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Australian  
Social Trends  
2004

**Dennis Trewin**  
**Australian Statistician**

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# Contents

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	<b>Page</b>
<b>Preface</b> .....	<b>v</b>
<b>Introduction</b> .....	<b>vi</b>
<b>General information</b> .....	<b>viii</b>
<b>Population</b> .....	<b>1</b>
Echoes of the baby boom — Seachange — new residents in coastal areas — Scenarios for Australia's ageing population — Where do overseas-born people live?	
<b>Family and community</b> .....	<b>27</b>
Social interactions outside home — Support for people with a disability — Families with no employed parent — Being unemployed, a lone parent or a recently arrived migrant — Formal child care	
<b>Health</b> .....	<b>61</b>
Living with asthma — Cancer trends — How women care for their health	
<b>Education and training</b> .....	<b>83</b>
Paying for university education — Higher education graduates in the labour market — Attending preschool	
<b>Work</b> .....	<b>101</b>
Young people in employment — Mature age workers — Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples in the labour force — Community service workers	
<b>Economic resources</b> .....	<b>129</b>
Household assets, liabilities and financial stress — Household income — Incomes of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Australians	
<b>Housing</b> .....	<b>151</b>
Homelessness — Home ownership — High-rise living	
<b>Other areas of social concern</b> .....	<b>171</b>
Overseas travel and recent world events — Environmental concerns and related activities — Religious affiliation and activity — Women in prison	
<b>International comparisons</b> .....	<b>191</b>
Population — Health — Education — Work	
<b>Cumulative topic list</b> .....	<b>203</b>
<b>ABS information services</b> .....	<b>210</b>



# Preface

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*Australian Social Trends 2004* is the 11th edition of an annual series that presents information on contemporary social issues and areas of public policy concern. By drawing on a wide range of ABS statistics, and statistics from other official sources, *Australian Social Trends* describes aspects of Australian society, and how these are changing over time. It is designed to assist and encourage informed decision-making, and to be of value to a wide audience including those engaged in research, journalism, marketing, teaching and social policy, as well as anyone interested in how we live today and how we've changed over recent decades.

The material presented in *Australian Social Trends 2004* is organised into eight chapters. As in previous editions, each of the first seven chapters represents a major area of social concern (i.e. population, family and community, health, education and training, work, economic resources, and housing), with an eighth chapter covering other areas of social concern (e.g. crime and justice, culture and leisure, and the environment). This edition also contains, for the first time, an introduction that expands on the rationale behind the publication and describes its main aims and features.

The opportunity has been taken to present some articles which expand and update analysis of topics examined in previous editions using the most recently available data. For example, in this edition, such articles cover population projections, child care, home ownership, and religious affiliation. There are also articles, including several that utilise data from the ABS 2002 General Social Survey, which cover new topics of interest, such as social interactions outside home, families with no employed parent, and paying for university education. The national and state summary tables which present key social indicators in each of the seven major areas of social concern have been updated, as have the tables comparing Australia with major OECD countries, our closest neighbours, and our trading partners. The number of articles listed in the cumulative index now comes to over 300, published across all 11 editions.

I would like to thank the people throughout the ABS who compiled, wrote and edited *Australian Social Trends 2004*, and Tony Eardley from the Social Policy Research Centre at the University of New South Wales, who contributed an article for the Economic Resources chapter. I would also like to thank reviewers from a range of Commonwealth agencies and departments who gave their time and expertise, and various organisations that assisted in other ways by providing data and advice, including the Australian Institute of Health and Welfare and the Commonwealth Department of Family and Community Services.

The ABS welcomes readers' suggestions on how the publication could be improved. To convey your views or to ask for more information, please contact the Director of Social Analysis and Reporting at the address below.

Dennis Trewin  
Australian Statistician

Australian Bureau of Statistics  
PO Box 10  
Belconnen ACT 2616

June 2004

# Introduction

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## Aims

The ABS approach to measuring population wellbeing divides wellbeing into component areas of social concern, e.g. health, family and community, work, and so on.<sup>1</sup> While this approach is intuitive and useful, and largely mirrors the way in which social welfare is publicly administered, its success is partly dependent on the extent to which information can be re-integrated to provide a cohesive picture of society and social trends. Certainly, when policy makers, service providers or researchers seek information, their focus is on complex social issues, which often cut across such areas. For example, to usefully inform on an issue such as homelessness, a researcher would need to bring together data relating to housing, family and community, and economic resources; and data on employment, and health may also be relevant. Thus, Australian Social Trends (AST) aims to bring together data from a wide range of social data collections, and to present these data from an issues driven perspective. More specifically, AST aims to:

- ◆ inform decision-making, research and discussion on social conditions in Australia, social issues of current and ongoing concern, population groups of interest, and changes in these over time — by drawing together up-to-date social data and analysis from both ABS and other official sources, and incorporating readily understood commentary about the statistics
- ◆ support the monitoring and review of progress towards social goals, changes in social conditions, and levels of population wellbeing — by presenting a comprehensive set of social indicators on a regular basis.

## Framework

Released in 2001, the publication *Measuring Wellbeing: Frameworks for Australian Social Statistics* (ABS cat. no. 4160.0) describes the conceptual organisation of social statistics in the ABS. It presents an overall framework, and various conceptual models used in each of nine main areas of social concern. This overall framework underpins the selection and presentation of material in AST.

## Approach

AST articles focus strongly on people and social issues. Each year, the selection of topics for the articles is based on contemporary issues which may be informed using recent data. Each article aims to tell a story, providing a sense of the social and historical context in which a particular issue is embedded, moving from the general to the specific, and using statistics to bring light to the issue. Articles aim to provide relevant statistical facts surrounding the issue (e.g. number, characteristics, change over time, sex, age and other differences), together with context and explanation through highlighting relevant social developments. For example, each article may examine current circumstances, how circumstances have changed over time, how different groups of people have been affected, and how various factors may be linked to observed trends.

A key aspect of the publication is its readability. Information is deliberately presented in non-technical language that can be readily understood by the general reader. Statistics are organised to illustrate specific issues, and to highlight the meaning behind the data and the main patterns and exceptions. As far as possible, technical terms are defined separately from the flow of the main story, but are included within each article, so each article can stand alone.

The tables of summary indicators provided at the start of each chapter are a recurring feature of the publication (updated annually). However, the suite of articles changes each year, with some topics refreshed as new data become available. Thus, each edition remains responsive to contemporary concerns, while a more comprehensive picture of Australian social conditions is accumulated across editions. To enhance this approach, each article includes cross references to other articles in the current edition, and in previous editions. A cumulative topic list, covering articles from the 1994 to 2004 editions of AST, is at page 203.

**Recurring topics have covered:**  
**population projections and growth; families, work and child care; disability and caring in the community; National Health Priority Areas; work related training; the social conditions of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples; long-term unemployment; and income distribution.**

## Social indicators and progress

AST complements the recent ABS publication, *Measures of Australia's Progress* (MAP) (cat. no. 1370.0). MAP presents a suite of indicators for reporting on economic, social and environmental progress and considers the interrelationships between these aspects of life. For the social perspective, three headline dimensions are used to discuss progress in the wellbeing of individuals: health; education and training; and work (with financial hardship covered under economic progress). Three further headline dimensions are used to discuss progress in the way we live together as a society: family, community and social cohesion; crime; and democracy, governance and citizenship. In addition, MAP presents a number of supplementary indicators. However, the presentation and discussion of any suite of indicators cannot fully reveal the richness of Australian society — how Australians live together and, for example, how different areas of our lives are intertwined. AST extends both the breadth and depth of the social investigation presented in MAP.

### Features of Australian Social Trends

*Structure* — Seven core areas of social concern form the chapters of each edition: population, family and community, health, education and training, work, economic resources, and housing. An additional chapter covers other areas of social concern, such as culture and leisure, transport and communication, crime and justice, and the environment. Occasionally an AST edition will focus on a theme. Past themes have included regional issues (2003), and the wellbeing of older Australians (1999).

#### Chapters

*Summary tables* — The summary tables at the beginning of each chapter are a fundamental element of AST. They present a range of statistics that summarise key aspects of each core area. They show at a glance changes that have taken place at a national level over a decade, and differences across states and territories for the most recent year.

*Articles* — Each chapter contains several articles, each 3–6 pages long. The articles focus on specific social issues or population subgroups. They are designed to stand alone, while complementing one another in terms of content. Articles contain references to other AST articles that provide more background or in-depth discussion of a topic, and references at the end of each article direct readers to further Australian and international reading on the topic. A short summary of each article is provided on the chapter title page.

*Sources and definitions* — The main data sources used in an article, and definitions of key terms used, generally appear on the first page of the article, in the upper-right-hand corner. Data sources and definitions for the summary tables are provided directly following these tables.

#### Other features

*International comparisons* — A set of international summary tables covering the areas of population, health, education, and work are located towards the end of the publication. These tables enable the reader to consider Australia's international standing in relation to various key social indicators.

*Cumulative topic list* — This index lists all articles, from all AST editions, under topic subheadings.

*AST seminars* — The dissemination of each year's edition of AST includes seminars held in most states and territories. These are based on articles from the most recent edition supported by related statistics, with a state or territory focus where feasible. For information contact the client liaison area in ABS Regional Offices.

*Access* — All editions of AST can be accessed via the ABS web site; from the home page or through Australia Now. AusStats subscribers can access PDF versions of each edition and Excel spreadsheet versions of the summary tables. Hard copies of the publication are available from ABS Regional Offices. For more information, see p. viii of this edition.

1 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2001, *Measuring Wellbeing: Frameworks for Australian social statistics*, cat. no. 4160.0, ABS, Canberra.

# General information

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## Inquiries about these statistics

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

Director  
Social Analysis and Reporting Section  
ABS  
PO Box 10  
Belconnen ACT 2616

Telephone Canberra (02) 6252 7187

Inquiries about the availability of more recent data from the ABS should be directed to the National Information and Referral Service on 1300 135 070.

## ABS publications and services

A complete list of ABS publications produced in Canberra and each of the Regional Offices is contained in the *ABS Catalogue of Publications and Products* (cat. no. 1101.0), which is available from any ABS office.

In many cases, the ABS can also provide information which is available on request or which is historical or compiled from a variety of sources. Information of this kind may be obtained through the Information Consultancy Service. This information may be made available in one or more of the following forms: consultancy reports, microfiche, floppy disk, magnetic tape, computer printout or photocopy. Charges are generally made for such information. Inquiries may be made by contacting Information Services in your nearest ABS office (see p. 218).



## Abbreviations

The following abbreviations have been used in this publication.

### Australia, States and territories of Australia

Aust.	Australia
NSW	New South Wales
Vic.	Victoria
Qld	Queensland
SA	South Australia
WA	Western Australia
Tas.	Tasmania
NT	Northern Territory
ACT	Australian Capital Territory

### Other abbreviations

AAP	Asthma Action Plan
ABS	Australian Bureau of Statistics
ABSCQ	Australian Bureau of Statistics Classification of Qualifications
AGPS	Australian Government Publishing Service
AIHW	Australian Institute of Health and Welfare
ANZSIC	Australian and New Zealand Standard Industry Classification
ASCED	Australian Standard Classification of Education
ASCO	Australian Standard Classification of Occupations
ASGC	Australian Standard Geographical Classification
ASOC	Australian Standard Offence Classification
AST	Australian Social Trends
BMI	Body mass index
CDEP	Community Development Employment Projects scheme
CPI	Consumer Price Index
CSDA	Commonwealth/State Disability Agreement
DALY	Disability Adjusted Life Year
EFP	Environmentally-friendly product
ERP	Estimated resident population
FTE	Full-time equivalent
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GP	General Practitioner
GSS	General Social Survey
HECS	Higher Education Contribution Scheme
HES	Household Expenditure Survey
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
ICD-10	International Classification of Diseases – 10th revision
ICD-9	International Classification of Diseases – 9th revision
LFS	Labour Force Survey
MAP	Measures of Australia's Progress
NHPA	National Health Priority Area
NHS	National Health Survey
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PELS	Postgraduate Education Loan Scheme
PSA	Prostate specific antigen test
SAAP	Supported Accommodation Assistance Program
SACC	Standard Australian Classification of Countries
SAR	Special Administrative Region of China
SARS	Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome
SD	Statistical Division
SDAC	Survey of Disability, Ageing and Carers
SEIFA	Socio-Economic Indexes for Areas
SIH	Survey of Income and Housing
SLA	Statistical Local Area
SSD	Statistical Subdivision
STD	Sexually transmitted disease
TAFE	Technical and Further Education
TFR	Total fertility rate
UK	United Kingdom
USA	United States of America
USSR	Union of Soviet Socialist Republics
VET	Vocational Education and Training
WHO	World Health Organisation

## Symbols

The following symbols and usages mean:

billion	1,000 million
n.a.	not available
nec	not elsewhere classified
nfd	not further defined
n.y.a.	not yet available
no.	number
p	preliminary — figures or series subject to revision
r	figures or series revised since previous edition
'000	thousand
'000m	thousand million
\$	dollar
\$m	million dollars
\$b	billion dollars
\$US	American dollar
%	per cent
*	subject to high sampling variability
**	data suppressed due to unacceptably high sampling variability
..	not applicable
—	nil or rounded to zero (including null cells)

## Other usages

Figures have been rounded. Therefore discrepancies may occur between the sums of the component items and totals.

Unless otherwise stated, where source data used included a non-response category (i.e. not stated), data in this category have been excluded prior to the calculation of percentages. Total numbers shown with such percentages include the number of non-responses.

Each chapter contains a national summary table which provides, where possible, ten years of data for a particular indicator. These time series are designed to give a long-term overview and readers should be cautious when interpreting small year to year variations, as some may not be statistically significant.

Unless otherwise stated, all data from the Census of Population and Housing are based on the location of people on census night, i.e. their place of enumeration.

Unless otherwise stated, all data from the Census of Population and Housing exclude overseas visitors.

# Population

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	Page
<b>National and state summary tables.....</b>	<b>2</b>
<b>Population data sources and definitions.....</b>	<b>4</b>

## POPULATION GROWTH

<b>Echoes of the baby boom.....</b>	<b>7</b>
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The baby boom occurred in the period from the end of World War II to the mid-1960s. A baby boom echo occurred in the early 1970s. This article examines whether a second baby boom echo will occur, by considering changes in the number of births and the total fertility rate in recent decades.

## POPULATION CHARACTERISTICS

<b>Seachange — new residents in coastal areas.....</b>	<b>11</b>
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This article examines the characteristics of people who moved into a high growth coastal area during the year prior to 7 August 2001. Although the common perception is of older people moving from capital cities, the article reports that almost four out of five (79%) of these new residents were aged under 50 years; and that not quite one-third had moved from a capital city.

## POPULATION PROJECTIONS

<b>Scenarios for Australia's ageing population.....</b>	<b>16</b>
---------------------------------------------------------	-----------

In 2002, people aged 65 years and over comprised 13% of Australia's population. By 2101, they are projected to comprise between 29% and 32% of the population. Over the same period, the proportion of children aged 0–14 years is projected to decline from 20% of the population, to between 12% and 15%. This article uses three population projection series to discuss the changing age structure of Australia's population. It also examines the impact of the differing assumptions which underpin each projection series.

## POPULATION DISTRIBUTION

<b>Where do overseas-born people live?.....</b>	<b>22</b>
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More than six million new settlers have arrived in Australia since the end of World War II. In 2001, people born overseas comprised almost one-quarter (23%) of the population. They were highly urbanised, with more than three-quarters (81%) living in a capital city and half living in Sydney or Melbourne. This article discusses the distribution of overseas-born people throughout Australia, in particular by age, country of birth and whether they are recent arrivals or longer term migrants.

# Population: national summary

<b>COMPOSITION</b>		Units	1993	1994(a)	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003p
1	Total population	'000	17 667	17 855	18 072	18 311	18 518	18 711	18 926	19 153	19 413	r19 641	19 881
2	Male population	'000	8 798	8 888	8 994	9 108	9 203	9 295	9 397	9 505	9 631	r9 753	9 872
3	Female population	'000	8 869	8 967	9 078	9 203	9 314	9 417	9 529	9 648	9 783	r9 888	10 010
4	Indigenous population(b)	'000	360.7	368.8	377.1	386.0	394.2	402.4	410.6	418.8	427.1	435.4	443.7
5	Overseas born population	%	22.9	22.9	23.0	23.3	23.3	23.3	23.3	23.6	23.1	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
6	Born in United Kingdom and Ireland	%	7.0	6.9	6.8	6.7	6.7	6.5	6.4	6.3	6.1	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
7	Born in Europe including former USSR	%	13.6	13.5	13.3	13.2	13.1	12.9	12.7	12.5	12.1	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
8	Born in East and Southern Asia	%	4.5	4.7	4.9	5.1	5.2	5.3	5.4	5.6	5.5	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
9	Population living in capital cities	%	63.5	63.5	63.5	63.6	r63.6	63.7	r63.7	64.0	r63.7	r63.8	63.8
10	Population aged 0–14 years	%	21.7	21.6	21.5	21.4	21.2	20.9	20.7	r20.4	20.2	20.3	20.0
11	Population aged 15–64	%	66.6	66.6	66.6	66.6	66.7	66.9	67.0	r67.4	67.4	r67.0	67.2
12	Population aged 65 and over	%	11.6	11.8	11.9	12.0	12.1	12.2	12.3	12.3	12.4	12.7	12.8
13	Population aged 80 and over	%	2.4	2.5	2.6	2.6	2.7	2.7	2.8	2.9	3.0	3.2	3.3
14	Median age of total population	years	33.0	33.4	33.7	34.0	r34.4	r34.8	r35.1	r35.4	r35.7	r36.0	36.1
15	Median age of Indigenous population(b)	years	r20.3	r20.4	r20.6	20.1	20.1	20.1	20.2	20.2	20.3	20.4	20.6
16	Sex ratio of population aged 0–64	ratio	102.7	102.6	102.5	102.4	102.3	102.4	102.4	102.4	101.5	r101.7	101.6
17	Sex ratio of population aged 65 and over	ratio	75.9	76.3	76.7	77.1	77.5	77.9	77.5	78.6	79.8	79.8	80.4
<b>POPULATION GROWTH</b>		Units	1993	1994(a)	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003p
18	Total population growth	'000	172.4	187.6	217.0	239.0	213.4	206.2	206.8	241.2	259.9	r227.7	240.5
19	Births(c)	'000	260.0	258.3	258.2	250.4	253.7	249.1	250.0	249.3	247.5	r247.4	248.0
20	Deaths(c)	'000	121.3	123.5	126.2	126.4	127.3	129.3	128.4	128.4	128.9	r130.3	132.8
21	Natural increase	'000	138.6	134.8	132.0	124.0	126.4	119.9	121.7	120.9	118.6	r117.2	115.2
22	Net overseas migration	'000	30.0	46.5	80.1	104.1	87.1	79.2	96.5	107.3	135.7	r110.6	125.3
23	Population growth rate	%	0.99	1.06	1.22	1.32	1.13	1.05	1.15	1.20	1.36	r1.17	1.22
24	Net overseas migration to total growth	%	17.4	24.8	36.9	43.6	40.8	38.4	46.7	44.5	52.2	r48.6	52.1
<b>MIGRATION</b>		Units	1993	1994(a)	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
25	Total settler arrivals(d)	'000	76.3	69.8	87.4	99.1	85.8	77.3	84.1	92.3	107.4	88.9	93.9
26	Skilled settler arrivals	%	29.0	18.3	23.1	20.2	23.0	33.6	33.2	35.1	33.3	40.5	n.y.a.
27	Family settler arrivals	%	42.1	48.1	42.4	46.9	42.6	27.3	25.6	21.6	18.8	26.3	n.y.a.
28	Humanitarian settler arrivals	%	14.3	16.3	15.6	13.9	11.5	11.4	10.4	7.9	7.1	7.6	n.y.a.
<b>PROJECTIONS — SERIES B</b>		Units	2006	2011	2016	2021	2026	2031	2036	2041	2046	2051	2101
29	Total population	'000	r20 533	r21 524	r22 464	r23 368	r24 202	r24 916	r25 478	r25 892	r26 194	r26 422	r26 356
30	Population aged 0–14 years	%	r19.2	r17.8	r16.7	16.1	r15.7	r15.4	r15.0	r14.6	r14.2	r14.0	r13.8
31	Population aged 15–64	%	r67.5	r67.5	r66.4	r64.9	r63.1	r61.6	r60.5	r59.8	r59.5	r58.9	r57.2
32	Population aged 65 and over	%	r13.3	r14.7	r16.9	r19.0	r21.2	r23.0	r24.5	r25.6	r26.3	r27.1	r28.9
33	Population aged 80 and over	%	r3.6	r4.1	r4.4	r4.9	r5.7	r7.0	r8.1	r9.1	r9.8	r10.4	r11.6
34	Median age of total population	years	r37.0	r38.7	r40.1	41.2	r42.5	r43.6	r44.7	r45.6	r46.3	r46.8	r47.5
35	Population living in capital cities	%	r63.9	r64.1	r64.3	r64.5	r64.8	r65.1	r65.5	r65.8	r66.2	r66.6	n.y.a.

(a) From 1994, includes Christmas Island and Cocos (Keeling) Islands.

(b) From 1997, figures are projections.

(c) Births/deaths occurring in that year.

(d) Total settler arrivals includes special eligibility and non-program migration in addition to skilled, family and humanitarian migration.

Reference periods: All data are for the financial year ending 30 June except:  
Data for indicators 1–17 and 29–35 are at 30 June.

# Population: state summary

<b>COMPOSITION</b>											
	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.(a)
1 Total population	'000	2003p	6 687	4 917	3 797	1 527	1 952	477	198	323	19 881
2 Male population	'000	2003p	3 322	2 423	1 893	756	977	235	104	159	9 872
3 Female population	'000	2003p	3 365	2 494	1 903	772	975	242	94	163	10 010
4 Indigenous population(b)	'000	2003	125.7	25.3	124.4	25.2	63.7	17.2	58.1	3.8	443.7
5 Overseas born population(c)	%	2001	24.8	24.6	18.0	21.2	28.5	10.5	15.5	22.6	23.1
6 Born in United Kingdom and Ireland(c)	%	2001	r4.9	5.0	r5.5	r9.2	r12.2	r5.1	r4.1	r6.1	6.1
7 Born in Europe including former USSR(c)(d)	%	2001	10.6	13.7	8.8	16.0	17.3	7.6	7.1	12.2	r12.0
8 Born in East and Southern Asia(c)	%	2001	7.5	6.3	2.9	2.9	5.4	1.1	4.2	5.8	5.5
9 Population living in capital cities	%	2003p	62.8	72.4	45.6	73.3	73.4	41.9	54.4	99.9	63.8
10 Population aged 0–14 years	%	2003p	19.9	19.5	20.8	18.8	20.4	20.4	25.4	19.8	20.0
11 Population aged 15–64	%	2003p	66.8	67.3	67.3	66.3	68.2	65.4	70.4	71.1	67.2
12 Population aged 65 and over	%	2003p	13.3	13.2	11.9	14.9	11.4	14.2	4.2	9.1	12.8
13 Population aged 80 and over	%	2003p	3.5	3.4	3.0	4.1	2.8	3.7	0.7	2.2	3.3
14 Median age of total population	years	2003p	36.4	36.2	35.5	38.2	35.5	38.1	30.3	33.8	36.1
15 Median age of Indigenous population(b)	years	2003	20.1	21.0	20.1	20.6	20.9	20.8	22.0	21.2	20.6
16 Sex ratio of population aged 0–64	ratio	2003p	102.0	100.3	101.7	102.0	102.7	100.5	110.5	99.4	101.6
17 Sex ratio of population aged 65 and over	ratio	2003p	79.6	78.6	84.6	77.7	82.0	80.0	113.3	80.1	80.4
<b>POPULATION GROWTH</b>											
	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
18 Total population growth	'000	2002–03	52.5	60.2	85.8	8.7	27.7	4.5	-0.3	1.3	240.5
19 Births	'000	2002–03	86.4	59.9	47.2	17.2	23.8	5.8	3.7	4.0	248.0
20 Deaths	'000	2002–03	46.9	33.5	23.4	11.7	11.2	3.9	0.9	1.3	132.8
21 Natural increase	'000	2002–03	39.5	26.3	23.8	5.5	12.6	1.9	2.8	2.7	115.2
22 Net overseas migration	'000	2002–03	44.9	33.8	22.8	4.7	18.0	0.7	0.2	0.3	125.3
23 Net interstate migration	'000	2002–03	-31.8	—	39.2	-1.5	-2.8	1.9	-3.4	-1.6	—
24 Population growth rate	%	2002–03	0.8	1.2	2.3	0.6	1.4	1.0	-0.2	0.4	1.2
25 Net interstate migration rate	%	2002–03	-0.5	—	1.1	-0.1	-0.2	0.4	-1.7	-0.5	—
<b>PROJECTIONS — SERIES B</b>											
	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
26 Total population	'000	2051	r8 356	r6 200	r6 430	r1 476	r2 875	r387	r307	r390	r26 422
27 Population aged 0–14 years	%	2051	r14.2	r13.6	r14.3	r12.9	r14.1	r13.3	r20.4	r14.3	r14.0
28 Population aged 15–64	%	2051	r59.0	r59.1	r58.9	r55.9	r59.1	r52.9	r67.5	r62.2	r58.9
29 Population aged 65 and over	%	2051	r26.9	r27.3	r26.8	31.1	r26.9	r33.8	r12.1	r23.5	r27.1
30 Population aged 80 and over	%	2051	r10.2	r10.7	r10.0	r13.0	r10.4	r14.1	r2.9	r9.2	r10.4
31 Median age of total population	years	2051	r46.7	r46.9	r46.8	r50.0	r46.8	r52.4	r35.8	r43.5	r46.8
32 Population living in capital cities	%	2051	r67.6	r77.3	46.9	r76.9	r77.8	r45.5	r64.9	n.a.	r66.6

(a) Australian total includes Jervis Bay Territory, Christmas Island and Cocos (Keeling) Islands.

(b) Population projections.

(c) Only available in census years.

(d) The figure for Australia is different from that shown in the National summary due to different data sources.

Reference periods: All data are for the financial year ending 30 June except:  
Data for indicators 1–17 and 26–32 are at 30 June.

# Population: data sources

DATA SOURCE	Indicators using this source	
	National indicators	State indicators
ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.	–	5–8
<i>Australian Demographic Statistics</i> (ABS cat. no. 3101.0).	1–4, 18–24	1–4, 18–25
Department of Immigration, Multicultural and Indigenous Affairs: <i>Immigration Update</i> .	25–28	–
<i>Experimental Estimates of the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Population</i> (ABS cat. no. 3230.0) and projected estimates.	15	15
<i>Migration, Australia</i> (ABS cat. no. 3412.0).	5–8	–
<i>Population by Age and Sex, Australian States and Territories</i> (ABS cat. no. 3201.0).	9–14, 16–17	9–14, 16–17
<i>Population Projections</i> (ABS cat. no. 3222.0).	29–35	26–32

## Population: definitions

### Births

live births occurring in that year. A live birth is the delivery of a child irrespective of the duration of pregnancy who, after being born, breathes or shows any evidence of life such as a heartbeat.  
Reference: *Births, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 3301.0).

### Deaths

based on the year in which the death occurred. Estimates may differ from estimates given in the Health chapter of this publication, which are based on the year in which the death was registered.  
Reference: *Deaths, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 3302.0).

### East, Central and Southern Asia

including the countries of North-East, South-East and Southern and Central Asia. Countries are classified according to the *Standard Australian Classification of Countries (SACC), 1998* (ABS cat. no. 1269.0).  
Reference: *Migration, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 3412.0).

### Europe

including the United Kingdom and Ireland.  
Reference: *Standard Australian Classification of Countries (SACC), 1998* (ABS cat. no. 1269.0).

### Family settler arrivals

migrants who have been sponsored by a relative who is an Australian citizen, or permanent resident of Australia, under the family stream of the migration program.  
Reference: *Immigration Update, June Quarter 2001*, Department of Immigration and Multicultural and Indigenous Affairs.

### Humanitarian settler arrivals

comprise: those who arrive under the refugee program (which provides protection for people who have fled their country because of persecution); those who arrive under the special humanitarian programs (those suffering persecution within their own country or who have left their country because of significant discrimination amounting to gross violation of human rights); and those who arrive under the special assistance category (groups determined by the Minister to be of special concern to Australia and in real need, but who do not come under the traditional humanitarian categories. It includes those internally and externally displaced people who have close family links in Australia).  
Reference: *Immigration Update, June Quarter 2001*, Department of Immigration and Multicultural and Indigenous Affairs.

### Indigenous population

people of Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander descent who identify as an Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander and are accepted as such by the community in which they live. Data referring to the size of the Indigenous population are experimental estimates in that the standard approach to population estimation is not possible because satisfactory data on births, deaths and migration are not generally available. Furthermore, there is significant intercensal volatility in census counts of the Indigenous population, due in part to changes in the propensity of persons to identify as being of Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander origin.

Reference: *Experimental Estimates of the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Population* (ABS cat. no. 3230.0).

### Long-term arrivals and departures

long-term arrivals comprise overseas visitors who intend to stay in Australia for one year or more (but not permanently) and Australian residents returning after an absence of one year or more overseas. Long-term departures comprise Australian residents who intend to stay abroad for one year or more (but not permanently), and overseas visitors departing who stayed one year or more.  
Reference: *Migration, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 3412.0).

### Median age

the age at which half the population is older and half is younger.  
Reference: *Population by Age and Sex, Australian States and Territories* (ABS cat. no. 3201.0).

### Natural increase

the excess of births over deaths during the year.  
Reference: *Australian Demographic Statistics* (ABS cat. no. 3101.0).

### Net interstate migration

interstate arrivals minus interstate departures during the year. Net interstate migration rate expresses this as a proportion (per cent) of the population at the beginning of the year.  
Reference: *Australian Demographic Statistics* (ABS cat. no. 3101.0).

### Net overseas migration

permanent and long-term arrivals minus permanent and long-term departures during the year.  
Reference: *Australian Demographic Statistics* (ABS cat. no. 3101.0).

# Population: definitions continued

## Permanent arrivals and departures

permanent arrivals comprise travellers who hold migrant visas and other persons eligible to settle, and permanent departures comprise Australian residents who intend to settle in another country.

Reference: *Migration, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 3412.0).

## Population

the population of Australia is based on the concept of residence. It refers to all people, regardless of nationality or citizenship, who usually live in Australia, with the exception of foreign diplomatic personnel and their families. It includes usual residents who are overseas for less than 12 months. It excludes overseas residents who are in Australia for less than 12 months.

Estimated resident population (ERP) is an estimate of the Australian population obtained by adding to the estimated population at the beginning of each period the components of natural increase (on a usual residence basis) and net overseas migration. For the states and territories, account is also taken of estimated interstate movements involving a change of usual residence.

Reference: *Australian Demographic Statistics* (ABS cat. no. 3101.0).

## Population growth

increase in the population during the year, measured as the sum of natural increase and net overseas migration. For dates prior to 1996, differences between growth and the sum of natural increase and net overseas migration arise from retrospective adjustments to population estimates (which are made after each census) to compensate for intercensal discrepancy. Population growth rate expresses the increase as a proportion (per cent) of the population at the beginning of the year.

Reference: *Australian Demographic Statistics* (ABS cat. no. 3101.0).

## Population projections

ABS population projections take the base year population for each sex by single years of age and advance it year by year by applying assumptions about future mortality and migration. Assumed age-specific fertility rates are applied to the female populations of child-bearing ages to provide the estimates of new births for each year. The ABS produces several series of population projections based on different combinations of assumptions about mortality, fertility and migration. The assumptions underlying Series B most closely reflect prevailing trends and comprise: declining rates of mortality; the total fertility rate for Australia falling to 1.6 by 2011, and then remaining constant; low levels of overseas migration (annual net gain of 100,000 from 2005–2006); and medium levels of interstate migration. The base year for these projections is 2002.

Reference: *Population Projections, Australia, 2002 to 2101* (ABS cat. no. 3222.0).

## Sex ratio

the number of males per 100 females.

Reference: *Births, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 3301.0).

## Skilled settler arrivals

the skill stream component of the migration program is designed to contribute to Australia's economic growth. Settlers under this program meet a demand in Australia for their particular occupational skills, outstanding talents or business skills.

Reference: *Immigration Update, June Quarter 2001*, Department of Immigration and Multicultural and Indigenous Affairs.

## Total settler arrivals

comprised largely of those who arrived under the Migration and Humanitarian programs and those who are not required to seek a visa before travelling (mostly New Zealand citizens). These programs include the following categories: the family stream; the skilled stream; special eligibility migrants; refugees; special humanitarian and special assistance migrants.

Reference: *Immigration Update, June Quarter 2001*, Department of Immigration and Multicultural and Indigenous Affairs.





# Echoes of the baby boom

## POPULATION GROWTH

**Following 40 years of declining fertility, echoes of Australia's post-war baby boom are barely discernible in 2002.**

Changes in the size and composition of the population, the rate of change, and the way in which change comes about, are to some extent a product of the prevailing economic, political and social conditions, and societal values of the time. In turn, significant population events can have far reaching effects on social and economic conditions and on people's wellbeing and attitudes. Australia's post-war baby boom is such an event. Infant and child health, education, housing and employment are some of the areas of social policy and service provision that have been most affected as the large cohorts of the initial boom (1946–1965), and its first echo in the early 1970s, have progressed through the life cycle.

A cohort analysis of fertility in successive generations of women was undertaken recently by the ABS to find out whether a second echo was likely to occur.<sup>1</sup> This article provides a summary of that analysis and discusses some of the economic and social factors contributing to the baby boom and subsequent trends in births and fertility in Australia.

### Australia's post-war baby boom

The period from the end of World War II to the mid-1960s has come to be known as the baby boom in Australia and in several other countries including New Zealand, Canada and the United States of America. These were all relatively advanced countries with rapidly expanding economies, rising living standards and serious labour shortages. After the war, these countries welcomed high levels of

### Baby boom

*Baby boom* refers to the large and sustained increase in the number of babies born between the end of World War II and the mid-1960s. In Australia, the terms *baby boom generation* and *baby boomers* generally relate to all Australian residents born in the years 1946 to 1965, including those who migrated to Australia from countries which did not experience a baby boom. The *baby boom echo* relates to the children of the baby boom generation.

### Generational effect

The number of births in any given period is a product of two demographic factors — the number of women of reproductive age in the population, and the fertility rates prevalent at the time. In turn, the number of babies born in that period will largely determine the number of women of reproductive age in the next generation which, together with prevailing fertility rates, will determine the number of children born into the following generation, and so on.

### Cohort analysis

An analysis of the generational effect set in motion by Australia's post-war baby boom was conducted by the ABS in 2003.<sup>1</sup> While a generation is difficult to quantify, such an effect may be studied using the birth cohort as a unit of analysis. A *birth cohort* is simply 'a group of people born in the same period'.<sup>4</sup> The ABS study uses two single year birth cohorts — 1947 to represent the baby boom generation, and 1971 to represent the first echo generation (i.e. the children of the baby boomers).

### Fertility

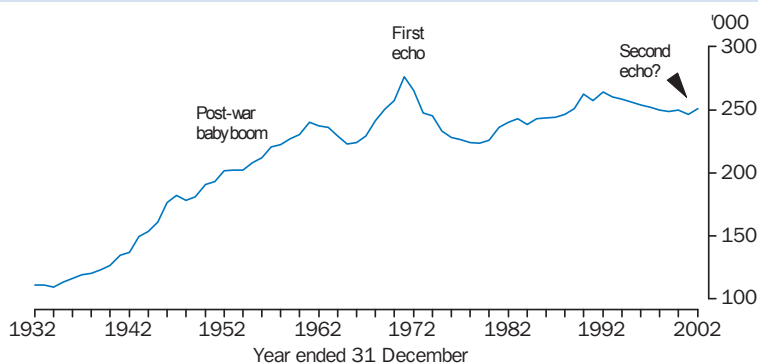
*Age-specific fertility rates* are the number of live births to mothers at each age per 1,000 of the female population of the same age.

The *total fertility rate* for any given year is the sum of age-specific fertility rates for that year. It represents the number of children a woman would give birth to during her lifetime if she experienced the current age-specific fertility rates at each age of her reproductive life.

immigration, and a rapidly growing population was seen as essential to continued economic progress.<sup>2</sup> In Australia, a larger population was seen as a defense against possible and perceived threats of invasion.<sup>3</sup>

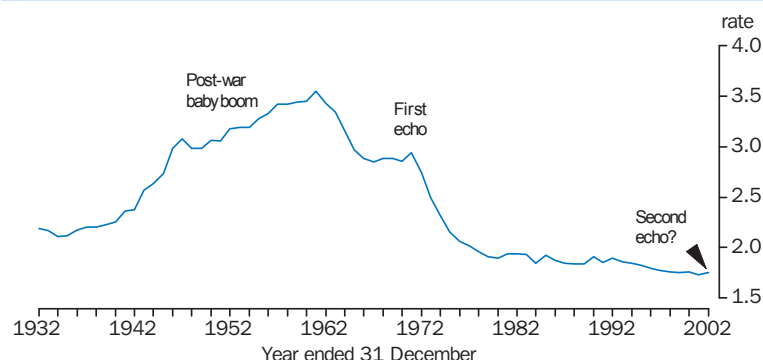
The first peak of Australia's baby boom occurred in 1947 with 182,400 babies born to couples resuming family lives disrupted by the war. Men left the armed forces and returned to civilian employment. Women relinquished wartime occupations in agriculture and industry and returned to

### Number of registered births



Source: *Social Indicators, Australia, 1992*, (ABS cat. no. 4101.0); *Births, Australia, 2002*, (ABS cat. no. 3301.0).

### Total fertility rate — 1932–2002



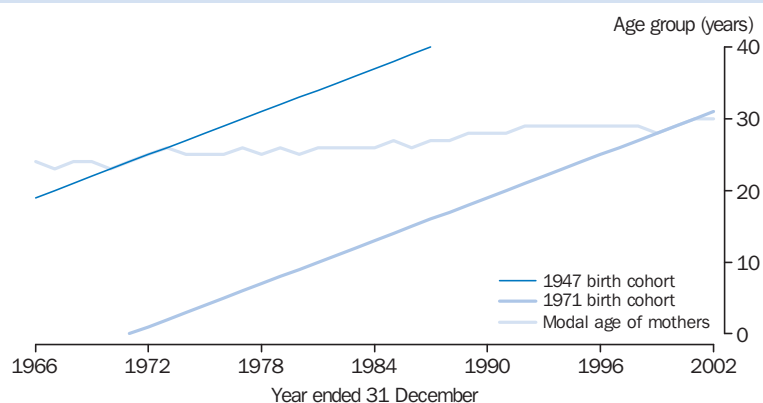
Source: *Births, Australia, 2002*, (ABS cat. no. 3301.0).

more traditional roles as wives, mothers and homemakers. The two years immediately after the war were characterised by high marriage rates and increasing fertility. Having reached a low of 2.1 during the Great Depression, the total fertility rate peaked at 3.1 in 1947.

Following a brief decline, the number of births increased steadily throughout the 1950s and peaked again in 1961 when 240,000 babies were born. The total fertility rate also peaked in 1961 at 3.5, then fell sharply during the early 1960s, as social and economic changes led to a wider acceptance and use of oral contraceptives (see *Australian Social Trends 2002*, Fertility futures, pp. 12–16).

The number of births in any given period is the outcome of two demographic factors — the number of women of reproductive age in the population, and the fertility rates prevalent at the time. In all, over four million babies were born in Australia during the baby boom years. As discussed above, this was a period of relatively high fertility. In addition,

### Age of the 1947 and 1971 birth cohorts and modal age of mothers — 1966–2002



Source: *Births, Australia, 2002*, (ABS cat. no. 3301.0).

large scale post-war immigration, mainly of young families and adults in their twenties and thirties, added substantially to the number of women of reproductive age in the Australian population and, subsequently, to the number of babies born. The relatively high ratio of males to females in the immigrant population (e.g. 133:100 in 1954) also increased the opportunities for women already in Australia to marry and have children. The proportion of births in which one or both parents were born overseas increased from 14% in 1947 to 25% in 1961, and 31% in 1965.<sup>5</sup>

### ...the first echo

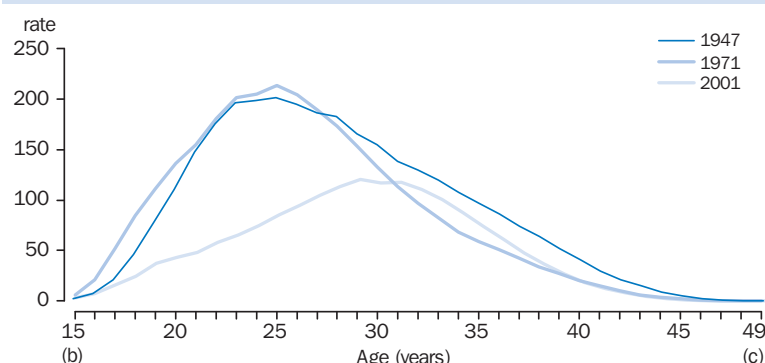
By the mid-1960s, the total fertility rate had again fallen to below three. Even so, the number of births began to rise again as the first of the baby boomers started families of their own. In 1971, Australia's largest ever cohort was born — 276,400 births. This occurred as the cohort of women born in 1947 reached the peak of their reproductive years. In the years 1970 to 1973 inclusive, the modal (most common) age of mothers giving birth — 23, 24, 25 and 26 years respectively, coincided with the age of the 1947 cohort. The size of this cohort had also been increased by immigration.

While the baby boom lasted for 20 years, the first echo was quickly curtailed as the total fertility rate fell sharply again, from just under 3 in 1971 to 1.9 in 1980. Like the baby boom, the first echo began during a period of strong economic growth and relatively high levels of immigration. While young women in the late 1960s and early 1970s were better educated and more likely to pursue a career than their mothers' generation, the traditional model of family life still prevailed.

However, the 1970s brought many changes in attitudes to women's status and roles within the family, education, labour market, politics and society. The precepts of feminism and individualism exerted a profound influence on all aspects of Australian life. Oral contraceptives became cheaper and more readily available to both married and unmarried women. This allowed women (and their partners) the freedom to delay marriage and to plan the number and spacing of their children to fit in with their education, work and life style aspirations (see *Australian Social Trends 1998*, Family planning, pp. 29–32).

Fertility levels stabilised somewhat during the 1980s then resumed a gradual decline during the 1990s. The generational effect was still discernible during the 1980s and 1990s, with the pattern of births reflecting that of the

## Age-specific fertility rates(a) — selected years



(a) Births per 1,000 women.

(b) Includes births to girls aged under 15 years.

(c) Includes births to women aged 50 years or over.

Source: ABS Births collection.

baby boom. However, the number of births each year was much lower than would have been expected had fertility remained at baby boom levels throughout this period.

### ...a second echo?

If there were to be a second echo of the baby boom, it might have been expected to begin at the turn of the 21st century as the largest ever 'first echo' cohort of women reached their peak reproductive years. In the years 1999 to 2001 inclusive, the most common age of mothers giving birth — 28, 29 and 30 years respectively, converged with the age of the 1971 cohort. Following a period of steady decline since 1992, the years 2000 and 2002 saw small increases both in the number of births and in the total fertility rate. While it is too soon to be definitive, this plateau effect may represent a faint second echo, to be followed by a continuation in the downward trend in births and the total fertility rate.

Fertility among women aged 30 years and over increased fairly steadily throughout the 1980s and 1990s (see *Australian Social Trends 2001*, Older mothers, pp. 55–58) and women in the 30–34 years age group currently experience the highest fertility rates. However, these increases did not match the substantial declines in fertility rates among younger women. This has resulted in a much flatter distribution of age-specific fertility rates in 2001 than in 1971, as well as a lower total fertility rate. Consequently, any second echo effect would be less pronounced than the first echo. It might also be prolonged several years if the 1971 cohort of women maintain current fertility levels into their mid to late thirties.

## Births and total fertility rate — selected years

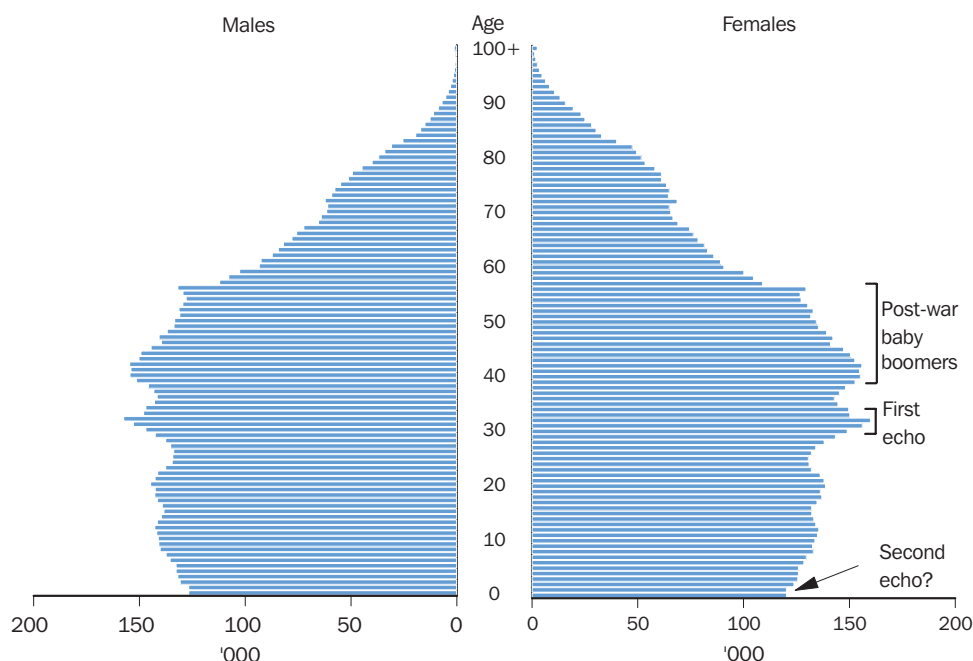
Year ended 31 December	Registered births	Total fertility
	'000	rate
1947	182.4	3.076
1961	240.0	3.548
1971	276.4	2.945
1981	235.8	1.939
1991	257.2	1.855
1992	264.2	1.893
1993	260.2	1.864
1994	258.1	1.846
1995	256.2	1.825
1996	253.8	1.797
1997	251.8	1.777
1998	249.6	1.762
1999	248.9	1.757
2000	249.6	1.760
2001	246.4	1.733
2002	251.0	1.752

Source: *Social Indicators, Australia, 1992* (ABS cat. no. 4101.0); *Births, Australia, 2002* (ABS cat. no. 3301.0).

The fertility patterns described above reflect both the continuing trends of partnering and child bearing at older ages, particularly the delaying of first births, and the growing proportion of women who remain childless. Delaying child bearing reduces the time available for women to have children, thus limiting the likelihood of larger families. It also increases the chances of remaining childless for women who wish to have children but delay to a point where they are no longer able to. On the other hand, more women and couples may be choosing to remain childless.

Childlessness was at its lowest level for the 20th century (9%) among women born between 1930 and 1946. The level of lifetime childlessness began to increase among women born after 1946. Of all women aged 45–49 years at the time of the 1996 census, 11% had never had a child. In 2000, it was estimated that one in four women (who had not yet reached the end of their reproductive lives) would remain childless for life (see *Australian Social Trends 2002*, Trends in childlessness, pp. 37–40).

## Age structure of the population — June 2003



Source: *Population by Age and Sex, Australian States and Territories, June 2003* (ABS cat. no. 3201.0).

### Continuing effects of the baby boom

Declining fertility has dramatically slowed the rapid population growth initiated by the post-war baby boom. However, the large cohorts born during the original boom and first echo, clearly visible in the current population structure, will continue to influence social and economic policy in Australia well into the 21st century. For example, baby boomers who are currently in their prime working years will soon begin to move out of the work force and into retirement. Between 2011 and 2031, baby boomers will make a significant contribution to the numbers of people aged 65 years and over. During this period, the population aged 65 years and over is projected to grow from 3.2 to 5.7 million. By 2031, all surviving baby boomers will be 65–84 years of age. In the following 20 years, the population aged 85 years and over is projected to almost double, reaching 1.6 million in 2051.<sup>6</sup> This has major implications for future policy and planning, particularly in the areas of superannuation and income support, and provision of health and aged care services (see *Australian Social Trends 2004*, Scenarios for Australia's ageing population, pp. 16–21).

### Endnotes

- 1 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2003, *Births, Australia, 2002*, cat. no. 3301.0, ABS, Canberra.
- 2 Statistics New Zealand 1995, *New Zealand Now: Baby Boomers*, Wellington.
- 3 John Curtin University, *War & Peace — rationing and rebuilding: 1940s life in Cottesloe, Western Australia*, <<http://john.curtin.edu.au/1940s/populate/index.html>>, accessed 19 February 2004.
- 4 Hageaars, JA 1990, *Categorical Longitudinal Data*, Newbury park: Sage Publications.
- 5 Australian Bureau of Statistics 1989, *Overseas Born Australians, 1988*, cat. no. 4112.0 ABS, Canberra.  
Note: the data on birthplace of parents relate only to nuptial confinements and, therefore, the proportions exclude births to unmarried mothers, and multiple births to married mothers are counted as one.
- 6 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2003, *Population Projections, Australia, 2002 to 2101*, cat. no. 3222.0, ABS, Canberra.

# Seachange – new residents in coastal areas

## POPULATION CHARACTERISTICS

**Four out of five (79%) people who moved to a high growth coastal region during the year prior to the 2001 census, were aged less than 50 years.**

The beach holds an iconic status in our culture. Coastal regions have long been a favourite place for Australians to take their holidays and relax. More recently, researchers have identified an increasing tendency for people to live near the coast.<sup>1</sup>

People move to a new region for many different reasons. The motivation for moving can come from a combination of what researchers sometimes call 'push and pull factors' – those that encourage people to leave a region, and those that attract people to a region. Some of the factors that motivate people to move include seeking a better climate, finding more affordable housing, looking for work or retiring from work, leaving the congestion of city living, wanting a more pleasant environment, and wanting to be near to family and friends. In reality many complex factors and personal reasons may interact to motivate a person or family to move.<sup>2</sup>

The expansion of coastal urban development has placed increasing pressure on the natural environment through problems such as habitat loss, waste disposal and pollution.<sup>3</sup> In addition, the increasing coastal population brings with it both social and economic

### High growth coastal regions

The high growth coastal regions on which this article is based were selected using ABS Estimated Resident Population (ERP) in Statistical Local Areas (SLAs) outside of capital city Statistical Divisions. The SLAs were selected on the basis of both percentage and numerical growth in ERP over the period 1996–2001. The criteria for inclusion were an average annual growth greater than that of the Australian population (1.2% per annum) and numerical growth greater than 1,500 people. SLAs that met these criteria were then divided into coastal SLAs (61) or non-coastal SLAs (25). This article uses census data about the usual residents of those 61 high growth coastal SLAs, which occur in each mainland state.

### New residents and Current residents

In this article *New residents* are usual residents who moved into one of the high growth coastal SLAs during the year prior to Census night 7 August 2001. This excludes people who moved within one of the SLAs during the past year but will include people who moved between any of the selected SLAs.

*Current residents* are people who usually lived in one of the selected SLAs and had not changed their address in the year prior to the census.

### Data limitations

The census collects information about prior places of residence at two points in time — one year ago and five years ago. In both cases, details about any moves that fell between these times are not collected.

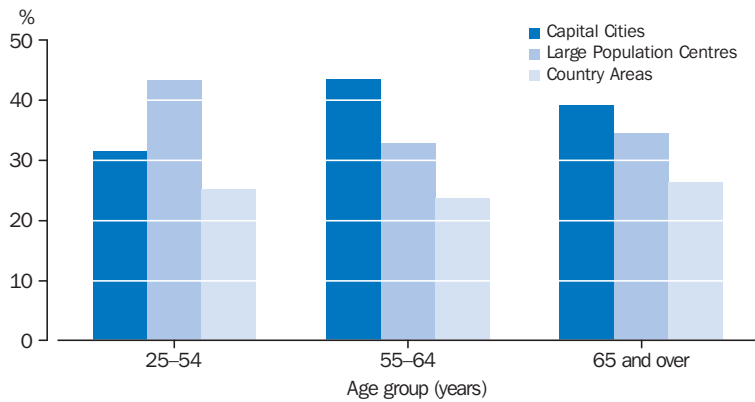
### High growth coastal regions(a)



(a) Statistical Local Areas (SLAs) outside capital city Statistical Divisions for which the estimated resident population grew by more than the Australian average of 1.2% per annum over the period 1996–2001 and by more than 1,500 people. NB: The high growth coastal regions shown in northern Western Australia relate to two SLAs covering a relatively large area. The populations in these two SLAs are primarily located in the towns of Derby and Broome, which are coastal.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

**Where New residents moved from**



Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

changes. For example, increased population may place extra pressure on the existing infrastructure of schools, hospitals and other social services, but the increased rate revenue might fund improvements in these services. Either way, the influx of a large number of people over time will radically change a community.

This article uses the 2001 Census of Population and Housing to examine the characteristics of people who moved to a high growth coastal region during the year before the 2001 census.

**Where did the New residents move from?**

There is a common perception that people moving to the coast come predominately from the capital cities, possibly because nearly two-thirds of Australians lived in a capital city in 2001.<sup>4</sup> However, in the case of New residents in the high growth coastal regions, just under one-third had moved from a Capital City. A larger proportion, 42%, had

**Where New residents moved from**

The classification used in the discussion of where New residents had moved from is based on a simple summary of the *Australian Standard Geographical Classification*. *Capital Cities* are capital city Statistical Divisions in each state or territory, *Large Population Centres* are Statistical Districts which are mainly urban areas that contain population centres totalling 25,000 people or more (e.g. Newcastle and Geraldton) and which are not located within a capital city Statistical Division. *Country Areas* are the remaining areas. For further information on the geographical classification system used in this article see *Statistical Geography: Volume 1 — Australian Standard Geographical Classification (ASGC), 2001* (ABS cat. no. 1216.0).

moved from a Large Population Centre and 27% came from a Country Area. The majority (78%) of New residents had moved within their state or territory, the remainder had moved from interstate.

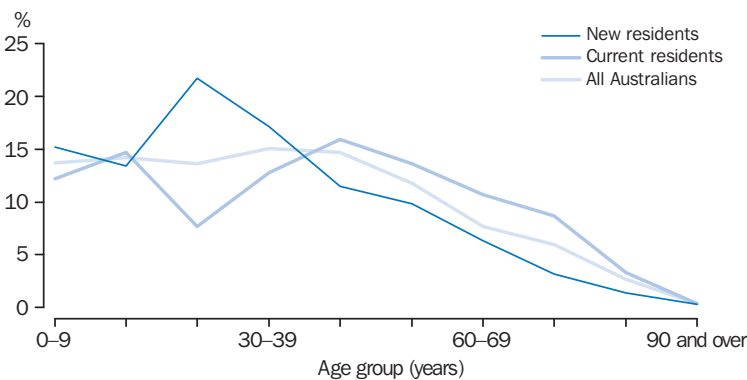
New residents of working age, 25–54 years, were most likely to have come from Large Population Centres (43%) and least likely to have come from Country Areas (25%). New residents aged 55–64 years, the ages associated with early retirement, were most likely to have come from Capital Cities (44%) and least likely to have come from Country Areas (24%). The origins of New residents aged 65 years and over, who would mainly have been retirees, were a little more evenly spread — 39% had come from a Capital City, 34% from a Large Population Centre, and 26% from a Country Area.

**The age of New residents**

Age is one characteristic that is usually strongly related to mobility. Older people retiring to the coast are not generally such a dominant source of coastal population growth as is often perceived (though they may be so in particular locations).

New residents of high growth coastal regions have a younger age profile than the Australian population as a whole: young adults in their twenties accounted for 22% of New residents, and those in their thirties accounted for a further 17%. Young children were well represented, with 15% of New residents aged less than 10 years, while 13% were older children aged 10–19 years. Overall, 79% of New residents were aged less than 50 years, compared with 71% of the total population. This age profile is a common one among people who move — an over-representation of the young and a under-representation of older people (see *Australian Social Trends 2003*, Youth migration within Australia, pp. 22–25). In contrast, the age profile of

**Age distribution — 2001**



Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

**Living arrangements(a) — 2001**

	New residents	Current residents	Australian population
	%	%	%
<i>Partner in a couple family</i>	42.2	51.6	46.5
Partner in a couple family with dependent children	18.0	21.3	21.7
Partner aged less than 35 years in a couple family without children	7.5	2.3	4.4
Partner aged 55 years and over in a couple family without children	8.9	17.3	10.7
Lone parent	5.9	4.3	4.4
Dependent child	25.2	25.6	26.6
Non-dependent child	5.0	5.3	6.5
Group household member	7.2	1.8	3.5
Lone person aged 15–34 years	3.1	0.9	1.8
Lone person aged 35–54 years	3.0	2.5	2.7
Lone person aged 55 years and over	2.9	6.1	4.9
Other relative in household	5.5	1.8	3.1
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>

(a) Visitors to the household on census night have been excluded prior to calculation of percentages.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

Current residents in high growth coastal regions was older, with 63% aged less than 50 years.

The influx of young children and adults in their twenties and thirties is not sufficient to have a major impact on the relatively low proportions of Current residents in these age groups — as New residents only comprised about 11% of the usual resident population of the high growth coastal regions.

This younger age profile of New residents was most evident in the high growth coastal regions in the north of both Western Australia and Queensland (90% and 88% respectively were aged less than 50 years). The age profiles of the Current resident population of these regions were also relatively young (81% of Current residents of high growth coastal regions in the far north of Western Australia and 74% in the north of Queensland were aged less than 50 years). These are both vibrant tourist regions where job opportunities may be a particular attraction, along with the relatively remote tropical location.

### Families and children

Moves are generally made in family units. An examination of the family characteristics of the New residents (in high growth coastal regions) reveals a number of differences between them and the Current residents — most of these differences are consistent with the younger age profile of New residents. Compared with the Current residents, a

smaller proportion of New residents were partners in a couple family (42% compared with 52%); but more of them were likely to be aged less than 35 years and without children than Current residents. There was a higher proportion of group household members among the New residents (7% compared with 2%), as well as a slightly higher proportion of lone parents (6% compared with 4%) and lone persons aged 15–54 years (6% compared with 3%).

### Work

Participation in the labour force is, for most individuals and families, the main way of providing for their living expenses. In addition, work can also provide an individual with a way of being involved with their community: an important facet of personal wellbeing.

New residents had a labour force participation rate of 64%, about the same as the national figure and higher than that of Current residents, 56% — which is consistent with the younger age profile of New residents. However, based on the 2001 census, the 18% unemployment rate for New residents was considerably higher than the 8% for Current residents — a figure close to the national figure of 7%.

Employment and unemployment are strongly related to education levels and local employment opportunities. New residents in the labour force were slightly more likely to hold a bachelor degree or higher qualification

## Selected labour force indicators — 2001

	New residents	Current residents	Australian population
	%	%	%
Labour force participation rate(a)	63.7	56.0	63.0
Female labour force participation rate(a)	55.7	49.1	55.4
Youth labour force participation rate(b)	73.1	64.2	65.2
Mature aged labour force participation rate(c)	34.0	42.2	50.6
Overall unemployment rate(a)	17.5	8.0	7.4
Youth unemployment rate(b)	23.1	14.8	13.8
Mature aged unemployment rate(c)	18.6	7.7	5.7
Employed people working part-time	32.8	36.1	30.6
Employed people self-employed	14.8	22.4	17.0
Employed people in service industries	77.9	73.9	74.5
Employed people in intermediate or low skilled jobs	45.7	46.0	43.6
People in the labour force with a bachelor degree or higher qualification	14.6	12.1	19.0
People in the labour force without a non-school qualification	52.6	54.1	51.8

(a) For people aged 15 years and over.

(b) For people aged 15–24 years.

(c) For people aged 55–64 years.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

than Current residents (15% compared with 12%) and these more highly qualified people represented only 5% of unemployed New residents. In contrast, 53% of New residents in the labour force had no non-school qualifications, but people from this group accounted for 68% of unemployed New residents.

The high unemployment rate among New residents aged 15 years and over is influenced in part by the relatively high unemployment rate of 23% among those aged 15–24 years, in combination with the younger age profile of New residents.

New residents aged 55–64 years had a comparatively low labour force participation rate of 34%, but a high unemployment rate of 19%. The low participation rate is probably related to the presence of early retirees among this age group.

The high unemployment rates among New residents are probably related, in part, to the difficulty of finding work in a new area where newcomers may not yet have established the social networks that help in job seeking. Labour force surveys have identified the importance of family, friends or company contacts in finding work (see *Australian Social Trends 2002*, Searching for work, pp. 136–140).

Reflecting the industry base of these coastal regions, similar proportions of employed New and Current residents worked in Retail trades (17% and 18% respectively); Health and community services (both 10%); Manufacturing (9% and 10% respectively); Property and business services (10% and 9%); and Construction (8% and 9%). However, 11% of employed New residents worked in Accommodation, cafes and restaurants compared with 7% of Current residents, perhaps reflecting their initial job seeking success in an industry where work is commonly casual and part-time.

Other indicators show that, in comparison to employed Current residents, employed New residents were slightly less likely to be working part-time (33% compared with 36%), or to be self-employed (15% compared with 22%), and slightly more likely to work in a service industry (78% compared with 74%).

### Components of population growth

Population growth or decline is the product of four factors: births, deaths, in-migration and out-migration. The balance between births and deaths is termed *Natural increase* and the balance between in and out migration is termed *Net migration*. This article examines the characteristics of people who had moved into a high growth coastal region without examining the impact of the overall turnover of people arriving and leaving over time. The article does not examine how natural increase contributed to the growth of the high growth regions used in the study.



## Selected cultural diversity indicators — 2001

Selected indicators	New residents %	Current residents %	Australian population %
<i>Born overseas</i>	15.8	15.1	23.1
Born in the United Kingdom, Ireland, New Zealand, Canada, the United States of America or South Africa	10.6	9.7	9.0
Born in another country	5.2	5.4	14.0
Recent migrants(a)	2.7	1.2	3.4
Spoke a language other than English at home(b)	4.6	4.3	16.1
People of Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander origin	3.6	2.6	2.3

(a) Migrants who had arrived in 1996 or later.

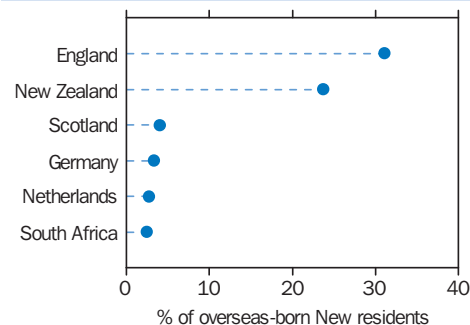
(b) Excludes children aged under 5 years.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

## Cultural diversity

New residents who moved to the high growth coastal regions were culturally similar to the Current residents — neither group were as culturally diverse as the total Australian population. Overall, 23% of Australians in 2001 had been born overseas. Among New residents and Current residents the proportions were 16% and 15% respectively. In addition, overseas-born people living in the high growth regions, both New and Current residents, were much more likely to have been born in predominantly English speaking countries than all overseas-born Australians. This is reflected in the two most common countries of birth, England and New Zealand — these two countries alone represented just over half of those New residents born overseas, compared with 29% of all overseas-born Australians.

