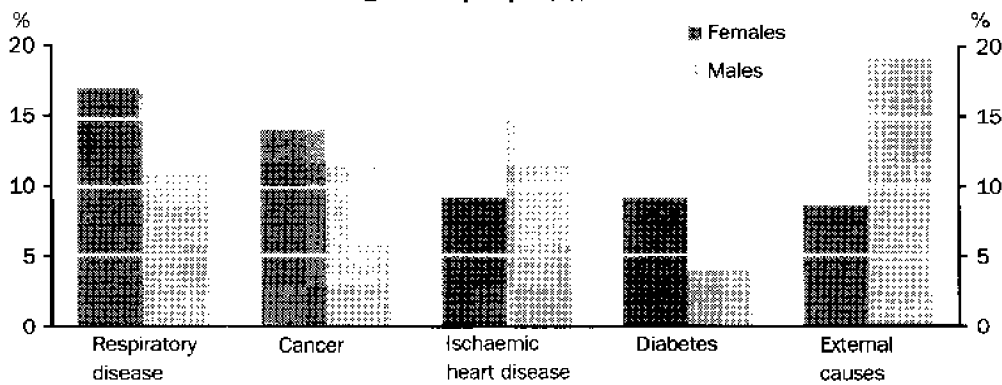
The three main causes of death in 1995 were cancer, ischaemic heart disease and stroke, accounting for 61% of both female and male deaths.

Women were less likely than men to die from cancer or ischaemic heart disease. 162 per 100,000 women died from cancer, compared to 213 per 100,000 men. However, women were more likely than men to die from stroke, 84 compared to 57 per 100,000 (see Summary Graphs p. 32).

The proportion of female deaths which were from lung cancer (3%) remains roughly half that of male deaths but has increased from 1% in 1975. The proportion of female deaths which were from external causes such as accidents and suicides was also smaller than for male deaths.

National figures are not available on Indigenous mortality. However, in 1995, the standardised death rates for Indigenous

Main causes of death of Indigenous people(a), 1995



(a) Includes South Australia, Western Australia and the Northern Territory.

Source: *Deaths, Australia* (Cat. no. 3302.0).

people in South Australia, Western Australia and the Northern Territory, were lower for females than males. The Northern Territory had the highest rate of both female and male Indigenous deaths (1,980 and 3,230 per 100,000, respectively).

In 1995, 317 Indigenous females and 521 Indigenous males died in South Australia, Western Australian and the Northern Territory. The main causes of death for Indigenous females and males differed significantly. For females, the main causes of death were respiratory disease (17%) and cancer (14%). In contrast, the main causes of death for Indigenous males were external causes, such as accidents (19%) and ischaemic heart disease (16%).

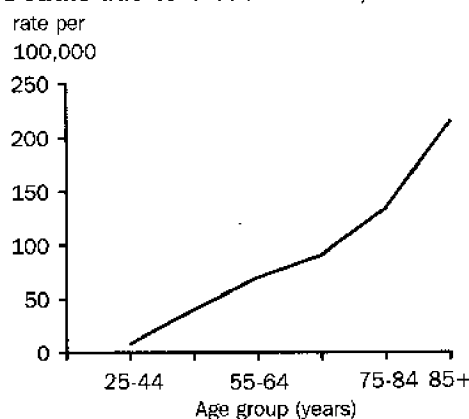
Breast cancer

The most common cause of cancer death for females was breast cancer. In 1995, 2,629 women died from breast cancer (4% of all female deaths). This equated to a rate of 29 per 100,000 women (see Summary Indicators p. 46).

The risk of developing, or dying, from breast cancer increases significantly with age. The average age of diagnosis is 64 years (National Health and Medical Research Council (1995) *The Management of Early Breast Cancer*). In 1995, 8 per 100,000 women aged between 25 and 44 years died of breast cancer compared to 215 per 100,000 women aged 85 and over.

Despite being more at risk, women over 64 years were less likely than women aged

Deaths due to breast cancer, 1995



Source: *Causes of Death, Australia* (Cat. no. 3303.0).

45–64 years, to have used any method of breast cancer screening (see p. 43).

Dementia

Dementia is caused by a range of chronic brain disorders and is characterised by memory loss and deterioration of the intellect, reasoning and will. In 1995, almost all people (99%) who died due to dementia were aged 65 and over.

Between 1981 and 1995, the number of women aged 65 and over who died due to dementia increased more than six fold (from 347 to 2,228). The number of male deaths from this cause rose from 235 to 1,085 over the same period. In part, this increase in numbers can be attributed to the ageing of the population.

However, even when standardised for age, the death rate of women aged 65 and over due to dementia has more than tripled. In 1981 there were 39 deaths per 100,000 women, compared to 141 per 100,000 in

1995. For men, the death rate from dementia almost tripled over the same time.

Improvements in diagnosis and certification of dementia may account for part of this increase (Australian Institute of Health and Welfare (1994) *Mortality Surveillance Australia 1981–92*). In addition, due to the time lag between onset and diagnosis of dementia, the likelihood of diagnosing dementia as the underlying cause of death increases as the proportion of older people in the population increases.

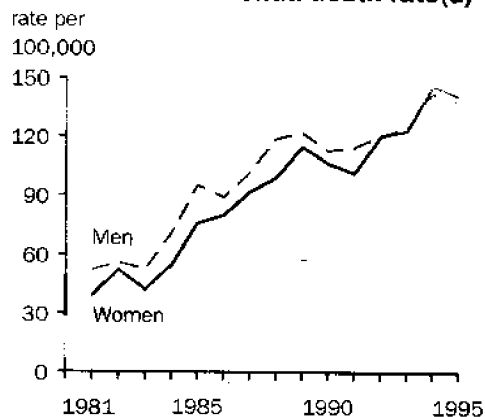
Firearm deaths

Between 1980 and 1995, 1,128 females and 9,022 males died as a result of a suicide, accident, homicide, or other methods using a firearm. Males were 14 times more likely than females to have died as a result of suicide, and almost nine times more likely to have died as a result of an accident. In the case of homicide, the difference was less substantial, with males almost twice as likely as females to have died from firearm deaths over the 16 year period.

Since 1980, the standardised death rate of females due to firearms has declined slightly, from 1.3 per 100,000 to 0.5 per 100,000 in 1995. The equivalent rate for males declined more significantly over the same period (from 8.7 to 4.8 per 100,000).

In 1995, 47 females and 432 males died from firearm causes. Suicides accounted for 49% of female and 84% of male firearm deaths. An additional 45% of female and 11% of male firearm deaths were due to homicide.

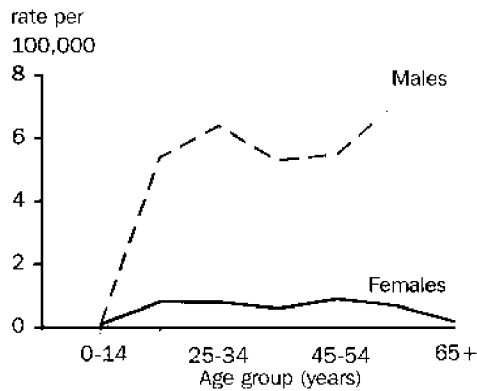
Standardised dementia death rate(a)



(a) Standardised to June 1991 population.

Source: *Causes of Death, Australia* (Cat. no. 3303.0).

Deaths due to firearms, 1995



Source: *Firearms Deaths, Australia* (Cat. no. 4397.0).

In 1995, the age-specific death rate of females from firearms was low (below 1 per 100,000) for all age groups. However, the rate increased sharply for males aged 15–24 years (5.4 per 100,000 males). The highest death rate was for men aged 65 and over (7.4 per 100,000).

Health actions

The National Health Survey was conducted in 1995. In the two weeks prior to the survey interview, eight out of ten women and seven out of ten men had taken some type of action related to their health. The actions identified ranged from hospitalisation to reduced levels of activity.

The most common action was using medication. Almost three-quarters of females and two-thirds of males had taken some form of medication in the previous two weeks.

More than one-quarter of females and one-fifth of males had consulted a doctor in the previous two weeks. 11% of females and

8% of males had consulted other health professionals such as, chemists, opticians, chiropractors and naturopaths.

A similar proportion of both females and males took time off work or school (about 7%), or reduced their normal level of daily activity (7%) due to illness or injury.

Medicare services

Use of Medicare services has steadily increased during the last decade, with females continuing to use services more often than males. The number of Medicare services used does not equate to the number of visits to a doctor. One visit to a doctor may result in tests, which would each be counted as an individual service.

Health actions taken in previous two weeks, 1995

Selected actions(a)	Females	Males
	%	%
Used medication	74.1	63.5
Consulted health professional	37.2	29.6
Doctor	26.1	20.4
Dentist	5.9	5.3
Other	11.5	8.4
Hospital inpatient	0.9	0.7
Hospital outpatient	2.7	2.8
Took action(b)	80.1	71.1
Total(c)	9 067.3	8 993.7

(a) More than one action could be taken.

(b) Includes other actions such as days off work or school or days of reduced activity.

(c) Includes people who took no action.

Source: *National Health Survey: First Results, Australia* (Cat. no. 4392.0).

In 1994-95, females used Medicare services, on average, just over once a month. In comparison, males used an average of eight services a year (see Summary Graphs p. 32).

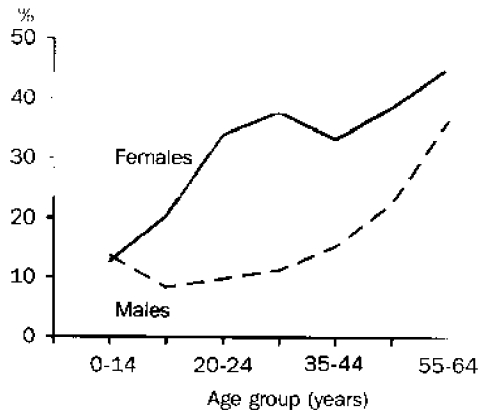
People aged over 64 are excluded from the remaining analysis, as Medicare data for this age group are unreliable due to delays in removing records when people die. In addition, people in this age group are more likely to use public hospital care which is not billed through Medicare.

In 1994-95, females under the age of 65 years were almost twice as likely as males to have used Medicare services more than once a month (30% compared to 16%). The likelihood of using Medicare services more than once a month varied considerably with age.

Girls aged under 15 were the least likely to have used Medicare services more than once a month (13%). The proportion of females using Medicare services more than once a month increased in each age group, with the exception of women aged 35-44. 45% of women aged 55-64 used Medicare services more than once a month.

While the proportion of boys under 15 years using Medicare services more than once a month was similar to girls, men in other age groups were less likely than females to use these services. Men aged 15-19 years were least likely to have used services more than once a month (8%). After this age, the proportion using services this frequently steadily increased. 37% of

People who used Medicare services more than once a month, 1994-95



Source: Unpublished data, Health Insurance Commission.

men aged 55-64 years had used Medicare services more than once a month.

These differences are partly due to female health problems, related to menstruation, child bearing and menopause, for which medical attention may be sought.

Long-term conditions

In 1995, 76% of females and 73% of males reported a long-term health condition, that is, any condition which has lasted or which is expected to last six months or more. The most common conditions reported by both females and males were sight disorders (52% and 42% respectively). Arthritis and hayfever were the next most common conditions for females, as were hayfever and deafness for males. Females were one and a half times more likely than males to report arthritis and three times more likely to report varicose veins. However, females were almost half as likely as males to experience deafness.

People who reported a long-term condition, 1995

Selected conditions(a)	Females	Males
	%	%
Sight disorder	51.9	42.4
Arthritis	17.8	11.6
Hayfever	14.7	13.1
Sinusitis	12.1	8.3
Asthma	11.6	10.9
Varicose veins	8.3	2.6
Deafness	6.9	12.1
Back problems	5.6	7.0
Total(b)	76.4	72.7

(a) More than one condition could be reported.

(b) Includes other long-term conditions.

Source: *National Health Survey: First Results, Australia* (Cat. no. 4392.0).

Self-assessed health

As well as asking about people's experience of illnesses, injuries and disabilities, the National Health Survey asked people aged 15 and over to assess their overall health, using a scale ranging from poor to excellent.

Even though women were more likely than men to report long-term conditions, a similar proportion of women and men (about 83%) assessed their health as being good to excellent. 91% of females aged 15-19 years reported their health as being good to excellent. This proportion declined with age, however, about two-thirds of women aged 65 and over still reported good to excellent health. The pattern of assessment was similar for men.

Health risk factors

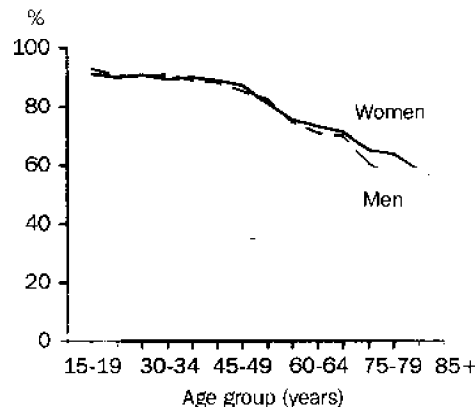
Data from the 1995 National Health Survey indicate that both women and men aged 18 years and over are leading healthier lifestyles than in 1989-90. This is evident through a decline in the proportion of people who regularly smoke, or drink alcohol at a high risk level. At the same time the proportion of people undertaking medium to high levels of exercise has increased. Both women and men were more likely to be of an acceptable weight in 1995, while the proportions who were underweight or overweight declined.

Weight

Body weight can be used as an indicator of a person's risk of developing health conditions such as heart disease, high blood pressure and diabetes, or may be related to eating disorders.

At the time of the survey, about half of both women and men were assessed as being of

People who assessed their health as good to excellent, 1995



Source: *National Health Survey: First Results, Australia* (Cat. no. 4392.0).

Selected health risk factors, 1995

Age group (years)	Underweight		Overweight or obese		Regularly smoke		Total(a)	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
	%	%	%	%	%	%	'000	'000
18-24	26.5	9.6	12.5	21.1	28.0	32.3	945.6	971.5
25-44	14.5	3.8	22.8	38.3	24.6	31.9	2 792.7	2 790.1
45-64	7.0	2.1	35.6	48.9	17.3	23.9	1 845.5	1 894.2
65 and over	10.5	5.1	28.1	34.9	8.8	14.4	1 218.9	936.8
Total	13.4	4.3	25.8	38.3	20.3	27.2	6 802.7	6 592.6

(a) Total women and men in each age group.

Source: National Health Survey: First Results, Australia (Cat. no. 4392.0).

an acceptable weight (using a body mass calculation).

Women were three times more likely than men to be underweight (13% compared to 4%) but less likely to be overweight or obese (26% compared to 38%). Younger women were more likely than older women to be underweight. 26% of women aged 18-24 years were underweight compared to 7% of women aged 45-64 years. The proportion of women aged 65 and over who were underweight increased slightly to 10% (see Summary Graphs p. 32).

People aged 45-64 were the most likely to be overweight or obese (36% of women and 49% of men).

Smoking

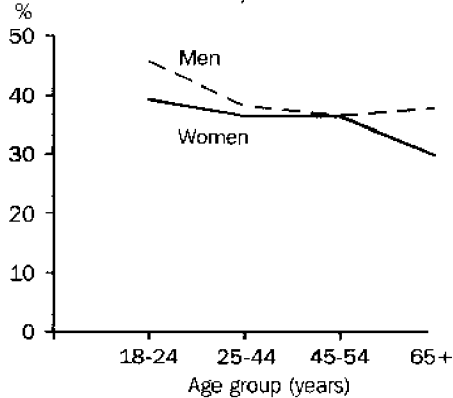
In 1995, 20% of women aged 18 and over and 27% of men in this age group reported that they regularly smoked one or more cigarettes a day. This was a decrease from 1989-90, when the corresponding proportions were 25% and 32% respectively. The proportions of women

and men who smoked declined steadily with age.

Having smoked in the past may also have an impact on a person's current or future health status. At the time of the survey, 23% of women and 32% of men were ex-smokers. Men aged 45 and over were twice as likely as women in the same age group to indicate they were ex-smokers. This reflects the fact that women in this age cohort were almost twice as likely as men to have never taken up smoking (63% compared to 33%).

In 1995, women aged 18-24 years were slightly less likely than their male counterparts to be regular smokers. Younger women were more likely than older women to currently smoke. However, the most noticeable change has been the decline in the proportion of young men who had ever smoked. 42% of 18-24 year old men had ever smoked, compared to 73% of men aged 65 and over.

Proportion of people who exercised at moderate to high levels in the previous two weeks, 1995



Source: Unpublished preliminary data, National Health Survey.

A significant proportion of both women and men aged 18–24 years reported that they had never smoked (about 60%).

Exercise

More than six in ten women and men reported that they did no exercise or had low levels of exercise in the two weeks prior to the survey.

A similar proportion of women and men reported moderate to high levels of exercise (36% and 39% respectively). The proportion of women who reported moderate to high levels of exercise declined with age.

Alcohol

In 1995, 46% of women and 66% of men had drunk alcohol in the previous week. 15% of women and 6% of men reported that they never drank alcohol. This was a slight increase from the corresponding

proportions in 1989–90. 13% and 5% respectively.

3% of women and 8% of men who had drunk alcohol in the week prior to the interview, were assessed as having consumed quantities which placed them in a high health risk group. A further 11% of women and 8% of men were assessed as being in a medium risk group.

At all ages, women who had drunk alcohol in the previous week were less likely than men to be classified as being in the high risk group. This difference was more significant in the younger age groups. For example, women aged 18–24 years were more than three times less likely than men in this age group to have drunk at high risk levels (3% compared to 11%).

Time since alcohol was last drunk by people aged 18 and over, 1995

Time since last drunk	Women	Men
	%	%
1 week or less	45.7	66.2
More than 1 week and less than 2 weeks	7.5	8.2
2 weeks to less than 1 month	7.7	5.0
1 month to less than 12 months	13.6	8.4
12 months or more	8.7	5.5
Never	15.2	6.1

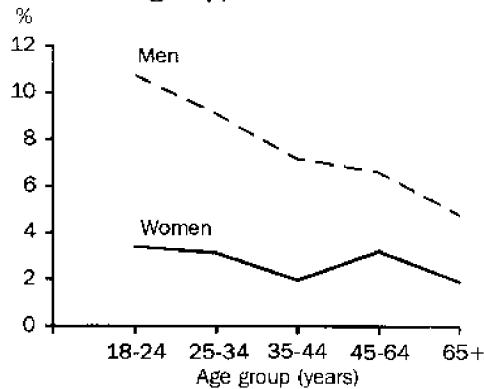
'000 '000

Total(a) **6 802.5** **6 592.9**

(a) Includes people who could not remember when they last drank alcohol.

Source: Unpublished preliminary data, National Health Survey.

Proportion of people who drank in the previous week who were in a high health risk group, 1995



Source: Unpublished preliminary data, National Health Survey.

For women, the likelihood of drinking at a high risk level did not vary greatly with age. In contrast, for men, the likelihood declined with age. Men aged 65 or over were half as likely as 18–24 year old men to have drunk at a high risk level.

Sun protection

About 80% of both women and men reported that in the month prior to the survey, they had taken sun protection measures. This included using sunscreen, an umbrella or sunglasses, or avoiding the sun. Women were also more likely than men to have moles and freckles checked regularly (65% compared to 54%).

Preventative health

Cervical cancer screening

In 1995, approximately one in 200 female deaths were due to cervical cancer. It has been estimated that about 90% of cases of cervical cancer could be prevented through

the use of biennial screening (pap smears) to detect early cell abnormalities in the cervix (Department of Human Services and Health (1994) *Screening to Prevent Cervical Cancer*).

It is recommended that women have a pap smear test every two years. In 1995, 572 per 1,000 women reported having a test within this period. 808 per 1,000 women had a pap smear test at some time in their life.

Women aged 25–34 were most likely to have been tested in the last two years (748 per 1,000). For women aged 35 and over, the likelihood of having had a recent test declined with age. 96 per 1,000 women aged 75 and over had been tested in the last two years. In part, this is because ongoing testing is not always recommended for women over 70 whose last two recent pap smears were clear (Department of Human Services and Health (1995) *The Interim Evaluation of the Organised Approach to Preventing Cancer of the Cervix 1991–95*). However, almost half of the women aged 75 and over reported never having a pap smear test.

Breast cancer screening

Although there appears that little can be done to prevent breast cancer, it is possible to reduce deaths from this cause if the cancer is identified at an early stage (Australian Health Ministers' Advisory Council (1990) *Breast Cancer Screening In Australia: Future Directions*).

The three most common methods of screening for breast cancer are self

Women's use(a) of breast and cervical cancer screening(b), 1995

Type of screening	Age group (years)						Total rate
	18-24	25-34	35-44	45-64	65-74	75 and over	
Cervical cancer							
Have ever had a pap smear test	585.7	882.8	912.2	891.5	730.8	460.7	807.5
Have had pap smear test in last two years	523.6	747.9	703.7	564.8	302.8	96.3	571.7
Breast cancer							
Regular self examination	521.2	637.0	709.1	725.1	624.8	511.1	650.3
Have ever had examination by doctor	370.6	695.2	803.9	839.4	760.7	555.5	708.5
Have ever had mammogram	34.5	109.2	318.0	666.3	550.1	294.7	349.5

(a) Rate per 1,000 women in each age group.

(b) Includes only those women who participated in this section of the survey.

Source: National Health Survey: First Results, Australia (Cat. no. 4392.0).

examination, checks by a health professional or mammograms. In 1995, 650 per 1,000 women reported they performed their own regular self examinations (see Summary Graphs p. 32).

The likelihood of developing breast cancer increases with age (see p. 35), and generally, national screening programs (especially mammograms) are aimed at women over the age of 50. Women aged 45-64 years were the most likely to have used any form of breast cancer screening. For example, 666 per 1,000 women in this age group had had a mammogram. Despite being most at risk of developing breast cancer, the proportion of women participating in all types of screening declined for women over the age of 64.

Hormone replacement therapy

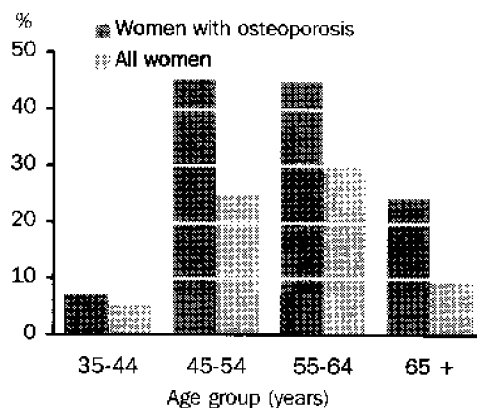
Hormone replacement therapy (HRT) is commonly prescribed for symptoms of

menopause or as a preventative measure against osteoporosis. Studies have linked the use of HRT with a reduction in the development of osteoporosis and a reduced incidence of bone fractures in women after menopause, as well as with a reduced risk of cardiovascular disease in older women. However other studies have linked the use of HRT with certain types of cancers (UNDP/UNFPA/WHO/World Bank Special Programme of Research (1996) *Progress in Human Reproduction Research*).

In 1995, 16% of women aged 35 and over were using HRT. This proportion was almost twice as high for women with osteoporosis (32%). Almost 30% of women who were taking HRT at the time of the survey had been doing so for more than five years.

At all ages, a higher proportion of women with osteoporosis than all women were

Proportion of women using hormone replacement therapy, 1995



Source: Unpublished preliminary data, National Health Survey.

taking HRT. However, this difference was most marked for women aged 45-54 years. 47% of women in this age group who had osteoporosis were taking HRT, compared to 26% of all women.

Breastfeeding

The promotion, encouragement and support of breastfeeding is a major objective of nutrition and health promotion in Australia (National Health and Medical Research Council (1996) *Infant Feeding Guidelines for Health Workers*).

Breastfeeding has major health advantages for both infants and mothers. For infants, it provides nutritional, immunological and psychological benefits and is of particular value for the first four to six months of life. For mothers, breastfeeding assists with contraception and may give protection against pre-menopausal breast cancer and osteoporosis (Curtin University School of

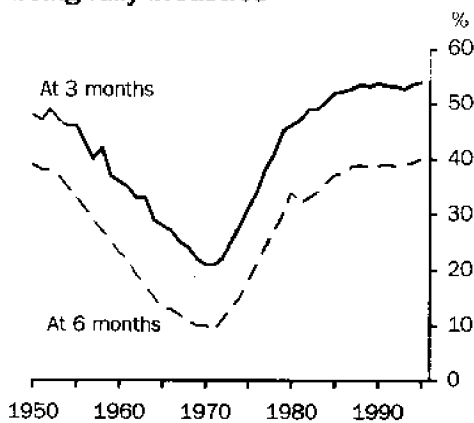
Public Health (1996) *Curtin Nutrition Newsletter, No 1*).

In 1995, 89% of infants less than one year old had been breastfed at some time. 11% of children under one had never been breastfed compared to 18% of children who were three years old.

Time series data on the proportion of children who have been breastfed are not available at a national level. However, in Victoria, data from infant welfare centres have been collected since the 1950s. In Victoria, the proportion of children being fully breastfed at three months of age dropped significantly between 1950 and 1970 (from 48% to 21%). Over the same period, the number of children being fully breastfed at six months declined from four in 10 to one in 10.

The turnaround in breastfeeding since the 1970s is, in part, due to health promotion

Proportion of Victorian babies(a) being fully breastfed



(a) Who attended infant welfare centres.
Source: Unpublished data, Department of Health and Community Services (Victoria).

programs by government and support, education and assistance provided by organisations such as the Nursing Mothers Association of Australia, which was founded in 1964. Groups such as this have been instrumental in changing community attitudes and improving the acceptance of breastfeeding (Margaret Lund-Adams, Nutrition Program, University of Queensland (1995) *Breastfeeding in Australia* in Simopoulos A. P. et al (eds) *Behavioural and Metabolic Aspects of Breastfeeding*).

Private medical practitioners

In 1994-95, a survey of private medical practitioners was conducted, using a sample taken from the Health Insurance Commission's Medicare Provider file.

Almost one-quarter of the medical practitioners surveyed were women (5,810). A higher proportion of younger than older doctors were women. For example, 47% of general practitioners

Average weekly hours worked, 1994-95

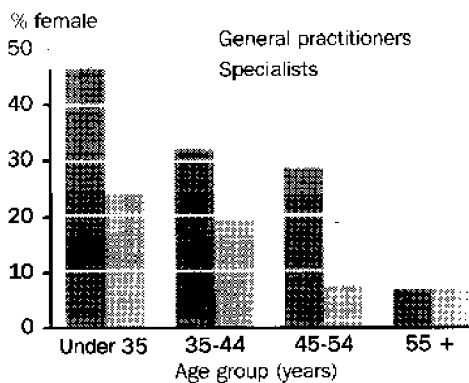
Hours	General practitioners		Specialists	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
	%	%	%	%
Less than 30	31.5	4.3	14.2	5.5
30-49	41.0	23.5	32.2	16.2
50 or more	27.5	72.2	53.6	78.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total	4.7	11.7	1.1	8.4

Source: *Private Medical Practitioners, Australia* (Cat. no. 8689.0)

under 35 were women (1,340) compared to 7% of general practitioners aged 55 and over (230).

Female doctors were less likely to be specialists than males (19% compared to 42%). Women were most likely to specialise in psychiatry (27%), anaesthesia (18%) or internal medicine (18%), while men were more likely to specialise in surgery (27%) or internal medicine (23%).

Medical practitioners, 1994-95



Source: *Private Medical Practitioners, Australia* (Cat. no. 8689.0)

Female doctors were more likely than males to work a standard week (30-49 hours) or to work part-time. Almost three-quarters of female general practitioners worked less than 50 hours a week, compared to 28% of male general practitioners. The difference in hours worked was less marked in specialist positions. More than half female specialists and more than three-quarters of male specialists worked 50 hours a week or more.

Summary indicators

Health status	units	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989
Life expectancy at birth						
Female	years	78.8	79.2	79.5	79.5	79.6
Male	years	72.4	72.9	73.1	73.1	73.3
Total number of deaths						
Females	'000	54.7	52.8	53.7	54.8	57.3
Males	'000	64.2	62.2	63.6	65.1	66.9
Standardised death rate (per 100,000 population)						
Female	rate	632	591	584	581	589
Male	rate	1 055	984	980	975	981
Causes of death	units	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989
Cancer death rate (per 100,000 population)						
Female	rate	152	152	150	154	154
Male	rate	199	196	198	204	205
Breast cancer death rate (per 100,000 females)	rate	28	28	28	28	29
Lung cancer death rate (per 100,000 population)						
Female	rate	16	17	16	19	19
Male	rate	57	54	55	56	56
Ischaemic heart disease death rate (per 100,000 population)						
Female	rate	177	174	173	167	172
Male	rate	236	226	222	215	216
Health services	units	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989
Average Medicare services per person						
Females	no.	8.7	9.2	9.6	9.9	10.3
Males	no.	5.6	5.9	6.2	6.4	6.7

Health status	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
Life expectancy at birth						
Female	80.1	80.4	80.4	80.9	80.9	80.8
Male	73.9	74.4	74.5	75.0	75.0	75.0
Total number of deaths						
Females	55.4	55.1	57.5	56.5	59.2	58.9
Males	64.7	64.1	66.1	65.1	67.5	66.3
Standardised death rate (per 100,000 population)						
Female	557	537	543	517	525	507
Male	919	885	890	851	862	820
Causes of death	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
Cancer death rate (per 100,000 population)						
Female	154	158	157	160	160	162
Male	203	204	210	210	217	213
Breast cancer death rate (per 100,000 females)	29	29	28	30	30	29
Lung cancer death rate (per 100,000 population)						
Female	19	20	20	21	21	22
Male	52	53	54	52	54	52
Ischaemic heart disease death rate (per 100,000 population)						
Female	164	157	164	151	157	149
Male	202	194	196	186	186	179
Health services	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
Average Medicare services per person						
Females	10.3	10.2	10.8	11.8	12.1	12.5
Males	6.7	6.7	7.1	7.7	8.1	8.4

Definitions and data references

Age-specific death rates — the number of deaths by age and sex per 100,000 of the mid-year estimated resident population in a particular age/sex group.

Reference: *Causes of Death, Australia* (Cat. no. 3303.0).

Alcohol intake health risk level — derived from the type and quantity of alcohol consumed on up to three occasions in the last week, and grouped into low, moderate and high health risk levels as defined by the National Health and Medical Research Council. It does not take into account whether consumption in the last week was different to usual.

Reference: *National Health Survey: Users' Guide* (Cat. no. 4363.0).

Average Medicare services — used per Australian resident in each financial year. Figures prior to 1989 are estimates derived from Medicare enrolments. Medicare services are billed through the Health Insurance Commission. Excludes: public hospitals; military service veterans and their dependants; services covered by third party insurance; workers' compensation; and government funded community health services.

Reference: Health Insurance Commission, *Annual Report*.

Body mass — derived by dividing a person's weight by the square of their height (as reported by the person). People are then categorised into one of four categories (underweight, acceptable weight, overweight and obese) consistent with recommendations of the National Health and Medical Research Council.

Reference: *National Health Survey: First Results, Australia* (Cat. no. 4392.0).

Causes of death — are classified according to the Ninth (1975) Revision of the World Health Organisation's International Classification of Diseases (ICD9).

Reference: *Causes of Death, Australia* (Cat. no. 3303.0).

Circulatory diseases — includes ischaemic heart disease, stroke and other diseases of the circulatory system, as defined by the Ninth (1975) Revision of the World Health Organisation's International Classification of Diseases (ICD9).

Reference: *Causes of Death, Australia* (Cat. no. 3303.0).

Crude death rate — number of deaths registered during the calendar year per 100,000 of the estimated mean resident population for the year ended 31 December.

Reference: *Deaths, Australia* (Cat. no. 3302.0).

Dementia — includes senile and presenile organic psychotic conditions, dementia in conditions defined elsewhere and alzheimers disease.

Reference: *Causes of Death, Australia* (Cat. no. 3303.0).

Doctor consultations — any occasion in the two weeks prior to interview when a person discussed their health with, or received treatment from, a doctor (including general practitioners and specialists).

Reference: *National Health Survey: Users' Guide* (Cat. no. 4363.0).

Firearms deaths — includes deaths by firearm caused by accident, suicide, assault (homicide), legal intervention or undetermined reason, as defined by the Ninth (1975) Revision of the World Health Organisation's International Classification of Diseases (ICD9).

Reference: *Firearms Deaths, Australia* (Cat. no. 4397.0).

Fully breastfed — infants whose only regular milk intake is breast milk (although they may be receiving some solids).

Reference: Department of Human Services (Victoria), Community Child Health Unit.

Ischaemic heart disease — includes heart attack, aneurisms of the heart and other ischaemic heart disease, as defined by the Ninth (1975) Revision of the World Health Organisation's International Classification of Diseases (ICD9).

Reference: *Causes of Death, Australia* (Cat. no. 3303.0).

Life expectancy at birth — the average number of years a person might expect to live if the age-specific death rates of the given period continued throughout their lifetime. The method of calculating life expectancy changed in 1995. It is now calculated using three years of population and deaths data. In addition, population and deaths data are based on Australian residents who were living in Australia over the three year period. Residents temporarily overseas are excluded.

Reference: *Deaths, Australia* (Cat. no. 3302.0).

Long-term condition — any medical condition (illness, injury or disability) which has lasted or is expected to last six months or more.

Reference: *National Health Survey: First Results* (Cat. no. 4392.0).

Private medical practitioner — general practitioners and specialists in private practice whose main activity is the provision of medical services to patients. Excludes medical practitioners who mainly worked in institutions such as hospitals, universities and government departments who primarily service non-private patients.

Reference: *Private Medical Practitioners, Australia* (Cat. no. 8689.0).

Regularly smoke — people who smoke, on average, one or more cigarettes a day (as reported by the respondent). Includes packeted and roll-your-own cigarettes, cigars and pipes. Excludes chewing tobacco and smoking of non-tobacco products.

Reference: *National Health Survey, First Results, Australia* (Cat. no. 4392.0).

Respiratory disease — includes pneumonia, influenza, bronchitis, asthma, emphysema and other respiratory diseases, as defined by the Ninth (1975) Revision of the World Health Organisation's International Classification of Diseases (ICD9).

Reference: *Causes of Death, Australia* (Cat. no. 3303.0).

Standardised death rate — the direct method of standardisation yields the overall death rate (per 100,000 population) that would have prevailed in the June 1991 Australian population, if it had experienced the death rates at each age of the population being studied. The indirect method is used to calculate rates for small populations such as Indigenous people. Standard age-specific rates for the total Australian 1991 population are applied to the relevant population and actual deaths are compared to expected deaths. The crude death rate of the standard (1991) population is then multiplied by the ratio of actual deaths to expected deaths to give the standardised death rate of the population under study.

Reference: *Deaths, Australia* (Cat. no. 3302.0).

Sun protection — measures taken for protection from the sun in the month prior to interview. Includes sunscreen, umbrella, hat, clothing, sunglasses and avoiding the sun.

Reference: *National Health Survey: Users' Guide* (Cat. no. 4363.0).

Use of medications — the consumption or other use of any medication, pills or ointments (including alternative medications) during the two weeks prior to the survey.