## Main birthplaces of overseas-born New residents — 2001



Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

Similarities in cultural characteristics between New and Current residents were also reflected in the smaller proportions who spoke a language other than English at home (5% and 4% respectively, compared with 16% of all Australians).

The overall proportion of New residents who were of Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander origin was 4%. However, New residents of Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander origin were very unevenly distributed among the high growth coastal regions — they predominantly lived in the high growth regions on the north coast of Western Australia, and to a lesser degree, the north coast of Queensland. On the north coast of Western Australia, 16% of New residents were of Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander origin, compared with 33% of Current residents.

## Endnotes

- 1 Hugo, G 1996, 'Counterurbanisation', *Population Shift: mobility and change in Australia*, eds. Newton, PW and Bell, M, AGPS, Canberra.
- 2 Stimson, RJ and Minnery, J 1998, 'Why People Move to the 'Sun-belt': A Case Study of Long-distance migration to the Gold Coast, Australia', *Urban Studies*, vol. 35, no. 2, pp. 193–214.
- 3 Hamilton, N and Cocks, D 1996, 'Coastal growth and the Environment', *Population Shift: mobility and change in Australia*, eds. Newton, PW and Bell, M, AGPS, Canberra.
- 4 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2001, *Population Growth and Distribution 2001*, cat. no. 2035.0, ABS, Canberra.

# Scenarios for Australia's ageing population

## POPULATION PROJECTIONS

**Children are projected to make up a smaller proportion of Australia's population over the coming decades, while the population aged 65 years and over is projected to increase.**

The ageing of the population is one of the major transformations being experienced by Australia's population,<sup>1</sup> and is a current focus for both economic and social policy. Much of the discussion around population ageing focuses on issues associated with an increasing proportion of older people; for example, expenditure associated with income support, the provision of health and disability services, and family and community care. However, as population ageing also relates to the declining proportions of younger people in the population, it has implications for all sectors of the community and policies related to all stages of the lifespan.<sup>2</sup> This article draws on the latest ABS population projections to explore the impact of continued population ageing on three broad life stage groups — children, working age Australians and older Australians.

### Trends underlying population change and projections

Population projections illustrate the changes that would occur to the population if certain assumptions about future fertility, mortality and migration were to hold true over the projection period. Each time new projections are produced these assumptions are reviewed to take into account recent demographic trends, and in this way they reflect underlying trends in Australian society. For example, the population projections produced in 1999 (see *Australian Social Trends 2001*, Population projections for the 21st century, pp. 26–31) assumed a total fertility rate (TFR) of 1.6 for the low series projection. In the latest projections, produced in 2003, a low TFR alternative of 1.4 was included in the main

### Population projections

This article uses ABS population projections, produced in 2003, spanning the period 2002 to 2101 for Australia, and 2002 to 2051 for the states and territories. The base population for the projections is the preliminary estimated resident population at 30 June 2002.

The projections are not intended as predictions or forecasts, but as illustrations of the population change that would occur if the assumptions about future fertility, mortality and migration were to hold true over the projection period. The assumptions made are not intended to show the full range of possible futures, but rather illustrate some of the most likely possibilities.

This article focuses on the three main projection series which cover three scenarios for future population growth — high (Series A), medium (Series B) and low (Series C).

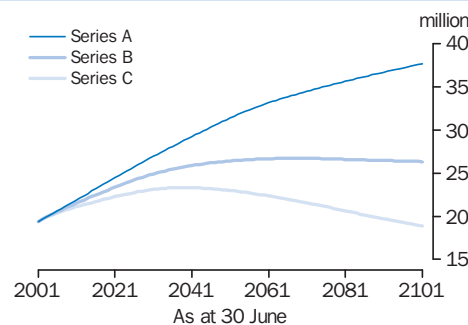
### Projection assumptions — Australia

	Series A	Series B	Series C
Total fertility rate(a) (babies per woman)	1.8	1.6	1.4
Net overseas migration(b) (persons per year)	125 000	100 000	70 000
Life expectancy at birth(c) (years)			
Males	92.2	84.2	84.2
Females	95.0	87.7	87.7

(a) From 2011.  
(b) From 2005–06.  
(c) From 2050–51.

Source: *Population Projections, Australia, 2002–2101*, (ABS cat. no. 3222.0), 2003.

### Projected population — Australia



Source: *Population Projections, Australia, 2002–2101*, (ABS cat. no. 3222.0), 2003.

projection series, reflecting that, over the long term, fertility rates in Australia and other developed countries have continued to decline.

As health outcomes continue to improve and mortality rates decline, the life expectancy of Australians is continuing to increase. While previous population projections assumed that these trends would continue each year for a limited period, the latest projections include a 'high' life expectancy alternative, in which recent life expectancy gains are assumed to continue each year for the full duration of the projection period. Under this alternative, life expectancy is assumed to increase to 92.2 years for men, and 95.0 years for women by the year 2050–51.

Given historical and recent trends, future levels of fertility and mortality can reasonably be accommodated within a range of population projections. However, there is less certainty about future levels of migration, given its historical volatility.<sup>3</sup> In the latest projections, the medium assumption for net overseas migration is a gain of 100,000 people per year, somewhat higher than that used in the medium series of past projections (90,000 in the 1999 based projections and 70,000 in the 1997 based projections — see *Australian Social Trends 2001*, Population projections for the 21st century, pp. 26–31, and *Australian Social Trends 1999*, Our ageing population, pp. 6–10).

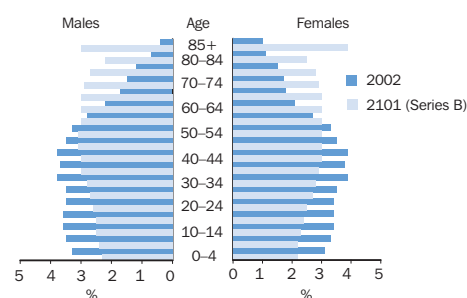
### Population growth

The combination of assumptions about future fertility, mortality and migration interact to influence the size of Australia's projected population. In all of the latest projection series, Australia's population continues to increase in the short term. In Series A, with high fertility, migration and life expectancy assumptions, this growth continues throughout the projection period, with the population projected to reach 37.7 million by 2101. In Series B, with lower fertility, migration and life expectancy assumptions, the population peaks at around 26.7 million in 2069 and then gradually declines to 26.4 million by 2101. In Series C, in which fertility and migration assumptions are lower again, the population peaks earlier, at around 23.3 million in 2039, and then declines steadily to 18.9 million by 2101. In this series Australia's population is projected to be 4% smaller in 2101 than it was in 2002.

### Australia's ageing population

Trends in fertility, life expectancy and migration affect not only the population's size, but also its age structure. Australia's

#### Population age structure — Australia



Source: *Population Projections, Australia, 2002–2101* (ABS cat. no. 3222.0), 2003.

### International comparison



Population ageing is occurring on a global scale, with faster ageing projected for the coming decades than has occurred in the past. Between 1950 and 2000 the median age of the world's population rose just three years (from 23.6 to 26.4 years). In contrast, from 2000 to 2050 the median age is projected to increase by 10 years, to reach 36.8 years. Globally, the population aged 60 years and over is projected to nearly triple by 2050, while the population aged 80 years and over is projected to experience a more than fivefold increase.

While Australia's population is projected to remain relatively old by world standards, it is relatively young compared to some other developed countries (see *Australian Social Trends 2004*, International comparison—population projections, p. 194). Japan, Slovenia and Latvia (each with a projected median age of 53 years) and Italy and Estonia (each 52 years) are projected to have the world's oldest populations by 2050. In these countries not only is the median age rising, as low fertility rates contribute to smaller proportions of young people in the populations, but the overall size of the populations is projected to decline. By 2050, Japan's population is projected to have declined 14% from its size in 2000, and Italy's to have declined 22%.

#### Projected median age

	2000 years	2050 years
Australia	35.4	(a)46.7
Africa	18.3	27.5
Asia	26.1	38.7
Latin America and the Caribbean	24.2	39.8
Europe	37.7	47.7
Northern America	35.4	40.2
<b>World</b>	<b>26.4</b>	<b>36.8</b>

(a) Series B.

Source: ABS, 2000, Estimated Resident Population; *Population Projections, Australia, 2002–2101*, (ABS cat. no. 3222.0), 2003; United Nations Population Division, *World Population Prospects: The 2002 Revision*, <<http://www.unpopulation.org>>, accessed 3 September 2003.

population aged steadily throughout the last century, apart from a reversal in 1947–1971 due to the post-war baby boom (see *Australian Social Trends 1999*, Our ageing population, pp. 6–10). All of the main projection series indicate that Australia's population will continue to age.

While Series A and B project that Australia's population will be larger in 2101 than in 2002, this growth is not evenly distributed across the age groups. In Series A, the number of people in each five-year age group

is projected to increase, but there is more growth in the older age groups than the younger age groups. In Series B, all the population growth is concentrated in the age groups 20 years and over — the number of people aged 0–19 years is projected to decline. In Series C, while the number of people aged 55 years and over is projected to increase, the population aged 0–54 years is projected to decrease, resulting in overall population decline.

As a result of the different growth rates projected for different age groups, the age structure of the population is projected to change. The median age of Australia's population is projected to increase in all of the main series, from 35.9 years in 2002, to between 47.9 years and 50.5 years in 2101.

At the national level, population ageing is largely due to falling fertility rates and, to a lesser extent, to increasing life expectancy. However, the age structures of the state and territory populations are also influenced by interstate migration. For example, in recent years more young adults (aged 15–24 years) have tended to leave the state of Tasmania than have moved there,<sup>4</sup> contributing to the older age profile of that state's population. Historical differences in fertility, mortality and migration mean that some states are more advanced in terms of population ageing at the outset of the projections.

### Children

The number of children in Australia's population, and their distribution across regions of Australia, has implications for the provision of a range of services, including child care, schools and other children's services. In all of the main projection series, children (aged 0–14 years) are projected to form a smaller proportion of the Australian population in 2101 (between 12% and 15%) than they did in 2002 (20%).

While information on the projected declining proportion of children in the population can assist strategic planning, the number of children also remains important for planning service provision. Between 2002 and 2003 the number of children in Australia declined.<sup>5</sup> In Series A, the combination of a higher assumed fertility rate and higher overseas migration results in the projected number of children increasing slightly each year, from 4.0 million in 2002 to 5.5 million by 2101. However, in Series B and C the decline continues, with the number of children projected to fall to between 2.3 and 3.6 million in 2101.

### State and territory projection assumptions(a) — Series B

	Total fertility rate	Net overseas migration	Net interstate migration
	babies per woman	persons per year	persons per year
NSW	1.63	38 900	-17 000
Vic.	1.51	25 200	-6 000
Qld	1.64	19 500	26 000
SA	1.59	2 800	-2 500
WA	1.61	12 300	2 000
Tas.	1.81	390	-1 500
NT	2.14	290	-500
ACT	1.46	590	-500
<b>Aust.</b>	<b>1.60</b>	<b>100 000</b>	<b>..</b>

(a) It is assumed that the mortality differentials between states and territories, based on those observed during 1999–2001, will remain throughout the projection period.

Source: *Population Projections, Australia, 2002–2101*, (ABS cat. no. 3222.0), 2003.

Projections to 2051 show that in every state and territory the proportion of children in the population is projected to decline. However, the extent of this decline varies. The Northern Territory, with the highest assumed total fertility rate, is projected to have the largest proportion of children in its population (between 18% and 22%) in 2051. South Australia, with a relatively low assumed TFR and assumed interstate migration losses, is projected to have the lowest proportion of children by 2051 (between 11% and 14%).

However, for each state and territory, except Tasmania and South Australia, Series A projects growth in the number of children to 2051. The Northern Territory and Queensland are projected to experience the largest relative increases in the number of children. In the Northern Territory, where the TFR is projected to remain relatively high, Series A projects that the number of children will almost double, from 50,900 in 2002 to 101,300 in 2051. In Queensland, Series A projects an increase of 62%, from 779,600 children in 2002 to 1.3 million in 2051.

In Tasmania and South Australia, the number of children is projected to decline in all three of the main series. In Series A, the number of children in Tasmania declines by 16% between 2002 and 2051, while in Series C the number of children declines by 59%. In South Australia the number of children is projected to decline by between 23% and 45% over the period.

## Ageing in the states and territories — Series B

State or territory	Population aged 0–14 years		Population aged 65 years and over		Median age	
	2002	2051	2002	2051	2002	2051
	%	%	%	%	years	years
NSW	20.2	14.2	13.2	26.9	36.1	46.7
Vic.	19.7	13.6	13.1	27.3	36.0	46.9
Qld	21.0	14.3	11.8	26.8	35.3	46.8
SA	19.1	13.0	14.8	31.1	37.9	50.0
WA	20.7	14.1	11.2	26.9	35.2	46.8
Tas.	20.7	13.3	14.0	33.8	37.7	52.4
NT	25.7	20.4	3.9	12.1	29.9	35.8
ACT	20.2	14.3	8.8	23.5	33.5	43.5
<b>Aust.</b>	<b>20.3</b>	<b>14.0</b>	<b>12.7</b>	<b>27.1</b>	<b>35.9</b>	<b>46.8</b>

Source: Population Projections, Australia, 2002–2101, (ABS cat. no. 3222.0), 2003.

### The working age

The size and structure of Australia's future labour force is dependent on a wide range of factors, including domestic and international economic conditions and policies relating to education, labour force participation, employment and retirement. However, when looking forward over a number of decades, 'demographic factors tend to assume much more important roles in driving the labour force than do cyclical (economic) factors'.<sup>6</sup>

The size of the population aged 15–24 years has implications both for labour supply (68% of this age group participated in the labour force in 2003), and for education services (48% of this age group were studying full-time in 2003).<sup>7</sup> In each of the three main projection series, people aged 15–24 years make up a smaller proportion of the population in 2101 (9%–10%) than in 2002 (14%). In terms of the actual number of people aged 15–24 years, in Series A this group is projected to increase, from 2.7 million in 2002 to 3.8 million in 2101. However in Series B and C, with lower fertility and migration assumptions, the number of people in this age group is projected to remain relatively stable or decline, to 2.7 and 1.8 million respectively.

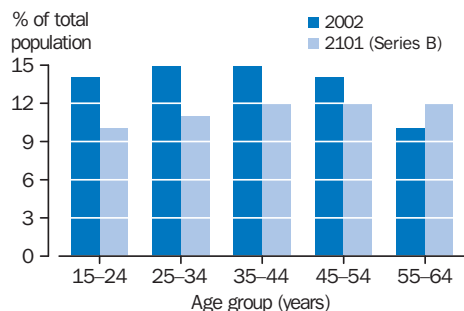
In 2003, people aged 25–54 years had the highest labour force participation rates and formed the majority (69%) of the labour force.<sup>7</sup> In each of the main projection series, people in this age group form a smaller proportion of the population over time, declining from 43% of the population in 2002, to just over one-third (between 33% and 35%) in 2101. While the number of people aged 25–54 years initially increases in each of the three main projection series, in

Series B and C the number of people in this age range peaks and then begins to decline. In Series B, the number of people aged 25–54 years increases from 8.5 million in 2002, to peak at 9.6 million in 2035. In Series C, the peak occurs in 2025 at 9.0 million, and then this age group declines to 6.4 million in 2101. In Series A, the combination of higher fertility, longer life expectancy and more migrants contributing to the working age population results in a growing number of people aged 25–54 years throughout the entire projection period. In this series, the number of people aged 25–54 years increases to 12.5 million in 2101.

Regardless of whether the size of the working age population grows or declines, its composition is projected to shift towards the older age groups. While the proportions of the population in the age groups 15–24 years through to 45–54 years are projected to decline, the proportion aged 55–64 years is projected to increase slightly (from 10% in 2002 to around 11%–12% in 2101). The number of people in this older age group is projected to increase in all three main series, from 1.9 million in 2002 to between 2.3 and 4.1 million in 2101. Currently, people aged 55–64 years have lower labour force participation rates than the younger age groups.<sup>7</sup> If this trend continues, shifts in the distribution of the working age population towards the older age groups may impact on future labour supply.

Projections of the future size and structure of the working age population differ across the states and territories depending on the assumptions made and the current age structure of the populations. In Queensland, where population gains through both interstate and overseas migration are

### Working age population



Source: Population Projections, Australia, 2002-2101, (ABS cat. no. 3222.0), 2003.

assumed, the primary working age population (those aged 25-54 years) increases in size under each of the projection series (by between 11% and 73% by 2051). In New South Wales, Victoria, Western Australia, the Northern Territory and the Australian Capital Territory, Series A and B project an increase in the number of people aged 25-54 years, while Series C projects decline. In Tasmania and South Australia, where fertility is projected to remain below replacement level and net migration is assumed to either be negative, or only marginally positive, the population aged 25-54 years declines under all the main series. The number of people in this age group is projected to decline between 2% and 50% in Tasmania, and between 22% and 27% in South Australia by 2051.

Irrespective of an increase or decrease in the number of people aged 25-54 years, in all states and territories, in all of the main series, the people in this age group are projected to form a smaller proportion of the total population in 2051 than they did in 2002.

### Older Australians

Increased numbers of older Australians may have implications for associated expenditure on income support, housing and health services, although increasing service demand may also provide a potential economic stimulus. A largely healthy, independent older population can also form a valued social resource, for example in providing care for others, sharing skills and knowledge and engaging in volunteer activities. The population aged 65 years and over is projected to increase from 2.5 million in 2002, to between 6.1 and 11.7 million in 2101. As a proportion of the population, this is an increase from 13% to between 29% and 32%.

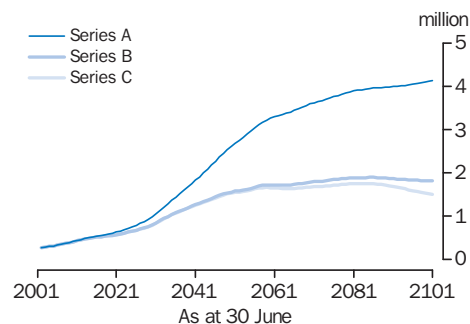
In 2002, South Australia and Tasmania had the highest proportions of their populations aged 65 years and over (15% and 14% respectively). These states are projected to retain the oldest age profiles, with those aged 65 years and over projected to make up around one-third of each state's population in 2051.

While the proportion of people aged 65 years and over is not projected to be as high in the other states and territories, in all of the main series in each state and territory there is a substantial increase in the number of people in this age group. Some of the highest relative increases are projected for the Northern Territory, Queensland, the Australian Capital Territory and Western Australia, where the populations aged 65 years and over are projected to at least triple in size by 2051.

The highest projected growth rates overall are among the population aged 85 years and over, which is projected to increase from 1% of the total population to between 7% and 11% over the projection period. Growth in this age group is of particular interest, given the potential need for support among the frail aged, for example in the areas of assisted housing, health and disability services. Australia-wide, this age group is projected to be between five and fifteen times larger in 2101 than in 2002. From 280,400 in 2002, Series B projects an increase in the number of people aged 85 years and over to 1.8 million in 2101, and Series C projects an increase to 1.5 million. In Series A, the impact of longer assumed life expectancy is evident, with the population aged 85 years and over projected to increase to 4.1 million.

The pattern of growth across the states and territories for the population aged 85 years and over is similar to that for the population aged 65 years and over. South Australia and Tasmania are projected to remain the states

### Population aged 85 years and over



Source: Population Projections, Australia, 2002-2101, (ABS cat. no. 3222.0), 2003.

### Age structure of the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander population

The Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander population has a much younger age structure than the non-Indigenous population. Based on experimental estimates of the Indigenous population, in 2001 the median age of the Indigenous population was 20.5 years, compared with 36.1 years for the non-Indigenous population. Children aged under 15 years comprised 39% of the total Indigenous population (compared with 20% in the non-Indigenous population), while people aged 65 years and over represented only 3% (compared with 13%). The relatively young age structure of the Indigenous population is due to higher fertility and mortality rates than those experienced by the non-Indigenous population.

Projections of the size and age-structure of the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander populations will be available in 2004 in *Experimental Estimates and Projections of Indigenous Australians* (ABS cat. no. 3238.0).

### Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations, 2001

		Indigenous persons(a)	Non-Indigenous persons
Population	'000	458.5	18 954.7
Age group			
0–14 years	%	38.9	20.0
15–64 years	%	58.3	67.3
65 years and over	%	2.9	12.8
Median age	years	20.5	36.1

(a) Indigenous resident population estimates are experimental.

Source: *Population Characteristics, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Australians* (ABS cat. no. 4713.0).

Estimates of the resident Indigenous population are considered to be experimental in that the standard approach to population estimation is not possible because satisfactory data on births, deaths and migration are not generally available, and because of the intercensal volatility in census counts of the Indigenous population. Further information is available in *Population Distribution, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Australians*, ABS cat. no. 4705.0.

with the highest proportions of people aged 85 years and over (8%–12% of South Australia's population in 2051, and 8%–11% of Tasmania's). The Northern Territory, having a younger age structure than the other states and territories at the outset of the projections, and a higher assumed fertility rate throughout the projection period,

remains the state or territory with the smallest proportion of its population aged 85 years and over. The Northern Territory is projected to have around 1%–2% of its population aged 85 years and over in 2051, a similar level to that experienced in the other states and territory in 2002. However, the Northern Territory is still projected to experience substantial increases in the number of people in this age group. From 600 people in 2002, the number of people in this age group is projected to increase to between 3,100 and 9,300 in 2051.

Queensland, Western Australia and the Australian Capital Territory are all projected to experience large increases in their populations aged 85 years and over. In these states this age group is projected to be between seven and fifteen times larger in 2051. However, New South Wales, Victoria and Queensland, being the most populous states, remain the states with the largest number of people aged 85 years and over. By 2051, New South Wales is projected to have between 488,000 and 815,700 people in this age group, which is a five to eightfold increase on 2002. Victoria is projected to have between 383,600 and 634,500 people aged 85 years and over (a five to ninefold increase), while Queensland is projected to have between 340,200 and 647,800 people in this age group (a seven to fourteenfold increase).

### Endnotes

- 1 Rowland, D 2003, 'An ageing population: emergence of a new stage of life?', *The Transformation of Australia's Population: 1970–2030*, eds Khoo, S and McDonald, P, UNSW Press, Sydney, pp. 239–265.
- 2 Department of Health and Ageing 2001, *National Strategy for an Ageing Australia*, <<http://www.ageing.health.gov.au/ofoa/agepolicy/nsaa/nsaa.htm>>, accessed 21 January 2004.
- 3 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2003, *Population Projections, Australia, 2002–2101*, cat. no. 3222.0, ABS, Canberra.
- 4 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2002, *Demography, Tasmania, 2001*, cat. no. 3311.6, ABS, Canberra.
- 5 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2003, *Population by Age and Sex, Australian States and Territories, June 2003*, cat. no. 3201.0, ABS, Canberra.
- 6 Chapman, B and Kapuscinski, C 2003, 'Transformation in the labour force', *The Transformation of Australia's Population: 1970–2030*, eds Khoo, S and McDonald, P, UNSW Press, Sydney, p. 233.
- 7 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2003, *Australian Labour Market Statistics*, cat. no. 6105.0, ABS, Canberra.

# Where do overseas-born people live?

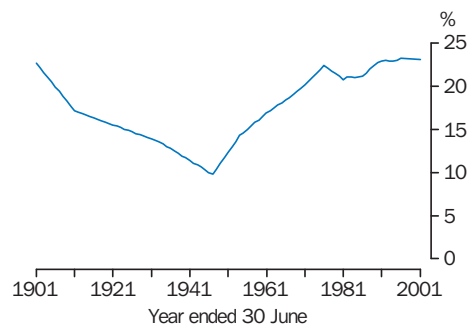
## POPULATION DISTRIBUTION

**In 2001, eight out of ten people born overseas lived in a capital city. Just over half were in Sydney or Melbourne.**

Since the end of World War II, over six million new settlers have arrived in Australia. Over the same period, from 1947 to 2001, the proportion of the population born overseas increased from 10% to 23%. Most people born overseas have shown a preference for city living — 81% or 3.3 million people lived in capital cities in 2001, making them more highly urbanised than the Australian-born population. This is not a new phenomenon — it has been evident since at least the 1970s. Some of the main factors that affect where migrants decide to live are the location of family members or people of the same ethnic background, the point of entry into the country, and the economic attractiveness of the destination in terms of employment opportunities.<sup>1</sup>

While the focus of immigration policies has shifted considerably over the last 50 years, the geographic distribution of the overseas-born population has only emerged as an area of policy interest in the last 10 years. From 1996, State Specific Migration Mechanisms began to be introduced, in an effort to encourage more migrants to settle in regional areas and to address localised labour shortages. Under these programs, migrants are sponsored by a state government, employee or relative to live and work in regional Australia. About 25,000 visas were granted under these schemes between 1996 and 2003, with the biggest impact being seen in Victoria and South Australia (52% and 17% respectively of these visas granted). Being recent initiatives which target new arrivals, these programs have had little impact on the overall distribution of the overseas-born population.

### Population born overseas



Source: ABS 1901–2001 Censuses of Population and Housing and ERP by Country of Birth series.

### People born overseas

In this article, data about Australian residents who were born overseas are drawn from the 1971–2001 Censuses of Population and Housing.

In the census, people *born overseas* include visitors who are studying or working in Australia for more than one year, as well as people who have migrated to Australia on a permanent visa under the Migration and Humanitarian Programs, New Zealand citizens resident in Australia and the overseas-born children of Australian citizens.

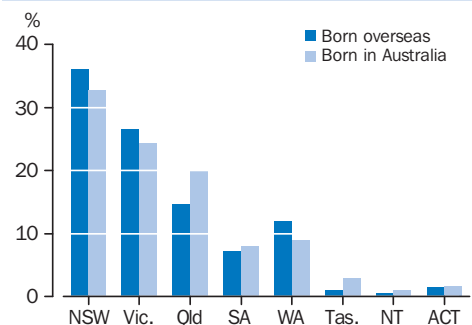
The levels of the Migration and Humanitarian Programs are set annually by the Department of Immigration and Multicultural and Indigenous Affairs. Within these Programs there are a variety of visa categories designed to meet specific policy objectives such as Australia's humanitarian commitment, family reunion and labour shortages. *State Specific Migration Mechanisms* are a range of initiatives designed to sponsor migrants to live in designated regional areas. They encompass a number of visa categories.

As well as migrants settling permanently in Australia, the overseas-born population includes visitors staying in the country for longer than a year. These visitors include substantial numbers of university students and business people who do not intend to make Australia their permanent home.

### State distribution

In 2001, the state distribution of the overseas-born population was similar to the Australian-born population, with most living in New South Wales (36%), Victoria (27%), Queensland (15%) and Western Australia (12%). Compared to the Australian-born population, the overseas-born population was more concentrated in New South Wales,

### State population distribution — 2001



Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.



Victoria and Western Australia, but less so in other states and territories, especially Queensland and Tasmania.

The most notable changes in the state distribution of the overseas-born population in the 30 years from 1971 to 2001 are that the proportion living in Victoria has fallen from 31% to 27%, and in South Australia from 11% to 7%. In contrast, the proportion living in Queensland has increased from 9% to 15%. These changes tend to mirror changes in the distribution of the Australian-born population over the period.

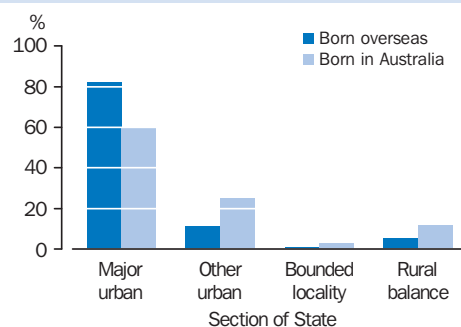
### Section of State

People born overseas have a high propensity to live in major cities. In 2001, the overseas-born population was highly concentrated in Major urban areas (82%). These are cities with a population of 100,000 people or more, and include not only all the state capitals and Canberra, but also cities such as Newcastle and Wollongong in New South Wales, Geelong in Victoria and the Gold Coast in Queensland.

Most of the remainder of the overseas-born population lived in Other urban areas (11%), making them more urbanised than the Australian-born population (60% in Major urban areas, and 25% in Other urban areas). Around 5% of the overseas-born population lived in Other rural areas, compared with 12% of the Australian-born population.

The distribution of people born overseas across the Sections of State has not changed substantially over the last 30 years. Around 80% of the overseas-born population lived in Major urban areas in 1971, 1981 and 1991. This proportion rose only slightly between 1991 and 2001, to 82%. Over the same decade, the proportion of the Australian-born population living in Major urban areas also rose slightly, from 58% to 60%.

### Population distribution — 2001



Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

### Section of State

Regional patterns of residency are described using the Section of State classification. The Section of State structure is a classification within the *Australian Standard Geographical Classification (ASGC), 2001* (ABS cat. no. 1216.0), and is only defined at five year intervals, in conjunction with the census. *Major urban* areas are urban centres with a population of 100,000 or more. *Other urban* areas are urban centres with a population of 1,000–99,999. Rural areas consist of *Bounded localities* which are population clusters of 200–999 and *Rural balance* which is the remainder of areas, including people living on separate properties.

There was some variation in the degree of urbanisation in different states. In 2001, New South Wales and Victoria had the most urbanised overseas-born populations, both with around 87% living in Major urban areas. In contrast, 34% of Tasmania's overseas-born population lived in Major urban areas, with 39% living in Other urban areas and 21% in Other rural areas. Although the Northern Territory does not include any Major urban areas, 69% of the overseas-born population lived in Darwin.

The proportion of the overseas-born population living in Major urban areas was relatively stable in most states between 1971 and 2001. The most notable change occurred in Queensland, where the proportion of the overseas-born population living in Major urban areas rose from 57% to 73%. This is associated with the growth since 1971 in the Gold Coast, Sunshine Coast and Townsville

### People living in Major urban areas

State or territory	Born overseas		Born in Australia	
	1971	2001	1971	2001
NSW	86.4	86.4	64.9	60.0
Vic.	86.7	87.4	67.2	65.1
Qld	56.5	73.2	43.1	56.7
SA	82.2	80.1	64.8	65.2
WA	70.0	75.3	59.4	59.1
Tas.	41.9	34.4	32.3	26.8
NT(a)	..	..	..	..
ACT	98.3	99.6	97.6	99.3
<b>Aust.</b>	<b>80.5</b>	<b>81.9</b>	<b>60.4</b>	<b>59.9</b>

(a) There are no Major urban areas in the Northern Territory.

Source: ABS 1971 and 2001 Censuses of Population and Housing.

caused by the movement of both overseas and Australian-born people to these areas. As a result the population of each of these cities now exceeds 100,000. There was little or no change in the level of urbanisation in New South Wales or Victoria. However, in Tasmania, there was a shift away from Major urban areas over the period.

The overseas-born population tends to be concentrated in specific areas within major urban areas. In 2001, 33% of Sydney's population was born overseas, but this proportion was as high as 49% in Fairfield-Liverpool Statistical Subdivision (SSD) and 44% in Canterbury-Bankstown (SSD). In Melbourne, 54% of people living in Greater Dandenong City (SSD) and 38% in Western Melbourne (SSD) were born overseas, compared with 30% for the city as a whole.<sup>2</sup>

### Internal migration

Internal migration plays a major role in the redistribution of the Australian population. Both overseas and Australian-born people participate in ongoing migration flows around the country.

A general picture of the internal migration flows of the overseas-born population can be gained by examining the proportion of people living in capital cities who changed their place of residence between censuses. Between 1996 and 2001, 5.4% of people born overseas who had been living in a capital city moved out of their city of residence. Of these moves, over half (58%) were to a non-capital city area (for example moving from Sydney to the New South Wales North Coast). The Australian-born population were both more

mobile and more likely to move away from capital city living, with 9% of people leaving their capital city of residence, and 67% of these moving to a non-capital city area.

The mobility of people born overseas differed by capital city of residence. Relatively low proportions of the overseas-born population who were living in Sydney (4.6%) and Melbourne (3.8%) left these cities between 1996 and 2001. Despite this, migration outflows from Sydney and Melbourne still accounted for large numbers of people (45,600 and 30,500 respectively), because the total overseas-born population living in these cities is relatively high. While the proportions of the overseas-born population leaving smaller cities such as Hobart and Darwin were higher (14% and 22% respectively), the numbers of people involved were smaller (2,600 and 3,700 respectively).

### Recently arrived migrants

The 2001 census showed that 16% of the overseas-born population were recent arrivals, having arrived in Australia between 1996 and 2001. Recent arrivals are even more highly urbanised than longer term migrants, with nine out of ten living in a Major urban area. Sydney and Melbourne are the main entry points for new migrants. These cities, and to a lesser extent Brisbane and Perth, are also more likely to offer social and economic benefits for new migrants such as established family and ethnic groups, and employment opportunities. They are also home to a substantial number of overseas-born students studying at Australian universities, who are generally recent arrivals. In 2001, 37% of recently arrived migrants and long term visitors lived in Sydney, with a further 22% in Melbourne and 10% each in Brisbane and Perth.

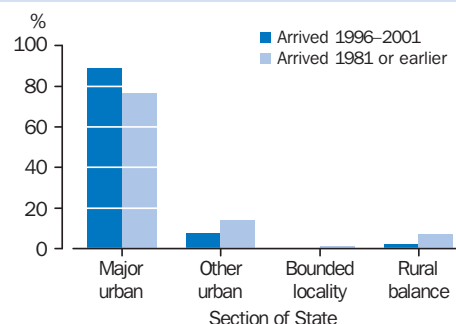
Migrants who have recently arrived in Australia tend to have higher mobility than people who are more established in their new country of residence. As migrants spend more

### People who moved from a capital city area — 1996–2001

	Born overseas			Born in Australia		
	Moved to another capital city	Moved to a non-capital city area	Total	Moved to another capital city	Moved to a non-capital city area	Total
Moved from	%	%	%	%	%	%
Sydney	1.8	2.8	4.6	2.4	5.9	8.3
Melbourne	1.6	2.2	3.8	1.9	4.4	6.3
Brisbane	3.2	5.4	8.6	2.9	7.7	10.6
Adelaide	3.1	3.4	6.6	3.4	5.2	8.7
Perth	2.2	3.6	5.9	2.8	6.4	9.1
Hobart	7.6	5.9	13.5	5.9	6.8	12.7
Darwin	13.4	8.8	22.2	15.1	15.0	30.1
Canberra	8.1	5.7	13.8	9.3	9.0	18.3
<b>All capital cities</b>	<b>2.3</b>	<b>3.2</b>	<b>5.4</b>	<b>2.9</b>	<b>5.9</b>	<b>8.8</b>

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

### Distribution of the overseas-born population — 2001



Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

time in a new country they obtain better information about potential residential locations, as well as finding employment and establishing social networks. Recent migrants therefore often change address soon after their arrival, as part of this settlement process.<sup>1</sup>

The 2001 census revealed that recent arrivals were more likely to have moved from the city where they were living in August 2000 than were overseas-born people who had lived in Australia for longer. Of those who lived in a capital city in August 2000, 2.7% of people who arrived in Australia between 1996 and 2000 had moved out of their city of residence compared with 1.6% of migrants who had arrived before 1996. However, moves out of Sydney and Melbourne by recent arrivals were less common (both 2%, or 3,700 and 2,200 people respectively). In particular, very few people moved from Sydney and Melbourne into the non-capital city areas of the same state (around 0.5% for both cities).

### Distribution by age

In general, younger people born overseas were more urbanised than their older counterparts. Of people born overseas aged 15–24 years and 25–34 years, 90% and 87% respectively lived in Major urban areas. In contrast, 77% of people born overseas aged 55–64 years lived in Major urban areas, with 13% in Other urban areas and 8% in Other rural areas.

One contributing factor in the concentration of younger overseas-born people in cities is the large proportion of university students. Overseas students staying in Australia for more than one year are included in census counts of the resident population. In 2001, 49% of the overseas-born population aged 18–24 years was attending a tertiary

education institution, compared with 31% of the Australian-born population. The high level of urbanisation of younger people born overseas reflects the fact that, as a whole, recent arrivals are on average younger than the Australian-born population, with a median age of 28 years compared with 32 years.

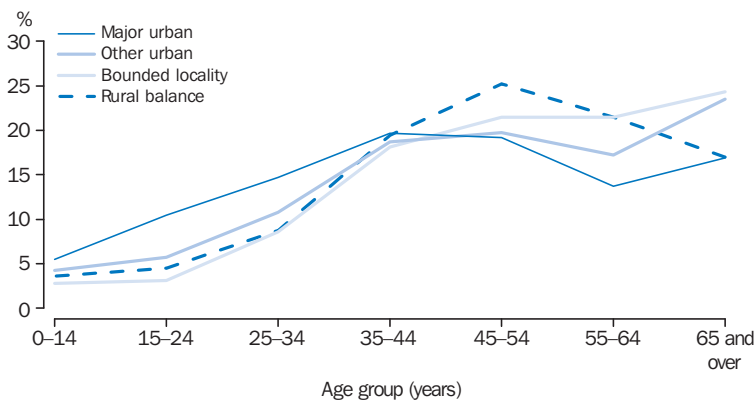
### Distribution by birthplace

The geographic distribution of the overseas-born population differs by country of birth. Although they are still more urbanised than the Australian-born population, people from Anglophone countries were the most widely dispersed group of overseas-born people. This group includes people born in countries such as the United Kingdom, of whom 70% lived in Major urban areas and 19% in Other urban areas, Ireland (79% and 14% respectively) and New Zealand (75% and 16%). People born in the United Kingdom accounted for 41% of the total overseas-born population living in Other rural areas, with those born in New Zealand accounting for another 12%.

In contrast, people from Asian regions were among the most urbanised. Of people born in Viet Nam, 97% lived in Major urban areas, as did 96% of people born in China, 91% born in India and 85% born in the Philippines. People born in Asia accounted for 27% of the total overseas-born population living in Major urban areas.

As described previously, geographic distribution of the overseas-born population is related to time spent in Australia, with a higher proportion of recent arrivals living in major cities. Since large scale immigration from Asia began relatively recently, people born in Asia have had less time to disperse from the urban areas in which they generally live upon arriving in Australia. In addition, migrants from a non-English speaking background may have a greater attraction to existing 'birthplace communities', which can be found to a greater extent in Sydney and Melbourne than elsewhere.<sup>3</sup>

### Age profile of the overseas-born population by Section of State — 2001



Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

### Endnotes

- 1 Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) 2004, *Trends in International Migration, Annual Report, 2003 Edition*, OECD, Paris.
- 2 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2004, *Australia in Profile — A Regional Analysis*, cat. no. 2032.0, ABS, Canberra.
- 3 Birrell, R and Rapson, V 2002, 'Two Australias: Migration Settlement at the End of the 20th Century', *People and Place*, vol. 10, no. 1, pp. 10–25.



# Family and community

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	Page
<b>National and state summary tables.....</b>	<b>28</b>
<b>Family and community data sources and definitions.....</b>	<b>32</b>

## COMMUNITY FUNCTIONING

<b>Social interactions outside home.....</b>	<b>35</b>
----------------------------------------------	-----------

In 2002, 87% of Australians felt they had family and community support from people outside their household. This article examines selected activities associated with social interactions such as attendance at culture and leisure venues, sport and physical recreation activities and voluntary work. Possible influences on these activities are also examined.

## SERVICES AND ASSISTANCE

<b>Support for people with a disability.....</b>	<b>41</b>
--------------------------------------------------	-----------

In 2002, more than 90% of adults with a disability indicated they could request assistance in times of crisis from someone outside their own household. In most instances, this was a family member residing elsewhere. This article discusses the support received by people with a disability, including financial assistance and informal and formal care.

## FAMILY FUNCTIONING

<b>Families with no employed parent.....</b>	<b>46</b>
----------------------------------------------	-----------

In 2001, over 350,000 families with children aged under 15 years had no employed resident parent. Almost two-thirds (64%) of these families were one-parent families. This article focuses on the recent trends, characteristics, social wellbeing and financial stress of families with no employed resident parent.

## COMMUNITY FUNCTIONING

<b>Being unemployed, a lone parent or a recently arrived migrant.....</b>	<b>51</b>
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This article highlights some of the diverse social and economic circumstances of unemployed people, lone parents and recently arrived migrants. Results of multivariate analysis of data from the 2002 General Social Survey are used to consider whether the attributes of being unemployed, a lone parent or a recently arrived migrant are linked to certain social and economic outcomes, after a range of demographic and other characteristics are removed from consideration.

## SERVICES AND ASSISTANCE

<b>Formal child care.....</b>	<b>57</b>
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In 2002, 45% of children aged 0–4 years and 13% of children aged 5–11 years spent some time in formal child care. This article focuses on changes in formal child care use since the early 1990s, including the types of child care services used and parents' labour force participation. Also examined is the need for additional care, with respect to the type of care required and the reasons for needing additional care.

# Family and community: national summary

<b>LIVING ARRANGEMENTS</b>		Units	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
1	Total households	'000	r6 428	r6 554	r6 668	6 762	6 910	7 015	7 127	7 250	7 393	n.a.	n.y.a.
2	Lone-person households	%	r22.1	r22.4	r22.9	23.0	23.6	23.7	24.1	24.6	24.6	n.a.	n.y.a.
3	Households with three or more persons	%	r45.6	r45.0	r44.7	44.5	43.8	43.2	43.1	42.5	41.4	n.a.	n.y.a.
4	Total families	'000	4 638	4 709	4 791	4 834	4 899	5 027	5 056	5 116	5 248	5 357	5 453
5	Families with children aged under 15 years	'000	2 038	2 041	2 100	2 092	2 130	2 160	2 166	2 172	2 186	2 213	2 203
6	Couple families	'000	3 929	3 998	4 051	4 080	4 090	4 158	4 197	4 265	4 350	4 422	4 532
7	De facto couple families – of all couple families(a)	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	10.1	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	12.4	n.a.	n.a.
8	Couple-only families – of all couple families	%	49.3	51.0	51.1	51.9	51.1	51.8	52.3	52.6	53.5	53.9	55.1
9	Couple-only families with female partner aged under 40 years – of all couple only families	%	22.3	22.7	21.6	21.3	20.9	21.3	21.3	21.5	21.9	23.1	23.6
10	Couple families with children aged under 15 – of all families with children aged under 15	%	83.0	82.8	81.5	81.6	80.0	78.4	78.8	79.1	78.3	77.0	78.2
11	Lone-father families with children aged under 15 – of all families with children aged under 15	%	1.7	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.3	2.0	1.9	2.3	2.3	2.7	2.5
12	Lone-mother families with children aged under 15 – of all families with children aged under 15	%	15.3	15.4	16.6	16.3	17.7	19.5	19.3	18.6	19.3	20.3	19.3
13	Families with at least one child aged under 5 – of all families with children aged under 15	%	47.8	47.8	47.4	47.8	47.8	46.2	45.0	46.1	45.2	44.2	45.2
14	Average family size – persons	no.	3.2	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.0	3.0
15	Children aged under 15 living in one-parent families – of all children aged under 15	%	14.8	15.3	16.4	16.3	18.0	19.5	19.0	18.2	19.6	20.5	19.9
16	Persons aged 20–24 living with parents – of all persons aged 20–24	%	46.1	44.7	45.2	44.5	46.2	48.0	47.2	45.5	45.8	45.9	45.1
17	Persons aged 25–34 living with parents – of all persons aged 25–34	%	10.7	10.5	10.6	10.7	11.5	12.4	11.8	12.3	12.6	12.7	11.9
18	Persons aged 15–64 who live alone – of all persons aged 15–64	%	6.8	7.0	7.4	7.6	7.9	8.0	8.2	8.4	8.6	8.7	8.9
19	Persons aged 65 and over who live alone – of all persons aged 65 and over	%	r30.9	29.4	29.3	29.8	30.7	r28.9	29.5	r31.1	r29.3	r30.3	30.0
<b>FAMILIES AND WORK</b>		Units	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Couple families with children aged under 15 years													
20	Both parents employed – of all couple families with children aged under 15	%	50.6	51.1	56.2	54.5	54.4	55.6	54.9	56.3	56.7	57.1	57.5
21	Neither parent employed – of all couple families with children aged under 15	%	10.8	10.0	8.4	7.9	8.6	8.5	7.9	7.5	7.5	7.2	6.3
22	One-parent families with children aged under 15, parent employed – of all one-parent families with children aged under 15	%	41.4	41.8	43.2	42.7	42.9	42.1	44.0	47.3	46.4	46.2	46.0
23	Children aged under 15 living in families where no resident parent is employed – of all children aged under 15(b)	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	16.2	18.6	17.7	17.8	17.9	17.4	n.a.	n.y.a.

# Family and community: national summary cont.

<b>FAMILY FORMATION</b>		Units	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
<b>Registered marriages</b>													
24	Number of marriages	'000	113.3	111.2	109.4	106.1	106.7	110.6	114.3	113.4	103.1	105.4	n.y.a.
25	Crude marriage rate (per 1,000 population)	rate	6.4	6.2	6.1	5.8	5.8	5.9	6.0	5.9	5.3	5.4	n.y.a.
26	Marriages where both partners married for the first time – of all marriages	%	67.1	67.5	67.5	66.4	66.6	66.7	66.9	66.6	r66.9	66.3	n.y.a.
27	Median age of males at first marriage	years	27.0	27.2	27.3	27.6	27.8	27.9	28.2	28.5	28.7	29.0	n.y.a.
28	Median age of females at first marriage	years	24.8	25.1	25.3	25.7	25.9	26.2	26.4	26.7	26.9	27.1	n.y.a.
29	Median age at remarriage – divorced males	years	40.4	40.9	41.1	41.6	41.8	42.0	42.2	42.7	43.1	43.6	n.y.a.
30	Median age at remarriage – divorced females	years	36.8	37.4	37.6	38.0	38.2	38.4	38.6	39.1	39.5	39.8	n.y.a.
<b>Divorce</b>													
31	Number of divorces	'000	48.4	48.3	49.7	52.5	51.3	51.4	52.6	49.9	55.3	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
32	Crude divorce rate (per 1,000 population)	rate	2.7	2.7	2.8	2.9	2.8	2.7	2.8	2.6	r2.9	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
33	Median duration of marriage until separation	years	7.6	7.6	7.6	7.6	7.7	7.8	7.9	8.2	8.3	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
34	Divorces involving children aged under 18 years – of all divorces	%	52.6	52.4	n.a.	53.6	54.0	53.4	53.9	52.7	51.2	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
35	Children aged under 18 involved in divorce	'000	48.1	47.5	n.a.	52.5	51.7	51.6	53.4	49.6	53.4	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
<b>Fertility</b>													
36	Births(c)	'000	260.2	258.1	256.2	253.8	251.8	249.6	248.9	249.6	246.4	251.0	n.y.a.
37	Total fertility rate (per female)	rate	1.86	1.85	1.83	1.80	1.78	1.76	r1.76	r1.76	1.73	1.75	n.y.a.
38	Births to mothers aged under 20 – of all births	%	5.1	5.0	4.9	4.9	4.9	4.7	4.7	4.6	4.8	4.6	n.y.a.
39	Births to mothers aged 35 and over – of all births	%	11.9	12.9	13.7	14.6	15.3	16.1	16.8	17.4	17.8	18.4	n.y.a.
40	Births outside marriage – of all births	%	24.9	25.6	26.6	27.4	28.1	28.7	29.2	29.2	r30.7	31.3	n.y.a.
41	Births outside marriage acknowledged by father – of all births outside marriage	%	81.7	82.2	83.3	84.2	85.5	87.1	88.2	88.2	87.9	88.0	n.y.a.
42	Females aged 35 and over giving birth for the first time – of all females aged 35 and over giving birth	%	19.8	20.8	20.8	21.2	22.4	23.3	23.7	24.7	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
43	Median age of mothers at first birth	years	26.6	26.8	26.9	27.1	27.3	27.5	27.6	27.9	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
<b>CHILD CARE</b>		Units	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
44	Children aged under 3 using formal care – of all children aged under 3(d)	%	17.0	n.a.	n.a.	21.6	n.a.	n.a.	22.3	n.a.	n.a.	25.2	n.a.
45	Children aged under 3 using informal care – of all children aged under 3(d)	%	40.3	n.a.	n.a.	39.3	n.a.	n.a.	43.0	n.a.	n.a.	36.9	n.a.
46	Children aged 3–4 using formal care – of all children aged 3–4(d)	%	59.6	n.a.	n.a.	59.2	n.a.	n.a.	65.7	n.a.	n.a.	72.8	n.a.
47	Children aged 3–4 using informal care – of all children aged 3–4(d)	%	42.9	n.a.	n.a.	41.2	n.a.	n.a.	43.2	n.a.	n.a.	36.4	n.a.
48	Median weekly hours of care received by children aged under 3 – formal and informal combined	hours	10	n.a.	n.a.	12	n.a.	n.a.	11	n.a.	n.a.	13	n.a.
49	Median weekly hours of care received by children aged 3–4 – formal and informal combined	hours	13	n.a.	n.a.	14	n.a.	n.a.	14	n.a.	n.a.	16	n.a.

(a) Includes same-sex couples. Data only available in census years.

(b) Data for this indicator are derived from the Survey of Income and Housing; results are benchmarked by age for children aged 1–4 years and 5–14 years. These data are not necessarily consistent with data for indicator 15, which are derived from the Labour Force Survey and are not benchmarked for people aged less than 15 years.

(c) Based on registered births.

(d) Components do not add to 100% as some children used both formal and informal care and others used neither.

Reference periods: Data for indicators 1–3 are at 30 June.

Data for indicators 4–6 and 8–23 are at June.

Data for indicator 7 are at census date.

Data for indicators 24–43 are for the calendar year.

Data for indicators 44–49 are at June (1993, 1999 and 2002) and March (1996).

# Family and community: state summary

<b>LIVING ARRANGEMENTS</b>		Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
1	Total households(a)	'000	2001	2 434	1 818	1 406	614	739	191	63	123	7 393
2	Lone-person households	%	2001	23.1	24.1	24.8	27.6	26.8	29.3	25.0	26.4	24.6
3	Households with three or more persons	%	2001	43.1	43.0	39.8	36.4	39.9	37.2	44.4	41.4	41.4
4	Total families	'000	2003	1 825	1 351	1 050	430	542	135	38	83	5 453
5	Families with children aged under 15 years	'000	2003	742	545	425	160	223	55	18	35	2 203
6	Couple families	'000	2003	1 514	1 130	873	356	453	110	30	67	4 532
7	De facto couple families – of all couple families(b)	%	2001	11.5	11.1	14.0	12.4	14.3	14.3	23.2	14.3	12.4
8	Couple-only families – of all couple families	%	2003	54.8	53.3	56.6	59.5	55.2	56.5	49.7	52.9	55.1
9	Couple-only families with female partner aged under 40 years – of all couple only families	%	2003	24.0	23.9	23.3	20.1	25.2	16.0	31.1	30.3	23.6
10	Couple families with children aged under 15 – of all families with children aged under 15	%	2003	78.2	80.8	76.7	75.0	78.3	74.5	75.8	77.0	78.2
11	Lone-father families with children aged under 15 – of all families with children aged under 15	%	2003	2.8	2.3	1.9	3.0	2.5	2.1	2.6	3.7	2.5
12	Lone-mother families with children aged under 15 – of all families with children aged under 15	%	2003	19.0	16.9	21.4	22.2	19.3	23.5	21.6	19.3	19.3
13	Families with at least one child aged under 5 – of all families with children aged under 15	%	2003	46.1	44.5	45.3	46.2	44.2	43.1	48.5	38.3	45.2
14	Average family size – persons	no.	2003	3.0	3.1	3.0	2.9	3.0	2.9	3.2	3.1	3.0
15	Children aged under 15 living in one-parent families – of all children aged under 15	%	2003	19.9	17.7	20.4	23.6	20.1	22.4	22.1	22.1	19.9
16	Persons aged 20–24 living with parents – of all persons aged 20–24	%	2003	47.7	50.6	36.8	47.1	38.5	37.1	30.7	46.8	45.1
17	Persons aged 25–34 living with parents – of all persons aged 25–34	%	2003	12.2	14.7	9.9	9.6	8.8	9.3	8.1	13.1	11.9
18	Persons aged 15–64 who live alone – of all persons aged 15–64	%	2003	8.4	8.7	8.4	10.9	9.9	10.1	11.7	9.2	8.9
19	Persons aged 65 and over who live alone – of all persons aged 65 and over	%	2003	29.6	30.3	28.2	33.8	29.8	32.5	29.0	27.4	30.0
<b>FAMILIES AND WORK</b>		Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Couple families with children aged under 15 years												
20	Both parents employed – of all couple families with children aged under 15	%	2003	58.4	57.4	56.6	57.7	55.4	49.4	70.3	66.3	57.5
21	Neither parent employed – of all couple families with children aged under 15	%	2003	6.4	6.0	7.1	6.1	5.6	9.3	1.9	5.4	6.3
22	One-parent families with children aged under 15, parent employed – of all one-parent families with children aged under 15	%	2003	42.7	51.1	44.4	46.0	45.7	47.3	53.0	63.3	46.0
23	Children aged under 15 living in families where no resident parent is employed – of all children aged under 15(c)	%	2001	18.2	16.5	14.7	19.8	20.4	23.0	18.5	8.9	17.4



# Family and community: state summary continued

<b>FAMILY FORMATION</b>		Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
<b>Registered marriages</b>												
24	Number of marriages	'000	2002	36.3	25.1	21.3	7.4	10.5	2.6	0.7	1.6	105.4
25	Crude marriage rate (per 1,000 population)	rate	2002	5.5	5.2	5.7	4.9	5.4	5.5	3.8	4.9	5.4
26	Marriages where both partners married for the first time – of all marriages	%	2002	68.1	68.2	63.2	63.8	64.9	60.6	61.4	67.0	66.3
27	Median age of males at first marriage	years	2002	28.9	29.2	28.9	28.8	29.5	28.8	29.9	28.6	29.0
28	Median age of females at first marriage	years	2002	26.9	27.5	26.9	26.7	27.3	26.8	27.7	27.2	27.1
29	Median age at remarriage – divorced males	years	2002	43.2	43.4	43.8	44.4	44.3	43.9	44.5	43.7	43.6
30	Median age at remarriage – divorced females	years	2002	39.3	39.5	39.9	40.8	40.5	41.3	38.9	39.9	39.8
<b>Divorce</b>												
31	Number of divorces	'000	2001	16.1	13.7	12.1	4.5	5.4	1.4	0.4	1.7	55.3
32	Crude divorce rate (per 1,000 population)	rate	2001	2.4	r2.9	3.3	3.0	2.8	r3.1	r2.3	(d)	r2.9
33	Median duration of marriage until separation	years	2001	7.5	8.5	r8.3	9.1	9.2	9.7	7.1	8.8	8.3
34	Divorces involving children aged under 18 – of all divorces	%	2001	45.5	52.2	r54.6	53.9	54.3	56.2	47.2	53.1	51.2
35	Children aged under 18 involved in divorce	'000	2001	13.5	13.6	12.5	4.6	5.5	1.5	0.4	1.7	53.4
<b>Fertility</b>												
36	Births(e)	'000	2002	86.6	61.5	47.8	17.7	23.6	6.0	3.7	4.1	251.0
37	Total fertility rate (per female)	rate	2002	1.80	1.68	1.77	1.72	1.69	1.96	2.28	1.59	1.75
38	Births to mothers aged under 20 – of all births	%	2002	4.2	3.0	6.1	4.4	5.5	7.5	12.3	3.1	4.6
39	Births to mothers aged 35 and over – of all births	%	2002	18.9	20.8	15.7	19.4	17.1	14.3	14.4	19.4	18.4
40	Births outside marriage – of all births	%	2002	28.0	26.2	36.6	34.4	35.1	46.8	62.0	26.8	31.3
41	Births outside marriage acknowledged by father – of all births outside marriage	%	2002	87.5	92.2	87.1	89.9	90.3	83.4	64.5	88.2	88.0
<b>CHILD CARE</b>		Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT(f)	ACT	Aust.
42	Children aged under 3 using formal care – of all children aged under 3(g)	%	2002	21.7	26.3	29.7	22.9	23.2	27.5	39.3	39.7	25.2
43	Children aged under 3 using informal care – of all children aged under 3(g)	%	2002	36.8	30.1	36.6	48.4	45.0	40.4	41.4	38.0	36.9
44	Children aged 3–4 using formal care – of all children aged 3–4(g)	%	2002	75.6	71.3	75.0	68.4	69.1	62.9	54.9	79.7	72.8
45	Children aged 3–4 using informal care – of all children aged 3–4(g)	%	2002	33.7	39.8	31.7	48.0	37.0	38.2	35.1	40.9	36.4
46	Median weekly hours of care received by children aged under 3 – formal and informal combined	hours	2002	15	12	16	8	10	10	n.a.	n.a.	13
47	Median weekly hours of care received by children aged 3–4 – formal and informal combined	hours	2002	16	13	18	12	12	12	n.a.	n.a.	16

(a) State figures to not add to national figure as the data for Australia include Other Territories.

(b) Includes same-sex couples. Data only available in census years.

(c) Data for this indicator are derived from the Survey of Income and Housing; results are benchmarked by age for children aged 1–4 years and 5–14 years. These data are not necessarily consistent with data for indicator 15, which are derived from the Labour Force Survey and are not benchmarked for people aged less than 15 years.

(d) Based on the location of the Family Court where the divorce is granted and registered. Due to the large number of divorces granted in the Australian Capital Territory to usual residents of another state, the divorce rate for the Australian Capital Territory is not representative of the Australian Capital Territory population.

(e) Based on registered births.

(f) Estimates for child care for the Northern Territory refer to mainly urban areas only.

(g) Components do not add to 100% as some children used both formal and informal care and others used neither.

Reference periods: Data for indicators 1–6, 8–23 and 42–47 are at June.

Data for indicator 7 are at census date.

Data for indicators 24–41 are for the calendar year.

# Family and community: data sources

DATA SOURCE	Indicators using this source	
	National indicators	State indicators
ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.	7	7
ABS Births Collection.	38–41	38–41
ABS Child Care Survey.	44–49	42–47
ABS Labour Force Survey.	4–6, 8–22	4–6, 8–22
ABS Marriages and Divorces Collection.	26–30, 33–35	26–30, 33–35
ABS Surveys of Income and Housing.	23	23
AIHW Perinatal Data Collection 1999.	42–43	–
<i>Australian Demographic Statistics</i> (ABS cat. no. 3101.0).	1–3, 24–25, 31–32, 36–37	1–3, 24–25, 31–32, 36–37

## Family and community: definitions

### Average family size

for any group of families, the total number of family members divided by the number of families in the group.

### Births

live births registered in that year. A live birth is the delivery of a child irrespective of the duration of pregnancy who, after being born, breathes or shows any evidence of life such as a heartbeat.

Reference: *Births, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 3301.0).

### Births outside marriage

births where the father was not registered as married to the mother at the time of the birth, whether or not the parents were living together at the time of the birth, and whether or not the child may subsequently have been adopted or their father and mother have subsequently been registered as married. Also known as ex-nuptial births.

Reference: *Births, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 3301.0).

### Births outside marriage acknowledged by the father

births outside registered marriage where the father's name is recorded on the birth certificate.

Reference: *Births, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 3301.0).

### Child aged under 15 years

a related or unrelated person aged under 15 years who forms a parent-child relationship with one person aged 15 years or over resident in the household.

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

### Couple family

a family based on two persons who are in a registered or de facto marriage and who are usually resident in the same household. The family may include any number of dependants, non-dependants and other related individuals. It is not necessary for a parent-child relationship to be formed, thus a couple family can consist of a couple without children present in the household.

Reference: *Australian Labour Market Statistics* (ABS cat. no. 6105.0).

### Couple-only family

a couple family with no dependent children or other family members (e.g. non-dependent children) present.

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

### Crude divorce rate

the number of divorces (decrees absolute of dissolution of marriage) granted in the calendar year per 1,000 of the estimated resident population at 30 June of that year.

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

### Crude marriage rate

the number of marriages registered in the calendar year per 1,000 of the estimated resident population at 30 June of that year.

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

### De facto couple

two people (of the same or opposite sex) who live together in the same household who are not registered as married to each other but reported being either: de facto, partner, common law husband/wife/spouse, lover, boyfriend or girlfriend.

Reference: 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

### Divorce

decree absolute of dissolution of a registered marriage.

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

### Divorces involving children

divorces of couples with unmarried children of the registered marriage who were aged under 18 years at the time of application for divorce. Under the *Family Act 1975*, adopted and ex-nuptial children and children from a former registered marriage may be included (in certain cases). Children who are registered as marriage or aged 18 years and over are not subject to custody and guardianship orders and are excluded.

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

### Duration of marriage until separation

the interval measured in complete years between the date of marriage and the date of separation.

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

### Employed person

persons aged 15 years and over who either worked during the reference week for pay, profit, commission, payment in kind or without pay for one hour or more in a family business, or who had a job but were not at work. Also includes employers, own account workers or contributing family workers who had a job, business or farm, but were not at work.

Reference: *Australian Labour Market Statistics* (ABS cat. no. 6105.0).

### Estimated resident population

the official measure of the population of Australia based on the concept of residence. It refers to all people, regardless of nationality or citizenship, who usually live in Australia, with the exception of foreign diplomatic personnel and their families. It includes usual residents who are overseas for less than 12 months. It excludes overseas residents who are in Australia for less than 12 months.

Estimated resident population (ERP) is an estimate of the Australian population obtained by adding to the estimated population at the beginning of each period the components of natural increase (on a usual residence basis) and net overseas migration. For the states and territories, account is also taken of estimated interstate movements involving a change of usual residence.

Reference: *Australian Demographic Statistics* (ABS cat. no. 3101.0).

# Family and community: definitions continued

## Family

two or more persons, one of whom is aged 15 years of age, who are related by blood, marriage (registered or de facto), adoption, step or fostering; and who are usually resident in the same household. The basis of family is formed by identifying the presence of a couple relationship, lone parent-child relationship or other blood relationship. Some households will, therefore, contain more than one family.

Reference: *Australian Labour Market Statistics* (ABS cat. no. 6105.0).

## Formal child care

regulated care, away from the child's home. The main types of formal care are: before and after school care; long-day care; family and day care; occasional care and preschool.

Reference: *Child Care, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4402.0).

## Household

a group of two or more related or unrelated people who usually reside in the same dwelling, who regard themselves as a household, and who make common provision for food or other essentials for living; or a person living in a dwelling who makes provision for his/her food and other essentials for living, without combining with any other person.

Reference: *Australian Demographic Statistics* (ABS cat. no. 3101.0).

## Informal child care

non-regulated care, arranged by the child's parent/guardian, either in the child's home or elsewhere. It comprises care by: (step) brothers or sisters; grandparents, other relatives including a parent living elsewhere and other (unrelated) people such as friends, neighbours, nannies or babysitters. It may be paid or unpaid.

Reference: *Child Care, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4402.0).

## Lone parent

a person who has no spouse or partner present in the household but who forms a parent-child relationship with at least one dependent or non-dependent child usually resident in the household.

Reference: *Australian Labour Market Statistics* (ABS cat. no. 6105.0).

## Lone person

a person who makes provision for his/her food and other essentials for living without combining with any other person to form part of a multi-person household. He or she may live in a dwelling on their own or share a dwelling with another individual or household.

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

## Median

the value at which half the population falls above and half falls below.

## Median age

the age at which half the given population is older and half is younger.

Reference: *Population by Age and Sex, Australian States and Territories* (ABS cat. no. 3201.0).

## Median age of mothers at first birth

the median age of mothers at the end of first confinement. A confinement is a pregnancy which results in at least one live birth; multiple births (e.g. twins) may be involved.

Reference: Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, *Australia's Mothers and Babies (1996)*.