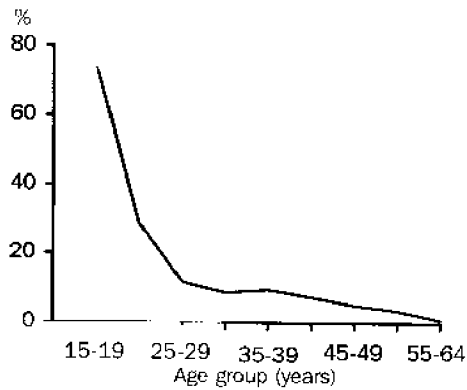
Reference: *National Health Survey: Users' Guide* (Cat. no. 4363.0).

**Education and
training**

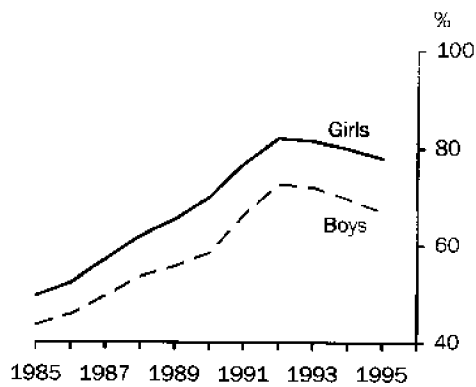


Summary graphs

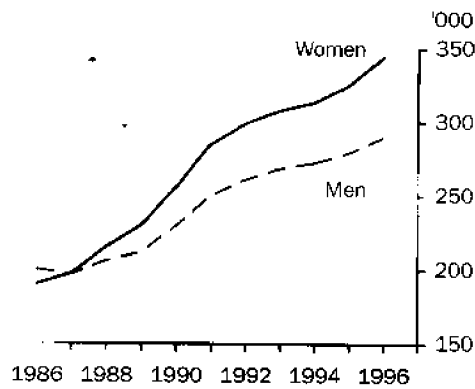
Women's participation in education, May 1996



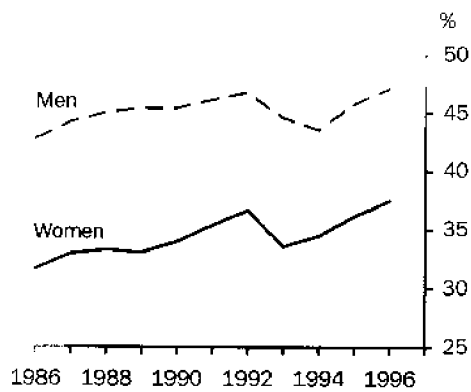
Retention rates to Year 12



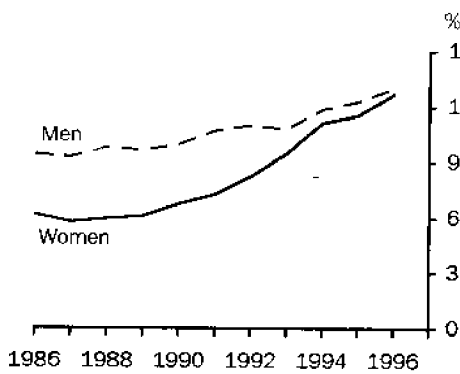
Higher education students



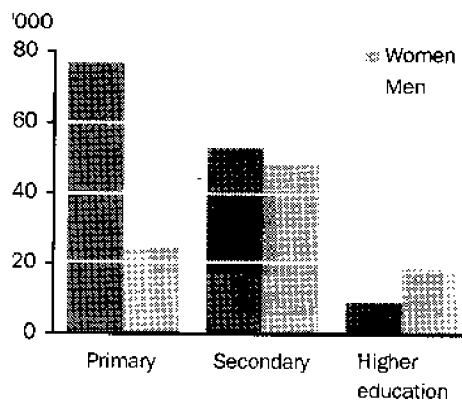
People with post-school qualifications



People with a degree or higher qualification



Teaching staff, 1995



Introduction

At both national and international levels, education has been identified as a means by which the status of women can be raised, as the education level that people attain may influence the occupation they work in and consequently the economic status they achieve.

The particular needs of girls and women at all levels of education have been recognised. In 1997, *Gender Equity: A Framework for Australian Schools* was released. This report identified areas for reform in school curriculum and culture which will better address the educational needs of girls and boys from different backgrounds.

Since 1987 women have outnumbered men as students at higher education institutions. However, at the highest levels of study (doctorate and masters), men still outnumber women.

A Fair Chance for All: National and Institutional Planning for Equity in Higher Education, a 1990 discussion paper, set targets for the participation of women in non-traditional fields of study. In 1996, the Higher Education Council advised the government on the progress of the higher education system towards meeting these objectives and the appropriate policy objectives for the next five years.

Women's participation in vocational education and training has not shown the same increases as their participation in the higher education sector. While women

represent almost half of all people enrolled in vocational education and training, they are significantly less likely than men to undertake apprenticeships which lead to skilled trade qualifications.

The *National Women's Vocational Education and Training Strategy* was endorsed by state, territory and commonwealth ministers in 1996. The strategy sets a national direction for governments, industry and providers of vocational education and training to ensure that the needs of women in this sector are addressed.

Statistical activities

First results from the Survey of Aspects of Literacy will be released in *Aspects of Literacy: Profiles and Perceptions, Australia* (Cat. no. 4226.0) during 1997. This publication includes data on the use of literacy skills in the workplace and everyday life. It also reports on the individual's perceptions of their literacy skills in reading, writing and numeracy. A second publication, *Aspects of Literacy: Assessed Skill Levels, Australia* (Cat. no. 4228.0), will be released later in 1997. This will provide an objective assessment of the skills of the Australian population on selected aspects of literacy.

Participation

In May 1996, 1.9 million people aged 15–64 years (16% of both women and men) were studying towards a recognised qualification at a school or tertiary institution. Women represented half of all students.

The highest rate of participation in non-compulsory education was in the 15–19 year age group (see Summary Graphs p. 52). In May 1996, 74% of women aged 15–19 were studying towards a recognised qualification at a school or tertiary

Education participation, May 1996

Type of institution	Age group (years)	
	15–19	20–24
	%	%
Women	73.8	28.7
Attending school	50.5	*0.4
Attending tertiary(a)	23.2	28.3
Higher education	14.0	19.6
TAFE	7.7	6.2
	'000	'000
Total participating	458.0	198.2
	%	%
Men	72.2	30.6
Attending school	48.2	*0.2
Attending tertiary(a)	24.1	30.4
Higher education	10.4	17.4
TAFE	12.9	11.4
	'000	'000
Total participating	470.4	216.5

(a) Includes business colleges, industry skills centres and other tertiary education institutions.

Source: Unpublished data, Transition from Education to Work Survey.

School participation rates, 1995

Age (years)	Girls	Boys
	%	%
15	93.7	91.9
16	82.1	75.7
17	62.0	55.2
18	11.6	13.0

Source: Schools, Australia (Cat. no. 4221.0).

institution compared to 29% of women aged 20–24 years. Approximately half of girls and boys aged 15–19 years were still at school. Of those aged 15–19 years who were studying at a tertiary institution women were more likely than men to be attending a higher education institution and less likely to be attending TAFE.

Two-thirds of female students aged 15–64 years were studying full-time in May 1996 compared to 61% of male students. For students aged 15–19 years, 95% of women and 87% of men were studying full-time. The proportion of women and men in full-time study decreased with age.

School

School attendance is compulsory up to the age of 15 years in all states except Tasmania (where it is compulsory up to the age of 16 years). Usually the first non-compulsory level of education in Australia is the last two years of high school or college. In 1995, 372,000 people were in Year 11 or Year 12, representing 12% of all school students. Girls comprised over half of school students in these years at both government and non-government schools.

The school participation rate declines with age. In 1995, 94% of girls aged 15 years were attending school compared to 62% of 17 year olds. Within the 15-18 year age group the participation rate of girls was higher than that of boys, except for those aged 18 years.

Retention rates to Year 12 were highest in 1992 (82% for girls and 73% for boys). Since then, retention rates have declined to 78% for girls and 67% for boys in 1995 (see Summary Graphs p. 52). Since 1990, the retention rate for girls has consistently exceeded that of boys by approximately 10 percentage points.

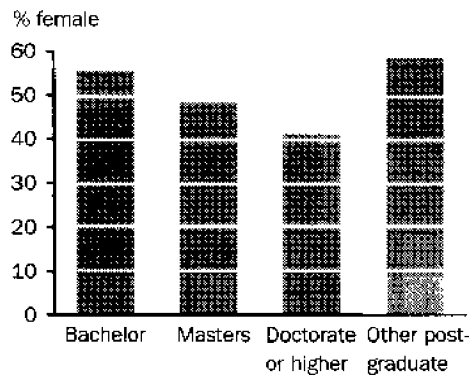
Similar proportions of girls and boys attended non-government schools (29%). The proportion of students attending non-government schools was higher for secondary than primary schools.

In 1995, 87,200 school students identified themselves as being of Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander origin and just under half of these were girls. 51% of Indigenous students in Year 10 were female (2,400), as were 54% in Year 12 (960). A similar proportion of female and male Indigenous school students attended government schools (about 87%).

Higher education students

Since 1987, the number of women enrolled in higher education has been greater than the number of men. In 1996, 344,200 women and 289,900 men were studying at a higher educational institution (see

Higher education students, 1996



Source: Department of Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs, *Selected Higher Education Student Statistics*.

Summary Indicators p. 62). Women represented 54% of the total student population and 56% of students who commenced study in 1996.

7,000 students identified themselves as being Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander and 63% of these were women.

Level and field of study

Students undertaking a bachelor degree represented about three-quarters of all students in 1996. Women represented 55% of all students studying for a bachelor degree and 41% studying for a doctorate or higher qualification.

The two fields of study which accounted for the largest proportion of female students were arts, humanities and social sciences; and business, administration and economics (29% and 19% respectively). In contrast, the two largest fields of study for male students were business, administration and economics; and science (27% and 18% respectively). 2% of women

Higher education students, 1996

Field of study	Women	Men
	%	%
Arts, humanities and social sciences	29.1	15.9
Business, administration and economics	19.2	26.7
Health	15.7	6.6
Education	15.1	6.4
Science	11.2	18.4
Law and legal studies	3.6	4.3
Engineering and surveying	2.0	14.5
Total(a)	100.0	100.0
	'000	'000
Total(a)	344.2	289.9

(a) Includes veterinary science, agriculture, animal husbandry, architecture and building.

Source: Department of Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs, *Selected Higher Education Student Statistics*.

were enrolled in engineering and surveying compared to 14% of men.

Science students

In 1996, 92,000 higher education students were enrolled in the field of science and 42% of these were women. The proportion of science students who were female was lower at the postgraduate than undergraduate level (34% compared to 44%).

Three-quarters of female science students were enrolled in two fields of study, life and general sciences and general science, compared to half of male science students.

Women represented 55% of all students enrolled in life and general sciences and 23% in computer science and information

systems. While women represented 31% of students in the physical sciences there was considerable variation between the fields of study within this group. For example, 41% of chemistry students were women compared to 19% of physics students.

Health students

In 1996, 16% of female higher education students and 7% of male students were enrolled in the field of health. Women represented nearly three-quarters of health students. The proportion of health students who were female was similar for those undertaking a postgraduate or undergraduate qualification.

Almost two-thirds of female health students were enrolled in health sciences and technologies compared to 39% of men. In contrast, 32% of male health students were

Women enrolled in science, 1996

Field of study	Women	Persons
	no.	% female
<i>Life and general sciences</i>	14 800	55.0
Biology	2 600	59.5
Environmental science	3 000	48.3
General science	13 900	49.8
Mathematics	1 500	31.9
<i>Physical sciences</i>	2 500	30.9
Chemistry	1 500	35.5
Physics	350	19.3
<i>Computer science and information systems</i>	5 700	23.2
General	2 700	23.0
Information systems	1 200	31.5
Total	38 500	41.9

Source: Department of Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs, *Higher Education Student Data Collection*, Unpublished data.

Women enrolled in health, 1996

<i>Field of study</i>	<i>Women</i>	<i>Persons</i>
	no.	% female
<i>Health sciences and technologies</i>	35 200	82.4
Basic nursing	18 800	86.1
Post-basic nursing	9 700	91.5
Pharmacy	1 400	60.7
<i>Rehabilitation services</i>	5 900	75.8
Occupational therapy	2 100	88.1
Physiotherapy	1 900	60.2
<i>Health support activities</i>	5 100	70.3
Health administration	1 700	73.6
General health	1 200	67.2
<i>Medical science and medicine</i>	6 000	49.5
Medicine	4 700	47.3
Dentistry	750	49.1
Total	54 200	74.0

Source: Department of Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs, *Higher Education Student Data Collection*, Unpublished data.

enrolled in medical science and medicine compared to 11% of women.

Women represented over half of all students enrolled in health subjects, except dentistry and medicine. Subjects in which women had a particularly high representation included basic nursing (86%), post-basic nursing (92%) and occupational therapy (88%).

Overseas students

The number of overseas students studying at higher education institutions in Australia has increased during the past decade. Although there have been fewer female than male overseas students during this period, the proportion of female students has

increased. In 1986, 36% of overseas students were women and by 1996 this proportion had increased to 46% (24,660).

The fields of study chosen by female overseas students were different to those chosen by Australian female students. For example, 52% of female overseas students were enrolled in business, administration and economics compared to 17% of Australian female students. A further 14% of overseas female students were enrolled in arts, humanities and social sciences compared to 30% of Australian female students.

Employed students

Many students combine their education with paid employment. In May 1996, 37% of all full-time students and 88% of all part-time students aged 15-64 years were employed. The majority of full-time students who were in paid employment had part-time jobs (93%). In contrast, 83% of part-time students who were employed worked full-time.

Female full-time students were more likely to be employed than their male counterparts (41% compared to 33%). However, women who were part-time students were less likely to have a paid job than men (82% compared to 94%).

Furthermore, if they were in paid employment they were less likely to have a full-time job.

Employment status of students aged 15-64 years, May 1996

<i>Type of attendance</i>	<i>Women</i>	<i>Men</i>
	%	%
Full-time students		
Not employed	59.1	67.3
<i>Employed</i>	40.9	32.7
Full-time	2.4	3.0
Part-time	38.4	29.7
Total	100.0	100.0
	'000	'000
Total full-time students	647.2	596.1
	%	%
Part-time students		
Not employed	17.8	6.4
<i>Employed</i>	82.2	93.6
Full-time	56.7	87.4
Part-time	25.5	6.2
Total	100.0	100.0
	'000	'000
Total part-time students	326.4	376.0

Source: Unpublished data, Transition from Education to Work Survey.

Graduates

In 1995, 140,900 people completed an award course at a higher education institution and 57% of these were women. 59% of those with a bachelor degree were women, compared to 37% of graduates with a doctorate.

Graduate starting salaries

Each year since 1972, the Graduate Careers Council of Australia has conducted a national survey of higher education

graduates to collect information on their activities after completing their degree. In 1995, 133,000 graduates were surveyed with a response rate of 67%.

The median annual starting salary for female graduates under 25 years in their first full-time job was 94% of male graduates (\$26,200 per annum compared to \$28,000).

The difference between female and male graduate starting salaries partly reflects the fields of study undertaken in higher education, as men tend to outnumber women in fields that command higher wages. The graduates who received the highest salaries (based on median salary estimates) had undertaken study in the fields of dentistry, medicine, optometry, engineering and earth sciences.

The survey collected information from female and male graduates who studied in

People who completed an award course, 1995

<i>Level of qualification</i>	<i>Women</i>	<i>Persons</i>
	'000	% female
<i>Undergraduate(a)</i>	59.8	58.5
Diploma or associate diploma	1.6	43.6
Bachelor degree	58.1	59.2
<i>Postgraduate</i>	20.3	52.5
Other postgraduate	13.1	59.3
Masters	6.3	44.6
Doctorate or higher	0.9	37.1
Total	80.1	56.9

(a) Includes other award courses.

Source: Department of Employment, Education, Training and Youth Affairs, *Selected Higher Education Student Statistics*.

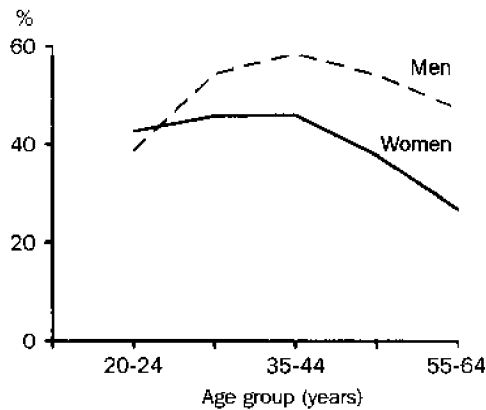
23 different fields. Female graduates from only one field earned more than their male counterparts (earth sciences). Female and male graduates from five fields had the same median starting salary, those who studied: accounting; medicine; pharmacy; veterinary science; and engineering. Female graduates from the remaining 17 fields earned on average less than their male counterparts in their first job. These included graduates from social work, mathematics, law and biological sciences.

Post-school qualifications

In May 1996, 2.2 million women and 2.8 million men aged 15–64 years had a post-school educational qualification. This represented 37% of all women and 47% of all men. From 1993, qualifications attained on completion of a course of less than one semester full-time duration are excluded from post-school qualifications. This has resulted in a discontinuity in statistics on the proportion of people with a post-school qualification. In subsequent years, this proportion has steadily increased (see Summary Graphs p. 52).

At all ages, except 20–24 years, women were less likely than men to hold a post-school qualification. This difference increased with age. The age groups with the largest proportion of women holding a post-school qualification were 25–34 years and 35–44 years (both 46%). In comparison, the largest proportion of men with a post-school qualification were aged 35–44 years (58%).

Proportion of people with a post-school qualification, May 1996



Source: Unpublished data, Transition from Education to Work Survey.

In May 1996, an equal proportion of women and men aged 15–64 held a degree or higher qualification (13%). In contrast, men were more than four times more likely than women to hold a skilled vocational qualification (23% compared to 5%).

School teachers

School teaching, particularly primary school teaching has been a traditional career for women. During the last 10 years the proportion of both primary and secondary teachers who were women has steadily increased (see Summary Indicators p. 62).

In 1995, there were 202,400 full-time equivalent teachers in Australian schools and women represented 64% of these. Women accounted for about three-quarters of full-time equivalent primary school teachers (76,900) and just over half of full-time equivalent secondary school teachers (53,000). The proportion of female

teaching staff at both the primary and secondary level was similar for both government and non-government schools.

Academics

In 1996, there were 11,400 female and 21,900 male academics. Of these women and men, 82% and 85% respectively were higher educators, that is, they had a teaching function. The proportion of higher educators who were women increased from 28% in 1988 to 33% in 1996 (see Summary Indicators p. 62).

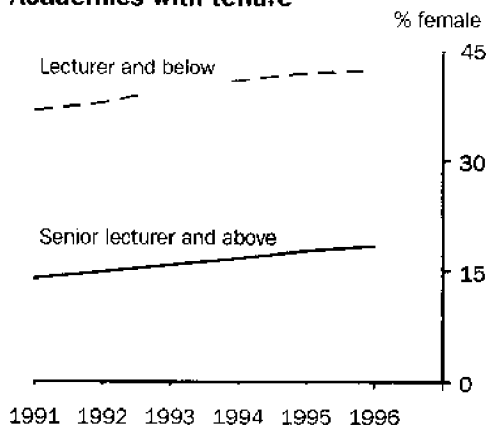
Between 1991 and 1996 the proportion of female academics with a tenurable term increased slightly (from 44% to 46%). During the same time, the proportion of male academics with tenure decreased from 66% to 61%. Women with tenure tended to be in lower academic positions than men with tenure. In 1996, 40% of women with a tenurable term were classified as senior lecturer and above, compared to 68% of men.

Academics, 1996

Term of current duties	Women	Men
	%	%
Tenable	45.6	61.4
Limited term	52.1	36.9
Other term	2.3	1.7
Total	100.0	100.0
	'000	'000
Total	11.4	21.9

Source: Department of Employment, Education, Training and Youth Affairs, *Selected Higher Education Staff Statistics*.

Academics with tenure



Source: Department of Employment, Education, Training and Youth Affairs, *Selected Higher Education Staff Statistics*.

In 1996, 42% of all lecturers and below who had tenure were women, compared to 37% in 1991. The proportion of senior lecturers and above with tenure who were women was considerably lower.

Vocational education and training

People undertaking vocational education or training programs, are studying through an approved training organisation or under a training contract, such as an apprenticeship or traineeship.

In June 1995, 1.3 million people were enrolled in vocational education and training programs. 587,900 of these were women (47%).

The proportion of people undertaking vocational education and training who were women varied with age. In 1995, 42% of students aged 15-19 years were women

People enrolled in vocational education and training programs, June 1995

Age group (years)	Women '000	Persons % female
15-19	107.2	41.9
20-29	165.7	44.2
30-39	128.2	48.6
40-49	95.5	53.4
50 and over	48.0	51.4
Total(a)	587.9	47.1

(a) Includes people under 15 years and age not known.

Source: Australian Committee on Vocational Education and Training Statistics, *Selected Vocational Education and Training Statistics*.

compared to 53% of students aged 40-49 years.

People in training

People in training are employed under training contracts including the Australian Traineeship System and apprenticeships.

In June 1996, there were 158,000 people in training and 29,700 of them (almost one-fifth) were women. 52% of these women were undertaking an apprenticeship (15,500) compared to 85% of men (108,900).

Almost all female and male apprentices were undertaking a trade qualification. However, the types of apprenticeships differed significantly for women and men. Over half of female apprenticeships were in the field of hairdressing and a further

People in training, June 1996

Field of training	Women %	Men %
Apprentices		
Tradespersons	97.4	99.3
Metal fitting	1.7	17.7
Building	2.0	23.5
Food	24.2	10.9
Hairdressing	57.5	1.0
	'000	'000
Total apprentices(a)	15.5	108.9
	%	%
Trainees		
Clerks	50.7	17.7
Sales and personal service workers	41.4	33.8
Labourers	4.3	29.4
	'000	'000
Total trainees(a)	14.1	15.6

(a) Includes other fields of training.

Source: Unpublished data, Australian Committee on Vocational Education and Training Statistics.

one-quarter were in food occupations. These two fields accounted for only 12% of male apprenticeships.

The types of traineeships being undertaken by women and men also differed. Over 90% of women were in clerical or sales and personal service occupations, compared to about half of men.

Summary indicators

Participation in education	units	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990
Retention rate to Year 12						
Girls	rate	52.1	57.0	61.8	65.2	69.9
Boys	rate	45.6	49.4	53.4	55.5	58.3
Higher education students						
Women	'000	190.1	197.4	215.1	229.8	255.7
Men	'000	199.8	196.4	205.8	211.3	229.4
Postgraduate students						
Women	'000	n.a.	n.a.	30.9	33.5	37.8
Men	'000	n.a.	n.a.	37.1	36.7	40.9
Doctorate or higher students						
Women	'000	n.a.	n.a.	2.7	2.8	3.3
Men	'000	n.a.	n.a.	6.0	5.6	6.2
Educational attainment(a)	units	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990
Completed highest level of school						
Women	%	43.4	44.9	45.3	48.8	52.0
Men	%	54.9	56.3	57.5	59.8	61.2
With post-school qualifications						
Women	%	31.6	32.9	33.2	33.0	33.9
Men	%	42.7	44.1	44.9	45.4	45.4
With degree or higher						
Women	%	6.2	5.8	6.0	6.1	6.8
Men	%	9.4	9.3	9.8	9.6	9.9
Teaching staff	units	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990
Primary school teachers (proportion female)	%	70.9	71.4	71.7	71.8	73.5
Secondary school teachers (proportion female)	%	47.3	48.0	48.3	48.2	50.1
Higher educators (proportion female)(b)	%	n.a.	n.a.	28.3	29.3	33.1
Training	units	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990
Apprentices						
Women	'000	14.9	16.9	16.6	16.6	23.8
Men	'000	119.6	122.8	136.4	158.9	138.8

(a) For people aged 15-64. Figures differ from previous editions which were based on people aged 15-69 years.

(b) Figures differ from previous editions. Includes only staff who perform some teaching functions (see definitions, p. 64).

Participation in education	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
Retention rate to Year 12						
Girls	76.7	82.0	81.4	79.9	77.9	n.y.a.
Boys	66.1	72.5	71.9	69.6	66.7	n.y.a.
Higher education students						
Women	284.9	298.8	307.6	313.4	325.4	344.2
Men	249.7	260.6	268.0	272.0	278.8	289.9
Postgraduate students						
Women	45.6	50.5	54.4	57.5	62.4	67.9
Men	47.3	53.0	55.9	59.3	61.7	64.6
Doctorate or higher students						
Women	4.0	5.2	6.2	7.3	8.5	9.4
Men	7.2	8.7	10.2	11.6	12.8	13.5
Educational attainment(a)	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
Completed highest level of school						
Women	53.4	55.4	53.0	53.1	54.5	55.6
Men	62.3	63.8	61.4	60.3	62.7	64.2
With post-school qualifications(b)						
Women	35.3	36.6	33.5	34.4	36.1	37.4
Men	46.1	46.7	44.5	43.5	45.8	47.1
With degree or higher						
Women	7.3	8.2	9.5	11.1	11.5	12.7
Men	10.7	11.0	10.8	11.8	12.2	13.0
Teaching staff	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
Primary school teachers (proportion female)	73.7	74.2	74.4	74.7	76.1	n.y.a.
Secondary school teachers (proportion female)	50.4	50.6	51.1	51.3	52.3	n.y.a.
Higher educators (proportion female)(c)	33.3	31.4	32.0	32.2	32.9	33.4
Training	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
Apprentices						
Women	17.0	15.7	14.3	14.1	11.2	14.9
Men	122.2	121.3	96.9	99.9	103.4	111.4

(a) For people aged 15-64. Figures differ from previous editions which were based on people aged 15-69 years.

(b) Series break in 1993. See definitions, p. 65.

(c) Figures differ from previous editions. Includes only staff who perform some teaching functions (see definitions, p. 64).

Definitions and data references

- Academics** — staff at higher education institutions who undertake teaching, research, a combination of both functions, or who are responsible for staff undertaking such functions.
Reference: Department of Employment, Education, Training and Youth Affairs, *Selected Higher Education Staff Statistics*.
- Apprentices** — employed people aged 15–34 years who have a legal contract with an employer to serve a period of training for the purpose of attaining tradesperson's status in a recognised trade classification in May of each year.
Reference: *Transition from Education to Work, Australia* (Cat. no. 6227.0).
- Completed award course** — people who have successfully completed all the academic requirements of a higher education award course.
Reference: Department of Employment, Education, Training and Youth Affairs, *Selected Higher Education Student Statistics*.
- Completed highest level of school** — people with a post-school qualification or people who completed the highest level of schooling (or equivalent) offered by the education system at the time they left school.
Reference: *Transition from Education to Work, Australia* (Cat. no. 6227.0).
- Degree or higher** — includes bachelor degree (including honours), graduate or postgraduate diploma, master's degree or doctorate.
Reference: *Transition from Education to Work, Australia* (Cat. no. 6227.0).
- Doctorate or higher students** — those enrolled in a doctorate or higher doctorate course, including doctorate by research or coursework.
Reference: Department of Employment, Education, Training and Youth Affairs, *Selected Higher Education Student Statistics*.
- Full-time equivalent (FTE)** — a measure of the total level of staff resources used. The FTE of a full-time staff member is equal to 1.0. The calculation of FTE for part-time staff is based on the proportion of time worked compared to that worked by full-time staff performing similar duties. Some states are not able to calculate FTE on the basis of time, so use wages, resource allocations or student/teacher numbers to estimate FTE.
Reference: *Schools, Australia* (Cat. no. 4221.0).
- Government school** — is administered by the education department in each state and territory.
Reference: *Schools, Australia* (Cat. no. 4221.0).
- Higher education students** — people enrolled as a full-time, part-time or external student in a course at a higher education institution.
Reference: Department of Employment, Education, Training and Youth Affairs, *Selected Higher Education Student Statistics*.
- Higher educators** — staff at higher education institutions who perform a teaching only function or a combination of teaching and research.
Reference: Department of Employment, Education, Training and Youth Affairs, *Selected Higher Education Staff Statistics*.
- Lecturer and below** — includes lecturers, principal tutors, senior tutors and tutors.
Reference: Department of Employment, Education, Training and Youth Affairs, *Selected Higher Education Staff Statistics*.
- Limited term** — the effective substantive appointment or current duties are for a fixed period of time.
Reference: Department of Employment, Education, Training and Youth Affairs, *Selected Higher Education Staff Statistics*.

Masters — includes master's by research or coursework.

Reference: Department of Employment, Education, Training and Youth Affairs, *Selected Higher Education Student Statistics*.

Median graduate salary — the annual median starting salary of bachelor degree graduates aged under 25 years in their first full-time job.

That is the salary at which half the population falls above, and half fall below.

Reference: Graduate Careers Council of Australia, *Graduate Starting Salaries*.

Non-government school — is not administered by an education department. Includes special schools administered by government authorities other than state/territory education departments.

Reference: *Schools, Australia* (Cat. no. 4221.0).

Other postgraduate — postgraduate qualifying or preliminary courses, graduate diploma/postgraduate diploma and graduate certificate.

Reference: Department of Employment, Education, Training and Youth Affairs, *Selected Higher Education Student Statistics*.

Overseas students — are not Australian or New Zealand citizens or are not entitled to stay in Australia (without any limitation as to time), and reside in Australia during the semester.

Prior to 1996 New Zealand citizens were counted as overseas students.

Reference: Department of Employment, Education, Training and Youth Affairs, *Selected Higher Education Student Statistics*.

Postgraduate students — those enrolled in courses above bachelor level, including graduate diplomas, masters and doctorates.

Reference: Department of Employment, Education, Training and Youth Affairs, *Selected Higher Education Student Statistics*.

Post-school qualification — an educational qualification such as a vocational qualification, diploma or degree. From May 1993 data excludes qualifications attained on completion of a course of less than one semester full-time duration.

Reference: *Transition from Education to Work, Australia* (Cat. no. 6227.0).

Retention rate to Year 12 — the percentage of full-time students of a given group who continue from the first year of secondary schooling to Year 12. The calculation of retention rates does not take into account such things as students repeating a year of education, migration and other net changes to the school population.

Reference: *Schools, Australia* (Cat. no. 4221.0).

School attendance — when a person was enrolled in a school at the census date.

People are included if they were expected to be absent for less than a month and were excluded if they had left the school or been absent without explanation for four continuous weeks before the census date.

Reference: *Schools, Australia* (Cat. no. 4221.0).

Senior lecturer and above — includes: vice-chancellor; deputy vice-chancellor; principal; deputy principal; professor; head of school; college fellow; personal professor; professional fellow/reader; associate professor/reader; senior research fellow; principal lecturer; and senior lecturer.

Reference: Department of Employment, Education, Training and Youth Affairs, *Selected Higher Education Staff Statistics*.

Skilled vocational qualification — provides individuals with the knowledge and skills to work in a specific vocation, recognised trade or craft, for example, a trade certificate or apprenticeship.

Reference: *Transition from Education to Work, Australia* (Cat. no. 6227.0).

Tenable term — the effective substantive appointment or current duties that will normally last until retirement age. Academic staff who are employed on a permanent basis may be classified as having a tenurable term.

Reference: Department of Employment, Education, Training and Youth Affairs, *Selected Higher Education Staff Statistics*.

Tertiary institution — any institution offering post-school courses.

Reference: *Transition from Education to Work, Australia* (Cat. no. 6227.0).

Trainees — people employed under a contract of training, including apprenticeships, the Australian Traineeship System and other forms of employment-based training.

Reference: Australian Committee on Vocational Education and Training Statistics, *Australian Training Statistics*.

Vocational education and training — programs of training through an approved training organisation or under a training contract such as apprenticeship or traineeship.

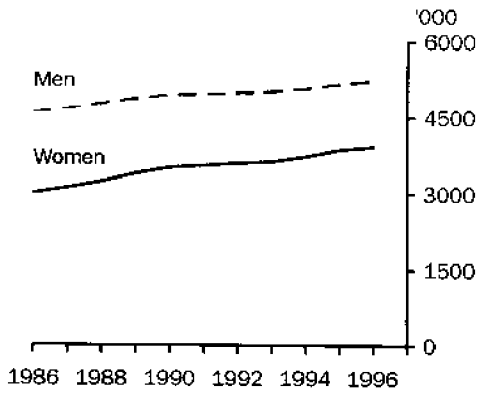
Reference: Australian Committee on Vocational Education and Training Statistics, *Selected Vocational and Education Training Statistics*.

**Employment and
unemployment**

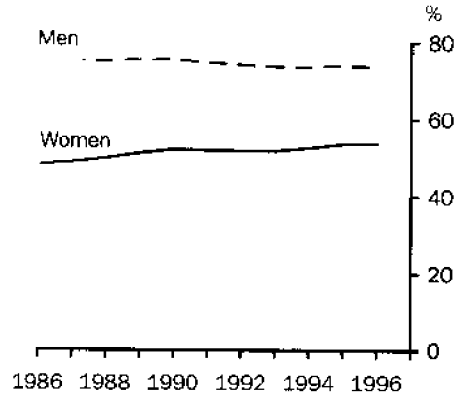


Summary graphs

Labour force



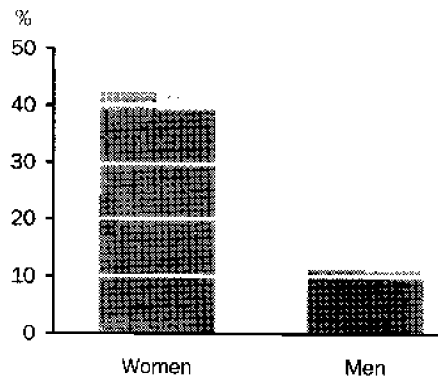
Labour force participation rate



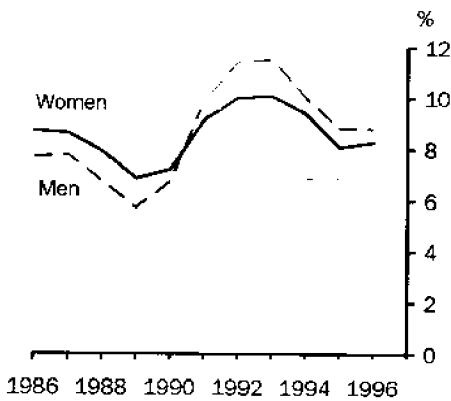
Occupational segregation of full-time workers, May 1996



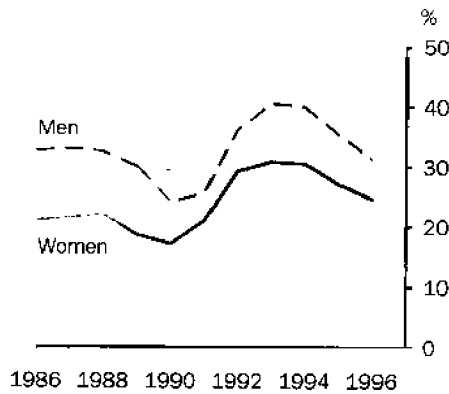
Proportion of employed people working part-time, 1996



Unemployment rate



Proportion of unemployed who are long-term unemployed



Introduction

During the past 30 years, there have been significant changes in the labour force. For example, women's participation has increased markedly, particularly those who are married and those with children. The part-time sector of employment has also increased significantly, and women continue to represent the majority of the part-time labour force.

In recognition of women's increased participation and the difficulties that they may encounter in the work force, legislation has progressively been introduced which aims to remove discrimination against women. This includes the lifting of formal barriers to married women's participation in the labour force, the *Sex Discrimination Act 1984* and the *Affirmative Action (Equal Employment Opportunity for Women) Act 1986*.