## Median hours of care

hours of care is defined as the number of hours a child attended child care in the survey reference week. Median hours of care is the number of hours of care per week at which half the children who received formal and/or informal child care fall below the value and half above.

Reference: *Child Care, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4402.0).

## One-parent family

a family consisting of a lone parent with at least one dependent or non-dependent child (regardless of age) who is also usually resident in the household. The family may include any number of dependent children, non-dependent children and other related individuals.

Reference: *Australian Labour Market Statistics* (ABS cat. no. 6105.0).

## Registered marriage

formally registered marriage for which the partners hold a marriage certificate.

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

## Total fertility rate

the average number of children a woman would bear during her lifetime if she conformed to the current age-specific fertility rates throughout her reproductive life.

Reference: *Births, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 3301.0).



# Social interactions outside home

## COMMUNITY FUNCTIONING

**In 2002, over four out of five Australians (87%) felt they had family and community support from people outside their household.**

Within Australian society, questions are often raised about whether families and other social groups are breaking down, perhaps as a result of people becoming more individualistic or self-absorbed.<sup>1</sup> This has led to a revival of interest in communities and how they function, and the opportunities people have to build relationships through social interaction.

Social attachment refers to the nature and strength of relationships that people have with each other. While there are generally strong social bonds within households, social attachment is also built through social interactions with people outside the household — interactions with family and friends as well as associations with individuals and organisations in the wider community.<sup>1</sup> These interactions often result in expanded opportunities and services within the community.

There is increasing policy interest in social attachment and participation at all levels of government. For example, the Department of Family and Community Services is responsible for the Stronger Families and Communities Strategy, the Community Business Partnership, and volunteering programs, while the Department of Health and Ageing has included a social capital component in its measurement of Funding of Public Health.<sup>1</sup>

### Social interactions in Australia

Interaction is the key to forming relationships and generating feelings of trust, and to maintaining social networks.<sup>2</sup> Family and friends are central to most people's social

### General Social Survey

Data in this article come from the General Social Survey (GSS) conducted by the ABS in 2002. The GSS provides a wide range of information on the social and economic wellbeing of Australians (aged 18 years and over) living in private households. The 2002 GSS collected information from people aged 18 years and over across all states and territories of Australia. Only one adult (aged 18 years or over) in each dwelling was selected for the survey. This *selected person* was randomly chosen after all usual residents of the household were identified. Information was collected about both the individuals being interviewed and about the households in which they lived.

### Social interactions

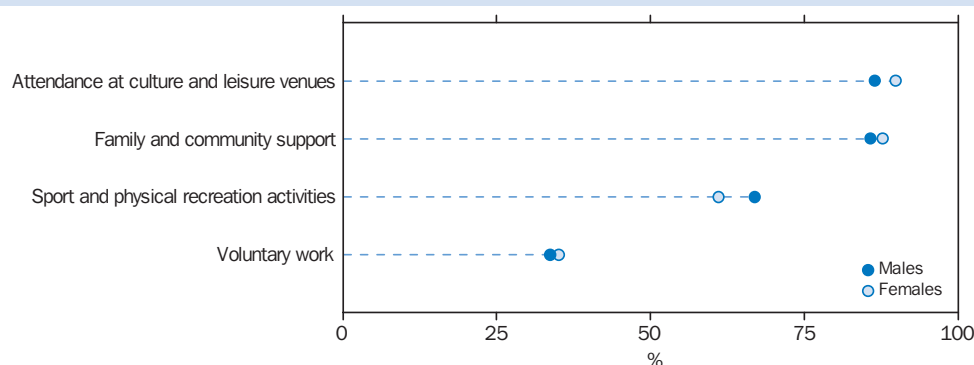
The GSS primarily provides information on interactions people have with others outside their household. In this article, people are described as having *family and community support* if they reported that they had contact with family or friends living outside the household in the week prior to interview, and that they felt they could ask for small favours and support in a time of crisis from people outside the household.

Attendance at *culture and leisure venues* in the last 12 months included visiting art galleries, museums, zoological parks and aquariums, botanic gardens, libraries, concerts and theatre performances, and cinemas.

Participation in *sport and physical recreational activities* in the last 12 months included playing a sport or undertaking a physical recreational activity, as well as being involved in 'non-playing roles' such as coaches, officials, umpires and administrators.

*Voluntary work* is the provision of unpaid help in the form of time, service or skills, through a variety of organisations or groups in the last 12 months.

### Selected activities associated with social interactions — 2002



Source: ABS 2002 General Social Survey.

networks and the first point of call for care, practical help and emotional support.<sup>2</sup> Much of the support provided by families takes place among family members who live together in the same household. However, support networks extending beyond the household (e.g. friends and family members living elsewhere, neighbours, work colleagues, community service organisations) are also important, both in their contribution to the wellbeing of individuals and families, and in creating and maintaining social cohesion and fostering a sense of community. In 2002, 87% of adults aged 18 years or over had family and community support — they reported that they had contact with family or friends living outside the household in the previous week, and that they felt they could ask for small favours and get support in a time of crisis from people outside the household. A further 13% of adults had some of these forms of support, while less than 1% received no family and community support. A similar proportion of men and women had access to family and community support (86% and 88% respectively), and this proportion did not differ greatly depending on people's age.

Culture and leisure activities often provide an opportunity for social interaction and contribute to the social and physical wellbeing of individuals. These activities take many forms including creative and performing arts, music, literature, and cultural heritage. In 2002, 88% of people attended selected culture and leisure venues at least once in the previous 12 months, with similar attendance among women (90%) and men (87%). Almost all 18–24 year olds attended a culture and leisure venue at least once (98%), compared with 71% of people aged 65 years and over.

Australia is recognised internationally as a nation with a strong interest in sport. Sport and recreation form an integral part of Australian culture and have many benefits including social interaction, health, and community involvement.<sup>3</sup> In 2002, 64% of people were involved in sport or recreational physical activities, as active participants or in non-playing roles such as coaches and officials. Men had a higher participation rate (67%) in sport and physical recreation than women (61%), and people aged 18–34 years had a higher participation rate (73%) than people aged 65 years and over (46%). Attending sporting events can also provide opportunities for social interaction. In 2002, 56% of men and 41% of women attended at least one sporting event. Attendance was higher for 18–24 year olds (65%) than those aged 65 years and over (21%).

As well as the economic value of the services volunteers provide, there is much interest in the role of volunteers in building social networks and increasing social cohesion. Volunteering generally relies on face to face interaction, bringing together a variety of people for the benefit of others.<sup>2</sup> In 2002, 34% of people participated in voluntary work, with a similar level of participation for men (34%) and women (35%). People aged 35–44 years had the highest level of participation in voluntary work (42%), while 18–24 year olds and people aged 65 years and over had the lowest participation (28%) (for more information on voluntary work see *Australian Social Trends 2002*, Voluntary work, pp. 146–150).

Social participation can be limited by negative behaviours such as criminal activity in the community and people's perceptions about the extent and proximity of such negative behaviours.<sup>3</sup> Fear for personal safety can restrict a person's social participation and diminish trust within the community. In 2002, 18% of people were victims of a break-in or attempted break-in, or had physical violence or the threat of physical violence against them. Despite this, the majority of people felt safe or very safe at home alone after dark (82%), while 8% felt unsafe or very unsafe (see *Australian Social Trends 2003*, Crime victimisation and feelings of safety, pp. 187–189).

### Social interactions through life-cycle stages

The level and type of social interaction varies through life-cycle stages. Families and households are by nature dynamic, and all of the transitions that occur throughout the life cycle involve personal, social and economic adjustments (see *Australian Social Trends 2002*, Transitions in living arrangements, pp. 52–56). As young people move out of the family home, they commonly form couple relationships and many have children. Further adjustments occur if relationships break down, and when children leave home. In addition to changes in families, a growing proportion of the population are choosing to live alone (for more detailed analysis of social interactions across the life cycle see *Measures of Australia's Progress 2004*, pp. 136–43, ABS cat. no. 1370.0).

In 2002, access to family and community support did not vary greatly across life-cycle stages. The majority of couples (with and without children), lone parents with dependent children, and lone persons had contact with family and friends and felt they were able to ask for small favours and help in the time of a crisis.

In contrast, attendance at culture and leisure venues and participation in sport and physical recreation activities did vary across the life-cycle stages, with higher proportions of lone persons aged 18–34 years and people of this age in couple families participating in these activities compared with those aged 65 years and over. A range of factors may contribute to older people's ability to participate in such activities. These include physical disability and ill health, loss of relationships and fewer transport options.<sup>4</sup>

Participation in voluntary work also varied according to life-cycle stage. In 2002, just under half of adults in couple families with dependent children took part in voluntary work (42%). Their most common voluntary work activities were sport and recreation (28% of those who took part in voluntary work) and education (23%). Some of this involvement would be associated with their children's schooling and leisure activities. About one-quarter of adults in young couples without children participated in voluntary work (26%). When they did so, this was most commonly associated with sport and recreation (30%).

Feeling unsafe may stem from being a victim of a crime, feeling vulnerable, or the media portrayal of crime.<sup>5</sup> Crime victimisation and feelings of safety varied across life-cycle stages. In 2002, a relatively small proportion of older people (aged 65 years and over) were victims of a crime (8% of those in couple families and 10% of those living alone). This is consistent with feelings of safety among older people, with 9% of those in couple families and 7% of those living

### Some further definitions

In order to gain a better understanding of possible influences on social interaction, the GSS examined a range of characteristics of individuals. Some of these may be barriers to social interactions:

*A disability or long-term health condition* exists if a limitation, restriction, impairment, disease or disorder had lasted, or was likely to last, for at least six months, and which restricted everyday activities.

The measure of household income used in this article is *equivalised gross household income*. For a detailed definition see *Australian Social Trends 2004*, Household income (pp. 142–145).

*Proficiency in spoken English* is a self assessment by persons who speak a language other than English at home. It measures whether they speak English: very well, well, not well, or not at all.

*Main English-speaking countries* comprise the United Kingdom, the Republic of Ireland, New Zealand, Canada, the United States of America and South Africa.

Regional patterns of residency are described using the *Remoteness classification*. Remoteness is calculated using the road distance to different sized urban centres, where the population size is considered to govern the range and type of services available. The Remoteness Areas reported in this article are Major Cities of Australia, Inner Regional Australia and Other Areas. As the GSS did not cover sparse areas of Australia, 'Other Areas' encompasses most of Outer Regional Australia, part of Remote Australia and only a small proportion of Very Remote Australia.

alone feeling unsafe or very unsafe at home alone after dark. Similar proportions of younger people (aged 18–34 years) felt unsafe or very unsafe at home alone after dark

### Social interactions by selected life-cycle stages — 2002

	Family and community support	Attendance at culture and leisure venues	Sport and physical recreation activities	Voluntary work	Victim(a)	Feels unsafe/ very unsafe(b)
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Lone person aged 18–34 years	90.9	94.1	76.8	28.1	34.1	6.5
Couple only, selected person aged 18–34 years	92.1	97.1	80.6	26.1	19.2	9.4
Couple with dependent children	88.4	93.4	68.3	42.3	18.7	8.3
Lone parent with dependent children	86.8	92.3	61.1	31.6	33.1	16.7
Couple only, selected person aged 65 years and over	86.8	72.9	50.3	30.6	7.5	8.5
Lone person aged 65 years and over	87.4	68.6	44.6	28.7	10.2	7.3
<b>Total persons aged 18 years and over</b>	<b>86.7</b>	<b>88.2</b>	<b>64.0</b>	<b>34.4</b>	<b>18.3</b>	<b>8.4</b>
	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000
<b>Total persons aged 18 years and over</b>	<b>12 578.0</b>	<b>12 789.5</b>	<b>9 283.2</b>	<b>4 989.0</b>	<b>2 655.0</b>	<b>1 218.3</b>

(a) Of physical or threatened violence or actual or attempted break-in.

(b) At home alone after dark.

Source: ABS 2002 General Social Survey.

despite having much higher rates of crime victimisation (34% of lone persons and 19% of couples) than older people (10% of lone persons and 8% of couples). Lone parents (who are mainly younger women) with dependent children experienced a relatively high rate of crime victimisation (33%) in 2002, and were the most likely to feel unsafe or very unsafe at home alone after dark (17%).

With the exception of lone parents, women's rates of crime victimisation were similar to, or lower than, those of their male counterparts. However, in all of the life-cycle stages examined, women were more likely than men to feel unsafe or very unsafe at home alone after dark. This was particularly so among younger people. Among younger people (aged 18–34 years) living alone in 2002, around one-third of both women and men had been victims of crime in the previous year but the women were more likely to feel unsafe or very unsafe at home alone after dark — 13% compared with 3% of men.

## Influences on social interactions

Many factors influence an individual's social interaction. To some extent, participation is a matter of personal choice. However, there are some barriers that appear to influence involvement in activities, and in some cases these barriers are linked to life-cycle stages. For example, disability and long-term health conditions are more common in older people (see *Australian Social Trends 2001*, Disability among adults, pp. 75–79). Participation in the paid work force also varies through life-cycle stages, initially increasing with age, then remaining relatively high during prime working ages, and declining towards the years of retirement.<sup>6</sup> In addition to the presence or absence of work-related interactions, changes in labour force participation over the life cycle tend to be associated with changes in household income and the amount of time available for other pursuits, both of which may influence the extent and type of social interactions and involvement with the broader community.

### Selected influences on social interactions — 2002

	Family and community support	Attendance at culture and leisure venues	Sport and physical recreation activities	Voluntary work	Victim(a)	Feels unsafe/ very unsafe(b)
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Disability status						
Has disability or long-term health condition	83.8	81.9	54.6	33.8	19.4	11.1
Has no disability or long-term health condition	88.7	92.3	70.2	34.8	17.6	6.6
Labour force status						
Employed	89.4	93.3	71.0	37.5	20.2	6.3
Unemployed	78.9	89.5	62.3	28.2	25.8	10.5
Not in the labour force	82.3	77.8	50.2	29.0	13.6	12.3
Equivalentised gross household income(c)						
Lowest quintile	80.3	73.9	46.0	26.0	17.4	12.6
Second quintile	83.8	83.8	55.7	32.7	16.8	8.8
Third quintile	87.1	90.2	63.6	35.1	18.3	9.2
Fourth quintile	90.5	94.4	69.4	37.0	19.0	7.4
Highest quintile	91.1	96.9	81.2	39.7	20.0	5.0
Remoteness Areas						
Major Cities	86.5	89.6	65.0	31.1	18.9	9.0
Inner Regional	87.4	87.5	64.7	41.1	17.6	7.1
Other Areas	86.9	81.1	57.3	42.6	15.8	7.1
<b>Total</b>	<b>86.7</b>	<b>88.2</b>	<b>64.0</b>	<b>34.4</b>	<b>18.3</b>	<b>8.4</b>

(a) Of physical or threatened violence or actual or attempted break-in.

(b) At home alone after dark.

(c) Excludes not stated equivalentised gross household income.

Source: ABS 2002 General Social Survey.



### ...disability

Because people with disabilities or long-term health conditions are restricted in everyday activities they may have less opportunity for social interaction (for more details on the wellbeing of people with a disability see *Australian Social Trends 2004*, Support for people with a disability, pp. 41–45). While the proportion of people with a disability who had access to family and community support was similar to people without a disability (84% and 89% respectively), the proportions who attended culture and leisure venues and participated in sports and physical recreation was lower. People with a disability were no more likely to be a victim of crime (19%) than people with no disability (18%), but a slightly higher proportion of people with a disability felt unsafe or very unsafe at home alone after dark (11%).

### ...labour force status

The workforce provides many people with an avenue for social interaction outside their immediate family and close friends. In 2002, not only did employed people have a higher level of family and community support than those who were unemployed (89% compared with 79%), they also had higher levels of participation in all other activities (for more information on the effect unemployment has on social circumstances see *Australian Social Trends 2004*, Being unemployed, a lone parent or a recently arrived migrant, pp. 51–56.). The lower participation rates of those not in the labour force may reflect the high proportion of this group who are retired

(67%), most of whom are older people (65% were aged 65 years and over) who are more likely to experience other barriers such as disability and low income.

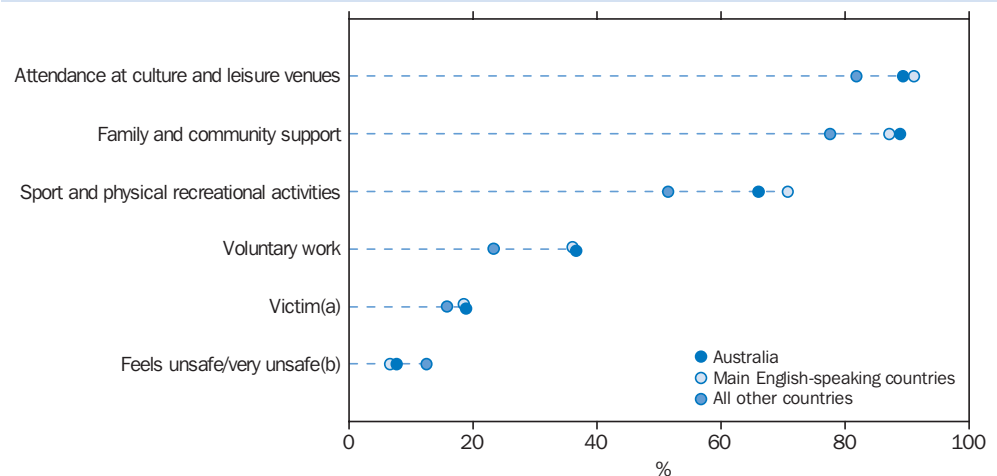
### ...household income

The proportion of people with family and community support, and participation in all types of social activities increased as household income increased. For example, in 2002, high income was associated with greater attendance at culture and leisure venues (97% of people in the highest income quintile compared with 74% in the lowest) and participation in sport and physical recreation activities (81% compared with 46%). In terms of crime victimisation and feelings of safety, a slightly higher proportion of people in the highest income quintile were victims of crime (20%) compared with those in the lowest quintile (17%). However, a higher proportion of those with low household incomes felt unsafe or very unsafe at home alone after dark (13%) compared with people with high incomes (5%). This may reflect the high concentration of vulnerable groups in the lowest income quintile such as lone parents, age pensioners and people with a disability.

### ...language

Cultural and language differences may influence some aspects of social interaction. For example, speaking a language other than English may make it difficult to interact with people in the community. In 2002, 89% of people born in Australia had family and

Social interactions by country of birth — 2002



(a) Of physical or threatened violence or actual or attempted break-in.  
 (b) At home alone after dark.

Source: ABS 2002 General Social Survey.

community support, a similar proportion to those born in main English-speaking countries. However, a lower proportion of people born in all other countries had this support (78%). This proportion was lower again for those who were not proficient in spoken English (72%).

Culture and leisure, sport and physical recreation, and voluntary work provide opportunities for social participation outside the household. Such activities may be particularly attractive to people who are new to Australia and want to meet new people. However, both language and culture may be barriers to participation. In 2002, while participation in these areas was similar for people born in Australia and those born in main English-speaking countries, it was lower for people from all other countries (for further information on the social circumstances of recently arrived migrants see *Australian Social Trends 2004*, Being unemployed, a lone parent or a recently arrived migrant, pp. 51–56).

In 2002, 19% of people born in Australia and those from main-English speaking countries were crime victims, while 16% of people from all other countries were victims. However, a larger proportion of people from all other countries felt unsafe or very unsafe at home alone after dark (13%), compared with those born in Australia (8%) and those from main English-speaking countries (7%).

### ...Remoteness Areas

In 2002, aspects of social interaction varied across regions. The proportion of people with family and community support was similarly high in all regions. However, the levels of attendance at culture and leisure venues and participation in sport and physical recreation activities were higher in Major Cities (90% and 65% respectively) and Inner Regional Australia (88% and 65%) than in more remote areas (81% and 57%). Perhaps this is due to people in cities and larger towns having access to more facilities, giving them more opportunity to participate in these activities. Participation in voluntary work increased with remoteness, from 31% of people in Major Cities to 43% of those living in Other Areas.

### Endnotes

- 1 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2004, *Measuring Social Capital: An Australian Framework and Indicators*, cat. no. 1378.0, ABS, Canberra.
- 2 Australian Institute of Health and Welfare 2003, *Australia's Welfare 2003*, AIHW, Canberra.
- 3 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2004, *Year Book Australia 2004*, cat. no. 1301.0, ABS, Canberra.
- 4 Cross Government Project to Reduce Social Isolation of Older People <<http://www.families.qld.gov.au/seniors/isolation/index.html>>, accessed 4 May 2004.
- 5 Williams, KS 1997, *Textbook on Criminology, 3rd edition*, Blackstone Press Ltd., London.
- 6 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2004, *Measures of Australia's Progress 2004*, cat. no. 1370.0, ABS, Canberra.

# Support for people with a disability

## SERVICES AND ASSISTANCE

**In 2002, over 90% of adults with a disability felt that they could ask for help in a time of crisis from someone outside their own household — most commonly a family member living elsewhere.**

The term 'people with a disability' covers a wide range of differing life experiences and physical and mental states. However, many people with a disability, particularly those with a severe physical or mental impairment, are amongst the most vulnerable and disadvantaged in our society. Of particular concern are those people with limitations affecting the core activities of self-care, mobility or communication, and those with education or employment restrictions. They are the most likely to experience economic hardship, unemployment, family breakdown, social isolation, and physical or emotional neglect or abuse.<sup>1</sup>

### Wellbeing of people with a disability

Among adults (aged 18 years and over) living in private households in 2002, those with disabilities rated lower than those without disabilities on a range of wellbeing indicators, the relative disadvantage increasing with the degree of disability. For example, adults with a profound or severe core activity limitation were the least likely to describe their general health as either very good or excellent — 14% compared with 34% of all adults with a disability and 76% of those without disabilities. Similarly, people with disabilities were less able to get easily to the places they needed to go; less likely to have been involved in a community-based social or recreational activity; and less likely to feel safe at home alone after dark.

### People with a disability

The primary source of data used in this article is the General Social Survey (GSS) conducted by the ABS in 2002. The GSS identifies people (aged 18 years and over) with a disability or long-term health condition living in private households. People living in institutional settings are excluded from the GSS.

*Disability* is the umbrella term for any or all of the following: an impairment in body structure or function; a limitation in activities; or, a restriction in participation. (WHO ICF 2001). When referring to GSS-sourced data in this article, 'disability' means 'disability or long-term health condition'. This differs from the disability measure produced by the ABS Survey of Disability, Ageing and Carers (SDAC) in that it includes more people with long-term health conditions but slightly fewer people with profound or severe core limitations. The GSS and SDAC both provide reliable data on the characteristics of people with disabilities but only the SDAC is designed to provide a reliable measure of the prevalence of disability in Australia.

People with a *specific limitation or restriction* have difficulty with schooling, employment or one or more of the core activities of self-care, mobility or communication.

People with a *profound core activity limitation* always need help with self-care, mobility or communication, or are unable to do these tasks.

People with a *severe core activity limitation* sometimes need help with self care, mobility or communication; or have difficulty understanding or being understood by family or friends; or communicate more easily using sign language or other non-spoken forms of communication.

### Selected indicators of wellbeing: proportion of population(a) by disability(b) status — 2002

	No disability	Disability	Specific limitation or restriction	Profound/severe core activity limitation
	%	%	%	%
Self-assessed health status very good/excellent	75.9	33.8	21.8	13.7
Has a non-school qualification	45.3	36.9	33.9	25.9
Employed (of all aged 18–64 years)	80.4	62.0	48.9	34.4
Middle to high household income(c)	71.0	47.7	39.4	33.2
Can easily get to the places needed	87.7	79.2	69.9	54.1
At least one social activity in past three months	94.6	88.5	85.1	77.7
Feels safe/very safe at home alone after dark	85.9	78.5	73.7	68.2

(a) Aged 18 years and over.

(b) Disability or long-term health condition.

(c) In the top 60% of all persons when ranked according to their equivalised gross household income.

Source: ABS 2002 General Social Survey.

People with disabilities were also less likely to have non-school qualifications or to be employed and, consequently, more likely to be economically disadvantaged than people without disabilities. In 2002, 71% of adults without disabilities lived in middle to high income households, compared with 48% of those with disabilities and 33% of those with a profound or severe core activity limitation.

Appropriate and adequate support for people with disabilities, and their carers, is essential if they are to overcome the associated disadvantages and realise their full potential as individuals, family members and participants in the economic, social and cultural life of the broader community. The amount and type of support needed varies greatly depending on the type and severity of the limitations or restrictions experienced, and on the personal, family and economic circumstances of each individual.

### Assistance with day to day living

The ABS 1998 Survey of Disability, Ageing and Carers found that of the 3.4 million people of all ages with a disability, and living in private households, over half (55%) received help with one or more activities such as property maintenance, housework, health care, transport, mobility, self-care, etc. The vast majority (90%) received assistance from informal carers such as family members, friends or neighbours while about a half (49%) made use of one or more formal providers including government, private nonprofit, and private profit making organisations.<sup>2</sup>

In 1998, three out of four people identified as the primary carer of a person with a disability (i.e. the person providing the most ongoing informal assistance with one or more of the core activities of self-care, mobility or communication) were family members living with the recipient, most commonly a partner or parent.<sup>2</sup> While the bulk of informal day to day care is provided by co-resident family members, the ability to ask for help from people beyond their own household can have both practical and social benefits for people with disabilities, particularly those who live alone (17% of all adults with disabilities in 2002).

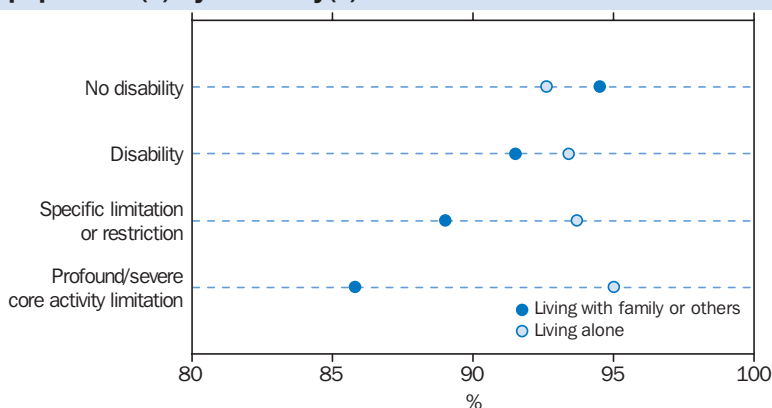
In 2002, the vast majority of adults with a disability (93% of those living alone and 92% of those living with others) felt they were able to ask someone not living with them for a small favour such as collecting mail, looking after pets, house or garden while away from home; minding a child for a brief period; help with moving or lifting objects; borrowing equipment, etc. Among people with disabilities who lived alone, the proportion able to ask for small favours increased as the severity of limitations or restrictions increased. The reverse was reported for people with disabilities who lived with others, possibly because they had less need or less opportunity to ask for help from people outside their own household.

### Support in times of crisis

In 2002, the majority of adults with a disability (92%) felt that they could ask for support in a time of crisis (e.g. advice or emotional support; emergency money, food or accommodation; help with family or work responsibilities, etc.) from someone not living with them. Overall, the proportion of people with one or more external sources of crisis support decreased as the severity of limitations or restrictions increased. However, among people who lived alone, those with a profound or severe core activity limitation were the most likely to have crisis support. Even so, 4% of people with a profound or severe core activity limitation, and living alone, said they had no one they could turn to in a time of crisis.

By far the most common external sources of crisis support were family members living elsewhere (nominated by 80% of adults with disabilities), friends (59%) and neighbours (36%). The proportion of people with disabilities who could call on friends in a time of crisis declined with age, from 71% of those aged 18–34 years to 42% of those aged 65 years and over. In contrast, the proportion who felt they could call on their neighbours

**Able to ask others(a) for small favours: proportion of population(b) by disability(c) status — 2002**



(a) Excludes members of own household.  
 (b) Aged 18 years and over.  
 (c) Disability or long-term health condition.

Source: ABS 2002 General Social Survey.

**Sources of support in time of crisis: proportion of population(a) by disability(b) status — 2002**

	No disability	Disability	Specific limitation or restriction	Profound/severe core activity limitation
	%	%	%	%
Family member(c)	83.8	80.4	76.8	74.5
Friend(c)	70.9	58.9	56.6	44.4
Neighbour	33.0	35.8	34.1	29.4
Work colleague	25.8	15.1	10.7	4.0
Community/charity/religious organisation	13.3	14.9	16.3	16.3
Health, legal or financial professional	12.6	14.3	16.6	18.7
Local council or other government services	7.3	8.4	10.1	11.9
Other	1.2	1.3	1.5	*2.0
<b>All with one or more sources of support</b>	<b>95.1</b>	<b>92.4</b>	<b>91.4</b>	<b>88.4</b>

(a) Aged 18 years and over.  
 (b) Disability or long-term health condition.  
 (c) Excludes members of own household.

Source: ABS 2002 General Social Survey.

for support in a crisis increased with age, from 26% of 18–34 year olds to 40% of people aged 65 years and over.

The sources of crisis support reported in 2002 were fairly similar across disability status groups. However, there were some clear differences. For example, people with disabilities, particularly those with a profound or severe core activity limitation, were less likely than those without disabilities to seek help from friends or work colleagues in a time of crisis.

Formal sources of crisis support such as community, charity or religious organisations; local council or other government services; and health, legal or financial professionals

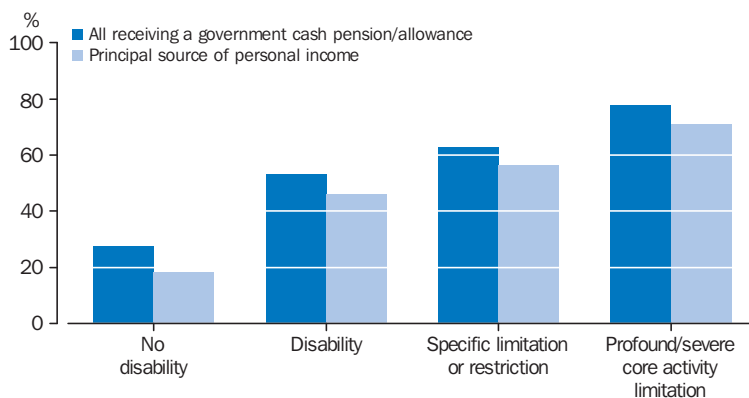
were much less commonly nominated than family, friends or neighbours in all disability status groups.

**Income support**

A key role of the Australian Government in supporting people with disabilities, and their carers, is the provision of income support or supplementation through a range of pensions and allowances. Among adults living in private households in 2002, more than half (53%) of those with disabilities were receiving a government cash pension or allowance. For the most part, this was their principal source of income. The proportion of people with a disability receiving a government pension or allowance increased with severity and age, to 78% of all adults with a profound or severe core activity limitation, 84% of all older people (aged 65 years and over) with a disability, and 88% of older people with a profound or severe core activity limitation. In comparison, 74% of older people without a disability received a government pension or allowance.

Of those 18–64 year olds with disabilities who were receiving a government cash pension or allowance in 2002, 33% were receiving the Disability Support Pension, 17% were receiving an employment-related allowance (e.g. Newstart or Youth Allowance) and 23% received the Parenting Payment. The majority (79%) of older people with disabilities who were receiving a government pension or benefit were receiving the Age Pension while a further 13% were receiving a Veterans' Service Pension.

**Receiving a government cash pension or allowance: proportion of population(a) by disability(b) status — 2002**



(a) Aged 18 years and over.  
 (b) Disability or long-term health condition.

Source: ABS 2002 General Social Survey.

**People(a) using disability support services(b) on a snapshot day — 2002**

Service type	Primary disability group				Total
	Intellectual	Physical	Psychiatric	All other groups(c)	
	%	%	%	%	%
<i>Accommodation support</i>	39.1	32.6	32.8	19.8	34.0
Group homes	19.9	7.9	3.2	6.1	14.5
In-home accommodation support	6.6	9.7	23.9	6.4	8.2
Residential institution or hostel	11.7	6.0	1.1	3.7	8.6
<i>Community access</i>	32.3	20.9	28.9	22.4	28.7
Learning and life skills development	23.9	12.3	3.4	11.4	18.5
Recreation/holiday programs	2.7	4.0	1.1	7.5	3.7
<i>Employment</i>	30.6	21.4	37.4	19.1	27.7
Supported employment	23.5	9.7	14.5	8.1	18.1
<i>Community support</i>	13.6	31.5	2.6	39.6	20.1
Case management, local coordination and development	6.7	12.0	1.5	14.4	8.5
Therapy support for individuals	2.5	14.1	0.1	9.0	5.0
Respite	4.2	7.9	2.4	6.1	4.9
<b>Total using one or more services</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000
<b>Total using one or more services</b>	<b>39.9</b>	<b>8.0</b>	<b>4.9</b>	<b>13.0</b>	<b>65.8</b>

(a) Includes people of all ages and those living in institutional settings.

(b) CSDA-funded services only.

(c) Comprises the following disability groups — specific learning/attention deficit disorder, autism, acquired brain injury, neurological, deaf/blind, vision, hearing, speech, developmental delay, and people whose primary disability was not stated.

Source: AIHW 2003, *Disability Support Services 2002*.

### Disability support services

In addition to Commonwealth funded income support and supplementation, the Australian and state and territory governments provide a wide range of specialist services for people with disabilities. Many of these services are either funded or directly provided under the Commonwealth-State/Territory Disability Agreement, most recently signed in 2003 and previously known as the Commonwealth/State Disability Agreement (CSDA). Total expenditure by governments on CSDA services during the 2001–02 financial year was \$2.66 billion.

On the snapshot day in 2002, an estimated 65,800 people with disabilities received 77,400 CSDA-funded services from a total of 8,142 outlets. Half of these outlets were run by charitable organisations, a further 24% were run by other non-government organisations, and the remainder were run by government agencies.

On the snapshot day:

- ◆ 34% of recipients used accommodation support services either in a community setting, such as a group home (14%) or in-home support (8%), or in a residential institution or hostel (9%)
- ◆ 29% used community access services, mainly learning and life skills development services (18%)
- ◆ 28% used employment services, mainly supported employment (18%)
- ◆ 20% used community support services which include early childhood intervention, specific therapies, counselling and case management services
- ◆ 5% used respite services.

People with an intellectual disability were the main users of CSDA services. On the snapshot day, 61% of service recipients reported an intellectual disability as their primary

### Disability support services

The disability support services data presented in this article relate to services funded or directly provided by Australian governments in 2002 under the then Commonwealth/State Disability Agreement (CSDA)\*. This agreement between the Commonwealth, state and territory governments provides a framework for the provision of specialist support services for people with a disability. These services are designed for people who need ongoing support with everyday life activities.

Statistics on the types of disability support services provided under CSDA, and the characteristics of both the providers and recipients of these services, have been collated by the Australian Institute of Health and Welfare (AIHW) annually since 1995. The data relate to a 'snapshot' day each year\*\*. Services that do not receive any funding (either full or partial) under CSDA are not included. For example, many services in the areas of rehabilitation, hearing services, aids and appliances — or those funded solely through the Home and Community Care (HACC) program are excluded. Also excluded are residential aged care services, hospitals and any services that receive no government funding. For more information about this dataset, and a comprehensive report on CSDA-funded disability support services on the snapshot day in 2002, see AIHW 2003 *Disability support services, 2002*.

\* The current agreement is known as the Commonwealth-State/Territory Disability Agreement.

\*\* From 2003, data will be collected in relation to the full year.

disability. The types of services most commonly used by this group were: accommodation support, just over half of which was group homes; employment services, mainly in supported employment environments; and community access, mainly learning and life skills development.

People whose primary disability was physical formed the second largest group (12%) of people using CSDA services on the snapshot day. Compared to most other primary disability groups, a relatively high proportion of people whose primary disability was physical used therapy support (14%) and respite services (8%) on the snapshot day.

The Commonwealth-State/Territory Disability Agreement also funds various 'generic' support services where there may be little or no direct contact with individual consumers. These include advocacy, information and referral, print disability services, peak bodies, research and evaluation.

### Unmet need for disability support services

In 1998, over half (57%) of all people with disabilities living in private households needed assistance with one or more aspects of day to day living. A similar proportion (58%) of primary carers needed help in providing care to someone with a disability. In both cases, the majority (64% of people with a disability and 57% of primary carers) received all the assistance they needed. However, some of those who needed help received less than they needed — 32% of people with a disability and 27% of primary carers. In addition, some received no help at all — 4% of people with a disability and 16% of primary carers.<sup>2</sup>

In recognition of unmet need for disability support services, additional funding was made available by the Australian and state and territory governments, totalling \$519 million over the two years 2000–01 and 2001–02. This funding has been continued in the current Commonwealth-State/Territory Disability Agreement. A key priority area for unmet need funding is the provision of additional services which would enable people with disabilities who have ageing carers to remain supported within their families in their local communities.<sup>3</sup>

As people get older the likelihood of having a disability increases. The chance of becoming the primary carer of someone with a disability, usually a partner or other family member, also increases with age, peaking in the 55–74 years age group. In 1998, one in five primary carers were aged 65 years and over, and most (56%) of them also had a disability.<sup>4</sup>

### Endnotes

- 1 Basser, LA and Jones, M 2002, 'The *Disability Discrimination Act 1992* (Cwlth): A three-dimensional approach to operationalising human rights', *Melbourne University Law Review*, vol. 26.
- 2 Australian Bureau of Statistics 1998, *Disability, Ageing and Carers: Summary of Findings, Australia, 1998*, cat. no. 4430.0, ABS, Canberra.
- 3 Australian Institute of Health and Welfare 2002, 'Unmet need for disability services: effectiveness of funding and remaining shortfalls', *Disability Data Briefing*, no. 22.
- 4 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2000, *Caring in the Community, Australia, 1998*, cat. no. 4436.0, ABS, Canberra.

# Families with no employed parent

## FAMILY FUNCTIONING

**In 2001, over 350,000 families with children under 15 years had no employed parent living in the household. Almost two-thirds (64%) of these families were one-parent families.**

Families with no employed parent have been identified as a matter of policy concern by Australian governments in recent years.<sup>1</sup> These families can not only experience economic disadvantage, but may have reduced social opportunities which may impact on their wellbeing. Research suggests that children living in families with no employed parent are particularly at risk, as the absence of a resident employed parent may negatively impact on the child's immediate material wellbeing as well as adversely affecting their future income, 'social class' and economic success.<sup>2</sup> However, for one-parent families in this situation, a non-resident parent generally provides financial assistance and may also be employed and serve as a role model for the children.

This article uses census data to analyse the characteristics of families with children aged less than 15 years, in which no resident parent is employed. An overview of the social wellbeing and financial stress encountered by families with no employed parent is presented using data from the General Social Survey (GSS).

### Recent trends

In 2001, over 350,000 families with children aged less than 15 years had no employed parent living with them, compared to around 330,000 in 1991. Over this decade, families in which no parent was employed have been a relatively stable proportion of all families with children aged less than 15 years (around 18%). The proportions of families with no employed parent have decreased for both one-parent families (from 58% to 55%) and couple families (from 11% to 8%). There has also been a change in the balance between

### Families with no employed resident parent

This article uses data from the 1986, 1991, 1996 and 2001 Censuses of Population and Housing and the ABS 2002 General Social Survey (GSS).

A *family* is two or more persons, one of whom is at least 15 years of age, who are related by blood, marriage (registered or de facto), adoption, step or fostering, and who are usually resident in the same household.

A *couple family* with children aged less than 15 years comprises two usual residents, both aged 15 years and over, who are married to each other or living in a de facto relationship with each other who have at least one child aged less than 15 years usually resident in the family.

A *one-parent family* with children under 15 years is a parent with no resident partner (married or defacto), with at least one child aged less than 15 years usually resident in the family.

In this article, *family with no employed parent* refers to a family with at least one child aged less than 15 years and in which no resident parent is employed. Other members of the family, or household in which the family lives may be employed. No information is provided on non-resident parents.

*Unemployed* people are those aged 15 years and over who were not employed, but were available for work and who were actively looking for work.

*Not in the labour force* people are those aged 15 years and over who were not employed and who were not actively looking for work.

one-parent and couple families with no employed parent — largely due to the increase in the number of one-parent families over the decade. In 1991, each comprised about half of families with no employed

### Families(a) with children under 15 years(b): employment status of parents

	Couple families(c)				One-parent families			
	Both parents employed	One parent employed	Neither parent employed	Total	Parent employed	Parent not employed	Total	Total one-parent families
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	'000
1991	52.9	36.5	10.6	100.0	41.8	58.2	100.0	289.5
1996	54.4	35.5	10.1	100.0	42.9	57.1	100.0	372.9
2001	56.5	35.0	8.5	100.0	45.4	54.6	100.0	420.6

(a) Excludes families where a parent's employment status was not stated.

(b) Excludes families where all children aged less than 15 years were absent on census night as comparable data are not available for 1991.

(c) Excludes couple families where a spouse was absent on census night.

Source: ABS 1991—2001 Censuses of Population and Housing.



resident parent. By 2001, the balance had changed to around two-thirds (64%) being one-parent families. In a decade of sustained economic growth and declining unemployment, the proportion of families in which both parents were employed increased from 53% in 1991 to 57% in 2001.

### Characteristics of families with no employed parent

In both financial and social terms, families with no employed resident parent can be disadvantaged relative to families living with an employed parent. However, this is not always the case as people are not in employment for a range of reasons. While some may be unable to obtain employment, others may have an alternative source of income, choose to stay at home (for example, to care for children) or be unable to work (for example, due to ill-health).

In 2001, 83% of lone parents who were not employed were not in the labour force (that is, not actively looking for work) rather than unemployed. Among one-parent families where the parent was not employed but was looking for work, the majority were looking for part-time (58%) rather than full-time employment. This could reflect the difficulty of managing work and home responsibilities without the support of a resident partner.

In 2001, of couples in which both of the partners were not employed, 60% had both partners not in the labour force and a further 9% had both partners unemployed. Among such couple families where both partners were looking for work, 59% of the couples were both looking for full-time employment.

### Couple families(a)(b) with children aged under 15 years with no employed parent — 2001

	%
Both parents unemployed	9.4
Both parents looking for full-time employment	5.5
Both parents looking for part-time employment	0.7
One parent looking for part-time employment and one parent looking for full-time employment	3.2
One parent unemployed and one not in the labour force	30.7
Both parents not in the labour force	59.9
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>

(a) Excludes families where a parent's employment status was not stated.  
(b) Excludes couple families where a spouse was absent on census night.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

### One-parent families(a) with children(b) with parent not employed — 2001

	%
Parent unemployed	16.5
Looking for full-time work	7.0
Looking for part-time work	9.6
Parent not in the labour force	83.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>

(a) Excludes families where the parent's employment status was not stated.

(b) Children aged under 15 years.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

### ...family composition

According to the 2001 census, 18% of children under 15 years (over 660,000 children) lived in a household with no employed parent, with over half (61%) of these living in one-parent families.

In half (50%) of all the couple families with no employed parent, the youngest child was aged less than five years, and in a further 27% the youngest child was aged 5–9 years, while in the remaining 23% the youngest child was aged 10–14 years. A considerable proportion (44%) of one-parent families with the parent not employed were families with their youngest child aged less than five years and a further 32% were families in which the youngest child was aged 5–9 years.

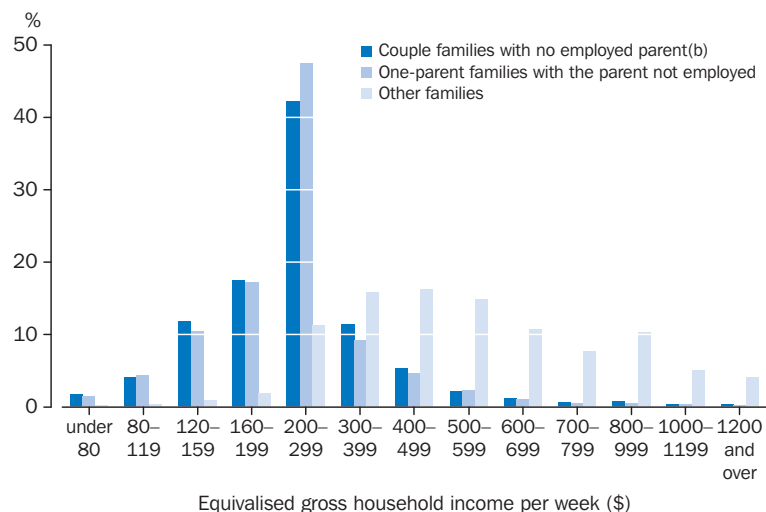
Families with no employed parent were more likely to have a larger number of children than were families with at least one employed parent. In 2001, of families with children aged less than 15 years, around one-quarter (27%) of couple families with no employed parent, and one-fifth (19%) of such one-parent families, had three or more children living in the family. In comparison, of families with at least one employed parent, 20% of couple families and 9% of one-parent families had three or more children.

### ...household income

The economic wellbeing of families is largely determined by their income. Partners in a relationship and dependent children generally share the family's income. Income estimates are equalised to take into account household size and composition (see *Australian Social Trends 2004*, Household income, pp. 142–145).

In 2001, for a large proportion of couple families with no employed parent (79%) and one-parent families with the parent not employed (88%), the equalised gross household income was less than \$300 per week.

**Families(a) with children under 15 years: equivalised gross household income distribution — 2001**



(a) Excludes families where a parent's employment status was not stated.  
 (b) Excludes couple families where a spouse was absent on census night.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

Only a small proportion (15%) of families with an employed parent had an equivalised household income less than \$300 per week. The proportions of couple and one-parent families with no employed parent were highest in the \$200–\$299 equivalised household income range.

**Other employed people in the household**

While the employment status of parents can be particularly influential for a family, having other family members in employment can affect economic wellbeing and offer role models for children. Also, while most Australian families are formed around a couple or parent relationship and live in a household by themselves, some families share their dwelling with other families or other related and unrelated individuals, any of whom may be employed (see *Australian Social Trends 2003*, Changing families, pp. 35–39). Whilst the employed person may or may not share their income with the family, there are potential economic gains such as shared dwelling costs. Such household members may also provide a role model for children in the household in terms of being an employed adult

In 2001, 13% of couple families with no employed parent lived in a residence where someone was employed. In almost half (49%) of couple families, the person employed was a non-dependent child. In some of these couple families more than one person was employed (12%). In comparison, 16% of one-parent families, with the parent not employed, lived in a residence where someone was employed.

**Families(a) with children aged under 15 years with no employed parent: other employed people in the household(b) — 2001**

	Couple families	One-parent families
Household member employed	%	%
One person employed		
Dependent student	16.6	9.9
Non-dependent child	48.6	23.1
Other adult relative	9.0	15.4
Unrelated individual living in family household	4.5	22.3
Two or more people employed	12.0	14.2
Other(c)	9.4	15.1
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
	'000	'000
<b>Total families with no employed parent in a household where someone is employed</b>	<b>16.5</b>	<b>35.3</b>

(a) Excludes families where a parent's employment status was not stated.  
 (b) Excludes visitors to the household on census night.  
 (c) 'Other' category includes families with no employed parent living in multiple family households where members of the second family are employed.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

In almost one-quarter (23%) of these one-parent families, the person employed was a non-dependent child. Also, in 14% of these families more than one person was employed.

### Financial stress

The remainder of the article uses data from the 2002 General Social Survey (GSS). Analysing GSS data on family households where no resident parent was employed provides insight into the financial stress and social wellbeing of families with no employed parent.

In 2002, just over 600,000 children aged less than 15 years were living with no employed resident parent. Their families were more likely to report financial difficulties than were families where at least one parent was employed. Their families were also more likely to be affected by selected indicators of financial stress than families where at least one parent was employed.

In 2002, of families with no employed resident parent, just under two-thirds (64%) of the one-parent families, and over one half (51%) of the couple families, felt that they could not raise \$2,000 within a week. Conversely, only 15% of all other families felt they could not raise this amount. Also, of families with no employed resident parent, a greater proportion of the one-parent families (49%) and the couple families (36%) had difficulty paying bills on time than did other family households (17%). Similarly, of the families with no employed resident parent, both one-parent (32%) and couple families (19%) were more likely to have sought financial help from family or friends than were other families (10%).

### General Social Survey

The General Social Survey (GSS), conducted by the ABS in 2002, provides a wide range of information on the social and economic wellbeing of adults (persons aged 18 years and over) living in private households.

Information about individuals (e.g. contact with family/friends, participation in voluntary work or social activities, ability to get support in a time of crisis) was collected for only one randomly selected adult per household. Information about the household in which they live (e.g. household and family composition, number of adults employed, financial stress) was also collected.

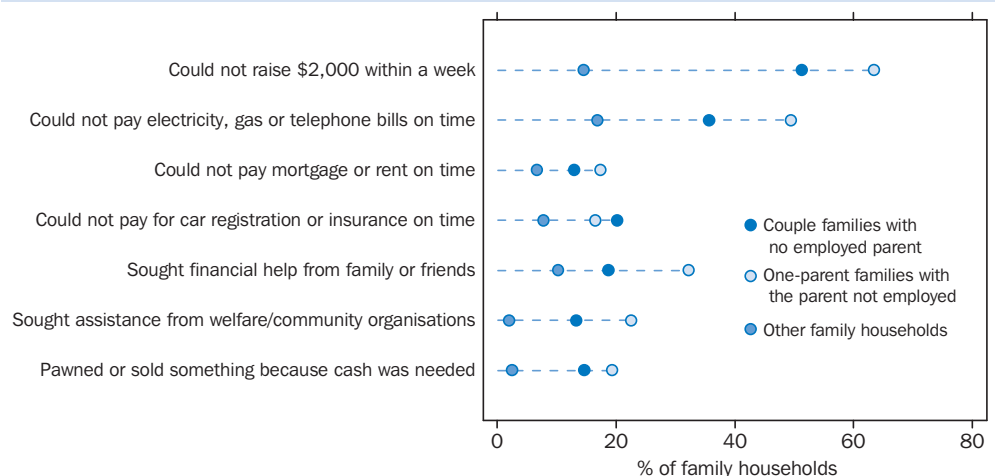
The discussion in this article on financial stress and social wellbeing uses data on *family households*, i.e. households with at least one child aged less than 15 years of age.

In the GSS, the selected indicators of financial stress relate to the household, and the selected indicators of social activities and support relate to an adult in the family household, not necessarily a parent.

### Social wellbeing

Participation in paid work is only one way in which individuals can feel a sense of social inclusion and build social networks. Social networks can also be built through volunteer work, participation in sporting or recreation clubs, as well as through family and friends. If members of families with no employed parent do not have means of social participation unrelated to employment, then feelings of exclusion and isolation could be experienced by the entire family.

**Selected indicators of financial stress(a) in family households — 2002**



(a) Experienced in the 12 months prior to interview.

Source: ABS 2002 General Social Survey.

### Selected social activities and social support characteristics of adults in families — 2002

	Family households with no employed resident parent		
	Couple family	One-parent family	Other family households
	%	%	%
Participated in selected social activities in the last three months(a)	74.8	89.5	95.9
Recreational, cultural, community or special interest group activities (incl. church or religious activities)	27.6	28.1	45.2
Socialising, sports and entertainment activities(b)	72.4	88.7	94.3
Undertook unpaid voluntary work in the last 12 months	18.2	31.5	43.4
At least weekly contact with family or friends(c)	90.1	94.9	96.7
Able to get support in a time of crisis(a)(d)	85.0	92.1	96.1
Family member or friend(c)	80.1	85.7	95.0
Neighbour or work colleague	20.9	24.0	48.4
Community, charity or religious organisation	15.3	22.0	17.0
Health, legal or financial professional	*11.1	11.1	15.4
Local council or other government services	*7.5	11.3	8.6
	'000	'000	'000
<b>Total households</b>	<b>98.0</b>	<b>220.8</b>	<b>1 844.3</b>

(a) Components do not add to total as respondents could be in more than one category.

(b) Includes going out to a restaurant, cafe or bar; attending or taking part in sport/physical activities, movie, theatre or concert; and visiting a library, museum, art gallery, park/garden, zoo or theme park.

(c) Other than members of own household.

(d) Includes other sources of support not listed.

Source: ABS 2002 General Social Survey.

Social participation, in itself valuable, can also help people to develop skills that may be useful in gaining paid employment. In 2002, a substantial majority of adults in families with no employed resident parent did interact with wider social networks, but overall these interactions were less likely than for adults in other families. Three-quarters (75%) of adults in couple families with no employed resident parent participated in selected social activities, compared to 90% of adults in one-parent families with no resident employed parent and 96% of adults in other families. Adults in both couple families and one-parent families with no employed resident parent (85% and 92% respectively) were less likely to feel able to gain support in a time of crisis than did adults in other families (96%).

For more information on social participation, see *Australian Social Trends 2004*, Social interactions outside home, pp. 35–40.

### Endnotes

- 1 Reference Group on Welfare Reform 2000, *Participation Support for a More Equitable Society: Final Report of the Reference Group on Welfare Reform*, Department of Family and Community Services, Canberra.
- 2 Gregory, RG 1999, *Children and the changing labour market: Joblessness in families with dependent children*, Discussion Paper No.406, Centre for Economic Policy Research, Australian National University.

# Being unemployed, a lone parent or a recently arrived migrant

## COMMUNITY FUNCTIONING

**In 2002, being unemployed, a lone parent or a recently arrived migrant affected people's social and economic circumstances, even after accounting for demographic and other characteristics.**

Information about people's social and economic circumstances can assist in formulating appropriate policy and targeting programs and services. Some groups within the community may have a higher risk of experiencing disadvantage, relative to others, in one or more areas of their life. While there are many such groups of potential interest in the community, this article examines three selected groups: people who are unemployed; lone parents; and recently arrived migrants.

Each of these groups forms a relatively small proportion of the total Australian population. In 2001, unemployed adults comprised 5% of the population aged 18 years and over, lone parents comprised 3% and recently arrived migrants comprised 3%. However, due to the potential for disadvantage among these adults and their families, these groups are a particular focus of government policies and programs. For example, one aim of government welfare reforms is to reduce joblessness and the reliance of families, particularly one-parent families, on income support.<sup>1</sup> A range of support programs, including language and interpretation services, aim to assist migrants in developing the skills and networks that will facilitate their participation in work and community life.

This article highlights some of the diverse social and economic circumstances of unemployed people, lone parents and recently arrived migrants. It then uses results from multivariate analysis of data from the 2002 General Social Survey to consider whether the attributes of being unemployed, a lone parent or a recently arrived migrant are significantly associated with certain social and economic outcomes, when a range of demographic and other characteristics are removed from consideration.

### General Social Survey

This article uses data from the 2002 General Social Survey (GSS). The GSS is a new ABS social survey that collects information across a range of aspects of life. As such, it enables analysis of the interrelationships between various social circumstances and outcomes in a range of areas of wellbeing. The areas discussed in this article include financial stress, social attachment, health, and employment.

*Unemployed* people are those who were not employed and were actively looking for work in the four weeks prior to interview, and were available to start work in the week prior to interview.

*Lone parents* are those parents with no resident partner (married or de facto), with at least one dependent child living with them. Non-dependent children may also be present. Lone parents who have other related or unrelated usual residents living with them, and those in multi-family households are excluded.

*Dependent children* are all children aged less than 15 years, and people aged 15–24 years who are full-time students, have a parent in the household and do not have a partner or child of their own living in the household.

*Recently arrived migrants* are people who were born overseas and arrived in Australia in the six years up to and including the reference year. This includes long-term visitors not intending to settle in Australia permanently.

*Equivalentised gross household income* is a standardised income measure which has been adjusted for the different income needs of households of different size and composition (see *Australian Social Trends 2004*, Household income, pp. 142–145).

### Unemployed people

Employment has a direct bearing on the material wellbeing of individuals and their families. It is also one means by which individuals contribute to their community, use and develop their skills, and enhance their social networks. Unemployed people can therefore be at a higher risk of experiencing financial and/or social disadvantage. In particular, long periods of unemployment can deplete savings and other family resources, and may lead to problems with morale, motivation and physical health.<sup>2</sup> Families in which no parent has paid employment can be particularly at risk (see *Australian Social Trends 2004*, Families with no employed parent, pp. 46–50).

#### Selected population groups, aged 18 years and over

	1991		2001	
	'000	%(a)	'000	%(a)
Unemployed people	873.5	7.3	611.0	4.5
Lone-parents	346.3	2.8	462.1	3.3
Recently arrived migrants	554.2	4.5	477.9	3.4

(a) Percentage of the population aged 18 years and over.

Source: 1991 and 2001 Censuses of Population and Housing.

At the 2001 Census, 611,000 Australians were unemployed, a decrease from 873,500 in 1991. Many Australians are out of work for substantial periods of time. The median duration of unemployment in 2003 was 19 weeks for males and 14 weeks for females. As at November 2003, some 81,300 men and 42,000 women had been unemployed for a year or more.<sup>3</sup>

In 2003, the unemployment rate was higher for males (6.2%) than females (6.0%) and higher outside the capital cities (6.7%) than in the capitals (5.8%) (see *Australian Social Trends 2004*, Work: national summary, pp. 102–103). Unmarried people had a higher unemployment rate (8.9%) than people who were married or in a de facto relationship (3.0%).<sup>3</sup>

The circumstances of unemployed people differ from those of the total population, in a range of areas. However, some of these differences may relate to the younger age profile of the unemployed population compared with the adult population in general. In 2001, the median age (among those 18 years and over) was 33.3 years for unemployed people, compared with 43.8 years for the total adult population.

In terms of financial wellbeing, in 2002 unemployed people aged 18 years and over were over-represented in the lowest equivalised household income quintile (45%) when compared with the total adult population (20%). Furthermore, a greater proportion of unemployed people lived in households where Government cash pensions and allowances were the principal source of income (49% compared with 22% of the total population). Nearly half (49%) of unemployed people lived in households that rented their dwelling, compared with a quarter (25%) of the total population, and 22% of these were renting from a State or Territory Housing Authority (compared with 17% of all renters).

Unemployed people also experienced potential barriers to participation in the community when compared with others. For example, relatively fewer unemployed people aged 18 years and over had access to a motor vehicle (66%) than the adult population generally (85%), and fewer could easily get to the places they needed (67% compared with 84%). In 2002, relatively more unemployed people had been the victim of physical or threatened violence or actual or attempted break-in (26%) in the last year, than among the total population (18%).

### Circumstances of selected population groups, aged 18 years and over — 2002

	Unemployed persons %	Lone parents %	Recently arrived migrants %	All persons %
Principal source of income(a)				
Employee earnings	38.6	36.3	61.3	60.2
Government cash pensions and allowances	48.5	51.5	10.2	21.6
Equivalised gross household income quintile(a)(b)				
Lowest quintile	44.9	43.0	20.7	19.6
Second quintile	25.0	30.3	19.8	18.7
Renting dwelling(a)	48.9	62.1	57.9	24.7
Has access to motor vehicle/s to drive	66.2	81.9	63.0	85.0
Used a computer at home in the last 12 months	57.2	50.5	66.6	55.3
Victim of physical or threatened violence, or actual or attempted break in, in the last 12 months	25.8	34.4	16.8	18.3
Self-assessed health status fair or poor(c)	14.7	16.4	7.7	15.9
Has a non-school educational qualification	41.8	47.2	66.2	49.7

(a) Refers to the characteristic of the household to which the person belongs.

(b) Excludes persons where household income was not known or was not adequately reported. Quintiles have been calculated after ranking persons by the equivalised gross income of the household of which they are a member. For further information on equivalised incomes see *Australian Social Trends 2004*, Household income, pp. 142–145.

(c) Response categories were: poor, fair, good, very good, excellent.

Source: ABS 2002 General Social Survey.

## Lone parents

Immediate family and household members provide social and financial support to one another. While lone parents may receive ongoing support, for example from extended family, friends or the non-resident parent, the lack of a resident partner can still impact on social and financial wellbeing. For example, responsibility for raising children may impact on a lone parent's capacity to participate in paid employment and other aspects of community life.

One-parent families are the fastest growing type of family in Australia. In 2001, there were 528,000 lone parents aged 18 years and over with dependent children. Of these, 88% (462,100) had no other adults (such as extended family members or members of a second family) resident in the household with them. In 2001, lone parents were predominately women (83%), and lone mothers tended to have younger children living with them than lone fathers. Around one-fifth (22%) of lone mothers had at least one child aged 0–4 years living with them, compared with one-tenth (9%) of lone fathers (see *Australian Social Trends 2003*, Changing families, pp. 35–39).

As with unemployed people, the circumstances of lone parents differ to others in a range of areas of life. For example, in 2002, more lone parents aged 18 years and over (52%) relied on Government cash pensions and allowances as their principal source of income, than did all adults (22%). Consequently, lone parents were over-represented in the lower income groups, with 43% in the bottom quintile of equivalised household income and 30% in the second lowest quintile, compared with 20% and 19% of all adults.

In 2001, 62% of lone parents aged 18 years and over rented their dwelling, compared with 25% of adults generally, and among renters proportionally more lone parents were renting from a State or Territory Housing Authority (31% compared with 17% of all renters). Relatively more lone parents felt unsafe or very unsafe at home alone after dark (19%) than adults in general (8%); and 34% of lone parents had been a victim of physical or threatened violence, or actual or attempted break in over the year prior to interview, compared with 18% of all adults.

## Recently arrived migrants

The government's immigration policy aims to balance social, economic, humanitarian, and environmental objectives,<sup>4</sup> so the social and economic situation of migrants coming to live

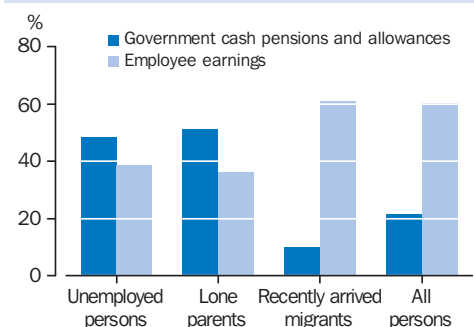
in Australia can vary substantially. For example, some migrants arriving in Australia may have more established social support networks, as they have the close family relationship with an Australian citizen or permanent resident sponsor necessary for eligibility in the Family Stream migration category;<sup>5</sup> while others may have a strong economic position on arrival in Australia, as they have arrived under the Skill Stream which focuses on the applicant's occupational skills, outstanding talents or business skills.<sup>5</sup> In contrast, those arriving under Australia's Humanitarian Program, including people in need of resettlement due to persecution or human rights violations,<sup>5</sup> may have relatively disadvantaged social and economic circumstances on arrival.

In 2001, there were 477,900 recently arrived migrants aged 18 years and over living in Australia. The largest group (17%) were those born in the Oceania region, which was primarily comprised of migrants from New Zealand (79%) who are free to come to Australia without a visa. The second most common birthplace groups were South-East Asia, North-East Asia, and North-West Europe, each comprising 16% of recently arrived migrants.

Recent arrivals to Australia have a younger age structure than the general Australian population. In 2001, the median age (for those aged 18 years and over) of recently arrived migrants was 32.3 years, compared with 43.8 years for the total population. The majority of recently arrived migrants to Australia live in the capital cities (86% in 2001, compared with 64% of the total population).

While recently arrived migrants have relatively disadvantaged circumstances in some areas of life, they also have positive circumstances relative to other groups in many areas.

### Principal source of household income — 2002



Source: ABS 2002 General Social Survey.

A relatively larger proportion lived in rented dwellings (58% compared with 25% of all adults). This may relate to the length of time they have been in Australia, and reflect shorter term housing choices rather than long-term outcomes. A higher proportion of recent arrivals experienced transport difficulties than the total adult population. Fewer had access to a motor vehicle (63% compared with 85% of the total population), and more had difficulties getting to the places they needed to (30% compared with 16% overall).