At an Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) conference in 1980, it was reported that out of 12 OECD countries, Australia had the highest index measure of occupational segregation (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (1980) *Women and Employment*). Occupational segregation continues to be a feature of the labour force in the 1990s, with women concentrated in two occupational groups, clerks and sales and personal service workers.

Statistical activities

The ABS continues to conduct its regular program of labour market related surveys.

Since August 1996 the second edition of the Australian Standard Classification of Occupations (ASCO) (Cat. no. 1220.0) has been used to classify occupation data in the Labour Force Survey. ASCO second edition will be introduced progressively for coding occupation data collected in the supplementary survey program.

Several changes in the revised ASCO will enhance the analysis of occupations which are traditionally considered as female. For example, the definition of skill specialisation (one of the occupational classification criteria) now encompasses non-production based operations, such as using computer-based equipment and providing personal services.

A number of female dominated occupations have been reclassified to better reflect their skill level. In particular, registered nurses and welfare workers have been moved to the major group of professionals. The clerks and personal service worker group has been reorganised into groups covering three major skill levels.

Labour force trends

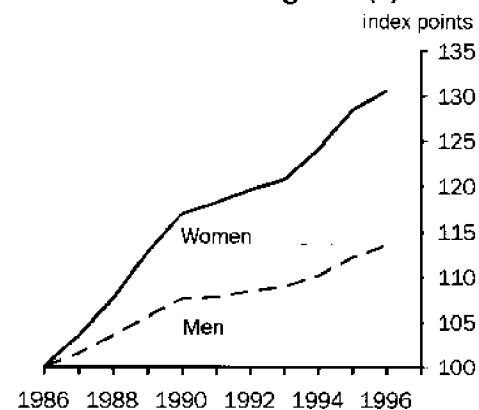
Between 1986 and 1990 there was a steady upward trend in the average annual labour force participation rate for women. In contrast, the rate for men decreased slightly until 1988 and subsequently increased marginally (see Summary Indicators p. 80). In 1990–93, a period of economic downturn, both female and male participation rates decreased slightly. After this, the female participation rate rose and remained unchanged in 1995 and 1996, while the male rate continued to decline.

During the past decade, growth of the female labour force was greater than the male labour force (30% compared to 14%).

Full-time and part-time work

An increase in part-time employment for women and men has been a feature of the labour market in recent years. This can be examined by separating the participation rate into full-time and part-time components.

Index of labour force growth(a)



(a) 1986 = 100.

Source: Unpublished data, Labour Force Survey.

Components of labour force participation(a)

Type of participation	1986	1996
	%	%
<i>Women</i>	48.3	53.8
Employed full-time	27.5	28.4
Employed part-time	16.6	21.0
Unemployed(b)	4.2	4.5
<i>Men</i>	75.9	73.7
Employed full-time	65.4	59.6
Employed part-time	4.6	7.6
Unemployed(b)	5.8	7.5

(a) Annual averages.

(b) Proportion of the population who are unemployed (not unemployment rate).

Source: Unpublished data, Labour Force Survey.

The largest changes in individual components of the labour force between 1986 and 1996 were an increase in part-time employment for women and a decrease in full-time employment for men.

During this period, the participation of women and men in part-time employment increased by 3–4 percentage points. However, the base was much lower for males than females. Women in the labour force were about three times more likely than men in the labour force to be employed part-time. This was the case in both 1986 and 1996.

The full-time labour force participation rate increased by one percentage point for women and decreased six points for men. In both 1986 and 1996, over one-quarter of the female population was in full-time employment.

Current participation

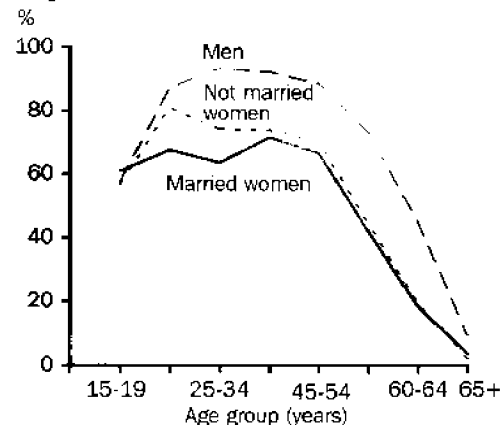
In August 1996 the labour force participation rate for women was 53%, compared to 73% for men. For all age groups, with the exception of 15–19 year olds, the male participation rate was markedly higher than the female rate. At age 15–19 there was less than one percentage point difference between women and men, due largely to the high numbers of young women working part-time while studying full-time.

The labour force participation rate of married women showed the characteristic M-shaped pattern with peaks in the 20–24 and 35–44 age groups. The trough in the 25–34 year age group reflects the prime child bearing ages (see p. 8).

Teenage participation

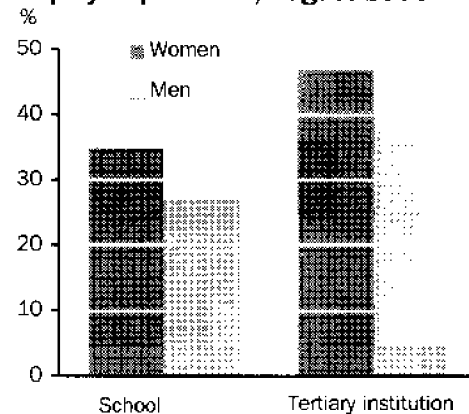
Labour force participation by young people aged 15–19 years is strongly influenced by attendance at educational institutions.

Labour force participation rates, August 1996



Source: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).

Proportion of students aged 15–19 employed part-time, August 1996



Source: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).

Teenagers attending educational institutions full-time and those in the full-time labour force (but not at school or in full-time tertiary education) could be described as 'fully active'. In August 1996, 88% of female teenagers and 92% of males were fully active. An additional 7% of young women and 5% of young men were working part-time, or looking for part-time work, but not studying full-time.

35% of female school students were employed part-time, as were 27% of male students. Among those teenagers attending a tertiary institution full-time, 47% of women and 40% of men were employed part-time.

Employment

In August 1996, 3.6 million women and 4.7 million men were employed. Women comprised 43% of those employed. 52% of married women were employed as were 71% of married men. Three-quarters of

employed people worked full-time, a decline of six percentage points since August 1986.

46% of employed married women worked part-time, as did 38% of unmarried women. 12% of male workers were employed part-time and over one-quarter of them were aged under 20.

In August 1995, the majority of female and male employees worked on a permanent basis. The remaining women and men (28% and 17% respectively) worked on a casual basis, that is, they did not have access to paid sick and recreation leave.

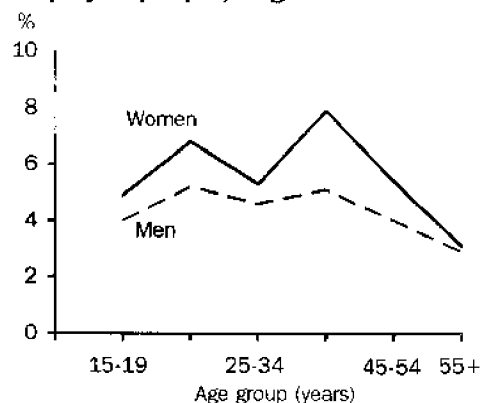
The proportion of women who worked part-time, either on a permanent or casual basis, was significantly higher than the proportion of men. This reflects the overall higher participation of men in full-time work.

Employees, August 1995

Employment status	Women	Men
	%	%
<i>Permanent</i>	71.6	83.3
Full-time	54.3	81.1
Part-time	17.3	2.2
<i>Casual</i>	28.4	16.7
Full-time	4.8	9.2
Part-time	23.6	7.6
Total	100.0	100.0
	'000	'000
Total	2 995.4	3 694.6

Source: Working Arrangements, Australia (Cat. no. 6342.0.40.001).

Multiple jobholders as a proportion of employed people, August 1994



Source: Multiple Jobholding, Australia (Cat. no. 6216.0.40.001).

42% of female part-time workers were employed on a permanent basis, compared to 22% of male part-time employees.

Multiple jobholding

In August 1994, 5% of all employed people had more than one job. This proportion had risen from 3% in August 1981.

6% of employed women held more than one job in 1994, twice as many as in 1981. The corresponding proportions for employed men were 4% and 3% respectively.

Women were more likely than men to hold a second job in all age groups. Employed women aged 20-24 and 35-44 years were most likely to have more than one job (7% and 8% respectively). Men aged between 20 and 44 years were slightly more likely than men in other age groups to hold more than one job.

Average weekly hours worked by employed people

Hours worked	Women		Men	
	1976	1996	1976	1996
	%	%	%	%
1-15	14.9	20.0	2.6	6.9
16-34	22.2	29.6	7.4	13.5
35-40	52.6	31.6	56.6	34.9
41-48	5.2	9.6	13.6	16.0
49 and over	5.1	9.2	19.9	28.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

'000 '000 '000 '000

Total(a) 1 843.6 3 422.0 3 547.9 4 515.2

(a) Excludes people who did not work any hours.

Source: Unpublished data, Labour Force Survey.

Hours worked

Between August 1990 and August 1995 the average weekly hours worked by women employed full-time increased by nearly one hour to 39.7 hours. However, in 1996 the hours worked decreased slightly to 39.4 hours. Over the same period the hours worked by men employed full-time increased by one and a half hours to 44.0 hours, and then decreased again by half an hour. Part-time hours worked by both women and men increased by half an hour between 1990 and 1996, to 16.2 hours and 15.3 hours, respectively.

Compared to August 1976, the major change in individual working hours has occurred in the number of people reporting a standard working week of 35-40 hours. The proportion of women working these hours decreased from half to one-third in

1996. For men the proportion decreased from 57% to 35%.

In August 1996 over one-quarter of employed men reported working 49 or more hours. The proportion of women working longer hours also increased since 1976 (from 5% to 9%), but from a low base.

Occupation

In May 1996, 56% of all employed women worked in two occupation groups: clerks; and salespersons and personal service workers. In comparison, three occupational groups accounted for 53% of employed men: tradespersons; labourers and related workers; and managers and administrators. The pattern was similar for full-time workers.

When only part-time workers are considered, the overall proportion of women in the same two occupational groups increased to 60%. However, the sales and personal services occupations accounted for over one-third of female part-time workers, compared to one-fifth of full-time workers. In addition, the proportion of labourers and related workers almost doubled. For men, part-time workers were concentrated in the labourers and related workers occupations (35%) and sales and personal service workers (23%).

In May 1996, over three-quarters of unemployed women who had worked in the previous two years had been employed in one of three occupations in their last job (sales and personal services, clerical or

Occupational segregation, May 1996

<i>Selected occupational groups</i>	<i>Full-time</i>	<i>Part-time</i>	<i>Unemployed(a)</i>	<i>Casual(b)</i>
	%	%	%	%
Women				
Clerks	33.2	25.3	28.0	20.7
Salespersons and personal service workers	19.2	35.1	32.4	42.7
Labourers and related workers	8.7	16.5	21.3	18.7
	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total employed	2 042.2	1 546.9	112.9	955.2
	%	%	%	%
Men				
Tradespersons	24.3	9.0	22.6	16.5
Labourers and related workers	14.4	35.2	36.3	29.5
Managers and administrators	15.2	4.8	4.9	6.6
Salespersons and personal service workers	9.1	23.0	8.1	19.8
	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total employed	4 210.3	537.6	256.8	698.1

(a) Last occupation of people who worked in the last two years.

(b) Data for August 1995. Includes employees who worked either full-time or part-time.

Source: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0); Unpublished data, Survey of Working Arrangements.

labouring). The proportions who had worked in sales and labouring jobs were higher than for the currently employed, particularly so for the labourer category. For men, about the same proportions of employed and unemployed (last occupation in the past two years) were tradespeople. The proportion of labourers among the unemployed group was over double that among the employed.

The occupational distribution of casual workers was similar to that of part-time workers but with even stronger segregation. In August 1995, 43% of female casual workers were in sales and personal service

occupations (compared to 35% of part-time and 19% of full-time workers). For men, the largest proportions of casual workers were in the labouring and related occupations, followed by sales and service workers and tradespersons.

Industry

The distribution of workers by industry has remained relatively unchanged for the last five years. In May 1996 the largest proportion of employed people worked in the retail trade (15%). This was also the industry where the largest proportion of employed women worked.

Proportion of employed people in the six largest industries, May 1996

Selected industries	Women	Men	Persons
	%	%	%
Retail trade	17.8	13.0	15.1
Manufacturing	8.4	16.9	3.2
Property and business services	9.7	9.6	9.6
Health and community services	16.3	3.8	9.2
Construction	2.2	10.9	7.2
Education	10.9	4.3	7.2
	'000	'000	'000
Total(a)	3 589.1	4 748.0	8 337.1

(a) Includes other industries.

Source: Labour Force, Australia (Cat. no. 6203.0).

Nearly 60% of the women in the retail trade industry were working part-time, compared to 24% of the men. This industry accounted for about one-quarter of both female and male part-time workers. A further 18% of women who worked part-time were in the health and community services industry.

Overall 61% of employed women were married. However, in the retail trade and hospitality industries the proportion married was just under half. Although relatively few women worked in agriculture and construction, of those who did, over four-fifths were married. These women were probably working in family businesses.

Work and family

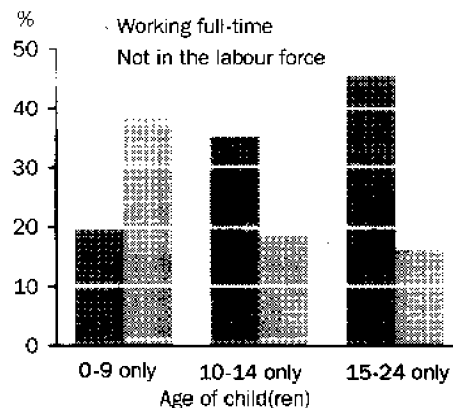
In June 1996 there were about 1.3 million couple families with at least one child aged

under 10 years. In 17% of these families both the wife and husband worked full-time and in another 31% the wife worked part-time and the husband full-time. In 34% of the families the wife was not in the labour force, while the husband worked full-time.

There were 246,100 one parent families with a female parent and at least one child aged under 10 years. In 14% of these families the mother was employed full-time and in 21% she worked part-time. There were relatively few one parent families with a male parent and children under 10 years of age (20,100). In 58% of these families the father worked full-time.

For married women aged 35-44 years whose husbands were in the labour force, the presence of dependent children affected their employment status. In families without dependants 59% of women worked

Labour force participation of married women aged 35-44 whose husbands are in the labour force, June 1996



Source: Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Families, Australia (Cat. no. 6224.0).

full-time, compared to 29% of those with dependants of any age. The proportion of women working full-time increased from one-fifth to one-third when children aged 0-9 years and 10-14 years, respectively, were present. The highest participation was for women with children aged 15-24 years (45%). The proportion of mothers not in the labour force decreased as the age of children increased.

For married women aged 15-34 years, the effect of dependants under 10 years on labour force participation was even more marked. 17% of these women worked full-time compared to 71% of those with no dependants. Almost half of women with children aged 0-9 years were not in the labour force, over five times the proportion of those with no dependants.

In June 1996 the average hours worked by parents with dependants and those without was similar. Married women in full-time employment worked on average 38 hours per week, irrespective of the presence of dependant children.

Underemployment

Underemployed workers are described as involuntary part-time workers if they work less than 35 hours a week and would prefer to work more hours. This situation typically occurs with part-time workers wanting to work more hours. However, there are also a small number of full-time workers who have to work part-time hours for economic reasons such as insufficient work or short time.

Involuntary part-time workers represented 8% of employed women and 5% of employed men in September 1996. 97% of these women and 84% of the men usually worked part-time and wanted to work more hours.

About one-third of the female and male involuntary part-time workers were aged under 25 years. These proportions were higher than for workers who were satisfied with their current hours.

In September 1996, 19% of women usually working part-time would have preferred to work more hours, as would 35% of men working part-time.

Overall at least two-thirds of women working part-time who wanted to work more hours were available to start working

Part-time workers who wanted to work more hours, September 1996

Availability	Women	Men
	%	%
Available to start in previous week	70.3	78.3
Looking for work	41.6	59.5
Not looking for work	28.6	18.7
Available to start in four weeks	20.7	12.6
Looking for work	9.3	6.2
Not looking for work	11.4	6.4
Not available to start in four weeks	9.1	9.1
Total	100.0	100.0
	'000	'000
Total	296.1	202.7

Source: *Underemployed Workers, Australia* (Cat. no. 6265.0).

longer hours in the previous week, as were three-quarters of men in that situation.

However, not all of them had been actively looking for work. A further group, 21% of women and 13% of men, were available to start work within four weeks.

Women working part-time who were looking for work with more hours and/or could have started within the previous week were, on average, looking for an extra 15.3 hours per week. Men in the same situation wanted, on average, an extra 18.2 hours. Together, the additional time would have contributed 6.8 million hours to the economy and women would have accounted for just over half the extra hours.

Unemployment

The average number of unemployed women and men decreased steadily between 1987 and 1989. However, in the next four years the numbers unemployed increased, peaking in 1993. In 1996, after a two year decline, the average number of unemployed women and men rose slightly, to 324,200 and 458,400 respectively (see Summary Indicators p. 80).

The unemployment rate followed the same pattern. In 1991, for the first time in the last decade, the unemployment rate for men exceeded that for women and has remained higher since. In 1996, the average unemployment rate was the same as in 1995 (see Summary Graphs p. 68).

In 1996, one-quarter of unemployed women and almost one-third of

unemployed men had been out of work for 52 weeks or more, that is they were considered as long-term unemployed (see Summary Indicators p. 80).

In August 1996 there were 310,900 unemployed women and 460,200 unemployed men, giving unemployment rates of 8% and 9% respectively.

39% of the unemployed women had worked full-time for two weeks or more in the last two years, compared to 59% of men. A further one-third of women and one-quarter of men were former workers.

Of those who had worked during the last two years, 52% of the women had left their most recent job involuntarily (over half of these had been retrenched or laid off). 72% of the men had also lost their job, with nearly two-thirds having been laid off.

Teenage unemployment

During the last decade the unemployment rates for people aged 15-19 years have

Unemployed people, August 1996

Previous work history	Women	Men
	%	%
Worked in last two years	38.6	59.2
Former workers(a)	33.9	24.8
Looking for first job	23.5	13.8
Stood down	4.0	2.2
Total	100.0	100.0
	'000	'000
Total	310.9	460.2

(a) People whose last job was more than two years ago.

Source: Labour Force, Australia (Cat. no. 6203.0).

Activity of people aged 15–19 years, August 1996

Group	Women	Men
	'000	'000
Full-time student	447.2	417.6
Employed (not studying)	117.1	171.0
Unemployed (not studying)	31.0	47.5
Not in the labour force (not studying)	26.5	18.4
Total aged 15–19 years	621.8	654.4
	%	%
Unemployed to fully active ratio(a)	5.2	7.5

(a) Ratio of unemployed (not studying) to full-time students, employed people (not studying) and unemployed people (not studying).

Source: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).

been consistently higher than for the population as a whole (see Summary Indicators p. 80). In 1996 the average unemployment rate for female and male teenagers was 20% and 22% respectively. As with the overall unemployment rates, the rate for young women was higher than for young men until 1991. The male teenager rate has exceeded that for female teenagers since then, with the exception of 1994. In August 1996 the unemployment rates for young women and men were 19% and 20% respectively.

However, many teenagers are in full-time education (see p. 54) which affects their labour force participation. If unemployed people in this age group are defined as only those people looking for work who are not full-time students, then in August 1996, the ratio of unemployed teenagers to full-time students and those in the labour force was

5% for young women and 7% for young men. These rates were slightly lower than in May 1995.

Marginal attachment to the labour force

In addition to people actively looking for work who are classified as unemployed, some people who are not in the labour force may also be interested in working but have not actively looked for a job. There are various reasons why they do not look, including personal factors such as attending an educational institution, ill health or lack of child care, and labour market factors such as lack of jobs in the locality. These people are regarded as having marginal attachment to the labour force.

In September 1996, 588,200 women and 233,300 men aged 15 to 69 wanted to work and were available to start within four weeks, but were not actively looking for work. For women, this number was much

People not actively looking for work, September 1996

Selected reasons	Women	Men
	%	%
Discouraged jobseeker	15.2	12.6
Attending educational institution	13.1	38.7
Child care	32.6	3.5
Own ill health/disability	7.5	21.1
	'000	'000
Total(a)	588.2	233.3

(a) Includes other reasons.

Source: *Persons Not in the Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6220.0).

higher than the number unemployed while for men it was only half as many. This suggests that women are more likely to leave the labour force but retain an interest in employment if the opportunity arises.

For women, factors relating to child care, such as their preference for looking after their children themselves and problems with cost or availability of child care services, have been the main reasons for not actively looking for work. In 1996 about one-third of the women gave this reason. Other reasons included being discouraged about job-search activities (15%) and attending an educational institution (13%). In contrast, the major reasons for not actively looking for work, stated by over half of the men were personal, including

attending educational institutions or ill-health or disability.

Discouraged jobseekers are a subset of those with marginal attachment to the labour force, who are available to start work but are not looking for a job for various reasons, such as employers considering them too old or too young, their lack of training or experience, their difficulties with language, or because there were no jobs.

In September 1996 there were over twice as many female discouraged jobseekers as male (89,400 and 29,500). About half of these females were aged 35–54 years, while over half the males were aged 60–69 years. The proportion of young discouraged jobseekers was lower for females than males.

Summary indicators

Labour force	unit	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990
Labour force						
Women	'000	3 002	3 106	3 230	3 385	3 511
Men	'000	4 586	4 652	4 745	4 843	4 933
Labour force (proportion female)	%	39.6	40.0	40.5	41.1	41.6
Participation rate						
Women	%	48.3	48.9	49.9	51.2	52.2
Men	%	75.9	75.3	75.2	75.5	75.6
Employment	unit	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990
Employed						
Women	'000	2 740	2 838	2 975	3 154	3 259
Men	'000	4 234	4 291	4 423	4 566	4 600
Employed part-time (of total employed)						
Women	%	37.6	38.6	38.7	39.3	39.7
Men	%	6.6	7.0	7.1	7.6	8.1
Unemployment	unit	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990
Unemployed persons						
Women	'000	261.3	267.9	255.1	231.6	252.5
Men	'000	351.8	361.0	321.1	276.5	332.3
Unemployment rate						
Women	%	8.7	8.6	7.9	6.9	7.2
Men	%	7.7	7.8	6.8	5.7	6.7
Teenage (15-19 years old) unemployment rate						
Women	%	20.3	20.4	17.7	15.8	17.1
Men	%	19.9	19.4	17.0	13.7	16.6
Median duration of unemployment						
Women	weeks	13.1	13.1	12.3	9.8	10.5
Men	weeks	21.8	23.2	21.3	17.2	14.3
Long-term unemployed						
Women	'000	54.9	57.4	56.1	42.9	43.2
Men	'000	114.4	118.7	104.1	82.9	80.1

Data are annual averages for the calendar year.

Labour force	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
Labour force						
Women	3 548	3 590	3 624	3 725	3 857	3 921
Men	4 942	4 972	4 995	5 051	5 144	5 206
Labour force (proportion female)	41.8	41.9	42.1	42.4	42.8	43.0
Participation rate						
Women	52.0	51.9	51.8	52.6	53.8	53.8
Men	74.7	74.2	73.7	73.6	74.0	73.7
Employment	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
Employed						
Women	3 223	3 231	3 259	3 375	3 546	3 596
Men	4 453	4 406	4 421	4 545	4 689	4 748
Employed part-time (of total employed)						
Women	40.6	41.9	41.5	42.1	42.5	42.5
Men	9.1	10.2	10.1	10.7	10.9	11.3
Unemployment	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
Unemployed persons						
Women	325.0	358.9	365.1	349.9	311.4	324.2
Men	489.5	566.2	574.0	505.6	455.0	458.4
Unemployment rate						
Women	9.2	10.0	10.1	9.4	8.1	8.3
Men	9.9	11.4	11.5	10.0	8.8	8.8
Teenage (15-19 years old) unemployment rate						
Women	21.6	23.8	23.1	22.8	20.3	19.8
Men	22.9	25.4	24.4	22.5	20.9	21.7
Median duration of unemployment						
Women	16.3	21.3	21.4	20.3	17.0	15.6
Men	21.3	29.4	31.8	30.4	25.7	22.3
Long-term unemployed						
Women	68.2	104.9	112.5	106.7	84.4	80.0
Men	125.2	204.4	232.3	201.9	161.1	143.4

Data are annual averages for the calendar year.

Definitions and data references

- Average weekly hours worked** — the total number of hours a group of employed people actually worked during the reference week (not necessarily the hours paid for) divided by the number of people in that group.
Reference: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).
- Casual employees** — are not entitled to either paid annual or sick leave.
Reference: *Working Arrangements, Australia* (Cat. no. 6324.0.40.001).
- Dependent child** — all family members under 15 years of age and those aged 15–24 years attending an educational institution full-time, except those classified as husbands, wives, lone parents or other family heads.
Reference: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).
- Discouraged jobseekers** — people wanting to work and available to start work within four weeks but whose main reason for not looking for work was their belief they would not be able to find a job for reasons of: age; language or ethnicity; schooling; training; skills or experience; no jobs in their locality or line of work; or they considered that there were no jobs at all available.
Reference: *Persons Not in the Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6220.0).
- Employed** — people aged 15 years and over who worked for one hour or more during the reference week for pay, profit, commission, payment in kind or without pay in a family business, or who had a job but were not at work.
Reference: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).
- Former workers** — unemployed people who have previously worked full-time for two weeks or more but not in the past two years.
Reference: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).
- Full-time employed** — people who usually worked 35 hours a week or more and others who, although usually working less than 35 hours a week, worked 35 hours or more during the reference week.
Reference: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).
- Involuntary part-time worker** — employed people who worked less than 35 hours in the reference week who would have preferred to work extra hours.
Reference: *Underemployed Workers, Australia* (Cat. no. 6265.0).
- Labour force** — all people aged 15 years and over who, during the reference week, were employed or unemployed.
Reference: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).
- Labour force participation rate** — for any group, the labour force expressed as a percentage of the civilian population in the same group.
Reference: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).
- Long-term unemployed** — people unemployed for a period of 52 weeks or more.
Reference: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).
- Married** — people reported as being married (including de facto) and their spouse was a usual resident of the household.
Reference: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).
- Median duration of unemployment** — the period of unemployment at which half of the unemployed had been unemployed for more weeks and half had been unemployed for fewer weeks.
Reference: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).

Part-time employed — people who usually worked less than 35 hours a week and who did so during the reference week.

Reference: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).

Unemployed — people aged 15 years and over who were not employed during the reference week, but who had actively looked for work and were available to start work.

Reference: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).

Unemployment rate — the number of people unemployed expressed as a proportion of the labour force. Separate rates may be calculated for sub-groups of the population.

Reference: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).

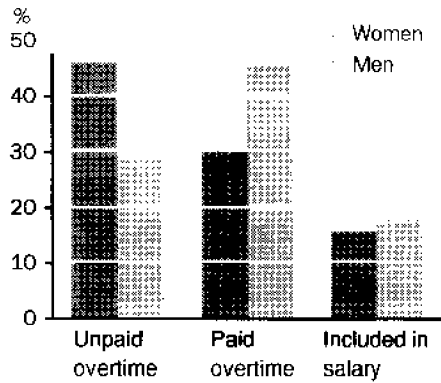


Working life

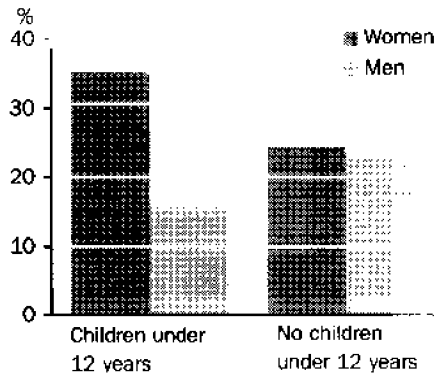


Summary graphs

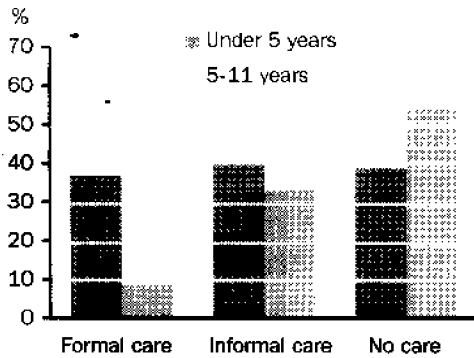
Method of payment for last period of overtime, August 1995



Proportion of employees not paid for last absence, August 1995



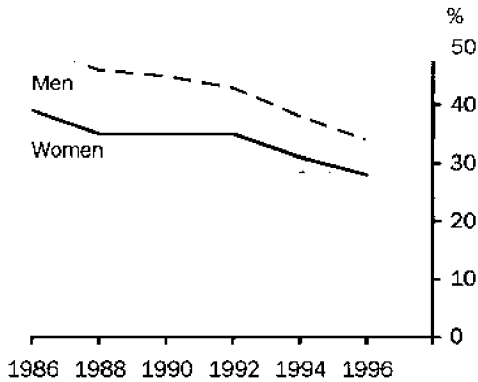
Proportion of children who used child care services, March 1996



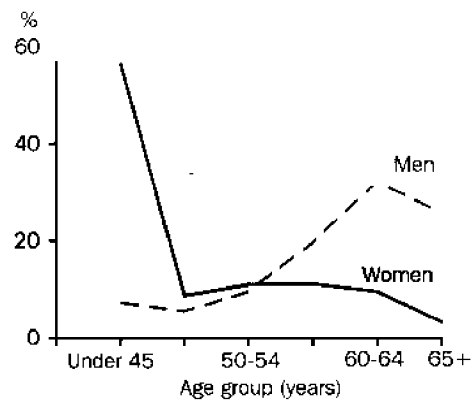
Proportion of employed people who worked from home, September 1995



Proportion of employees with trade union membership



Age of retirement from full-time work, November 1994



Introduction

During the past two decades the number of women participating in the labour force has increased significantly. However, in most cases, women with children still remain the primary carer. In other cases, they may also have responsibilities for caring for older or disabled family members. For these women, balancing work and family responsibilities can present difficulties. However, the introduction of more flexible work conditions, such as the availability of permanent part-time work, flexible working hours and special leave provisions, can make balancing these roles easier.

In May 1990 the government signed the International Labour Organisation Convention No. 156 (ILO 156). This commits signatories to the development of a work environment which enables workers with family responsibilities to work without discrimination and, as far as possible, without conflict between their work and their family responsibilities. The signing of this covenant implicitly acknowledged that the work force is no longer made up of people whose family responsibilities are being undertaken by an unpaid partner (House of Representatives Standing Committee on Legal and Constitutional Affairs (1991) *Half Way to Equal*).

The availability of suitable child care facilities or arrangements may influence a person's, and particularly a woman's, decision to join, or re-enter the paid labour force and if so, how many hours she can work. The options available for formal child

care have expanded during the past two decades and now include preschool, family day care, outside school care, occasional care centres and work-based centres.

However, informal care, by relatives or others, is also an option used by many families.

Statistical activities

Throughout the year, the ABS continued its regular program of labour market related supplementary surveys which collect information on a wide range of aspects of the labour force and working conditions.

Early in 1997 the ABS released *Child Care, Australia* (Cat. no. 4402.0), containing the results of the latest triennial National Child Care Survey.

Work

This chapter focuses on women's role in the paid labour force, their conditions and work arrangements. However, women also make a significant contribution to the Australian economy through unpaid work, such as home duties and voluntary and community work (see p. 105).

In addition, many employed women also undertake duties which are classified as unpaid work. In 1992, women in paid employment contributed 41% of the estimated value of women's unpaid household work and 43% of the value of women's voluntary and community work.

Women who are not in the labour force are over 10 times more likely than men who are not in the labour force to state their main activities as those related to unpaid work, such as home duties and child care (65% compared to 6%).

Looking for work

In July 1996, 5% of women in the labour force (203,000) and 7% of men in the labour force (367,200) were looking for full-time work. A further 2% of women (88,900) and less than 1% of men (42,600) were looking for part-time work.

79% of women and 93% of men looking for full-time work in July 1996, were registered with the Commonwealth Employment Service (CES). For women, this was a decrease from 83% in July 1994, while the proportion of men registered remained unchanged. Of those looking for full-time work who were not registered with the CES, the majority reported their main method of looking for work was contacting prospective employers.

The proportion of people looking for part-time work registered with the CES was lower than those looking for full-time work.

While the likelihood of unemployed men looking for full-time work being registered

Unemployed people, July 1996

Action taken	Looking for full-time work		Looking for part-time work	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
	%	%	%	%
Registered with the CES	78.5	92.6	35.3	38.0
Not registered with the CES	21.5	7.4	64.7	62.0
Contacted prospective employers	20.2	6.7	60.0	54.5
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total	203.0	367.2	88.9	42.6

Source: *Job Search Experience of Unemployed Persons, Australia* (Cat. no. 6222.0).

Unemployed people who had difficulty finding work, July 1996

Selected main difficulty	Women	Men
	%	%
Too many applicants for available jobs	15.1	13.1
Considered too young or old by employers	13.4	15.2
Insufficient work experience	13.2	9.1
No vacancies at all	11.6	13.5
Lacking necessary skills/education	11.2	12.3
No vacancies in line of work	9.0	14.8
	'000	'000
Total(a)	268.4	387.4

(a) Includes other difficulties.

Source: Job Search Experience of Unemployed Persons, Australia (Cat. no. 6222.0).

with the CES was similar for all ages, there were differences for women. 84% of 20–24 year old unemployed women looking for full-time work were registered with the CIS, compared to 70% of 25–34 year old women.

92% of unemployed women and 95% of unemployed men reported difficulty finding work. Too many applicants for available jobs, being considered too young or too old and insufficient work experience were the main difficulties stated by women. Men were more likely than women to report no vacancies in their line of work as the main difficulty.

Re-entering the labour force

Due to child bearing and family obligations, women are more likely than men to move in and out of the labour force. In July 1995,

81% of all people who re-entered the labour force (after a break of at least a year) were women.

Women re-entering the labour force had been out of the labour force for longer periods than their male counterparts. Almost one-quarter of women re-entering the labour force had not had a job for 10 years or more, compared to one-tenth of men. A further one-third of women and one-fifth of men had been out of work for 5–9 years.

80% of women who re-entered the labour force were employed, while the remainder were looking for work. The likelihood of being employed decreased as the length of time since their previous job increased. 84% of women whose previous job had been 1–2 years earlier were employed compared to 74% of women whose previous job had been 10 or more years ago.

People who re-entered the labour force in the previous 12 months, July 1995

Years since previous job	Women	Men
	%	%
1-2	23.0	38.1
3-4	21.3	32.0
5-9	31.6	*19.3
10-19	18.4	*10.7
20 or more	5.7	—
Total	100.0	100.0
	'000	'000
Total	86.0	19.7

Source: Persons who had Re-entered the Labour Force, Australia (Cat. no. 6264.0.40.001).

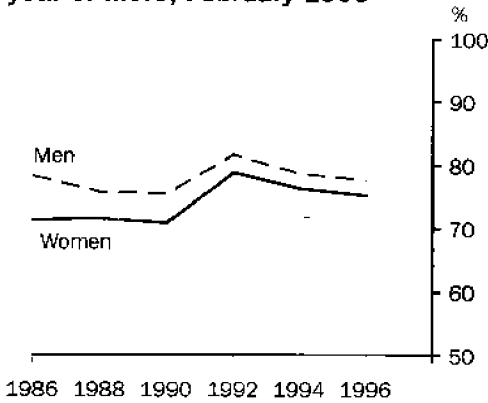
Just over half the women and men who re-entered the labour force stated that financial reasons were their main reason for returning. A further 16% of women reported boredom or the need for another interest and 10% stated a reason related to their children growing up.

Labour mobility

Movement between jobs has increased during the last decade. In February 1986, 17% of people had changed their employer, business or their location of employment in the previous 12 months, compared to 24% in February 1996. A similar proportion of women and men had changed jobs in the previous year.

Of the 3.6 million women and 4.7 million men who were employed in February 1996, about three-quarters had been in their current job for one year or more. Between 1986 and 1996, the proportion of women in their current job for one year or more

People in their current job for one year or more, February 1996



Source: *Labour Mobility, Australia* (Cat. no. 6209.0).

People who left a job in the previous 12 months, February 1996

Main reason for leaving last job	Women	Men
	%	%
<i>Voluntarily left</i>	64.7	53.9
Unsatisfactory work conditions	12.5	11.6
Return to study (job was temporary or seasonal)	3.1	4.2
Retirement, new business, better job or other reason	49.1	38.1
<i>Involuntarily left</i>	35.3	46.1
Retrenched	16.7	29.4
Cessation of temporary or seasonal work	15.1	12.4
Own ill health or injury	3.5	4.3
Total	100.0	100.0
	'000	'000
Total	843.9	942.0

Source: *Labour Mobility, Australia* (Cat. no. 6209.0).

remained consistently below that of men although the difference is narrowing. The increase in the proportion of women and men staying in their job for one year or more between 1990 and 1992 is associated with rising unemployment and suggests that people are less likely to change jobs during adverse economic conditions (see p. 77).

As age increases the likelihood of changing jobs decreases. 37% of women aged 20-24 years had changed jobs during the previous 12 months compared to 17% of women aged 45-54 years. A similar pattern was found for men.

About one-fifth of women (843,900) and men (942,000) who had worked at some

time in the 12 months prior to February 1996 had left a job during the year. 65% of these women left their job voluntarily compared to 54% of men. Of those who ceased a job during the year ending February 1996, 17% of women and 29% of men were retrenched.

82,700 women and 112,100 men who were working in February 1995 moved interstate during the subsequent 12 months (2% of both women and men working). Women who had made this move were less likely than men to be working in February 1996 (63% compared to 77%) and were more likely than men to have left the labour force (22% compared to 9%).

Working arrangements

Before accepting a job, many people consider the working arrangements associated with that job. Flexibility in hours

of work may be particularly important for people who combine work and family responsibilities.

Part-time workers

In August 1995, 41% of female employees (1.2 million) and 10% of male employees (359,000) worked part-time. The reasons for working part-time vary according to sex and family status. 67% of women who worked part-time hours in their main job were married, as were 38% of men.

Women who were family members were more likely than men in that situation to state that they worked part-time hours of their own choice or for reasons related to child care. The latter includes, preferring to look after children themselves, children too young or too old for child care, being unable to find suitable care or due to costs of child care.

Employees who worked part-time hours in main job, August 1995

Selected main reason	Family member		Non-family member	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
	%	%	%	%
Own choice	29.1	17.1	22.3	13.8
Child care	19.7	1.8	**	—
Standard work arrangements or requirement of the job	17.7	16.1	18.2	21.1
Not enough work available	15.3	25.5	25.9	28.8
Personal	10.6	28.6	25.4	27.6
Attending an educational institution	8.6	23.7	21.7	24.3
	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total(a)	1 065.7	250.2	103.5	74.0

(a) Includes other reasons.

Source: Working Arrangements, Australia (Cat. no. 6342.0.40.001).

Women not living in a family were more than twice as likely as women in a family to work part-time hours because they were attending an educational institution. This difference reflects young women living away from home who work part-time while studying (see p. 57). One-quarter of women who were not in a family stated that they worked part-time hours because there was not enough work available, compared to 15% of women who were family members.

Men, whether or not they were family members, were more likely to report that there was not enough work available or that they were attending an educational institution as their main reasons for working part-time.

Work hours

In August 1995, 68% of female employees and 60% of male employees had fixed working hours, that is, they had to start and finish work at set times. Of those who

Working arrangements of employees in their main job, August 1995

Working arrangements(a)	Women	Men
	%	%
Start and finish times fixed	68.0	59.9
Entitled to rostered day off	19.0	32.6
Able to accumulate time credits	37.2	37.3
Five day week (Monday to Friday)	55.6	67.9
	'000	'000
Total	2 995.4	3 694.6

(a) People can have more than one working arrangement.

Source: *Working Arrangements, Australia* (Cat. no. 6342.0.40.001).

Industries in which shiftworkers(a) are employed, August 1995

Selected main industries	Women	Men
	%	%
Health and community services	49.7	7.9
Accommodation, cafes and restaurants	12.0	8.6
Retail trade	9.3	6.7
Manufacturing	7.1	27.8
Transport and storage	3.6	14.3
	'000	'000
Total(b)	405.9	571.5

(a) Employees who worked shiftwork in previous four weeks.

(b) Includes other industries.

Source: *Working Arrangements, Australia* (Cat. no. 6342.0.40.001).

worked fixed hours, almost one-quarter of women and almost one-fifth of men had negotiated these times with their employer.

568,700 female employees (19%) and 1.2 million male employees (33%) were entitled to rostered days off (RDOs). The availability of RDOs varied depending on whether a person was working full-time or part-time. 5% of both women and men working part-time were entitled to RDOs, compared to 29% of female and 36% of male full-time employees.

Overtime and shiftwork

803,900 female employees (27%) and 1.6 million male employees (43%) worked overtime on a regular basis. Female workers who regularly worked overtime were more likely than their male counterparts to not have been paid for their most recent period

of overtime (46% compared to 29%). Women were also less likely than men to have overtime included in their salary package (see Summary Graphs p. 86).

Women with children under 12 years were slightly less likely to work regular overtime than women with no children of that age (23% and 28% respectively). In contrast half of men with children under 12 years worked regular overtime.

405,900 female employees (14%) and 571,500 male employees (15%) worked shiftwork in the four weeks prior to August 1995. The presence of children under 12 years did not affect whether or not women worked shiftwork.

Half of the female shiftworkers were in the health and community services industry and many of these were either registered or enrolled nurses. Male shiftworkers were more commonly employed in the

manufacturing industry (28%) and the transport and storage industry (14%).

Absences from work

In August 1995 about one-fifth of female and male employees (570,100 and 666,000 respectively) reported an absence from their main job of at least three hours during the two weeks prior to the survey.

For women and men, personal reasons, such as ill health or recreation, were the most likely cause of their last absence (about 85% of cases). For women with children under 12 years who were absent from work, one-fifth gave reasons related to their children.

Female employees were more likely than male employees not to have received pay for their last absence (27% compared to 21%). This difference was particularly marked for women with children under 12 years (see Summary Graphs p. 86).

Employees who were absent from their main job, August 1995

Selected main reason for last absence	Women		Men	
	Children under 12 years	No children under 12 years	Total	Total
	%	%	%	%
<i>Personal</i>	71.8	90.8	85.7	85.0
Recreation	13.9	23.5	20.9	23.5
Own ill health, physical disability or pregnancy	49.3	54.7	53.2	48.2
<i>Family</i>	23.5	3.9	9.1	6.0
Child related	19.5	1.5	6.3	2.2
	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total(a)	153.0	417.2	570.1	666.0

(a) Includes other reasons.

Source: Working Arrangements Australia (Cat. no. 6342.0.40.001).

Employment benefits

In addition to their wages or salaries, many employees receive various benefits as part of their employment package. Standard benefits include membership of an employer funded superannuation or retirement benefit scheme, and leave for holidays, illness and long service.

Full-time employees nearly always receive these benefits, while part-time employees are less likely to. In August 1995, female employees working part-time were more likely than their male counterparts to receive benefits (73% and 55% respectively). This reflects the younger age profile of male part-time employees, just over half of whom were aged under 25 and more likely to be in casual positions.

While a similar proportion of women and men employed full-time received standard

benefits, this does not necessarily result in similar long-term outcomes. Due to family and child rearing obligations, women are less likely than men to work for continuous periods and less likely to stay in the one job for long periods of time. Periods of non-continuous employment may result in women being less able to accrue benefits such as long service leave and superannuation.

Work and family

The labour force status of partners in a couple family has implications for the economic and social well-being of that family.

In August 1996, both partners were employed in almost half of couple families, while neither partner was employed in almost one-quarter of couple families. Both

Receipt of standard benefits, August 1995

Whether or not received standard benefit	Full-time		Part-time	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
	%	%	%	%
Received standard benefit(a)	98.0	97.2	73.3	55.0
Superannuation	95.2	94.2	70.2	50.9
Holiday leave	90.5	88.6	36.9	16.9
Sick leave	90.8	88.2	37.6	17.6
Long service leave	78.9	75.8	32.2	13.1
Received no standard benefit	2.0	2.8	26.7	45.0
Total employees	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total employees	1 768.7	3 335.8	1 335.6	442.1

(a) Employees can receive more than one standard benefit.

Source: *Weekly Earnings of Employees (Distribution), Australia* (Cat. no. 6310.0.40.001).

Labour force status of partners in couple families, August 1996

Labour force status	Children under 15 years		No children under 15 years		Total	
	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%
Neither partner employed	149.9	8.8	830.3	35.7	980.2	24.3
One partner employed	637.4	37.3	474.7	20.4	1 112.1	27.6
Wife employed	52.3	3.1	114.2	4.9	166.5	4.1
Husband employed	585.1	34.2	360.5	15.5	945.6	23.4
Both partners employed	922.3	53.9	1 021.7	43.9	1 944.1	48.2
Total	1 709.6	100.0	2 326.7	100.0	4 036.3	100.0

Source: Labour Force, Australia (Cat. no. 6203.0).

partners were more likely to be employed in couple families with children under 15 years (54%) than in couple families without children under 15 (44%). In 36% of couples without children under 15 neither partner was employed, compared to 9% of couples with children under 15 years. This reflects age and life cycle stages. Families with children tend to have parents of prime working age, whereas couples without children are more likely to be in older age groups and to be retired.

When only one partner was employed, it was usually the male partner. This was the case in 92% of couple families with children under 15 years and in 76% of those with no children under 15.

In 57% of one parent families the parent was not employed. 41% of female lone parents were employed compared to 55% of male lone parents.

Child care

In March 1996 there were 1.3 million children aged under 5 years living in families. 37% of those children had used a formal care service during the reference

week and 40% used informal care (see Summary Graphs p. 86). The proportion of children under 5 years using some form of care was similar to June 1987. However, the use of formal services increased by eight percentage points while the use of informal services decreased by a similar proportion.

Children may attend more than one type of service in any week. Although numbers of

Children aged under 5 years who used child care services during the previous week

Selected types of service(a)	1987	1996
	%	%
<i>Formal care</i>	47.8	59.6
Preschool	26.1	23.7
Long day care centre(b)	17.0	21.5
Family day care	5.4	9.4
<i>Informal care</i>	72.4	65.2
By other relative	50.0	49.2
By other person	25.3	16.2
	'000	'000
Total using care	726.9	794.7

(a) More than one type of service could be used.

(b) Child care centre in 1987.

Source: Child Care, Australia (Cat. no. 4402.0).

children attending pre-school were similar in June 1987 and March 1996, this service accounted for a smaller proportion of children using child care in 1996. The proportions using long-day centres and family day care increased over this period. The proportion of children using non-relative care fell from 25% to 16%.

Of all children aged under 5 years, those aged 3-4 years were most likely to be using child care services. About three-quarters of these children used formal and/or informal care. The main services used were preschool and care by relatives.

Overall, of children under 5 years, over one-third spent less than 10 hours in care during the week. Just over one-fifth spent 30 or more hours in formal and/or informal care.

In general, for children aged 5-11 years child care would mainly be needed for the times they are not at school. In March 1996, 61% of children this age did not use formal or informal care, 8% used formal services and 34% informal care (see Summary Graphs p. 86). The majority of those using formal care went to before and after school care programs. 55% of those using informal care had been cared for by relatives and 23% by sisters or brothers.

As would be expected, children aged 5-11 years using child care services spent less time there than children under school age. 43% of these children were in formal and/or informal care for less than five hours. Of

those at before and after school programs, half were there for less than five hours.

When a child falls sick and cannot go to school or child care, working parents have to make alternative arrangements to care for the child.

In the six months before the survey 416,500 couple families with both parents working had sick children who could not go to school or their usual formal care. Families used various care alternatives to look after the children and more than one type of care could be used during a period of illness.

In 41% of these families the mother took time off to care for the sick child, mainly using either unpaid leave or her own sick leave and in some cases without using formal leave arrangements. 21% of fathers took time off, using a range of formal leave types or no formal leave. Half the couple families also made other arrangements for

People in couple families, March 1996

Work arrangements used to assist with child care	Employed mother	Employed father
	%	%
Used some work arrangements	68.7	26.1
Flexible working hours	31.3	16.4
Permanent part-time work	29.0	1.3
Work at home	18.3	6.8
Shift work	6.4	5.4
	'000	'000
Total employed	898.9	1 306.3

Source: Child Care, Australia (Cat. no. 4402.0).

sick children. 54% of these involved care by relatives. In 16% of these families a parent worked at home and in 13% a parent took the child to work.

In one parent families where the parent was working and the child was sick at some time in the last six months, half the parents took time off to care for sick children. 58% of single parent families used other arrangements. In 60% child care was provided by a relative, in 20% the parent worked at home and in 12% the child went to work with the parent.

Over the years many employers have introduced a range of provisions which may assist workers to balance work and family responsibilities, such as flexitime, permanent part-time and home-based work. Over two-thirds of employed mothers and one-quarter of employed fathers used one or more of these arrangements to assist them in day-to-day care of their children.

Some employers may also offer specific assistance to employees needing child care services. 4% of parents were offered access to work-based child care facilities and 1% were able to reserve places in local child care centres. Overall, over one-quarter of the families offered assistance used the services.

Working from home

A relatively small proportion of employed people worked most hours at home in September 1995 (6% of employed females and 2% of employed males). A further 16%

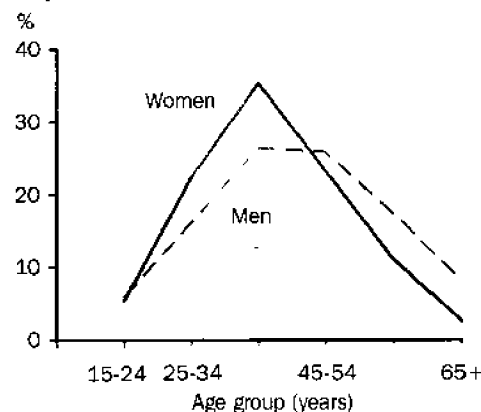
of women and 22% of men usually worked some hours at home (see Summary Graphs p. 86).

This would include outworkers, although it is not possible to separately identify these people. It is problematic to measure the number of outworkers for several reasons: outworkers may be working in another person's home; they may be concentrated in particular geographic areas; or they may not be willing or able to provide accurate answers to survey questions.

The following discussion focuses only on employed people who worked most hours from home. The number of women working from home has increased from 186,200 to 230,700 during the period 1989 to 1995. Over the same period, the number of men increased from 80,300 to 112,600.

About one-tenth of women and men who worked from home were employers and approximately half were own account

**People working from home,
September 1995**



Source: *Persons Employed at Home, Australia* (Cat. no. 6275.0).

People working from home, September 1995

Selected main reason	Women	Men
	%	%
To open/operate own or family business (with spouse)	28.7	23.4
Children too young/preferred to look after children	24.0	*1.8
To help spouse	12.4	*0.3
Wanted office at home/ no overheads/no rent	12.1	30.9
Flexible working hours	6.7	8.3
	'000	'000
Total(a)	230.7	112.6

(a) Includes other reasons.

Source: *Persons Employed at Home, Australia* (Cat. no. 6275.0).

workers or contributing family workers.

The remaining women and men were employees.

The main difference in the age distribution of women and men working from home was the proportion of people aged 35-44 years. 35% of women working from home were in this age group, compared to 26% of men. This corresponds to the peak child rearing age group. Almost one-quarter of women reported the main reason for working from home was because their children were too young or because they preferred to look after their children. In contrast, only 2% of men gave this as their main reason.

The occupations of women and men who worked from home differed. 55% of women were in clerical occupations and 15% were salespersons or personal service workers. In

contrast, 34% of men were in professional occupations and 22% were tradespersons.

The majority of female and male employees who worked from home (83% and 87% respectively) received some benefits. Those who did receive benefits were more likely to have superannuation coverage and be covered for workers compensation, than they were to receive paid leave. For example, 52% of female employees who worked from home had worker's compensation coverage while 26% had paid sick leave.

Employees were more likely than employers, own account workers and contributing family workers to receive superannuation and workers compensation. For example, 70% of female and male employees who worked from home had superannuation coverage, compared to 34% of women and 46% of men who were not employees.

Trade union membership

The number of female and male employees who were trade union members has declined since 1990. For men, there was a corresponding decrease in the proportion of employees who are trade union members (45% in August 1990 compared to 34% in August 1996). For women, the proportion of employees who were union members remained stable in 1990 and 1992 (35%) and then decreased in subsequent years. 28% of female employees were union members in 1996 (see Summary Graphs p. 86).

Retirement

In November 1994, 63% of women (1.9 million) and 46% of men (1.3 million) aged 45 or over had retired from the full-time labour force.

Women tended to retire from paid work at younger ages than men. 65% of women had retired before the age of 50 compared to 13% of men. In contrast, 58% of men retired at 60 years or over, compared to 13% of women (see Summary Graphs p. 86).

The reasons for early retirement varied between women and men. Women were more likely than men to state family reasons (20% compared to 3%) and that they had decided not to work any more or wanted more leisure time (25% compared to 18%).

People aged 45 and over who had retired early(a) from full-time work, November 1994

Selected main reason	Women	Men
	%	%
<i>Personal reasons</i>	66.9	79.3
Own ill health or injury	24.8	48.2
No financial need to work	5.9	5.5
Decided not to work any more, more leisure time	24.6	18.0
<i>Family reasons</i>	20.2	2.7
<i>Employment reasons</i>	9.1	13.9
	'000	'000
Total(b)	577.4	847.8

(a) Before the age of 60 for women and 65 for men.
(b) Includes other reasons.

Source: *Retirement and Retirement Intentions, Australia* (Cat. no. 6238.0.40.001).

Definitions and data references

- Absence from work** — during normal working hours for more than three hours in their main job. Excludes absences due to workers compensation, rostered days off and flexitime.
Reference: *Working Arrangements, Australia* (Cat. no. 6342.0.40.001).
- Contributing family worker** — people who work without pay, in a business operated by a related person living in the same household.
Reference: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).
- Current job** — the job in which the person worked in the week before the interview for an employer/business. If they had worked in more than one job it was the job in which most hours were usually worked.
Reference: *Labour Mobility, Australia* (Cat. no. 6209.0).
- Early retirement** — retirement from full-time work at 45 years or over but before 60 years for women and 65 years for men.
Reference: *Retirement and Retirement Intentions, Australia* (Cat. no. 6238.0.40.001).
- Formal child care** — regulated care away from the child's home. Includes: preschool; before and after school care programs; long day care centres; family day care; occasional care and other formal care.
Reference: *Child Care, Australia* (Cat. no. 4402.0).
- Full-time employee** — all employees for whom full-time was the response to the question 'is your main job full-time or part-time?'
Reference: *Working Arrangements, Australia* (Cat. no. 6342.0.40.001).
- Informal child care** — non-regulated care either in the child's home or elsewhere. Includes care by (step) brothers or sisters, relatives (including non-custodial parent) and by non-relatives such as friends, neighbours or babysitters. The carers may be paid.
Reference: *Child Care, Australia* (Cat. no. 4402.0).
- Main difficulty in finding work** — during the current period of unemployment.
Reference: *Job Search Experience of Unemployed Persons, Australia* (Cat. no. 6222.0).
- Not in the labour force** — not working and not looking for work.
Reference: *Labour Mobility, Australia* (Cat. no. 6209.0).
- Own account worker** — people who operate their own business or engage independently in a profession or trade and hire no employees.
Reference: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).
- Part-time employees** — all employees for whom part-time was the response to the question 'is your main job full-time or part-time?'
Reference: *Working Arrangements, Australia* (Cat. no. 6342.0.40.001).
- Part-time hours in main job** — employees who usually work less than 35 hours a week in their main job.
Reference: *Working Arrangements, Australia* (Cat. no. 6342.0.40.001).
- People who re-entered the labour force** — were working or looking for work during the reference week, and had been out of the labour force for at least a year but had returned within the previous 12 months (and had worked for a period of 12 months or more at some time previously).
Reference: *Persons who had Re-entered the Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6264.0.40.001).

Retirement from full-time work — people aged 45 years or over who had a full-time job at some time and who had since ceased full-time labour force activity. Excludes voluntary work.

Reference: *Retirement and Retirement Intentions, Australia* (Cat. no. 6238.0.40.001).

Standard benefit — provision by employer of holiday leave, sick leave, long-service leave or superannuation benefit.

Reference: *Working Arrangements, Australia* (Cat. no. 6342.0.40.001).

Superannuation benefit — membership of a superannuation or retirement benefits scheme, if the scheme was arranged or provided by their current employer, even if the employer did not contribute to the fund.

Reference: *Working Arrangements, Australia* (Cat. no. 6342.0.40.001).

Trade union — an organisation (or employee or professional association) consisting mainly of employees. Its main activities include negotiating on rates of pay and conditions of employment for its members.

Reference: *Trade Union Members, Australia* (Cat. no. 6325.0).

Unemployed people — those aged 15 years and over who were not employed during the reference week and were actively looking and available for work in the reference week, or waiting to start a job within four weeks from the end of reference week. Excludes people who had been stood down without pay for less than four weeks up to the end of the reference week (for reasons other than bad weather or plant breakdown) and were waiting to be called back.

Reference: *Job Search Experience of Unemployed Persons, Australia* (Cat. no. 6222.0).

Working from home — people who usually worked more hours at home than elsewhere in their main or second job. Excludes farmers, farm hands and assistants, unpaid voluntary workers and people who worked less than one hour.

Reference: *Persons Employed at Home, Australia* (Cat. no. 6275.0).

Worked some hours at home — includes work done as part of, or as an extension of one's job. For example, teachers who prepare work at home are included.

Reference: *Persons Employed at Home, Australia* (Cat. no. 6275.0).

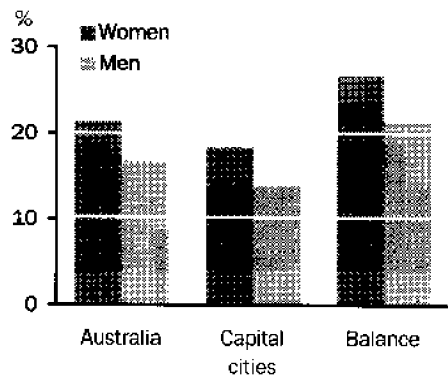


Voluntary work

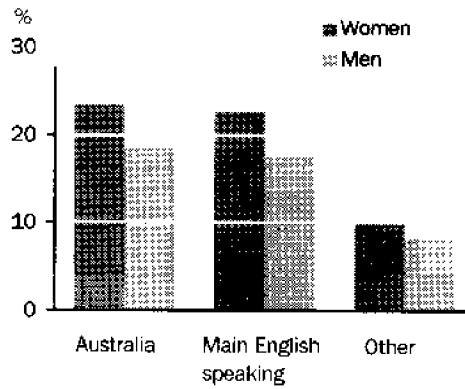


Summary graphs

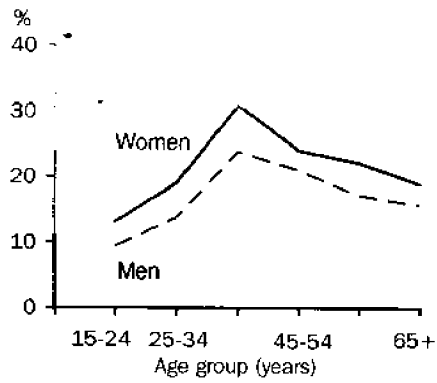
Volunteer rates by major statistical region, 1995



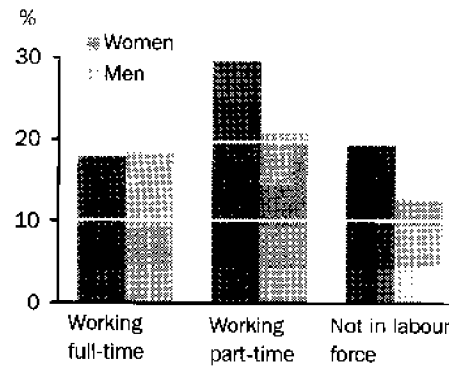
Volunteer rates by country of birth, 1995



Volunteer rates by age, 1995



Volunteer rates by employment status, 1995



Introduction

Volunteer and community work together with household work are generally classified as 'unpaid work' and therefore excluded from the boundaries of production used in estimating gross national product in National Accounting Systems. However, in 1993 the new United Nations System of National Accounts recommended that these activities could be incorporated in 'satellite accounts', accounting statements separate from, but consistent with, existing national accounts.

Following this model, it was estimated that in 1992 the total value of unpaid work in Australia was \$227.8 billion. Unpaid household work accounted for 92% of the total value. Women contributed 66% of the value of household work.

Volunteer and community work (both that undertaken by individuals acting on their own initiative and that supplied free to non-profit institutions serving households), contributed the remaining 8% of the total value of unpaid work. Women contributed 51% of the estimated value of voluntary and community work.

Participation in voluntary work is, by definition, a discretionary allocation of time. There is continuing debate at the international level about the inclusion of volunteer and community work in the measure of 'unpaid work'. It is argued that certain types of community work, such as coaching or supervising a children's sports team, should be classified as a leisure

activity rather than unpaid work. Similar arguments might be applied to other components of unpaid household work including certain aspects of shopping and playing with children.

Statistical activities

The ABS first collected information about voluntary work in 1982, when surveys were conducted in Victoria and Queensland. Information was collected on unpaid help given through organisations in the year ended November 1982. The next survey was carried out in New South Wales in October 1986, and covered unpaid work provided both through organisations and outside organisations in the previous 12 months. A similar survey in South Australia in October 1988 used a three month reference period. A further survey was conducted in Tasmania in October 1993.

The first national survey was undertaken by the ABS in June 1995, and collected information about unpaid help given through an organisation or group, in the 12 months prior to the survey.

The numbers of volunteers working in community service organisations, and the jobs they were doing, were collected in the 1996 Community Service Industry Survey.

Information about voluntary work activities will be collected in the 1997 Time Use Survey, including information on the voluntary work undertaken by individuals outside organisations.

Voluntary work

Voluntary work is an important contribution to national well-being, meeting diverse needs within the community as well as providing opportunities for personal service and development. The contribution of volunteers is often essential to the operation of non-profit community-based service organisations.

Volunteer and community work may be undertaken by individuals acting on their own initiative either singly or together, or by individuals providing unpaid help to organisations. Voluntary work through organisations can be undertaken in a variety of fields and offers a much wider range of activities than those an individual might undertake in assisting others.

Individual voluntary work

Individuals may provide regular assistance on a voluntary basis to neighbours, friends or others. These activities may be comparable to unpaid work carried out in their own family, such as housework, shopping, gardening and child minding. Individuals may also visit and provide care for older people and people who are sick or have a disability, outside their own family.

During the year ending October 1986 it was estimated that 13% of women and 11% of men in New South Wales had undertaken voluntary work acting on their own initiative.

During the three months ending October 1988, it was estimated that 8% of women

and 6% of men in South Australia had undertaken such voluntary work.

Volunteering in organisations

Australia-wide, 2.6 million people volunteered through organisations during the 12 months ended June 1995.

1.5 million (57%) of these volunteers were women. The participation rates for women and men were 21% and 17% respectively.

In comparison, during the year ending November 1982, it was estimated that 30% of women and 27% of men in Victoria, and 31% of women and 26% of men in Queensland were volunteers in organisations.

Volunteer rates in Queensland and Victoria showed marked decreases between 1982 and 1995. In 1995, volunteer rates for women in Queensland and Victoria were 24% and 22%, respectively. The volunteer rate for men in both of these states was 18%. Women increased their participation in the labour force during this period which may account for some of the decrease in

Volunteer rates

State	Women	Men
	%	%
Queensland		
1982	31.4	25.8
1995	23.5	18.3
Victoria		
1982	29.5	26.9
1995	22.2	17.6
Australia 1995	21.3	16.7

Source: *Provision of Welfare Services by Volunteers: Queensland* (Cat. no. 4401.3) and *Victoria* (Cat. no. 4401.2); *Voluntary Work, Australia* (Cat. no. 4441.0).

women's volunteer activities. However, a similar large decrease in men's volunteer participation rate during the period suggests a wider change in social attitudes.

Characteristics of volunteers

Although volunteer rates varied across different groups in the population, rates for women in almost all groups were higher than for men. This was the case regardless of location, birthplace, age or family status.

Participation in voluntary work was higher in areas outside capital cities (see Summary Graphs p. 104). The highest volunteer rates for both women and men were in South Australia outside Adelaide (36% and 29% respectively) and the lowest were in Sydney (14% and 10%). The highest capital city participation rate for women was 23% in Brisbane, and for men, 21% in Hobart.

Volunteer rates were similar for women and men born in Australia and those born in a main English speaking country. These rates were over twice those for women and men born in non-English speaking countries, which were 10% and 8% respectively (see Summary Graphs p. 104).

For both women and men, the peak age for volunteering was 35-44 years, the age at which they are most likely to have school-aged children (see Summary Graphs p. 104). Almost one-third of women and one-quarter of men in this age group were volunteers. By age 65 years and over volunteer rates had decreased to less than one-fifth. However, these rates were still

Volunteer rates, 1995

Relationship in household	Women	Men
	%	%
Wife, husband or partner		
With dependants	29.9	23.1
Without dependants	19.2	17.3
Lone parent	19.3	18.9
Non-family member	19.7	13.4
Total (a)	21.3	16.7

(a) Includes other family members.

Source: *Voluntary Work, Australia* (Cat. no. 4441.0).

higher than those for the youngest age groups.

Volunteer rates were also higher for women and men with a partner and dependent children (30% and 23% respectively), many of whom would be in the 35-44 year age group. 19% of both female and male lone parents were involved in volunteer activities.

Both women and men in full-time employment had a volunteer rate of 18% (see Summary Graphs p. 104). Women in part-time employment had a volunteer rate of 30%. Of those not in the labour force 19% of women and 13% of men were volunteers. Only 4% of volunteers were unemployed. This low level may reflect, in part, activity test provisions for unemployment allowances which may curtail their voluntary work.

For people in the labour force, volunteer rates differed considerably between occupation groups. Women had higher rates than men in all occupation groups except tradespersons. The highest overall

Volunteer rates by occupation(a), 1995

Occupation group	Women	Men
	%	%
Managers and administrators	32.4	28.1
Professionals	34.0	29.3
Para-professionals	27.4	22.7
Tradespersons	12.9	13.4
Clerks	22.9	20.3
Salespersons and personal service workers	17.5	16.8
Plant and machine operators and drivers	13.6	12.2
Labourers and related workers	18.1	11.6
All occupations	22.9	18.0

(a) People in the labour force.

Source: *Voluntary Work, Australia* (Cat. no. 4441.0).

rates occurred among managers and administrators, professionals and para-professionals. The lowest rates were for female tradespersons (13%) and for men in the labourers and related workers group (12%).

How people volunteer

Two-thirds of both female and male volunteers were involved with only one organisation. The overall pattern of participation was almost identical for women and men.

At age 35-44 years both women and men were more likely to volunteer in more than one organisation (about two-fifths). In the youngest age group, 15-24 years, three-quarters of both females and males were involved with only one organisation.

Fields of voluntary work

Nearly one-third of female volunteers were working in the welfare or community field, and an equal number in education, training and youth development. This was considerably higher than the proportion of men. Almost one-quarter of female volunteers were involved with sport, recreation or hobby groups, compared to 42% of male volunteers. Religious groups were supported by 19% and 16% of female and male volunteers respectively.

In total, volunteers worked 434 million hours for organisations in the previous 12 months. Sport, recreation and hobby groups and welfare or community organisations each accounted for 24% of volunteer hours. Major contributions were also made to religious organisations (16%).

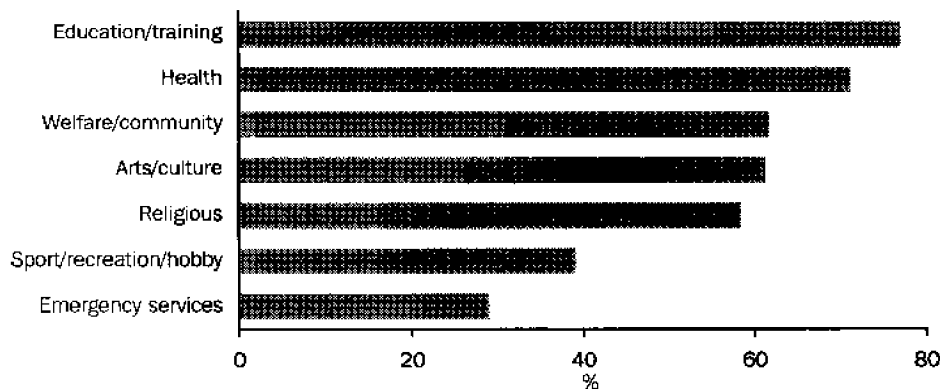
Selected fields of voluntary work, 1995

Organisational group(a)	Women	Men
	%	%
Welfare/community	31.8	27.0
Education/training/youth development	31.8	16.7
Sport/recreation/hobby	23.5	41.7
Religious	18.8	16.2
Health	8.8	4.4
Arts/culture	4.5	3.6
Environment/animal welfare	3.2	4.4
Business/professional/union	2.0	4.9
	'000	'000
Total	1 496.6	1 142.9

(a) A volunteer could work in more than one organisational group.

Source: *Voluntary Work, Australia* (Cat. no. 4441.0).

Proportion of hours worked by women in fields of voluntary work, 1995



Source: *Voluntary Work, Australia* (Cat. no. 4441.0).

and the education field (14%). However, women contributed 62% of the hours worked in welfare organisations, compared to 39% of the hours for sport and recreation. They were also responsible for 77% of hours in the education field and 58% of hours for religious organisations.

Length of time in voluntary work

Over half of all volunteers had first volunteered 10 years ago or more, 51% of women volunteers and 58% of men. Only a small proportion (8%) had started less than a year ago.

About one-quarter of female volunteers and one-third of male volunteers had worked for at least one of their current organisations for 10 years or more. Those volunteering for religious organisations were most likely to have been involved for 10 years or more, around 44% for both women and men. One-quarter of female and one-fifth of male volunteers had worked for an organisation for less than one year.

Time given to voluntary work

Time spent volunteering for an organisation can vary considerably from, for example, a couple of hours a month attending a committee meeting, to regular commitments with a sports team each week. If an individual volunteers for more than one organisation this can result in a significant commitment of time.

The pattern of time spent in volunteer work during the previous 12 months was similar for women and men. About one-quarter contributed less than 25 hours during the year. One-eighth contributed 350 hours or more, the equivalent of volunteering at least one day a week. A further one-fifth spent 150–349 hours, or between a half and one day a week.