However, recently arrived migrants aged 18 years and over were more likely to have used a computer at home in the last 12 months (67%) compared with Australian adults generally (55%), and have non-school qualifications (66% compared with 50%). Relatively fewer assessed their health as fair or poor (8% compared to 16% of the total population) and fewer had a disability or long-term health condition (19% compared with 40%). These health differences may reflect both the younger age structure of recently arrived migrants, and the standard health criteria migrants have to meet as part of the migration process.

### Multivariate analysis

The patterns described above indicate that the social and economic circumstances of unemployed people, lone parents and recently arrived migrants differ from those of the total population. However, there are many complex, often interrelated factors which influence people's social and economic experiences and outcomes. As such, it is not always clear how much a given attribute (i.e. being unemployed, a lone parent, or a recently arrived migrant) relates to particular social or economic circumstances. Other characteristics, such as age and life stage, educational background or location may also be contributing to people's circumstances, to a greater or lesser extent. When other characteristics were accounted for through multivariate analysis, the attributes of being unemployed, a lone parent or a recently arrived migrant remained significantly associated with some social and economic circumstances, but not with others.

### ...unemployed people

In a range of areas of wellbeing, unemployed people were found to have disadvantaged circumstances compared with their employed counterparts, after controlling for other characteristics. For example, in the area of social attachment, unemployed people were more likely than employed people (other

### Multivariate analysis

Multivariate analysis assists in unravelling which particular characteristics are associated with specific social or economic circumstances. In particular, multivariate analysis highlights which characteristics have a significant association with specific circumstances after controlling for other characteristics. For example, older people often have poorer health outcomes than younger people, but there are a range of factors which may also contribute to older people's health apart from their age (e.g. incomes also tend to be lower among older people which may restrict access to services).

The multivariate analysis technique used in this article (maximum likelihood estimation of the probit model) takes into account a range of demographic and other characteristics likely to be related to people's social and economic circumstances, and models the probability of a particular outcome occurring. To present the results, the probability of the outcome occurring is calculated for a 'base case' scenario with particular characteristics, and then recalculated when one of the characteristics of the base case is exchanged with an attribute of interest. The difference between the two probabilities (referred to as the 'marginal effect') indicates what effect that attribute has on the likelihood of the particular outcome occurring. For example, the analysis shows whether unemployed people are more likely than employed people to have transport difficulties by estimating the probability for employed people then re-estimating the probability for unemployed people, keeping all the other modelled characteristics equal.

*The base case* used in this analysis included a range of characteristics representative of a large section of Australian society. These characteristics were those of a person who was: aged 35–54 years, female, born in Australia, living in a single family household, in a couple family with children with no other relatives present, in a major city, and in an area that is in the middle third Socio-Economic Indexes for Areas (SEIFA) category, employed, in the middle third income group, not paying rent or mortgage; and who had: finished year 12 but did not have a degree, self-assessed health status of good, very good or excellent, and no disability or long-term health condition. In some models, additional characteristics were included where these were considered to be important in explaining the particular outcome being modelled.

Only selected multivariate analysis results are presented in this article. A broader range of results, and full description of the analysis technique, are available in *Multivariate Analysis of the GSS* (ABS cat. no. 1351.0).

characteristics being equal) to experience transport difficulties, feel unable to ask others for small favours and feel that they had no support in a time of crisis.

In the area of financial stress, unemployment was associated with an increased likelihood of experiencing cash flow problems, being unable to raise money in an emergency and



having to reduce assets or increase debt in order to pay for basic living expenses. However, unemployment was not associated with a significant increase in the likelihood of reporting fair or poor health (after accounting for other characteristics such as age).

Compared with being employed, the outcomes for unemployed people were somewhat different to those of people not in the labour force. For example, although being unemployed was not associated with an increased likelihood of reporting fair or poor health, those not in the labour force were significantly more likely to assess their health in this way. Like unemployed people, those not in the labour force were more likely than employed people (other characteristics being equal) to experience the negative outcomes measured in relation to social attachment — such as having transport difficulties.

### ...lone parents

Compared with couples with children, lone parents were not significantly more likely to have negative social attachment outcomes, indicating that lone parents access networks outside their immediate family household to the same extent as couples with children. For example, lone parents were no more likely than couples with children (other characteristics being equal) to have transport difficulties, to feel unable to ask others for small favours or have no support in a time of crisis. Further, lone parents were less likely than couples with children to have less than weekly contact with family and friends.

However, lone parents had an increased likelihood of experiencing all three of the measured indicators of financial stress. That is, lone parents were more likely than couples with children, other characteristics being equal, to have experienced cash flow problems, felt unable to raise money in an emergency or needed to take a dissaving action to pay for basic living expenses.

## Population attributes: associations with selected areas of wellbeing — 2002

Area of wellbeing(a)	Unemployed	Lone parent(b)	Recently arrived migrant
	Marginal effect(c)	Marginal effect(d)	Marginal effect(e)
<b>Social attachment</b>			
Less than weekly contact with family and friends	—	-1.5	3.0
Unable to ask others for small favours	3.2	—	8.0
No support in a time of crisis(f)	2.3	—	7.0
Has transport difficulty	15.7	—	9.2
<b>Household financial stress</b>			
Experienced one or more cash flow problems in the past year	4.8	9.9	-8.3
Unable to raise \$2,000 in an emergency	7.2	10.4	—
Took a dissaving action in the past year(g)	6.6	6.0	-6.8
<b>Health</b>			
Self-assessed health status is fair or poor	—	—	-6.7
<b>Employment</b>			
Not in the labour force	n.a.	4.9	18.9
Unemployed	n.a.	4.1	4.8
Employed part-time	n.a.	—	14.9
Employed as casual(h)	n.a.	5.0	13.8

(a) The common attributes of the base case model are given in the box 'Multivariate analysis' on page 54 of this article. Additional characteristics have been included in the models for social attachment, financial stress, health and employment as relevant to that area. For more information see *Multivariate Analysis of the GSS* (ABS cat. no. 1351.0)

(b) Includes some non-dependent children of lone parents, aged 18 years and over. Sensitivity analysis indicates that the presence of these children does not influence the multivariate analysis results.

(c) Increased probability (in percentage points) of experiencing the given indicator, compared with employed people (other characteristics being equal). All the marginal effects presented are statistically significant at the 10% level. Comparisons can be made across the columns, but not between the areas of wellbeing (rows), due to different models underlying the results for each area.

(d) Increased probability (in percentage points) of experiencing the given indicator, compared with couples with dependent children (other characteristics being equal).

(e) Increased probability (in percentage points) of experiencing the given indicator, compared with Australian-born people (other characteristics being equal).

(f) Includes support from friends, family, neighbours, workplace, community and charity organisations, government services, health, legal and financial organisations.

(g) Reduced assets, or increased debt, to pay for basic living expenses.

(h) Employees without leave entitlements in their main job.

Source: ABS 2002 General Social Survey.

When other characteristics such as age and education were controlled for, lone parents were more likely than couples with children to not be in the labour force or to be unemployed. Among those who were employed, lone parents were more likely to be employed on a casual basis, but there was not a significant difference in their likelihood of being employed part-time.

In terms of health, after other characteristics were accounted for, lone parents were not significantly more likely than couples with children to assess their health as fair or poor.

### ...recently arrived migrants

Reflecting the diverse economic and social circumstances of migrants arriving in Australia, recently arrived migrants had an increased likelihood of disadvantage in some areas, but a decreased likelihood in other areas, after controlling for demographic and other characteristics. For example, while recently arrived migrants were more likely than their Australian-born counterparts to experience the negative circumstances measured in the area of social attachment, they were less likely to rate their health as fair or poor, even after controlling for age.

In the area of employment, recently arrived migrants were more likely than people born in Australia to be unemployed or not in the labour force (other characteristics being equal). Among those in employment, recently arrived migrants were more likely to be employed part-time or on a casual basis. The employment outcomes of other (non-recent) migrants were somewhat different, indicating that the length of time migrants have lived in Australia can influence their social and economic circumstances.

As with recent migrants, other migrants were more likely than Australian-born people (other characteristics being equal) to be unemployed or not be in the labour force. However, in contrast to recent migrants, other migrants were not significantly more likely to be employed part-time or on a casual basis.

### Endnotes

- 1 Department of Family and Community Services 2003, *Goals of Welfare Reform* <[http://www.facs.gov.au/internet/facsinternet.nsf/aboutfacs/programs/esp-welreform\\_goals.htm](http://www.facs.gov.au/internet/facsinternet.nsf/aboutfacs/programs/esp-welreform_goals.htm)>, accessed 27 January 2004.
- 2 Gregory, B and Sheehan, P 1998, 'Poverty and the Collapse of Full Employment' *Australian Poverty: Then and Now*. eds Fincher, R and Nieuwenhuysen, J, University Press, Melbourne.
- 3 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2004, *Australian Labour Market Statistics, January 2004*, cat. no. 6105.0, ABS, Canberra.
- 4 Department of Immigration and Multicultural and Indigenous Affairs 2003, *Fact Sheet 20. Migration Program Planning Levels* <<http://www.immi.gov.au/facts/20planning.htm>>, accessed 12 February 2004.
- 5 Department of Immigration and Multicultural and Indigenous Affairs, 2003, *Immigration Update, July–December 2002* <[http://www.immi.gov.au/facts/statistics/publications/immigration\\_update/update\\_dec02.pdf](http://www.immi.gov.au/facts/statistics/publications/immigration_update/update_dec02.pdf)>, accessed 12 February 2004.

### Recently arrived and other migrants: associations with employment outcomes — 2002

	Recently arrived migrant	Other migrant
	Marginal effect(a)	Marginal effect(a)
Not in the labour force	18.9	2.3
Unemployed	4.8	1.8
Employed part-time	14.9	—
Employed as casual(b)	13.8	—

(a) Increased probability (in percentage points) of experiencing the given indicator, compared with the base case model. The marginal effects presented are statistically significant at the 10% level.

(b) Employees without leave entitlements in their main job.

Source: ABS 2002 General Social Survey.

# Formal child care

## SERVICES AND ASSISTANCE

**In 2002, 45% of children aged 0–4 years and 13% of children aged 5–11 years spent some time in formal child care.**

Parents use child care for many reasons, such as to participate in employment and training, engage in community and personal activities, or provide additional developmental opportunities for their children through participation in preschool programs.<sup>1</sup> While the number of children spending some time in care has remained similar over the past decade (1.5 million children aged 0–11 years in both 1993 and 2002), the types of care used and the age of children involved have both changed over this period. Parents have increasingly used formal child care over informal care and the proportion of younger children (0–4 years) spending some time in care has increased.

Formal child care is regulated child care away from the child's home. All formal child care services are supported by the Australian Government and, as a condition of funding and regulation, must provide developmental activities, as well as care services for children.<sup>1</sup> Informal care is non-regulated and may be provided by friends and relatives, and other individuals such as paid baby-sitters.

Government funding on child care increased from \$0.7 billion in 1993 to \$1.6 billion in 2001–02.<sup>2</sup> In 2001, the Australian government funded 500,000 places, more than double the 208,000 places in 1993.<sup>1</sup>

This article focuses on the use of formal child care in 2002, and changes since the early 1990s, covering types of child care services used and parents' labour force participation. It will also examine requirements for additional care, including the type of care required and reasons additional care is needed.

### Formal child care

This article draws on data from the 1993 and 2002 *Child Care Surveys* (ABS cat. no. 4402.0). The article focuses on use of, and demand for, child care for children under 12 years of age. Data on costs of child care are the net costs paid by parents for a child to attend care (i.e. costs to parents after the Child Care Benefit has been deducted).

*Child care* refers to arrangements made for the care of children aged under 12 years. This does not include parental care or those occasions when the child is under someone else's care for other reasons, such as school or sporting activities.

*Formal care* is regulated child care away from the child's home and includes attendance at the following types of formal care:

*Long day care* is regulated, centre-based care which is available to children between birth and school age for the full or part day.

*Family day care* is offered in private homes by registered carers, available for a full or part day to children of all ages.

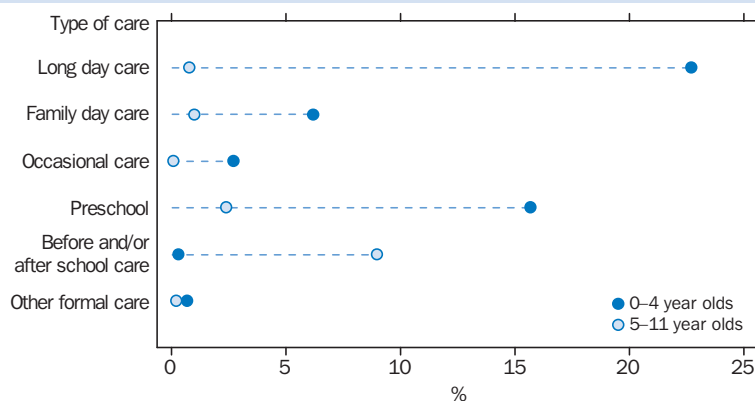
*Occasional care* is regulated care which is available to children between birth and school age for short periods of time, for example to allow parents to shop, attend appointments, or to take brief breaks from parenting.

*Preschool* includes educational and developmental programs for children in the year (or two years) before they begin full-time primary education.

*Before/after school care* is available to school-aged children before and/or after school hours.

*Other formal care* is formal care other than long day care, family day care, occasional care, preschool, and before and/or after school care.

### Children aged 0–11 years using formal care — 2002



Source: ABS 2002 Child Care Survey.

### Use of formal child care

Over the past decade, parents have increasingly used formal child care services. In 2002, one in four children aged less than 12 years spent some time in formal child care (787,400), an increase from one in five children in 1993.

While more children attended formal child care in 2002 than in 1993, the amount of time children spent in formal care was similar. In both 2002 and 1993, 44% of children in formal care received less than 10 hours per week of care, with a further 34% receiving 10–19 hours. A relatively small proportion of children in formal care (9%) received 30 hours or more care per week in 2002, down from 12% in 1993. The median weekly hours of formal care in 2002, was 12 hours. Hours of

### Children aged 0–11 years using formal care, by labour force status of parents — 2002

Age of children	Couple families				One-parent families			Total
	Both parents employed	One parent employed	Neither parent employed	All couple families(a)	Parent employed	Parent not employed	All one-parent families	
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
0–4 years	57.3	32.2	33.7	43.3	75.4	40.5	50.7	44.5
5–11 years	16.0	6.8	4.1	11.8	26.0	7.1	15.7	12.6
<b>All children aged 0–11 years using formal care</b>	<b>30.4</b>	<b>19.4</b>	<b>17.1</b>	<b>25.0</b>	<b>37.8</b>	<b>20.1</b>	<b>27.2</b>	<b>25.4</b>
	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000
0–4 years	253.8	163.3	27.4	452.9	43.3	56.2	99.5	552.4
5–11 years	131.0	35.3	4.2	172.7	47.0	15.3	62.3	235.0
<b>All children aged 0–11 years using formal care</b>	<b>384.7</b>	<b>198.6</b>	<b>31.6</b>	<b>625.6</b>	<b>90.3</b>	<b>71.5</b>	<b>161.8</b>	<b>787.4</b>

(a) Includes an estimate where one parent was out of scope.

Source: ABS 2002 Child Care Survey.

care were higher for children in long day care (a median of 16 hours per week) than for children in before/after school care (4 hours).

The rate of use of formal care was higher for young children. In 2002, less than half (45%) of all children aged 0–4 years spent some time in formal care, up from 34% in 1993. This dropped to 13% of 5–11 year olds (9% in 1993). Very young children had the lowest rates of child care use, with 7% of children aged less than one year spending some time in formal care. Between the ages of one and four years, the use of formal care increased rapidly to almost three-quarters of children aged 3–4 years (73%). The high use of formal care among three and four year olds partly reflects preschool attendance (see *Australian Social Trends 2004*, Attending preschool, pp. 98–100.)

#### ...type of formal care used

The types of formal child care services used by young children were different to those used by older children. Among 0–4 year olds, the most commonly used formal care services in 2002 were long day care (23% of children aged 0–4 years), preschool (16%), and family day care (6%). For 5–11 year olds, before/after school care (9%) was the most common.

While there has been increased use of most types of formal care services since the early 1990s, long day care and before/after school care have experienced the highest growth. The proportion of 0–4 year olds spending some time in long day care doubled from 11% in 1993 to 23% in 2002. Over the same

period, the proportion of 5–11 year olds in before/after school care almost doubled (from 5% to 9%).

#### ...family type

The use of formal care was more common for children from one-parent families than for children from couple families. In 2002, 51% of 0–4 year olds and 16% of 5–11 year olds from one-parent families spent some time in formal care. In couple families, 43% of children aged 0–4 years and 12% of 5–11 year olds used formal care.

The proportions of children using formal care from both one and couple parent families have increased since the early 1990s. In 1993, 23% of children aged 0–11 years from one-parent families and 19% of children from couple parent families spent some time in formal care. In 2002, these proportions had increased to 27% and 25% respectively.

#### ...working parents

One of the main reasons parents use child care is to participate in the work force.<sup>1</sup> In 2002, use of formal care was more common for children with employed parents. For couple families, 30% of children aged 0–11 years with both parents employed spent some time in formal care, compared to 19% of children with one parent employed, and 17% of children with neither parent employed. In one-parent families, the rate of use was higher — 38% of children aged 0–11 years whose parent was employed, and 20% of children whose parent was not employed, spent some time in formal care.

Overall, half the children aged less than 12 years using child care did so because of their parents' work commitments. Work related reasons accounted for 84% of children whose formal care included before and after school care programs; 60% of those attending family day care; and 55% of children attending long day care.

### ...cost of formal care

The Child Care Benefit, introduced in July 2000, assists parents in paying for care regardless of income — all families receive some assistance, with a maximum rate paid to those on low income. This benefit may have encouraged parents to access formal care services because of the reimbursement offered, often paid directly to the child care service providers.<sup>3</sup>

The cost of formal child care varies according to the hours of use and type of service used. In 2002, the median weekly cost of formal care ranged from \$9 for care of less than five hours to \$105 for care of 45 hours or more a week. Long day care and family day care had the highest median weekly costs, \$38 and \$21 per week respectively.

### Preferences for using more formal care

There are a range of reasons for parents wanting to use more formal child care for their children. Some parents require additional formal care to enable them to participate in employment and training, while other parents require care to engage in community or personal activities. Not all may need additional formal care on a regular, longer term basis. Some parents may need additional care on an occasional, ad hoc basis to cover unexpected or irregular commitments.

### Child Care Benefit

- ◆ The Child Care Benefit (CCB), introduced from 1 July 2000, is an Australian Government funded payment for families who use approved and registered child care.
- ◆ The Australian Government has provided funding for child care since the 1970s. The CCB replaced the Child Care Assistance and the Child Care Rebate subsidies with a more generous payment which is simpler to calculate and administer.
- ◆ In June 2002, the CCB was claimed by parents on behalf of 570,500 children attending formal care — 48,100 being paid directly to parents and the rest being paid to the provider of care.
- ◆ Around 189,400 parents did not claim the benefit for formal care — the two main reasons given were lack of awareness and the carer or centre not being eligible.

### Maximum benefit per child(a) — 2002

Number of children	Per week	Per hour
	\$	\$
1	133.00	2.66
2	278.00	2.78
3	433.91	2.89

(a) The minimum rate was \$0.45/hr per child.

Source: Department of Family and Community Services, A guide to Commonwealth Government payments, 1 July – 19 September 2002.

In 2002, there were 109,600 children who were not receiving any formal child care and whose parents wanted to use some formal care, and an additional 64,800 children who were already receiving some formal care and whose parents wanted to use more care. The numbers of children in these situations have decreased since 1993, from 188,600 and 125,400 children respectively.

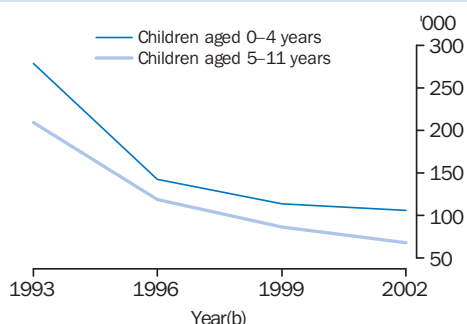
### Preference for using more formal care for children aged 0–11 years(a) — 2002

	0–4 years	5–11 years	Total
	'000	'000	'000
Receiving some formal care	552.4	235.0	787.4
Wanting more formal care	50.0	14.8	64.8
Not using any formal care	689.8	1 622.8	2 312.6
Wanting some formal care	56.3	53.2	109.5
<b>Total number of children whose parents want to use more formal care</b>	<b>106.4</b>	<b>68.0</b>	<b>174.5</b>
<b>Total number of children</b>	<b>1 242.2</b>	<b>1 857.8</b>	<b>3 100.0</b>

(a) Children whose parents wanted to use (more) formal care in the month before interview.

Source: ABS 2002 Child Care Survey.

### Preference for using more formal care for children aged 0–11 years(a)



(a) Children whose parents wanted to use more formal care in the month before interview.  
 (b) Surveys conducted 3-yearly from 1993.

Source: ABS 2002 Child Care Survey.

In 2002, parents wanted more formal care for 106,400 children aged 0–4 years. Long day care was the main type of care wanted for 40% of these children, followed by occasional care (28%) and family day care (23%). For older children aged 5–11 years, parents wanted more formal care for 68,000 children. Before/after school care was the main type of care wanted for 67% of these children.

Work related reasons such as attending or looking for work, and study or training were the most common reasons given by parents wanting to use more formal care. They were identified for almost half (47%) of children aged 0–11 years whose parents wanted more formal care. Other reasons were personal such as shopping, sport, entertainment, or visiting the doctor or dentist (for 35% of children), and the view that care was beneficial and helped prepare the child for school (16%). In 1993, 38% of children for whom more care was preferred had parents who gave work related reasons for wanting additional care.

The most common reason given by parents wanting more formal care for not using more care was that centres were booked out or no places were available. This was identified for over a third (35%) of children aged 0–11 years whose parents wanted more formal care. Other reasons included formal care being too expensive (17%) and formal care not existing in the area (12%).

### Flexible working arrangements

Flexible working arrangements provide parents with more options to balance work and family responsibilities. These arrangements include flexible working hours, permanent part-time work, home-based work and job sharing. In 2002, of families with at

### Growth of the child care industry

Child care services provide care and developmental activities for children. The Commonwealth Department of Family and Community Services (FaCS) supports the provision of formal child care services through Child Care Support.

For each service, *child care places* are the total number of children who could use the service at any one time during the hours of operation.

Between 1993 to 2001 the number of child care services doubled (from 5,000 to 10,100) while the total number of Australian Government-supported child care places increased by 140% (from 208,000 to 500,000). The number of child care places is lower than the number of children using child care services since some children attend part-time.

### Growth in the number of child care services and places

	1993	2001
	no.	no.
Services	5 029	10 050
Places	207 973	500 034

Source: AIHW, *Australia's Welfare*, 2003.

least one parent employed, 56% used such work arrangements to assist them to care for their children. Most popular were flexible working hours (35%) and permanent part-time work (24%).

In 2002, 70% of employed mothers utilised work arrangements to help them care for their children, an increase of two percentage points since 1993. Less than a third (30%) of employed fathers used work arrangements to help them care for their children in 2002, but this was an increase of six percentage points compared with employed fathers in 1993.

### Endnotes

- 1 Australian Institute of Health and Welfare 2003, *Australia's Welfare 2003*, AIHW, Canberra.
- 2 Department of Family and Community Services annual report 2002–03, <[http://www.facs.gov.au/internet/facsinternet.nsf/via/paes2003/\\$File/outcome1\\_stronger\\_families.pdf](http://www.facs.gov.au/internet/facsinternet.nsf/via/paes2003/$File/outcome1_stronger_families.pdf)>, accessed 25 March 2004.
- 3 Department of Family and Community Services 2002, *2002 Census of Child Care Services*.

# Health

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	Page
<b>National and state summary tables.....</b>	<b>62</b>
<b>Health data sources and definitions.....</b>	<b>66</b>

## MORTALITY AND MORBIDITY

<b>Living with asthma.....</b>	<b>69</b>
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In 2001, 12% of the Australian population reported they had current asthma. Asthma was more prevalent among children and young adults aged 0–19 years (14%) than among people aged 20 years and over (11%). This article discusses the impact of asthma on adults and children, including asthma management, medication, hospitalisation and quality of life issues.

<b>Cancer trends.....</b>	<b>72</b>
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Since 1985 there has been an increase in the incidence of cancer among the Australian population, from 392 new cases of cancer diagnosed per 100,000 population in 1985, to 451 in 2000. Despite this increase, there has been a decline in death rates, from 215 deaths per 100,000 population in 1985, to 188 in 2002. This article discusses trends in the incidence, mortality and survival rates for a range of cancers.

## HEALTH RELATED ACTIONS

<b>How women care for their health.....</b>	<b>77</b>
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In 2001, half of women aged 40 years and over reported having a mammogram every 2 years, and two-thirds of women aged 18–69 years reported having a Pap smear test at least once every two years. This article discusses women's health related behaviours such as breast cancer screening, Pap smear testing, and use of protective contraception. It also reports on lifestyle factors such as exercise, smoking, and fruit and vegetable intake.

# Health: national summary

<b>HEALTH STATUS</b>		Units	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
<b>Life expectancy</b>													
1	Life expectancy at birth – males(a)	years	75.0	75.0	r75.5	r75.5	75.6	75.9	76.2	76.6	77.0	77.4	n.y.a.
2	Life expectancy at birth – females(a)	years	80.9	80.9	r81.1	r81.3	81.3	81.5	81.8	82.0	82.4	82.6	n.y.a.
3	Life expectancy at age 65 – males(a)	years	15.7	15.7	r16.0	r16.0	16.1	16.3	16.6	16.9	17.2	17.4	n.y.a.
4	Life expectancy at age 65 – females(a)	years	19.5	r19.5	r19.7	r19.8	19.8	20.0	20.2	20.4	20.7	20.8	n.y.a.
5	Disability-free life expectancy at birth – males	years	58.4	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	57.5	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.y.a.
6	Disability-free life expectancy at birth – females	years	64.2	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	63.3	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.y.a.
7	Males surviving to age 50 years	%	93.7	93.8	r93.8	r93.8	93.8	93.9	93.9	94.0	94.2	94.4	n.y.a.
8	Females surviving to age 50	%	96.6	r96.7	r96.7	r96.8	96.7	96.7	96.7	96.7	96.9	96.9	n.y.a.
9	Males surviving to age 70	%	72.5	72.9	r73.7	r74.2	r74.1	74.7	75.5	76.3	77.3	78.1	n.y.a.
10	Females surviving to age 70	%	r84.3	r84.5	r84.8	r85.1	r85.0	85.2	85.7	86.1	86.6	86.8	n.y.a.
11	Males surviving to age 85	%	r25.8	25.5	r27.3	r27.4	28.0	28.6	29.9	31.2	32.9	34.0	n.y.a.
12	Females surviving to age 85	%	r45.4	r45.2	r46.5	r47.0	47.0	47.8	48.9	50.2	51.6	52.2	n.y.a.
<b>Mortality(b)</b>													
13	Total number of deaths	'000	121.6	126.7	125.1	128.7	129.4	127.2	128.1	128.3	128.9	133.7	n.y.a.
14	Standardised death rate (per 1,000 population)	rate	r8.0	r8.1	r7.8	r7.8	r7.6	r7.2	r7.1	r6.8	r6.6	6.7	n.y.a.
15	Infant mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)	rate	6.1	5.9	5.7	5.8	5.3	5.0	5.7	5.2	5.3	5.0	n.y.a.
16	Perinatal mortality rate (per 1,000 live births and fetal deaths combined)	rate	9.2	9.1	9.4	10.0	9.2	8.3	8.5	8.3	8.4	8.0	n.y.a.
<b>Disability(c)(d)</b>													
17	Persons with a disability	%	17.2	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	18.8	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.y.a.
18	Persons with a profound/severe core activity restriction	%	4.0	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	5.5	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.y.a.
<b>CAUSES OF DEATH</b>		Units	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
<i>Rates are per 100,000 population(b)</i>													
<b>Leading causes(c)</b>													
19	Cancer	rate	r209	r209	r205	r205	r199	r196	r191	r189	r189	188	n.y.a.
20	Ischaemic heart disease	rate	r200	r200	r187	r182	r175	r162	r153	r142	r135	130	n.y.a.
21	Stroke	rate	r84	r86	r82	r80	r75	r71	r69	r66	r63	62	n.y.a.
<b>Selected cancers(c)</b>													
22	Lung cancer – males	rate	r65	r67	r64	r63	r59	r59	r57	r55	r54	53	n.y.a.
23	Lung cancer – females	rate	r21	r21	r22	r22	r22	r21	r21	r22	r23	24	n.y.a.
24	Breast cancer – females	rate	r31	r31	r29	r29	r28	r27	r25	r25	r25	25	n.y.a.
25	Prostate cancer – males	rate	r44	r43	r41	r42	r37	r37	r35	r36	r35	35	n.y.a.
26	Skin cancer	rate	r8	r8	r8	r8	r7	r7	r7	r7	r8	7	n.y.a.
<b>Heart disease and diabetes(c)</b>													
27	Ischaemic heart disease – males	rate	r264	r262	r248	r240	r229	r214	r202	r185	r176	170	n.y.a.
28	Ischaemic heart disease – females	rate	r150	r152	r141	r136	r132	r122	r115	r108	r102	98	n.y.a.
29	Diabetes mellitus	rate	r17	r18	r17	r18	r18	r16	r16	r16	r16	17	n.y.a.
<b>Motor vehicle accidents</b>													
30	Motor vehicle traffic accident(c)	rate	11	11	11	11	r9	9	9	9	9	8	n.y.a.
31	Males aged 15–24 years	rate	33	31	33	32	28	27	27	28	27	24	n.y.a.
32	Females aged 15–24	rate	10	10	11	8	10	9	9	10	7	8	n.y.a.
<b>Suicide</b>													
33	Suicide(c)	rate	12	13	13	13	15	14	13	12	13	12	n.y.a.
34	Males(c)	rate	r20	21	21	r22	r24	23	r22	20	20	19	n.y.a.
35	Females(c)	rate	4	5	r6	5	6	6	5	5	5	5	n.y.a.
36	Males aged 15–24 years	rate	25	27	25	26	31	27	23	20	20	19	n.y.a.
37	Females aged 15–24	rate	4	4	6	4	7	6	6	6	5	4	n.y.a.
<b>Drug induced(c)</b>													
38	Drug induced	rate	5	6	r6	6	7	9	9	8	5	5	n.y.a.
39	Males	rate	6	r7	9	r8	10	r12	r13	r11	7	6	n.y.a.
40	Females	rate	3	4	4	4	4	5	5	5	4	4	n.y.a.



# Health: national summary continued

<b>RISK FACTORS</b>		Units	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
<b>Immunisation status(e)</b>													
41	Fully immunised children aged 12–15 months	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	78.6	86.1	88.4	91.5	90.2	91.0
42	Fully immunised children aged 24–27 months	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	81.7	86.6	88.1	91.6
43	Fully immunised children aged 72–75 months	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	80.6	83.7
<b>Drinking and smoking(f)</b>													
44	Risky/high-risk drinkers – of males aged 18 years and over	%	n.a.	n.a.	10.3	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	13.2	n.a.	n.a.
45	Risky/high-risk drinkers – of females aged 18 and over	%	n.a.	n.a.	6.1	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	8.5	n.a.	n.a.
46	Current smokers – of males aged 18 and over	%	n.a.	n.a.	28.5	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	27.3	n.a.	n.a.
47	Current smokers – of females aged 18 and over	%	n.a.	n.a.	21.8	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	21.4	n.a.	n.a.
<b>Diet and exercise(f)</b>													
48	Overweight/obese adults – of males aged 18 years and over	%	n.a.	n.a.	49.0	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	54.4	n.a.	n.a.
49	Overweight/obese adults – of females aged 18 and over	%	n.a.	n.a.	32.5	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	38.2	n.a.	n.a.
50	Adults with low usual intake of fruit – of males aged 18 and over	%	n.a.	n.a.	53.2	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	53.5	n.a.	n.a.
51	Adults with low usual intake of fruit – of females aged 18 and over	%	n.a.	n.a.	44.7	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	41.9	n.a.	n.a.
52	Adults who are physically inactive – of males aged 18 and over	%	n.a.	n.a.	35.0	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	30.9	n.a.	n.a.
53	Adults who are physically inactive – of females aged 18 and over	%	n.a.	n.a.	35.2	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	32.0	n.a.	n.a.
<b>High blood pressure(f)</b>													
54	Hypertension – of males aged 18 years and over	%	n.a.	n.a.	13.9	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	12.8	n.a.	n.a.
55	Hypertension – of females aged 18 and over	%	n.a.	n.a.	14.5	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	13.9	n.a.	n.a.
<b>SERVICES</b>		Units	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
56	Hospital separations (per 1,000 population)	rate	247	r267	r279	r291	r296	r304	r309	r312	r319	324	n.y.a.
57	Hospital beds (per 1,000 population)	no.	4.4	4.2	4.5	4.6	4.4	4.3	4.2	4.1	4.1	4.0	n.y.a.
58	Average length of stay in hospital	days	4.8	r4.6	4.3	4.3	4.2	4.1	3.9	r3.8	3.7	3.6	n.y.a.
59	Doctors (per 100,000 population)	no.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	241	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	248	n.a.	n.a.
60	Residential aged care places (per 1,000 population aged 70 and over)	no.	93.1	92.6	92.2	90.6	r89.2	r87.1	r85.6	r83.6	r82.2	81.6	n.y.a.
<b>Medicare usage</b>													
Average Medicare services processed(g)													
61	Per person	no.	r10.1	r10.4	r10.7	r11.0	r11.0	r11.0	r11.1	r11.1	r11.1	11.3	11.1
62	Per male	no.	r8.2	r8.6	r8.8	r9.1	r9.1	r9.2	r9.2	r9.2	r9.3	9.4	9.3
63	Per female	no.	r11.9	r12.2	r12.6	r12.8	r12.8	r12.8	r12.9	r12.9	r12.9	13.1	12.9
64	Proportion of Medicare services used by persons aged 65 and over	%	21.4	22.0	22.5	23.0	23.6	24.2	24.6	25.3	25.8	27.4	27.4
<b>EXPENDITURE</b>		Units	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
65	Persons with private health insurance	%	39.4	37.2	34.9	33.6	31.9	r30.6	30.6	43.0	r44.9	44.3	43.5
66	Total health expenditure per person per year (1999–2000 reference year)	\$	1 996	2 082	2 183	2 313	2 453	2 596	2 743	2 922	3 153	3 397	n.y.a.
67	Total health expenditure as a proportion of GDP	%	8.2	8.3	8.3	8.4	8.5	8.6	8.7	8.8	9.0	9.3	n.y.a.

(a) For 1992–1996 data, expectation of life was based on annual life tables (statistical models used to represent mortality of a population; for more information, see *Deaths, Australia*, (cat. no. 3302.0)). From 1997, expectation of life has been calculated using data for the three years ending in the year shown in the table heading.

(b) Based on deaths registered during the year.

(c) Rates are age-standardised to the 2001 Australian population.

(d) Adjusted to a common basis for the two disability surveys of 1993 and 1998. As a result, the national estimate for 1998 is not the same as that shown in the State summary table.

(e) As a proportion of all children in that age group on the Australian Childhood Immunisation Register.

(f) Age-standardised to the 2001 National Health Survey benchmark population.

(g) Average number of services processed per Australian resident.

Reference periods: Data for indicators 1–12 are calculated using data for the three years ending in the year shown in the table heading from 1997 onwards.

Data for indicators 13–40 are for the calendar year.

Data for indicators 41–43 are at 31 December for 2003 and at 30 June for 1998–2002.

Data for indicators 44–55 are according to the reference period for the most recent National Health Survey.

Data for indicators 56–58, 60–64 and 66–67 are for the financial year.

Data for indicator 59 are at August.

Data for indicator 65 are at the June quarter of each year.

# Health: state summary

<b>HEALTH STATUS</b>		Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
<b>Life expectancy</b>												
1	Life expectancy at birth – males	years	2000–2002	77.3	77.8	77.2	77.3	77.9	76.5	71.3	79.2	77.4
2	Life expectancy at birth – females	years	2000–2002	82.6	82.8	82.4	82.6	82.9	81.3	76.7	83.3	82.6
3	Males surviving to age 50 years	%	2000–2002	94.5	94.9	94.2	94.4	94.6	94.3	87.7	95.5	94.4
4	Females surviving to age 50	%	2000–2002	97.1	97.1	96.8	96.9	96.9	96.6	92.5	97.7	96.9
5	Males surviving to age 70	%	2000–2002	77.8	79.1	77.4	78.0	79.2	76.2	64.3	82.3	78.1
6	Females surviving to age 70	%	2000–2002	86.8	87.3	86.7	86.7	87.2	84.3	74.6	88.6	86.8
7	Males surviving to age 85	%	2000–2002	33.5	34.8	34.1	33.4	35.4	30.7	23.0	38.9	34.0
8	Females surviving to age 85	%	2000–2002	52.0	52.8	51.9	52.3	53.7	47.5	36.8	52.8	52.2
<b>Mortality(a)</b>												
9	Total number of deaths	'000	2002	46.4	33.8	24.0	12.0	11.3	4.0	0.9	1.4	133.7
10	Standardised death rate (per 1,000 population)	rate	2002	6.6	6.6	6.8	6.7	6.4	7.6	9.0	5.9	6.7
11	Infant mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)	rate	2002	4.6	5.0	5.8	5.1	4.3	6.2	11.3	3.4	5.0
12	Perinatal mortality rate (per 1,000 live births and fetal deaths combined)	rate	2002	7.2	8.3	8.8	8.3	7.1	12.9	10.4	5.6	8.0
<b>Morbidity and disability prevalence</b>												
13	Cancer(b)	%	2001	1.4	1.3	1.7	1.2	1.2	1.0	n.a.	1.7	1.4
14	Ischaemic and other heart disease(b)	%	2001	1.6	2.1	2.5	1.8	1.5	2.2	n.a.	2.2	1.9
15	Diabetes(b)	%	2001	2.9	3.1	2.8	2.9	2.7	2.1	n.a.	3.1	2.9
16	Asthma(b)	%	2001	11.1	12.1	12.0	12.6	10.5	11.7	n.a.	12.3	11.6
17	Injury(b)	%	2001	3.7	3.4	4.2	3.3	2.8	4.8	n.a.	4.4	3.7
18	High/very high levels of psychological distress – aged 18 and over(b)	%	2001	12.9	12.9	11.8	14.2	11.1	13.9	n.a.	9.2	12.6
19	Arthritis(b)	%	2001	13.9	12.9	14.1	12.9	13.5	18.7	n.a.	11.8	13.6
20	Persons with a disability(c)(d)	%	1998	19.3	18.0	19.9	22.4	19.5	22.3	13.3	17.2	19.3
21	Persons with a profound/severe core activity restriction(c)(d)	%	1998	6.0	5.7	6.8	5.9	5.9	7.3	6.6	6.7	6.1
<b>CAUSES OF DEATH</b>		Units	Years(e)	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
<i>Rates are per 100,000 population</i>												
<b>Leading causes(d)</b>												
22	Cancer	rate	2000–2002	185	192	191	189	186	216	210	176	189
23	Ischaemic heart disease	rate	2000–2002	136	126	150	140	122	147	159	117	135
24	Stroke	rate	2000–2002	68	58	66	61	54	70	59	62	64
<b>Selected cancers(d)</b>												
25	Lung cancer – males	rate	2000–2002	53	52	57	52	58	62	76	34	54
26	Lung cancer – females	rate	2000–2002	22	23	23	21	24	32	32	19	23
27	Breast cancer – females	rate	2000–2002	24	26	24	28	24	27	20	27	25
28	Prostate cancer – males	rate	2000–2002	35	37	37	36	30	43	24	33	36
29	Skin cancer	rate	2000–2002	8	6	9	6	8	7	8	6	7
<b>Heart disease and diabetes(d)</b>												
30	Ischaemic heart disease – males	rate	2000–2002	177	167	189	188	161	188	190	144	176
31	Ischaemic heart disease – females	rate	2000–2002	103	95	118	103	92	113	119	93	103
32	Diabetes mellitus	rate	2000–2002	13	20	16	16	18	18	49	13	16
<b>Motor vehicle accidents</b>												
33	Motor vehicle traffic accident(d)	rate	2000–2002	8	8	9	10	10	9	23	5	9
34	Males aged 15–24	rate	2000–2002	25	24	27	29	33	28	54	12	26
35	Females aged 15–24	rate	2000–2002	7	8	9	8	11	9	32	5	8
<b>Suicide</b>												
36	Suicide(d)	rate	2000–2002	11	11	15	13	14	13	23	10	12
37	Males(d)	rate	2000–2002	18	17	24	21	21	22	38	17	20
38	Females(d)	rate	2000–2002	5	5	6	5	6	5	6	4	5
39	Males aged 15–24	rate	2000–2002	17	15	26	23	26	20	46	13	20
40	Females aged 15–24	rate	2000–2002	4	5	6	3	7	7	16	5	5
<b>Drug induced(d)</b>												
41	Drug induced	rate	2000–2002	6	7	6	6	6	5	6	5	6
42	Males	rate	2000–2002	9	9	7	7	7	6	8	6	8
43	Females	rate	2000–2002	4	5	4	4	5	4	3	4	4

# Health: state summary continued

<b>RISK FACTORS</b>		Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
<b>Immunisation status(f)</b>												
44	Fully immunised children aged 12–15 months	%	2003	91.0	91.7	91.3	91.6	89.1	91.7	85.5	88.3	91.0
45	Fully immunised children aged 24–27 months	%	2003	90.8	92.1	92.5	92.9	89.8	94.4	93.6	89.0	91.6
46	Fully immunised children aged 72–75 months	%	2003	82.9	86.2	83.6	83.6	80.2	85.0	82.4	84.7	83.7
<b>Drinking and smoking(b)</b>												
47	Risky/high-risk drinkers – of males aged 18 and over	%	2001	13.1	10.9	15.8	14.0	13.9	12.8	n.a.	14.1	13.2
48	Risky/high-risk drinkers – of females aged 18 and over	%	2001	8.6	7.7	8.1	8.0	11.1	7.0	n.a.	9.3	8.5
49	Current smokers – of males aged 18 and over	%	2001	27.2	27.7	30.5	28.2	24.8	25.0	n.a.	20.9	27.3
50	Current smokers – of females aged 18 and over	%	2001	21.3	20.6	20.7	21.4	21.5	23.7	n.a.	19.0	21.4
<b>Diet and exercise(b)</b>												
51	Overweight/obese adults – of males aged 18 and over	%	2001	54.5	54.4	55.8	51.9	55.0	54.2	n.a.	51.9	54.4
52	Overweight/obese adults – of females aged 18 and over	%	2001	37.6	37.9	41.3	38.1	36.2	36.6	n.a.	32.6	38.2
53	Adults with low usual intake of fruit – of males aged 18 and over	%	2001	53.9	54.2	50.3	62.2	50.1	56.2	n.a.	50.6	53.5
54	Adults with low usual intake of fruit – of females aged 18 and over	%	2001	43.8	39.7	39.6	43.4	40.8	43.8	n.a.	40.9	41.9
55	Adults who are physically inactive – of males aged 18 and over	%	2001	32.8	28.2	31.2	31.7	28.8	31.9	n.a.	24.0	30.9
56	Adults who are physically inactive – of females aged 18 and over	%	2001	36.1	28.8	33.0	32.4	28.1	32.0	n.a.	24.2	32.0
<b>High blood pressure(b)</b>												
57	Hypertension – of males aged 18 and over	%	2001	12.7	11.9	11.8	12.6	12.9	16.0	n.a.	16.2	12.8
58	Hypertension – of females aged 18 and over	%	2001	14.3	14.2	15.6	14.0	13.1	16.0	n.a.	12.0	13.9
<b>SERVICES</b>		Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
59	Hospital separations (per 1,000 population)	rate	2001–02	285	341	358	334	353	313	394	310	324
60	Hospital beds (per 1,000 population)	no.	2001–02	3.8	3.7	4.4	5.0	4.4	4.5	3.4	3.3	4.0
61	Average length of stay in hospital	days	2001–02	4.0	3.5	3.4	3.9	3.4	3.9	3.2	3.4	3.6
62	Doctors (per 100,000 population)	no.	2001	251	252	234	276	232	235	253	287	248
63	Residential aged care places (per 1,000 population aged 70 and over)	no.	2001–02	81.0	78.5	85.9	83.7	82.8	82.3	103.3	76.1	81.6
<b>Medicare usage</b>												
Average Medicare services processed(h)												
64	Per person	no.	2002–03	11.8	11.2	10.9	10.8	10.3	10.2	7.4	9.6	11.1
65	Per male	no.	2002–03	10.0	9.4	9.0	9.0	8.4	8.2	5.9	7.8	9.3
66	Per female	no.	2002–03	13.5	12.9	12.8	12.5	12.3	12.0	9.1	11.3	12.9
67	Proportion of Medicare services used by persons aged 65 and over	%	2002–03	27.7	28.3	26.1	30.6	24.9	28.6	9.9	21.2	27.4
<b>EXPENDITURE</b>		Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
68	Persons with private health insurance	%	2003	44.6	43.0	40.7	44.5	46.1	43.2	32.4	(g)	43.5

(a) Based on deaths registered during the year.

(b) Rates are age standardised to the 2001 National Health Survey benchmark population.

(c) Disability estimates for Northern Territory relate to mainly urban areas only.

(d) Rates are age-standardised to the 2001 Australian population.

(e) 1995–2001 data are calculated using the average of three years of data and the final year is shown. Other years report the reference year only.

(f) As a proportion of all children in that age group on the Australian Childhood Immunisation Register.

(g) The Australian Capital Territory is included in New South Wales.

(h) Average number of services processed per Australian resident.

Reference periods: Data for indicators 1–8 are calculated using the average of three years of data.

Data for indicators 9–21 are for the calendar year.

Data for indicators 22–43 are calculated using the average of three years of deaths data, divided by the population of the middle year.

Data for indicators 44–46 are at 31 December.

Data for indicators 47–58 are according to the reference period for the most recent National Health Survey.

Data for indicators 59–61 and 63–67 are for the financial year.

Data for indicator 62 are at August.

Data for indicator 68 are for the June quarter.

# Health: data sources

DATA SOURCE	Indicators using this source	
	National indicators	State indicators
ABS 1995 National Health Survey; ABS 2001 National Health Survey.	44–47, 50–55	–
ABS 1995 National Nutrition Survey; ABS 2001 National Health Survey.	48–49	–
ABS 1998 Survey of Disability, Ageing and Carers.	5–6	–
ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing and <i>Australian Demographic Statistics, September Quarter 2003</i> (ABS cat. no. 3101.0).	59	62
ABS 2001 National Health Survey.	–	13–19, 47–58
ABS Causes of Death Collection.	19–40	22–43
Australian Childhood Immunisation Register < <a href="http://www.hic.gov.au/providers/health_statistics/statistical_reporting/acir.htm">http://www.hic.gov.au/providers/health_statistics/statistical_reporting/acir.htm</a> >, accessed 12 March 2004.	41–43	44–46
Australian Institute of Health and Welfare (AIHW), <i>Australian Hospital Statistics 2001–2002</i> , (AIHW Cat. No. HSE-25).	56–58	59–61
AIHW, <i>Health Expenditure Australia 2001–2002</i> , (AIHW Cat. No. HWE-24).	66–67	–
AIHW, <i>Residential Aged Care in Australia 2001–2002: A Statistical Overview</i> , (AIHW Cat. No. AGE-29).	60	63
<i>Deaths, Australia</i> (ABS cat. no. 3302.0).	1–4, 7–16	1–12
<i>Disability, Ageing and Carers, Australia: Summary of Findings, 1998</i> (ABS cat. no. 4430.0).	17–18	20–21
Department of Health and Ageing	61–64	64–67
Private Health Insurance Administration Council 2003 < <a href="http://www.phiac.gov.au/statistics/membershipcoverage/hosyear.htm">http://www.phiac.gov.au/statistics/membershipcoverage/hosyear.htm</a> >, accessed 4 February 2004.	65	68

## Health: definitions

### Arthritis (prevalence)

based on people reporting arthritis as a current and long-term condition (lasting or expecting to last six months or more), including osteoarthritis, rheumatoid arthritis, other arthritis and arthritis type unknown.

Reference: *National Health Survey: Summary of Results, 2001* (ABS cat. no. 4364.0).

### Asthma (prevalence)

based on people reporting asthma as a recent condition (within two weeks) or a long-term condition (lasting or expecting to last six months or more).

Reference: *National Health Survey: Summary of Results, 2001* (ABS cat. no. 4364.0).

### Average length of stay in hospital

the total number of occupied bed days in both public and private hospitals divided by the total number of separations.

Reference: *Australian Hospital Statistics, 2000–01*, Australian Institute of Health and Welfare (AIHW).

### Average Medicare services processed

average number of services processed per Australian resident per year. Reference: Health Insurance Commission, *Financial Statements and Statistical Tables, 2001–02*.

### Breast cancer deaths

deaths where malignant neoplasm of the female breast is identified as the underlying cause (ICD-9 code 174 up to 1996, ICD-10 code C50 from 1997 and onwards).

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

### Cancer (prevalence)

based on people reporting a malignant neoplasm (cancer) as a long-term condition (lasting or expecting to last six months or more).

Reference: *National Health Survey: Summary of Results, 2001* (ABS cat. no. 4364.0).

### Cancer deaths

deaths where malignant neoplasms are identified as the underlying cause (ICD-9 codes 140–208 up to 1996, ICD-10 codes C00–C97 from 1997 and onwards).

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

### Causes of death

underlying causes of death are classified to the International Classification of Diseases 9th and 10th Revision (ICD-9 up to and including 1996, and ICD-10 for 1997 and onwards).

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

### Current smokers

persons aged 18 years and over who reported being current smokers. Smoking included manufactured (packet) cigarettes, roll-your-own cigarettes, cigars or pipes per day. Smoking excludes chewing tobacco and smoking of non-tobacco products.

Reference: *National Health Survey: Summary of Results, 2001* (ABS cat. no. 4364.0).

### Diabetes (prevalence)

based on people reporting diabetes as a recent condition (within two weeks) or a long-term condition (lasting or expecting to last six months or more), including Diabetes Mellitus Type I and II and unspecified diabetes.

Reference: *National Health Survey: Summary of Results, 2001* (ABS cat. no. 4364.0).

### Diabetes mellitus deaths

deaths where diabetes mellitus was identified as the underlying cause (ICD-9 code 250 up to 1996; ICD-10 codes E10–E14 for 1997 and onwards).

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

# Health: definitions continued

## Disability

is an umbrella term for impairments, activity limitations and participation restrictions. Disability (as collected) is the presence of a limitation, restriction or impairment due to a physical, emotional or nervous condition which had lasted or was likely to last six months or more.

Reference: *International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health 2001*, World Health Organisation and *Disability, Ageing and Carers, Australia: Summary of Findings* (ABS cat. no. 4430.0).

## Disability-free life expectancy

the average number of years at birth a person might expect to live free of disability.

Reference: *Australian Health Trends, 2000*, AIHW.

## Doctors per 100,000 population

the number of practising general and specialist medical practitioners per 100,000 estimated resident population at June 30 of that year.

Reference: *Australia's Health, 2002*, AIHW.

## Drug induced deaths

any death directly caused by an acute episode of poisoning or toxicity to drugs, including deaths from accidental overdoses, suicide and assault, and any death from an acute condition caused by habitual drug use. The term 'drug' refers to substances classified as drugs that may be used for medicinal or therapeutic purposes and those that produce a psychoactive effect excluding alcohol, tobacco and volatile solvents (e.g. petrol).

Reference: *Information paper: Drug-Induced Deaths – A Guide to ABS Causes of Death Data* (ABS cat. no. 4809.0.55.001).

## Fetal death

the delivery of a child weighing at least 400 grams at delivery (or, when birthweight is unavailable, of at least 20 weeks gestation) which did not, at any time after delivery, breathe or show any other evidence of life such as a heartbeat.

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

## Fully immunised children

children recorded as having received all the required vaccinations scheduled for their age, or who are following a prescribed catch-up schedule, as a proportion of all children on the Australian Childhood Immunisation Register. The required vaccinations are based on the Australian Standard Vaccination Schedule funded vaccines recommended under the National Immunisation Program.

Reference: Australian Childhood Immunisation Register.

## Health expenditure

expenditure on health goods and services, health-related services and health-related investment. Health goods expenditure includes expenditure on pharmaceuticals, aids and appliances; health services expenditure includes expenditure on clinical interventions, health-related services expenditure includes expenditure on public health, research and administration, and health-related investment includes expenditure on capital formation. Health expenditure does not include: expenditure that may have a health related outcome but which is undertaken outside the health sector, (such as expenditure on building safe transport systems or the education of health professionals); expenditure on personal activities not directly related to maintaining or improving personal health; and expenditure that does not have health as the main area of expected national benefit.

Reference: *Health and Welfare Expenditure Series, Number 17: Health Expenditure Australia 2001–2002*, AIHW.

## Hospital beds (per 1,000 population)

the total number of beds in all hospitals (public) providing acute care services per 1,000 estimated mean resident population. Hospitals providing acute care services are those in which the treatments typically require short durations of stay.

Reference: *Australian Hospital Statistics, 2000–01*, AIHW.

## Hospital separations (per 1,000 population)

the total number of separations in all hospitals (public and private) providing acute care services per 1,000 estimated resident population at 31 December of the reference year. A separation is an episode of care which can be a total hospital stay (from admission to discharge, transfer or death) or a portion of a hospital stay ending in a change of status (for example from acute care to rehabilitation). The inclusion of status changes has been progressively introduced since 1995–96. Hospitals providing acute care services are those in which the treatments typically require short durations of stay.

Reference: *Australian Hospital Statistics, 2001–2002*, AIHW.

## Hypertension (prevalence)

based on people reporting hypertension (high blood pressure) as a long-term condition (lasting or expecting to last six months or more). People are considered hypertensive if they are on tablets for high blood pressure and/or their systolic blood pressure is 160 mmHg or greater and/or their diastolic blood pressure is 95 mmHg or greater.

Reference: *National Health Survey: Summary of Results, 2001* (ABS cat. no. 4364.0).

## Infant mortality rate

the number of deaths of children under one year of age per 1,000 live births.

Reference: *Deaths, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 3302.0).

## Injury (prevalence)

based on people reporting injury as a long-term condition (lasting or expecting to last six months or more), including fractures, dislocations, sprains, wounds, bruising, crushing, burns, poisoning and surgical complications.

Reference: *National Health Survey: Summary of Results, 2001* (ABS cat. no. 4364.0).

## Ischaemic and other heart disease (prevalence)

based on people reporting ischaemic or other heart disease as a long-term condition (lasting or expecting to last six months or more), including heart attack, angina and other heart disease.

Reference: *National Health Survey: Summary of Results, 2001* (ABS cat. no. 4364.0).

## Ischaemic heart disease deaths

deaths where coronary heart diseases, including heart attack (acute myocardial infarction, coronary occlusion) and angina (angina pectoris), are identified as the underlying cause (ICD-9 codes 410–414 up to 1996; ICD-10 codes I20–I25 for 1997 and onwards).

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

## Life expectancy

the average number of years a newborn infant of a given sex would be expected to live if the age-specific death rates of the reference period continued throughout his or her lifetime. For persons aged 65 years of a given sex, it is the average additional years of life expected if the age-specific death rates of the reference period continued throughout his or her remaining life.

Reference: *Deaths, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 3302.0).

## Live birth

the delivery of a child weighing at least 400 grams at delivery (or, when birthweight is unavailable, of at least 20 weeks gestation) who after being born, breathed or showed any other evidence of life such as a heartbeat.

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

## Low usual intake of fruit

includes persons who reported usually eating one serve or less of fruit (excluding drinks and beverages) each day and persons who do not eat fruit. Fruit includes fresh, dried, frozen and tinned. A serve of fruit is approximately 150 grams of fresh fruit or 50 grams of dried fruit.

Reference: *National Health Survey: Summary of Results, 2001* (ABS cat. no. 4364.0).

## Lung cancer deaths

deaths where malignant neoplasm of the trachea, bronchus and lung are identified as the underlying cause (ICD-9 code 162 up to 1996; ICD-10 codes C33–C34 for 1997 and onwards).

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

## Medicare services

Medicare is Australia's universal health insurance scheme. It was introduced in 1984 and its objectives are to:

- ♦ make health care more affordable for all Australians
- ♦ provide all Australians with access to health care services with priority according to clinical need
- ♦ provide high quality care.

Medicare provides access to free treatment as a public (Medicare) patient in a public hospital, and free or subsidised treatment by medical practitioners including general practitioners, specialists, participating optometrists or dentists (specified services only).

Reference: Health Insurance Commission.

# Health: definitions continued

## Motor vehicle traffic accident deaths

deaths where motor traffic accidents are identified as the underlying cause (ICD-9 codes E810–E819 up to 1996; ICD-10 relevant codes selected from V01–V89 for 1997 and onwards).  
Reference: *Causes of Death, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 3303.0).

## Neonatal deaths

deaths of any child weighing at least 400 grams at delivery (or, when birthweight is unavailable, of at least 20 weeks gestation) who was born alive (as defined under live birth) and who died within 28 days of birth.  
Reference: *Causes of Death, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 3303.0).

## Overweight or obese adults

overweight is defined by a body mass index (BMI) greater than or equal to 25 and less than 30, while obesity is defined by a BMI greater than or equal to 30. BMI is body weight in kilograms divided by the square of height in metres.  
Reference: *National Health Survey: Summary of Results, 2001* (ABS cat. no. 4364.0).

## Perinatal mortality rate

the annual number of fetal and neonatal deaths per 1,000 live births and fetal deaths combined (where birthweight was at least 400 grams).  
Reference: *Causes of Death, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 3303.0).

## Persons with private health insurance

proportion of the total population with private hospital insurance.  
Reference: *Private Health Insurance Administration Council (PHIAC) Annual Report 2001–02, PHIAC, Canberra*.

## Physically inactive

includes persons who reported that within the two-week reference period they did not undertake any deliberate exercise activities, including walking, for sport, recreation or fitness and persons who exercised at a very low level based on the frequency, duration and intensity of their reported exercise.  
Reference: *National Health Survey: Summary of Results, 2001* (ABS cat. no. 4364.0).

## Private health insurance

provides cover against all or part of hospital theatre and accommodation costs in either a public or private hospital, medical costs in hospital, and costs associated with a range of services, not covered under Medicare including private dental services, optical, chiropractic, home nursing, ambulance, natural therapies and other ancillary services.  
Reference: Private Health Insurance Administration Council, *Insure? Not Sure?* <<http://www.phiac.gov.au/insurenosure/pdf/insure.pdf>>, accessed 03 April 2003.

## Profound/severe core activity restriction

the person: is unable to do, or needs help with, a core activity task (communication, mobility or self-care); or, has difficulty understanding or being understood by family or friends; or can communicate more easily using sign language or other non-spoken forms of communication.  
Reference: *Disability, Ageing and Carers, Australia: Summary of findings* (ABS cat. no. 4430.0).

## Prostate cancer deaths

deaths where malignant neoplasm of the prostate gland is identified as the underlying cause (ICD-9 code 185 up to 1996; ICD-10 code C61 for 1997 and onwards).  
Reference: *Causes of Death, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 3303.0).

## Psychological distress

derived from the Kessler 10 Scale (K10). This is a scale of non-specific psychological distress based on 10 questions about negative emotional states in the four weeks prior to interview. The K10 is scored from 10 to 50, with high scores indicating a high level of distress, and low scores indicating a low level of distress. Scores are grouped as follows:

- ♦ Low (10–15)
- ♦ Moderate (16–21)
- ♦ High (22–29)
- ♦ Very High (30–50).

Reference: *National Health Survey: Summary of Results, 2001* (ABS cat. no. 4364.0).

## Residential aged care places

the number of beds which are provided for long-term nursing care to chronically ill, frail or disabled persons, and beds provided for people who are unable to live wholly independently but do not require nursing care, per 1,000 of the population aged 70 years and over.

Reference: *Residential Aged Care in Australia 2000–01: A statistical overview*, AIHW Cat. No. AGE-22.

## Risky/high-risk drinkers

males aged 18 years and over who reported drinking more than 50 ml and up to and including 75 ml of absolute alcohol (risky) or more than 75 ml (high-risk) per day, and females aged 18 years and over who reported drinking more than 25 ml and up to and including 50 ml of absolute alcohol (risky) and more than 50 ml (high-risk) on average per day.  
Reference: *National Health Survey: Summary of Results, 2001* (ABS cat. no. 4364.0).

## Skin cancer deaths

deaths where malignant neoplasm of the skin, including both melanoma and non-melanocytic skin cancer is identified as the underlying cause (ICD-9 codes 172–173 up to 1996; ICD-10 codes C43–C44 for 1997 and onwards).  
Reference: *Causes of Death, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 3303.0).

## Standardised rates

these enable the comparison of rates between populations with differing age structures by relating them to a standard population. These rates are the overall rates that would have prevailed in the standard population if it had experienced at each age the rates of the population being studied. Mortality and Medicare usage rates use the 2001 Australian population as the standard population. All other standardised rates use the Australian population of the year that the survey was last collected.  
Reference: *Deaths, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 3302.0).

## Stroke deaths

deaths where cerebrovascular disease (causing a blockage (embolism) or rupture (haemorrhage) of blood vessels within or leading to the brain) is identified as the underlying cause (ICD-9 codes 430–438 up to 1996; ICD-10 codes I60–I69 for 1997 and onwards).  
Reference: *Causes of Death, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 3303.0).

## Suicide deaths

deaths where suicide is identified as the underlying cause (ICD-9 codes E950–E959 up to 1996; ICD-10 codes X60–X84 for 1997 and onwards).  
Reference: *Causes of Death, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 3303.0).

## Survival to 50, 70 and 85 years

the probability of survival to specific ages represents the proportion of survivors from birth to that age in a life table. Estimates are based on Life Tables calculated by the Australian Bureau of Statistics. For 1992 to 1996 data, expectation of life has been based on annual life tables. From 1997 onwards, expectation of life has been calculated using data for the three years ending in the year shown in the table heading. In accordance with this, from 1992 to 1996 the probability of survival is based on life tables calculated using annual life tables. From 1997 onwards, the probability of survival is based on life tables calculated using three years of data ending in the year shown in the table heading.  
Reference: *Deaths, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 3302.0).

## Total number of deaths

Based on the year in which the death was registered. Estimates may differ from estimates given in the Population chapter of this publication, which are based on the year in which the death occurred.  
Reference: *Causes of Death, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 3303.0).

# Living with asthma

## MORTALITY AND MORBIDITY

**Asthma is one of the most common reasons children are hospitalised, with children aged 0–4 years having the highest hospitalisation rate of all people with asthma.**

Asthma is a disease characterised by recurrent episodes of wheezing, shortness of breath and sometimes coughing.<sup>1</sup> Although the cause of asthma is still unclear, it tends to run in families and is closely linked to allergies.<sup>2</sup> In August 1999, Australian Health Ministers designated asthma as a National Health Priority Area. This decision was in recognition of the significant personal, social, and economic costs that asthma imposes on individuals and the community. Asthma is still a major reason for health care visits and lost productivity, and there is widespread concern about the high prevalence of asthma among children and young adults.

In 2001, 175 males and 247 females died from asthma, representing 0.3% of deaths registered in Australia in that year.<sup>3</sup> Although the risk of dying from asthma is low, this risk increases with age. The majority of deaths caused by asthma occur among people aged 65 years and over.

### How common is asthma?

In 2001, 12% of the Australian population reported they had current asthma. Asthma was more prevalent among children and young adults aged 0–19 years (14%) than among people aged 20 years and over (11%). Boys were more likely to have current asthma than girls (15% of boys aged 0–14 years, and 12% of girls of that age), and it peaked at a much earlier age for boys (5–9 years) than for girls (15–19 years). However, although prevalence of current asthma decreased with age for both men and women, women were more likely to report having asthma than men in each age group from the age of 20 years.

### Asthma

Most data presented in this article come from the ABS 2001 National Health Survey (NHS).

*Asthma* is an inflammatory disease of the lung's air passages that makes them prone to narrow too easily and too much, particularly in response to 'triggers', causing episodes of shortness of breath and wheezing or coughing. The symptoms are usually reversible, either spontaneously or with treatment.

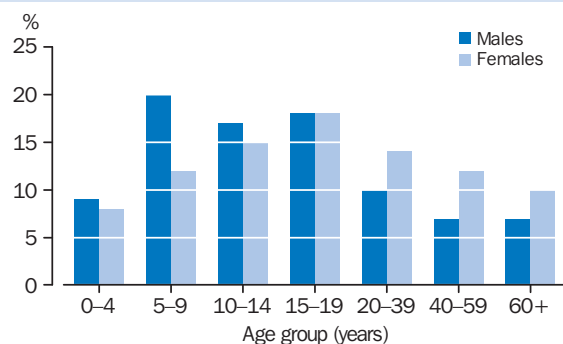
Data about *asthma* are based on people reporting that they had been diagnosed with asthma by a doctor or nurse, and that the asthma was a current condition.

A standard *Asthma Action Plan (AAP)* is a management plan recommended by the National Asthma Council and is available through doctors.

For more detail refer to *National Health Survey: Users' Guide — Electronic Publication* (ABS cat. no. 4363.0.55.001).

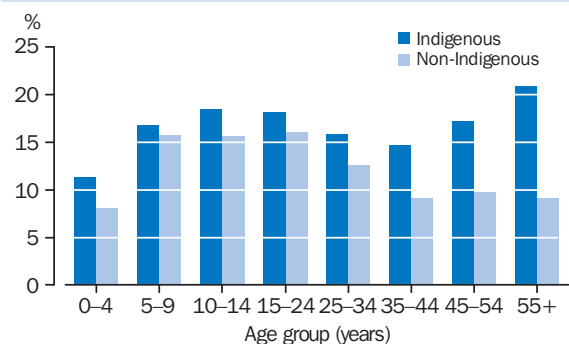
Indigenous people were more likely than non-Indigenous peoples to report having asthma (17% compared with 12% in 2001).<sup>4</sup> The prevalence of asthma among Indigenous children followed a similar pattern to that of the non-Indigenous population, with prevalence increasing as children near their teens. However, the patterns diverged markedly after the age of 25 years, with the prevalence of asthma increasing after this age among Indigenous peoples. Just over 20% of Indigenous peoples aged 55 years and over reported asthma as a long-term condition in 2001, compared with less than 10% of non-Indigenous peoples in this age group.

Prevalence of asthma — 2001



Source: ABS 2001 National Health Survey.

Prevalence of asthma among Indigenous and non-Indigenous persons — 2001



Source: ABS 2001 National Health Survey and ABS 2001 Indigenous Health Survey.

## Asthma in children

In 2001, asthma was the most commonly reported long-term health condition for children aged 0–14 years (13%). Of those aged 0–4 years, 8% currently had asthma which had been diagnosed by a doctor or nurse, and this increased to 16% for both 5–9 year olds and 10–14 year olds.

Asthma is difficult to diagnose in children, but is commonly a cause of wheeze. For this reason, several studies have investigated the presence of wheeze among children. In 1997, 27% of Australian children aged 0–14 years were reported to have had wheeze in the past twelve months.<sup>5</sup>

The prevalence of wheeze among Australian children is also high by international standards. In a study conducted in over 30 countries across all continents, Australia had the second highest prevalence of a current wheeze among 6–7 year olds,<sup>5</sup> and the third highest among 13–14 year olds.<sup>6</sup>

## Managing asthma

Asthma can largely be controlled by good management, under the guidance of a general medical practitioner (GP). On average, there were 16 asthma-related GP visits per 100 population per year between July 1998 and June 2002 (3% of all GP consultations over that period).<sup>1</sup>

Asthma Action Plans (AAP) have formed part of national guidelines for the management of asthma since 1989.<sup>1</sup> There is evidence that the use of a written AAP, in conjunction with training in self-management and regular medical reviews, improves health outcomes for people with asthma. Better outcomes include improved lung function and a

reduced need for hospitalisation, urgent GP visits and additional medication.<sup>1</sup> In 2001, 12% of people with asthma reported having a standard AAP provided by a GP. Children aged 0–14 years with asthma were more likely to have a standard AAP (18%) than people aged 15 years and over with asthma (10%).

## ...medication

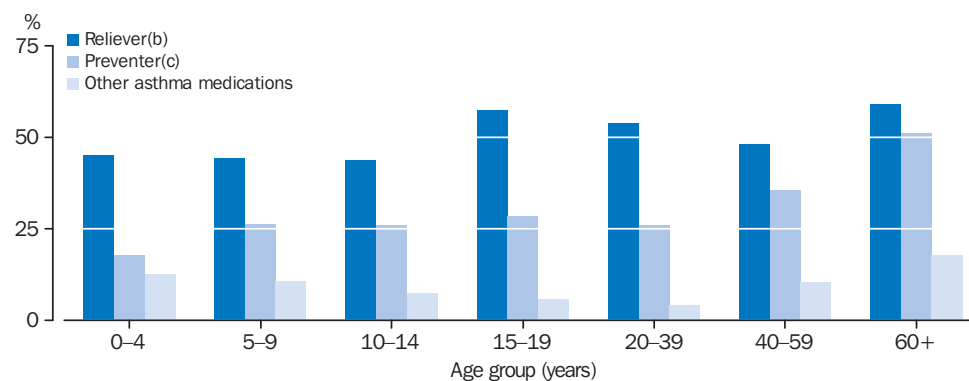
The use of medication is the most common health-related action taken by people with asthma. In 2001, 59% of people of all ages with asthma used asthma medication to prevent and/or relieve their symptoms.

There is evidence that preventers (inhaled corticosteroids) are effective in controlling the symptoms of asthma and in preventing complications.<sup>1</sup> However, in 2001, less than a third of people with asthma (31%) used preventers, while over half (51%) of people with asthma used relievers. People aged 0–39 years with asthma were almost twice as likely to use relievers (51%) as they were to use preventers (26%). The use of preventers increased markedly after the age of 40 years, with people aged 60 years and over the most likely of all age groups to use preventers.

## ...hospitalisation

Despite the range of ways in which people with asthma may manage their symptoms, acute asthma episodes can still result in hospitalisation. Asthma accounted for 41,000 hospital separations in 2001–02, and is one of the most common reasons for emergency department attendance and hospitalisation among children. In 2001–02, just over half (51%) of the 41,000 hospital separations with a principal diagnosis of asthma (20,900) were for children aged 0–14 years.<sup>7</sup>

### Use of asthma medication(a) — 2001

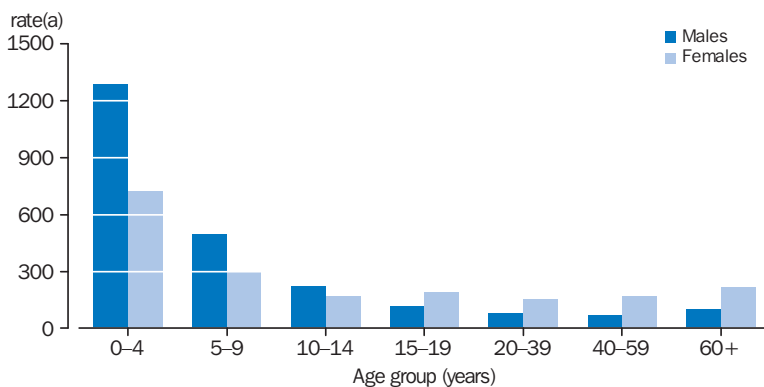


- (a) Based on brand of medication used in the two weeks prior to interview.  
 (b) Includes salbutamol, terbutaline, ipratropium, fenoterol and orciprenaline.  
 (c) Includes beclomethasone dipropionate, budesonide and fluticasone propionate.

Source: ABS 2001 National Health Survey.



## Hospital separations for asthma — 2001–02



(a) Hospital separations per 100,000 population.

Source: AIHW National Hospital Morbidity Database.

While the prevalence of asthma increases as children move into their teens, hospitalisation for asthma is highest among much younger children (aged 0–4 years), and steadily decreases over the life cycle. The reasons for the disparity between asthma prevalence and the rate of hospitalisation of very young children are not known, but are likely to reflect a range of complex issues.

Consistent with asthma prevalence, boys are more likely to be admitted to hospital for asthma than girls, while, from late teens, women are more likely than men to be admitted to hospital for asthma.

### ...vaccination

There is no evidence that respiratory infections directly cause the development of asthma. However, it is well established that respiratory infections can worsen asthma symptoms by acting as triggers for an attack. In 2001, people aged 50 years and over with asthma were more likely to have had an influenza (65%), or pneumococcus (24%), vaccination than people without asthma (45% and 13% respectively).

### ...breastfeeding

Human breast milk is recognized as having many beneficial health effects. The NHMRC recommends exclusive breastfeeding to around six months of age, and breastfeeding with appropriate complementary foods is encouraged up to at least 12 months of age.<sup>8</sup> Research has indicated that breastfeeding appears to be protective against the development of asthma and wheezes in children,<sup>9</sup> although a recent longitudinal study does not appear to support this.<sup>10</sup> In 2001, by age six months, around half (48%) of all children were being breastfed.<sup>8</sup>

## Quality of life

People with asthma can experience a reduced quality of life and be restricted in their daily activities. In 2001, people aged five years and over with asthma were more likely to report that they had experienced days where they had to reduce their usual activities (18%), than people without asthma (11%). Adults with asthma were also more likely to rate their health as poor or fair (28%) than people without asthma (17%), and less likely to rate their health as good, very good or excellent (72% compared with 83%).

While the number of deaths of children caused by asthma is very low, asthma can affect and disrupt children's lives in a range of ways. Asthma is a major cause of school absenteeism, and children aged 5–14 years who had asthma were more likely to have had a day away from study in the previous two weeks (24%) than children in the same age group who did not have asthma (16%).

## Endnotes

- 1 Australian Centre for Asthma Monitoring 2003, *Asthma in Australia 2003*, Cat. No. ACMI, AIHW, Canberra.
- 2 Australian Institute of Health and Welfare (AIHW) 2002, *Australia's Children 2002*, AIHW Cat. No. PHE 36, Canberra.
- 3 Australian Institute of Health and Welfare 2003, *Australian long term trends in mortality workbooks*, AIHW, Canberra.
- 4 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2003, *The Health and Welfare of Australia's Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples*, cat. no. 4704.0, ABS, Canberra.
- 5 Woolcock, A et al. 2001, 'The burden of asthma in Australia' *Medical Journal of Australia*, vol. 175, pp. 141–145.
- 6 Beasley, R, Keil, U, Von Mutius, E et al. 1998, 'World wide variation in the prevalence of symptoms of asthma, allergic rhinoconjunctivitis and atopic eczema: ISAAC', *The Lancet*, vol. 351, pp. 1125–1132.
- 7 Australian Institute of Health and Welfare 2003, *National Hospital Morbidity Database*, AIHW, Canberra.
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- 9 Dell, S and To, T 2001, *Breastfeeding and Asthma in Young Children*.
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# Cancer trends

## MORTALITY AND MORBIDITY

**The chances of surviving at least five years after diagnosis with any type of registrable cancer improved considerably between 1982–1986 and 1992–1997, from 49% to 60% (if deaths from other causes are excluded).**

Cancer is a major cause of death and disability in Australia. It affects both the physical and emotional wellbeing of individuals and their families, and represents costs to the community in terms of health care infrastructure, absence from work, and premature mortality. However, over recent decades developments in the detection and treatment of cancer have improved the chances of survival for people with cancer.

The government designated cancer as a National Health Priority Area (NHPA) in 1996, identifying lung, melanoma skin, non-melanocytic skin, cervical, breast, colorectal and prostate cancers, and non-Hodgkin's lymphoma as priority cancers to be targeted.<sup>1</sup> The NHPA initiative focuses public attention and policy on health areas known to contribute most to the burden of disease in Australia, and which have potential for significant health gains.<sup>2</sup>

Early in the 20th century, cancer accounted for a relatively small proportion of deaths (7% of all male deaths and 8% of all female deaths in 1909). The death rate from cancer peaked in the 1980s, then declined slightly from 215 deaths per 100,000 people in 1985 to 188 per 100,000 in 2002, when cancer accounted for 31% of all male deaths and 26% of all female deaths. Paradoxically, the increased proportion of cancer deaths partly reflects longer life expectancy in the population. That is, cancer is predominantly a disease of the elderly, and the longer people live, the more likely they are to die from cancer than from other conditions. (See *Australian Social Trends 2001*, Mortality in the 20th century, pp. 67–70).

### Cancer mortality and morbidity

The data presented in this article are drawn from ABS and Australian Institute of Health and Welfare data collections on cancer incidence and mortality.

*Cancer* (malignant neoplasm) refers to several diseases which result when the process of cell division, by which tissues normally grow and renew themselves, becomes uncontrolled and leads to the development of malignant cells. These cancer cells multiply in an uncoordinated way to form a tumour. If left untreated, most malignant tumours will eventually result in death. Cancers are classified according to where they initially develop in the body.

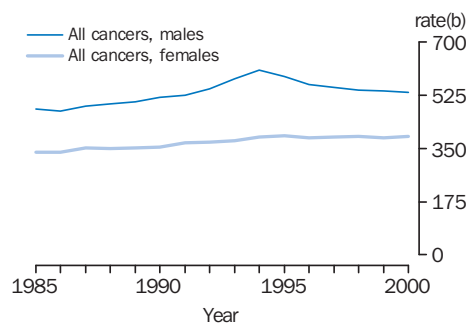
*Cancer incidence rate* is the rate of new cases of cancer each year per 100,000 people. (Non-melanocytic skin cancer incidence data are not included as they are not routinely collected by state and territory cancer registries; although they are included in data on cancer mortality).

*Cancer deaths* are deaths where the underlying cause of death, based on information on the death certificate, is cancer. The *age standardised death rate* allows comparisons to be made between populations which have different age structures. The standard population used in this article is the 2001 Australian population.

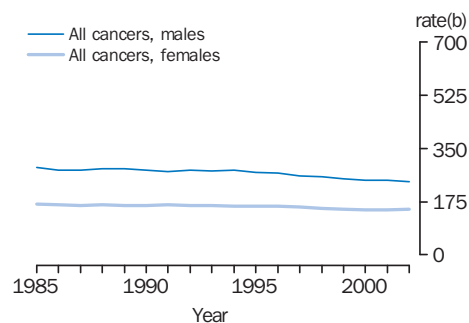
*Years of potential life lost* measures the extent of premature mortality, which is assumed to be any death before the age of 79 years.

The *relative survival ratio* compares the survival of people diagnosed with cancer with that of the total population, to estimate their excess risk of dying due to the disease. *Five-year relative survival ratio* represents the proportion of people with cancer who would survive at least five years after diagnosis if other causes of death are excluded.

**Cancer incidence(a)**



**Cancer mortality(a)**



(a) Excludes non-melanocytic skin cancers as data on this are not routinely collected by registries.  
 (b) Rates are expressed per 100,000 population and age standardised to the 2001 total Australian population.

Source: AIHW Cancer in Australia 2000, and ABS Deaths Australia, 2002.

## Cancer incidence

While there has been a decrease in cancer deaths since 1985, the cancer incidence rate increased between 1985 and 2000. In 1985, there were 392 new cases of cancer diagnosed per 100,000 population. A high incidence of prostate cancer among men, combined with slightly higher rates for breast and ovarian cancer, contributed to an overall peak in cancer incidence in 1994, when 478 new cases per 100,000 population were diagnosed. Cancer incidence then fell to a rate of 451 in 2000.

Cancer incidence among men increased from 481 new cases per 100,000 men in 1985, to a peak of 608 in 1994, declining to 536 per 100,000 in 2000. The peak in 1994 occurred around the time when there was a peak in the number of men tested using the prostate specific antigen (PSA) test.<sup>3</sup> This test identified prostate cancers that previously may not have been diagnosed through other tests or the presence of symptoms.<sup>4</sup>

Women consistently had lower cancer incidence rates than men. In 2000, the cancer incidence rate for women was around 70% of the rate for men. Although the relative growth in cancer incidence was higher among women than men between 1985 and 2000, the increase was more steady over the period.

Cancer incidence is lowest in late childhood and increases with age.<sup>2</sup> The most common forms of cancer among children aged 0–14 years are lymphatic leukaemia, and brain and central nervous system cancers, which together accounted for 51% of cancer incidence in this age group in 2000. For almost all cancers, incidence is higher among boys than among girls.<sup>5</sup>

## Cancer registries

*Registrable cancers* are cancers (excluding non-melanoma skin cancer) for which registration is required under state and territory legislation.

Universal registration of new cancer diagnoses is considered essential to obtaining cancer incidence data.<sup>1</sup> In each state and territory, clinical and demographic data about people with newly diagnosed cancer are collated by cancer registries, which are supported by a mix of state and territory government and non-government organisations. The information is routinely collected from hospitals, pathologists, radiation oncologists (cancer specialists), cancer treatment centres and nursing homes. By combining this information with cancer deaths data, statistics can be produced on cancer incidence, survival and mortality. Cancer is the only major disease category with an almost complete coverage of incidence data.<sup>2,6</sup> Although some state and territory cancer registries have been operating for around 30 years, it was not until 1982 that cancer registration was universal in Australia. Before then, there was no registration in some states, and only partial coverage in others.<sup>6</sup>

In this article, *priority cancers* are those cancers identified as priority under the National Health Priority Area initiative, and for which data are routinely collected by cancer registries. That is: prostate, breast, colorectal, lung, melanoma skin and cervical cancer, and non-Hodgkin's lymphoma.

## ...priority cancers

Of the seven priority cancers for which data are routinely collected, the incidence of lung cancer among men, and cervical cancer among women, decreased between 1985 and 2000. There was an increase in the incidence of prostate and colorectal cancer among men; lung and breast cancer among women; and melanoma skin cancer and non-Hodgkin's lymphoma for both men and women.

## Incidence(a) of selected NHPA priority cancers

	Males				Females			
	1985	1990	1995	2000	1985	1990	1995	2000
Selected cancers	rate	rate	rate	rate	rate	rate	rate	rate
Prostate	82.8	102.4	167.8	124.9	..	..	..	..
Breast	1.0	1.1	0.8	1.0	84.2	94.6	115.7	115.4
Colorectal	72.4	74.3	78.2	80.2	54.3	51.4	53.6	53.8
Lung	80.6	78.1	69.8	62.1	19.2	23.7	25.9	27.4
Melanoma skin	33.6	43.1	51.2	53.7	31.3	32.8	36.7	38.0
Non-Hodgkin's lymphoma	16.0	19.5	19.4	21.5	11.4	12.6	15.1	15.6
Cervical	..	..	..	..	14.5	13.3	10.7	7.6
<b>All registrable cancers(b)</b>	<b>481.2</b>	<b>517.3</b>	<b>587.3</b>	<b>535.7</b>	<b>336.9</b>	<b>355.7</b>	<b>393.3</b>	<b>390.4</b>

(a) Rates are expressed per 100,000 population and age standardised to the 2001 total Australian population.

(b) Excludes non-melanocytic skin cancers.

Source: AIHW, Interactive cancer data, [www.aihw.gov.au](http://www.aihw.gov.au).

While changes in the incidence rates for specific cancers may reflect more, or fewer, people developing a type of cancer, they may also relate to medical advances that improve detection and identification of the site of origin of cancer in the body. For example, the increased incidence of prostate cancer has been largely attributed to the PSA test, which increased detection and reporting of latent prostate cancers.<sup>3</sup> Conversely, the halving of the incidence rate for cervical cancer between 1985 and 2000 (from 15 new cases per 100,000 women to 8) may be partly due to a national cervical screening program introduced in the early 1990s.<sup>2</sup> Cervical cancer is one of the most preventable and curable of all cancers — up to 90% of cases of the most common type of cervical cancer can be prevented if cell changes are detected and treated early.<sup>7</sup> Thus screening, which encouraged women to have regular Pap smear tests, supported more effective control of this cancer (see *Australian Social Trends 2004*, How women care for their health, pp. 77–81).

Smoking is associated with an increased risk of developing many diseases including lung cancer. In 2001, 24% of the adult population were current smokers, a decrease since 1989–90 when 28% smoked. Smoking rates were consistently higher among men (see *Australian Social Trends 2003*, Health risk factors among adults, pp 74–78). In keeping with this, the rate of incidence of lung cancer was also higher among men. However, the gap between men and women is closing, with the incidence of lung cancer declining among men (from 81 new cases per 100,000 men in 1985, to 62 in 2000) but increasing among women (from 19 to 27). As there is a time lag between exposure to the carcinogenic agents of tobacco and the onset of cancer, this

increase reflects smoking patterns of around twenty years ago, when the proportion of female smokers increased relative to male smokers.

Data on non-melanocytic skin cancers are not routinely collected by state and territory cancer registries, and instead, estimates are provided by periodic national surveys. It is estimated that there were 374,000 new cases of non-melanocytic skin cancer diagnosed in 2002.<sup>8</sup>

## Surviving cancer

Measuring the chance of survival for people diagnosed with cancer, relative to people without cancer, assists in assessing the broad impacts of early detection methods such as screening, and the efficacy of treatment. The chances of surviving at least five years after diagnosis with any type of registrable cancer improved considerably between 1982–1986 and 1992–1997, from 49% to 60% (if deaths from other causes are excluded).

## ...priority cancers

There were improvements in survival ratios for the priority cancers, with prostate cancer showing the greatest relative improvement (about 40%). That is, while there was an increase in the incidence of prostate cancer, there was not an equal increase in mortality. The introduction of PSA testing, combined with the tendency for prostate cancer to have slow, non-life threatening growth, and affect mainly older men, could partly explain the increase in survival ratio between 1987–1991 and 1992–1997.<sup>3, 9, 10</sup> However, factors other than PSA testing may be involved.<sup>3, 11</sup>

Relative improvement in the survival ratio for breast cancer was similar to that for colorectal cancer (about 15%), although the survival ratio for colorectal cancer was lower. Earlier detection and diagnosis, and improved treatments are likely to have increased the chances of surviving such cancers.

The likelihood of surviving for five or more years after being diagnosed with lung cancer also improved between the 1980s and the 1990s (from 10% to 12%). That said, lung cancer remained the cancer with by far the lowest likelihood of survival of all of the selected priority cancers.

## Cancer deaths

The death rate for a specific cancer is influenced both by how commonly it occurs, and by how likely people are to survive it. For example, although non-melanocytic skin cancers are the most commonly diagnosed

### Five-year relative survival ratio for selected cancers

Selected cancers	1982–1986	1987–1991	1992–1997
	%	%	%
Prostate(a)	59.3	64.3	82.7
Lung	9.9	11.0	12.0
Breast(b)	72.3	77.8	84.0
Colorectal	50.6	54.2	58.4
Non-Hodgkin's lymphoma	49.8	52.6	55.1
Cervical(b)	69.6	72.0	74.6
Melanoma skin	87.1	90.2	92.1
<b>All registrable cancers(c)</b>	<b>49.4</b>	<b>53.4</b>	<b>59.9</b>

(a) Ratio refers to males only.

(b) Ratio refers to females only.

(c) Excludes non-melanocytic skin cancers.

Source: Australian Institute of Health and Welfare (AIHW), Cancer survival in Australia, 2001 and unpublished data from AIHW for colorectal cancer.

cancer in Australia, relatively few people die of this cancer if treated early. Death rates from cancer declined for both men and women between 1985 and 2002, although men continued to experience a higher rate of death from cancer than women.

Childhood cancer is relatively uncommon (children aged 0–14 years made up less than 1% of all cancer patients in each year from 1983 to 2000).<sup>5</sup> However, cancer is a leading cause of death among children aged 1–14 years (118 children in this age group died from cancer in 2002). Death rates for children improved from four deaths per 100,000 children aged 0–14 years in 1993, to three per 100,000 in 2000, reflecting advances in various cancer treatments.<sup>6</sup>

### ...priority cancers

Of all the priority cancers, lung cancer has consistently been the leading cause of death for men since the early 1950s.<sup>12</sup> However, as with incidence rates for lung cancer, the difference between men and women is reducing slightly. Female death rates for lung cancer increased between 1985 and 2002, from 17 deaths per 100,000 women to 24, while the male death rate decreased from 77 deaths per 100,000 men to 53.

In 1985, there were 36 deaths per 100,000 men as a result of prostate cancer. While there were substantial improvements in the likelihood of surviving prostate cancer between 1985 and 2002, the death rate for this condition stayed much the same over this period (36 deaths per 100,000 men in 2002).

For women, there was a decrease in deaths due to colorectal cancer between 1985 and 2002 (from 28 to 20 deaths per 100,000

### Cancer among Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples

See also *Australian Social Trends 2002*, Mortality of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples, pp. 86–90.

Cancers of the digestive organs and lungs (and other smoking-related cancers) are the most common types of cancer that lead to deaths among Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples. In 2000–2002, for the five states or territories where coverage of Indigenous deaths is considered acceptable (NSW, Qld, SA, WA and NT), cancer caused 914 deaths of Indigenous persons (15% of all deaths of Indigenous persons). The age standardised death rates from cancer for Indigenous Australians are consistently higher (up to two times higher) for all age groups over 45 years (with the exception of Indigenous women aged over 75 years).<sup>13</sup>

Indigenous persons have low cancer survival rates compared with their incidence rates, partly because they are more likely to develop cancers with a poor prognosis (such as lung cancer).<sup>14</sup> Another possible factor is that cancers among Indigenous Australians may be detected at more advanced stages than in the total population. For example, cervical and breast cancer are among the most common types of cancer for Indigenous females. Cervical cancer is one of the few potentially preventable cancers. In 2001, a lower proportion of Indigenous women had regular Pap smear tests than non-Indigenous women (see *Australian Social Trends 2004*, How women care for their health, pp. 77–81). Results from a Queensland study suggest that women in remote Indigenous communities are less likely than other women to have Pap smear tests within the recommended screening interval of two years.<sup>14, 15</sup>

women). The incidence rate for colorectal cancer remained relatively steady over the period (around 53 new cases per 100,000 women each year), so the reduction in deaths may be due to increased chance of survival.

### Death rates(a) from selected cancers

	Males					Females				
	1985	1990	1995	2000	2002	1985	1990	1995	2000	2002
Selected cancers	rate	rate	rate	rate	rate	rate	rate	rate	rate	rate
Breast	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.2	0.2	31.3	31.0	29.5	24.7	25.1
Cervical	..	..	..	..	..	5.1	4.3	3.8	2.6	2.1
Colorectal	37.9	35.2	33.9	30.5	27.7	28.0	24.3	22.6	20.5	19.6
Lung	77.2	68.5	63.9	54.7	53.3	17.1	19.3	21.9	22.2	23.5
Melanoma skin	6.8	7.6	8.1	7.4	8.0	3.8	3.8	3.6	3.5	3.1
Non-Hodgkin's lymphoma	8.0	10.0	9.9	10.4	9.5	6.2	6.5	7.4	7.0	6.3
Non-melanocytic skin	3.1	3.6	3.8	3.2	3.2	0.7	0.7	1.2	1.0	1.1
Prostate	35.7	39.9	41.4	35.9	35.5	..	..	..	..	..
<b>All cancers</b>	<b>287.3</b>	<b>277.7</b>	<b>270.6</b>	<b>246.6</b>	<b>241.3</b>	<b>167.2</b>	<b>162.6</b>	<b>160.3</b>	<b>147.9</b>	<b>150.3</b>

(a) Rates are expressed per 100,000 population and age standardised to the 2001 total Australian population.

Source: Australian Institute of Health and Welfare (AIHW) (2003) Australian long term trends in mortality workbooks, AIHW, Canberra.

**Years of potential life lost(a):  
selected cancers — 2002(b)**

	Males	Females
Selected cancers	years	years
Breast	221	36 684
Cervical	..	3 592
Colorectal	22 146	16 299
Lung	40 988	22 909
Melanoma skin	9 178	4 183
Non-Hodgkin's lymphoma	7 730	5 598
Prostate	10 850	..
<b>All registrable cancers(c)</b>	<b>189 562</b>	<b>156 522</b>

(a) Measures the extent of premature mortality which is assumed to be any death at ages of 1–78 years inclusive.

(b) Data are age standardised to the 2001 total Australian population.

(c) Excludes non-melanocytic skin cancers.

Source: ABS, Causes of Death Collection.

The slight improvement in the survival ratio for cervical cancer combined with the improved ability to prevent cervical cancer through effective screening, resulted in mortality decreasing by more than half.

While the incidence of breast cancer in females increased between 1985 and 2000, the death rates decreased (from 31 to 25 deaths per 100,000 women). This may be attributed to earlier detection and/or improvements in treatment leading to a better chance of surviving the disease for longer.

**Years of life lost through cancer**

In 2002, the years of potential life lost through cancer deaths amounted to 189,562 for men and 156,522 for women. For a specific cancer, the number of years of potential life lost reflects not only the incidence and survival rates for that cancer, but the age at which deaths from that cancer commonly occur. For example, although the death rate for non-Hodgkin's lymphoma was higher than for melanoma skin cancer, slightly more years of potential life were lost due to the latter. This indicates that melanoma skin cancer affects people earlier in life, resulting in more premature deaths.

Although death rates due to prostate cancer were the second highest of all the priority cancers in men, this type of cancer resulted in a comparatively low number of years of potential life lost, as it mainly afflicts older men. While a similar number of women died from breast cancer as died from lung cancer in 2002, there were more years of potential

life lost through breast cancer (36,684 years) than through lung cancer (22,909), as women with breast cancer are more likely to die at a younger age than women with lung cancer.

**Endnotes**

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# How women care for their health

## HEALTH RELATED ACTIONS

**In 2001, 65% of women aged 18–69 years reported having a Pap smear test at least once every two years. However, 11% reported they had never had one.**

Although genetic predisposition plays a role in women's health outcomes, it is possible to prevent some illnesses, more successfully treat others, and promote general good health through positive health behaviours. Women in Australia can care for their health in different ways, as appropriate for their lifestyle and their stage in the life cycle. A woman's involvement in such behaviours may also be influenced by factors such as her cultural background, financial resources, and the availability of relevant services in her geographic location.

One focus of women's health policy over the past decade has been on promoting actions such as regular breast examination, mammograms, and Pap smear testing. However, with a recent push towards broader illness prevention and health promotion, women have been advised to take more general actions such as increasing physical activity and adopting healthy eating habits.

### Breast cancer screening

In 2002, more women died from breast cancer than from any other form of cancer. Early detection and treatment of breast cancer results in the best chance of survival, with 90% of women surviving for at least five years after detection if the cancer is localised in the breast and has not spread to other parts of the body.<sup>1</sup>

Regular examination of the breast is the most common method of detecting breast changes which may be, or may become, cancerous. Of all women aged 18 years and over, 30% reported that they had undertaken monthly breast self-examinations in 2001, with a similar proportion (27%) reporting annual doctor examinations.

Mammograms — a particularly effective way to detect cancer at an early stage — are generally only available to women aged 40 years and over, as breast tissue is too dense prior to this age.<sup>2</sup> In 2001, 51% of women aged 40 years and over reported having a mammogram for screening or diagnostic purposes at least once every two years. The proportion of women aged 40 years and over who reported ever having had a mammogram increased from 64% in 1995 to 72% in 2001.

As 70% of breast cancers occur in women over the age of 50 years, BreastScreen Australia actively seeks women aged 50–69 years for participation in its mammogram screening

### Data on health actions

The data presented in this article are drawn mainly from the ABS 2001 National Health Survey (NHS). The Women's Health form in this survey was a voluntary self-completed component of the NHS and, as the questions were of a personal nature, some women may have chosen not to provide responses to all questions. As the information was self-reported, the rates of participation in a particular activity may be higher or lower than those recorded by specific medical disease registries (e.g. cancer registries). All data have been age standardised to the 2001 Australian population before comparing different groups.

In the 2001 NHS, each person was classified as belonging to one of four types of *income unit*: lone person; lone parent with dependent child(ren); couple with dependent child(ren); or couple only. Income is assumed to be shared within such a unit.

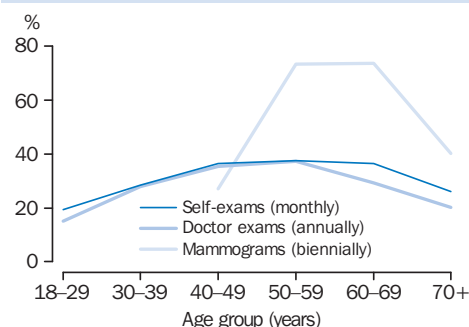
In this article, *gross income* of the income unit refers to the combined income of the woman and her spouse/partner (where applicable). *Equivalised income of income unit* is derived by applying the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) equivalence scale to take into account the number of adults and dependants in that unit.

For more detail refer to the *National Health Survey, Users' Guide, Australia, 2001* available through the ABS web site <[www.abs.gov.au](http://www.abs.gov.au)>.

program.<sup>2</sup> In 2001, 74% of women aged 50–69 years reported having a mammogram at least once every two years.

In 2001, over half (52%) of women born in Australia and aged 40 years and over had mammograms every two years or more often, with women born overseas having a lower rate of mammogram examination. Women from North Africa and the Middle East were the most likely to never have had a mammogram (47%).

### Women reporting regular breast examinations — 2001



Source: ABS 2001 National Health Survey.

### Mammograms reported by women aged 40 years and over(a) — 2001

	Frequency of mammograms		
	Every 2 years or more often	Less often than every 2 years(b)	Never had a mammogram
	%	%	%
Region of birth			
Australia	52.2	19.7	28.1
Other Oceania(c)	38.2	28.1	33.7
United Kingdom and Ireland	50.4	24.8	24.8
Other North-West Europe	47.5	20.5	32.0
Southern and Eastern Europe	44.8	23.9	31.4
North Africa and Middle East	*27.7	*25.3	47.0
South-East Asia	39.7	16.8	43.5
Other Asia	49.4	*16.8	*33.7
Americas	45.5	*15.1	*39.4
All other countries	37.2	34.1	28.6
Equivalised income of income unit quintile(d)			
Lowest	46.3	21.4	32.3
Second	50.5	17.9	31.6
Third	50.5	22.2	27.3
Fourth	49.2	24.7	26.1
Highest	60.1	22.3	17.6
<b>Australia</b>	<b>50.8</b>	<b>20.8</b>	<b>28.4</b>

(a) Age standardised. Women who did not state frequency of mammograms were excluded prior to the calculation of percentages.

(b) Includes those who have had only one mammogram, or who have mammograms irregularly.

(c) Includes New Zealand.

(d) Quintiles have been calculated after ranking persons by the equivalised gross weekly income of the income unit of which they are a member. For additional detail see page 77.

Source: ABS 2001 National Health Survey.

Following the program's commencement in 1991, BreastScreen Australia introduced mobile screening units to offer services to women across Australia.<sup>3</sup> Since then, there has been increasing access to breast screening facilities by women in more remote areas. In 2001, women aged 40 years and over in Major Cities, Inner Regional and other areas, had similar rates of regular biennial mammograms (ranging from 50%–52%). Women in the highest income quintile were more likely to have had biennial mammograms (60%) than those in the middle quintiles (around 50%) or lowest quintile (46%), despite screening being free or available at a minimal cost.

#### Pap smear tests

In 2001, cervical cancer caused the death of 227 Australian women, a rate of 2.1 deaths per 100,000 population (see *Australian Social Trends 2004*, Cancer trends,

### Health care among Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander women

In 2001, of those women who provided a response, a similar proportion of Indigenous and non-Indigenous women aged 40 years and over had regular mammograms (50% and 52% respectively). Research has found that Indigenous women may have a lower likelihood of developing breast cancer than non-Indigenous women, but that it is more likely to be fatal once it has developed.<sup>4</sup>

Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander women had a higher incidence rate of, and a higher mortality rate from, cervical cancer, than non-Indigenous women.<sup>5</sup> In 2001, Indigenous women were less likely to have had regular Pap smear tests than non-Indigenous women (58% compared with 66%).

The data presented in the following table are proportions of those women who provided a useable response (approximately 85%–90% of women). As a result, the figures are different from those published in *National Health Survey: Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Results, Australia, 2001* (ABS cat. no. 4715.0).

### Mammograms and Pap smear tests reported by women(a) — 2001

	Non-Indigenous	Indigenous
Mammograms(b)	%	%
Has regular mammograms(c)	50	52
Does not have regular mammograms	21	20
Never had a mammogram	29	28
Pap smear tests(d)		
Has regular tests(c)	58	66
Does not have regular tests	30	23
Never had a test	11	11

(a) Age standardised. Women who did not state the regularity of their Pap smear tests or mammograms were excluded prior to the calculation of percentages.

(b) Women aged 40 years and over.

(c) Regular mammograms or Pap smear tests may be annual, biennial or more than 2 years apart.

(d) Women aged 18–69 years.

Source: ABS 2001 Indigenous Health Survey.

pp. 72–76). It is one of the most preventable and curable of all cancers — up to 90% of cases of the most common type of cervical cancer can be prevented if cell changes are detected and treated early.<sup>6</sup>

A Pap smear test is a screening procedure in which a number of cells are collected from a woman's cervix and examined for any changes in appearance which may indicate a risk for, or the development of, cervical cancer.<sup>6</sup> The



### Pap smear tests reported by women aged 18–69 years(a) — 2001

	Frequency of Pap smear tests		
	Every 2 years or more often	Less often than every 2 years(b)	Never had a Pap smear
	%	%	%
<b>Region of birth</b>			
Australia	66.8	24.2	9.0
Other Oceania(c)	58.8	33.1	8.1
United Kingdom and Ireland	65.0	29.8	5.2
Other North-West Europe	54.8	38.6	*6.6
Southern and Eastern Europe	65.8	18.1	16.1
North Africa and Middle East	56.4	25.6	*18.0
South East Asia	47.8	19.5	32.7
Other Asia	49.4	27.5	23.1
Americas	56.0	30.8	*13.1
All other countries	55.5	18.1	26.5
<b>Equivalent income of income unit quintile(d)</b>			
Lowest	49.7	34.0	16.4
Second	55.8	31.3	12.9
Third	60.7	28.5	10.8
Fourth	60.3	28.4	11.3
Highest	66.1	25.7	8.2
<b>Australia</b>	<b>64.8</b>	<b>24.5</b>	<b>10.7</b>

(a) Age standardised. Women who did not state the frequency of their Pap smear tests were excluded prior to the calculation of percentages.

(b) Includes those who have had only one Pap smear test and those who have Pap smear tests irregularly.

(c) Includes New Zealand.

(d) Quintiles have been calculated after ranking persons by the equivalised gross weekly income of the income unit of which they are a member. For additional detail see page 77.

Source: ABS 2001 National Health Survey.

proportion of women who reported ever having had a Pap smear test remained relatively stable between 1995 and 2001 at around 90%.

According to current recommendations for Pap smear testing, all women aged between 18 years and 69 years who have ever had sex should have at least one Pap smear test every two years.<sup>7</sup> In 2001, 65% of women in this age group were meeting these recommendations. Women aged 30–39 years were the most likely to have had biennial Pap smear tests (80%), and women aged 60–69 years were the least likely (48%). The proportions of women reporting having Pap smears at least once every two years were similar across Major Cities, Inner Regional and other areas (between 64% and 69%).

Some studies have linked decreased awareness of, and participation in, Pap smear testing to language and cultural barriers experienced by recent immigrants.<sup>8,9</sup> In 2001, the proportion of women aged 18–69 years who reported having a Pap smear test at least once every two years ranged from two-thirds (67%) of women born in Australia to less than half (48%) of women born in South East Asia.

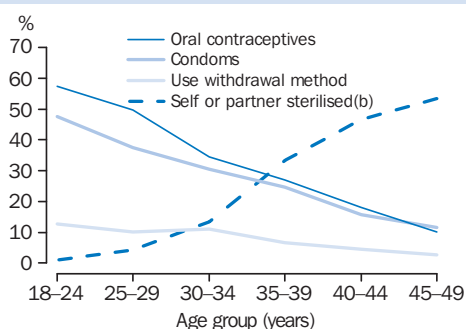
Income levels also appear to relate to how often women have Pap smear tests, with women in the higher income quintiles having higher rates of biennial Pap smears than women in the lower quintiles. In 2001, 66% of women in the highest income quintile had biennial Pap smears, compared with 61% in the middle quintile and 50% in the lowest quintile.

### Contraception and protection

A major issue for women is being able to control their fertility, including preventing unwanted pregnancies. In 2001, the most common method of contraception used by sexually active women aged 18–49 years, was taking oral contraceptives (33%). Although very effective in preventing pregnancy when taken as directed, oral contraceptives do not provide protection against sexually transmitted diseases (STDs).

Following an increased awareness of the Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV) in the early 1980s, and the promotion of condoms as protection against infection, the rate of HIV infection appears to be falling.<sup>10</sup> However, there is concern that the transmission of other STDs may be rising.<sup>10</sup> In 2001, condoms were used by 28% of sexually active women aged 18–49 years.

### Sexually active women reporting use of selected contraceptives(a) — 2001



(a) Women who did not state their contraceptive practices were excluded prior to the calculation of percentages. Data on contraception practices are not mutually exclusive (i.e. a woman could be taking the oral contraceptive pill and also using condoms).

(b) Includes tubal ligation and vasectomy.

Source: ABS 2001 National Health Survey.

The use of condoms declined with age from 48% of sexually active 18–24 year old women, to 12% of 45–49 year olds. Condom use may also be linked to the permanency of a woman's sexual relationship. In 2001, sexually active women aged 18–49 years who were neither married nor in a de facto relationship had a higher rate of condom use (42%) than women who were in such relationships (22%).

### Lifestyle factors

Lifestyle behaviours such as good nutrition and physical activity are preventative factors against cardiovascular disease, stroke, diabetes, some cancers, obesity, and

osteoporosis.<sup>11,12</sup> Conversely, smoking is a recognised risk factor for several illnesses (see *Australian Social Trends 2003*, Health risk factors among adults, pp. 74–78).

Although nutritional requirements change over a woman's lifetime (e.g. in response to pregnancy or menopause), the National Health and Medical Research Council generally recommends that adults consume five serves of vegetables (including legumes) and two serves of fruit per day.<sup>13</sup> In 2001, around a third (34%) of women aged 18 years and over usually ate four or more serves of vegetables daily, while over half (58%) ate the recommended two serves of fruit.

A woman's cultural background may influence her consumption of fruit and vegetables, as different cultures have different food preferences. In 2001, women born in Australia were the most likely to usually consume four or more serves of vegetables per day (37%). Women from Southern and Eastern Europe were the most likely to eat two or more serves of fruit per day (68%). While women's levels of income did not appear to affect their daily consumption of vegetables, the usual intake of fruit was higher among women in the higher income quintiles.

It is recommended that adults undertake 30 minutes of moderate-intensity physical activity (such as brisk walking) on most days of the week.<sup>11</sup> However, in 2001, just 26% of women reported being physically active, in terms of taking moderate to high levels of deliberate exercise for recreation, sport or fitness in the previous two weeks. Between 1989–90 and 2001, the proportion of people exercising at a moderate or high level remained relatively stable (see *Australian Social Trends 2003*, Health risk factors among adults, pp. 74–78).

The level of deliberate exercise, taken for recreation, sport or fitness in the previous two weeks, undertaken by women aged 18 years and over varied in relation to their region of birth. A smaller proportion of women who were born in South East Asia had undertaken moderate or high levels of exercise for recreation, sport or fitness in the previous two weeks (12%), compared with women born elsewhere. The highest proportion of physically active women were from the United Kingdom and Ireland (37%), and Other North-West Europe (31%). Of women born in Australia, 27% were physically active in this way.

### Vegetable and fruit intake, physical activity, and current smoker status reported by women aged 18 years and over(a) — 2001

	4 or more serves of vegetables(b)	2 or more serves of fruit(b)	Physically active(c)	Non- smoker(d)
	%	%	%	%
Region of birth				
Australia	37.2	57.7	26.8	77.6
Other Oceania(e)	32.1	54.3	25.9	74.3
United Kingdom and Ireland	26.8	58.5	36.6	77.4
Other North-West Europe	26.4	62.3	31.2	71.6
Southern and Eastern Europe	22.1	68.3	24.2	82.9
North Africa and Middle East	*8.7	57.0	*14.5	86.6
South East Asia	20.3	57.8	11.5	89.8
Other Asia	33.8	54.0	25.3	93.3
Americas	25.3	58.0	23.0	80.0
All other countries	23.8	64.2	29.2	91.9
Equivalised income of income unit quintile(f)				
Lowest	31.9	56.4	26.8	68.3
Second	34.2	54.6	24.0	74.6
Third	36.5	57.6	23.5	80.4
Fourth	33.5	60.6	25.7	83.0
Highest	33.9	63.4	31.5	83.7
<b>Australia</b>	<b>33.6</b>	<b>58.3</b>	<b>26.3</b>	<b>78.9</b>

(a) Age standardised.

(b) Usual intake per day. Women who did not state their daily fruit or vegetable intake were excluded prior to the calculation of percentages.

(c) Includes moderate and high levels of deliberate exercise only, undertaken in the two weeks prior to interview. Levels are based on frequency, intensity and duration of exercise.

(d) Does not currently smoke but may have smoked in the past.

(e) Includes New Zealand.

(f) Quintiles have been calculated after ranking persons by the equivalised gross weekly income of the income unit of which they are a member. For additional detail see page 77.

Source: ABS 2001 National Health Survey.

In 2001, over three-quarters (79%) of women were non-smokers. Women in higher income quintiles were less likely to smoke than those in lower income quintiles. Smoking status also varied in relation to region of birth, with women from South East Asia and Other Asia among the least likely to smoke (90% and 93% respectively were non-smokers).

Between 1989–90 and 2001, the proportion of women who were current smokers decreased from 24% to 21%. Over that period, women aged 18–24 years experienced the greatest reduction in smoking (in 1989–90, 36% of women in this age group were current smokers, compared with 27% in 2001). However, smoking increased among women aged 35–44 years (from 25% in 1989–90 to 27% in 2001) (see *Australian Social Trends 2003*, Health risk factors among adults, pp. 74–78).

## Endnotes

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- 12 Better Health Channel 2002, <[http://www.betterhealth.vic.gov.au/bhcv2/bhcarticles.nsf/pages/Food\\_requirements\\_during\\_different\\_life\\_stages?OpenDocument](http://www.betterhealth.vic.gov.au/bhcv2/bhcarticles.nsf/pages/Food_requirements_during_different_life_stages?OpenDocument)>, accessed 16 July 2003.
- 13 National Health and Medical Research Council, 2003, *Dietary Guidelines for Australian Adults*, Canberra.



# Education and training

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	Page
National and state summary tables .....	84
Education and training data sources and definitions ...	88

## EDUCATION EXPENDITURE

Paying for university education .....	91
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Between 1992 and 2002, the proportion of university students financing their tertiary education through the Higher Education Contribution Scheme (HECS) dropped from 82% to 67%. This coincides with an increase in the number of overseas fee-paying students. This article examines sources of university funding and characteristics of university students based on their HECS-liability status.

## EDUCATION AND WORK

Higher education graduates in the labour market .....	95
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People with higher education qualifications are less likely to be unemployed, and also have higher incomes, than those without such qualifications. This article reports the growth in the proportion of people with higher education qualifications from the 1970s, and examines the labour market outcomes of people with higher education qualifications.

## PARTICIPATION IN EDUCATION

Attending preschool .....	98
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In 2001, 56% of all children aged four years attended preschool. There was some variation in participation rates between Indigenous (46%) and non-Indigenous (57%) four year olds. The preschool participation rate for four year olds decreased as distance from large population centres increased. This article examines individual and family characteristics of preschool students, aged four years.

# Education and training: national summary

<b>PARTICIPANTS</b>		Units	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
1	School students(a)	'000	3 098	3 099	3 109	3 143	3 172	3 199	3 227	3 247	3 268	3 302	3 319
2	Students in government schools(a)	%	71.9	71.5	71.0	70.7	70.3	70.0	69.7	69.2	68.8	68.4	67.9
3	Females – of all Year 11 and 12 students(a)	%	51.1	51.4	51.8	51.8	51.8	52.0	52.1	52.1	51.8	51.5	51.4
4	Year 7/8 to Year 12 apparent retention rate – males(b)	%	71.9	69.6	66.7	65.9	66.2	65.9	66.4	66.1	68.1	69.8	70.3
5	Year 7/8 to Year 12 apparent retention rate – females(b)	%	81.4	79.9	77.9	77.0	77.8	77.7	78.5	78.7	79.1	80.7	80.7
6	Year 7/8 to Year 12 apparent retention rate – Indigenous(b)	%	n.a.	32.5	30.6	29.2	30.9	32.1	34.7	36.4	35.7	38.0	39.1
7	Year 7/8 to Year 12 apparent retention rate – non-Indigenous(b)	%	n.a.	76.5	73.2	72.4	72.9	72.7	73.2	73.3	74.5	76.3	76.5
8	Education participation – of all aged 15–19(c)	%	73.4	72.9	73.9	74.0	77.4	76.9	77.8	77.6	77.4	77.3	77.5
9	Education participation – of all aged 20–24(c)	%	25.8	26.6	28.0	31.5	31.0	32.1	34.4	34.4	34.8	37.2	37.5
10	Vocational Education and Training (VET) students(d)	'000	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	r1 453	r1 514	r1 620	r1 713	r1 685	1 690	n.y.a.
11	Apprentices and trainees	'000	138.0	131.0	136.0	156.5	171.1	192.7	252.2	276.4	314.9	r356.5	398.2
12	Females – of all VET students(d)	%	45.9	45.9	47.2	47.6	r46.4	47.3	48.7	49.0	r48.5	48.1	n.y.a.
13	Higher education students(e)	'000	575.6	585.4	604.2	634.1	658.8	671.9	686.3	695.5	r842.2	r896.6	n.y.a.
14	Females – of all higher education students(e)	%	53.4	53.5	53.9	54.3	54.4	54.7	55.0	55.2	r54.4	r54.4	n.y.a.
15	Overseas students – of all higher education students(e)(f)	%	6.4	6.9	7.6	8.4	9.6	10.7	12.1	13.7	r18.7	r20.6	n.y.a.
<b>EDUCATION OUTCOMES</b>		Units	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
<b>With non-school educational qualifications of all persons aged 15–64 years(g)</b>													
16	Of all aged 15–64(h)(i)	%	39.1	39.0	41.0	42.3	40.4	41.9	43.7	43.8	47.2	48.2	49.1
17	Bachelor degree or above	%	10.1	11.5	11.9	12.8	13.6	14.3	15.4	15.7	17.0	17.8	18.1
18	Advanced diploma and diploma or below	%	28.9	27.5	29.1	29.4	26.8	27.6	28.3	28.1	r29.1	r29.8	30.2
19	Females – of all with non-school educational qualifications	%	42.6	44.1	43.9	44.1	44.6	45.1	45.2	45.8	r46.9	46.8	46.5
<b>With non-school educational qualifications of all persons aged 25–64(g)</b>													
20	Of all aged 25–64(h)(i)	%	44.6	44.1	46.4	47.7	45.5	47.3	49.3	49.5	53.3	54.4	55.3
21	Bachelor degree or above	%	11.8	13.4	13.8	14.8	15.6	16.6	17.7	18.1	19.7	20.4	20.9
22	Advanced diploma and diploma or below	%	32.8	30.8	32.6	32.9	29.9	30.7	31.7	31.4	r32.3	r33.2	33.4
23	Higher education students completing courses	'000	132.9	138.7	141.0	145.3	155.3	161.7	164.4	r170.9	r187.0	200.6	n.y.a.
<b>Without non-school educational qualifications of all persons aged 15–64(g)</b>													
24	Of all aged 15–64(h)	%	60.9	61.0	59.0	57.7	59.6	58.1	56.3	56.2	52.8	51.8	50.9
25	Did not complete Year 12(j)	%	37.3	37.7	36.1	34.8	36.3	34.2	32.7	32.0	36.1	34.9	33.8
<b>Reading – proportion of Year 5 students reaching national benchmarks(k)</b>													
26	Males	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	83.4(k)	85.2	87.8	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
27	Females	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	88.4(k)	89.6	92.0	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
<b>Numeracy – proportion of Year 5 students reaching national benchmarks</b>													
28	Males	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	89.4	89.5	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
29	Females	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	89.8	89.8	n.y.a.	n.y.a.

# Education and training: national summary cont.

<b>LABOUR MARKET OUTCOMES</b>		Units	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
<b>Unemployment rate (aged 15–64)</b>													
30	With non-school educational qualifications(g)(h)(i)	%	7.1	6.1	5.5	5.3	5.4	5.0	4.6	4.4	4.6	4.2	4.3
31	Bachelor degree or above	%	4.8	4.7	3.6	3.8	3.5	3.1	3.0	3.0	2.8	2.7	3.1
32	Advanced diploma and diploma or below	%	8.0	6.7	6.3	6.0	6.5	6.0	5.5	5.2	5.7	5.1	5.0
33	Without non-school educational qualifications(h)	%	14.1	13.0	11.1	11.3	11.6	10.9	10.3	9.1	9.6	9.1	8.6
34	Completed Year 12(j)	%	12.3	11.0	9.9	10.0	8.9	8.6	7.7	7.2	7.5	7.0	6.4
35	Did not complete Year 12(j)	%	14.9	13.9	11.7	12.0	13.0	12.2	11.8	10.3	10.8	10.3	10.0
<b>FINANCIAL RESOURCES</b>		Units	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999(l)	2000	2001	2002	2003
<b>Government expenses on education(m)</b>													
36	Proportion of GDP(l)	%	4.9	4.7	4.6	4.5	4.5	4.4	5.2	5.1	5.2	5.3	n.y.a.
37	Primary and secondary(l)	\$'000m	12.0	12.2	12.5	13.0	13.9	14.7	17.3	18.2	19.5	21.3	n.y.a.
38	Tertiary(l)	\$'000m	6.9	7.1	7.6	7.6	8.1	8.0	11.7	12.1	12.8	13.6	n.y.a.
<b>HUMAN RESOURCES</b>		Units	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
<b>Student/teaching staff ratio</b>													
39	All schools	ratio	15.3	15.5	15.4	15.4	15.3	15.3	15.0	14.9	14.7	14.7	14.5
40	Government schools	ratio	15.2	15.4	15.4	15.4	15.3	15.3	14.9	14.9	14.7	14.8	14.6
41	Primary schools	ratio	18.4	18.5	18.2	18.1	17.9	17.9	17.3	17.3	17.0	16.9	16.6
42	Secondary schools	ratio	12.4	12.6	12.7	12.8	12.8	12.8	12.7	12.6	12.5	12.5	12.4
43	Higher education	ratio	15.3	14.7	15.1	15.9	17.3	18.0	18.0	18.3	18.7	19.5	n.y.a.
<b>Female teachers/academic staff</b>													
44	Of all primary school teachers	%	74.4	74.7	76.1	76.2	76.9	77.5	78.0	78.3	78.7	79.1	79.1
45	Of all secondary school teachers	%	51.1	51.3	52.3	52.6	53.1	53.5	54.1	54.4	54.9	55.1	55.3
46	Of all higher education academic staff(n)	%	32.6	32.8	33.5	34.1	34.4	35.1	35.5	36.3	37.5	38.1	38.7
<b>PROVIDERS</b>		Units	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
47	Schools	no.	9 865	9 679	9 648	9 630	9 609	9 587	9 590	9 609	r9 515	r9 612	9 607
48	Government schools – of all schools	%	74.7	74.0	73.8	73.6	73.2	73.0	72.7	72.6	r72.3	r72.3	72.1

(a) Refers to full-time students only.

(b) Refers to the number of full-time students in Year 12 divided by the number of full-time students in the first year of secondary school (Year 7 in NSW, the ACT, Vic. and Tas.; Year 8 in Qld, SA, the NT and WA) when the Year 12 cohort began secondary school. Care should be taken in interpreting apparent retention rates as they do not account for students repeating a year or migrating into or out of the relevant school student population.

(c) Data for 1993 and 1994 refer to courses leading to recognised qualifications only.

(d) Data prior to 1994 are not strictly comparable to more recent data due to changes in scope and collection methodology. Community education providers were included in the collection from 1995, private providers were included from 1996, and VET in schools was included from 1997 to 2001. Data prior to 2002 has been revised by the National Centre for Vocational Education Research to account for the change in scope.

(e) The scope of the data in 2002 is different to that used for reporting students in previous publications in the Selected Higher Education Statistics series. 2001 data has been recalculated by the Department of Education, Science and Training to align with the change in scope. Refer to *Students 2002: Selected Higher Education Statistics* for more detail.

(f) Prior to 1996, New Zealand students were counted as being overseas students.

(g) There have been three major breaks in the series between 1993 and 2003. The breaks listed below are considered to have impacted on the comparability of data relating to qualifications. In 1994 qualifications of nurses were treated separately, in 1997 prompt cards were no longer used and computer assisted coding methodology was adopted, resulting in changes in the relative distribution within vocational education qualifications, and in 2001, the *Australian Bureau of Statistics Classification of Qualifications (ABSCQ)* was replaced by the *Australian Standard Classification of Education (ASCED)* (cat. no. 1272.0).

(h) Estimates refer to recognised qualifications only.

(i) Includes persons who have a qualification where the level can not be determined.

(j) Includes persons who are still at school.

(k) In 1999, data do not include a number of Queensland students, who were formally exempted from testing.

(l) Series break due to the introduction of Accrual Accounting in the 1998–99 financial year. Data for the 1998–99 financial year onwards are not comparable with the cash-based estimates in previous financial years.

(m) Prior to 1998–99, this indicator refers to cash outlays on education including capital outlays. From 1998–99 onwards, when accrual accounting was implemented in Government Finance Statistics (GFS), this indicator refers to Operating Expenses and does not include a capital component.

(n) Data cover full-time and fractional full-time staff but exclude casual academic staff.

Reference periods: Data for indicators 1–7, 39–42, 44–45 and 47–48 are at August, except for 1992–1994 (July).

Data for indicators 8–9, 16–22, 24–25 and 30–35 are at May.

Data for indicators 10–12 are at 30 June.

Data for indicators 13–15, 23, 43 and 46 are at 31 August from 2002 and 31 March prior to 2002.

Data for indicators 26–29 are at August.

Data for indicators 36–38 are for the financial year ending 30 June.

# Education and training: state summary

<b>PARTICIPANTS</b>												
	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT(a)	ACT	Aust.	
1	School students(b)	'000	2003	1 107	819	630	249	334	82	37	60	3 319
2	Students in government schools(b)	%	2003	67.7	65.4	70.7	67.5	68.9	74.2	76.9	60.8	67.9
3	Females – of all Year 11 and 12 students(b)	%	2003	51.8	51.8	50.6	52.2	50.5	53.4	50.7	49.1	51.4
4	Year 7/8 to Year 12 apparent retention rate – males(c)	%	2003	65.8	74.7	77.6	60.8	67.2	66.6	54.8	87.1	70.3
5	Year 7/8 to Year 12 apparent retention rate – females(c)	%	2003	75.3	88.4	85.7	73.7	75.3	83.4	58.0	92.5	80.7
6	Education participation – of all aged 15–19	%	2003	78.3	85.3	71.1	75.7	72.4	73.3	59.7	77.5	77.5
7	Education participation – of all aged 20–24	%	2003	37.8	43.7	31.7	32.8	34.3	28.3	26.2	50.4	37.5
8	Vocational Education and Training (VET) students(d)	'000	2002	557.2	497.4	298.9	127.7	133.8	32.8	22.5	19.8	1 690.1
9	Apprentices and trainees	'000	2003	116.3	137.2	67.8	32.0	23.8	13.4	2.5	5.2	398.2
10	Females – of all VET students(d)	%	2002	49.6	47.5	47.0	49.5	46.3	43.6	46.7	49.5	48.1
11	Higher education students(e)(f)	'000	2002	r289.9	r228.6	r170.9	r60.5	r88.5	r15.7	r6.4	r24.3	r896.6
12	Females – of all higher education students(e)(f)	%	2002	r53.9	r53.9	r54.2	r56.2	r56.2	r49.7	r64.6	r50.4	r54.4
13	Overseas students – of all higher education students(e)(f)	%	2002	r20.1	r23.3	r19.6	r21.5	r23.1	r9.3	r5.4	r16.5	r20.6
<b>EDUCATION OUTCOMES</b>												
	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT(a)	ACT	Aust.	
<b>With non-school educational qualifications of all persons aged 15–64 years</b>												
14	Of all aged 15–64(g)(h)	%	2003	51.3	49.4	45.9	45.4	49.6	44.3	45.0	56.2	49.1
15	Bachelor degree or above	%	2003	19.1	21.0	14.3	14.5	16.1	13.9	17.2	29.8	18.1
16	Advanced diploma and diploma or below	%	2003	31.2	27.7	30.7	30.3	32.8	29.5	27.1	25.4	30.2
17	Females – all with non-school educational qualifications	%	2003	47.4	46.5	45.3	45.4	45.9	46.7	46.0	48.0	46.5
<b>With non-school educational qualifications of all persons aged 25–64</b>												
18	Of all aged 25–64(g)(h)	%	2003	58.0	55.6	51.4	51.2	56.0	50.3	51.4	65.5	55.3
19	Bachelor degree or above	%	2003	21.8	24.3	16.8	16.8	18.5	16.3	20.2	36.0	20.9
20	Advanced diploma and diploma or below	%	2003	35.0	30.5	33.5	33.5	36.7	32.9	30.3	28.4	33.4
21	Higher education students completing courses(d)(e)	'000	2002	62.8	54.4	35.5	13.9	20.4	4.0	1.0	5.9	200.6
<b>Without non-school educational qualifications of all persons aged 15–64</b>												
22	Of all aged 15–64(g)(h)	%	2003	48.7	50.6	54.1	54.6	50.4	55.7	55.0	43.8	50.9
23	Did not complete Year 12(i)	%	2003	32.3	33.1	35.4	37.6	34.0	44.1	38.8	22.0	33.8
<b>Reading – proportion of Year 5 students reaching national benchmarks</b>												
24	Males	%	2001	90.5	88.7	80.1	86.5	93.2	92.2	71.0	92.9	87.8
25	Females	%	2001	93.5	93.1	86.3	91.6	95.9	96.6	72.2	96.4	92.0
<b>Numeracy – proportion of Year 5 students reaching national benchmarks</b>												
26	Males	%	2001	91.5	94.4	82.2	85.6	89.7	91.2	69.2	92.2	89.5
27	Females	%	2001	91.8	94.9	81.9	86.2	90.3	92.2	68.3	94.0	89.8



# Education and training: state summary continued

<b>LABOUR MARKET OUTCOMES</b>		Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT(a)	ACT	Aust.
<b>Unemployment rate (aged 15–64)</b>												
28	With non-school educational qualifications(g)(h)	%	2003	4.2	4.3	4.6	4.0	4.3	4.3	*3.5	3.3	4.3
29	Bachelor degree or above	%	2003	3.5	3.2	2.5	*2.0	3.4	*2.0	**	*2.7	3.1
30	Advanced diploma and diploma or below	%	2003	4.7	5.0	5.6	5.0	4.8	5.5	*5.4	4.2	5.0
31	Without non-school educational qualifications(g)	%	2003	8.7	8.1	9.3	8.9	7.6	11.0	9.0	5.8	8.6
32	Completed Year 12(i)	%	2003	6.7	5.9	6.2	7.7	5.6	9.8	*5.8	4.8	6.4
33	Did not complete Year 12(i)	%	2003	10.0	9.5	11.3	9.5	8.8	11.3	10.6	7.1	10.0
<b>HUMAN RESOURCES</b>		Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
<b>Student/teaching staff ratio</b>												
34	All schools	ratio	2003	14.7	14.1	14.5	14.8	14.8	14.6	13.3	14.0	14.5
35	Government schools	ratio	2003	15.0	14.3	14.5	14.7	14.8	14.8	13.1	13.5	14.6
36	Primary schools	ratio	2003	17.3	16.3	15.8	16.4	16.9	16.2	14.6	16.1	16.6
37	Secondary schools	ratio	2003	12.3	12.1	12.9	12.7	12.3	13.1	11.1	12.3	12.4
38	Higher education(e)(f)	ratio	2002	19.5	19.5	21.9	17.6	18.6	18.9	21.3	16.3	19.5
<b>Female teachers/academic staff</b>												
39	Of all primary school teachers	%	2003	79.8	79.9	77.9	76.2	78.7	79.0	82.6	83.5	79.1
40	Of all secondary school teachers	%	2003	55.2	56.8	56.0	49.4	52.7	54.4	59.6	60.5	55.3
41	Of all higher education academic staff(f)(j)	%	2003	37.6	41.6	37.4	39.0	38.0	34.5	50.2	30.7	38.7
<b>PROVIDERS</b>		Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
42	Schools	no.	2003	3 092	2 312	1 728	809	1 064	281	183	138	9 607
43	Government schools – of all schools	%	2003	70.7	69.9	74.2	75.3	73.1	76.2	82.0	68.8	72.1

(a) Estimates for Northern Territory refer to mainly urban areas only for indicators 6–7, 14–20, 22–23 and 28–33.