The amount of time worked varied with age. Those aged 15–24 years were more likely to have worked less than 25 hours, while women aged 55 years and over and men aged 65 and over were more likely to have contributed 150 hours or more.

Median hours worked in the main fields of voluntary work, 1995

Organisational group	Women hours	Men hours
Sport/recreation/hobby	60	60
Religious	60	50
Welfare/community	52	48
Arts/culture	52	78
Environment/animal welfare	52	30
Education/training/youth development	48	30
Health	48	38
Business/professional/union	48	36
Emergency services	36	40
Total	75	74

Source: *Voluntary Work, Australia* (Cat. no. 4441.0).

Because many volunteers contributed relatively few hours over the year, while a minority worked for a large number of hours it is difficult to measure the contribution of an 'average volunteer'. Overall, the median hours of voluntary work were 75, that is, half of volunteers worked 75 hours or more during the year. The median hours worked was similar for both women and men.

Time spent varied according to the field of voluntary work. For both women and men, half of those working for sport, recreation and hobby organisations contributed 60 hours or more during the year. For women, the median time worked for religious organisations was also 60 hours, while the highest median hours for men was in arts or culture (78 hours). This was 50% higher than the female median for the same field.

Activities undertaken

Volunteers can undertake a wide range of activities within the organisations they support. Both women and men were heavily involved with fundraising, management and committee work, and day-to-day organisation and coordination. However, a higher proportion of men took part in management (46% compared to 37% of women) and 50% of women undertook fundraising compared to 42% of men. Women were much more likely to be involved in traditional roles, such as food preparation and serving whereas a higher proportion of men undertook repairs and gardening and coaching and refereeing.

Selected activities undertaken by volunteers, 1995

Activity(a)	Women	Men
	%	%
Fundraising	49.6	42.4
Preparing/serving food	39.6	15.4
Management/committee work	36.7	46.2
Teaching/instruction	29.2	23.0
Day-to-day organising/ coordinating	23.3	25.5
Administration/clerical	22.9	22.8
Befriending/supportive listening/counselling	20.4	14.0
Coaching/refereeing/judging	11.0	20.6
Repairs/maintenance/ gardening	8.9	30.4
	'000	'000
Total	1 496.6	1 142.9

(a) A volunteer could undertake more than one activity.

Source: *Voluntary Work, Australia* (Cat. no. 4441.0).

Selected reasons for volunteering, 1995

Reason(a)	Women	Men
	%	%
Help others/community	41.8	41.2
Personal/family involvement	35.3	31.2
Personal satisfaction	26.7	26.5
To do something worthwhile	24.9	21.1
Social contact	16.8	14.3
	'000	'000
Total	1 496.6	1 142.9

(a) A volunteer could state more than one reason.

Source: *Voluntary Work, Australia* (Cat. no. 4441.0).

Reasons for volunteering

Reasons for first becoming a volunteer were similar for women and men. Helping others or the community, personal or family involvement and personal satisfaction were the main reasons given.

For women aged between 25 and 44 years, personal or family involvement was the most important reason for volunteering. As age increased, helping others or the community was a reason given by more women and men. For men, personal or family involvement was the reason cited most often by the 35–44 year age group, although it was not as important as for women of that age. It remained an important reason for men in the 45–54 years age group also.

Young women were almost twice as likely as young men to be looking for work experience or a reference (20% and 11% respectively).

Experience of volunteering

Overall, the experience of volunteering must be sufficiently positive if volunteers are to continue their commitment of time and energy to organisations.

Costs of volunteering

Volunteering can involve financial costs which may deter some people from participating. 41% of female and 36% of male volunteers said they did not incur any expenses due to their voluntary work. Of those with expenses, 70% of women paid for telephone calls and for travel, 31% paid for postage and 16% for meals. For men 74% had expenses for telephone calls and for travel, 30% for postage and 19% for meals. Women were slightly more likely than men to receive reimbursement for costs incurred.

Concerns about volunteering

Nearly two-thirds of all volunteers had no concerns about their work. Female volunteers were less concerned than men (67% compared to 60%). The major concerns for women were the lack of support they received and the time required for volunteer work. For male volunteers the most frequently mentioned concern was the legal responsibility of their work. They were also more concerned about insurance cover and the risk of injury or ill-health than female volunteers. Concern about costs was not marked for women or men.

Concerns about volunteering, 1995

<i>Concerns(a)</i>	<i>Women</i>	<i>Men</i>
	%	%
No concerns	67.3	60.1
Lack of support	10.4	13.1
Time required	9.0	12.3
Legal responsibility	7.6	14.3
Travel/distance/location	7.1	7.5
Costs	6.0	7.6
Risk of injury/ill health	4.5	8.1
Insurance cover	4.2	8.1

'000 '000

Total **1 496.6** **1 142.9**

(a) A volunteer could have more than one concern.

Source: Unpublished data, Voluntary Work Survey.

Benefits from volunteering, 1995

<i>Benefits(a)</i>	<i>Women</i>	<i>Men</i>
	%	%
Personal satisfaction	58.9	60.0
Social contact	40.5	35.3
Helped others/community	31.0	27.7
Doing something worthwhile	26.1	22.3
Personal/family involvement	18.8	15.1
Learned new skills	17.6	15.6
No benefits	3.4	6.3

'000 '000

Total **1 496.6** **1 142.9**

(a) A volunteer could state more than one benefit.

Source: Unpublished data, Voluntary Work Survey.

Benefits from volunteering

For both women and men the major benefit identified by volunteers was personal satisfaction. Women were slightly more likely than men to give social contact (41% compared to 35%) as a benefit. Other

benefits cited were helping others or the community and doing something worthwhile. Only 3% of women and 6% of men felt they had not gained any benefit from volunteering.

Definitions and data references

Activities — the type of help provided to each organisation for which a volunteer worked.

Reference: *Voluntary Work, Australia*
(Cat. no. 4441.0).

Benefits — personal benefits gained through volunteering. It does not necessarily relate to any specific field of work or reference period.

Reference: *Voluntary Work, Australia*
(Cat. no. 4441.0).

Concerns about voluntary work — in the previous 12 months. Concerns may not apply to every organisation supported by the volunteer.

Reference: *Voluntary Work, Australia*
(Cat. no. 4441.0).

Field of voluntary work — the primary focus of the organisation or group supported by a volunteer.

Reference: *Voluntary Work, Australia*
(Cat. no. 4441.0).

How first became involved in voluntary work — the practical means by which the volunteer first became involved, as opposed to their motivation.

Reference: *Voluntary Work, Australia*
(Cat. no. 4441.0).

Median hours per volunteer — the number of hours such that half the volunteers in any group worked less than that number and half worked more than that number.

Reference: *Voluntary Work, Australia*
(Cat. no. 4441.0).

Organisation or group — any body of people with a formal structure. Ad hoc, informal or temporary gatherings of people are excluded. If a volunteer worked for up to three organisations, information was collected relating to them all. If they worked for more than three, information was collected about the three organisations for which they worked the most hours.

Reference: *Voluntary Work, Australia*
(Cat. no. 4441.0).

Reasons for first becoming a volunteer — motivation for first becoming a volunteer; reasons do not necessarily relate to any specific organisation or reference period.

Reference: *Voluntary Work, Australia*
(Cat. no. 4441.0).

Volunteer — someone aged 15 years and over who willingly gave unpaid help, in the form of time, service or skills, through an organisation or group.

Reference: *Voluntary Work, Australia*
(Cat. no. 4441.0).

Unpaid work — unpaid household work and volunteer and community work, which make up the main part of the non-market sector of the economy. Unpaid assistance provided by relatives and others in family businesses is generally grouped with (paid) labour force activities.

Reference: *Unpaid Work and the Australian Economy* (Cat. no. 5240.0).

Volunteer rate — for any group, the number of volunteers expressed as a percentage of the population in the same group.

Reference: *Voluntary Work, Australia*
(Cat. no. 4441.0).

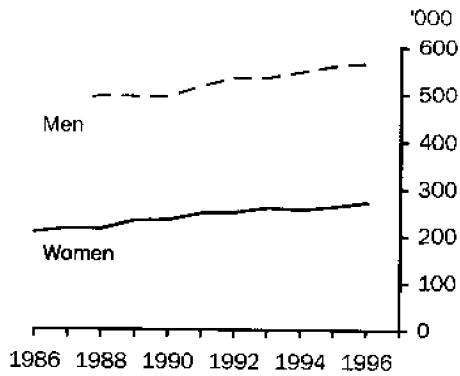


Business

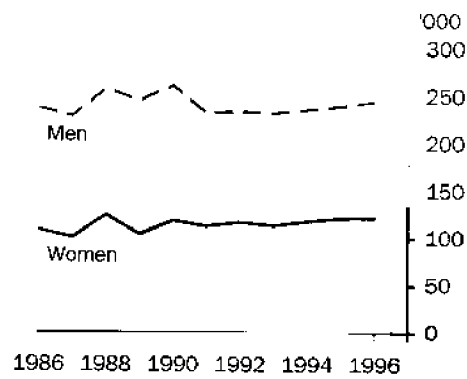


Summary graphs

Own account workers



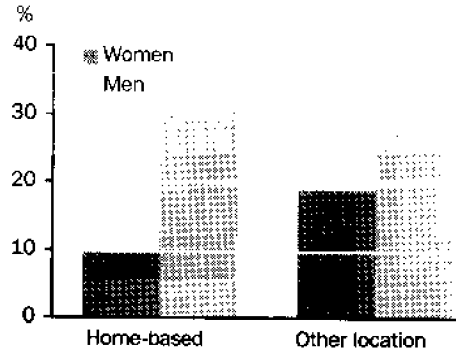
Employers



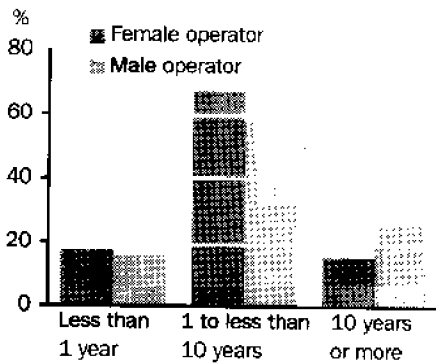
Proportion of people in own business working over 45 hours per week, May 1996



Proportion of small business operators working over 50 hours per week, February 1995



Length of operation of small businesses with one operator, February 1995



Introduction

Many people make the transition from being an employee to running their own business. They may work alone, with other family members, or they may employ others.

Small business is acknowledged as a vital and significant sector of the Australian economy. A business is traditionally regarded as small, if it is independently owned and operated and closely controlled by the operators. In practical terms, they have been defined by the ABS as businesses which employ less than 20 people.

Women play a significant role in Australian business and particularly in small businesses. They may participate either as unpaid family workers, or as independent operators, or co-owners.

The proportion of women working in their own business is growing rapidly. Over the past decade the average annual growth rate of female owned small businesses was over 3%, one and a half times the rate for men.

Statistical activities

The ABS has conducted the first survey in a five year longitudinal study of Australian businesses. Results from the 1994-95 study were released in *Small and Medium Enterprises, Business Growth and Performances Survey, Australia* (Cat. no. 8141.0) and *A Portrait of Australian Business* (Industry Commission and Department of Industry, Science and Tourism). The second phase of the survey, 1995-96 will collect more detailed information about small business operators and employees (including their gender).

The Characteristics of Small Business Survey was repeated in February 1997 with results expected in September 1997.

Business

A business may have legal status as a company, sole proprietorship, or a partnership. Sole proprietors and people in partnerships can be either employers or own account workers (have no employees).

Companies represent approximately one-quarter of all businesses, but are the majority (79%) of larger businesses. The owners of a company may appoint themselves as directors of that company and be paid a wage or salary. In this case they are classified as employees. There is currently no data available on the characteristics of directors of companies, as they cannot be separately identified from other operators.

People working in own business

Employed	May 1986		May 1996	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
	'000	'000	'000	'000
Own account workers	205.1	470.2	271.3	566.7
Employers	108.3	237.7	121.6	245.0
Total	313.4	707.9	392.9	811.7

Source: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).

Since May 1986, there has been a steady increase in the number of own account workers. The number of employers fluctuated during the period 1986-91, reflecting changes in the economy. Since May 1993 there has been a slight increase in the number of employers (see Summary Graphs p. 116).

In May 1996, there were 271,300 female own account workers and 121,600 female

Employed women, May 1996

Occupational group	Working in own business			
	Own account workers	Employers	Total	Employees
	%	%	%	%
Managers and administrators	21.6	29.2	23.9	3.8
Professionals	13.5	7.2	11.6	14.8
Para-professionals	1.5	*1.4	1.5	7.0
Tradespersons	8.1	9.6	8.6	2.8
Clerks	20.1	30.7	23.3	30.4
Salespersons and personal service workers	22.1	16.4	20.3	26.9
Plant and machine operators and drivers	3.3	*1.5	2.7	1.9
Labourers and related workers	9.8	4.1	8.1	12.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total	271.3	121.6	392.9	3 153.0

Source: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).

People working in own business, May 1996

Hours worked per week	Own account workers		Employers		Total	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
	%	%	%	%	%	%
1-10	27.6	6.5	17.4	*1.3	24.4	4.9
11-20	20.2	8.0	13.3	2.4	18.0	6.3
21-34	13.7	10.7	13.9	5.5	13.8	9.1
35-44	15.5	24.6	15.8	18.6	15.6	22.8
45 and over	23.1	50.2	39.7	72.3	28.3	57.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total(a)	252.4	529.8	116.2	236.4	368.6	766.2

(a) Excludes people who worked no hours in the week.

Source: Unpublished data, Labour Force Survey.

employers. Women represented almost one-third of both own account workers and employers, compared to 45% of employees.

The occupational profile of women running their own business differs from that of female employees. The most significant difference is that almost one-quarter of women in their own business are managers or administrators compared to 4% of employees.

There were also differences between female own account workers and employers. In May 1996 a higher proportion of employers than own account workers were managers and administrators. This is probably due to employers being required to manage their staff. Female own account workers are nearly twice as likely as employers to be working in a professional occupation.

People working in their own business may combine this work with another paid job.

In August 1994, 9% of employed women (19,200) and 12% of employed men (24,000) were employers or own account workers in their main job. A further 19% of employed women (38,700) and 32% of employed men (65,300) with more than one job were employers or own account workers in their second job.

Hours worked

Women in their own business worked, on average, fewer hours per week than their male counterparts (30 hours compared to 45 hours). The majority of men (57%) and a significant proportion of women (28%) in their own business worked 45 hours or more per week.

Employers reported working longer hours than own account workers. 40% of female employers, compared to almost one-quarter of female own account workers, worked 45 hours or more per week. A similar

pattern was found for men (see Summary Graphs p. 116).

Employed people who work less than 35 hours per week can be classified as working part-time. Own account workers were more likely to work part-time than employers. In May 1996, 61% of female own account workers worked part-time compared to 45% of female employers.

Small business

In February 1995, the ABS conducted the Characteristics of Small Business Survey which collected information about the characteristics of small businesses (those with less than 20 employees) and their operators.

Small business operators

Small business operators include own account workers, employers and working directors of incorporated companies. A

Home-based small business operators, February 1995

Age group (years)	Women	Men
	%	%
Under 25	2.7	2.5
25-34	26.1	16.3
35-44	33.8	32.6
45-54	25.0	29.8
55 and over	12.5	18.8
Total	100.0	100.0
	'000	'000
Total	142.0	158.8

Source: Unpublished data, Characteristics of Small Business Survey.

Small business operators, February 1995

Qualifications	Women	Men
	%	%
<i>With post-school qualifications</i>		
Degree or higher	45.6	64.5
Diploma	12.1	13.9
Basic and skilled vocational	11.5	11.5
22.0	39.1	
<i>Without post-school qualifications</i>		
54.4	35.5	
Total	100.0	100.0
	'000	'000
Total	424.3	827.8

Source: Unpublished data, Characteristics of Small Business Survey.

small business can have more than one operator, such as, a partnership. In February 1995, there were 794,700 small businesses operated by 1.3 million people. One-third of these operators were women (424,300).

182,400 small businesses were operated from home by 300,800 people. 47% of home-based operators were women, compared to 30% of operators from other locations. Businesses operating from home accounted for one-third of female small business operators compared to almost one-fifth of male small business operators.

The age distributions of women and men were broadly similar. The main difference being for home-based small business operators in the 25-34 year age group. 26% of female home-based operators were aged 25-34, compared to 16% of men. Women of

this age are more likely to have young children (see p. 7) and home-based work allows them to more easily balance their work and family responsibilities.

In February 1995, female small business operators were less likely to have a post-school qualification than male small business operators (46% compared to 64%). This difference was largely due to the higher proportion of men with vocational (mainly trade) qualifications.

Women running a business from their home were more likely to have post-school qualifications than those not based at home (50% compared to 44%). They also worked on average fewer hours per week than those not based at home. Two-thirds of women working from home worked part-time compared to half of those not based at home.

Female small business operators worked shorter hours than their male counterparts. One in 10 women based at home, worked over 50 hours per week, compared to three out of 10 men (see Summary Graphs p. 116).

Characteristics of small businesses

The survey collected detailed information about characteristics of small businesses. However, as 59% of businesses have more than one operator, it is difficult to analyse female and male owned businesses separately. The following analysis considers only the 326,000 small businesses with one

Small business operators, February 1995

Hours worked per week	Home-based		Other locations	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
	%	%	%	%
Under 10	24.4	5.4	16.2	1.6
10-20	28.9	10.7	22.5	5.4
21-34	12.3	8.2	12.5	5.1
35-50	24.3	45.2	30.2	51.6
Over 50	9.9	30.4	18.7	36.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total	142.0	158.8	282.2	669.0

Source: Unpublished data, Characteristics of Small Business Survey.

operator. 26% of these businesses were run by women.

Small businesses owned by women had been operating for shorter periods of time than those owned by men. Almost two-thirds of female operated businesses had been established in the last five years, compared to over half of male operated businesses (see Summary Graphs p. 116).

When establishing their business, women and men used different financial means. A higher proportion of women than men started their business with less than \$1,000 (43% and 29% respectively). Women were also less likely to use personal savings or to borrow money (46% compared to 56%).

19% of women and 14% of men stated they had developed a business plan. 94% of these women said they operated under the plan, compared to 88% of men.

Definitions and data references

Average hours worked — the total hours a group of employed people worked during the reference week (not necessarily hours paid for), divided by the number of people in that group.

Reference: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).

Employed — people aged 15 years or over who worked for one hour or more during the reference week for pay, profit, commission, payment in kind or without pay in a family business, or who had a job but were not at work.

Reference: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).

Employees — people who work for a public or private employer and receive wages; salary; commission; tips; piece-rates; or pay in kind.

Reference: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).

Employers — people who operate their own business or engage independently in a profession or trade and hire one or more employees.

Reference: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).

Home-based small businesses — non-agricultural businesses employing less than 20 employees where one or more of the operators usually worked more hours at home than away from home.

Reference: *Characteristics of Small Business, Australia* (Cat. no. 8127.0).

Hours worked(a) — the number of hours worked per week by employed people in all jobs. Excludes people who worked no hours.

Reference: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).

Hours worked(b) — the number of hours that each operator usually worked per week in the business.

Reference: *Characteristics of Small Business, Australia* (Cat. no. 8127.0).

Main job — the job in which most hours were usually worked.

Reference: *Multiple Jobholding, Australia* (Cat. no. 6216.0.40.001).

People with more than one job — employed people who, during the reference week worked in a second job or held a second job but were absent due to holidays, sickness or other reasons; and were an employee in at least one of the jobs.

Reference: *Multiple Jobholding, Australia* (Cat. no. 6216.0.40.001).

Operators — people who own and run a business. Includes proprietor of a sole proprietorship, partners of a partnership, and the working director(s) of an incorporated company.

Reference: *Characteristics of Small Business, Australia* (Cat. no. 8127.0).

Own account workers — people who operate their own business or engage independently in a profession or trade and hire no employees.

Reference: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).

Part-time operators — business operators who usually worked less than 35 hours a week in the business.

Reference: *Characteristics of Small Business, Australia* (Cat. no. 8127.0).

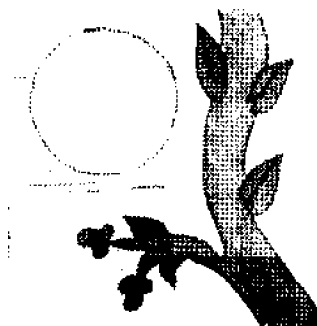
People working in own business — includes employers and own account workers. Excludes employees and contributing family workers.

Reference: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).

Small businesses — non-agricultural businesses employing less than 20 employees.

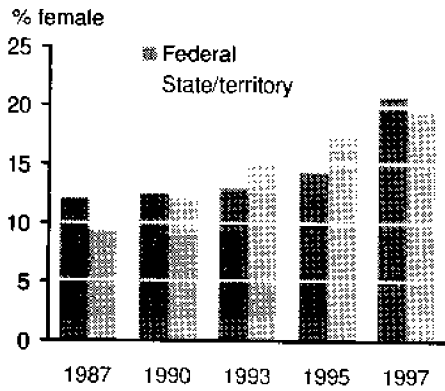
Reference: *Characteristics of Small Business, Australia* (Cat. no. 8127.0).

**Decision making,
management
and recognition**

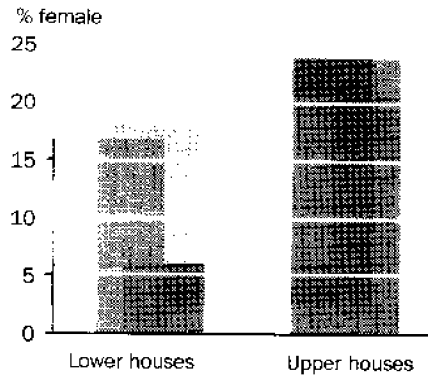


Summary graphs

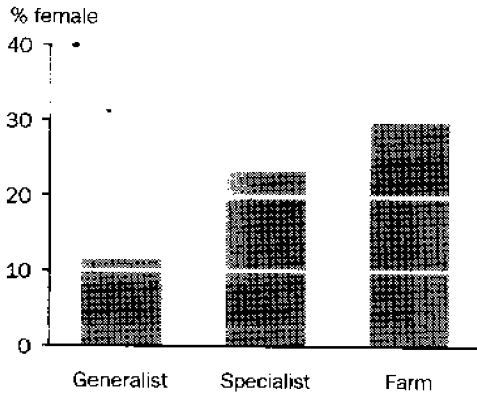
Australian parliaments



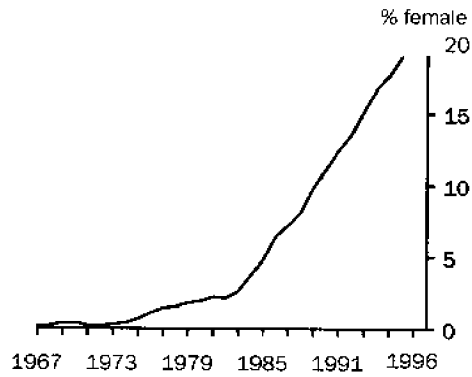
Members of federal and state parliaments, March–July 1997



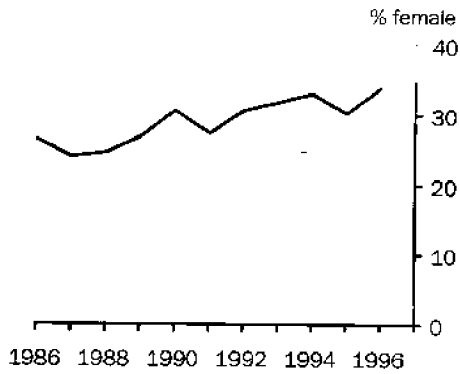
Managers and administrators,



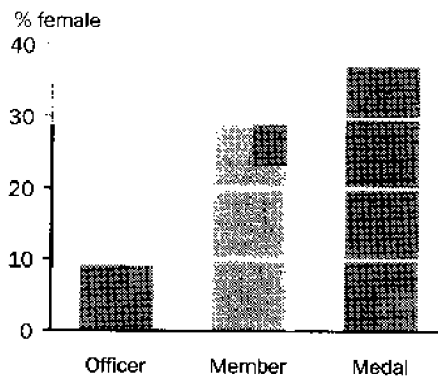
Australian Public Service senior executive service



Order of Australia awards



Order of Australia awards, 1997



Introduction

Despite improvements during the last 10 years, women are still underrepresented at all levels of government, as members of boards and in management positions. This results in limited opportunities for women to contribute to decisions which affect society. Furthermore, it does not allow for women to develop to their full potential in these fields.

Various factors influence whether women are able to fully and actively participate in public life, including: the continued segregation of the Australian workforce; an emphasis on the time people have been employed, rather than their skills or expertise; and women's double load, having to combine paid work and public activities with family responsibilities (Australia's Second Progress Report on Implementing the United Nations Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1992) *Women in Australia*).

A major function of the Office of the Status of Women has been the promotion of issues relating to women and decision making. The office works with public sector agencies to ensure that appropriate women are considered for appointment to commonwealth government boards and other organisations.

The major avenue for public recognition in Australia is the Australian Honours System. These awards recognise outstanding contributions towards the advancement and

welfare of the community. The ability of the honours system to recognise the achievements of women has been criticised, as awards tend to be given to people who have already been recognised and they do not account for contributions made by women through voluntary work (House of Representatives Standing Committee on Legal and Constitutional Affairs (1992) *Half Way to Equal*). This finding was reiterated in 1995 by a committee which reviewed the honours system (*A Matter of Honour: The Report of the Review of Australian Honours and Awards*).

Statistical activities

The second edition of the Australian Standard Classification of Occupations (ASCO) has been developed in order to represent changes in the occupational structure of the labour market. These changes have resulted from industry and award restructuring and technological change. For example, the classification for managers and administrators has been expanded. Second edition ASCO will be progressively introduced to ABS surveys.

Government

Australia was one of the first countries to give women the right to vote and the right to sit in parliament. Non-Indigenous women have had these rights since 1902, however, it was not until 1962 that Indigenous Australians were given the right to vote at the commonwealth level.

It took 41 years for the right to sit in federal parliament to be exercised. In 1943 Enid Lyons (later Dame Enid) was the first woman elected to the federal House of Representatives and Dorothy Tangney (later Dame Dorothy) was the first woman elected to the Senate. In 1997, one-fifth of all state and federal parliamentarians were women.

Governors

Dame Roma Mitchell was Australia's first female governor, appointed in 1991. In 1997, one of the six state governors was a woman. Her Excellency Mrs Leneen Forde, Governor of Queensland.

Federal government

There were 46 women in federal parliament in 1997, representing one-fifth of all parliamentarians. This was an increase since 1987 when one-eighth of all federal parliamentarians were women (see Summary Graphs p. 124). 16% of parliamentarians in the House of Representatives and 31% of Senators were female.

In 1997, seven of the 55 ministers and shadow ministers were women. Two of the 15 cabinet ministers were women, Senator

Federal government, March–July 1997

Parliamentarians	Women	Men	Persons
	no.	no.	% female
<i>Members of parliament</i>	46	176	20.7
House of Representatives	23	125	15.5
Senate	23	51	31.1
<i>Ministers</i>	4	24	14.3
Cabinet ministers	2	13	13.3
Shadow ministers	3	24	11.1

Source: *National Guide to Government*.

The Hon. Jocelyn Newman and Senator The Hon. Amanda Vanstone. There were no female parliamentary secretaries in either of the two major parties. In addition, Senator Cheryl Kernot was the parliamentary leader of the Australian Democrats and Senator The Hon. Margaret Reid was the President of the Senate.

State government

The proportion of female state and territory parliamentarians has steadily increased from 9% in 1987 to 19% in 1997 (see Summary Graphs p. 124).

In 1997, the Australian Capital Territory had the highest proportion of women in parliament (35%), while Queensland had the lowest representation (15%).

The New South Wales Legislative Council and the Australian Capital Territory Legislative Assembly were the only parliamentary bodies in Australia where women represented one-third or more of members.

1996 was an election year for Victoria, Tasmania and Western Australia. As a result of the election in Victoria, there are more female members in both houses of parliament. 19% of members in the Victorian Legislative Assembly and 20% in the Legislative Council were women.

The Western Australia election resulted in an increase of one female parliamentarian in the assembly and a decrease of one woman in the council.

The number of women in the Tasmanian Assembly increased to ten and resulted in women representing 29% of

Members of state/territory parliaments, March–July 1997

Parliament	Women	Men	Persons
	no.	no.	% female
NSW Assembly	15	84	15.2
NSW Council	14	28	33.3
Vic. Assembly	17	71	19.3
Vic. Council	9	35	20.5
Qld Assembly	13	76	14.6
WA Assembly	13	44	22.8
WA Council	4	30	11.8
SA Assembly	9	38	19.1
SA Council	6	16	27.3
Tas. Assembly	10	25	28.6
Tas. Council	—	19	—
ACT Assembly	6	11	35.3
NT Assembly	4	21	16.0
Lower houses	87	370	19.0
Upper houses	33	128	20.5
Total	120	498	19.4

Source: National Guide to Government.

Parliaments, March–July 1997

State/territory	Members of parliament	Ministers	Shadow ministers
	% female	% female	% female
NSW	20.6	15.0	15.0
Vic.	19.7	22.2	22.2
Qld	14.6	11.1	22.2
WA	18.7	6.3	27.8
SA	21.7	15.4	33.3
Tas.	18.5	20.0	20.0
ACT	35.3	25.0	33.3
NT	16.0	—	25.0
Total	19.4	13.9	23.6

Source: National Guide to Government.

parliamentarians. However, there were still no women in the council.

Victoria and Tasmania were the only states where the proportion of ministers who were female was higher than their representation as members. In all states and territories the proportion of women who were shadow ministers was the same, or higher than, the proportion who were ministers.

Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission

In 1990 the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission (ATSIC) organised the first regional council elections for Indigenous people. The last election was held in October 1996.

23% (87) of the ATSIC councillors elected in 1996 were women. The proportion of women on the regional councils varied considerably between states. In Victoria, 39% of councillors were women, while

Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander regional councillors, 1996

State/territory	Women	Men	Persons
	no.	no.	% female
NSW	25	44	36.2
Vic.	9	14	39.1
Qld	14	64	17.9
WA	17	72	19.1
SA	6	25	19.4
Tas.	3	9	25.0
NT	13	60	17.8
Australia	87	288	23.2

Source: Unpublished data, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission.

women represented 18% of regional councillors in Queensland and the Northern Territory.

Seven of the 35 elected chairpersons of the regional councils were women. Two of the 18 commissioners of the ATSIIC board were women in 1996.

The judiciary

In 1965 Dame Roma Mitchell became Australia's first female Supreme Court Judge in South Australia and later she was the first woman to act as the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court. In 1976 Elizabeth Evatt became the first Chief Judge of the Family Court of Australia. When Mary Gaudron was appointed to the High Court of Australia in 1987, she became the first (and so far the only) woman to hold this position.

In 1996, four of the 46 Federal Court of Australia judges were women and 10 of the 53 Family Court of Australia judges were

women. The number of women in the judiciary has been largely unchanged for the last three years.

Board membership

Korn/Terry International and the Australian Institute of Company Directors conduct an annual survey, Boards of Directors in Australia. Results for the last five years show little or no change in the representation of women on boards.

154 organisations reported on their board membership in 1995. Women accounted for 4% of all board members, 1% of executive directors and 4% of non-executive directors. About one-quarter of organisations had at least one female director, while one-fifth of the companies indicated an intent to appoint a woman to the board in the next year if a vacancy becomes available.

Management

In August 1996, 4% of all employed women (146,300) were managers and administrators compared to 10% of employed men (478,400). Almost one-quarter of people employed as managers and administrators were women.

Women represented just under one-third of all farmers and farm managers, compared to approximately one-tenth of generalist managers (see Summary Graphs p. 124). Half of all female managers and administrators were farmers and farm managers compared to about one-third of male managers and administrators.

Managers and administrators, August 1996

Occupational group	Women	Men	Total
	'000	'000	% female
Managers and administrators	146.3	478.4	23.4
<i>Generalist managers</i>	14.9	114.8	11.5
General managers and administrators	7.1	40.0	15.1
Miscellaneous generalist managers	7.8	74.8	9.5
<i>Specialist managers</i>	59.2	195.5	23.3
Resources managers	15.3	41.6	26.9
Engineering, distribution and process managers	7.9	65.0	10.9
Sales and marketing managers	11.7	47.9	19.6
<i>Miscellaneous specialist managers</i>	24.4	41.1	37.2
Policy and planning managers	5.2	8.7	37.4
Education managers	4.5	11.2	28.8
Child care coordinators	6.2	*0.9	86.9
Farmers and farm managers	72.2	168.1	30.0
Total employed	3 589.4	4 730.3	43.1

Source: Labour Force, Australia (Cat. no. 6203.0).

The proportion of women in different management and administration occupations varies considerably. For example, 87% of child care coordinators were women, compared to 29% of education managers.

Australian Public Service

1996 was the 30 year anniversary of the lifting of the marriage bar in the Commonwealth Public Service, which allowed married women to hold permanent positions in the public service. When the bar was lifted, women were able to gain the experience needed to reach higher levels of management. As a consequence, it was not until the late 1970s that the proportion of women in senior positions began to increase and even then only marginally

(0.2% in 1967 compared to 1.8% in 1979) (see Summary Graphs p. 124).

During the 1990s female representation in the senior executive service (SES) and senior officer classifications (the feeder group to the SES) increased considerably. In 1986, 6% of the SES were women compared to 19% in 1996. The corresponding figures for senior officers were 15% and 30%, respectively.

Women in SES positions were more likely than men to hold jobs in the lowest level (band 1). In 1996, 21% of band 1 executives were women compared to 8% of band 3 executives. However, this was an increase since 1991, when 14% of band 1 and 3% of band 3 executives were women.

Australian Public Service, June 1996

Senior executive service	Women	Men	Total
	no.	no.	% female
Band 1	273	997	21.5
Band 2	42	295	12.5
Band 3	7	82	7.9
Total	322	1 374	19.0
	rate	rate	rate
Total(a)	5.2	20.4	..

(a) Rate per 1,000 Australian Public Service staff.

Source: Department of Finance, *Australian Public Service Statistical Bulletin*.

In June 1996 there were five female SES staff per 1,000 female Australian Public Service employees, compared to 20 male SES staff per 1,000 male employees.

Order of Australia awards

The Australian Honours system is an important means of recognising people's contribution in all aspects of Australian life. Order of Australia awards are presented twice a year, on Australia Day and the Queen's Birthday. In 1996, one-third of Order of Australia awards were presented to women compared to one-quarter in 1987 (see Summary Graphs p. 124).

Data for 1997 is only available for Order of Australia awards presented on Australia Day. One-third of these awards (160) were presented to women. None of the four appointments as Companion of the Order

Order of Australia awards, January 1997

Category	Women	Men
	no.	no.
Community	98	137
Culture, leisure and sport	40	59
Medicine	8	24
Education	7	14
Primary industries, science engineering and technology	3	29
Public life	2	21
Business, commerce and law	1	15
Transport, tourism and communications	1	5
Public service and religion	—	8
Total	160	312

Source: Unpublished data, Honours Secretariat Government House.

of Australia (the highest award) were to women. 9% of Officer of the Order of Australia honours were to women, as were 37% of the Medals of the Order of Australia (see Summary Graphs p. 124).