(b) Refers to full-time students only.

(c) Refers to the number of full-time students in Year 12 divided by the number of full-time students in the first year of secondary school (Year 7 in NSW, the ACT, Vic. and Tas.; Year 8 in Qld, SA, the NT and WA) when the Year 12 cohort began secondary school. Care should be taken in interpreting apparent retention rates as they do not account for students repeating a year or migrating into or out of the relevant school student population.

(d) Excludes VET in schools.

(e) State and territory totals exclude students of the Australian Catholic University which has campuses in more than one state or territory.

(f) Australian total includes multi-state universities.

(g) Estimates refer to recognised qualifications only.

(h) Includes persons who have a qualification where the level can not be determined.

(i) Includes persons who are still at school.

(j) Data cover full-time and fractional full-time staff but exclude casual academic staff.

Reference periods: Data for indicators 6–7, 14–20, 22–23 and 28–33 are at May.

Data for indicators 8–10 are at 30 June.

Data for all other indicators are at August.

# Education and training: data sources

DATA SOURCE	Indicators using this source	
	National indicators	State indicators
ABS Survey of Education and Work.	8–9, 19–22, 25	6–7, 17–20, 23, 28–33
Department of Education, Science and Training, <i>Selected Higher Education Statistics</i> .	43	38
Department of Education, Science and Training, <i>Staff: Selected Higher Education Statistics</i> .	46	41
Department of Education, Science and Training, <i>Students: Selected Higher Education Statistics</i> .	13–15	11–13
Department of Education, Science and Training, <i>Students (First half year): Selected Higher Education Statistics</i> .	23	21
<i>Education and Work, Australia</i> (ABS cat. no. 6227.0).	16–18, 24, 30–35	14–16, 22
<i>Government Finance Statistics, Education, Australia – Electronic delivery</i> (ABS cat. no. 5518.0.55.001).	36–38	—
Ministerial Council on Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs (MCEETYA), <i>National Report on Schooling in Australia</i> .	26–29	24–27
MCEETYA 2001, <i>National Report on Schooling in Australia, 1999 and Schools, Australia</i> (ABS cat. no. 4221.0).	6–7	—
National Centre for Vocational Education Research, <i>Apprentices and Trainees</i> .	11	9
National Centre for Vocational Education Research, <i>Australian Vocational Education and Training Statistics, Students and Courses: In detail</i> .	10, 12	8, 10
National School Statistics Collection.	—	4–5
<i>Schools, Australia</i> (ABS cat. no. 4221.0).	1–5, 39–42, 44–45, 47–48	1–3, 34–37, 39–40, 42–43

## Education and training: definitions

### Academic staff

those appointed wholly or principally to undertake a teaching-only function or a research-only function or a teaching-and-research function in an educational institution, or those appointed by an educational institution to be responsible for such people.

Reference: Department of Education, Science and Training, *Staff: Selected Higher Education Statistics*.

### Advanced diploma and diploma or below

includes qualifications at the Advanced Diploma Level, Associate Degree Level, Diploma Level, Certificate IV Level, Certificate III Level, Certificate II Level, or Certificate I Level.

Reference: *Australian Standard Classification of Education (ASCED)* (ABS cat. no. 1272.0).

### Apprentices and trainees

persons undertaking vocational training through contract of training arrangements. Contracts of training are legal agreements entered into by employers and trainees who are engaged in employment-based training.

Reference: National Centre for Vocational Education Research, *Australian Apprentice and Trainee Statistics*.

### Bachelor degree or above

includes qualifications at the Bachelor Degree Level (including Honours), Graduate Certificate Level, Graduate Diploma Level, Master Degree Level or Doctorate Degree Level.

Reference: *Australian Standard Classification of Education (ASCED)* (ABS cat. no. 1272.0).

### Education participation

all persons enrolled for a course of study in the survey month at any institution whose primary role is education. Included are schools, higher education establishments, Technical and Further Education colleges (TAFEs) and any other educational institutions.

Reference: *Education and Work, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6227.0).

### 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 with that worked by full-time staff performing similar duties. Casual staff are excluded.

Reference: *Schools, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4221.0).

### GDP (gross domestic product)

total market value of goods and services produced in Australia within a given period after deducting the cost of goods used up in the process of production, but before deducting allowances for the consumption of fixed capital (depreciation).

Reference: *Government Finance Statistics, Education, Australia – Electronic delivery* (ABS cat. no. 5518.0.55.001).

### Government expenses on education

total government final expenditure on education services and facilities; government transfer payments paid for the purpose of facilitating education but not intended to be spent directly on educational services (such as personal benefit payments to students and advances to persons for the Higher Education Contribution Scheme (HECS)); and other miscellaneous expenditure on education by government.

Reference: *Government Finance Statistics, Education, Australia – Electronic delivery* (ABS cat. no. 5518.0.55.001).

### Government school

one administered by the Department of Education under the Director-General of Education (or equivalent) in each state or territory.

Reference: *Schools, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4221.0).

# Education and training: definitions continued

## Higher education student

a person who has been admitted to a higher education institution and who is enrolled (either full-time, part-time or externally) in a higher education award course, an enabling course or a non-award course to be undertaken in the semester used as the reference period. State totals are the number of students enrolled at all higher education institutions within a particular state or territory.

Reference: Department of Education, Science and Training, *Students: Selected Higher Education Statistics 2002*.

## Higher education student/teaching staff ratios

the number of students, measured by the full-time equivalent (FTE) student unit for all students attending a higher education institution in Australia (excluding the FTE study load of work experience students), divided by the FTE of teaching staff (staff whose function was teaching only or teaching and research) in an Academic Organisational Unit, which includes full-time, fractional full-time, and casual staff.

Reference: *Education and Training Indicators, Australia, 2002* (ABS cat. no. 4230.0).

## Non-government school

any school not administered by a Department of Education, but including special schools administered by government authorities other than the state and territory education departments.

Reference: *Schools, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4221.0).

## Non-school educational qualification

an award for attainment as a result of formal learning from an accredited non-school institution. From 2001, with the implementation of the *Australian Standard Classification of Education (ASCED)* (ABS cat. no. 1262.0), non-school qualifications are awarded for educational attainments other than those of pre-primary, primary or secondary education. This includes qualifications at the Post Graduate Degree Level, Master Degree Level, Graduate Diploma and Graduate Certificate Level, Bachelor Degree Level, Advanced Diploma and Diploma Level, and Certificates I, II, III and IV Levels. Non-school qualifications may be attained concurrently with school qualifications.

Prior to 2001, educational qualifications were classified according to the *ABS Classification of Qualifications (ABSCQ)* (ABS cat. no. 1262.0). The level of attainment included higher degrees, postgraduate diplomas, bachelor degrees, undergraduate and associate diplomas, and skilled and basic vocational qualifications.

Reference: *Education and Work, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6227.0).

## Numeracy — national benchmarks

the numeracy benchmarks describe nationally agreed minimum acceptable standards for numeracy at particular school year levels. They represent the minimum acceptable standard of numeracy without which a student will have difficulty making sufficient progress at school.

Reference: Ministerial Council on Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs, *National Report on Schooling, 2000*.

## Overseas higher education student

a higher education student who is not an Australian citizen, is not a New Zealand citizen and does not have Permanent Residence status.

Reference: Department of Education, Science and Training Statistics, *Selected Higher Education Statistics*.

## Primary education

full-time education which typically commences around age five years and lasts for seven to eight years. It does not include sessional education such as preschool education.

Reference: *Schools, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4221.0).

## Reading — national benchmarks

the reading benchmarks describe nationally agreed minimum acceptable standards for literacy at particular school year levels. They represent the minimum acceptable standard of literacy without which a student will have difficulty making sufficient progress at school.

Reference: Ministerial Council on Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs, *National Report on Schooling in Australia, 2000*.

## School

an educational institution which provides primary or secondary education on a full-time daily basis, or the provision of primary or secondary distance education.

Reference: *Schools, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4221.0).

## School student

a person who is enrolled in a school and active in a course of study, other than preschool or Technical and Further Education (TAFE) courses.

Reference: *Schools, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4221.0).

## School student/teaching staff ratio

number of full-time school students plus full-time equivalent of part-time students divided by the number of full-time equivalent teaching staff.

Reference: *Schools, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4221.0).

## Secondary education

education which typically commences after completion of primary education, at around age 12 years, and lasts for five or six years.

Reference: *Schools, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4221.0).

## Tertiary education

formal education beyond secondary education, including higher education, vocational education and training, or other specialist post-secondary education or training. Also called post-secondary education or further education.

Reference: *Education and Training Indicators, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4230.0).

## Unemployment rate (of persons aged 15 years and over)

for any group, the number of unemployed persons expressed as a percentage of the labour force in the same group.

Reference: *Australian Labour Market Statistics* (ABS cat. no. 6105.0).

## Vocational Education and Training (VET) student

a person for whom there is a full-time or part-time vocational stream enrolment in a TAFE college or agricultural college or state-recognised Adult and Community Education (ACE) provider, or a publicly-funded vocational course enrolment in a registered private training organisation during the reference year. Persons enrolled in non-vocational courses given by TAFE and ACE are excluded.

Reference: National Centre for Vocational Education Research, *Australian Vocational Education and Training Statistics: In Detail*.

## Year 7/8 to 12 apparent retention rate

the percentage of full-time students of a given cohort group who continue from the first year of secondary schooling (Year 7 in New South Wales, the Australian Capital Territory, Victoria and Tasmania; Year 8 in Queensland, South Australia, the Northern Territory and Western Australia) to Year 12. Care should be taken in interpreting apparent retention rates as they do not account for students repeating a year or migrating into or out of the relevant school student population.

Reference: *Schools, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4221.0).



# Paying for university education

## EDUCATION EXPENDITURE

**In 2002, two-thirds (67%) of higher education students were required to pay HECS, and most of them (79%) had chosen to defer their payment.**

Financing of Australian higher education has undergone dramatic change since the early 1970s. Although the Australian Government provided regular funding for universities from the late 1950s, in 1974 it assumed full responsibility for funding higher education — abolishing tuition fees with the intention of making university accessible to all Australians who had the ability and who wished to participate in higher education.<sup>1</sup>

Since the late 1980s, there has been a move towards greater private contributions, particularly student fees. In 1989, the Australian Government introduced the Higher Education Contribution Scheme (HECS) which included a loans scheme to help students finance their contributions. This enabled universities to remain accessible to students by delaying their payments until they could afford to pay off their loans. In 2002, the Australian Government introduced a scheme similar to HECS for postgraduate students — the Postgraduate Education Loan Scheme (PELS).

Funding for higher education comes from various sources. This article examines the three main sources — Australian Government funding, student fees and charges, and HECS. While the proportion of total revenue raised through HECS is relatively small, HECS payments are a significant component of students' university costs, with many students

### Higher education

Data in this article are from the Department of Education, Science and Training's *Higher Education Statistics Collection*.

Data relating to the Higher Education Contribution Scheme are reported in terms of an *equivalent full-time student unit (EFTSU)*. An EFTSU value represents the student load for a unit of study or part of a unit of study or set thereof, expressed as a proportion of the workload for a 'standard student load'.<sup>2</sup>

The *Higher Education Contribution Scheme (HECS)* requires most students to contribute towards the cost of their higher education. A student's *liability status* is calculated on a semester by semester basis from his or her student load and the annual course contributions.

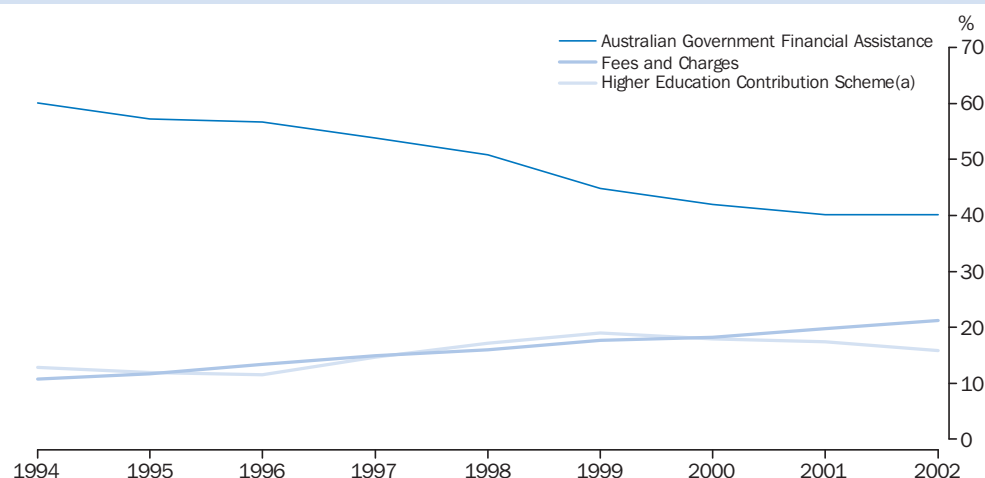
*HECS-liable* students are those who are required to contribute to HECS either through deferred repayments or up-front payments.

*HECS-exempt* students do not contribute to HECS but pay up-front fees or have a scholarship.

*Overseas students* are those students coming from outside Australia to study at Australian institutions.

carrying a HECS debt for several years after leaving university. This article also focuses on characteristics of university students based on their HECS liability status, and the level of accumulated HECS debt.

### Selected sources of higher education funding



(a) Includes student contributions and Australian government payments.

Source: Department of Education, Science and Training, *Selected Higher Education Finance Statistics 1994–1998*; and *Finance 1999–2002: Selected Higher Education Statistics*.

### Sources of higher education funding as proportion of total revenue

	1997	2002
Source	%	%
Australian Government	53.8	40.1
State and Territory Governments	1.1	4.0
HECS(a)	14.7	15.8
Fees and charges	14.9	21.2
Fee paying domestic students	1.5	2.8
Fee paying overseas students	7.6	12.5
Other fees and charges	5.8	5.9
Other income(b)	15.4	18.9
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
	\$b	\$b
<b>Total revenue</b>	<b>8.2</b>	<b>11.6</b>

(a) Includes student contributions and Australian Government payments.

(b) Includes PELS; superannuation; investment income; royalties, trademarks and licenses; and consultancy and contract research.

Source: Department of Education, Science and Training, *Selected Higher Education Finance Statistics, 1997*; and *Finance 2002: Selected Higher Education Statistics*.

### Sources of higher education funding

In 2002, the total operating revenue for Australian higher education institutions was \$11.6 billion, an increase from \$8.2 billion in 1997. In 2002, the three largest sources of higher education funding were Australian Government contributions (\$4.7 billion), fees and charges (\$2.5 billion), and HECS (\$1.8 billion).

### HECS liability status of higher education students

	1992	1997	2002
HECS liability status	%	%	%
HECS-liable	81.7	78.7	67.1
HECS-exempt	18.3	21.3	32.9
Overseas fee-paying	4.8	10.9	20.0
Domestic fee-paying	2.2	3.2	4.8
PELS-liability deferred(a)	..	..	1.8
Other HECS-exempt(b)	11.3	7.2	6.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>

(a) PELS introduced in 2002.

(b) Includes overseas foreign aid sponsored students; Australian Postgraduate Awards; enabling courses; and non-award courses.

Source: Department of Education, Science and Training, *Selected Higher Education Student Statistics, 1992 & 1997* and *Students 2002: Selected Higher Education Statistics*.

### Higher Education Contribution Scheme

The Higher Education Contribution Scheme (HECS) was introduced in 1989. Under HECS, students choose to pay their contribution up-front or defer their payment, with the Australian Government providing a 25% discount to eligible students who pay up-front. Students who choose to defer their payment take out a loan with the government and agree to repay that loan when their income reaches the minimum threshold for compulsory repayment.<sup>3</sup>

Higher education students are either HECS-liable and required to contribute towards HECS through up-front or deferred payments, or HECS-exempt and not required to contribute to HECS. In general, undergraduate students are HECS-liable while postgraduate students are HECS-exempt and are therefore required to pay up-front fees unless they have a scholarship.

A feature of HECS is that payment arrangements are based on the individual's capacity to pay. This arrangement means that students are not prevented from participating in higher education by an inability to pay up-front. Students are not required to make payments until their personal income in a financial year exceeds the minimum threshold, which was \$24,365 for the 2002–2003 financial year. The level of payment required above this threshold depends on the person's income.<sup>4</sup>

Funding provided by the Australian Government to higher education increased from \$4.4 billion in 1997 to \$4.7 billion in 2002. As a proportion of overall funding, this represented a decrease from 54% in 1997 to 40% in 2002.

The contribution of student fees and charges (other than HECS) to higher education funding more than doubled between 1997 and 2002, from \$1.2 billion to \$2.5 billion. This represented an increase in the proportion of overall funding from 15% in 1997 to 21% in 2002. This increase coincided with a large increase in the total number of overseas students (from 63,000 in 1997 to 185,000 in 2002) as well as the introduction of full-fee-paying places for domestic undergraduate students in 1998.

In 2002, \$1.8 billion was raised through HECS, representing 16% of all higher education funding. This compares with 15% raised through HECS in 1997.

### Students and HECS

Since the introduction of HECS in 1989, the majority of higher education students have entered university with a commitment to make a substantial contribution to the cost of their education via HECS. In 1989, around 372,000 students were HECS-liable, increasing to 420,000 in 2002. There was a

### Students' liability status by level of education — 2002

Level of education	HECS-liable	HECS-exempt
	%	%
Postgraduate Degree	8.0	92.0
Graduate Diploma and Graduate Certificate	27.6	72.4
Bachelor Degree	81.3	18.7
Advanced Diploma and Diploma	79.0	21.0
Other	10.8	89.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>67.1</b>	<b>32.9</b>

Source: Department of Education, Science and Training, *Students 2002: Selected Higher Education Statistics*.

decrease over this period in the proportion of students who were HECS-liable, from 86% to 67%. The decrease in the proportion of HECS-liable students reflects increasing numbers of overseas students and domestic fee-paying students since the late 1990s — both of these groups are largely HECS-exempt.

Most undergraduate students use the HECS system, either by paying up-front or deferring their payments. In 2002, 81% of students undertaking Bachelor Degrees and 79% of those undertaking Advanced Diplomas or Diplomas were HECS-liable.

#### ...paying HECS

Since the introduction of HECS, the amount charged and the rate of repayment through the tax system have varied. In 1989, all

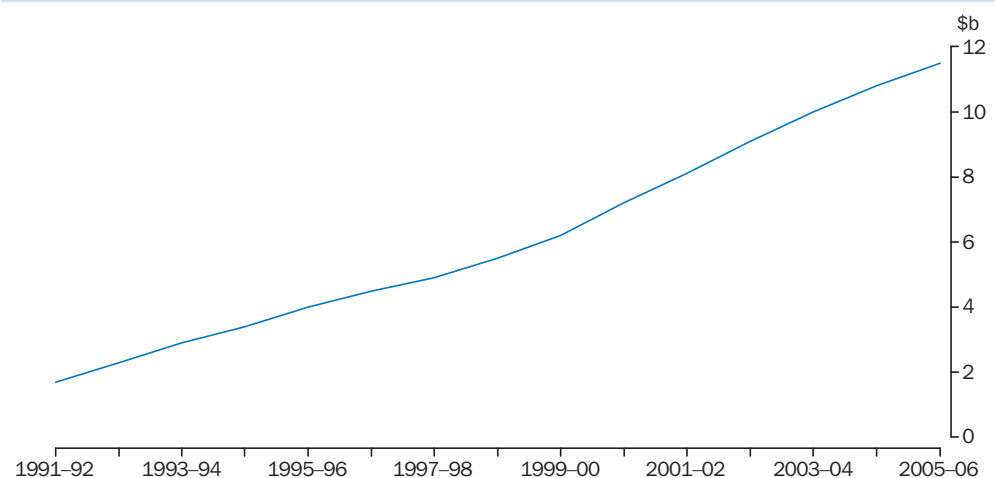
students were charged a flat rate irrespective of their course of study. In 1997, a three-tiered system of charges was introduced to reflect the differing cost structure of various courses and the differing potential earning capacity of graduates.<sup>4</sup>

HECS-liable students have the option of paying their HECS fees up-front to obtain a discount (25% in 2004), or delaying payments until they have attained a certain level of income. At this time, a proportion of an individual's salary is paid towards their HECS debt through the tax system. Of the 420,000 HECS-liable students in 2002, 79% deferred their payment while 21% paid up-front with a discount. Each year, the Australian Government contributes the difference between repayments received and the total HECS payments required to be made to the sector. In 2002, 17% of funding provided by HECS came from students' HECS contributions. The remaining 83% was paid by the government through loans to students deferring their payments, ultimately paid back through the tax system.

#### ...HECS debt

From the introduction of the scheme in 1989, through to June 2003, over 1.7 million students have taken out HECS loans totalling around \$13 billion. Of these, more than 600,000 have repaid their loans in full.<sup>5</sup> During this period, Australia's accumulated HECS debt has increased steadily to more than \$9 billion in 2003, and is estimated to reach \$12 billion by 2006.

### Australia's accumulated HECS debt(a)



(a) At 30 June. Figures for 2002-03 to 2005-06 are estimates.

Source: Department of Education, Science and Training; Australian Taxation Office, 2003.

In 2003, the average amount owing on individual HECS loans was \$8,500 overall. However, there was some variation across the states and territories with the average HECS debt ranging from \$6,900 in the Northern Territory to \$9,000 in Australian Capital Territory.<sup>5</sup> Of the 1.2 million people with a HECS loan in 2003, around two-thirds owed \$10,000 and or less, while 6% owed more than \$20,000.<sup>5</sup>

### ...HECS-exempt students

Over the decade to 2002, the number of HECS-exempt students almost doubled from 104,000 in 1992 to 206,000 in 2002. The increase in the number of HECS-exempt students over the decade to 2002 may be largely due to the increase in the number of overseas fee-paying students (5% of all students in 1992 compared with 20% in 2002). The majority of overseas students are full-fee-paying or are recipients of aid scholarships. In 2002, the majority (61%) of HECS-exempt students were overseas fee-paying students, more than twice the proportion of overseas fee-paying students in the HECS-exempt category in 1992 (26%).

As well as the increase in the number of overseas students over the decade to 2002, there was also an increase in the number of domestic fee-paying students. In 1992, only 2% of all students were domestic fee-paying students. This increased to 5% (or 30,000 students) in 2002. Full-fee-paying places for undergraduate courses were introduced in 1998. In 2002, 22% of domestic fee-paying students were undergraduates, increasing from 4% in 1998.

### Endnotes

- 1 Department of Education, Science and Training 2001, *The National Report on Higher Education in Australia*, DEST, Canberra.
- 2 Department of Education, Science and Training 2004, *HECS, loans and fees manual, 2004*, DEST, Canberra.
- 3 Department of Education, Science and Training 2002, *DEST Annual Report 2001–2002*, DEST, Canberra.
- 4 Department of Education, Science and Training 2003, *Higher Education Report for the 2003 to 2005 Triennium*, DEST, Canberra.
- 5 Australian Taxation Office 2003.



# Higher education graduates in the labour market

## EDUCATION AND WORK

**In May 2003, the unemployment rate for people aged 20–64 years with higher education qualifications (3%) was half the rate for those without such qualifications (6%).**

Higher education qualifications provide a substantial advantage in the labour market. Higher education graduates are less likely to be unemployed and tend to have higher incomes than those without such qualifications. Having a highly educated workforce can also lead to increased productivity and innovation and make Australia more competitive in the global market.<sup>1</sup>

### People with higher education qualifications

At the time of the 1971 census, 3% of people aged 20–64 years held a higher education qualification. By 2001, this had increased to 16%. Over this period, growth was greater for women (from 2% to 17%) than it was for men (from 4% to 15%).

In 2001, women aged 20–64 years were slightly more likely to hold higher education qualifications than men (17% and 15% respectively). In particular, young women were more likely to have higher education qualifications than men of the same age. For example, among people aged 25–29 years, 25% of women had higher education qualifications, compared with 18% of men in the same age group. On the other hand, among people aged 45 years and over, men were more likely than women to have higher education qualifications.

### Higher education qualifications

This article draws on data from the 1971–2001 Censuses of Population and Housing, *Education and Work, Australia*, May 2003 (ABS cat. no. 6227.0) and *Job Search Experience, Australia*, July 2003 (ABS cat. no. 6222.0).

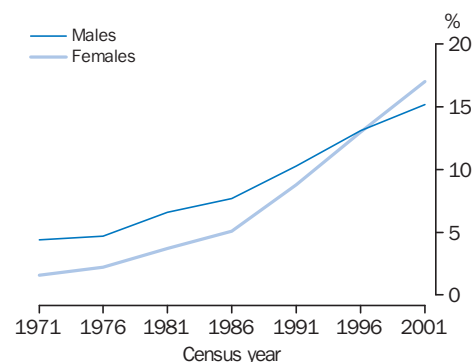
*Higher education qualifications* are recognised formal qualifications at the Bachelor degree level and above. These include qualifications obtained at universities and other institutions.

This article focuses on people aged 20–64 years.

About one in five (21%) people aged 25–29 years held a higher education qualification in 2001, greater than for any other age group. The proportion of people with higher education qualifications decreased with age, to 9% of people aged 60–64 years. The proportion of young people aged 20–24 years with higher education qualifications (12%) was relatively low, as many people in this age group are still studying.

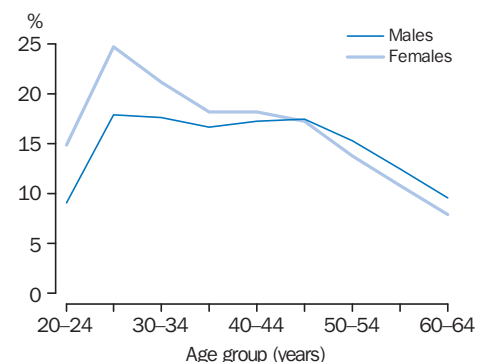
The proportion of people with a higher education qualification varied widely across Australia, from 12% in Tasmania to 31% in the Australian Capital Territory. The high proportion of people with such qualifications in the ACT (almost twice the national figure) carried across all age groups. This partly reflects the industry base in the ACT, where there is a predominance of higher-skilled occupations.

### People with higher education qualifications as a proportion of the population



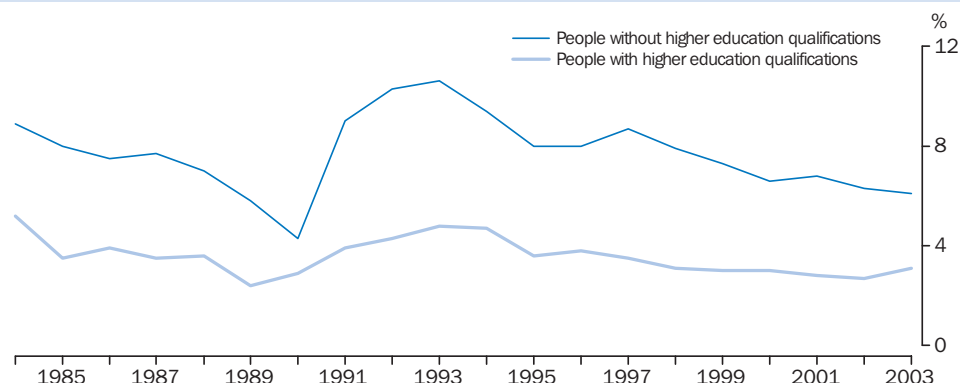
Source: ABS 1971–2001 Censuses of Population and Housing.

### People with higher education qualifications as a proportion of age groups — 2001



Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

### Unemployment rates(a) for people aged 20–64 years



(a) At May.

Source: ABS 1984–2003 Surveys of Education and Work.

### Labour market outcomes

Through the two decades to 2003, the unemployment rate for people aged 20–64 years with higher education qualifications was lower than that of people without such qualifications (3% and 6% respectively in May 2003). People with higher education qualifications were also less vulnerable to unemployment during the economic downturn of the early 1990s, when the unemployment rate for people without higher education qualifications increased more rapidly and to a greater extent. Further, the median duration of unemployment for people with higher education qualifications (13 weeks) was much shorter than for those without (18 weeks) in 2003.

In 2003, across all age groups, people with higher education qualifications had lower unemployment rates than those without such qualifications. However, the difference was greatest among people aged 25–34 years (3% compared with 7% for those without higher education qualifications). Although the

overall unemployment rate was higher in 2003 for women aged 20–64 years than for men of the same age (6% compared with 5%), women with higher education qualifications were less likely to be unemployed than their male counterparts (3% and 4% respectively).

Employed people with higher education qualifications were more likely to be working full-time than those without (78% compared with 73% in May 2003). Of people aged 20–64 years with higher education qualifications, women were more likely than their male counterparts to work part-time (34% compared with 10%). However, they were much less likely to work part-time than women without higher education qualifications (34% compared with 48%). In contrast, young men (aged 20–24 years) with higher education qualifications were more likely to work part-time than those without (29% compared with 26%).

People with higher education qualifications were more likely to work in higher skill occupations than those without. In 2003, four out of five employed people with higher education qualifications worked as Professionals (59%), Associate professionals (12%) or Managers and administrators (11%). These occupations accounted for 82% of workers with higher education qualifications, compared with 28% of those without.

In 2003, employed people aged 20–64 years with higher education qualifications were concentrated in a small number of industries. They represented 23% of workers overall, but 61% of those in the Education sector. This reflects the predominance of people working in this sector in occupations which are classified as higher skill (74%). Other industries employing a high proportion of people with higher education qualifications included Health and community services (38%) and Property and business services (35%).

### Industries employing a high proportion of people with higher education qualifications — 2003

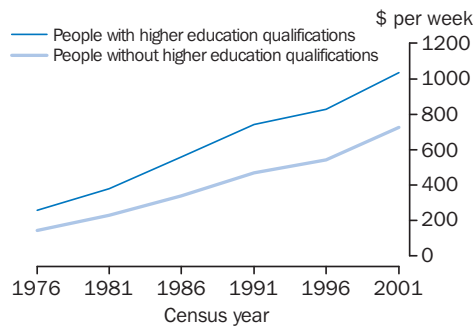
People with higher education qualifications

	%
Education	61.4
Health & community services	38.1
Property & business services	35.4
Government administration & defence	34.9
Finance & insurance	33.2
<b>All industries(a)</b>	<b>23.1</b>

(a) Includes other industries not specified.

Source: Education and Work, Australia, May 2003 (ABS cat. no. 6227.0).

**Median income(a)**



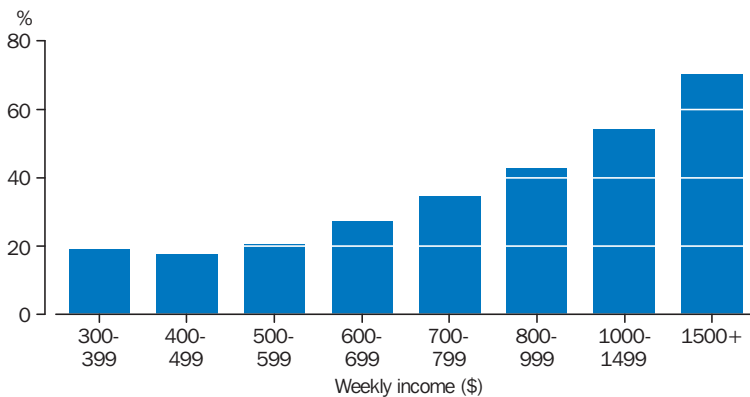
(a) Gross weekly income of people aged 20–64 years who were employed full-time in the week prior to the censuses. Median incomes calculated from census data may be understated as they are calculated from income ranges, using the mid-point of each range, except the highest range (in this case, \$1,500 and over) for which the lowest amount (i.e. \$1,500) is used.

Source: ABS 1976–2001 Censuses of Population and Housing.

**Income**

In 2001, the median gross weekly income of people aged 20–64 years who had higher education qualifications and who were employed full-time was \$1,036. This was almost 50% more than that of full-time workers without higher education qualifications (\$727 per week). In 2001, people with higher education qualifications represented about one quarter (22%) of people employed full-time, but almost three-quarters (70%) of those in the highest income bracket (\$1,500 or more per week) and less than one-fifth (19%) of people in the lowest income bracket (\$300–\$399 per week).

**People with higher education qualifications as a proportion of people in selected income brackets(a) — 2001**



(a) People aged 20–64 years who were working full-time.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

**Recent graduates' incomes**

According to the annual Graduate Destination Survey, conducted by the Graduate Careers Council of Australia, the median annual starting salary of recent bachelor degree graduates (who completed the requirements for their qualification in the year prior to the interview) in their first full-time employment has steadily increased, from \$9,600 in 1977 to \$37,000 in 2003. In 1977, the median graduate starting salary was the same as average earnings. However, since then average earnings have increased faster than graduate starting salaries, so that in 2003, the median graduate starting salary represented 82% of average earnings.

Incomes varied considerably across fields of study. In 2003, dentistry graduates had the highest median starting salary, at \$55,000, with optometry and medicine not far behind. The starting salaries of education and engineering graduates were also above the median (both \$40,000). In comparison, the median starting salary of art and design graduates was among the lowest, at \$31,000.

One reason for the higher incomes of people with higher education qualifications is their employment in higher-skilled occupations. The median income of Professionals (who accounted for over half of employed people with higher education qualifications) in 2001, was \$980 per week, well above the overall median of \$721 per week. Similarly, other common occupations of people with higher education qualifications had relatively high incomes. The median income of Managers and administrators (of whom 28% had higher education qualifications) was \$992 per week, while for Associate professionals it was \$758 per week.

Although people with higher education qualifications have had consistently higher incomes than those without, the relative difference has decreased. In 1976, the median gross weekly income of people with higher education qualifications (\$257) was almost double that of those without (\$143). In 2001, as noted earlier, it was just under 50% higher.

**Endnotes**

- 1 Andrews, L and Wu, T 1998, *The Labour Market Experience of Higher Education Graduates over the Last Decade*, Department of Employment, Education, Training and Youth Affairs, Canberra.

# Attending preschool

## PARTICIPATION IN EDUCATION

**In 2001, 56% of all four year olds attended preschool.**

Early learning in the years before school fosters children's cognitive, social, emotional, and physical development and wellbeing. This lays the foundation for a smooth transition to school and later school success. In recognition of the importance of early childhood to children's development, in 2003 the Australian Government launched a National Agenda for Early Childhood. The National Agenda focuses on children aged 0–5 years and highlights what needs to be done to ensure they get the best possible start in life.<sup>1</sup>

Disadvantage in early childhood poses multiple risks to children's development. Factors such as low socioeconomic status, long-term unemployment of parents, and social isolation may have lasting impacts on a child's chance of reaching their full potential. Whilst not eliminating disadvantage, preschool education can help to lessen the effects of these risk factors and can provide children with a better start to school.<sup>2</sup> However, some of these factors may also be barriers to preschool attendance for groups that would benefit most from preschool education.

In Australia, the early years of children's education is the responsibility of many government and non-government agencies and it occurs in a range of settings.<sup>3</sup> Preschool is aimed at children around four years of age to prepare them for compulsory schooling from the age of six years. In most states and territories, children can start full-time schooling at five years of age, when they enrol

### Preschool participation rates(a)(b) — 2001

	Males	Females	Total
	%	%	%
Indigenous status			
Indigenous	44.5	47.3	45.9
Non-Indigenous	56.5	57.3	56.9
Language spoken at home			
English	57.0	58.2	57.6
Other	49.6	48.4	49.0
<b>All four year olds</b>	<b>55.7</b>	<b>56.5</b>	<b>56.1</b>

(a) Children aged four years.

(b) People who stated they attended school but did not indicate the type were excluded prior to calculation of percentages.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

### Preschool

There are several data sources that measure characteristics of preschool students. These include the ABS *Child Care Survey*, the *Census of Population and Housing* and the Department of Education, Science and Training's *National Indigenous Preschool Census*. Individual states and territories also collect data relating to preschool students. All of the data sources have limitations, in part due to different definitions of preschool between states and territories but also the inability of collections to identify those children who attend preschool within a childcare centre.

This article uses data from the 2001 Census of Population and Housing for calculations of participation rates. The census provides detailed demographic and socioeconomic information about the Australian population at a detailed geographical level.

In this article *preschool* refers to the year which is two years prior to Year 1.

*Preschools* provide sessional education for children before they enter school. They generally cater for children aged 3–5 years and are usually open only during school terms. There are variations regarding the age of children attending preschool, hours of operation, location and management. As preschool is generally aimed at children aged four years, this article focuses on that age group i.e. four year olds.

The *preschool participation rate* is the number of four year olds who were reported as attending preschool expressed as a percentage of the total number of children aged four years.

in a kindergarten or preparatory year.<sup>4</sup> In 2001, just over half of five year olds (57%) were at school with about a third (34%) attending preschool. While in some states and territories children can commence preschool before they turn four, participation rates for three year olds are much lower than four year olds (24% compared with 56% for four year olds in 2001). The preschool participation rate of four year olds in 2001 (56%) was similar to the rate in 1991 (58%).

### Access to preschool education

Some communities and families experience difficulties gaining access to preschool education. These include rural and remote communities, Indigenous communities and families who speak a language other than English at home. Problems in gaining access may be due to the lack of services available, language barriers, or insufficient staff numbers or expertise to provide the level of education required.<sup>5</sup>

### Preschool participation rate(a)(b) across Remoteness Areas(c) — 2001

Remoteness Area	Indigenous	Non-indigenous	Total
	%	%	%
Major Cities	49.4	58.2	57.7
Inner Regional	46.4	54.5	53.9
Outer Regional	47.5	53.8	53.0
Remote	47.1	58.8	56.6
Very Remote	36.0	51.8	42.6
<b>Australia</b>	<b>45.9</b>	<b>56.9</b>	<b>56.1</b>

(a) Children aged four years.

(b) People who stated they attended school but did not indicate the type were excluded prior to calculation of percentages.

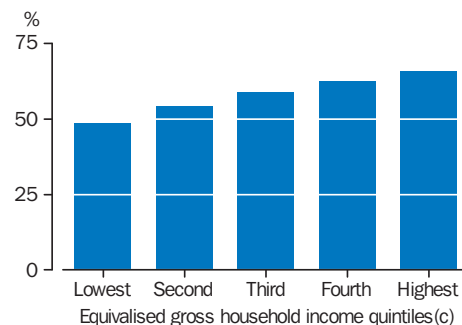
(c) Broad geographical regions which share common characteristics of remoteness based on the Remoteness Structure of the ABS's Australian Standard Geographical Classification (ASGC). For additional detail see page 120.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

The preschool participation rate varied according to the Remoteness Area in which a child lived. For example, 58% of four year olds from Major Cities attended preschool, compared with 43% of those in Very Remote areas. The size of Australia and the sparse population distribution in some locations is a challenge to the effective provision of preschool education. Issues of access, choice, affordability and quality are most acute in Very Remote settings.<sup>6</sup>

In 2001, 46% of Indigenous four year olds attended preschool, compared with 57% of non-Indigenous children of the same age. The participation rate for Indigenous four year olds was lower than for non-Indigenous children of the same age in each Remoteness Area; and exhibited a much greater decline as

### Preschool participation rate(a)(b) by household income — 2001



(a) Children aged four years.

(b) People who stated they attended school but did not indicate the type were excluded prior to calculation of percentages.

(c) See *Australian Social Trends 2004*, Economic resources: definitions, pp. 135–136.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

### Preschool enrolment age

To enrol in preschool, children usually need to be aged four years (or over), or be turning four years by a specific date during the year they enter preschool. These cut-off dates vary across states and territories but are most commonly early in the year (e.g. April, June or July). Consequently, children aged three years may attend preschool but they have a lower participation rate than four year olds, particularly when this is measured later in the year by which time many who started preschool at age three have had their fourth birthday. It should also be noted that some children who had turned four by August 2001 would not have been eligible to enrol in preschool earlier in that year (i.e. those whose birthday fell later than their respective state/territory cut-off date). Differences in enrolment age impact on preschool data at the national level and also make comparisons across states and territories difficult.

the distance from population centres increased. However, among three year olds, Indigenous participation was higher than non-Indigenous in all Remoteness Areas outside Major Cities; while, among five year olds, it was lower.

A lower proportion of four year olds who spoke a language other than English at home attended preschool in 2001 — 49% compared with 58% of those who spoke English at home. Children from families who speak a language other than English may be less likely to attend preschool due to their parents' lack of knowledge of the system, and may also face language difficulties once attending preschool.

### Family characteristics of preschool students

Risk factors in early childhood are often cumulative and many persist or multiply as a child grows older.<sup>1</sup> One of these risk factors is socioeconomic disadvantage. Household income, parental employment and parental educational attainment can be used as measures of a child's socioeconomic status. Any or all of these components may have a bearing on preschool participation rates. Children's preschool participation tends to increase in line with their household's income. In 2001, preschool participation rates ranged from 49% of four year olds from households in the lowest income quintile to 66% of those from households in the highest income quintile.

Employment and income are closely linked. As parental employment (and income) increases, preschool becomes more affordable and, in addition to its educational role, may also become increasingly useful as a form of child care. In 2001, the four year olds least likely to attend preschool (with a

### Preschool participation rate(a)(b) by characteristics of parents — 2001

	%
Labour force status of parents	
Couple families	58.0
Both parents employed	60.9
One parent employed	57.8
Neither parent employed	46.8
One-parent families	50.0
Parent employed	53.6
Parent not employed	48.2
Educational attainment of parents(c)	
Bachelor degree or above	64.6
Other non-school qualification	58.8
Year 12 or equivalent	53.4
Below Year 12	49.3
<b>All four year olds</b>	<b>56.1</b>

(a) Children aged four years.

(b) People who stated they attended school but did not indicate the type were excluded prior to calculation of percentages.

(c) Based on highest level of education of either parent.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

participation rate of 47%) were those in couple families where neither parent was employed, and those from one-parent families in which the parent was not employed (48%). Participation rates were higher for four year olds from families with one parent employed (54% for one-parent families and 58% for couple families). The lower rate for one-parent families may reflect relative affordability as well as demand. Children aged four years in couple families with both parents employed were the most likely to attend preschool (61%).

A low level of parental education has been identified as being associated with lower preschool participation.<sup>1</sup> The preschool participation rate varied based on the highest level of education of either of their parents. In 2001, participation of four year olds at preschool was highest when a parent had a Bachelor degree or above (65%), decreasing to 49% for those whose parent(s) left school before Year 12.

### Endnotes

1 Commonwealth Task Force on Child Development, Health and Wellbeing 2003, *Towards the development for a national agenda for early childhood*, Commonwealth of Australia, Canberra.

### Use of preschool education

It has been recommended that children spend at least 10 hours per week in preschool education.<sup>7</sup> In 2002, more than half (57%) of preschool students aged four years attended preschool for 10–19 hours per week. However, a considerable proportion (37%) received less than 10 hours of preschool education per week. Students aged four years attending preschool due to their parent(s) work commitments were more likely than other children to receive 10 or more hours of preschool education per week.

The majority of students aged four years who attend preschool do so mainly because their parent(s) consider it to be beneficial for the child (75% in 2002). However, a growing proportion attend preschool mainly because of parental work commitments (16% in 2002 compared with 9% in 1993).

### Preschool students(a) — 2002

	%
Weekly hours spent at preschool	
Less than 10	37.3
10–19	57.4
20–39	5.3
Main reason attended preschool(b)	
Work-related	16.2
Personal	4.5
Beneficial for child	74.8
Other	4.6
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>

(a) Aged four years.

(b) As reported by parent(s).

Source: *Child care, Australia 2002* (ABS cat. no. 4402.0).

- 2 Sylva, K et al. 2003, *The effective provision of preschool education project: findings from the preschool period* <<http://ioe.ac.uk>>, accessed 23 July 2003.
- 3 Fleer, M and Udy, G 2002, 'Early years education in Australia', *Year Book Australia 2002*, cat. no. 1301.0, ABS, Canberra.
- 4 MCEETYA 2000, *The structure of Australian schooling* <<http://www.curriculum.edu.au/mceetya/>>, accessed 25 July 2003.
- 5 Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development 2000, *OECD Thematic Review of Early Childhood Education and Care Policy: Australian Background Report*, Commonwealth of Australia, Canberra.
- 6 Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development 2001, *OECD Country Note: Early Childhood Education and Care Policy in Australia*, OECD, Paris.
- 7 Kronemann, M 1999, *Towards a National Policy for Preschool Education*, Australian Education Union, Abbotsford.

# Work

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	Page
<b>National and state summary tables.....</b>	<b>102</b>
<b>Work data sources and definitions.....</b>	<b>106</b>

## PAID WORK

<b>Young people in employment.....</b>	<b>109</b>
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While the proportion of young people aged 15–24 years who were employed increased between 1983 and 2003, this was mainly attributable to a rise in part-time employment among this age group — from 18% to 47% of employed young people over the period. This article examines labour force experiences for young people, such as the combination of work with study. It also considers some of the differences between young people aged 15–19 years, and those aged 20–24 years.

<b>Mature age workers.....</b>	<b>114</b>
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In the 20 years to 2003, the proportion of people in the labour force who were aged 45 to 64 years increased from 24% to 32%. This article examines changes in labour force participation of persons aged 45 to 64 years over time. It discusses the characteristics of mature age workers, and their employment across industries and occupations.

<b>Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples in the labour force.....</b>	<b>118</b>
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In the 2001 census, the unemployment rate was 20% for Indigenous peoples, compared with 7% for the non-Indigenous population. This article discusses trends in the level of labour force participation and the unemployment rate of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples aged 15–64 years. It also examines the characteristics of employed Indigenous persons, including their sector of employment and distribution across Remoteness Areas.

<b>Community service workers.....</b>	<b>124</b>
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Between 1996 and 2001, there was a decrease in the number of people employed in community service industries providing care in institutional settings while the number of people employed in home-based care increased. This article examines the labour force characteristics of community service industries, qualifications held by people employed in these industries and the contribution made by volunteer workers.

# Work: national summary

<b>LABOUR FORCE</b>												
	Units	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
1 Total labour force	'000	r8 574	r8 696	r8 886	r9 066	r9 173	r9 261	r9 399	r9 578	r9 758	9 889	10 075
2 Females – of total labour force	%	41.9	42.3	42.7	43.0	43.1	43.2	43.3	43.6	43.9	44.0	44.4
3 Participation rate	%	62.6	r62.8	63.3	r63.7	r63.5	63.1	r63.2	63.4	63.7	63.7	63.9
4 Males	%	r73.9	73.6	r73.8	73.8	73.4	r73.0	72.8	r72.6	72.5	72.4	72.0
5 Females	%	51.7	52.2	53.2	53.8	r53.9	53.6	r53.9	54.5	r55.2	55.3	56.0
6 Females with children aged 0–4	%	47.6	46.1	49.3	47.4	47.7	48.2	47.1	49.3	49.8	49.2	49.5
7 Persons aged 15–19	%	r55.1	55.8	r58.8	r59.2	r59.0	r57.7	r58.3	r59.4	r60.1	59.6	59.5
8 Persons aged 20–24	%	r82.1	82.1	r82.8	83.0	82.5	r82.0	r82.2	82.2	r82.3	81.8	81.4
9 Median age of male labour force	years	36	36	36	37	37	37	37	37	38	38	39
10 Median age of female labour force	years	35	35	35	36	36	36	36	37	37	37	37
<b>EMPLOYED PEOPLE</b>												
	Units	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
11 Total employed	'000	r7 634	r7 781	r8 093	r8 301	r8 381	r8 496	r8 681	r8 917	r9 111	9 232	9 459
12 Proportion of the total population in work	%	r43.4	r43.7	r45.0	r45.5	r45.4	r45.6	r46.1	r46.8	r47.2	r47.2	47.8
<b>Part-time work</b>												
13 Persons employed part-time – of total employed	%	r23.5	r23.8	r24.4	r24.6	r25.2	r25.6	r26.0	r26.1	r26.6	27.9	28.5
14 Males employed part-time – of total males employed	%	r10.2	r10.4	r10.9	r11.0	r11.7	r12.0	r12.5	r12.5	r13.3	14.4	14.8
15 Females employed part-time – of total females employed	%	r41.7	r41.9	r42.5	r42.5	r42.9	r43.3	r43.5	r43.7	r43.5	45.2	45.7
16 Females employed part-time – of total part-time employed	%	r75.1	r75.0	r74.5	r74.6	r73.7	r73.4	r72.7	r73.0	r72.0	71.3	71.2
17 Average hours worked per week by persons employed part-time	hours	r15.0	r15.1	15.3	15.2	15.4	15.5	r15.5	15.7	15.7	15.8	16.0
18 Persons employed part-time who prefer more hours – of all part-time employed	%	r29.1	r28.1	r26.4	26.1	r26.5	r26.0	r25.7	23.9	24.3	27.3	26.3
19 Persons employed part-time who worked 15 hours or less per week – of all part-time employed	%	53.4	52.8	51.8	52.1	r51.1	50.8	50.8	49.8	49.6	49.2	48.3
<b>Full-time work</b>												
20 Average hours worked per week by persons employed full-time	hours	40.3	40.7	40.9	40.5	41.0	41.2	41.1	41.4	40.7	40.8	41.1
21 Persons employed full-time working 50 hours or more per week – of all full-time employed	%	22.4	23.7	24.3	23.7	r24.4	24.9	24.9	25.5	23.9	24.3	24.7
<b>Employment arrangements</b>												
22 Employees without leave entitlements – of all employees	%	22.7	23.7	24.0	26.1	25.8	26.9	26.4	27.3	27.2	27.3	27.6
23 Males employed without leave entitlements – of all male employees	%	16.4	18.1	18.5	21.2	20.9	22.6	22.0	23.0	23.6	23.5	24.0
24 Females employed without leave entitlements – of all female employees	%	30.6	30.8	30.8	32.0	31.7	32.0	31.8	32.3	31.5	31.6	31.9
25 Employers and own account workers – of total employed	%	15.2	15.2	14.6	14.6	13.9	14.3	13.6	13.5	13.2	13.2	13.1
<b>Industry</b>												
26 Employed in service industries – of total employed	%	r71.0	r71.1	71.7	72.3	72.6	72.9	73.6	73.1	73.7	74.0	74.6
27 Employed in manufacturing industry – of total employed	%	14.3	14.1	13.8	13.4	13.5	13.3	12.5	12.5	12.5	11.9	12.0
<b>Occupation</b>												
28 Employed in highest skill (ASCO Skill Level 1) occupations(a) – of total employed	%	24.9	24.9	24.7	24.8	24.5	25.1	25.2	25.1	25.5	26.3	25.8
29 Employed in lowest skill (ASCO Skill Level 5) occupations(a) – of total employed	%	21.8	22.0	r22.1	21.8	20.4	20.4	20.3	19.7	19.6	19.0	19.4
30 Females – of all employed in highest skill (ASCO Skill Level 1) occupations(a)	%	34.9	35.0	35.0	35.5	41.4	41.2	40.8	41.9	42.5	42.3	43.1



# Work: national summary continued

<b>WORKPLACE RELATIONS</b>												
	Units	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
31 Trade union members – of all employees	%	37.6	35.0	32.7	31.1	30.3	28.1	25.7	24.7	24.5	23.1	23.0
32 Working days lost due to industrial disputes (per 1,000 employees)	days	r159	r82	r86	r115	r90	r82	r56	r104	r45	r41	30
33 Pay set by collective agreements – of all employees	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	36.7	n.a.	38.2	n.a.
34 Pay set by individual agreements – of all employees	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	40.0	n.a.	41.3	n.a.
<b>UNEMPLOYMENT</b>												
	Units	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
35 Total unemployed	'000	r940.5	r915.4	r793.7	r764.3	r792.4	r764.2	r718.2	r661.4	r647.7	656.8	616.3
36 Long-term unemployed – of total unemployed	%	33.7	34.6	32.3	27.5	27.0	29.3	29.7	r26.8	23.4	r22.4	22.1
37 Long-term unemployed – of total labour force	%	3.6	3.5	2.8	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.2	1.8	1.5	r1.5	1.4
38 Unemployment rate	%	r11.0	r10.5	r8.9	r8.4	r8.6	r8.3	r7.6	r6.9	r6.6	6.6	6.1
39 Males	%	r11.7	r10.9	r9.1	r8.8	r8.8	r8.5	r7.8	r7.0	r6.9	6.9	6.2
40 Females	%	r10.0	r10.0	r8.7	r8.0	r8.4	r8.0	r7.4	r6.8	r6.3	6.3	6.0
41 Capital cities	%	r10.8	r10.3	r8.8	r8.2	r8.2	r7.6	r7.1	6.3	6.1	6.3	5.8
42 Balance of states and territories	%	r11.2	r11.0	r9.2	r8.9	r9.4	r9.4	r8.6	r7.9	r7.5	7.3	6.7
Unemployed looking for full-time work												
43 Of all persons aged 15–19	%	r9.0	8.6	r7.4	r7.2	r7.0	6.5	r5.8	r5.1	r5.1	5.2	4.7
44 Of all persons aged 20–24	%	r11.8	r10.9	r8.8	r8.6	r9.0	r8.7	r7.7	r6.4	6.4	6.6	6.2
45 Median duration of unemployment – males	weeks	31	30	26	22	24	24	22	21	18	20	19
46 Median duration of unemployment – females	weeks	24	22	21	17	17	18	15	12	17	14	14
47 Retrenchment rate	%	n.a.	5.4	n.a.	4.6	n.a.	4.4	n.a.	4.0	n.a.	3.9	n.a.
48 Persons previously retrenched and currently employed – of all retrenched	%	n.a.	r42.2	n.a.	r44.7	n.a.	r42.4	n.a.	r46.4	n.a.	r52.7	n.a.
<b>Labour force underutilisation</b>												
49 Labour force underutilisation rate	%	n.a.	14.1	13.8	13.8	13.6	13.0	11.8	10.9	12.5	11.9	n.y.a.
50 Extended labour force underutilisation rate	%	n.a.	15.5	15.1	15.2	15.0	14.3	13.2	12.2	13.6	13.0	n.y.a.
<b>NOT IN THE LABOUR FORCE</b>												
	Units	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
51 Marginally attached	'000	907.8	773.3	862.8	879.6	890.5	922.6	883.2	823.9	816.5	808.1	834.6
52 Discouraged jobseekers	'000	147.4	106.5	111.9	118.9	118.4	110.9	105.8	106.5	81.7	78.0	79.8
<b>TRANSITION TO RETIREMENT</b>												
	Units	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
<b>Persons aged 55–64 years</b>												
53 Participation rate – males	%	r60.9	r61.4	r61.5	60.8	60.5	60.4	60.9	60.8	61.1	61.8	63.1
54 Participation rate – females	%	25.6	27.3	27.9	r30.2	r31.2	31.6	r32.1	34.6	36.1	38.4	40.2
55 Males employed part-time – of all employed males aged 55–64	%	r12.7	r12.3	r13.4	r12.9	r13.7	14.7	r14.8	r13.8	r15.7	16.3	17.2
56 Females employed part-time – of all employed females aged 55–64	%	50.1	r50.1	r50.6	r49.6	r51.1	r49.5	r50.9	r51.2	51.3	52.3	51.6

(a) Australian Standard Classification of Occupation (ASCO) second edition was introduced in August 1996. Data prior to this date are concoded with ASCO second edition at the major group level.

Reference periods: All data are for the financial year ending 30 June except:  
 Data for indicators 6, 9–10 and 45–46 are at June.  
 Data for indicators 22–24 are at August.  
 Data for indicators 33–34 are at May.  
 Data for indicators 47–48 are at February.  
 Data for indicators 49–52 are at September.

# Work: state summary

<b>LABOUR FORCE</b>												
	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.	
1	Total labour force	'000	2002–03	3 336	2 530	1 920	751	1 032	220	104	181	10 075
2	Females – of total labour force	%	2002–03	44.1	44.7	44.8	44.6	43.4	44.6	44.1	47.4	44.4
3	Participation rate	%	2002–03	63.0	63.8	65.0	61.3	66.6	58.4	73.2	72.6	63.9
4	Males	%	2002–03	71.4	71.8	72.7	69.3	75.4	66.7	78.8	78.0	72.0
5	Females	%	2002–03	54.8	56.0	57.6	53.6	57.7	50.7	67.2	67.4	56.0
6	Females with children aged 0–4	%	2003	49.8	48.4	52.0	51.5	44.6	42.6	57.2	59.4	49.5
7	Persons aged 15–19	%	2002–03	55.6	57.6	66.4	60.9	62.9	58.8	53.8	62.3	59.5
8	Persons aged 20–24	%	2002–03	81.2	80.5	83.0	83.0	80.1	77.0	77.3	87.5	81.4
9	Median age of male labour force	years	2003	38	38	38	39	39	40	38	37	39
10	Median age of female labour force	years	2003	37	38	37	39	39	39	36	37	37
<b>EMPLOYED PEOPLE</b>												
	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.	
11	Total employed	'000	2002–03	3 139	2 387	1 785	705	971	201	98	173	9 459
12	Proportion of the total population in work	%	2002–03	47.1	48.8	47.4	46.2	50.0	42.2	49.5	53.7	47.8
<b>Part-time work</b>												
13	Persons employed part-time – of total employed	%	2002–03	27.2	28.7	29.2	30.3	30.2	30.8	24.3	25.6	28.5
14	Males employed part-time – of total males employed	%	2002–03	14.3	14.7	15.4	14.6	15.2	14.3	17.9	15.4	14.8
15	Females employed part-time – of total females employed	%	2002–03	43.7	46.0	46.3	49.5	49.5	50.9	32.5	36.8	45.7
16	Females employed part-time – of total part-time employed	%	2002–03	70.7	71.8	70.7	73.4	71.6	74.6	59.0	68.6	71.2
17	Average hours worked per week by persons employed part-time	hours	2002–03	16.2	15.4	16.4	16.3	15.7	16.0	18.1	16.0	16.0
18	Persons employed part-time who prefer more hours – of all part-time employed	%	2002–03	26.0	25.4	29.4	26.8	24.4	30.2	13.9	22.3	26.3
19	Persons employed part-time who worked 15 hours or less per week – of all part-time employed	%	2002–03	46.9	51.1	46.7	48.7	49.4	48.6	31.6	48.7	48.3
<b>Full-time work</b>												
20	Average hours worked per week by persons employed full-time	hours	2002–03	41.1	40.7	41.8	40.9	41.9	40.4	41.4	38.9	41.1
21	Persons employed full-time working 50 hours or more per week – of all full-time employed	%	2002–03	24.3	23.2	27.3	23.1	27.1	22.0	26.0	19.0	24.7
<b>Employment arrangements</b>												
22	Employees without leave entitlements – of all employees	%	2003	26.0	25.7	32.2	30.6	28.4	29.8	22.6	22.4	27.6
23	Males employed without leave entitlements – of all male employees	%	2003	22.4	22.0	28.3	26.8	24.9	22.8	21.6	23.2	24.0
24	Females employed without leave entitlements – of all female employees	%	2003	30.2	30.0	36.7	35.1	32.6	37.5	23.8	21.6	31.9
25	Employers and own account workers – of total employed	%	2002–03	12.5	11.6	15.6	13.7	15.0	13.9	8.8	7.9	13.1
<b>Industry</b>												
26	Employed in service industries – of total employed	%	2002–03	76.0	73.2	74.3	72.1	72.9	73.2	83.5	90.4	74.6
27	Employed in manufacturing industries – of total employed	%	2002–03	11.7	14.9	10.3	13.6	10.4	11.1	4.0	2.8	12.0
<b>Occupation</b>												
28	Employed in highest skill (ASCO Skill Level 1) occupations(a) – of total employed	%	2002–03	27.1	27.5	22.1	24.3	24.1	23.9	23.5	38.1	25.8
29	Employed in lowest skill (ASCO Skill Level 5) occupations(a) – of total employed	%	2002–03	18.6	19.3	21.0	20.7	19.1	22.1	21.2	13.7	19.4
30	Females – of all employed in highest skill (ASCO Skill Level 1) occupations(a)	%	2002–03	42.2	43.1	44.5	43.5	41.7	44.0	51.4	46.2	43.1

# Work: state summary continued

<b>WORKPLACE RELATIONS</b>												
	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.	
31	Trade union members – of all employees	%	2002-03	23.6	22.1	23.5	24.6	20.0	29.4	21.5	23.8	23.0
32	Working days lost due to industrial disputes (per 1,000 employees)	days	2002-03	21	45	34	14	37	9	29	9	30
33	Pay set by collective agreements – of all employees	%	2002-03	35.3	38.3	41.0	39.2	36.2	49.3	45.1	49.3	38.2
34	Pay set by individual agreements – of all employees	%	2002-03	43.3	44.4	34.4	35.8	48.8	29.3	38.6	30.4	41.3
<b>UNEMPLOYMENT</b>												
	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.	
35	Total unemployed	'000	2002-03	197.2	143.8	134.8	46.7	61.3	18.9	6.0	7.6	616.3
36	Long-term unemployed – of total unemployed	%	2002-03	25.1	20.3	18.8	27.1	18.9	33.6	7.3	15.7	22.1
37	Long-term unemployed – of total labour force	%	2002-03	1.5	1.2	1.3	1.7	1.1	2.9	0.4	0.7	1.4
38	Unemployment rate	%	2002-03	5.9	5.7	7.0	6.2	5.9	8.6	5.7	4.2	6.1
39	Males	%	2002-03	6.0	5.8	6.6	6.7	6.4	9.3	5.8	4.7	6.2
40	Females	%	2002-03	5.8	5.5	7.5	5.7	5.4	7.7	5.6	3.6	6.0
41	Capital cities	%	2002-03	5.2	5.7	6.7	6.4	6.0	7.9	n.a.	n.a.	5.8
42	Balance of states and territories(b)	%	2002-03	7.4	5.7	7.3	5.8	5.6	9.1	5.7	4.2	6.7
Unemployed looking for full-time work												
43	Of all persons aged 15-19	%	2002-03	4.4	3.6	5.8	5.2	5.1	7.4	4.7	3.3	4.7
44	Of all persons aged 20-24	%	2002-03	5.8	5.5	7.6	7.2	6.0	9.3	4.3	3.4	6.2
45	Median duration of unemployment – males	weeks	2003	18	19	18	21	20	27	5	14	19
46	Median duration of unemployment – females	weeks	2003	16	13	13	14	13	16	17	9	14
47	Retrenchment rate	%	2002	3.8	3.6	4.4	3.6	4.3	4.6	3.8	3.2	3.9
48	Persons previously retrenched and currently employed – of all retrenched	%	2002	55.6	49.4	49.3	58.0	53.5	52.5	56.3	56.1	52.7
<b>Labour force underutilisation</b>												
49	Labour force underutilisation rate	%	2002	11.7	11.1	13.2	12.4	12.2	16.3	7.0	7.9	11.9
50	Extended labour force underutilisation rate	%	2002	12.7	12.2	14.4	13.6	13.2	17.8	7.9	8.9	13.0
<b>NOT IN THE LABOUR FORCE</b>												
	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.	
51	Marginally attached	'000	2003	281.1	190.9	162.6	70.3	88.1	26.5	4.5	10.7	834.6
52	Discouraged jobseekers	'000	2003	28.8	17.5	16.2	4.9	6.8	4.2	*0.6	*0.8	79.8
<b>TRANSITION TO RETIREMENT</b>												
	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.	
<b>Persons aged 55-64 years</b>												
53	Participation rate – males	%	2002-03	61.1	63.6	63.7	61.0	69.8	56.4	67.5	68.3	63.1
54	Participation rate – females	%	2002-03	39.2	40.5	41.3	39.7	40.3	32.7	58.8	49.2	40.2
55	Males employed part-time – of all employed males aged 55-64	%	2002-03	16.5	17.8	17.0	18.4	18.5	15.1	15.9	17.2	17.2
56	Females employed part-time – of all employed females aged 55-64	%	2002-03	50.5	54.9	48.3	54.1	54.4	59.0	28.0	36.9	51.6

(a) Australian Standard Classification of Occupation (ASCO) second edition was introduced in August 1996. Data prior to this date are concoded with ASCO second edition at the major group level.

(b) Data for Northern Territory and Australian Capital Territory include estimates for capital cities.

Reference periods: All data are for the financial year ending 30 June except:  
 Data for indicators 6, 9-10 and 45-46 are at June.  
 Data for indicators 22-24 are at August.  
 Data for indicators 47-48 are at February.  
 Data for indicators 49-52 are at September.

# Work: data sources

DATA SOURCE	Indicators using this source	
	National indicators	State indicators
ABS Labour Force Survey.	1-11, 13-21, 25-30, 35-46, 49-50, 53-56	1-11, 13-21, 25-30, 35-46, 49-50, 53-56
ABS Labour Force Survey and <i>Australian Demographics Statistics</i> (ABS cat. no. 3101.0).	12	12
<i>Employee Earnings, Benefits and Trade Union Membership, Australia, August 2003</i> (ABS cat. no. 6310.0).	22-24, 31	22-24, 31
<i>Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia, May 2002</i> (ABS cat. no. 6306.0).	33-34	33-34
<i>Industrial Disputes, Australia, December 2003</i> (ABS cat. no. 6321.0).	32	32
<i>Labour Mobility, Australia, February 2002</i> (ABS cat. no. 6209.0).	—	47-48
<i>Labour Mobility, Australia, February 2002</i> (ABS cat. no. 6209.0) and ABS Labour Mobility Survey.	47-48	—
<i>Persons Not in the Labour Force, Australia, September 2003</i> (ABS cat. no. 6220.0).	51-52	51-52

## Work: definitions

### Average hours worked per week

aggregate hours worked by a group divided by the number of persons in that group.

Reference: *Australian Labour Market Statistics* (ABS cat. no. 6105.0).

### Discouraged jobseekers

persons who were marginally attached to the labour force, wanted to work and who were available to start work within four weeks but whose main reason for not actively seeking work was that they believed they would not find a job for any of the following reasons:

- ♦ considered too old or too young by employers
- ♦ difficulties with language or ethnic background
- ♦ lacked necessary schooling, training, skills or experience
- ♦ no jobs in their locality or line of work
- ♦ they considered that there were no jobs available at all.

Reference: *Persons Not in the Labour Force, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6220.0).

### Employed

persons aged 15 years and over who, during the reference week:

- ♦ worked for one hour or more for pay, profit, commission or payment in kind, in a job or business or on a farm (comprising employees, employers and own account workers)
- ♦ worked for one hour or more without pay in a family business or on a farm (i.e. contributing family workers)
- ♦ were employees who had a job but were not at work
- ♦ were employers or own account workers who had a job, business or farm, but were not at work.

Reference: *Australian Labour Market Statistics* (ABS cat. no. 6105.0).

### Employee

a person who works for a public or private employer and receives remuneration in wages, salary, a retainer fee by their employer while working on a commission basis, tips, piece rates or payment in kind, or a person who operates his or her own incorporated enterprise with or without hiring employees.

Reference: *Australian Labour Market Statistics* (ABS cat. no. 6105.0).

### Employees without leave entitlements

employees who were not entitled to either paid holiday leave or sick leave in their main job.

Reference: *Employee Earnings, Benefits and Trade Union Membership, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6310.0).

### Employer

a person who operates his or her own unincorporated economic enterprise or engages independently in a profession or trade, and hires one or more employees.

Reference: *Australian Labour Market Statistics* (ABS cat. no. 6105.0).

### Extended labour force underutilisation rate

the unemployed, plus the underemployed, plus two groups of persons marginally attached to the labour force:

- persons actively looking for work, who were not available to start work in the reference week, but were available to start work within four weeks
- discouraged jobseekers

as a percentage of the labour force augmented by (i) and (ii).

Reference: *Australian Labour Market Statistics* (ABS cat. no. 6105.0).

### Full-time employed

persons who usually worked 35 hours or more a week (in all jobs) and others who, although usually working less than 35 hours a week, worked 35 hours or more during the reference week.

Reference: *Australian Labour Market Statistics* (ABS cat. no. 6105.0).

### Industrial dispute

a withdrawal from work by a group of employees, or a refusal by an employer or a number of employers to permit some or all of their employees to work, each withdrawal or refusal being made in order to enforce or resist a demand, or to express a grievance.

Reference: *Industrial Disputes, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6321.0).

### Labour force

for any group, persons who were employed or unemployed, as defined.

Reference: *Australian Labour Market Statistics* (ABS cat. no. 6105.0).

### Labour force underutilisation rate

the unemployed plus the underemployed, as a percentage of the labour force.

Reference: *Australian Labour Market Statistics* (ABS cat. no. 6105.0).

### Long-term unemployed

persons unemployed for a period of 52 weeks or longer.

Reference: *Australian Labour Market Statistics* (ABS cat. no. 6105.0).

### Manufacturing industries

consists of the manufacturing division of the Australian and New Zealand Standard Industrial Classification (ANZSIC).

Reference: *ANZSIC 1993* (ABS cat. no. 1292.0).

### Marginally attached

persons aged 15-69 years who were not in the labour force, wanted to work and; were actively looking for work but were not available to start; or were not actively looking for work, but were available to start work or would have been if child care was available.

Reference: *Persons Not in the Labour Force, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6220.0).

# Work: definitions continued

## Median age

the age at which half the given population is older and half is younger.

Reference: *Australian Labour Market Statistics* (ABS cat. no. 6105.0).

## Median duration of unemployment

the duration which divides unemployed persons into two equal groups, one comprising persons whose duration of unemployment is above the median and the other, persons whose duration is below it.

Reference: *Australian Labour Market Statistics* (ABS cat. no. 6105.0).

## Occupation

a collection of jobs which are sufficiently similar in their main tasks to be grouped together for the purposes of classification. The Australian Standard Classification of Occupations (ASCO) Second Edition, which is used for the classification of occupations, applies skill level and skill specialisation as major criteria.

Skill level is measured by: formal education and training, and previous experience usually required for entry into an occupation. ASCO Second Edition assigns each of the nine major groups in the classification to one of five ranked skill levels.

Skill Level 1 — Managers and administrators and Professionals

Skill Level 2 — Associate professionals

Skill Level 3 — Tradespersons and related workers and Advanced clerical and service workers

Skill Level 4 — Intermediate production and transport workers and Intermediate clerical, sales and service workers

Skill Level 5 — Elementary clerical, sales and service workers and Labourers and related workers

Reference: *ASCO — Australian Standard Classification of Occupations, Second edition* (ABS cat. no. 1220.0).

## Own account worker

a person who operates his or her own unincorporated economic enterprise or engages independently in a profession or trade, and hires no employees. (This category was formerly entitled self-employed).

Reference: *Australian Labour Market Statistics* (ABS cat. no. 6105.0).

## Participation rate

for any group, the labour force expressed as a percentage of the civilian population aged 15 years and over in the same group.

Reference: *Australian Labour Market Statistics* (ABS cat. no. 6105.0).

## Part-time employed

persons who usually worked less than 35 hours a week (in all jobs) and who did so during the survey reference week.

Reference: *Australian Labour Market Statistics* (ABS cat. no. 6105.0).

## Pay set by collective agreements

employees who had the main part of their wages or salaries set by registered or unregistered collective agreements or enterprise awards.

Reference: *Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6306.0).

## Pay set by individual agreements

employees who had the main part of their wages or salaries set by individual agreements. This group mainly consists of employees whose pay is set by an individual common law contract, employees receiving overaward payments by individual agreement, and working proprietors of incorporated enterprises who set their own rate of pay.

Reference: *Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6306.0).

## Persons employed part-time who prefer more hours

persons employed part-time who indicated they would prefer to work more hours.

Reference: *Australian Labour Market Statistics* (ABS cat. no. 6105.0).

## Proportion of the total population in work

the number of employed persons expressed as a percentage of the total population. Also known as employment to population ratio.

Reference: *Australian Labour Market Statistics* (ABS cat. no. 6105.0).

## Retrenchment rate

total persons retrenched during the 12 month period before the survey, as a percentage of all people who had been employed at some time over the same period.

Persons retrenched are those who ceased their last job because they were either:

- ♦ employees who were laid off, including no work available, retrenched, made redundant, employer went out of business or dismissed
- ♦ self employed persons whose business closed down for economic reasons, including 'went broke', liquidated, no work, or no supply or demand.

Reference: *Labour Mobility, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6209.0).

## Service industries

the combination of the following divisions of the Australian and New Zealand Standard Industrial Classification (ANZSIC): Wholesale trade; Retail trade; Accommodation, cafes and restaurants; Transport and storage; Communication services; Finance and insurance; Property and business services; Government administration and defence; Education; Health and community services; Cultural and recreational services; and Personal and other services.

Reference: *ANZSIC 1993* (ABS cat. no. 1292.0).

## Trade union members

employees with membership in an organisation consisting predominantly of employees, the principal activities of which include the negotiation of rates of pay and conditions of employment for its members, in conjunction with their main job.

Reference: *Employee Earnings, Benefits and Trade Union Membership, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6310.0).

## Underemployed

underemployed workers are employed persons who want, and are available for, more hours of work than they currently have. They comprise:

- ♦ Persons employed part-time who want to work more hours and are available to start work with more hours, either in the reference week or in the four weeks subsequent to the survey.
- ♦ Persons employed full-time who worked part-time hours in the reference week for economic reasons (such as being stood down or insufficient work being available). It is assumed that these people wanted to work full-time in the reference week and would have been available to do so.

Reference: *Underemployed Workers, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6265.0).

## Unemployed

persons aged 15 years and over who were not employed during the reference week, and had actively looked for full-time or part-time work at any time in the four weeks up to the end of the reference week, and:

- ♦ were available for work in the reference week
- ♦ were waiting to start a new job within four weeks from the end of the reference week, and could have started in the reference week if the job had been available then.

Reference: *Australian Labour Market Statistics* (ABS cat. no. 6105.0).

## Unemployed looking for full-time work

unemployed persons who actively looked for full-time work and were either available for work in the reference week or were not available for work in the reference week because they were waiting to start a new full-time job.

Reference: *Australian Labour Market Statistics* (ABS cat. no. 6105.0).

## Unemployment rate

for any group, the number of unemployed persons expressed as a percentage of the labour force in the same group.

Reference: *Australian Labour Market Statistics* (ABS cat. no. 6105.0).

## Working days lost

total working days lost by employees directly or indirectly involved in industrial disputes.

Reference: *Industrial Disputes, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6321.0).



# Young people in employment

## PAID WORK

**In 1983, less than one-fifth (18%) of employed young people aged 15–24 years were employed on a part-time basis. By 2003, this had risen to almost a half (47%).**

Many people enter the work force for the first time between the ages of 15 years and 24 years, although young people can take a range of different pathways in the transition from education to a career. Some combine employment with ongoing study; some spend time seeking employment or working in a variety of temporary jobs; still others settle into a career path quickly. This transition from compulsory schooling to stable employment has tended to increase in duration over the last decade, primarily because young people are remaining in education for longer (see *Australian Social Trends* 2003, Pathways from school to work, pp. 96–100).<sup>1</sup>

Regardless of whether they are studying or not, the income derived from employment is an important resource for young people. It may be their only economic resource; or may represent an important step in increasing their economic independence. Employment also provides an opportunity to develop work and social skills. However, employment for young people can be quite different to employment for older people, and is often characterised by lower paid jobs, less skilled occupations, and less job security.<sup>2</sup>

### Young people in the labour force

Between 1983 and 2003, the labour force participation rate for all people aged 15 years and over increased slightly (from 60% to 63%), as did the rate for those aged

### Employment

This article uses data from the monthly ABS Labour Force Survey (LFS) and annual supplementary surveys to the LFS. The article focuses on *young people* aged 15–24 years, and comparisons are generally made with the age group 25–34 years.

*Employed* people are those aged 15 years and over who worked 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. *Unemployed* people are those aged 15 years and over who were not employed during the survey reference week, but were available for work and were actively looking for work. The *unemployment rate* for an age group is the number of unemployed people in that group expressed as a percentage of the *labour force* (the total number of employed and unemployed people) in that group. The *labour force participation rate* for an age group is the labour force expressed as a percentage of the civilian population in that age group.

25–34 years (from 74% to 80%). The rate for young people aged 15–24 years remained fairly stable (69% to 68%). However, underlying this overall stability were major shifts in full-time and part-time employment for young people. In addition, there was an increase in the proportion employed, linked with a decrease in unemployment. In both 1983 and 2003, the labour force participation rate for 15–19 year olds was a little less than three-quarters of that of 20–24 year olds (56% and 79% respectively in 2003).

### Labour force participation of people aged 15–24 years

	1983(a)			2003(a)		
	15–19 years	20–24 years	Total aged 15–24 years	15–19 years	20–24 years	Total aged 15–24 years
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Labour force participation rate(b)	57.6	80.2	69.1	56.3	79.1	68.0
Unemployment rate(c)	22.6	14.7	17.9	15.1	8.7	11.3
Employed(b)	44.7	68.5	56.8	47.6	72.2	60.3
Full-time(d)	72.1	89.0	82.4	32.0	66.9	53.3
Part-time(d)	27.9	11.0	17.6	68.0	33.1	46.7
	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total employed	570.1	907.8	1 478.0	657.9	1 041.7	1 699.6
<b>Total population</b>	<b>1 277.8</b>	<b>1 326.8</b>	<b>2 604.6</b>	<b>1 375.5</b>	<b>1 442.7</b>	<b>2 818.2</b>

(a) Data refer to month of August. (b) As a proportion of all people in that age group. (c) As a proportion of people in the labour force. (d) As a proportion of employed people.

Source: ABS Labour Force Survey.

### ...full-time employment

While the proportion of 15–24 year olds who were employed increased from 57% to 60% between 1983 and 2003, this was mainly attributable to a rise in part-time employment among this age group. There has, in fact, been a decrease in the proportion of young people in full-time employment (particularly marked among 15–19 year olds), consistent with higher rates of participation in non-compulsory schooling. In 1983, 82% of employed young people were in full-time employment, falling to 53% in 2003.

In 2003, the proportion of all young people in full-time employment increased with age, from 15% of those aged 15–19 years, to almost half of 20–24 year olds, and almost two-thirds of people aged 25–34 years.

### ...part-time employment

Between 1983 and 2003, the proportion of all people in paid employment who were working on a part-time basis increased from 17% to 29%, consistent with an overall increase in the participation of women in the labour force (the majority of part-time workers are women: 71% in August 2003).

The youth labour market has seen an even greater increase in part-time employment, experienced by both young men and young women. In 1983, 18% of employed young people aged 15–24 years were working on a part-time basis. By 2003, this had increased to almost half (47%) of employed people in this age group (794,000 young people). Those aged 15–19 years experienced the largest increase in part-time employment (from 28% to 68% of employed people of this age). The rise in part-time employment was less marked among employed people aged 25–34 years (from 15% to 21% over the period).

### Full-time and part-time employment

*Full-time employed* people are those who usually worked 35 hours or more a week (in all jobs), and others who, although usually working less than 35 hours a week, worked 35 hours or more during the survey reference week.

*Part-time employed* people are those who usually worked less than 35 hours a week (in all jobs) and who did so during the survey reference week.

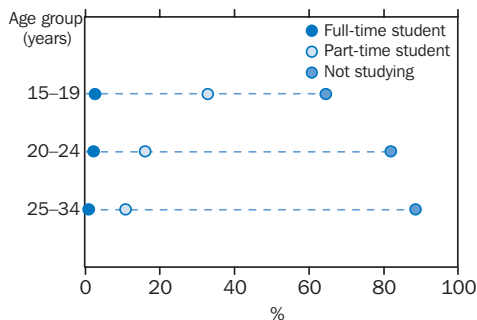
### Working and studying

Changes in the pattern of full-time and part-time employment undertaken by young people are closely related to their increased participation in non-compulsory education and their growing tendency to combine work with study. Combining these activities may assist young people to identify career options and develop work skills, and/or allow them to fund their education and living expenses. There are a range of ways in which work and study can be combined, depending on the priorities of the student. However, the combination of part-time work with part-time study was uncommon among 15–24 year olds, suggesting one activity, either employment or study, tends to take precedence in their life.

Many young people employed full-time in 2003 were not studying (65% of 15–19 year olds and 82% of 20–24 year olds). By the time people reach their late twenties and early thirties, those working full-time were even less likely to be studying (89% of full-time employed 25–34 year olds were not studying). Almost all people in these age groups working full-time and studying undertook their study on a part-time basis.

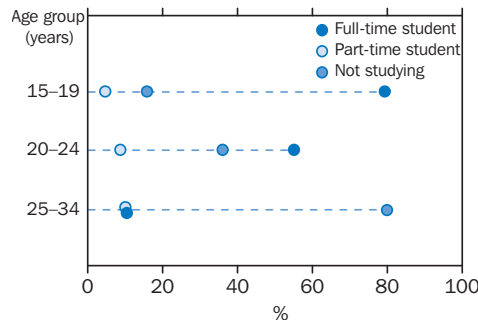
For young people aged 15–24 years employed part-time who were studying, full-time study was the more common type of study. Of those

People employed full-time, by student status — May 2003



Source: ABS 2003 Education and Work Survey.

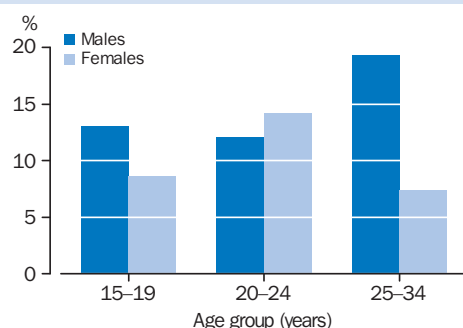
People employed part-time, by student status — May 2003



Source: ABS 2003 Education and Work Survey.



### People employed part-time who were underemployed — August 2003



Source: ABS 2003 Labour Force Survey.

employed part-time, 79% of 15–19 year olds were studying on a full-time basis, while 55% of 20–24 year olds were studying full-time.

### Underemployment

Not all young people working part-time necessarily do so from choice. Some are working part-time as longer hours or full-time positions are not available. In August 2003, 12% of part-time workers aged 15–24 years were actively seeking more hours of work, and were available to work more hours. A smaller proportion of 15–19 year olds (11%) were in this situation than 20–24 year olds (13%).

Young men aged 15–19 years who were working part-time were more likely to be actively seeking more hours of work, and available to start more hours, than young women in the same age group (13% compared with 8.7%). However, underemployment decreased slightly for men

aged 20–24 years (12%), and increased for women in this age group (14%). As they moved past their mid-twenties, women were less likely than men to be underemployed (7.4% of women aged 25–34 years compared with 19% of men in this age group).

### Occupation

Reflecting lower levels of educational attainment and work experience, the occupations in which young people are employed are generally less skilled and hence less well paid than those of older employed people. Such occupations characterise teenage employment in particular.

The most common occupations for people aged 15–24 years in 2003 were related to clerical, sales and service work. Almost half of employed people in this age group (47%) held jobs in either the Elementary, or the Intermediate, clerical, sales and service workers occupation groups. In comparison, only 26% of people aged 25–34 years were in these occupation groups. Some examples of occupations included under these broad groups are: office trainees; food and drink sales assistants; checkout operators and cashiers; street vendors; telemarketers; and sales and service trainees.

Part-time employment is common among young people working in these occupation groups. Of 15–24 year olds employed as Elementary clerical, sales and service workers, just over three-quarters (78%) were working part-time, while half of those employed as Intermediate clerical, sales and service workers were part-time. Part-time work was also relatively common among 15–24 year olds

### Most common occupation groups of employed people aged 15–34 years — August 2003

Occupation group(a)	Young people			25–34 years
	15–19 years	20–24 years	Total aged 15–24 years	
	%	%	%	%
Elementary clerical, sales and service workers	41.4	17.1	26.5	7.2
Intermediate clerical, sales and service workers	15.9	23.3	20.4	18.4
Tradespersons and related workers	12.8	16.8	15.3	14.2
Labourers and related workers	16.9	10.6	13.1	7.8
Intermediate production and transport workers	6.3	7.1	6.8	8.1
Other(b)	6.8	25.0	18.0	44.3
<b>Total employed</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>

(a) Classified according to the Australian Standard Classification of Occupations (ASCO) second edition.

(b) Includes Managers and administrators, Professionals, Associate professionals and Advanced clerical and service workers.

Source: ABS 2003 Labour Force Survey.

employed in the Labourers and related workers occupation group (56%), and those employed in the Intermediate production and transport workers group (47%).

Tradespersons and related workers made up the third most common occupation group for employed young people, with 13% of 15–19 year olds and 17% of 20–24 year olds employed in this occupation group. Part-time work was much less common among 15–24 year olds employed in this occupation group (8%).

Young women tended to dominate clerical, sales and service work. Women made up 70% of 15–24 year olds employed in the Elementary, and the Intermediate, clerical, sales and service workers occupation groups. This pattern continued for women aged 25–34 years, who still dominated the Intermediate clerical, sales and service workers group, as well as the Advanced clerical and service workers group.

Young men, on the other hand, dominated occupation groups such as Tradespersons and related workers, Labourers and related workers, and Intermediate production and transport workers.

### Industry

In 2003, the five most common industries employing young people aged 15–24 years accounted for just over 70% of all their employment. They were most likely to be employed in the Retail trade industry, with just over a third (34%) employed in this industry. The other four most common industries collectively accounted for another third of young people's employment (37%).

Just over half of employed 15–19 year olds were in the Retail trade industry (51%), compared with slightly less than a quarter of 20–24 year olds (23%). In contrast, only 12% of employed people aged 25–34 years were employed in Retail trade, with employment more evenly spread across the range of industries.

People aged 15–24 years tend to work in industries offering part-time jobs and jobs which require lower levels of skill. In 2003, almost three-quarters (71%) of young people employed in Retail trade were working part-time.

### Job mobility

Young people may move between jobs for voluntary reasons. For example, this may assist them to further their careers and/or adapt to changing educational commitments. On the other hand, movement between jobs may be involuntary, or linked to less secure employment. In the twelve months to February 2002, some 443,500 people aged 15–24 years had changed jobs in the previous 12 months (23% of those who had worked at some time in this period). In changing jobs they may have changed employer, work location, or both.

While 19% of 15–19 year olds had changed jobs, the 20–24 year age group were the most mobile, with 26% changing jobs in the previous 12 months. The level of job mobility decreased after the mid-twenties, with 20% of people aged 25–34 years having changed jobs in the twelve months to February 2002.

A slightly higher proportion of young women aged 15–24 years changed jobs than men of this age (20% of women compared with

### Most common industries of employed people aged 15–34 years — August 2003

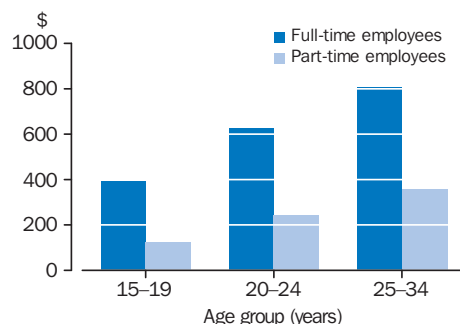
Industry(a)	Young people			25–34 years
	15–19 years	20–24 years	Total aged 15–24 years	
	%	%	%	%
Retail trade	50.8	22.9	33.7	12.2
Accommodation, cafes and restaurants	9.8	9.9	9.9	4.2
Property and business services	6.5	12.0	9.9	13.5
Construction	6.4	9.8	8.5	9.1
Manufacturing	6.4	9.5	8.3	12.4
Other(b)	20.1	35.9	29.8	48.6
<b>Total employed</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>

(a) Classified according to the Australian and New Zealand Standard Industrial Classification (ANZSIC).

(b) Includes: Agriculture, forestry and fishing; Mining; Electricity, gas and water supply; Wholesale trade; Transport and storage; Communication services; Finance and insurance; Government administration and defence; Education; Health and community services; Cultural and recreational services; Personal and other services.

Source: ABS 2003 Labour Force Survey.

### Mean weekly earnings in main job — August 2002



Source: *Employee Earnings, Benefits and Trade Union Membership, Australia, 2002* (ABS cat. no. 6310.0).

19% of men aged 15–19 years; and 27% of women compared with 25% of men aged 20–24 years). However, in their late twenties and early thirties, men were more likely to change jobs than women (21% of men compared with 18% of women aged 25–34 years).

### Earnings

Compared to older employed people, young people often earn less, reflecting lower levels of work experience and skills; and, particularly among teenagers, lower levels of educational attainment. In August 2002, young people aged 15–19 years had the lowest mean weekly earnings of all full-time employees, \$395 compared with \$854 for full-time employees aged 25–34 years. For part-time employees aged 15–19 years, mean weekly earnings were \$124.

However, young people may receive considerable material assistance from parents and family. For example, in keeping with the longer duration of the transition from education to a career, an increasing number of young people are remaining in the parental home, where their living costs are reduced (see *Australian Social Trends 2000*, Young adults living in the parental home, pp. 39–42). In addition, some young people may be eligible for various forms of government income support.

### Young people and unemployment

Young people tend to have higher unemployment rates than people in older age groups. For example, in 2003 the unemployment rate for 15–19 year olds was 15.1%, compared with 8.7% for 20–24 year olds, 5.2% for 25–34 year olds, and around 3.5% for people aged 45–64 years. However, the impact of unemployment for any population group needs to be considered in light of their labour force participation.

While the labour force participation rate for people aged 15–24 years is relatively low, many people in this age group who are not in the labour force may not be seeking work, for reasons such as full-time study. On the other hand, older people aged 45–64 years who are not in the labour force are more likely not to be seeking work for other reasons. (See *Australian Social Trends 2004*, Mature age workers, pp. 114–117).

Further, people aged 15–24 years are at a time of transition as they enter the labour force, and they are less likely to experience long-term unemployment than people in older age groups. In 2003, 85% of unemployed young people looking for a full-time job had been unemployed for less than one year, compared with 78% of people aged 25–34 years.

Over the two decades from 1983 to 2003, the unemployment rate for all people aged 15 years and over fell from 9.9% to 5.6%. Consistent with this trend, the unemployment rate for young people also fell, from 22.6% to 15.1% for 15–19 year olds, and from 14.7% to 8.7% for 20–24 year olds.

### Endnotes

- 1 OECD 2000, *From initial education to working life: making transitions work*, Paris <<http://www1.oecd.org/publications/e-book/9100021e.pdf>>, accessed 16 December 2003.
- 2 Wooden, M and VandenHeuvel, A 1999, 'The labour market for young adults', *Australia's Young Adults: The deepening divide*, Dusseldorp Skills Forum, Sydney.

# Mature age workers

## PAID WORK

**In 2003, close to a third (32%) of people participating in the labour force were aged 45–64 years, up from 24% in 1983.**

Over the past decade, much social and economic debate has focused on the issues associated with Australia's ageing population. Between 2011 and 2030, the large generation born between 1946 and 1965 (known as the baby boomers) will be aged 65 years and over. Such a large number of people set to retire from Australia's workforce over the next few decades brings the possibility of a shortage of labour to meet future demands (see *Australian Social Trends 2004*, Scenarios for Australia's ageing population, pp. 16–21). In recent years, the retention of mature age workers in the labour force has been highlighted as a potential solution to this issue,<sup>1</sup> with certain policy goals focusing on facilitating these workers' participation in the workforce.<sup>2</sup> This article focuses on people aged 45–64 years, as those most likely to move from the workforce into retirement over the next two decades.

As well as contributing to the labour force, the retention of mature age workers can benefit employers through the skills, experience and maturity that such workers offer. There are also many reasons why mature age workers might choose to defer their retirement, and, with healthier ageing, more workers are able to make this choice. Paid work generally results in higher income than is available in retirement and often provides attachment to the community and a sense of self worth. In addition, prolonging the time spent in paid work has the potential to improve retirement income by increasing the time to build up superannuation. And, with increased life expectancy, many mature age workers are planning for a retirement

### Labour force characteristics

Most of the data in this article are from the monthly ABS Labour Force Survey (LFS), although some data on occupation are drawn from the 2001 Census of Population and Housing. There may be small differences between LFS estimates and Census data, reflecting differences in collection methodologies.

In this article, *mature age workers* are employed people aged 45–64 years.

that may last as long as 20 or 30 years. Mature age workers are also more likely to face certain financial pressures than in the past. For example, they are more likely to be divorced or to be supporting dependent children (because of the trends to have children later in life and for young people to undertake further study after school).

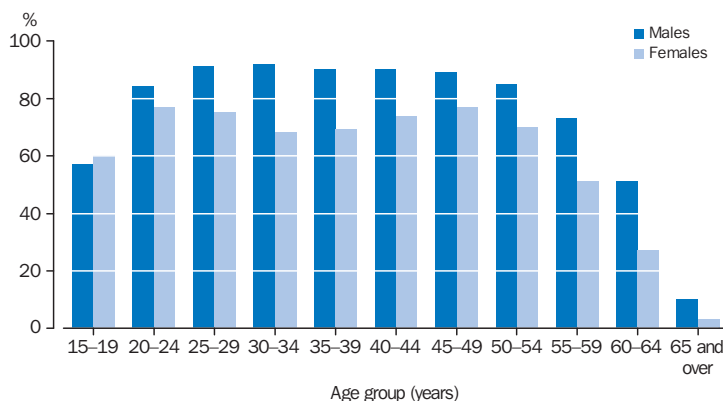
Since the 1990s, a range of legislative and policy changes in the areas of social security and superannuation have been put in place to remove incentives for early retirement. These include gradually increasing the age at which women can access the age pension, ongoing increases to the minimum age for accessing superannuation benefits, and the introduction of incentives for workers who stay on in employment beyond the Age Pension age (e.g. the Pension Bonus Scheme).

### Labour force participation and age

Some people retire or leave the labour force well before their sixties. This is reflected by lower labour force participation rates for men and women from their forties and fifties onwards. In November 2003, most men (around 90%) aged 40–49 years were participating in the labour force, as were around three-quarters of women in this age group. Participation rates were lower for older age groups. For those aged 60–64 years, the participation rates for men and women were 51% and 27% respectively. The low participation rate for women in their early sixties is consistent with women being eligible for the age pension before the age of 65 years. In addition, many women time the commencement of their retirement to coincide with that of their (often older) partner.

That said, the proportion of people in the labour force aged 45–64 years has increased over the past two decades. In 2003, people in this age group made up almost a third (32%) of the labour force, compared with 24% in

**Labour force participation by age — November 2003**



Source: ABS Labour Force Survey, November 2003.

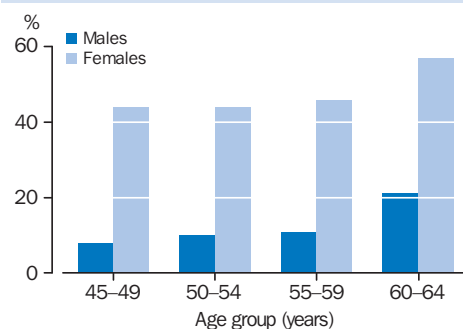
1983. This increase not only reflects larger numbers of people entering this age group as the baby boomers age, but also changes in labour force participation over the period. People aged 45–64 years were more likely than in the past to be labour force participants. Participation rates for this group increased from 56% to 68% between 1983 and 2003. This increase has been driven largely by the increased participation of women, reflecting a range of social changes, including greater acceptance of, and opportunities for, women in the workforce generally (for more information see *Australian Social Trends 2003*, Changes in labour force participation across generations, pp. 134–138).

### Characteristics of mature age workers

In November 2003, there were 3.2 million mature age workers (i.e. employed people aged 45–64 years), making up one-third of all employed people. Around 44% of these workers were women, a similar proportion to that for all employed people (45%). Just over a quarter (26%) of mature age workers were employed part-time, compared with 28% of all employed people. However, both male and female mature age workers are more likely to work part-time as they approach retirement age.

Men are generally less likely to work part-time than women, and this is true of mature age workers. In November 2003, 11% of male mature age workers were employed part-time compared with 45% of their female counterparts. The proportion of men working part-time increased with age from 8% of 45–49 year olds to 21% of 60–64 year olds. For women, the proportion working part-time was close to 45% for ages 45–59 years,

#### Proportion of mature age workers(a) working part-time — November 2003



(a) Employed persons aged 45–64 years.

Source: ABS Labour Force Survey, November 2003.

increasing to 57% for those aged 60–64 years. These higher rates of part-time work as age increases are not only consistent with workers easing their way into retirement, but also reflect difficulties encountered by 60–64 year olds in obtaining full-time work.

### Where are mature age workers employed?

As the labour force ages and baby boomers retire, those industries and occupations which have higher concentrations of mature age workers are the most likely to be affected by the loss of these workers and their knowledge and skills. The November 2003 Labour Force Survey provides up-to-date information on the industries in which people are employed, while the 2001 Census of Population and Housing provides detailed information on occupation. Data from these sources illustrate which industries, and the occupations closely aligned to them, employ proportionally more mature age workers than others.

In November 2003, the Education industry employed the highest proportion of mature age workers, with 47% of people employed in this industry aged 45–64 years. In keeping with this, at the 2001 census, University and vocational education teachers, School teachers and Miscellaneous education professionals were among the occupations with the highest proportions of mature age workers (52%, 42% and 40% respectively).

#### Mature age workers(a) in selected industries — November 2003

	%
<i>Highest proportions of 45–64 year olds</i>	
Education	47.0
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	43.6
Health and community services	42.3
Electricity, gas and water supply	41.8
Transport and storage	39.8
<i>Lowest proportions of 45–64 year olds</i>	
Construction	29.7
Finance and insurance	27.0
Cultural and recreational services	24.3
Accommodation, cafes and restaurants	23.0
Retail trade	21.9
<b>All industries</b>	<b>33.1</b>

(a) Employed persons aged 45–64 years.

Source: ABS Labour Force Survey, November 2003.

The Agriculture, forestry and fishing industry employed the next highest proportion of mature age workers in November 2003 (44%). Almost half (48%) of people employed in the associated occupation Farmers and farm managers, were in this age group in 2001. This is consistent with the trend for fewer young people to enter farming as a

vocation and with farmers often working beyond the age of 65 years (for more information see *Australian Social Trends 2003*, Farming families, pp. 45–49).

In November 2003, 42% of people employed in the Health and community services industry were aged 45–64 years, while 45% of people employed as Social welfare professionals were in this age group at the 2001 Census. Similarly, 40% of workers in the Transport and storage industry in November 2003 were mature age workers, while 43% of people employed as Road and rail transport drivers were in this age group in 2001.

Conversely, those industries most likely to employ young workers had the lowest proportions of mature age workers. In 2003, less than a quarter of people employed in the Retail trade, Accommodation, cafes and restaurants, and Cultural and recreational services industries were aged 45–64 years.

Mature age workers generally have skills and experience gained through many years in the workforce. In 2001, many of the occupations with high proportions of mature age workers were those requiring higher skill levels. More than 40% of workers in the broad occupation group of Managers and administrators were aged 45–64 years, accounting for 332,800 employed people. This partly reflects the time it takes to be promoted to many jobs of this kind. Within Professionals, mature age workers accounted for more than 40% of workers in four occupation groups associated with education and social welfare.

Some occupations with lesser skill requirements also contain large numbers of mature age workers. In 2001, 402,900 Intermediate clerical, sales and service workers, 233,800 Intermediate production and transport workers, and 227,600 Labourers and related workers were aged 45–64 years.

### Difficulty finding work

While some 45–64 year olds choose to retire from the workforce, others may want to work but may not be able to find employment. That said, the unemployment rate for people in this age group tends to be lower than for most other age groups. In November 2003, the unemployment rate for 45–64 year olds was 3.5%, representing 114,000 people in this age group who were looking and available for work. In comparison, the overall unemployment rate was 5.4%.

### Mature age workers(a) in selected occupation groups — 2001

Selected occupation groups (skill level(b))	%	'000
Managers and administrators (1)	43.5	332.8
Farmers and farm managers	47.9	93.4
General managers and administrators	51.2	46.5
Managers and administrators, nfd	46.3	19.3
Miscellaneous generalist managers	45.6	37.2
Miscellaneous specialist managers	46.1	42.4
Professionals (1)	34.4	520.8
University and vocational education teachers	51.7	29.9
Social welfare professionals	45.0	32.4
School teachers	42.1	107.9
Miscellaneous education professionals	40.2	18.7
Associate professionals (2)	34.5	336.6
Tradespersons and related workers (3)	27.4	279.4
Textile, clothing and related tradespersons	40.8	7.2
Advanced clerical and service workers (3)	35.8	110.8
Intermediate clerical, sales and service workers (4)	29.5	402.9
Intermediate production and transport workers (4)	34.9	233.8
Road and rail transport drivers	43.4	103.0
Intermediate textile, clothing and related machine operators	43.4	11.7
Elementary clerical, sales and service workers (5)	22.8	180.5
Labourers and related workers (5)	31.7	227.6
Cleaners	44.7	81.1

(a) Employed persons aged 45–64 years.

(b) Occupations are based on the *Australian Standard Classification of Occupations (ASCO) Second Edition* (ABS cat. no. 1220.0), which classifies occupations by skill level ranked from 1 (the highest) to 5 (the lowest).

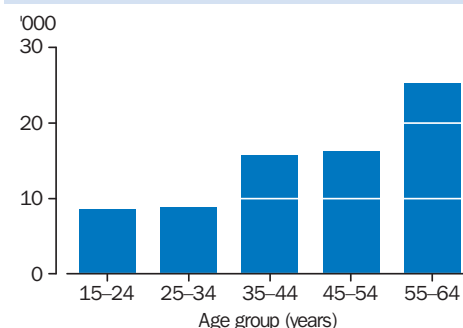
Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

While the unemployment rate for men and women aged 45–54 years was similar (3.4% and 3.6% respectively) in November 2003, the unemployment rate for men aged 55–64 years (4.0%) was higher than for women in this age group (2.7%). Mature age jobseekers (both male and female) were more likely to be seeking full-time work than the total unemployed population (81% compared with 74%). And, as with the total unemployed population, male mature age jobseekers were more likely to be looking for full-time work than their female counterparts (89% compared with 70%).

While 45–64 year olds have lower unemployment rates than those in the labour force generally, people in this age group often have less success in obtaining work than younger jobseekers and are therefore at risk of remaining unemployed for a long time. To counter some of these issues, government strategies to retain mature age workers in the workforce often focus on supporting unemployed people aged over 45 years to retrain or find work, and on increasing recognition of the contribution mature age workers can make in the workplace.<sup>1,3</sup>

In the 12 months to July 2000, people aged 45 years and over were less likely than younger persons to be successful jobseekers (see *Australian Social Trends 2002*, Searching for work, pp. 136–140). This may reflect outdated skills, competition with

### Discouraged jobseekers(a) — September 2002



(a) For a definition of discouraged jobseekers, see *Australian Social Trends 2004*, Work: definitions, pp. 106–107.

Source: *Persons Not in the Labour Force, Australia, September 2002* (ABS cat. no. 6220.0).

younger jobseekers, and high levels of family and financial commitment resulting in less flexibility to change location (see *Australian Social Trends 1999*, Older jobseekers, pp. 114–118). As a result, people in this age group are more likely to remain unemployed for longer periods of time. In November 2003, 23% of all unemployed people were long-term unemployed (i.e. had been unemployed for 52 weeks or more). Among unemployed 45–64 year olds, the proportion was nearly twice as high (40%), while almost a half (49%) of unemployed 55–64 year olds were long-term unemployed.

Consistent with the difficulties people aged 45–64 years may face finding work over a long period of time, they are more likely to become discouraged and drop out of the labour force altogether than people in younger age groups. In September 2002, more than half (53%) of all discouraged jobseekers were aged 45–64 years.

### Selected characteristics of unemployed persons — November 2003

	Mature age workers			Total labour force(a)
	45–54 years	55–64 years	Total aged 45–64 years	
	%	%	%	
Unemployment rate	3.5	3.5	3.5	5.4
Males	3.4	4.0	3.6	5.1
Females	3.6	2.7	3.3	5.7
Proportion of unemployed looking for full-time work	81.4	81.4	81.4	74.2
Males	89.8	88.6	89.3	82.9
Females	72.1	64.9	70.4	64.5
Proportion of unemployed who are long-term unemployed	35.9	48.8	40.2	22.8
Males	41.4	49.8	44.7	28.1
Females	29.6	46.5	33.6	16.9

(a) Aged 15 years and over.

Source: ABS Labour Force Survey, November 2003.

### Endnotes

- 1 Department of the Treasury 2004, *Australia's Demographic Challenges*, Treasury, Canberra.
- 2 Department of Health and Ageing (DoHA) 2002, *National Strategy for an Ageing Australia*, DoHA, Canberra.
- 3 Australian National Training Authority (ANTA), 2003, *National Strategy for Vocational Education and Training (VET): 2004–2010*, ANTA, Brisbane.

# Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples in the labour force

## PAID WORK

**In the 2001 census, the unemployment rate for Indigenous persons aged 15–64 years was 20%, compared with 7% for non-Indigenous people of the same age.**

Income gained through employment is vital to the wellbeing of many working age Australians and their families, contributing to their financial independence and security. Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples generally experience lower levels of employment than non-Indigenous Australians. Factors contributing to this include the generally lower educational attainment of Indigenous peoples and the limited range of employment opportunities in remote areas.

The relatively low proportion of Indigenous persons in paid employment is a major factor contributing to the status of the Indigenous population as one of the most disadvantaged groups in the community. In response to this, providing employment for Indigenous persons has been a focus of government policy for many years. A range of programs have been instituted to promote Indigenous employment, most notably the Community Development Employment Projects (CDEP) scheme, which has operated since 1977.

### Broad trends

The labour force participation of the Indigenous population has changed little in the last decade. The labour force participation of the Indigenous population aged 15–64 years was relatively stable at 54% (including participation in CDEP) in the ten years to 2001, compared with 73% for the rest of the population.

In the 2001 census, the unemployment rate for Indigenous persons aged 15–64 years was nearly three times as high as the rate for the non-Indigenous population (20% compared

### Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples

Data in this article are drawn from the 1991, 1996 and 2001 ABS Censuses of Population and Housing. In the 2001 census, 238,000 people aged 15–64 years were identified as being of Aboriginal and/or Torres Strait Islander origin. Between 1991 and 1996 there was an increase in the propensity for people to identify as being Indigenous, which may affect analysis of apparent changes over time in the characteristics of Indigenous peoples examined in this article.<sup>1</sup>

### Labour force status

Information in this article is presented for the working age population, aged 15–64 years.

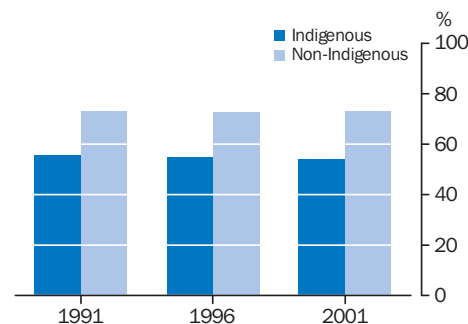
*Employed* people in this article are those aged 15–64 years who worked for payment or profit, or as an unpaid helper in a family business, during the week prior to census night, or had a job from which they were on leave or otherwise temporarily absent, or were on strike or stood down temporarily.

*Unemployed* people are those who do not have a job but are actively looking for work and are available to start work. In any group, the *unemployment rate* is the proportion of people in the labour force who are unemployed.

The *labour force* consists of people who are employed or unemployed, as defined above. In any group, the *labour force participation rate* is the proportion of all people who are in the labour force.

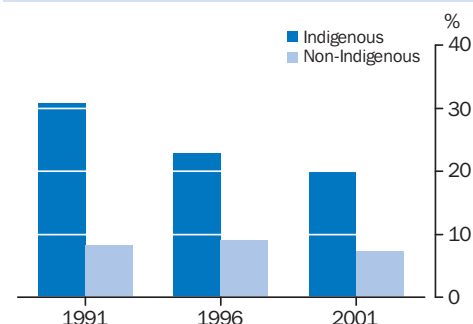
with 7.3%). This is despite a reduction in the unemployment rate among Indigenous persons since 1991, which coincided with an improvement in the general economic climate and a reduction in non-Indigenous unemployment.

**Labour force participation of people aged 15–64 years**



Source: ABS 1991–2001 Censuses of Population and Housing.

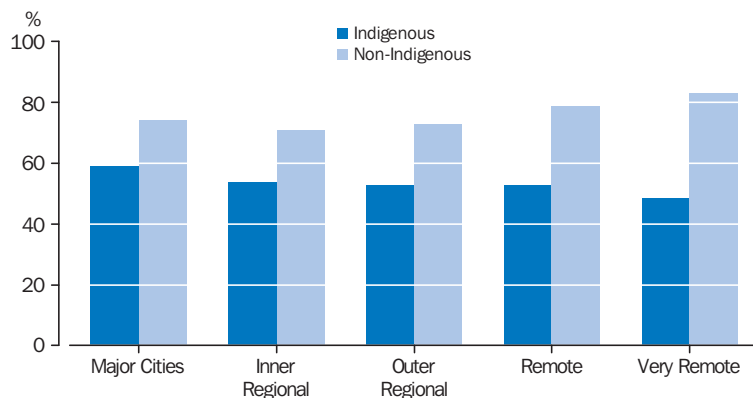
**Unemployment among people aged 15–64 years**



Source: ABS 1991–2001 Censuses of Population and Housing.



### Labour force participation: people aged 15–64 years, by Remoteness Area — 2001



Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

### Labour force participation

Differences in the labour force participation rates of the Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations were evident across the regions of Australia and across age groups.

Indigenous persons aged 15–64 years had lower labour force participation rates across all Remoteness Areas. The difference was greatest in Very Remote areas, where the participation rate for Indigenous persons aged 15–64 years was the lowest in Australia (48%), while that for the non-Indigenous population was the highest (83%). In contrast to the non-Indigenous population, labour force participation among the Indigenous population tended to be lower in more remote areas than in Major cities or Inner Regional areas.

The labour force participation rate of Indigenous persons was lower than that of the non-Indigenous population for every age group. However, the pattern of participation for males and females over the life cycle was similar for both populations, with females less likely to participate in the labour force than

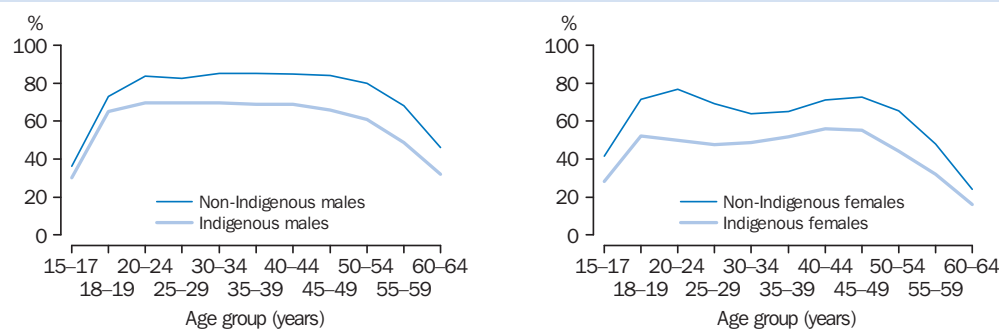
### Community Development Employment Projects (CDEP)

Instituted in 1977, the Community Development Employment Projects (CDEP) scheme enables participants to exchange unemployment benefits for opportunities to undertake work and training in activities which are managed by a local Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander community organisation. Participants in the program are therefore included in the employed category of the labour force status classification. Most CDEP organisations are located in regional and remote areas of Australia, where the labour market might not otherwise provide employment. Although providing stable employment, CDEP tends to employ people on a part-time basis and in relatively unskilled occupations. CDEP participation is concentrated among younger age groups, and in 2001 around 60% of participants were male.

The CDEP participants identified in the census were counted on Special Indigenous Forms (SIF) as part of the enumeration procedures used in remote communities and in some discrete Indigenous communities in non-remote areas. These forms contained explicit references to CDEP whereas the standard census form was not specifically designed to collect information on CDEP participation. Census output for CDEP employment therefore only reflects information collected on the SIF. The census count of CDEP participants reported on SIFs was 17,800. Allowing for the undercount in the census, particularly in Remote and Very Remote areas, the number of CDEP participants reported on SIFs was equivalent to about 60% of the number of CDEP participants recorded at the same time for administrative purposes by the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission (32,000). It is not known what proportion of CDEP participants reporting on standard census forms would report their CDEP activities as employment, or whether they would report that they were either unemployed or not in the labour force. This ambiguity in reporting needs to be considered in interpreting the labour force status of Indigenous persons in census statistics.

males. Overall, Indigenous persons aged 15–64 years had a labour force participation rate of 62% for males and 46% for females, compared to 81% for non-Indigenous males and 66% for non-Indigenous females.

### Labour force participation, by sex and age — 2001



Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

## Unemployment

Indigenous persons continue to experience considerably higher unemployment rates than the non-Indigenous population. As noted earlier, in 2001 the unemployment rate for Indigenous persons aged 15–64 years was 20%, compared to 7.3% for the non-Indigenous population.

The unemployment rate may not reflect the full extent of the underutilisation of labour among the Indigenous population. Low labour force participation rates indicate that some Indigenous persons may be discouraged job seekers who are not looking for work because they feel they would not be able to get a job, or there are no jobs available. In addition, while participation in the CDEP scheme is counted as employment, the work is generally low skilled and part-time, and may not fulfil the desire for better paid employment for some participants.

Between 1996 and 2001, the unemployment rate among the Indigenous population aged 15–64 years fell from 23% to 20%. Over the same period, the unemployment rate among the non-Indigenous population also fell (from 9.1% to 7.3%).

### ...Remoteness Areas

In 2001, the pattern of unemployment for both Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations showed lower rates of unemployment in Very Remote areas. The rate for Indigenous persons was highest in Inner Regional areas (25%) and lowest in Very Remote areas (8.3%). The rate in Very Remote areas was a consequence of both the low

### Remoteness Areas

This article uses the ABS Remoteness classification to examine the labour force status of Indigenous people in the six *Remoteness Areas*. Remoteness is calculated using the road distance to different sized urban centres, where the population size is considered to govern the range and type of services available. The six Remoteness Areas are: Major Cities of Australia; Inner Regional Australia; Outer Regional Australia; Remote Australia; Very Remote Australia and Migratory. The Remoteness Area names used in this article are abbreviated versions of these official names with 'Australia' omitted. For further information see *Statistical Geography: Volume 1 – Australia Standard Geographical Classification (ASGC), 2001* (ABS cat. no. 1216.0).

A comparatively high proportion of the Indigenous population aged 15–64 years lives in regional and remote areas. In 2001, over one-quarter (26%) of Indigenous persons aged 15–64 years lived in Remote or Very Remote areas, compared to 2% of the non-Indigenous population.

labour force participation rate (48%), and relatively high rates of participation in CDEP (68% of employed Indigenous persons) in these regions.

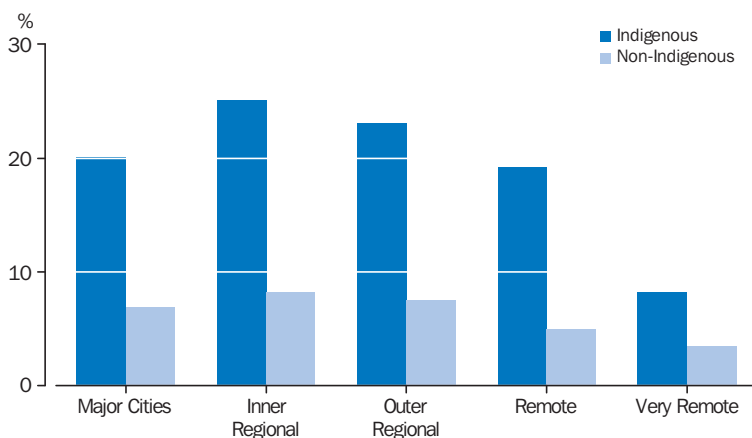
### ...age

As with the non-Indigenous population, unemployment was particularly high for young Indigenous persons. Among Indigenous persons aged 15–17 years and 18–24 years, unemployment was around 15 percentage points higher than for non-Indigenous persons of the same age (32% and 27% respectively for Indigenous persons compared to 16% and 13% for non-Indigenous persons). Indigenous males aged 15–17 years experienced the highest levels of unemployment, around 34% (compared to 18% for non-Indigenous males of the same age). Unemployment declined steadily with increasing age for both Indigenous and non-Indigenous persons. The unemployment rate for those aged 55–64 years was 10.4% and 5.7% for Indigenous and non-Indigenous persons respectively.

### ...educational attainment

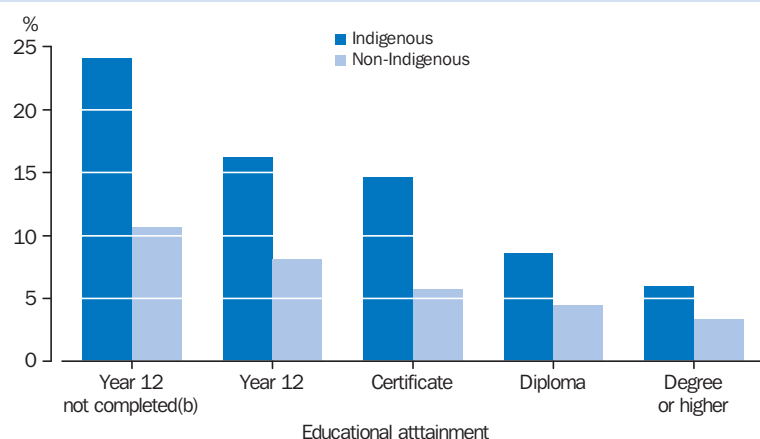
Educational attainment has a major influence on the employment outcomes of both the Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations. Although Indigenous persons had higher rates of unemployment than the non-Indigenous population for every level of educational attainment, the difference was particularly marked for people with lower levels of qualifications. For example, Indigenous persons who had not completed

**Unemployment rates for people aged 15–64 years, by Remoteness Area — 2001**



Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

### Unemployment rates for people aged 15–64 years(a): highest educational attainment — 2001



(a) For people who stated educational attainment.

(b) Includes people still at school.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

Year 12 had an unemployment rate more than twice as high as non-Indigenous persons with the same level of education (24% compared to 10.6%). Indigenous persons with a bachelor degree or higher qualification had an unemployment rate of 5.9%, compared to 3.3% for the non-Indigenous population.

### Employment

With relatively low labour force participation and high unemployment, the Indigenous population aged 15–64 years had a low proportion of employed people (43%), compared with the non-Indigenous population (68%).

Lower proportions of Indigenous persons were employed than the non-Indigenous population across all Remoteness Areas. However, the pattern of employment differed for the two populations. The proportion of employed Indigenous persons was highest in Major Cities (47%), and lowest in Inner and Outer Regional areas (both around 40%).

### Labour force status of people aged 15–64 years, by Remoteness Area — 2001

	Major Cities	Inner Regional	Outer Regional	Remote	Very Remote	Australia(a)
<i>Indigenous</i>						
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Employed(b)	47.2	40.3	40.5	42.6	44.4	43.2
CDEP	0.5	1.9	4.6	9.8	29.6	7.7
Other	46.7	38.4	35.9	32.9	14.8	35.6
Unemployed(c)	11.9	13.5	12.2	10.1	4.0	10.8
Not in the labour force	40.9	46.2	47.3	47.3	51.6	45.9
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000
<b>Total(d)</b>	<b>71.9</b>	<b>45.5</b>	<b>52.0</b>	<b>20.0</b>	<b>42.7</b>	<b>237.6</b>
<i>Non-Indigenous</i>						
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Employed(b)	68.9	64.9	67.3	74.7	80.1	68.0
Unemployed(c)	5.1	5.9	5.5	4.0	2.9	5.3
Not in the labour force	26.0	29.2	27.2	21.4	16.9	26.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000
<b>Total(d)</b>	<b>8 016.3</b>	<b>2 322.6</b>	<b>1 131.5</b>	<b>172.3</b>	<b>59.4</b>	<b>11 811.0</b>

(a) Includes Migratory category of Remoteness classification.

(b) Includes employer not stated.

(c) As a proportion of people aged 15–64 years in that region.

(d) Includes labour force status not stated.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

In contrast, the proportion of non-Indigenous persons who were employed was highest in Remote and Very Remote areas (75% and 80%).

In 2001, in non-remote areas, 68% of employed Indigenous persons aged 15–64 years worked in the private sector (compared with 83% of non-Indigenous persons), and 27% were employed in the government sector (compared with 17% of non-Indigenous persons). In Remote and Very Remote areas, around 50% and 17% respectively of employed Indigenous persons worked in the private sector, with 26% and 15% working in the government sector. In addition, the CDEP scheme provided around one-quarter (24%) and two-thirds (68%) of employment for Indigenous persons in Remote and Very Remote areas respectively.

In 2001, 45% of employed Indigenous persons worked part-time, compared to 33% of non-Indigenous persons. This is partly due to the CDEP program, as 80% of CDEP participants were employed part-time. Accordingly, part-time employment among Indigenous persons was more common in Very Remote areas (66% of employed Indigenous persons), because of the high levels of CDEP participation in these regions.

### Industry

In 2001, the sources of employment were somewhat different for the Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations. This reflected the sorts of jobs available to people living in remote communities, as well as the differing skills bases of the two populations. The main industries for employed Indigenous persons aged 15–64 years were Government

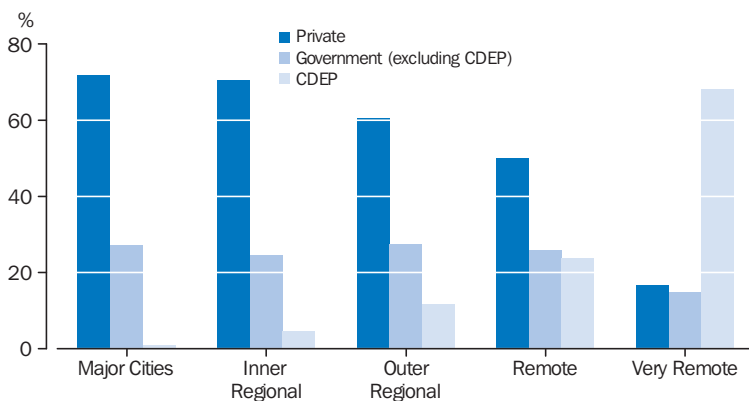
administration and defence (21% of employed people), Health and community services (12%) and Retail trade (10%). For the non-Indigenous population the main industries were Retail trade (15%), Manufacturing (12%) and Property and business services (11%).

Around 68% of CDEP participants worked in Government administration and defence. This is partly because in Very Remote areas CDEP schemes tend to be managed by community councils, and persons employed under these schemes commonly have their industry of work classified as Government administration and defence. In addition, 11% of CDEP participants worked in the Personal and other services industry, and 7.3% in Health and community services.

There were some differences in the industries employing Indigenous persons across Remoteness Areas. In Major Cities and Inner Regional areas, Retail trade (12% and 13% respectively) and Health and community services (12% and 14% respectively) were the most common industries of employment. In contrast, in Very Remote areas 58% of employed Indigenous persons worked in Government administration and defence, mainly as CDEP participants.

Employment in certain industries varied across different age groups within the Indigenous population. For younger Indigenous persons, Retail trade was the main industry, employing 40% of 15–17 year olds and 14% of 18–24 year olds. In addition, Accommodation, cafes and restaurants employed around 6% of both these age groups. Indigenous persons aged 25–64 years had higher levels of employment in industries such as Health and community services (14%) and Education (10%), compared to non-Indigenous persons in the same age group (11% and 8.2% respectively).

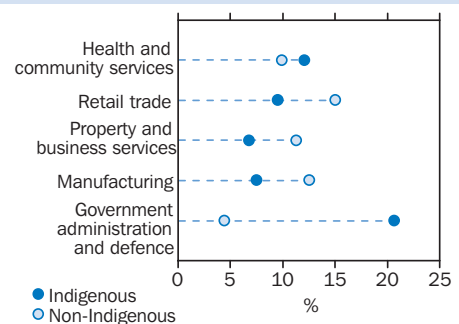
**Sector of employment(a): Indigenous peoples aged 15–64 years, by Remoteness Area — 2001**



(a) As classified in the 2001 Census of Population and Housing; described in the 2001 Census Dictionary, ABS cat. no. 2901.0.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

**Selected industries among employed people aged 15–64 years — 2001**



Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

## States and territories

While Indigenous persons aged 15–64 years experienced lower rates of labour force participation and higher rates of unemployment than the non-Indigenous population in all states and territories, there was some variation in the comparative employment situation of the two populations between jurisdictions. For example, with about 80% of Indigenous persons living in Remote and Very Remote Areas, the Northern Territory recorded the lowest labour force participation rate for Indigenous persons in Australia (40%), compared with the highest rate (82%) for the non-Indigenous population. A high proportion (52%) of employed Indigenous persons in the Northern Territory identified as CDEP participants, contributing to the Northern Territory recording a relatively low unemployment rate of 14% for the Indigenous population (5% for non-Indigenous persons). In contrast, the ACT, with a highly urbanised, highly mobile Indigenous population, had the highest labour force participation rate among Indigenous persons in Australia (69%) along with the lowest unemployment rate (13%), compared with 79% and 5% respectively for the non-Indigenous population. In Tasmania the labour force participation rate for Indigenous persons (61%) was closer to the non-Indigenous rate (69%) than in any other state or territory.