86% of the awards women received were in two categories, community and culture, leisure and sport. In contrast, 63% of awards to men were in these two categories.

Relatively few women received awards in the categories of primary industries, engineering, science and technology; public life; and business, commerce and law. No women received an award in the categories of public service and religion.

Definitions and data references

Australian Public Service — staff employed under the *Public Service Act 1922*.

Reference: Department of Finance,
Australian Public Service Statistical Bulletin.

Cabinet minister — belongs to the committee of senior members of the federal governing party. Major decisions of policy and administration are made in cabinet, whose meetings are strictly private. Not all ministers are cabinet ministers.

Reference: *National Guide to Government*.

Family Court of Australia — was established as a federal court in 1976 following the passage of the *Family Law Act 1975*. It deals with issues relating to the breakdown of marriage, including divorce; custody of children; maintenance and division of property; and provides a counselling service to assist people with marital problems.

Reference: *Commonwealth Government Directory*.

Farmers and farm managers — plan, direct, coordinate and perform farming activities in agricultural establishments.

Reference: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).

Federal Court of Australia — established by the *Federal Court of Australia Act* in 1976, in order to help relieve the High Court of Australia with its growing case load.

Reference: *Commonwealth Government Directory*.

Federal government — a system of government in which a written constitution distributes formal authority between a central government and regional governments.

Reference: *National Guide to Government*.

Generalist managers — interpret, analyse, administer and review the law and public policy or determine the overall direction of the organisations they represent. They also administer businesses conducting operations such as building and construction, importing, exporting, wholesaling and manufacturing.

Reference: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).

Governor — the representative of the Queen for each state. The position has wide formal powers but the Constitutional convention is that a Governor acts on the advice of the ministers.

Reference: *National Guide to Government*.

Governor-General — the Crown's representative in Australia who draws his or her powers from the Queen under the Australian Constitution. The Governor-General has considerable formal power, but conventionally acts on the advice of the Federal Executive Council.

Reference: *National Guide to Government*.

High Court of Australia — established in 1903, the supreme judicial body in Australia. It consists of the Chief Justice and six other justices who are appointed by the Governor-General on the recommendation of the government. They cannot be removed from office except by a majority vote of both houses of parliament.

Reference: *Commonwealth Government Directory*.

Lower house — historically the lower chamber of a two-tiered parliament. In Australia the lower house is the house of government, where legislation is introduced. The federal House of Representatives and the state legislative assemblies are lower houses. In states and territories where there is only one house, it is counted as a lower house.

Reference: *National Guide to Government*.

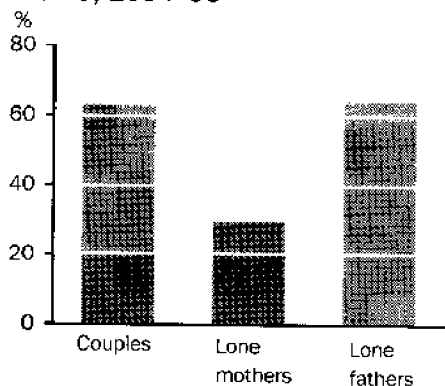
- Managers and administrators** — head government, legislative, industrial, commercial, agricultural and other establishments, or departments within these organisations. They determine the policy of the organisation or department, and direct its functioning, usually through other managers, and co-ordinate economic, social, technical, legal and other policies.
Reference: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).
- Ministers** — are members of the governing party who were elected to parliament. They are either elected by their party or appointed by the Prime Minister.
Reference: *National Guide to Government*.
- Order of Australia awards** — are given to Australian citizens for merit, achievement, and service. Instituted in 1975, awards are currently given at four levels. Appointments as Companions are made for eminent achievement and merit of the highest degree in service to Australia or humanity at large. Appointments as Officers are made for distinguished service of a high degree to Australia or humanity at large. Appointments as Members are for service in a particular locality or field or activity or to a particular group. Awards of the Medal are for service worthy of particular recognition. Excludes awards in the military division.
Reference: Honours Secretariat Government House.
- Parliamentarians** — elected members of any state and federal parliament.
Reference: *National Guide to Government*.
- Senior executive service (SES)** — comprises SES bands 1, 2 and 3 and SES specialist bands 1, 2 and 3. Excludes secretaries of departments and heads of agencies, holders of public office, chiefs of divisions and SES equivalent positions in the five Parliamentary departments.
Reference: Department of Finance, *Australian Public Service Statistical Bulletin*.
- Senior officer** — comprises senior officer grades C, B and A. Excludes staff at the senior officer level in other classification structures such as information technology and professional officers.
Reference: Department of Finance, *Australian Public Service Statistical Bulletin*.
- Shadow ministers** — senior members of the opposition in parliament who accept portfolios to match those of the government. They do not control government departments. They usually form a shadow cabinet.
Reference: *National Guide to Government*.
- Specialist managers** — coordinate the administration and operation of specialised functions or fields of activity within an organisation. Under broad direction from the general manager, they plan, administer and review the financial, corporate, personnel, supply and distribution, information technology and sales and marketing activities of an organisation.
Reference: *Labour Force, Australia* (Cat. no. 6203.0).
- Upper house** — historically the higher ranking chamber of a two-tiered parliament. Both the Senate (federal) and the legislative councils (states) have a veto power over the lower house. The upper house is usually the place where legislation and public policy is reviewed following its passage through the lower house.
Reference: *National Guide to Government*.

**Income, earnings
and income support**

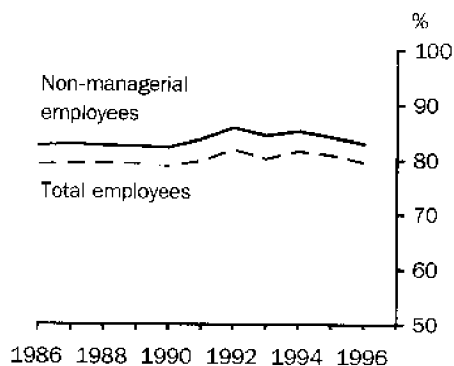


Summary graphs

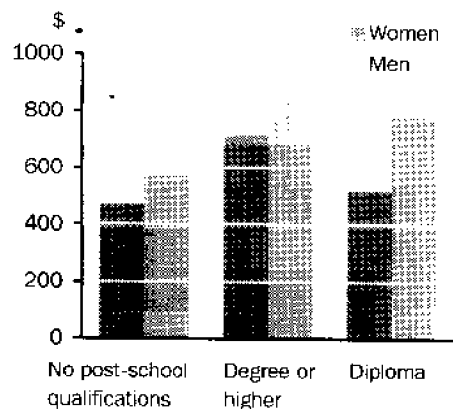
Proportion of families with a wage or salary as their main source of income, 1994-95



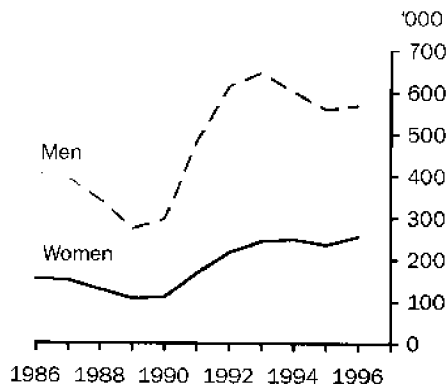
Ratio of women's to men's average weekly earnings for full-time adult employees



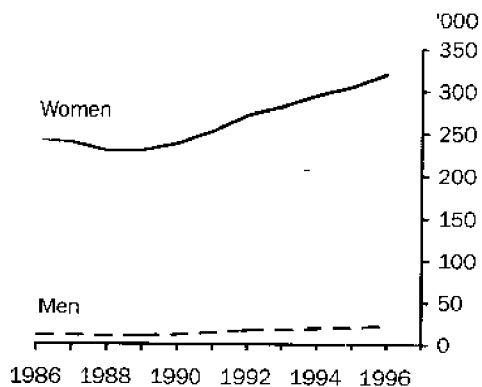
Average gross weekly earnings of people employed full-time, 1994-95



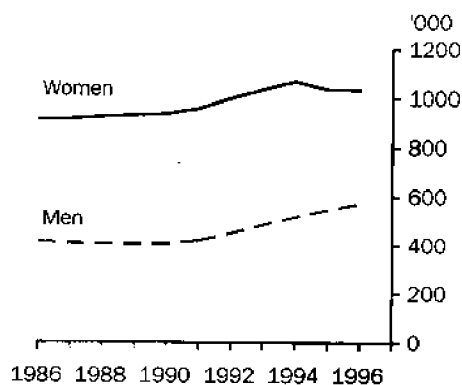
Unemployment allowees



Sole parent pensioners



Age pensioners



Introduction

The level of income received by an individual or a family directly impacts on their economic and social well-being. The contribution women make to their family's income has become more significant with the increasing number of women in the labour force.

A significant proportion of women live on their own, or in households with people who are not related to them. For these women, an independent source of income is essential.

In 1972 'equal pay for equal work' was introduced as a principle of wage fixation. However, despite this overriding principle, women still earn significantly less than men. To some extent, this can be explained by their greater representation as part-time workers.

For people without earnings from a wage or salary, the government provides a range of assistance to ensure adequate levels of income. For example, income support is available for people who are unemployed, sick, disabled, aged, or those with primary caring responsibility for children. Payments are now targeted at those most in need and family payments are paid directly to the primary carer, usually a woman.

Due to their lower rate of participation in the labour force, higher rate of part-time work and discontinuity in the work force, women may have less chance than men to make adequate provisions for their retirement income. Superannuation is one

source of retirement income. As a result of recent legislation there has been an increase in the numbers of women and men who have superannuation coverage. However, due to the factors mentioned, women are less likely to have been members of a superannuation scheme and if they are, are more likely to have made lower contributions and have shorter periods of membership. This impacts on their level of retirement income.

Statistical activities

The ABS conducts a continuous Survey of Income and Housing Costs. Results are collated for a 12 month period and 1994-95 data are currently available.

The ABS also collects annual data on earnings of employees which are published in *Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia* (Cat. no. 6306.0).

Income

The income of a family or individual is closely linked with their family status, age, labour force status and main source of income.

In 1994-95, women were concentrated at the lower end of the gross weekly income distribution. Just under half of women reported a gross weekly income under \$200, compared to 27% of men. 16% of women received an income of \$150 to \$199, a level corresponding to the value of government benefits. In 1995 the benefit from both the age and sole parent pensions was approximately \$320 per fortnight or \$160 per week. One-quarter of women had a gross weekly income of \$450 or more, compared to half of men.

In 1994-95, 50% of women and 72% of men were employed. Their average gross weekly incomes were \$450 and \$631,

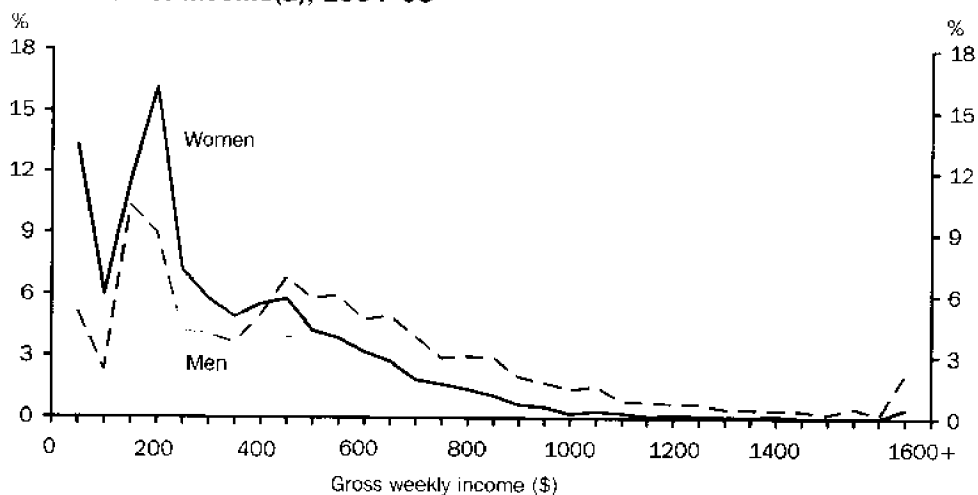
respectively. The average gross weekly income of women not in the labour force was \$143, which was lower than that of their male counterparts (\$197).

Couples

Couples with dependants reported the highest average gross weekly income (\$969) of all income units. Wages or salaries were the main source of income for three-quarters of couples with dependants and half of couples without dependants in 1994-95. The average gross weekly income of these couples was \$1,061 and \$1,005 respectively.

The main source of income for almost one-third of couples without dependants was government benefits, compared to one-tenth of couples with dependants. This is associated with the older age profile of couples without dependants.

Distribution of income(a), 1994-95



(a) Family payments paid to men in couples have been attributed to women.

Source: Unpublished data, Survey of Income and Housing Costs.

Main sources of income and average gross weekly income, 1994-95

Selected income units	Wage or salary		Government benefits		Total(a)		
	%	\$	%	\$	'000	%	\$
Couples	62.9	1 038	21.2	315	4 203.6	100.0	835
With dependants	76.5	1 061	11.4	332	2 019.7	100.0	969
Without dependants	50.3	1 005	30.3	309	2 183.8	100.0	711
Lone mothers	29.5	591	64.7	291	351.6	100.0	385
Lone fathers	64.0	629	*25.7	*241	55.8	100.0	506
Women living alone	26.7	561	61.5	181	855.1	100.0	304
Men living alone	46.4	669	33.3	175	730.4	100.0	446

(a) Includes other sources of income.

Source: Unpublished data, Survey of Income and Housing Costs.

Lone parents

The majority of lone mothers relied on government benefits as their main source of income (65%). A similar proportion of lone fathers reported a wage or salary as their main source of income. This difference in the main source of income results in lone mothers receiving significantly lower average weekly incomes than lone fathers (\$385 compared to \$506).

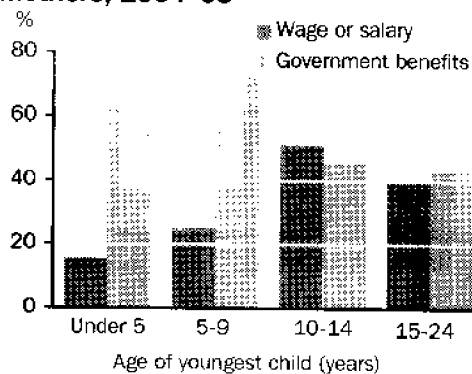
In 1994-95, 43% of lone mothers were employed compared to 76% of lone fathers. The average weekly income of employed lone mothers was lower than that of employed lone fathers (\$519 and \$593 respectively), partially due to their higher participation in part-time work.

As the age of lone mothers increases, the likelihood of reporting government benefits as their main source of income decreases. Nearly all lone mothers aged 15-24 years reported government benefits as their main source of income and their average gross weekly income was \$249. In contrast, just

over half of lone mothers aged 35-44 years reported government benefits as their main source of income. A further 41% of mothers in this age group reported a wage or salary as their main source of income and had an average weekly income of \$610.

The age of their youngest child affects the labour force status of lone mothers and their eligibility for the sole parent pension. Lone mothers with younger children are more likely than those with older children not to be in the labour force and to report government benefits as their main source of income. For example, 70% of lone mothers whose youngest child was aged under five were not in the labour force compared to 28% whose youngest dependant was aged 15-24 years. Over three-quarters of lone mothers whose youngest child was under five reported government benefits as their main source of income, compared to under half whose children were 10-14 years. When the youngest dependant was aged 15-24 years, mothers were almost equally likely to report a wage and salary or

Main sources of income of lone mothers, 1994-95



Source: Unpublished data, Survey of Income and Housing Costs.

government benefits as their main source of income.

People living alone

In 1994-95, women living alone had on average, lower gross weekly incomes than men living alone (\$304 compared to \$446). This is partly associated with the age distribution of women living alone. Over half were aged 65 and over, compared to one-quarter of men and would be more likely to receive government benefits as their main source of income.

The average weekly income of women and men living alone was similar until age 55. In the 55-64 year age group, the income of women was significantly lower than that of men (\$249 compared to \$419 per week). This is because many women in this age group are not in the labour force (72%) and report government benefits as their main source of income (65%). In contrast, half of men aged 55-64 were not in the labour

force and 42% reported government benefits as their main source of income.

Young women (15-24 years) living alone were more likely to be employed than young men living alone (78% compared to 65%). Despite this, the average gross weekly income of employed young women was \$403 compared to \$454 for employed young men. This would in part be due to young women's higher participation in part-time employment.

Earned income

In 1994-95, 1.9 million women and 4.1 million men reported they worked full-time. The average earned income of these women was \$542, 81% of the income earned by men employed full-time.

Age

Women at all ages between 15 and 64 years, who were employed full-time, earned less than their male counterparts of the same

Average gross weekly income of people living alone, 1994-95

Age group (years)	Distribution		Income	
	Women (%)	Men (%)	Women (\$)	Men (\$)
15-24	6.2	6.9	338	351
25-34	8.4	23.7	511	554
35-44	7.1	17.6	645	641
45-54	10.5	14.8	460	471
55-64	14.8	13.1	249	419
65 and over	53.1	23.9	206	223
Total	100.0	100.0	304	446

Source: Unpublished data, Survey of Income and Housing Costs.

age. Women and men aged 15–19 years had the lowest average weekly earned income (both about \$290). For women, those aged 35–44 years reported the highest earnings (\$588 per week), while for men the 45–54 year age group had the highest earnings (\$778 per week). The earnings gap was widest at age 45–54 when women's earnings were 73% of men's.

Qualifications

For both women and men employed full-time, earnings increased as their level of educational attainment increased. For example, the average weekly earned income of women with no post-school qualifications was \$472, compared to \$522 for women who had a diploma and \$716 for women with a degree or higher qualification (see Summary Graphs p. 134).

For all levels of qualification achieved, women earned less than men. Overall, the ratio of women's to men's earned income was similar for those with and without post-school qualifications (83%). The

earnings gap between women and men was highest for those with a diploma. The earned income of women with a diploma were two-thirds that of their male counterparts.

Occupation

In 1994–95, two occupational groups accounted for half of all women employed full-time: clerks; and salespersons and personal service workers. Although the majority of workers in these occupations were women, on average, these women had lower earned incomes than their male counterparts. Salespersons and personal service workers was the occupational group where the ratio of female to male earnings was lowest (69%).

The highest average weekly earned income, for both women and men, were recorded by those in managerial and administrative and professional occupations. Women's earned income was 80% of men's in these occupational groups.

Average gross weekly earned income of people employed full-time, 1994–95

Qualification	Distribution		Earned income		
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Female/ male ratio
	%	%	\$	\$	%
With post-school qualifications	48.6	54.8	616	743	82.9
Degree or higher	24.3	17.5	716	930	77.0
Diploma	5.3	7.6	522	779	67.0
Basic or skilled vocational	19.0	29.7	514	623	82.5
Without post-school qualifications	51.4	45.2	472	572	82.5
Total earned current income	100.0	100.0	542	666	81.4

Source: Unpublished data, Survey of Income and Housing Costs.

Average gross weekly earned income of people employed full-time, 1994-95

Occupational group of main job	Distribution		Earned income		
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Female/ male ratio
	%	%	\$	\$	%
Managers and administrators	6.7	14.0	645	811	79.5
Professionals	17.1	14.8	715	897	79.7
Para-professionals	8.3	5.8	637	746	85.4
Tradespersons	4.1	25.4	563	556	101.3
Clerks	33.9	7.0	498	610	81.6
Salespersons and personal service workers	17.7	7.5	466	673	69.2
Plant and machine operators and drivers	2.6	11.1	445	630	70.6
Labourers and related workers	9.6	14.4	393	498	78.9
Total earned income	100.0	100.0	542	666	81.4

Source: Unpublished data, Survey of Income and Housing Costs.

While women who were tradespersons earned slightly higher average earned income than men, only a small proportion of women were in this group (4%), compared to one-quarter of men.

Earnings

In May 1996, women employed full-time earned on average \$605 per week, 79% of the equivalent male earnings. Total earnings includes both ordinary time and overtime earnings. When overtime is excluded, women earned \$592 per week, 84% of the wages and salaries received by men (see Summary Indicators p. 148).

Women employed in full-time adult non-managerial occupations in May 1996 earned 83% of the average weekly earnings of men in these occupations. However women's ordinary time earnings in non-managerial positions represented 89% of men's ordinary time earnings. Female

and male full-time non-managerial employees both worked, on average, 38 hours ordinary time per week. This suggests that for female non-managerial employees, a substantial contribution to the earnings gap is their lack of access to, or inability to work overtime.

Women's overtime earnings were 21% of men's, which reflects occupational segregation, with women less likely to work in occupations involving overtime (see p. 74). Furthermore, many women have family responsibilities which may limit the amount of overtime they can work (see p. 75).

For managerial workers, the earnings gap is not affected when only ordinary earnings are considered. This is because managers are less likely to be paid for overtime. In May 1996, female managerial employees' ordinary time and total time average weekly earnings were three-quarters of men's

Average weekly earnings and hours paid for full-time adult non-managerial employees, May 1996

	Women	Men	Female/ male ratio
	\$	\$	%
Ordinary time	591	661	89.5
Base pay	584	638	91.6
Payment by measured result	3	14	17.9
Overaward pay(a)	4	8	48.2
Overtime	15	69	21.2
Total earnings	606	730	83.0
	hours	hours	%
Ordinary time	37.5	38.1	98.4
Overtime	0.6	2.8	21.4
Total hours	38.2	40.8	93.6

(a) Includes overaward pay.

Source: *Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia* (Cat. no. 6306.0).

earnings. This can be partly explained by the fact that men are more likely than women to be in senior management positions.

Income support

The commonwealth government provides income support to Australians who have little or no means of obtaining an income or financial support for themselves or their families. It is expected that income support will ensure that Australians have access to at least an acceptable minimum standard of living.

Income support is divided into categories, each with different conditions. The main groups of social security income support recipients are the aged, unemployed, those

caring for children and people with disabilities. Other benefits are paid to dependent wives and partners, widows and mature age allowees. People may also receive student assistance and service pensions.

In 1996, women represented over half of all people receiving any form of income support in Australia.

Unemployment allowances

In June 1996, 255,600 women and 569,400 men received one of the three types of unemployment allowances (youth training, job search or newstart allowance). To be eligible for an unemployment allowance, a person must be available and actively looking for suitable paid work, undertaking other approved activities (primarily work-related training), or temporarily incapacitated. The majority of both women and men receiving unemployment allowances were actively looking for a job (about 90%).

The youth training allowance was introduced in January 1995 and replaced the job search allowance for unemployed people aged under 18 years. In June 1996, 16,300 women and 18,100 men were receiving the youth training allowance. 57% of women and men receiving the allowance were aged 17 years.

The majority of people receiving the youth training allowance were actively looking for a job (91%). However, 7% of both women and men were undertaking training. On average, women had been receiving the

Unemployment allowees, June 1996

Allowees	Women	Men
	'000	'000
Youth training	16.3	18.1
Job search	146.7	310.4
Newstart	92.6	240.9
Total	255.6	569.4

Source: Department of Social Security, *DSS Customers: A Statistical Overview*.

allowance for slightly longer periods than men (20 weeks compared to 18 weeks).

Until September 1996, people unemployed for less than 12 months were eligible to receive the job search allowance, while people who had been unemployed for more than 12 months were eligible for the newstart allowance. At that date, these two payments were combined into the newstart allowance.

In June 1996, about one-third of recipients of the job search allowance were female (146,700), as were 28% of recipients of the newstart allowance (92,600).

Four and a half months was the average length of time that both women and men had received the job search allowance. In comparison, women received the newstart allowance for two and half years compared to three years for men.

The majority of people on job search and newstart allowances were actively looking for a job. Newstart allowees were more likely than job search allowees to be undertaking training, 7% and 4%, respectively

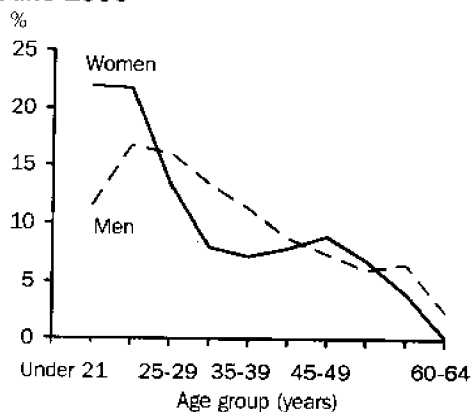
Unemployment allowances are paid at different rates depending on age, marital status and, for single young people without children, on whether they live with their parents. Women receiving the job search or newstart allowance were twice as likely as men to be aged under 21 years (22% and 11% respectively). A further 22% of women and 17% of men were aged 21-24 years.

Women receiving unemployment allowances were more likely than men to be paid at the single rate (81% compared to 65%).

Payments to dependent partners

The partner allowance is available to people born on or before 1 July 1955 whose partner is aged 21 years or more and in receipt of another benefit, such as job search, newstart, the age pension or disability support pension. The person must not qualify for parenting allowance; have little or no recent work force

Job search and newstart allowees, June 1996



Source: Department of Social Security, *DSS Customers: A Statistical Overview*.

experience; and have not received job search, newstart or sickness allowance before claiming partner allowance. In June 1996, women accounted for 91% (63,900) of partner allowees. 34% of women receiving this allowance were aged 55–59 years and 29% were aged 50–54 years.

The wife pension was originally intended to provide income support to the female partners of male age or disability support pensioners, who were assumed to be financially dependent on their male partner. As this no longer reflects the experiences or expectations of the Australian community, no new grants of the wife pension have been made since July 1995. Women already receiving the wife pension before July 1995 can continue to receive the pension. However, partners of age or disability pensioners who are not eligible for one or other of these pensions themselves, can now claim a variety of other income support payments, such as the parenting or partner allowance, carer pension, or unemployment allowances.

In June 1996, 148,900 women received a wife pension. 72% of wife pensions were paid to the wives of men receiving a disability pension. The number of wife pensioners with a disabled husband increased considerably over the last decade, reflecting the increase in the number of men receiving the disability pension (see Summary Indicators p. 148).

At June 1996, 54% of wife pensioners with a disabled husband were aged 50–59 years and 70% of wife pensioners of men

receiving the age pension were aged 50–59 years.

Disability support pension

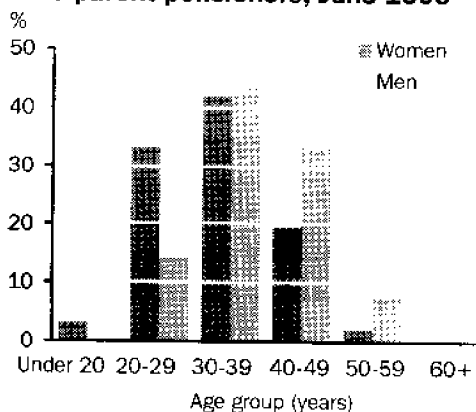
In June 1996, about one-third of people receiving a disability support pension were women (159,000). The numbers of both women and men receiving the disability support pension increased with age. Women are currently eligible for the age pension at a younger age than men. Therefore, very few female disability support pensioners (2%) are aged 60 years and over. In comparison, 27% of men receiving the disability support pension were aged 60 and over.

Three-quarters of female disability support pensioners were single, compared to half of males receiving this pension. This suggests that many women with disabilities are supported through other means, such as their partner's income or other government benefits.

Sole parent pension

In June 1996, 320,300 women received the sole parent pension (94% of all people receiving this pension). The number of female sole parent pensioners has increased steadily since 1988, while the number of male sole parent pensioners has also increased, but from a very low base (see Summary Indicators p. 148).

The largest proportion of women and men receiving this pension were aged 30–39 years, 42% and 44% respectively. However, overall, women receiving the sole parent pension were younger than male recipients.

Sole parent pensioners, June 1996

Source: Department of Social Security, *DSS Customers: A Statistical Overview*.

One-third of women were aged 20–29 years compared to 14% of men.

78% of lone mothers receiving the sole parent pension received the maximum rate compared to 84% of lone fathers.

The child support scheme was established in 1988 in response to concerns about the adequacy of court ordered child maintenance and the difficulties which existed in the enforcement and collection of maintenance payments. The Child Support Agency (CSA), which is part of the Australian Taxation Office, assesses amounts of child support which should be paid. The CSA is also responsible for the collection of child support, while the Department of Social Security distributes the amount collected. Six months before the scheme commenced, 26% of sole parent pensioners stated that they received maintenance. However by 30 June 1996, 42% were receiving maintenance.

Parenting allowance

The parenting allowance was introduced in July 1995 and incorporates the former Home Child Care Allowance. It provides an independent source of income to the partner in a couple who is the primary carer for children and who is not in the paid labour force, or has a low income. In June 1996, 95% of the 660,200 recipients of this allowance were women.

Family payments

From 1 January 1996 basic and additional family payments were amalgamated into a single payment. Families with children are eligible for the payment (subject to income tests), in order to assist with the cost of raising a child. It is paid to the primary carer of the children. In June 1996, 1.8 million primary carers received a family payment and 97% were paid to a female carer.

Approximately half of primary carers received an amount greater than the minimum payment. Above minimum payments are given to parents who receive other social security benefits, or those in other low income families. Lone mothers represented 41% of those who received greater than minimum payments.

Carer pension

The carer pension was originally introduced as a spouse carer's pension to provide for men caring for a disabled partner. At that time, women caring for a male partner were eligible for the wife pension. Many women caring for a partner

receive other pensions, such as the age, sole parent, widow or wife pensions. As a result, the majority of female carer pensioners are caring for someone other than a partner.

In June 1996 there were 25,000 carer pensioners and half of these were women. If only women and men under the age of 60 years (the age at which women but not men became eligible for the age pension) were considered, then there were more women receiving the carer pension than men (55%).

In the past, some conditions of the carer pension have impacted more significantly on women's than men's eligibility to receive the pension. For example, the requirement that the person being cared for must be on a pension themselves was lifted in March 1996 and soon after the requirement that the carer must live in the same or an adjacent house was also lifted. These changes have resulted in more women (for example, daughters who care for their parents while maintaining their own household) becoming eligible for the carer pension. However many of these women may already be receiving another type of allowance or benefit.

Married women caring for someone other than a partner are likely to fail the income and assets tests for the carer pension, due to the level of their husband's income. 55% of female carer pensioners were single compared to 30% of male carer pensioners.

Age pension

In June 1996, female age pensioners continued to outnumber male age pensioners (1 million compared to 570,300) (see Summary Graphs p. 134).

This can partly be accounted for by the earlier age at which women receive the pension (currently 60.5 years compared to 65 years for men) and by the fact that women live longer than men.

59% of female age pensioners were receiving the pension at a single rate compared to 29% of men. This reflects the greater likelihood that older women will be widowed and that many women with partners are not eligible because of their partner's income or assets.

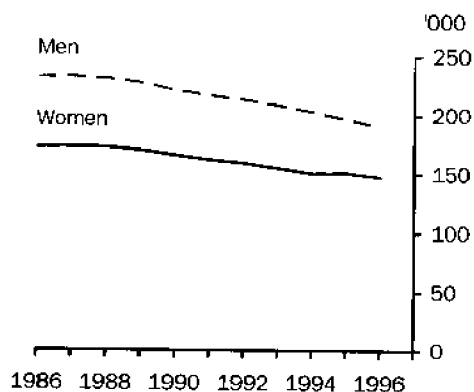
The younger age at which women begin to receive the pension and their longer life expectancy, can be taken into account by considering pensioners relative to all

Age pensioners, June 1996

Age group (years)	Women		Men	
	'000	%	'000	%
60-64	194.0	18.8
65-69	229.4	22.2	235.0	41.2
70-74	195.1	18.9	140.1	24.6
75-79	162.6	15.7	85.5	15.0
80-84	136.0	13.2	67.3	11.8
85-89	78.0	7.6	31.7	5.6
90-94	29.5	2.9	9.2	1.6
95 and over	8.0	0.8	1.5	0.3
Total	1 032.5	100.0	570.3	100.0

Source: Department of Social Security, *DSS Customers: A Statistical Overview*.

Service pensioners



Source: Unpublished data, Department of Veteran's Affairs.

women and men in the eligible age groups. On this basis, the proportion of women receiving the age pension was greater than that for men (65% compared to 59%). A possible explanation for this was that women were less likely than men to be supported by another income (such as war pensions and superannuation) in retirement.

Service pensions

At 30 June 1996, 147,500 women were receiving a veteran's or spouse/widow's service pension (see Summary Indicators p. 148). 44% of all people receiving service pensions were women. 2,100 of the service pensions paid to women were veteran's service pensions.

Superannuation

Superannuation is one way of ensuring that people have a private source of income in retirement. In 1992 the Superannuation Guarantee legislation was introduced to ensure superannuation coverage for

employees earning \$450 or more per month.

In November 1995, 45% of women and 61% of men aged 15-74 years were covered by a superannuation scheme. This is an increase since 1991 when the corresponding proportions were 35% and 56% respectively.

In November 1995, 79% of employed women and 82% of employed men had superannuation coverage. The largest increase between 1991 and 1995 occurred for women employed part-time. For these women, their rate of superannuation coverage increased from almost a half in 1991 to two-thirds in 1995. However, this is still significantly lower than the rate of coverage for full-time employees.

Due to the employment based nature of superannuation, coverage for women and men not in the labour force remains low. As women are more likely than men to not be in the labour force, they are also less likely

Proportion of people aged 15-74 years with superannuation coverage

Labour force status	Women		Men	
	1991	1995	1991	1995
	%	%	%	%
Employed	65.5	79.5	75.3	82.0
Full-time	77.0	88.8	79.5	85.5
Part-time	48.4	66.1	29.1	47.8
Unemployed	4.3	4.5	8.3	4.3
Not in the labour force	2.3	3.1	3.0	2.4
Total	35.3	45.5	56.1	60.9

Source: Superannuation, Australia (Cat. no. 6319.0).

**People aged 45–74 years making personal contributions to superannuation,
November 1995**

Weekly contribution	More than required amount		Required amount only		Not compulsory	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Under \$20	*10.6	7.9	24.0	10.9	23.9	14.8
\$20 and under \$40	20.2	21.5	37.4	31.3	33.9	31.1
\$40 and under \$60	24.8	21.5	15.0	26.0	16.2	17.7
\$60 and over	36.9	44.1	11.4	21.6	12.5	22.7
Total(a)	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total(a)	28.2	67.1	108.0	207.4	280.7	521.0

(a) Includes those who did not know what contributions were made.

Source: Superannuation, Australia (Cat. no. 6319.0).

to have superannuation coverage. Women are also more likely to have interrupted labour force participation, shorter length of fund membership and, consequently, have lower benefits.

People can supplement their employer's contributions with those of their own. Fewer women than men aged 45–74 years with superannuation coverage supplemented their employer's contribution with their own. In November 1995, 53% of women aged 45–74 years made personal contributions compared to 68% of men. One-third of women and men making personal contributions were doing so because it was compulsory.

Of those who contributed an amount over and above their compulsory requirement,

56% of women and 51% of men contributed an amount under \$60 per week. However, there were half as many women as men who made additional contributions.

61% of women who contributed only the required amount made a weekly contribution of under \$40. In contrast, half of men contributed \$40 or more. This is related to the fact that women, on average, receive lower wages and salaries than men, and contributions are often based on earnings.

When personal contributions were not compulsory, women were less likely than men to make higher contributions. For example, 13% of women contributed \$60 or more a week, compared to 23% of men.

Summary indicators

Earnings	units	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990
Average weekly total earnings of full-time adult employees						
Women	\$	369	392	423	457	484
Men	\$	467	495	533	578	615
Average weekly ordinary earnings of full-time adult employees						
Women	\$	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Men	\$	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Ratio of women's to men's earnings						
Average weekly total earnings of full-time adult employees						
	%	79.1	79.2	79.4	79.1	78.7
Average weekly total earnings of full-time adult non-managerial employees						
	%	82.6	82.8	82.6	82.5	82.3
Average weekly ordinary earnings of full-time adult employees						
	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Average weekly ordinary earnings of full-time adult non-managerial employees						
	%	88.7	88.9	89.4	90.3	89.6
Income support						
units						
1986 1987 1988 1989 1990						
Unemployment allowees						
Women	'000	154.7	151.0	128.5	106.5	111.0
Men	'000	405.8	393.8	342.3	272.8	295.0
Disability support pensioners						
Women	'000	72.9	75.8	77.7	80.5	83.5
Men	'000	200.9	213.3	219.2	227.3	223.3
Sole parent pensioners						
Women	'000	240.8	238.7	228.7	229.3	237.6
Men	'000	10.1	10.2	9.9	10.2	11.3
Age pensioners						
Women	'000	912.2	914.5	923.9	931.0	936.0
Men	'000	412.4	407.7	404.9	403.3	404.5
Service pensioners						
Women	'000	172.0	172.7	172.3	169.5	165.4
Men	'000	231.6	232.1	230.6	226.9	221.0

Earnings	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
Average weekly total earnings of full-time adult employees						
Women	511	539	553	575	599	621
Men	641	658	690	704	741	781
Average weekly ordinary earnings of full-time adult employees						
Women	501	528	541	562	586	608
Men	595	615	641	652	684	725
Ratio of women's to men's earnings						
Average weekly total earnings of full-time adult employees	79.8	81.9	80.2	81.6	80.9	79.5
Average weekly total earnings of full-time adult non-managerial employees	83.7	85.8	84.4	85.3	84.1	83.0
Average weekly ordinary earnings of full-time adult employees	84.1	85.8	84.5	86.2	85.8	83.9
Average weekly ordinary earnings of full-time adult non-managerial employees	90.1	91.9	91.1	92.1	91.0	89.5
Income support	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
Unemployment allowees						
Women	167.7	216.9	243.9	248.3	235.4	255.6
Men	483.2	614.1	645.7	600.3	559.4	569.4
Disability support pensioners						
Women	89.5	104.9	115.1	127.1	139.8	159.0
Men	244.7	273.7	291.5	309.1	324.7	340.3
Sole parent pensioners						
Women	252.1	270.8	280.9	294.5	305.0	320.3
Men	13.6	16.4	17.5	18.9	19.9	22.0
Age pensioners						
Women	957.5	998.3	1 034.5	1 067.7	1 034.1	1 032.5
Men	418.4	447.9	481.2	514.2	544.6	570.3
Service pensioners						
Women	161.7	158.8	154.9	150.3	151.0	147.5
Men	216.2	212.9	208.3	202.7	196.7	190.3

Definitions and data references

Adult employee — people aged 21 years or over or those under 21 years of age, who are paid at the full adult rate for their occupation.

Reference: *Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia* (Cat. no. 6306.0).

Age pensioners — the number of age pensioners at June each year. To qualify for this pension women must be aged 60.5 years and men must be aged 65 years or over.

Reference: Department of Social Security, *DSS Customers: A Statistical Overview*.

Average weekly earnings/income — is calculated by dividing the total earnings/income of a group by the population in the group.

Reference: *Income Distribution, Australia* (Cat. no. 6523.0); *Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia* (Cat. no. 6306.0).

Carer pensioners — the number of recipients of the carer pension at June each year. The carer pension is given to those providing personal care to a severely disabled person and receiving a social security pension or benefit or a service pension.

Reference: Department of Social Security, *DSS Customers: A Statistical Overview*.

Couple with dependants income unit — a woman and a man in a registered marriage or de facto relationship and their dependent children, that is, children aged under 15 years and those aged 15–24 years who are full-time students, living with their parents. Excludes the income of non-dependent children living in the household.

Reference: *Income Distribution, Australia* (Cat. no. 6523.0).

Disability support pensioners — the number of people receiving the disability support pension at June each year. To qualify for this pension a person must be aged 16 years or over and have not reached the age of eligibility for the age pension.

Reference: Department of Social Security, *DSS Customers: A Statistical Overview*.

Employees — all wage and salary earners who received pay for any part of the reference period.

Reference: *Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia* (Cat. no. 6306.0).

Family payment — is made to families to assist with the costs of bringing up children.

Families are eligible for the minimum rate subject to income means tests. People with low incomes or receiving other DSS support receive a rate greater than the minimum.

Refers to the number of people receiving this payment at June each year.

Reference: Department of Social Security, *DSS Customers: A Statistical Overview*.

Full-time employees — permanent, temporary and casual employees who normally work the agreed or award hours of a full-time employee in their occupation and who received pay for any part of the reference period. If agreed or award hours do not apply, employees are regarded as full-time if they ordinarily work 35 hours or more a week.

Reference: *Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia* (Cat. no. 6306.0).

Government benefits — regular payments from government to people under social security and related government programs. Includes pension and allowances received by people who are aged, incapacitated or handicapped, unemployed or sick people, families and children, veterans or their survivors and study allowances.

Reference: *Income Distribution, Australia* (Cat. no. 6523.0).

Gross weekly earnings — includes income from wages and salaries, from own business or partnership before tax or other deductions.

Reference: *Income Distribution, Australia* (Cat. no. 6523.0).

Gross weekly income — comprises regular cash receipts before tax or other deductions. Includes moneys received from wages or salary, government benefits, superannuation, workers' compensation, child support and scholarships. It also includes weekly equivalent amounts of profit or loss from own business or partnership and property income. Reference: *Income Distribution, Australia* (Cat. no. 6523.0).

Income unit — one person or a group of related persons within a household who are assumed to share their income. In couple and lone parent income units the income does not include the income of non-dependent children. Reference: *Income Distribution, Australia* (Cat. no. 6523.0).

Job search allowees — the number of allowees at June each year. To qualify for this allowance a person must be aged 18 years or over and under the age of eligibility for the age pension, be unemployed, be registered with the Commonwealth Employment Service for less than 12 months, satisfy the activity test and be prepared to participate in training or work experience programs to improve the likelihood of employment. Reference: Department of Social Security, *DSS Customers: A Statistical Overview*.

Main source of income — the principal source from which the most income is received. Reference: *Income Distribution, Australia* (Cat. no. 6523.0).

Managerial employees — adult managerial, executive and professional staff, generally defined as those employees who are in charge of a significant number of employees or have significant responsibilities and who do not receive payment for overtime. Reference: *Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia* (Cat. no. 6306.0).

Newstart allowees — the number of allowees at June each year. To qualify for this allowance a person must be aged 18 years or over and under the age of eligibility for the age pension, be unemployed, be registered with the Commonwealth Employment Service for more than 12 months, satisfy the activity test and be prepared to participate in training or work experience programs to improve the likelihood of employment.

Reference: Department of Social Security, *DSS Customers: A Statistical Overview*.

Non-managerial employees — adult employees who are not managerial employees. Reference: *Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia* (Cat. no. 6306.0).

Ordinary time — employees' award or standard or agreed hours of work. It includes stand-by or reporting time which are part of standard hours of work, and that part of annual leave, paid sick leave and long service leave taken during the reference period. Reference: *Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia* (Cat. no. 6306.0).

Overtime — hours worked in excess of award, standard or agreed hours of work. Reference: *Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia* (Cat. no. 6306.0).

Partner allowees — older partners of a person receiving other DSS benefits at June each year. They must be born before 1 July 1955 and have no recent workforce experience. Reference: Department of Social Security, *DSS Customers: A Statistical Overview*.

Service pensioners — the number of recipients of the service pension at June each year. The service pension is given to war veterans aged 60 years and over, their spouses and widow/ers. Reference: Department of Veteran's Affairs.

Sole parent pensioners — the number of recipients of the sole parent pension at June each year. In 1989, the supporting parent's benefit and class A widow's pension were combined to form the sole parent pension. Figures prior to 1989 include these two pensions. The pension is payable to a person caring for a child who is not a member of a couple and not living in a de facto relationship. The child must be under 16 years of age.

Reference: Department of Social Security, *DSS Customers: A Statistical Overview*.

Superannuation coverage — people who belonged to a superannuation scheme towards which contributions were being made either personally or by their employer/business.

Reference: *Superannuation, Australia* (Cat. no. 6319.0).

Total earnings — includes both ordinary time and overtime earnings of employees.

Reference: *Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia* (Cat. no. 6306.0).

Unemployment allowees — the number of recipients of unemployment allowances (youth training, job search or newstart allowance) in June each year. Prior to 1995 includes only job search and newstart allowees at May each year.

Reference: Department of Social Security, *DSS Customers: A Statistical Overview*.

Wage or salary — gross cash income from an employer or from own incorporated business before tax or other deductions.

Reference: *Income Distribution, Australia* (Cat. no. 6523.0).

Weekly earnings — refers to income derived from wages and salaries received from an employer (as reported by employers). It does not necessarily refer to the only, or even the main job, which the employee holds.

Reference: *Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia* (Cat. no. 6306.0).

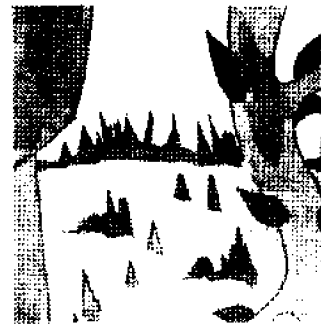
Wife pensioners — the number of pensioners at June each year receiving income support as the wife of an age or disability support pensioner, where the wife is not eligible for any other pension. The wife pension is being phased out from 1 July 1995.

Reference: Department of Social Security, *DSS Customers: A Statistical Overview*.

Youth training allowees — the number of allowees at June each year. To qualify for this allowance a person must be aged 16–17 years, be unemployed, be registered with the Commonwealth Employment Service and be undertaking approved education, training or job search activities.

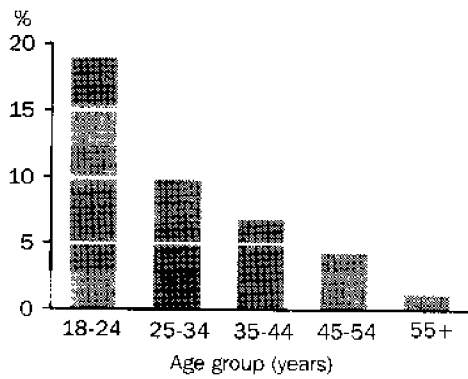
Reference: Department of Social Security, *DSS Customers: A Statistical Overview*.

Crime and justice

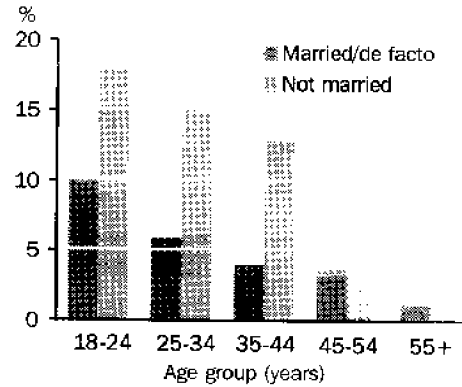


Summary graphs

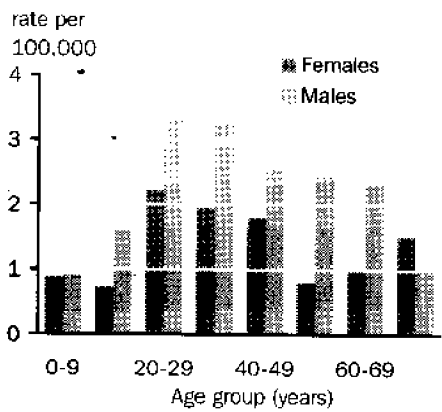
Women who experienced violence during last 12 months, 1996



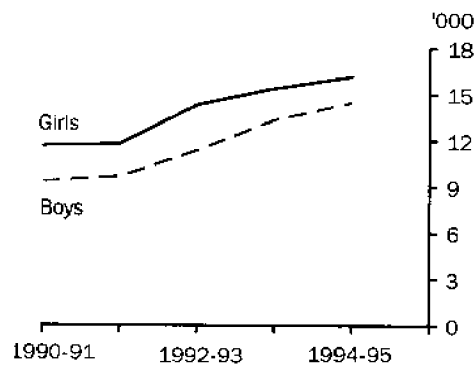
Women's experience of violence by a man during last 12 months, 1996



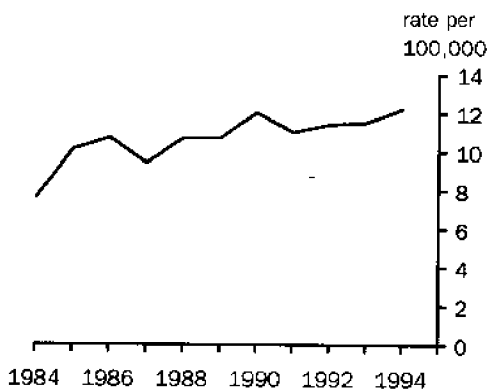
Homicide rates, 1995



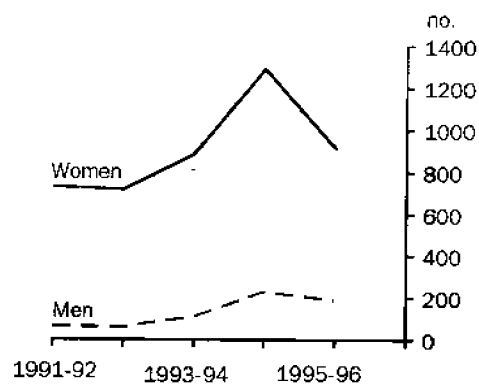
Substantiated cases of child abuse and neglect



Women in prison



Complaints lodged under the Sex Discrimination Act 1984



Introduction

The level of violence and crime within Australian society is of concern to governments and community groups, as well as to the general public. Providing support and assistance to both the victims and perpetrators of crimes results in a significant cost to the community.

In 1996, the *Law and Justice for All* policy announced the National Campaign Against Violence and Crime which aims to reduce crime and violence across Australia. Another significant action during the year was the commitment by commonwealth and state governments to control firearms, through licensing systems and the prohibition of certain types of firearms.

The type of violence that women and men experience and perpetrate differs. Overall, men are more likely to be the victims and perpetrators of crimes. However, women are more likely than men to experience certain types of crime.

Governments at state and commonwealth levels, as well as community groups, have given increasing attention to the needs of women who are subjected to violence. Violence between partners has been an area of particular concern. The commonwealth, together with the states and territories, is planning a national domestic violence summit with the aim of developing a more comprehensive approach to domestic violence across Australia.

The main legislation designed to prevent discrimination in Australia is the *Sex*

Discrimination Act 1984 (SDA). The SDA allows for complaints to be made on grounds such as sex, marital status and pregnancy. The act has been strengthened through Amendments relating to sexual harassment, indirect discrimination and discrimination during pregnancy.

Statistical activities

The Women's Safety Survey was conducted by the ABS in response to calls from policy makers, researchers, and service providers for comprehensive national data on the extent of violence against women. The survey provides the first national estimates on the nature and extent of physical and sexual violence experienced by women. Information on women's feelings of safety within the home and the community were also collected. Results from the survey were published in *Women's Safety, Australia* (Cat. no. 4128.0).

The ABS, in consultation with a wide range of users, is currently developing the next National Crime and Safety Survey. The survey, to be conducted in 1998, will measure the level of victimisation for a range of household and personal offences.

The scope of the National Crime Statistics collection, which obtains information on offences reported to police, was extended in 1995. It now includes additional offence categories (assault and other theft) and information about victims, including their age, sex and relationship to the offender.

Experience of violence

In the Women's Safety Survey, violence was defined as any incident involving the occurrence, attempt or threat of either physical or sexual assault. This definition was based on actions which would be considered as offences under state and territory criminal law.

In 1996, almost half a million women aged 18 and over (7.1%) experienced an incident of violence in the 12 months prior to the survey. Women were nearly four times more likely to experience violence by a man than by a woman.

Younger women were more at risk of violence than older women. 19% of women aged 18-24 years had experienced violence during the previous 12 months, compared to 4.3% of women aged 45-54 years (see Summary Graphs p. 154). This pattern was similar for physical and sexual violence.

Women who experienced physical or sexual abuse as a child were more than twice as likely than those who did not, to also experience an incident of violence as an adult (73% compared to 32%).

Physical violence

During the 12 months prior to the survey, 5.0% of women (346,900) were physically assaulted and 4.1% (284,000) experienced an attempt or threat of physical violence. Of those women who experienced physical violence, 15% reported incidents by more than one perpetrator.

Women's experience of violence(a) during the last 12 months, 1996

Type of violence	Women	
	'000	rate(b)
<i>Physical violence(c)</i>	404.4	5.9
Physical assault	346.9	5.0
Attempt or threat	284.0	4.1
<i>Sexual violence(c)</i>	133.1	1.9
Sexual assault	100.0	1.5
Threat	44.8	0.7
Total(c)	490.4	7.1

(a) Includes male and/or female perpetrators.

(b) Rate per 100 women (6.9 million women).

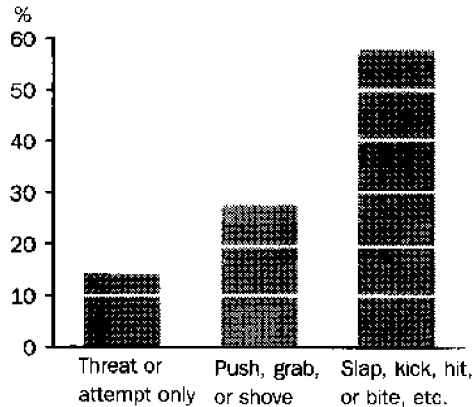
(c) If a woman experienced more than one type of violence she was only counted once in the total.

Source: Women's Safety, Australia (Cat. no. 4128.0).

An incident of violence may involve more than one action on the part of the perpetrator. When physical violence occurred, women were more likely to be pushed, grabbed, shoved or threatened than they were to be choked, beaten or hit. Of the 404,400 women (5.9%) who experienced physical violence during the previous 12 month period, 14% experienced a threat or attempt only. A further 28% were pushed, grabbed or shoved either alone, or in conjunction with a threat or attempt. The remaining incidents involved more serious actions such as hitting, slapping, punching or beating. These may have occurred in conjunction with threats, pushing, grabbing or shoving.

The last incident of physical assault resulted in physical injuries for 48% of women assaulted by a man and 46% of those assaulted by a woman. Bruising was the most common form of injury.

Women who experienced physical violence(a) in the last incident during the last 12 months, 1996



(a) Includes male and/or female perpetrators.

Source: Women's Safety, Australia (Cat. no. 4128.0).

Sexual violence

In 1996, 1.5% of women (100,000) were sexually assaulted during the previous 12 month period, while 0.7% (44,800) were threatened with sexual assault. 13% of women who experienced sexual violence reported incidents by more than one perpetrator during the previous 12 months.

22% of women who experienced sexual assault by a man were physically injured in the last incident. While a sexual assault had to involve force, this may have been physical force, or coercion, including the threat of physical harm to the woman or her children.

Violence by men

Unmarried women were more likely than married women or those in a de facto relationship to experience violence by a man (10% and 4% respectively). For both

groups of women, the likelihood of experiencing violence declined with age (see Summary Graphs p. 154).

Whether married or not, women were more likely to have known the perpetrator of violence, than not to have known them. Almost two-thirds of women living with a male partner who experienced violence by a man during the previous 12 month period had experienced violence by their partner. For women who were not married, approximately one-third experienced violence by a previous partner and a further one-third by a man known to them (other than a boyfriend or date).

Actions taken

Many estimates relating to actions taken after an assault by a man which occurred in the previous 12 months involve relatively small numbers and therefore are subject to high relative standard errors. Therefore,

Women who experienced violence during the last 12 months, 1996

Relationship to male perpetrator	Married/ de facto	Not married
	%	%
Current partner	63.9	..
Previous partner	**	31.2
Boyfriend/date	**	18.9
Other known man	24.5	34.4
Stranger	16.3	30.1
	'000	'000
Total(a)	173.8	256.1

(a) If a woman experienced violence by more than one perpetrator she was only counted once in the total.

Source: Women's Safety, Australia (Cat. no. 4128.0).

estimates relating to incidents of assault which occurred since the age of 15 are more reliable.

Approximately one-fifth of women who were physically or sexually assaulted by a man since the age of 15 did not take any action after the last incident. When action was taken, women were most likely to have discussed the incident with their family, friends or others (79% of women who were physically assaulted and 72% of women who were sexually assaulted).

Women were more likely to report incidents of assault to the police if they were perpetrated by a stranger, rather than by someone they knew. For example, 35% of women who experienced physical assault by a stranger reported the last incident to the police, compared to 5% of those assaulted by their current partner.

About 40% of women who were physically or sexually assaulted since the age of 15

said the main reason they did not contact the police was because they dealt with it themselves.

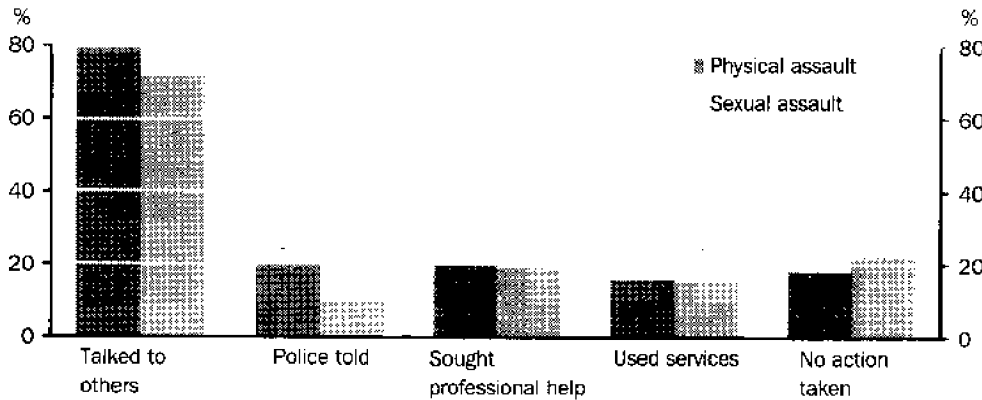
Effects on life

Incidents of violence can have a range of consequences which may have either short or long-term effects on women.

18% of women who were working in a paid job at the time of the physical assault said they took time off as a consequence of the incident during the following 12 months, as did 12% of women who were sexually assaulted. Women who were physically injured were much more likely than those not injured to take time off work.

Women sexually assaulted by a man were more likely than those physically assaulted to have changed their day-to-day activities, such as shopping, housework and leisure activities, during the 12 months after the last incident (40% and 30% respectively).

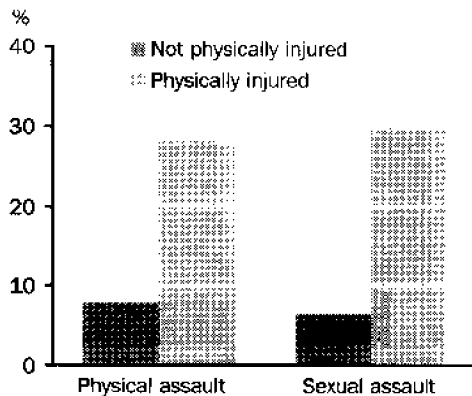
Actions taken by women(a) who experienced assault by a man since the age of 15, 1996



(a) Excludes women whose last incident occurred more than 20 years ago.

Source: Women's Safety, Australia (Cat. no. 4128.0).

Women(a) who took time off work as a result of an assault by a man since the age 15, 1996



(a) Excludes women whose last incident occurred more than 20 years ago.

Source: *Women's Safety, Australia* (Cat. no. 4128.0).

Being injured increased the likelihood of a woman changing her activities. For example, 55% of women who were physically injured in the last incident of a sexual assault changed their activities, compared to 35% of women who were not injured.

A similar proportion of women who experienced physical and sexual assault by a man other than their partner, said they feared for their personal safety as a result of

the last incident (16% and 17% respectively). Women were more likely to fear for their personal safety if the incident happened recently. For example, 22% of women who were physically assaulted during the previous 12 month period feared for their personal safety compared to 11% who experienced an incident 5–20 years ago.

Male partner violence

Almost one-quarter of women who had ever been married or in a de facto relationship, had experienced violence at some time by a male partner. However, women were considerably more likely to have experienced violence by a previous partner than their current partner (42% compared to 8%).

Current partner

In 1996, 4.3 million women were married or in a de facto relationship. 7.6% of these women had experienced physical violence by their current partner at some time during the relationship and 1.0% of women had experienced sexual violence.

Women's experience of violence by a male partner, 1996

Type of violence	Current partner		Previous partner(a)		Total(b)	
	'000	rate(c)	'000	rate(c)	'000	rate(c)
Physical violence	329.7	7.6	1 060.3	41.6	1 342.1	22.5
Sexual violence	43.9	1.0	260.1	10.2	297.7	5.0
Total(d)	345.4	8.0	1 080.8	42.4	1 373.4	23.0

(a) Includes partners who were violent during and/or after the relationship.

(b) If a women experienced violence by both a current and previous partner she was only counted once in the total.

(c) Rate per 100 women in the relevant population.

(d) If a women experienced both physical and sexual violence she was only counted once in the total.

Source: *Women's Safety, Australia* (Cat. no. 4128.0).

Women who experienced physical violence by a current male partner during the relationship, 1996

Type of physical violence	Women	
	'000	%
Threatened or attempted assault only	*16.8	*5.1
Pushed, grabbed or shoved only	58.5	17.7
Both threatened or attempted assault and pushed, grabbed or shoved(a)	43.9	13.3
Other physical assault	210.5	63.8
Total	329.7	100.0

(a) Not in association with other types of physical assault.
 Source: *Women's Safety, Australia* (Cat. no. 4128.0).

Of the 7.6% of women (329,700) who experienced physical violence by their current partner at some time during their relationship, 5% had experienced threatened or attempted assault only. Almost one-fifth had been pushed, grabbed or shoved only, while almost two-thirds had experienced another form of physical assault, such as kicking, slapping or choking.

About three-quarters of women who experienced violence by their current partner reported that violence had occurred only once or rarely, while 7% said that it occurred often. Women who experienced violence often were more likely to live in fear than those who experienced violence once or only rarely, 73% compared to 4%.

Almost two-thirds of women who experienced violence by their current partner and who had children in their care at some time during the relationship said

that the children had witnessed the violence.

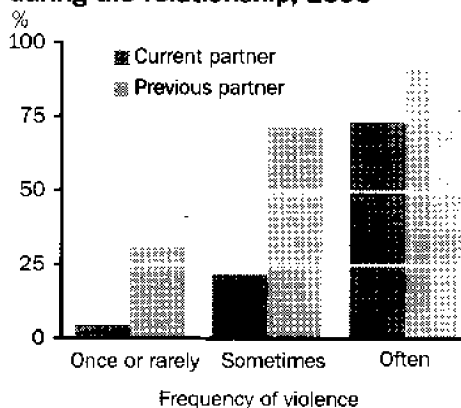
Previous partner

In 1996, 2.5 million women had been in a previous relationship with a man. 42% (1.1 million) of these women experienced physical violence at some time by a previous partner and 10% (260,100) experienced sexual violence. This violence may have occurred during the relationship or once it had ended.

28% of women who experienced violence during their relationship with a previous partner reported that violence had occurred often. These women were almost three times more likely to have lived in fear during the relationship, than if the violence had occurred only once or rarely (92% compared to 31%).

Just over two-thirds of women who experienced violence by a previous partner who had children in their care during the

Women who experienced violence by a male partner, who lived in fear during the relationship, 1996



Source: *Women's Safety, Australia* (Cat. no. 4128.0).

relationship, reported that the children had witnessed the violence at some time.

Half of the women who experienced violence during the relationship with a previous partner, said they ended their relationship due to the violence to themselves, or threats to their children.

Stalking by men

In recent years legislation has been introduced in most states and territories making stalking a crime. Stalking can involve a range of activities such as: loitering; offensive communication; watching or following; and interfering with property. To be classified as stalking in the Women's Safety Survey, the perpetrator either had to carry out more than one type of activity, or the same activity on more than one occasion.

More than one million women (15%), had been stalked by a man at some time during their lifetime. For just over half of these women the stalker was known to them. 7.5% of women who had been stalked reported that the stalking still occurred. A further 3.8% did not know whether or not it had stopped. 38% of women who had been stalked reported the incident to police.

Reported crime

The National Crime Statistics are derived from crimes recorded by state and territory police forces. They include only crimes for which nationally comparable definitions have been developed.

In 1995, men outnumbered women as victims of personal crimes recorded by the police (70,200 compared to 55,100). However, women represented 82% of victims of sexual assault (10,500) and 66% of victims of kidnapping or abduction (300). Assault was the most common personal crime recorded by the police (71% of crimes against women and 83% of crimes against men).

Based on police records, 607 per 100,000 women experienced a crime in 1995, compared to 781 per 100,000 men. The risk of experiencing various types of crime differed considerably. For example, the rate of murder or attempted murder and sexual assault reported against women were 2 and 431 per 100,000, respectively. However, it should be noted that the rate of reporting to the police varies between different types of crimes.

Victims of personal crime reported to the police, 1995

Type of crime	Women		Men	
	'000	rate(a)	'000	rate(a)
Murder/attempted murder	0.2	2.4	0.4	4.4
Assault	39.1	431.5	58.6	651.6
Sexual assault	10.5	116.0	2.1	23.1
Robbery	4.8	53.2	8.8	98.2
Kidnapping/abduction	0.3	3.4	0.2	1.7
Total(b)	55.1	607.5	70.2	781.3

(a) Rate per 100,000 people.

(b) Includes driving causing death and blackmail and extortion.

Source: National Crime Statistics (Cat. no. 4510.0).

Homicides

In 1995, 129 women and 204 men died from homicide. For most age groups, females had a lower rate of death from homicide than males. Females and males were most at risk of homicide at age 20–29 years, with 2.2 and 3.3 per 100,000 deaths from homicide respectively (see Summary Graphs p. 154).

The most common form of homicide for both female and male victims was being cut or pierced by an instrument, accounting for 26% of female and 37% of male homicide deaths. A further 18% of female homicide deaths were due to hanging or strangulation compared to 4% of male homicide deaths.

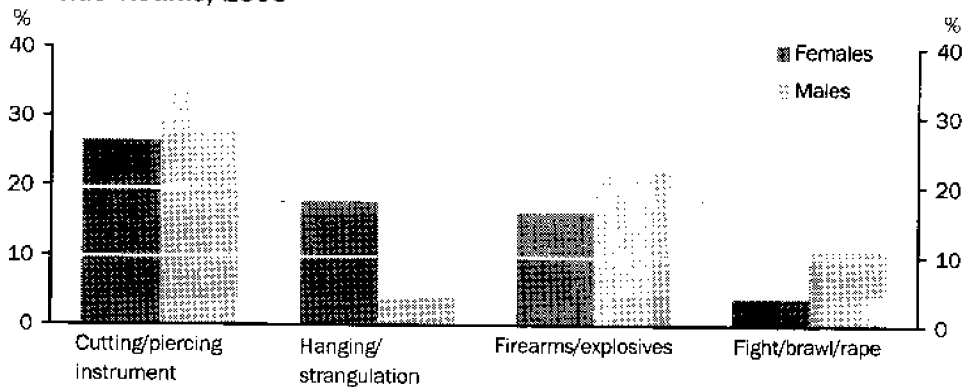
Since 1990, the Australian Institute of Criminology has overseen the Homicide Monitoring Program which identifies characteristics of victims and perpetrators of homicide, the method used, the relationship between the victim and

offender and the circumstances which contributed to the homicide.

The data set for 1990–96 includes 2,226 incidents of homicide. Males were eight times more likely than females to be the perpetrators of a homicide, while one out of three homicide victims were females. 45% of all female victims of homicide were killed either directly or indirectly as a result of a dispute between partners, compared to 10% of male victims.

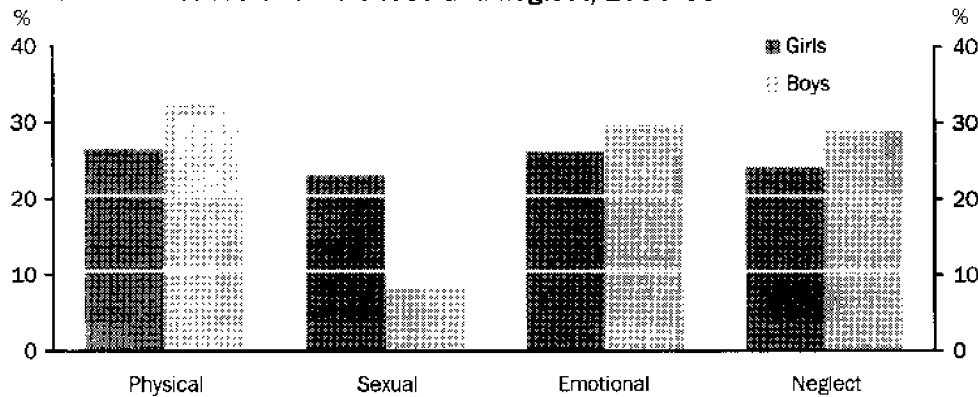
Females who killed their partners did so most often by using a sharp instrument such as a knife (approximately 70%). Just over 20% used guns and just under 10% used physical assault with either hands, feet or a blunt instrument. In contrast, males used sharp instruments in 38% of cases, firearms in 30% of cases and physical assault in 20% of cases. The remaining cases between partners were attributed to drowning or strangulation.

Homicide victims, 1995



Source: Unpublished data, Death Registrations.

Substantiated cases of child abuse and neglect, 1994-95



Source: Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, *Child Abuse and Neglect, Australia*.

Child abuse and neglect

In 1994-95, state and territory welfare departments received 76,954 reports of child abuse and neglect that warranted investigation. This was an increase from 1990-91 when 49,721 cases were reported. In part, this is due to more widespread mandatory reporting requirements across Australia.

Not all reported cases of child abuse and neglect are substantiated. Despite the increase in reported cases since 1990-91, the proportion of cases which are later substantiated has remained steady at around 40%.

In 1994-95 there were 16,152 substantiated cases of abuse and neglect against girls, compared to 11,593 in 1990-91. The number of substantiated cases against boys has also increased but remains below those against girls (see Summary Graphs p. 154). Girls represented 53% of victims of substantiated abuse and neglect.

Substantiated cases against girls were split almost equally between the four types of abuse and neglect. In contrast, 8% of cases against boys were sexual abuse, while the remaining cases were split almost equally between the three other types of abuse and neglect.

Substantiated cases of child abuse and neglect, 1994-95

Age group (years)	Physical		Sexual		Emotional		Neglect	
	no.	% female	no.	% female	no.	% female	no.	% female
5 and under	2 670	43.4	1 023	64.8	3 484	47.0	4 062	47.8
6-12	3 705	40.3	2 190	72.6	3 270	45.7	2 894	45.4
13-17	2 479	62.9	1 622	87.3	1 690	61.2	992	58.0
Total(a)	9 000	47.6	4 924	75.9	8 597	49.3	8 084	48.1

(a) Includes age not stated.

Source: Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, *Child Abuse and Neglect, Australia*.

Up to the age of 13 years, there were fewer substantiated cases of physical or emotional abuse or neglect against girls than boys.

However, more girls than boys aged 13–17 years experienced all forms of abuse and neglect. 87% of substantiated cases of sexual abuse against 13–17 year olds were against girls, as were 63% of substantiated cases of physical abuse.

In 1994–95, there were 1,347 substantiated cases of abuse and neglect against Indigenous girls and 1,197 against Indigenous boys. This is a rate of 20 per 1,000 for girls and 17 per 1,000 for boys. Almost three-quarters of substantiated cases of sexual abuse were experienced by girls. A similar number of Indigenous girls and boys were victims of physical or emotional abuse or neglect.

Children under care and protection orders

Children under the age of 18 years are deemed by the children's court to be in need of care and protection if they are (or are likely to be): abused, neglected or abandoned; if adequate provision is not being made for their care; or in the case of irretrievable breakdown in the relationship with their parents.

In June 1995, approximately 2.8 per 1,000 girls and boys were under care and protection orders. The majority (about 70%) of these 6,400 girls and 6,678 boys were under guardianship orders. That is, a welfare department had total responsibility for the child's welfare.

The type of placement for girls and boys under care and protection was similar. Almost 60% of girls aged up to 13 years

Placement of children under care and protection orders, June 1995

Type of placement	0–12 years		13–17 years	
	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys
	%	%	%	%
Foster care	59.4	57.4	44.0	41.0
Living with parents/relatives	29.8	29.3	21.2	1.1
Residential child care(a)	5.7	7.8	16.4	20.0
Living independently	—	—	8.8	6.8
Other(b)	5.1	5.4	9.7	11.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	no.	no.	no.	no.
Total	4 139	4 345	2 252	2 325

(a) Includes homes for children with disabilities, juvenile hostels, family group homes etc.

(b) Includes other adult placement, institutions and other.

Source: Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, *Children Under Care and Protection Orders, Australia*.

were in foster homes, while 30% lived with their parents or relatives. For 13–17 year old girls, these two types of placements were used in almost two-thirds of cases. However, a further one-quarter of these girls were either in residential care or living independently.

15.1 per 1,000 Indigenous girls and 14.1 per 1,000 Indigenous boys were under care and protection orders in June 1995. Of these 1,033 girls and 1,016 boys, about two-thirds were under guardianship orders.

Prisoners

In June 1994 women represented half of Australia's population, however only 5% of prisoners were female (840 out of 16,900).

Most serious offence of sentenced prisoners, June 1994

Selected offences	Women	Men
	no.	no.
<i>Theft</i>	347	5 641
Fraud and misappropriation	116	593
Break and enter	88	1 926
Robbery	48	1 915
Deal/traffic drugs	95	1 269
<i>Homicide</i>	70	1 280
Murder	37	859
Other homicide	33	421
Assault	69	1 558
Government security/justice procedures offences	55	901
Sex offences	7	1 971
Total(a)	718	14 280

(a) Includes other offences.

Source: Prisoners in Australia: A report prepared for the Corrective Services Ministers' Council by the National Corrective Services Statistics Unit, ABS.

The rate of imprisonment for women has fluctuated during the last 10 years (see Summary Graphs p. 154). In June 1994, 12.2 per 100,000 women aged 17 or over were in prison, compared to 241.9 per 100,000 men.

The age distribution of female and male prisoners was similar, with approximately two-thirds aged 20–34 years.

In June 1994, 56% of female prisoners and 61% of male prisoners had been imprisoned as an adult at least once before. The median length of sentence for female prisoners was one year and eight months compared to three years and one month for men.

At any time, there are some prisoners who are awaiting trial and have therefore, not been sentenced. In June 1994 about 700 female prisoners and 14,300 male prisoners had been sentenced. Approximately 350 women were sentenced for theft, with one-third of these sentenced for fraud and misappropriation. The numbers of women sentenced for crimes such as homicide and assault were relatively small. 5,600 men had been sentenced for theft. Just over two-thirds of these men had committed either a break and enter or a robbery. Almost 2,000 men were sentenced for sex offences.

In June 1994, Indigenous women and men represented less than 2% of the Australian population. However, 19% of female prisoners (158) and 16% of male prisoners (2,642) were Indigenous.

Indigenous prisoners, June 1994

Age (years)	Women rate(a)	Men rate(a)
17	—	634.5
18	170.0	3 319.2
19	136.3	5 321.2
20-24	334.1	5 548.4
25-29	382.3	4 432.3
30-34	201.7	3 467.5
35-39	125.5	2 562.7
40-44	90.2	1 397.8
45 and over	5.0	427.5
Total	181.0	3 080.8

(a) Rate per 100,000 Indigenous people in each age group.

Source: Unpublished data, Prisoners in Australia series.

The overall rate of imprisonment for Indigenous women and men was 181 per 100,000 and 3,081 per 100,000, respectively. The highest rates of imprisonment were at age 25-29 years for women and 20-24 years for men (382 and 5,548 per 100,000 respectively).

Police forces

In June 1995, women represented 13% of people who were sworn officers of the Australian police forces (5,543). 2% of officers in the commissioned ranks (inspector to senior executive level) were women.

Less than 1% of female police officers had attained commissioned officer status compared to 5% of male officers. In June 1995, two of the 108 officers at senior executive level were women.

Access to legal aid

Legal aid is provided by commonwealth and state and territory governments for people who cannot afford a private lawyer. In 1994-95, there were 135,949 applications approved for legal aid. Around one-third of these applications were made by women.

Over half of all approved applications went to men for criminal cases. Women had twice as many applications as men approved for family cases. However, family law cases made up less than one-quarter of approved applications.

Indigenous women received 27% of the 5,280 approvals applications to Indigenous people. The proportion of approved applications to Indigenous women for family, criminal and civil cases was similar to that of all women.

Sworn officers of the police force(a), June 1995

Rank	Women no.	Men no.	Persons % female
Commissioned officer	29	1 718	1.7
Constable/sergeant	5 432	34 067	13.8
Other(b)	82	298	21.6
Total	5 543	36 083	13.3

(a) Excludes recruits, cadets and public service employees.

(b) Includes police aides, Aboriginal community police officers, special constables, reservists and protective security officers.

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology, *The Composition of Australia's Police Services*; Unpublished data, South Australia Police.

Applications approved for legal aid, 1994-95

Type of application	Women	Men	Persons(a)
	%	%	%
Family	15.3	7.7	23.4
Criminal	12.0	54.4	66.4
Civil	5.2	4.9	10.1
Total(b)	32.4	67.1	100.0
	'000	'000	'000
Total(b)	44.2	91.1	135.9

(a) Includes not stated and not applicable.

(b) Includes type of application not specified.

Source: Unpublished data, Legal Aid and Family Services.

Sex discrimination

In 1995-96, 1,112 complaints were lodged under the *Sex Discrimination Act 1984*.

This was a decrease from the previous year (see Summary Graphs p. 154). 82% of complaints were made by women.

Half of the complaints were lodged on the ground of sexual harassment and a further one-third on the ground of sexual discrimination.

Complaints lodged under the Sex Discrimination Act 1984, 1995-96

Ground of complaint	Complaints	
	no.	%
Sexual harassment	555	49.9
Sexual discrimination	351	31.6
Sexual discrimination and harassment	28	2.5
Pregnancy	83	7.5
Victimisation	63	5.7
Marital status	41	3.7
Family responsibility	23	2.1
Other	8	0.7
Total(a)	1 112	100.0

(a) More than one ground of complaint could be recorded.

Source: Human Rights and Equal Opportunity Commission, *Annual Report*.

83% of complaints were related to employment issues and 11% were connected with the provision of goods or services.

Definitions and data references

- Abuse when a child** — abuse experienced by a woman before the age of 15 from any adult (male or female), including the woman's parents. Emotional abuse is excluded. Physical abuse includes any deliberate physical injury (including bruises). Discipline that accidentally resulted in an injury is excluded. Sexual abuse is involving a child in a sexual process beyond their understanding or contrary to currently accepted community standards.
Reference: *Women's Safety, Australia* (Cat. no. 4128.0).
- Change in day-to-day activities** — includes a change in the usual way of carrying out unpaid work such as shopping, housework, child care, voluntary or community work and social activities.
Reference: *Women's Safety, Australia* (Cat. no. 4128.0).
- Child abuse and neglect** — occurs when a person, generally having the care of the child, other than by accidental means, inflicts or allows a child to be inflicted by, physical injury or deprivation which may create a substantial risk of death, disfigurement, or the impairment of either physical health and development of emotional health.
Reference: Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, *Child Abuse and Neglect, Australia*.
- Commissioned police officer** — includes inspectors, chief inspectors, superintendents, commissioners, chief, deputy or assistant commissioners and commanders.
Reference: Australian Institute of Criminology, *The Composition of Australia's Police Services*.
- Constable** — includes probationary constables.
Reference: Australian Institute of Criminology, *The Composition of Australia's Police Services*.
- Effects on life** — during the 12 months after the last incident of physical violence and/or sexual assault against a woman.
Reference: *Women's Safety, Australia* (Cat. no. 4128.0).
- Emotional abuse** — any act by a person having the care of a child which results in the child suffering any kind of significant emotional deprivation or trauma.
Reference: Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, *Child Abuse and Neglect, Australia*.
- Fear for personal safety** — includes fear of reprisals or the recurrence of a similar incident.
Reference: *Women's Safety, Australia* (Cat. no. 4128.0).
- Homicide** — death from injury purposely inflicted by another person(s) as defined by the Ninth (1975) Revision of the World Health Organisation's International Classification of Diseases (ICD).
Reference: *Causes of Death, Australia* (Cat. no. 3303.0).
- Median length of sentence** — the duration which divides people serving prison sentences into two equal groups. Excludes people serving life and other indeterminate sentences
Reference: Prisoners in Australia: A report prepared for the Corrective Services Ministers' Council by the National Corrective Services Statistics Unit, ABS.
- Most serious offence** — the offence which resulted in the longest sentence for the current episode of imprisonment. If sentences are equal, or the longest sentence cannot be determined, the most serious offence is that with the lowest Australian National Classification of Offences (ANCO) code.
Reference: Prisoners in Australia: A report prepared for the Corrective Services Ministers' Council by the National Corrective Services Statistics Unit, ABS.

Neglect — any serious omissions by a person having the care of a child, which, within the bounds of cultural tradition, constitute a failure to provide conditions which are essential for the healthy physical and emotional development of a child.

Reference: Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, *Child Abuse and Neglect, Australia*.

Physical abuse — any non-accidental physical injury inflicted upon a child by a person having the care of a child.

Reference: Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, *Child Abuse and Neglect, Australia*.

Physical assault — the use of physical force with the intent to harm or frighten a woman. The assault may have occurred in conjunction with a robbery but excludes incidents of sexual assault which also involved physical assault and incidents which occurred before the age of 15. If an assault was preceded by a threat, only the assault was recorded.

Reference: *Women's Safety, Australia* (Cat. no. 4128.0).

Prisoner — people held in custody in the prison system, on remand or already sentenced.

Reference: Prisoners in Australia: A report prepared for the Corrective Services Ministers' Council by the National Corrective Services Statistics Unit, ABS.

Sexual abuse — any act by a person having the care of a child which exposes a child to, or involves a child in, sexual processes beyond his or her understanding, or contrary to accepted community standards.

Reference: Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, *Child Abuse and Neglect, Australia*.

Sexual assault — acts of a sexual nature carried out against a woman's will through the use of physical force, intimidation or coercion, including attempts to force a woman into sexual activity. Includes rape and attempted rape. Unwanted sexual touching and incidents which occurred before the age of 15 are excluded.

Reference: *Women's Safety, Australia* (Cat. no. 4128.0).

Sex Discrimination Act 1984 (SDA) — provides that discrimination on the grounds of sex, marital status or pregnancy is unlawful in specified areas of public life: work, education, accommodation, disposal of land, provision of services, goods and facilities, clubs, and the administration of federal laws and programs. The SDA prohibits both direct and indirect discrimination and sexual harassment in certain areas. Complaints of discrimination are made to the Human Rights and Equal Opportunity Commission and are then referred to the Sex Discrimination Commissioner for action.

Reference: Australian Law Reform Commission, *Equality Before the Law: Justice for Women*; Human Rights and Equal Opportunity Commission.

Stalking by a man — based on state and territory legislation, includes a range of activities which the woman believed was undertaken to harm or frighten.

Reference: *Women's Safety, Australia* (Cat. no. 4128.0).

Substantiated child abuse or neglect — where there is reasonable cause to believe that the child has been, or is being, abused or neglected. The level of information or evidence required for substantiation is less than that required for criminal prosecution, and does not imply that treatment or case management was, or is to be, provided.

Reference: Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, *Child Abuse and Neglect, Australia*.

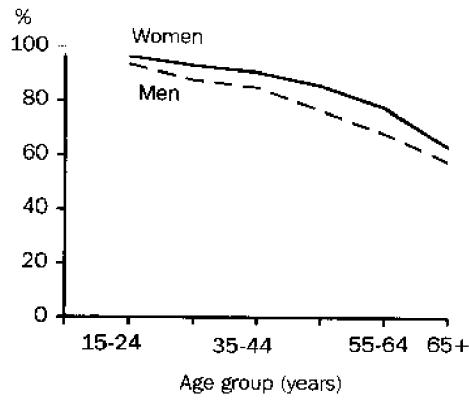
**Culture, leisure
and sport**



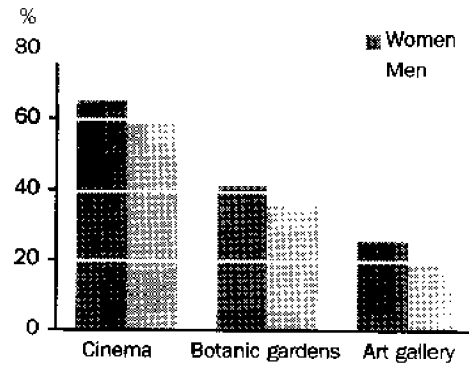


Summary graphs

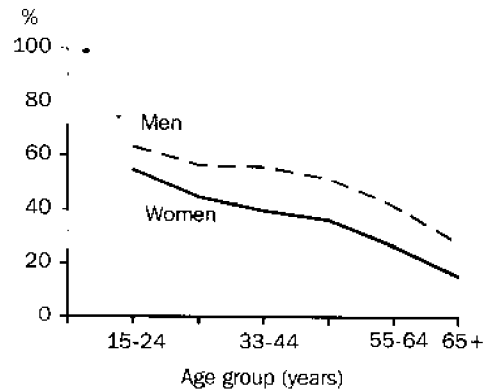
Attendance at cultural venues or activities, March 1995



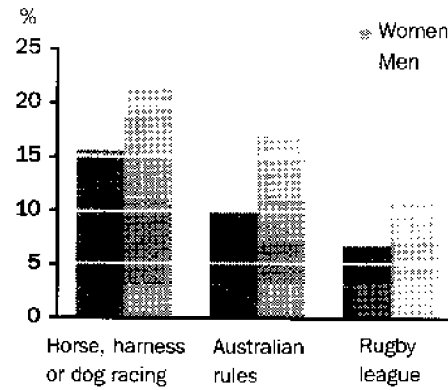
Attendance at cultural venues or activities, March 1995



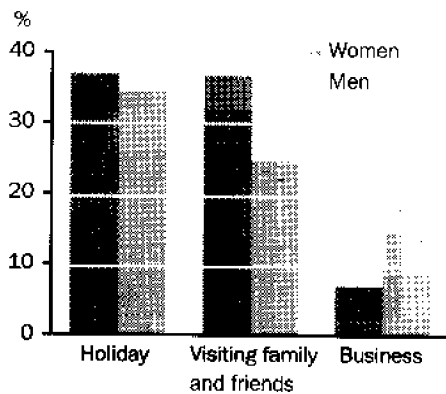
Attendance at sporting events as a spectator, March 1995



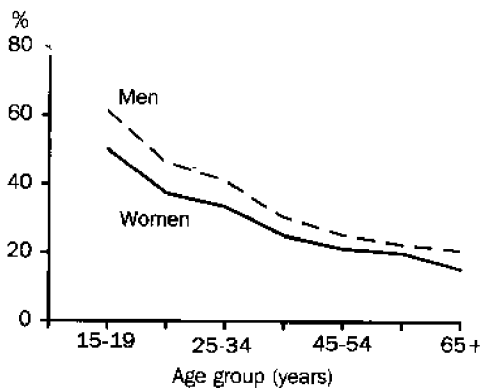
Attendance at sporting events as a spectator, March 1995



Domestic travel, 1995-96



Participation in organised sport and physical activities, 1995-96



Introduction

Participation in cultural and leisure activities provides the opportunity for relaxation and socialisation and therefore impacts on a person's psychological well-being. A further advantage of participation in sport is that it develops physical fitness and improves a person's general health.

During the last decade the labour force participation of women has increased considerably and many women in the paid work force are still responsible for unpaid home duties, such as child care and housework. Undertaking these tasks may impact on the time available for cultural or leisure activities. Women who are full-time homemakers may feel their commitments restrict the time available for their own leisure activities.

While women have higher rates of participation at cultural venues or activities than men, they are less likely than men to participate in sporting and physical activities. This has been recognised by governments and community groups, who have taken various initiatives to assist and encourage women and girls to take up, and continue with active leisure pursuits.

In 1992 *Towards Gender Equity in Sport Guidelines and Policy* was launched. More recently, the *Australian Women in Sport and Recreation Strategy 1996-2001*, provided an action plan for state, territory and commonwealth governments to

improve sport and recreation opportunities for women.

Statistical activities

During 1995 the ABS released *Attendance at Selected Cultural Venues, Australia* (Cat. no. 4114.0) and *Sports Attendance, Australia* (Cat. no. 4174.0).

Using data collected in the ABS quarterly Population Survey Monitor in 1995-96, *Sport and Recreation Participation, Australia* (Cat. no. 4177.0) will be released in 1997.

In March 1997 the Work in Selected Culture/Leisure Activities Survey was undertaken and results are expected to be released late in the year.

Culture

In the 12 months ended March 1995, 6.1 million women aged 15 and over and 5.6 million men had attended at least one cultural venue or activity. This represented 85% of women and 80% of men.

Women had a higher participation rate than men at all cultural venues and activities. The cinema and the library were the venues attended by the largest proportion of women (65% and 44% respectively), while the cinema and the botanic gardens were the venues most frequented by men (59% and 36% respectively). The same proportion of women and men attended popular music venues (27%).

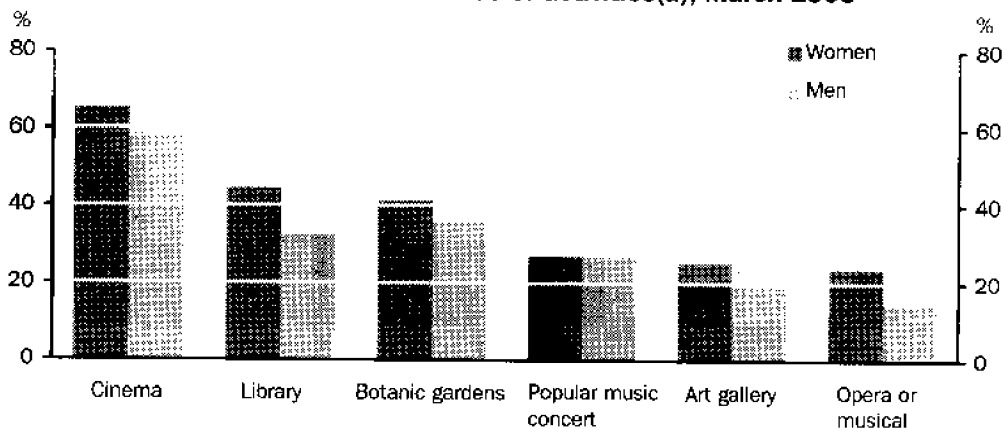
Younger women were more likely to attend cultural venues or activities than older women. In March 1995, 96% of women aged 15-24 years attended a cultural venue at least once in the previous 12 months, compared to 63% of women aged 65 and

over (see Summary Graphs p. 172). Older women's attendance at cultural venues or activities may be limited by barriers such as health, access to transport, and costs. Attendance at cultural venues or activities by men followed a similar pattern to women, but was lower at all ages.

The cinema was the venue attended by the highest proportion of women in all age groups. As age increases, cultural participation varies, depending on the venue or activity. For example, young women were significantly more likely to attend the cinema or a popular music concert than older women. In contrast, women aged 45-54 years were almost twice as likely as women aged 18-24 years to attend a classical music performance.

The library was another venue frequented by a significant proportion of women in all age groups. Libraries are easily accessible, found in almost every town and in remote areas there are often mobile libraries. There

Attendance at selected cultural venues or activities(a), March 1995



(a) People can attend more than one cultural venue or activity.

Source: *Attendance at Selected Cultural Venues, Australia* (Cat. no. 4114.0).

Women's attendance at cultural venues or activities(a), March 1995

Venue or activity	Age group (years)							Total
	15-17	18-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	65 and over	
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Cinema	92.9	88.0	75.9	72.5	62.2	47.4	31.8	65.2
Library	64.5	46.7	45.6	55.1	41.5	35.4	31.0	44.4
Botanic gardens	44.4	47.6	45.6	44.1	41.7	39.4	28.1	41.3
Animal or marine park	47.3	47.1	51.4	44.5	32.2	27.8	15.0	37.7
Museum	34.5	29.5	32.6	35.7	28.9	25.5	14.6	28.5
Popular music	40.9	46.1	33.7	28.3	23.6	15.9	8.4	27.0
Art gallery	30.3	26.9	24.8	27.1	31.5	25.2	16.4	25.4
Opera or musical	28.7	26.7	21.2	24.6	29.0	24.0	17.5	23.8
Theatre	37.1	20.9	22.9	21.0	21.4	17.2	10.0	20.0
Other performing arts	26.3	29.2	27.6	22.5	15.9	11.8	7.5	19.9
Dance	18.5	13.7	13.1	13.8	14.5	9.6	7.4	12.5
Classical music	6.8	7.1	7.2	10.3	12.8	10.9	7.3	9.0

(a) People can attend more than one venue or activity.

Source: Attendance at Selected Cultural Venues, Australia (Cat. no. 4114.0).

is little or no cost involved in visiting a library. They may also be used for educational or work-related research. 55% of women aged 35-44 years had attended the library at least once in the previous 12 months. This includes women whose library visits were related to their children's activities as well as those who went for their own purposes.

Employed women were more likely to attend cultural venues or activities than those not employed. For example, 80% of employed women attended the cinema, compared to 51% of women who were not employed. A large proportion of those not employed would be older women who are not in the labour force and who have a lower participation rate at all venues.

The difference was less marked for venues or activities which involve little or no cost. Almost half of employed women had visited the library, as had 40% of women who were not employed.

Women's attendance at cultural venues or activities(a), March 1995

Selected venue or activity	Employed	Not employed
	%	%
Cinema	79.9	50.9
Library	48.5	40.3
Botanic gardens	46.8	36.0
Popular music	36.7	17.5
Museum	34.2	23.0
Art gallery	31.0	20.0

(a) Women can attend more than one venue or activity.

Source: Unpublished data, Survey of Attendance at Selected Culture/Leisure Venues.

Leisure

On average, in 1992, women and men spent almost one-quarter of their day on leisure activities. This includes both active leisure (such as playing sport) and passive leisure activities (such as reading and listening to music). Time spent on leisure activities differs according to labour force participation and family status. For example, women who are married and have children and who also work full-time spent an average of 3 hours and 46 minutes a day on leisure compared to men in a similar situation who spent 4 hours and 20 minutes.

Attendance at sporting events

Women are less likely than men to attend sporting events as spectators. In the year ended March 1995, 37% of women and 52% of men attended one or more sporting events as a spectator. Attendance at sporting events declined with age. 55% of women and 63% of men aged 15-24 years had attended at least one sporting event during the year, compared to 15% of women and 28% of men aged 65 and over (see Summary Graphs p. 172).

The events most likely to be attended by women were horse, dog and harness racing and Australian rules football matches. 16% and 10% of women, respectively, had been spectators at these events (see Summary Graphs p. 172).

For several sporting events, women outnumbered men as spectators (who attended at least once in the year). Of those

Attendance at sporting events(a) as a spectator, March 1995

Selected sporting events	Women	Persons
	'000	% female
Netball	221.1	70.8
Tennis	231.2	53.6
Baseball	68.6	51.5
Basketball	339.5	49.1
Horse, harness or dog racing	1 113.3	42.8
Australian rules	699.9	37.3
Rugby union	119.5	33.3
Rugby league	486.0	33.2
Soccer	184.4	33.0
Cricket	334.9	28.7
Motor sports	109.4	24.2
Golf	32.6	22.4

(a) At least once in the year.

Source: *Sports Attendance, Australia* (Cat. no. 4174.0).

people attending netball as a spectator, 71% were women, as were 54% of spectators at tennis matches. A similar number of women and men attended basketball and baseball at least once during the year. In those sports included in the survey, women's attendance relative to men's, was lowest at motor sports, cricket and golf.

Travel

People travel to many different destinations, both overseas and within Australia. The reasons for travel tend to differ between women and men.

Domestic travel

In 1995-96, over 63 million domestic trips were made by Australian residents aged 14 years and over. 46% of the domestic trips

were taken by females, reflecting the greater likelihood of males travelling on business.

The largest proportion of domestic trips were taken for holidays (37% of trips by women and 34% by men). Males were three times more likely than females to travel for business (see Summary Graphs p. 172).

Overseas travel

In 1995, 2.5 million short-term overseas trips were taken by Australian residents and females accounted for 47% of these trips. The reasons for undertaking a short-term overseas trip were different for females and males. 53% of females went for a holiday, compared to 39% of males. In contrast, 27% of males were travelling for business, compared to 7% of females.

Females outnumbered males when the purpose of the short-term trip was for education, visiting family and friends, or a holiday.

Of the 69,100 long-term overseas trips taken by Australian residents in 1995, 52% were taken by females. Females represented 44% of all people who were travelling for employment.

Sport

Sport is a source of much national pride, and many Australian sportspersons are world champions in their field. At the local level, many Australians are involved in sporting activities, either individually or as a member of a team.

Women who travelled overseas, 1995

Reason for trip	Short-term	Long-term
	% female	% female
Education	57.6	53.0
Visiting family and friends	56.3	57.4
Holiday	54.7	56.4
Convention/conference	34.9	39.2
Employment	30.4	44.3
Business	18.4	33.7
Total(a)	47.1	51.5

(a) Includes other reasons and not stated.

Source: Unpublished data, Overseas Arrivals and Departures.

Sport and recreation participation

In 1995-96 women of all ages had a lower level of participation in organised sport and physical activities than men. Overall, 27% of women and 34% of men participated in organised sport and physical activities.

Both women and men were more likely to participate in organised activities when they were younger. 50% of women and 61% of men aged 15-19 years participated in organised sport and physical activities, compared to 15% of women and 21% of men aged 65 and over (see Summary Graphs p. 172).

Role models

In 1996, Australian women achieved at a world class level in sports such as athletics (pole vault), basketball, swimming, triathlon, disability sports and hockey.

The Olympic Games were held in Atlanta in 1996. Australia was represented by a team of 423 athletes, and 40% (169) of these

Composition of the Australian Olympic team

Team	Women		Persons	
	1992 no.	1996 no.	1992 % female	1996 % female
Adminis- tration	7	8	43.8	42.1
Medical staff	4	15	14.3	26.3
Coaches/ managers	10	15	11.2	12.1
Athletes	94	169	32.4	40.0

Source: Unpublished data, Australian Sports Commission.

athletes were women. This was an increase in the proportion of female team members since the 1992 games. The proportion of the team's support staff and coaches who were women also increased.

Women were eligible to compete in 21 of the 26 sports contested at the 1996 Olympics. One sport (softball) was contested by women only, while five sports (baseball, boxing, modern pentathlon, weightlifting and wrestling) were contested only by men. There was only one sport (equestrian) which had mixed teams.

Women won 44% of the medals (18 out of 41), equalling their representation in the team. Three of the nine gold medals were won by women, while another gold medal was won in an equestrian event by a mixed team.

The 1996 Paralympic team consisted of 162 athletes and 63 of these were women (39%). Australia was represented in 13 of the 19 sports and women participated in 10 sports.

The Australian team won 106 medals, 48 of these (45%) were won by women. The female athletics squad consisted of 10 women who won 14 medals (including nine gold medals). The swimming team, consisting of 16 women and 14 men, won 44 medals, and women won 29 of them (66%).

Leadership and administration

The Australian Sports Commission (ASC) is the central government agency for sports funding and development. In 1990, three of the 12 ASC board members were women. In 1995, five of the board members were women, however, following a reduction in the size of the board, four (out of 11) members were female in 1996.

The number of national executive directors of sporting organisations has increased since 1990 when 16% of executive directors were women (12 out of 77). In 1996, 21%

Administrators of national sporting bodies

Year	Australian Sports Commission board members		National executive directors of sporting organisations	
	Women no.	Men no.	Women no.	Men no.
1990	3	9	12	65
1991	3	9	14	70
1992	4	8	16	72
1993	4	8	13	72
1994	5	7	16	73
1995	5	7	16	75
1996	4	7	19	73

Source: Unpublished data, Australian Sports Commission.

Coaches of national sporting bodies

Type of coach	1991		1995		1996	
	no	% female	no.	% female	no.	% female
National Coaching Accreditation Scheme						
Level 1	69 336	31	93 117	29	96 975	29
Level 2	10 501	18	12 209	16	13 432	17
Level 3	1 239	9	1 281	9	1 302	11
Australian Institute of Sport						
Head coaches	17	12	17	12	24	8
Other coaches	60	10	60	12	54	17
National sporting organisations						
National coaching directors	77	22	79	24	79	30

Source: Unpublished data, Australian Sports Commission.

of executive directors were women (19 out of 92).

A key objective of the ASC is to encourage females to take up sports leadership roles. Various initiatives have been put in place over the past five years to achieve this, including the setting of targets for the number of coaching scholarships to be taken up by women.

The National Coaching Accreditation Scheme ensures quality standards of coaching in Australian sport. In 1996 there

were 28,000 female level 1 coaches in the National Coaching Accreditation Scheme (29% of all level 1 coaches). This was the same proportion as in the previous year. The proportion of level 2 and level 3 coaches increased slightly from the previous year.

The Australian Institute of Sport (AIS) is the main training ground for Australia's elite athletes. Women are underrepresented in AIS coaching positions. Only two of the 24 head coaches were women, as were nine of the 54 other coaches.

Definitions and data references

- Animal or marine park** — includes zoological and marine parks primarily engaged in the breeding, preservation, study and display of native and/or exotic fauna, which are accessible to the general public on payment of an entrance fee.
Reference: *Attendance at Selected Cultural Venues, Australia* (Cat. no. 4114.0).
- Art gallery** — includes national, state, regional, local and private galleries primarily engaged in the collection, acquisition, research into, conservation, communication and exhibition of visual art/craft objects. Excludes commercial art galleries where works are exhibited for sale.
Reference: *Attendance at Selected Cultural Venues, Australia* (Cat. no. 4114.0).
- Attendance at sporting events** — by people aged 15 years and over as a spectator at least once in the year, irrespective of the payment of an admission fee. Includes events, matches or competitions. Excludes junior sport, such as competitions for children under the age of 17 years and primary and secondary school competitions.
Reference: *Sports Attendance, Australia* (Cat. no. 4174.0).
- Average time spent** — the time spent by people on an activity in a day was added to the time spent by everyone else to get the total time spent. Average time spent by all people is the total time spent divided by the population. Average time spent by participants is the total time spent divided by the number of people who engaged in that activity.
Reference: *Time Use Survey, Australia — User's Guide* (Cat. no. 4150.0).
- Botanic gardens** — institutions established as a large garden to collect, study, exchange and display plants for research and for the education and enjoyment of the public.
Reference: *Attendance at Selected Cultural Venues, Australia* (Cat. no. 4114.0).
- Cinema** — includes cinema screenings, drive-ins and public screenings of films at cinemas and other locations.
Reference: *Attendance at Selected Cultural Venues, Australia* (Cat. no. 4114.0).
- Classical music** — includes performances given by symphony, philharmonic, youth and theatre orchestras, chamber and choral groups presenting, in the main, performances of classical, oratorio, early and contemporary music. Individual performers and singers, vocal ensembles and other groups presenting music, other than popular music, are also included.
Reference: *Attendance at Selected Cultural Venues, Australia* (Cat. no. 4114.0).
- Dance** — includes ballet, classical dance, contemporary dance, modern dance, dance theatre, dance revue, ethnic and folk dance companies and dance in education companies. Excludes variety dance shows.
Reference: *Attendance at Selected Cultural Venues, Australia* (Cat. no. 4114.0).
- Domestic travel** — by Australian residents aged 14 years and over, which involved a stay away from home for one or more nights and required a journey of at least 40 kilometres from home.
Reference: Bureau of Tourism Research, *Domestic Tourism Monitor: Annual Summary*.
- Library** — includes national, state and public libraries. The latter are institutions engaged in providing a free library service. Excludes special libraries and those located in educational institutions.
Reference: *Attendance at Selected Cultural Venues, Australia* (Cat. no. 4114.0).
- Long-term overseas trip** — by Australian residents who intend to stay abroad for 12 months or more (but not permanently).
Reference: *Overseas Arrivals and Departures, Australia* (Cat. no. 3401.0).

Museum — includes organisations involved in the collection, acquisition, research into, conservation, communication and exhibition of the material evidence of people, their culture and environment, for the purposes of study, education and enjoyment by the general public and/or specialists. Includes science and technology, history, natural science, transport and specialist museums, science centres, museum and art gallery combined and historical theme parks.

Reference: *Attendance at Selected Cultural Venues, Australia* (Cat. no. 4114.0).

Opera or musical — includes major musical productions, opera and operetta, performed in front of a live audience. Excludes variety, cabaret and instrumental music performances.

Reference: *Attendance at Selected Cultural Venues, Australia* (Cat. no. 4114.0).

Organised sport and physical activities — are those sports and physical activities organised by a club, association or school. Includes work social clubs, church groups, old scholars' associations or aerobics at local gymnasiums. Activities such as running or jogging, walking or gardening are excluded unless these activities are organised by a club or association.

Reference: *Sport and Recreation Participation, Australia* (Cat. no. 4177.0).

Other performing arts — includes performing artists, working individually or in groups or companies. Included are acrobats, clowns, fire eaters, sword swallowers, stilt walkers, trick cyclists, circuses with or without animals, magicians, ventriloquists, pantomime, variety, revue and mime artists, comedians, ice dancing and revue artists, reciters, poetry readers and oral history performance artists.

Reference: *Attendance at Selected Cultural Venues, Australia* (Cat. no. 4114.0).

Popular music — includes the presentation, in front of live audiences, of popular music performances by individual musicians and vocalists as well as by orchestras, brass and concert bands, music groups, etc. Includes rock, jazz, pop, folk, country and western, ethnic, aboriginal and multicultural music. Excludes busking and street parades.

Reference: *Attendance at Selected Cultural Venues, Australia* (Cat. no. 4114.0).

Short-term overseas trip — by Australian residents who intended to stay abroad less than 12 months.

Reference: *Overseas Arrivals and Departures, Australia* (Cat. no. 3401.0).

Theatre — includes live performances, by actors or puppets, of plays where the entire, or a major part of the performance, does not use song and music. Included are alternate, playback, puppet, fringe, youth and community theatre, theatre sports and theatre of the deaf as well as drama, comedy, mime and theatre-in-education.

Reference: *Attendance at Selected Cultural Venues, Australia* (Cat. no. 4114.0).



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