## Labour force status of persons aged 15–64 years — 2001

State	Indigenous population '000	Labour force participation rate		Unemployment rate	
		Indigenous	Non-Indigenous	Indigenous	Non-Indigenous
		%	%	%	%
NSW	68.5	54.6	72.7	23.1	7.1
Vic.	14.6	58.3	73.5	18.0	6.8
Qld	64.4	58.1	73.6	20.1	8.1
SA	13.7	51.3	72.2	20.4	7.5
WA	33.8	54.3	74.5	19.0	7.3
Tas.	9.2	60.6	69.2	19.8	9.9
NT	31.1	39.9	82.3	13.6	5.0
ACT	2.1	68.8	79.1	13.2	5.0
<b>Aust.(a)</b>	<b>237.6</b>	<b>54.1</b>	<b>73.3</b>	<b>20.0</b>	<b>7.3</b>

(a) Includes Other Territories.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

## Occupation

Indigenous persons are more likely to be employed in lower skill occupations than the non-Indigenous population. In 2001, almost two-thirds (63%) of employed Indigenous persons were working in the two lowest skill occupation groups (see *Australian Social Trends 2004*, Work: definitions, pp. 106–107 for definitions of skill groups), compared with 44% of the non-Indigenous population.

## 2002 National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Social Survey

The first results from the 2002 National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Social Survey will be released at the end of June 2004. The survey collected information from about 9,500 Indigenous peoples aged 15 years and over, in both remote and non-remote areas of Australia.

The survey provides detailed information on the labour force characteristics of Indigenous persons, including participation in CDEP. As it collected data across a wide range of areas of social concern, labour force characteristics can be analysed in relation to other topics such as family and community, culture and language, health, education, income, housing, crime and justice and transport use.

This pattern is consistent with relatively low levels of educational attainment among the Indigenous population and the types of jobs available in more remote areas of Australia, including under CDEP. Of Indigenous CDEP participants identified in the census, 86% were engaged in low skill occupations, compared to 58% of Indigenous persons in non-CDEP employment. Reflecting the high levels of CDEP participation in Very Remote areas, 79% of Indigenous persons employed in these regions were engaged in low skill occupations.

The main occupation group for the Indigenous population was Labourers and related workers (25%), while for the non-Indigenous population it was Professionals (19%). However, similar proportions of both the Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations were employed as Intermediate clerical, sales and service workers (19% and 17% respectively). Employment in low skill occupations was a contributing factor to the lower incomes of the Indigenous population (see *Australian Social Trends 2004*, Incomes of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Australians, pp. 146–150).

## Endnotes

- 1 Ross, Kate 1999, *Population Issues, Indigenous Australians, 1996*, cat. no. 4708.0, ABS, Canberra.

# Community service workers

## PAID WORK

**From 1996 to 2001, reduced employment in community service industries providing care in institutional settings was offset by employment growth in the community service industry providing home-based care.**

People give and receive care in a variety of settings. Demand for care tends to increase after people reach a certain age, and with an ageing population, this is an area of concern not only for individuals and their families but also for the community in general, and governments at all levels.

Over the past two decades, there has been a shift in emphasis from providing aged care in institutional settings to caring for older people in their homes. This shift has also been evident in the care of people with disabilities, not all of whom are aged. The change has been supported by services such as those provided through the Home and Community Care program, which aims to avoid unnecessary admission to long-term residential care by providing services such as home nursing, delivered meals, home help, home maintenance, transport and shopping assistance, and advice.<sup>1</sup>

### Change in employment levels

In line with the continuing trend away from institutional care towards home-based care, employment levels declined in some community service industries between 1996 and 2001, and increased in others.

In 2001, approximately 75,400 people spent census night in a nursing home, comprising mainly patients and residents and a small number of staff. This represented a small increase from 1996. However, the number of people employed in the Nursing homes industry fell from 80,600 to 65,900 over this

### Concepts and data collection

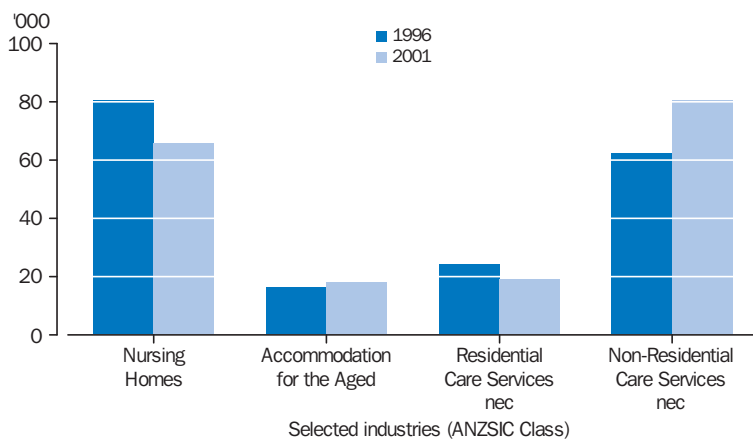
For the purposes of this article, community service industries comprise the following four Australian and New Zealand Standard Industry Classification (ANZSIC) Classes:

- ◆ 8613 *Nursing homes* provide nursing or convalescent home facilities (including the provision of nursing or medical care as a basic part of the service).
- ◆ 8721 *Accommodation for the aged* provide long term care accommodation or homes for senior citizens where nursing or medical care is not provided as a major service.
- ◆ 8722 *Residential care services not elsewhere classified (nec)* — primary activities are the operation of children's homes, crisis care accommodation, homes for the disadvantaged nec, juvenile corrective institutions, juvenile detention centres, residential refuges, and respite residential care.
- ◆ 8729 *Non-Residential care services nec* — primary activities are the services of meals on wheels, emergency housekeeping, adoption, marriage guidance, welfare counselling, parole or probation and non-residential welfare, the operation of adult day care centres and alcoholics anonymous, and welfare fund raising.

Most of the data presented in this article were collected in the 1996 and 2001 ABS Censuses of Population and Housing. Other data were collected in the 1995–96 and 1999–2000 ABS Community Services Surveys.

Strict comparability of data between censuses has been adversely affected by a change in the data collection, which resulted in a large increase between 1996 and 2001 in the number of employed people coded to the ANZSIC category O000 'Health and community services, undefined'.<sup>2</sup> Increases in employment levels between 1996 and 2001 in community services industries examined in this article may be understated, and decreases may be overstated.

### Number of people employed in community service industries



Source: ABS 1996 and 2001 Censuses of Population and Housing.

period. In contrast, the Accommodation for the aged industry experienced a modest rise in employment during these five years (from 16,500 to 18,000), while there was robust growth in the number of people employed in Non-Residential care services nec (from 62,500 to 80,600). This latter increase may have been driven in part by greater numbers of people with a disability stimulating higher demand for this industry's services. Between 1993 and 1998, there was an estimated 20% increase in the number of Australians with a disability.<sup>3</sup>

## Characteristics of people employed in community service industries — 2001

	Selected industries (ANZSIC Class)				All employed persons
	Nursing homes	Accommodation for the aged	Residential care services nec	Non-Residential care services nec	
	%	%	%	%	%
Female	89.4	85.6	72.5	77.0	45.2
Part-time(a)	64.2	62.8	45.1	55.6	33.4
Aged 45 years or older	52.4	55.6	41.4	45.2	34.3
	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000
<b>Employed persons</b>	<b>65.9</b>	<b>18.0</b>	<b>19.0</b>	<b>80.6</b>	<b>8 298.6</b>

(a) Worked less than 35 hours in all jobs during the week prior to census night.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

A reduction in the number of people receiving care in welfare establishments such as night shelters and refuges (see *Australian Social Trends 2003*, People in institutional settings, pp. 17–21) was accompanied by a lower level of employment in the industry covering these activities (Residential care services nec). In 2001, around 19,000 people were employed in this industry, down from 24,200 in 1996.

### Labour force characteristics

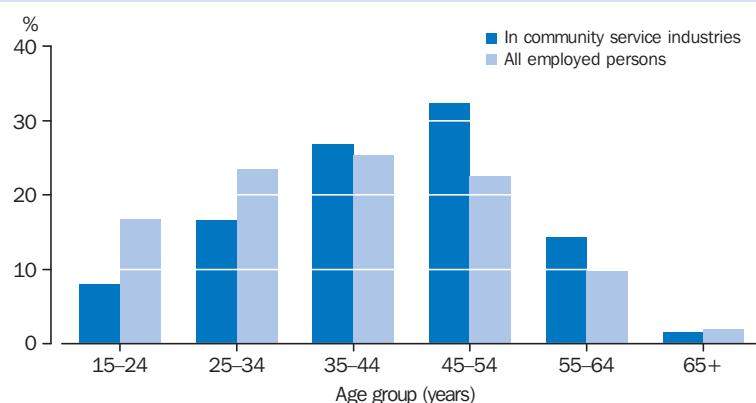
Community service industries had labour forces with some similar characteristics, which were quite different from Australian workers overall. For example, in each industry in 2001, the proportion of workers who were female was relatively high, as was the proportion who were aged 45 years and over. Furthermore, both male and female workers in community service industries had a greater tendency to work part-time than in many other industries.

These characteristics were especially pronounced in industries providing residential care primarily for aged persons. In both Nursing homes and Accommodation for the aged, a vast majority of employed persons were female (89% and 86% respectively), possibly reflecting the relatively high proportion of nursing jobs which have traditionally been dominated by female workers. In addition, almost two-thirds of people employed by these industries (64% and 63% respectively) worked fewer than 35 hours in all jobs during the week prior to census night, and over half of all workers in these industries (52% and 56%) were aged 45 years or older. In Non-Residential care services nec, the proportions of females, part-timers, and mature aged workers were not as great, while the industry most concerned with youth welfare and juvenile correction and detention (Residential care services nec) had the youngest age profile, and the highest proportions of full-time workers (55%) and male workers (28%).

There are health workforce planning concerns about a number of occupations such as nurses and medical practitioners that have a relatively old age profile. Age is one factor that can contribute to, or exacerbate, current or expected labour shortages in a particular occupation.<sup>2</sup>

The community service industries labour force aged more rapidly than the all industries labour force between 1996 and 2001, with the median age of community service workers rising from 41 years to 44 years over this period, compared with 37 years to 38 years among all employed persons. An ageing workforce can result from departure of younger workers, lack of recruitment, and/or recruitment of older workers. The nature of the work performed

### Age distribution of employed persons — 2001



Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

### Proportion of employed persons in selected occupation groups(a) — 2001

Selected occupation groups(a)	Selected industries (ANZSIC Class)				All employed persons
	Nursing homes	Accommodation for the aged	Residential care services nec	Non-Residential care services nec	
	%	%	%	%	%
Professionals	32.4	17.1	20.9	27.6	18.6
Nursing professionals	27.6	9.8	4.3	3.6	2.1
Social welfare professionals	0.8	2.2	12.5	17.7	0.9
Associate professionals	6.9	7.4	25.8	12.1	12.0
Enrolled nurses	4.6	2.0	0.7	0.4	0.2
Welfare associate professionals	0.2	0.3	20.4	6.5	0.2
Intermediate clerical, sales and service workers	39.3	46.6	40.8	40.9	16.8
Carers and aides	36.6	41.5	36.4	33.3	2.8

(a) Australian Standard Classification of Occupations (ASCO) Second Edition.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

may make community service industries more likely than other industries to attract and retain mature age workers. At the same time, prevailing wages and working conditions in community service industries may limit their ability to attract young workers from other industries, or to recruit young people entering the labour force.

#### Occupational profile

In 2001, comparatively high proportions of people working in community service industries were employed in the Intermediate clerical, sales and service workers group, mainly as Carers and aides in occupations such as Aged or Disabled person carer, Nursing assistant, and Personal care assistant. This was especially so in the Accommodation for the aged industry, where 47% of employed people performed a job in this group.

The other industry primarily concerned with residential aged care (Nursing homes) had a smaller proportion of workers in this group (39%) and a relatively high proportion working as Professionals (32%). More than a quarter (28%) of all people employed by the Nursing homes industry were working as Nursing professionals, a considerably higher proportion than among workers in the other three community service industries. This difference reflects the specific skills needed to provide the different type of care delivered by nursing homes.

In 2001, the Non-Residential care services nec industry had a lower proportion of workers employed as Professionals (28%) than the Nursing homes industry. Correspondingly, it

had higher proportions working as Associate professionals (12% compared with 7%) and as Intermediate clerical, sales and service workers (41% compared with 39%). While there had been an increase in services providing nursing care in the home between 1996 and 2001, the proportion of this industry's workers who were Professionals declined from 30% in 1996.

Residential care services nec had a somewhat different occupational profile, with a relatively high proportion of workers employed as Associate professionals in occupations such as Disabilities services officer, Residential care officer, and Youth worker (26% compared with 12% or less in the other three community service industries).

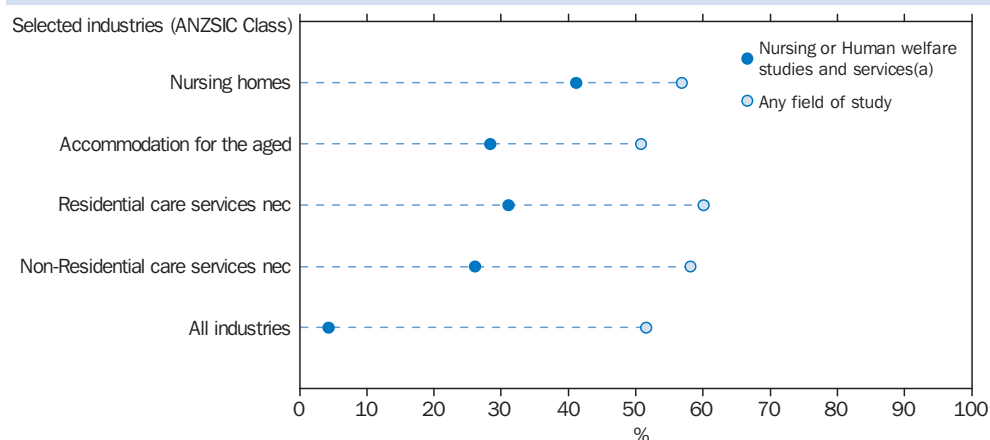
#### Qualifications

In 2001, people working in community service industries were more likely overall to have a non-school qualification than workers across all industries. The proportion of community service workers who held a non-school qualification ranged from 51% in Accommodation for the aged to 60% in the Residential care services nec industry.

In keeping with the primary activities of these community service industries, their workers were much more likely than Australian workers in general to have a non-school qualification in either Nursing, or Human welfare studies and services, as their main field of study for their highest qualification held. The proportion who held such a qualification ranged from 26% in Non-Residential care services nec to 41% in



### Proportion of employed persons with a non-school qualification — 2001



(a) Where this is the main field of study for the highest qualification completed.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

**Nursing homes.** The higher proportion of workers with these non-school qualifications in Nursing homes reflects the higher level of medical care offered by this industry.

### Income

Personal incomes tend to vary widely, largely according to the number of hours worked per week. For this reason, a comparison of the incomes of full-time workers is more meaningful than a comparison of the incomes

of all workers. In 2001, people employed in community service industries who worked full-time received less gross weekly income than full-time workers nationwide. Set against a national median gross weekly income of \$705 for full-time workers, the median incomes for those in community service industries associated with residential aged care were considerably lower at \$543 (Accommodation for the aged) and \$549 (Nursing homes), while the incomes of those in the other community service industries

### Gross weekly income(a) of employed persons who worked full-time(b) — 2001

Gross weekly income	Selected industries (ANZSIC Class)				All persons employed full-time
	Nursing homes	Accommodation for the aged	Residential care services nec	Non-Residential care services nec	
	%	%	%	%	%
Less than \$400	15.7	15.1	7.4	12.8	11.5
\$400–\$599	45.0	46.9	30.5	28.0	25.6
\$600–\$799	18.9	19.2	33.9	29.7	23.0
\$800–\$999	9.6	9.1	15.9	16.3	14.9
\$1000 or more	10.8	9.8	12.3	13.2	25.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000
<b>Total</b>	<b>23.1</b>	<b>6.5</b>	<b>10.2</b>	<b>35.1</b>	<b>5 360.7</b>
	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$
Median gross weekly income	549	543	667	659	705

(a) Gross income usually received each week from all sources.

(b) 35 or more hours in all jobs during the week prior to census night.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

### Volunteer workers in community services industries

Selected industries (ANZSIC Class)	1995–96(a)			1999–2000(b)		
	Volunteers '000	Hours worked(c) no.	Volunteers per 100 employees no.	Volunteers '000	Hours worked(c) no.	Volunteers per 100 employees no.
Nursing homes	15.6	11.2	15.8	15.8	13.8	18.6
Accommodation for the aged	18.7	13.3	55.9	16.9	17.6	39.8
Residential care services nec	10.4	20.5	69.2	20.6	10.6	93.1
Non-Residential care services nec	146.4	14.1	230.1	211.7	18.0	268.6

(a) Volunteers during June 1996; employees at the end of June 1996.

(b) Volunteers during June 2000; employees at the end of June 2000.

(c) Average per volunteer for the month of June.

Source: *Community Services, Australia, 1999–2000* (ABS cat. no. 8696.0).

were only somewhat lower at \$659 (Non-Residential care services nec) and \$667 (Residential care services nec). These differences may be attributable to a range of factors such as differences in occupational mix, the number of hours worked, and sources of income other than earnings.

#### Volunteer workers

Community service industries have volunteers providing services without being paid (e.g. meals on wheels) as well as paid employees. The Non-Residential care services nec industry is particularly reliant on volunteer labour. During June 2000, there were 211,700 volunteers providing services in this industry, up from 146,400 in June 1996. In addition to this increase, the average time worked by each volunteer rose from 14 hours to 18 hours per month over the period. While the other three community services industries had substantial volunteer workforces, they each had fewer volunteers during June 2000 than paid employees at the end of June 2000, with the ratio being lowest in the Nursing homes industry at 19 volunteers for every 100 paid employees.

The ratio of volunteer workers to paid workers may be linked to the extent to which a community services industry is comprised of non profit organisations. At the end of June 2000, 43% of organisations operating in the Nursing homes industry were 'not for profit' organisations. The proportion was higher among organisations operating in the Accommodation for the aged industry (76%) and the Residential care services nec industry (85%), and highest of all in the Non-Residential care services nec industry (98%).<sup>4</sup>

#### Endnotes

- 1 Australian Institute of Health and Welfare 2003, *Australia's welfare 2003*, Cat. No. AUS 41, AIHW, Canberra.
- 2 Australian Institute of Health and Welfare 2003, *Health and community services labour force, 2001*, AIHW Cat. No. HWL 27, AIHW, Canberra.
- 3 Australian Bureau of Statistics 1999, *Disability, Ageing and Carers, Australia: Summary of Findings, 1998*, cat. no. 4430.0, ABS, Canberra.
- 4 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2001, *Community Services, Australia, 1999–2000*, cat. no. 8696.0, ABS, Canberra.

# Economic resources

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	Page
<b>National and state summary tables.....</b>	<b>130</b>
<b>Economic resources data sources and definitions.....</b>	<b>134</b>

## INCOME DISTRIBUTION

<b>Household assets, liabilities and financial stress.....</b>	<b>137</b>
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In 2002, more than two-thirds (70%) of all households were buying or purchasing their home, and over half (56%) reported having no consumer debt. This article explores the relationship between household assets and liabilities, household income and selected financial stress indicators.

<b>Household income.....</b>	<b>142</b>
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Between 1994–95 and 2000–01, real equivalised disposable household income for all people increased by 12% on average. This article discusses the distribution of this increase, and of equivalised disposable household income more generally, across different life cycle stages, and considers factors such as principal source of household income and home ownership.

<b>Incomes of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Australians.....</b>	<b>146</b>
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In 2001, the average equivalised gross household income for Indigenous persons was 62% of that for non-Indigenous persons. This article examines the level, and distribution, of equivalised household income of Indigenous persons across Remoteness Areas. It uses individual incomes to examine differences between Indigenous and non-Indigenous persons by industry and occupation.

# Economic resources: national summary

<b>INCOME GROWTH</b>		Units	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
1	Real net national disposable income per capita(a)	\$'000	22.4	22.9	r24.1	r25.0	r25.9	r26.8	r27.6	r28.6	r28.9	r29.7	30.1
2	Real GDP per capita(a)	\$'000	27.9	28.7	r30.4	r31.3	r32.1	r33.1	r34.5	r35.4	r35.7	r36.6	37.2
<b>Weekly earnings</b>													
3	Average weekly total earnings – all employees	\$	526	533	551	574	n.a.	610	n.a.	653	n.a.	698	n.a.
4	Average weekly ordinary time earnings of full-time adult non-managerial employees	\$	558	578	608	634	n.a.	692	n.a.	737	n.a.	800	n.a.
5	Total hourly rates of pay excluding bonuses	index no.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	100.0	101.2	104.4	107.4	111.1	114.8	118.8
6	Full weekly benefit received by a single age pensioner	\$	197	197	189	197	199	202	203	203	207	211	220
7	Full weekly benefit received by a couple with two children	\$	339	347	355	370	386	393	397	405	445	465	482
8	Consumer price index	index no.	108.4	110.4	113.9	118.7	120.3	120.3	121.8	124.7	132.2	136.0	140.2
<b>INCOME DISTRIBUTION</b>		Units	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
9	Female/male ratio of mean weekly ordinary time earnings of full-time adult non-managerial employees	ratio	0.91	0.92	0.91	0.89	n.a.	0.89	n.a.	0.90	n.a.	0.89	n.a.
<b>Disposable household income</b>													
Mean weekly income of selected households(b)													
10	Lone person aged under 35 years	\$	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	r449	r483	r459	n.a.	499	508	n.a.	n.y.a.
11	Couple only, reference person aged under 35	\$	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	r927	r957	r966	n.a.	1073	1034	n.a.	n.y.a.
12	Couple with dependent children	\$	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	r924	r942	r991	n.a.	1011	1062	n.a.	n.y.a.
13	One parent with dependent children	\$	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	r512	r523	r539	n.a.	566	574	n.a.	n.y.a.
14	Couple only, reference person aged 65 and over	\$	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	r431	r485	r460	n.a.	490	482	n.a.	n.y.a.
15	Lone person aged 65 and over	\$	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	r244	r257	r260	n.a.	286	274	n.a.	n.y.a.
Mean weekly equivalised household income for selected groups of persons(b)													
16	Low income	\$	n.a.	n.a.	r227	r227	r235	r237	n.a.	241	245	n.a.	n.y.a.
17	Middle income	\$	n.a.	n.a.	r372	r368	r381	r388	n.a.	404	413	n.a.	n.y.a.
18	High income	\$	n.a.	n.a.	r792	r773	r794	r832	n.a.	879	903	n.a.	n.y.a.
Weekly equivalised household income of persons at top of selected income percentiles(b)													
19	20th(P20)	\$	n.a.	n.a.	r225	r224	r233	r235	n.a.	241	245	n.a.	n.y.a.
20	50th(P50)	\$	n.a.	n.a.	r372	r367	r380	r385	n.a.	405	414	n.a.	n.y.a.
21	80th(P80)	\$	n.a.	n.a.	r576	r578	r591	r602	n.a.	636	644	n.a.	n.y.a.
Ratio of equivalised household incomes of persons at top of selected income percentiles													
22	P90/P10	ratio	n.a.	n.a.	r3.77	r3.74	r3.66	r3.77	n.a.	3.89	3.97	n.a.	n.y.a.
23	P80/P20	ratio	n.a.	n.a.	r2.56	r2.58	r2.54	r2.56	n.a.	2.64	2.63	n.a.	n.y.a.
24	P80/P50	ratio	n.a.	n.a.	r1.55	r1.57	r1.56	r1.56	n.a.	1.57	1.56	n.a.	n.y.a.
25	P20/P50	ratio	n.a.	n.a.	r0.61	r0.61	r0.61	r0.61	n.a.	0.59	0.59	n.a.	n.y.a.
Share of total equivalised household income received by persons with:													
26	Low income	%	n.a.	n.a.	r10.8	r10.9	r11.0	r10.8	n.a.	10.5	10.5	n.a.	n.y.a.
27	High income	%	n.a.	n.a.	r37.8	r37.3	r37.1	r37.9	n.a.	38.4	38.5	n.a.	n.y.a.
28	Gini coefficient of equivalised income	ratio	n.a.	n.a.	r0.302	r0.296	r0.292	r0.303	n.a.	0.310	0.311	n.a.	n.y.a.

# Economic resources: national summary cont.

<b>EXPENDITURE</b>		Units	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
29	Real household final consumption expenditure per capita(a)	\$'000	17.0	17.2	r16.6	r17.3	r17.8	r18.6	r19.5	r20.3	20.9	r21.6	22.4
<b>SOURCES OF INCOME</b>		Units	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Main source of income – of all households													
30	Wages and salaries	%	n.a.	n.a.	r57.6	r56.7	r56.3	r56.8	n.a.	56.7	56.9	n.a.	n.y.a.
31	Own business or partnership	%	n.a.	n.a.	r6.1	r7.3	6.6	6.0	n.a.	6.4	6.4	n.a.	n.y.a.
32	Government pensions and allowances	%	n.a.	n.a.	r28.4	r28.2	r28.7	r28.4	n.a.	28.7	28.3	n.a.	n.y.a.
33	Other	%	n.a.	n.a.	r6.7	r6.8	r7.6	r7.7	n.a.	7.3	7.3	n.a.	n.y.a.
<b>Income support</b>													
34	GDP spent on social assistance benefits in cash to residents	%	8.6	8.9	8.7	8.7	8.7	8.3	8.4	8.4	r9.0	r8.9	8.7
Main source of income is government pensions and allowances – proportion of all households in selected groups(c)													
35	Lone person aged under 35 years	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	r14.6	r15.6	r16.3	n.a.	17.2	13.7	n.a.	n.y.a.
36	Couple only, reference person aged under 35	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	r*1.6	r*2.6	r*3.6	n.a.	*2.6	*2.8	n.a.	n.y.a.
37	Couple with dependent children	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	r9.7	r10.6	r10.3	n.a.	r10.7	r9.1	n.a.	n.y.a.
38	One parent with dependent children	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	r53.3	r58.7	r54.3	n.a.	53.1	53.0	n.a.	n.y.a.
39	Couple only, reference person aged 65 and over	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	r71.2	r65.2	r65.9	n.a.	70.1	71.7	n.a.	n.y.a.
40	Lone person aged 65 and over	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	r79.8	r80.0	r77.9	n.a.	79.8	79.2	n.a.	n.y.a.
Recipients of selected government payments													
41	Labour market program allowance(c)	'000	913.8	878.3	822.6	846.6	829.9	809.6	745.9	672.3	665.8	646.8	633.6
42	Single-parent payment(d)	'000	298.4	313.4	324.9	342.3	358.9	372.3	r384.9	397.3	424.6	436.6	444.8
43	Disability support pension(d)	'000	406.6	436.2	464.4	499.2	527.5	555.3	577.8	602.4	623.9	658.9	673.3
44	Age pension	'000	1 516	1 582	1 579	1 603	1 680	1 683	1 716	1 730	1 786	1 811	1 854
45	Age pensioners – of persons of qualifying age	%	62.8	64.3	63.0	62.7	64.4	65.4	65.5	65.9	65.8	66.2	n.y.a.
46	Females – of all age pensioners	%	68.2	67.5	65.5	64.4	64.4	63.5	63.1	62.1	61.6	60.8	60.3

(a) Chain volume measure, reference year 2001–02.

(b) Adjusted for changes in the Consumer Price Index; values are given in 2000–01 dollars.

(c) Average weekly data for June. Includes people who receive a nil rate of payment.

(d) Includes payments to people living overseas.

Reference periods: All data are for the financial year ending 30 June except:  
Data for indicators 3–4 and 9 are at May.  
Data for indicators 6–7 and 41–46 are at June.

# Economic resources: state summary

<b>INCOME GROWTH</b>												
	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.	
1	Gross household disposable income per capita	\$'000	2002-03	26.2	25.5	21.6	22.4	24.0	20.2	26.1	36.8	24.7
<b>Weekly earnings</b>												
2	Average weekly total earnings – all employees	\$	2002	736	704	643	669	679	594	700	777	698
3	Average weekly ordinary time earnings of full-time adult non-managerial employees	\$	2002	827	804	756	777	792	759	803	864	800
4	Total hourly rates of pay excluding bonuses	index no.	2002-03	119.7	118.8	117.8	118.6	118.7	116.3	116.7	117.4	118.8
<b>INCOME DISTRIBUTION</b>												
	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.	
5	Female/male ratio of mean weekly ordinary time earnings of full-time adult non-managerial employees	ratio	2002	0.89	0.91	0.88	0.91	0.86	1.00	0.88	0.89	0.89
<b>Disposable household income</b>												
Mean weekly income of selected households												
6	Lone person aged under 35 years	\$	2000-01	510	571	458	467	463	420	559	621	508
7	Couple only, reference person aged under 35	\$	2000-01	1 134	1 027	926	924	1 018	952	*1 119	1 243	1 034
8	Couple with dependent children	\$	2000-01	1 112	1 113	983	902	1 014	884	1 392	1 264	1 062
9	One parent with dependent children	\$	2000-01	598	598	532	492	589	524	521	708	574
10	Couple only, reference person aged 65 and over	\$	2000-01	440	510	451	498	555	435	**	733	482
11	Lone person aged 65 and over	\$	2000-01	266	298	253	270	281	286	**	*304	274
Mean weekly equivalised household income for selected groups of persons												
12	Low income	\$	2000-01	243	251	239	238	262	231	360	342	245
13	Middle income	\$	2000-01	421	430	390	377	415	355	531	554	413
14	High income	\$	2000-01	954	917	829	796	897	679	1233	985	903
Weekly equivalised household income of persons at top of selected income percentiles												
15	20th(P20)	\$	2000-01	241	250	235	238	257	231	364	348	245
16	50th(P50)	\$	2000-01	423	433	389	369	410	350	547	560	414
17	80th(P80)	\$	2000-01	664	656	603	613	629	538	841	746	644
Ratio of equivalised household incomes of persons at top of selected income percentiles												
18	P90/P10	ratio	2000-01	4.31	3.92	3.74	3.67	3.86	3.06	4.39	3.44	3.97
19	P80/P20	ratio	2000-01	2.76	2.62	2.56	2.58	2.45	2.33	2.31	2.14	2.63
20	P80/P50	ratio	2000-01	1.57	1.52	1.55	1.66	1.54	1.54	1.54	1.33	1.56
21	P20/P50	ratio	2000-01	0.57	0.58	0.61	0.64	0.63	0.66	0.67	0.62	0.59
Share of total equivalised household income received by persons with:												
22	Low income	%	2000-01	10.1	10.4	10.9	11.2	11.1	11.9	10.9	11.9	10.5
23	High income	%	2000-01	39.6	38.0	37.8	37.3	38.0	34.9	38.7	34.3	38.5
24	Gini coefficient of equivalised income	ratio	2000-01	0.325	0.308	0.302	0.292	0.300	0.258	0.309	0.262	0.311

# Economic resources: state summary continued

<b>SOURCES OF INCOME</b>		Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Main source of income – of all households												
25	Wages and salaries	%	2000–01	57.3	58.5	54.6	50.8	58.5	52.0	76.3	71.4	56.9
26	Own business or partnership	%	2000–01	5.4	5.9	7.8	5.9	8.7	5.1	5.6	4.7	6.4
27	Government pensions and allowances	%	2000–01	27.9	27.2	30.3	35.1	24.2	36.1	14.2	15.4	28.3
28	Other	%	2000–01	7.9	7.7	6.5	7.0	6.9	6.0	3.0	8.1	7.3
<b>Income support</b>												
Recipients of selected government payments												
29	Labour market program allowance(a)	'000	2003	193.7	143.0	136.7	52.3	61.5	22.9	17.0	5.7	632.8
30	Single-parent payment(b)	'000	2003	143.4	97.5	97.8	35.6	45.7	13.4	6.0	5.3	444.8
31	Disability support pension(b)	'000	2003	219.8	158.9	129.4	64.3	56.3	32.2	5.3	6.9	673.3
32	Age pension(b)	'000	2003	611.5	472.3	320.2	173.3	155.9	97.1	5.9	17.1	1 854.0
33	Age pensioners – of persons of qualifying age	%	2002	62.7	66.2	64.1	69.8	63.3	67.8	63.3	52.3	66.2
34	Females – of all age pensioners	%	2003	61.0	61.0	59.9	61.1	60.8	60.7	56.4	63.1	60.3

(a) Point in time data which will not match average of weekly data, which include people who receive a nil rate of payment.

(b) Components do not add to Australian total because total for Australia includes payments to people living overseas and where valid geographic data were not available.

Reference periods: All data are for the financial year ending 30 June except:  
Data for indicators 2–3 and 5 are at May.  
Data for indicators 29–34 are at June.

# Economic resources: data sources

DATA SOURCE	Indicators using this source	
	National indicators	State indicators
ABS Australian System of National Accounts, 2002–03.	34	—
ABS Australian System of National Accounts, 2002–03 and ABS Estimated resident population.	29	—
ABS Surveys of Income and Housing.	10–28, 30–33, 35–40	6–28
<i>Australian National Accounts: State Accounts, 2002–03</i> (ABS cat. no. 5220.0).	—	1
<i>Australian System of National Accounts, 2002–03</i> (ABS cat. no. 5204.0).	1–2	—
<i>Consumer Price Index, Australia, March Quarter 2004</i> (ABS cat. no. 6401.0).	8	—
Department of Family and Community Services administrative data.	41–44, 46	29–32, 34
Department of Family and Community Services administrative data and ABS Estimated resident population.	45	33
<i>Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia</i> (ABS cat. no. 6306.0).	3–4, 9	2–3, 5
Guide to Commonwealth Government Payments.	6–7	—
<i>Wage Cost Index, Australia, December Quarter 2003</i> (ABS cat. no. 6345.0).	5	4

## Economic resources: definitions

### Adult employees

employees aged 21 years and over, and those under 21 years who are paid at the full adult rate for their occupation.

Reference: *Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6306.0).

### Age pension recipients

people receiving full or partial Age pension excluding associated Wife's or Carer's pension. The qualifying age for Age pension eligibility for men is 65 years. Between 1 July 1995 and 2012, the qualifying age for women is gradually being raised from 60 to 65 years. At 30 June 2003 the qualifying age for females was 62 years.

Reference: Department of Family and Community Services, *Customers: a statistical overview*.

### Age pensioners — of persons of qualifying age

the number of aged pension recipients as a proportion of the estimated resident population (ERP) of persons who meet the age requirements for the age pension. In the years where the age requirement for females was a number of years plus six months the ERP was prorated.

### Average weekly ordinary time earnings of full-time adult non-managerial employees

refers to one week's earnings for the reference period attributed to award, standard or agreed hours of work. It is calculated before taxation and any other deductions have been made. Included in ordinary time earnings are agreed base rates of pay plus payment by measured result, such as bonuses and commissions. Excluded are non-cash components of salary packages, the value of salary sacrificed, overtime payments, and payments not related to the survey reference period, such as retrospective pay, pay in advance, leave loadings, and severance pay and termination and redundancy payments.

Non-managerial employees are those who are not managerial employees as defined below, including non-managerial professionals and some employees with supervisory responsibilities.

Reference: *Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6306.0).

### Average weekly total earnings

average weekly total earnings of employees is equal to weekly ordinary time earnings plus weekly overtime earnings.

Reference: *Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6306.0).

### Chain volume measures

are obtained by linking together (i.e. compounding) movements in volumes, calculated using the average price of the previous financial year, and applying the compounded movements to the current price estimates of the reference year.

Reference: *Australian System of National Accounts: Concepts, Sources and Methods* (ABS cat. no. 5216.0).

### Consumer price index

a measure of change over time in the retail price of a constant basket of goods and services which is representative of consumption patterns of employee households in metropolitan areas. Base year for index is 1989–90 = 100.0.

Reference: *Australian Consumer Price Index: Concepts, Sources and Methods* (ABS cat. no. 6461.0).

### Couple

two people in a registered or de facto marriage, who usually live in the same household.

### Couple only household

a household which contains a couple and no other persons.

### Couple with dependent children household

a one-family household comprising a couple with at least one dependent child. The household may also include non-dependent children, other relatives and unrelated persons.

Reference: *Household Income and Income Distribution, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

### Dependent children

children under 15 years of age; and full-time students, aged 15 to 24 years, who have a parent, guardian or other relative in the household and do not have a partner or child of their own in the household.

Reference: *Household Income and Income Distribution, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

### Disability support pension recipients

persons receiving a pension on the basis of an assessed physical, intellectual or psychiatric impairment and on their continuing inability to work or be retrained to work 30 hours or more per week within the next two years.

Reference: Commonwealth Department of Family and Community Services, *Customers: a statistical overview*.



# Economic resources: definitions continued

## Disposable income

gross income less personal income tax (including the Medicare levy)

Reference: *Household Income and Income Distribution, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

## Employees

all wage and salary earners who received pay for any part of the reference period.

Reference: *Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6306.0).

## Equivalised income

equivalising adjusts actual income to take account of the different needs of households of different size and composition. There are economic advantages associated with living with others, because household resources, especially housing, can be shared. The equivalence scale used to obtain equivalised incomes is that used in studies by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and is referred to as the 'modified OECD scale'. The scale gives a weight of 1.0 to the first adult in the household, and for each additional adult (persons aged 15 years and over) a weight of 0.5, and for each child a weight of 0.3. For each household, the weights for household members are added together to form the household weight. The total household disposable income is then divided by the household weight to give an income that a lone person household would need for a similar standard of living.

Reference: *Household Income and Income Distribution, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

## Full-time employees

employees who normally work the agreed or award hours for a full-time employee in their occupation. If agreed or award hours do not apply, employees are regarded as full-time if they usually work 35 hours or more per week.

Reference: *Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6306.0).

## Full weekly basic single age pensioner rate

the amount paid to a single age pensioner, who passes the income and asset test for the full basic rate, excluding all allowances, indexed by CPI to the most recent year.

Reference: Department of Family and Community Services.

## Full weekly benefit received by a couple with two children

the maximum weekly social security benefit available to an unemployed couple with two children (one aged under 5 years and one aged 5 years or over but under 13 years). The calculation for 2003 includes unemployment benefits for each partner (currently Newstart), Family Tax Benefit Part A for each child and Family Tax Benefit Part B for the family. This calculation excludes any rent assistance which may be available.

Reference: Department of Family and Community Services.

## GDP (gross domestic product)

total market value of goods and services produced in Australia within a given period after deducting the cost of goods and services used up in the process of production but before deducting allowances for the consumption of fixed capital.

Reference: *Australian System of National Accounts* (ABS cat. no. 5204.0).

## Gini coefficient

a measure for assessing inequality of income distribution. The measure, expressed as a ratio that is always between 0 and 1, is low for populations with relatively equal income distributions and high for populations with relatively unequal income distributions.

Reference: *Household Income and Income Distribution, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

## Government pensions and allowances

payments from government under social security and related government programs.

Reference: *Household Income and Income Distribution, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

## Gross household disposable income per capita

where gross household disposable income, as measured in the Australian System of National Accounts, is gross household income less income tax payable, other current taxes on income, wealth etc., consumer debt interest, interest payable by dwellings and unincorporated enterprises, social contributions for workers' compensation, net non-life insurance premiums and other current transfers payable by households. The population used is the mean resident population for the financial year.

Reference: *Australian National Accounts: State Accounts* (ABS cat. no. 5220.0).

## Gross income

cash receipts, that are of a regular and recurring nature, before tax or any other deductions are made.

Reference: *Household Income and Income Distribution, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

## High income persons

persons in the 9th and 10th income deciles after being ranked by their equivalised disposable household income.

Reference: *Household Income and Income Distribution, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

## Household

a group of related or unrelated people who usually live in the same dwelling and make common provision for food and other essentials of living; or a lone person who makes provision for his or her own food and other essentials of living without combining with any other person.

Reference: *Household Income and Income Distribution, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

## Labour market program allowance recipients

the number of recipients of Unemployment Benefit prior to 1991; Job Search Allowance, Newstart Allowance and Youth Training Allowance from 1991 to 1996; Newstart Allowance and Youth Training Allowance from 1997; Newstart Allowance and Youth Allowance (other) from July 1998.

Reference: Department of Family and Community Services, *Customers: a statistical overview*.

## Lone-person household

a household which consists of only one person.

Reference: *Household Income and Income Distribution, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

## Low income persons

persons in the 2nd and 3rd income deciles after being ranked by their equivalised disposable household income.

Reference: *Household Income and Income Distribution, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

## Main source of income

that source from which the most positive income is received. If total income is nil or negative the principal source is undefined.

Reference: *Household Income and Income Distribution, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

## Managerial employees

employees who are in charge of a significant number of employees and/or have strategic responsibilities in the conduct or operations of the organisation and who usually do not have an entitlement to paid overtime.

Reference: *Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6306.0).

## Mean weekly income

the sum of the income of all households, or persons, in a population, divided by the number of households, or persons, in the population.

Reference: *Household Income and Income Distribution, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

## Middle income persons

persons in the 5th and 6th income deciles after being ranked by their equivalised disposable household income.

Reference: *Household Income and Income Distribution, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

# Economic resources: definitions continued

## One parent with dependent children household

a one-family household comprising a lone parent with at least one dependent child. The household may also include non-dependent children, other relatives and unrelated persons.

## Ordinary time hours

award, standard or agreed hours of work, paid for at the ordinary time rate, including that part of annual leave, paid sick leave and long service leave taken during the reference period.

Reference: *Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6306.0).

## Own business or partnership income

the profit or loss that accrues to people as owners of, or partners in, unincorporated enterprises. Profit/loss consists of the value of the gross output of the enterprise after the deduction of operating expenses (including depreciation). Losses occur when operating expenses are greater than gross receipts.

Reference: *Household Income and Income Distribution, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

## Percentiles

when persons are ranked from the lowest to the highest on the basis of some characteristic such as their equivalised household income, they can then be divided into equal sized groups. Division into 100 groups gives percentiles. The highest value of the characteristic in the tenth percentile is denoted P10. The Median or the top of the 50th percentile is denoted P50. P20, P80 and P90 denote the highest values in the 20th, 80th and 90th percentiles.

Reference: *Household Income and Income Distribution, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

## Ratio of incomes

the ratio is calculated by dividing the highest value in a selected percentile by the highest value in a second selected percentile (see percentiles). For example, the person at the top of the 80th percentile for Australia when ranked by equivalised disposable income has an equivalised disposable household income of \$644. If this is divided by the equivalised disposable household weekly income of the person at the top of the 20th percentile (\$245), the result is 2.63.

Reference: *Household Income and Income Distribution, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

## Real GDP (gross domestic product)

an aggregate measure of the value of economic production in a year. The series used are GDP chain volume measures (reference year 2001–02) and GDP at current prices.

Reference: *Australian System of National Accounts* (ABS cat. no. 5204.0).

## Real household final consumption expenditure per capita

net expenditure on goods and services by persons, and expenditure of a current nature by private nonprofit institutions serving households. Includes personal expenditure on motor vehicles and other durable goods, the value of 'backyard' production, the payment of wages and salaries in kind and imputed rent on owner-occupied dwellings. Excludes the purchase and maintenance of dwellings by persons and capital expenditure by unincorporated businesses and nonprofit institutions. The measure is expressed in Australian dollars using chain volume measures, reference year 2001–02, and is based on the mean resident population of each financial year.

Reference: *Australian System of National Accounts* (ABS cat. no. 5204.0).

## Real net national disposable income per capita

where real net national disposable income is a broad measure of economic wellbeing which adjusts the chain volume measure of GDP for the terms of trade effect, real net incomes from overseas (primary and secondary) and consumption of fixed capital. The population estimates are based on data published in the quarterly publication *Australian Demographic Statistics* (ABS cat. no. 3101.0) and ABS projections.

Reference: *Australian System of National Accounts* (ABS cat. no. 5204.0).

## Reference person

the reference person for each household is chosen by applying, to all household members aged 15 years and over, the selection criteria below, in the order listed, until a single appropriate reference person is identified:

- ♦ the person with the highest tenure when ranked as follows: owner without a mortgage, owner with a mortgage, renter, other tenure
- ♦ one of the partners in a registered or de facto marriage, with dependent children
- ♦ one of the partners in a registered or de facto marriage, without dependent children
- ♦ a lone parent with dependent children
- ♦ the person with the highest income
- ♦ the eldest person.

Reference: *Household Income and Income Distribution, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

## Single-parent payment recipients

lone parents receiving the 'Parenting Payment — Single'. Prior to March 1998, this was known as the 'Sole Parent Pension'.

Reference: Department of Family and Community Services, *Customers: a statistical overview*.

## Social assistance benefits in cash to residents

includes current transfers to persons from general government in return for which no services are rendered or goods supplied. Principal components include: scholarships; maternity, sickness and unemployment benefits; child endowments and family allowances; and widows', age, invalid and repatriation pensions.

Reference: *Australian System of National Accounts* (ABS cat. no. 5204.0).

## Total hourly rates of pay index excluding bonuses

measures quarterly change in combined ordinary time and overtime hourly rates of pay excluding bonuses.

Bonuses are payments made to a job occupant that are in addition to regular wages and salaries and which generally relate to the job occupant's, or the organisation's performance. Base period for index is September 1997 = 100.0.

Reference: *Wage Cost Index, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6345.0).

## Wages and salaries

the gross cash income received as a return to labour from an employer or from a household's own incorporated enterprise.

Reference: *Household Income and Income Distribution, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

# Household assets, liabilities and financial stress

## INCOME DISTRIBUTION

Contributed by Tony Eardley, Social Policy Research Centre, University of New South Wales.

**In 2002, more than half (56%) of all households reported having no consumer debt, and, for almost two-thirds (65%) of those that did, the total amount was less than \$10,000.**

Some low income households face greater difficulties in maintaining or improving their standard of living, and in coping with financial stress, than others. The extent to which low income households experience financial difficulties is affected by whether they have savings, housing equity and other assets, and by the level of their debt or other liabilities.

This article explores the relationship between household assets and liabilities, household income and selected financial stress indicators. It reveals that while wealth, in terms of housing equity, savings and other assets, does not always go along with higher income in Australian households, there is still a strong relationship between them. It also reveals that serious financial stress is mainly restricted to a small proportion of households, most of which do not own (and are not purchasing) their own home and have little in the way of savings or other investments.

### Household assets and liabilities ...equity in home

In 2002, there were around 19.2 million people of all ages living in 7.5 million households in Australia. Less than a third (30%) of these households reported that they did not own their home and were not purchasing it, and hence had no equity in

### Household assets and liabilities

Data in this article are drawn from the General Social Survey (GSS) conducted by the ABS in 2002. The GSS asked about selected financial stress indicators and selected household assets and liabilities such as investments and consumer debt.

*Equity in dwelling* is calculated as the value of the dwelling in which the household usually resides, less the amount owing on mortgages or secured loans against the dwelling.

*Financial stress* refers to households' being at risk of experiencing deprivation because of a shortage of money (see also page 139).

*Equivalised gross household income* is a standardised income measure which has been adjusted for the different income needs of households of different size and composition. *Income quintiles* are formed by ranking persons of all ages from the lowest to the highest based on their equivalised gross household income and forming five equal sized groups (see *Australian Social Trends 2004*, Household income, pp. 142–145).

For more details regarding GSS data and definitions see *General Social Survey, Summary Results, Australia 2002* (ABS cat. no. 4159.0).

their dwelling. The level of home ownership increased to some extent with income, but even in the highest income quintile, 23% of households did not own their own home (with or without a mortgage). This group

### Equity in dwelling by equivalised gross household income — 2002

Level of equity	Households		Equivalised gross household income quintile(a)				
	'000	%	Lowest	Second	Third	Fourth	Highest
Did not own home(b)	2 211	29.5	39.9	32.8	28.1	23.1	22.7
Less than \$100 000(c)	1 229	16.4	14.3	18.6	20.4	19.5	14.1
\$100 000–199 999	1 473	19.7	20.4	20.2	21.3	21.2	17.0
\$200 000–299 999	974	13.0	10.7	12.8	13.9	14.8	13.5
\$300 000–399 999	564	7.5	5.4	6.2	6.6	8.5	10.8
\$400 000 or more	801	10.7	5.3	6.7	9.3	10.8	20.9
Not known/not stated	243	3.2	3.9	2.6	1.7	1.1	1.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>7 495</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
			'000	'000	'000	'000	'000
<b>Households(a)</b>			<b>1 755</b>	<b>1 286</b>	<b>1 215</b>	<b>1 228</b>	<b>1462</b>

(a) Excludes households where income was unknown or not stated.

(b) Either with or without a mortgage.

(c) Includes nil or negative values.

Source: ABS 2002 General Social Survey.

would include households in a range of circumstances, such as young, high income households which have not yet taken on home purchase, but may also include some people with homes owned through companies or family trusts. A further 16% of all households had equity valued at less than \$100,000. Just over one in ten households had more than \$400,000 worth of equity in their home. The level of home equity increased with income, so that the proportion of households with people in the top income quintile with \$400,000 or more in equity (21%) was four times that in the lowest income quintile (5.3%).

### ...cash savings & other investments

The accumulation of investments, including cash savings, shares and investment property, is similarly related to income. About half the households with people in the lowest income quintile reported having less than \$1,000 in cash savings and no other investments. However, income and investments do not always go together. For example, 8.6% of households with people in the highest income quintile also reported having less than \$1,000 in cash savings or other investments, while 14% of those in the lowest

### Investments and consumer debt

*Cash savings and other investments* refer to: having over \$1,000 in cash or deposited in financial institutions; own incorporated business; shares, stocks and bonds; and investment property (i.e. land or buildings other than the dwelling in which the household resides).

*Consumer debt* is debt or liabilities associated with the purchase of consumables incurred by way of: credit or store cards which are not completely paid off; car or personal loans; interest free purchases; and hire purchase arrangements. The following debts are excluded: investment loans; lines of credit; overdue bills (e.g. for electricity or telephone); outstanding fines; and Higher Education Contribution Scheme (HECS) debts.

quintile had such investments valued at \$50,000 or more. As with home equity, this is likely to reflect differences in the life cycle stages of households. For example, many retirees have substantial cash savings and/or other investments but relatively low incomes, while some younger, high income households will not yet have acquired such savings and investments, or may be putting much of their disposable income into home purchase.

### Value of investments(a) and consumer debt, by equivalised gross household income — 2002

	Households		Equivalised gross household income quintile(b)				
			Lowest	Second	Third	Fourth	Highest
	'000	%	%	%	%	%	%
Total value of selected investments							
No investments	2 193	29.3	50.2	36.5	29.6	19.6	8.6
Less than \$10 000	1 720	22.9	21.5	22.6	26.8	28.2	19.4
\$10 000–\$49 000	1 243	16.6	14.7	16.9	15.6	17.9	19.6
\$50 000 or more	2 304	30.7	13.5	23.7	27.9	34.1	52.5
Not known/not stated	35	0.5	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>7 495</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Total value of consumer debt							
No consumer debt	4 198	56.0	74.5	60.1	50.2	42.0	45.0
Less than \$5 000	1 386	18.5	15.6	20.7	21.6	21.0	16.4
\$5 000–\$9 999	645	8.6	4.5	7.3	10.3	12.6	10.4
\$10 000–\$49 999	971	12.9	3.8	9.7	14.6	19.2	20.9
\$50 000 or more	128	1.7	0.7	0.7	1.4	2.5	3.1
Not known/not stated	167	2.2	0.9	1.5	2.0	2.7	4.1
<b>Total</b>	<b>7 495</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>

(a) Cash savings and other investments, excluding equity in home.

(b) Excludes households where income was unknown or not stated.

Source: ABS 2002 General Social Survey.

### ...consumer debt

Lower income households were generally less likely than other households to have loans and outstanding credit card payments. In 2002, three-quarters of households with people in the lowest income quintile reported having no consumer debt. This is possibly because it may be harder for some of these households to access or afford loans and/or credit cards in the first place, while for others, it may be because they manage their finances differently. However, it would also be related to the life cycle stage of the households and the age profile of people living in these households. This group would comprise a relatively high proportion of older people who are less likely to get into debt.

The incidence of consumer debt generally increased with income, although households with people in the highest income quintile were less likely to be free of consumer debt than households in the middle quintile (45% and 50% respectively), but more likely than those in the fourth quintile (42%).

More than half (56%) of all households reported having no such consumer debt at all, and for close to two-thirds (65%) of those that did, the total amount was less than \$10,000. Most debts accruing to households with people in the lowest income quintile were relatively small, with only 4.5% having debts of \$10,000 or more, partly because their low incomes make access to loans or credit difficult. Nevertheless, for households with low incomes, such debts can still be a considerable burden.

### Financial stress

Measures of income and expenditure do not necessarily tell the whole story about people's capacity to maintain living standards and meet household needs. Households may choose to go without certain goods or services, draw down savings, or take on debts in order to maintain other spending or meet urgent financial commitments. How far this happens may be an indication of the level of financial stress households experience.

According to measures used in the ABS 1998–99 Household Expenditure Survey, life-cycle stages affected the likelihood of experiencing financial difficulties, with one-parent households and younger single people reporting the higher levels of stress. While both high and low income households experienced financial difficulties, low income households were much more likely to have experienced these difficulties than other households, especially the higher levels of stress (see *Australian Social Trends 2002*, Households in financial stress, pp. 170–174).

### Financial stress measures in the 2002 General Social Survey (GSS)

The *financial stress* indicators in the 2002 GSS comprised three measures aimed at identifying households that are most at risk of experiencing deprivation because of a shortage of money. The measures were: the ability to raise \$2,000 in an emergency within a week; cash flow problems; and dissaving actions.

*Cash flow problems* are events or actions experienced by members of the household in the last 12 months, because they were short of money. They included being unable to pay, on time: electricity, gas or telephone bill; mortgage or rent payments; car registration or insurance; and minimum payment on credit card. They also included: pawning or selling something because cash was needed; being unable to heat the home; going without meals; seeking financial help from friends or family; and seeking assistance from welfare or community organisations.

*Dissaving actions* are actions taken in the last 12 months where assets were used, or debts incurred or increased to pay for basic living expenses. They include: reduced home loan repayments; drew on accumulated savings or term deposits; increased the balance owing on credit cards by \$1,000 or more; entered into a loan agreement with family or friends; took out a personal loan; sold household goods or jewellery; and sold shares, stocks or bonds.

Individual indicators do not, on their own, identify a household as having financial stress: they may simply reflect household financial management through the temporary prioritising of particular expenditures over others. However, where households report a number of different stress indicators, it is more likely that they are experiencing genuine difficulties.

The 2002 General Social Survey collected data on a number of indicators of potential financial stress: the ability to raise money in an emergency within a week; taking a dissavings action; and experiencing cash flow problems. In 2002, of all Australian households, 15% reported that they could not, in an emergency, raise \$2,000 within a week. One-fifth (20%) of households had taken a dissaving action, with the most common dissaving action being to draw on accumulated savings or term deposits (8.7% of households) in the previous 12 months.

About one-quarter of Australian households had experienced at least one cash flow problem in the previous 12 months. The most common problem, experienced by 13% of households, was being unable to pay household bills on time, followed by having sought financial help from friends or family (8.7%). The more severe problems, such as having to pawn or sell something to raise cash, or having to go without meals, were less

## Types of cash flow problems of households, by value of equity in dwelling(a) — 2002

Selected cash flow problems	Value of equity in home							
	Households		Did not own home	Less than \$100 000	\$100 000–\$199 000	\$200 000–\$299 000	\$300 000 or more	Total
	'000	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Could not pay electricity, gas, or telephone bills on time	969	13.4	58.1	19.4	10.8	6.5	5.2	100.0
Could not pay mortgage or rent payments on time	350	4.8	65.7	19.1	7.7	4.1	3.3	100.0
Could not pay car registration or insurance on time	396	5.5	52.2	20.7	10.6	9.2	7.3	100.0
Could not make minimum payment on credit card	280	3.9	49.7	26.3	10.7	8.3	5.1	100.0
Sought financial help from friends or family	644	8.9	60.8	18.3	10.5	5.6	4.8	100.0
Other cash flow problem(b)	716	9.9	72.7	14.9	4.6	4.3	3.6	100.0
None of these cash flow problems	5 600	77.2	24.3	16.2	22.2	15.2	22.1	100.0
<b>Total(c)</b>	<b>7 252</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>

(a) Excludes households where level of equity in dwelling is not stated.

(b) Comprises: pawned or sold something because cash was needed; went without meals; was unable to heat home; or sought assistance from welfare or community organisations.

(c) Components do not add to total as households may report more than one cash flow problem. Includes households where cash flow problems were not stated.

Source: ABS 2002 General Social Survey.

common — each being experienced by around 3% of all households. Only 1% of households reported that they had been unable to heat their home in the previous 12 months.

### Assets, liabilities and cash flow problems

The experience of cash flow problems varied according to levels of housing equity and was strongly concentrated among households that did not own and were not buying their homes. Although non-homeowners comprised less than one-third (30%) of all

Australian households in 2002, they accounted for well over half (58%) of households that had been unable to pay their electricity, gas or telephone bills on time. Noticeably, they accounted for around three-quarters of households that had experienced the more severe problems: going without meals; pawning or selling something because cash was needed; and seeking assistance from a welfare or community organisation.

Whether households experienced cash flow problems was also influenced by the level of household cash savings and investments other than home equity. In 2002, households

## Number of cash problems by value of investments(a)(b) — 2002

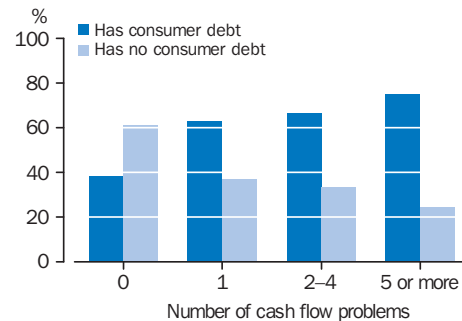
Number of cash flow problems	Value of household investments					
	Households		None	Less than \$10 000	\$10 000–\$49 999	\$50 000 or more
	'000	%	%	%	%	%
None	5 785	77.6	55.9	81.8	88.0	89.4
One	656	8.8	15.7	8.0	5.4	4.7
Two	335	4.5	9.7	3.7	1.7	1.6
Three	207	2.8	6.5	1.7	1.0	0.9
Four or more	292	3.9	10.4	1.9	1.3	0.7
Not known/not stated	184	2.5	1.8	2.9	2.6	2.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>7 460</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>

(a) Cash savings and investments excluding equity in home.

(b) Excludes households where value of these investments were unknown or not stated.

Source: ABS 2002 General Social Survey.

**Household cash flow problems and consumer debt(a) — 2002**



(a) Excludes households where consumer debt was unknown or not stated.

Source: ABS 2002 General Social Survey.

without these were considerably more likely than others to experience multiple cash flow problems. For example, 10% of those with no savings or investments reported four or more such problems, compared to 3.9% of all households. However, more than half (56%) of households that had no savings or investments also reported having no cash flow problems, compared with 78% of all households. Having at least some savings and/or investments appeared to protect the vast majority of households from these types of cash flow problems and, as the total value of these savings and investments increased, the likelihood of experiencing cash flow problems declined.

There was also a relationship between consumer debt and the experience of cash flow problems. The likelihood of having some

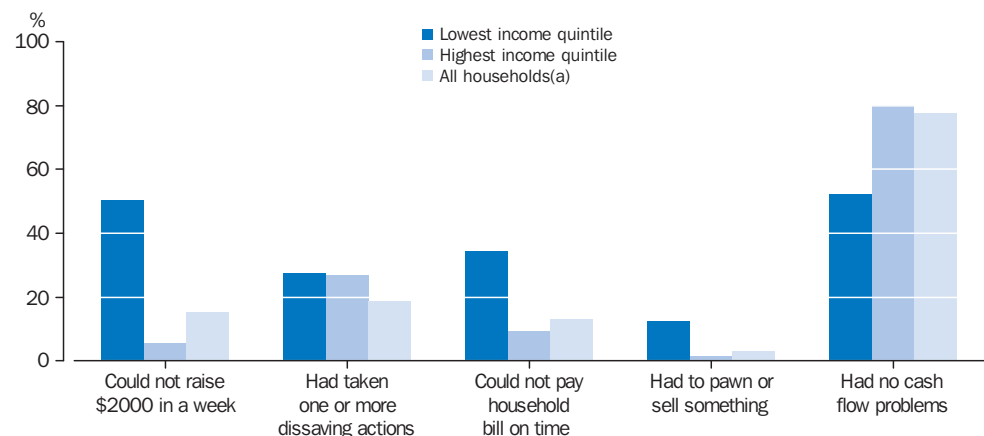
form of consumer debt increased as the number of cash flow problems increased. Overall, 44% of households had some form of consumer debt, but that proportion rose to 63% of those reporting one cash flow problem and to 75% of those reporting five or more cash flow problems (although the number of households reporting five or more cash flow problems was small).

**Financial stress in households with low income and no housing equity**

Households with people in the bottom income quintile with no housing equity are likely to include the most disadvantaged households. In 2002, just over half of these households reported that they could not, in an emergency, raise \$2,000 in a week. In comparison, only 5.5% of those households with people in the top income quintile and 15% of all households in Australia (including those with housing equity) reported that they were in this situation. The non-homeowners in the bottom income bracket were also much more likely than those households with people in the top income bracket, and households in general, to have been unable to pay a household bill on time and, especially, to have had to pawn or sell an item to raise money.

There was no difference between the proportions of these groups that took dissavings actions (27%). This reflects that those on the lowest incomes are less likely to have savings to draw down, investments to sell, or credit available to increase.

**Households with no housing equity reporting selected financial stress indicators — 2002**



(a) All households, including those with housing equity.

Source: ABS 2002 General Social Survey.

# Household income

## INCOME DISTRIBUTION

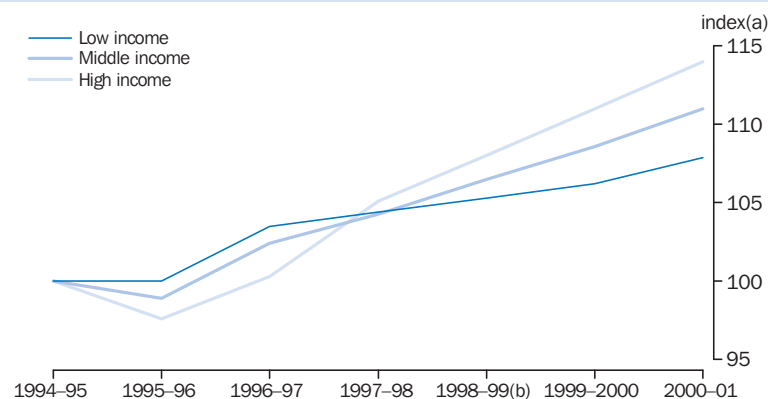
**In real terms, equivalised disposable household income for all Australians, on average, increased by 12% between 1994–95 and 2000–01.**

The economic wellbeing of people is largely determined by their command over economic resources. For most households, these economic resources are primarily derived from income received by household members (e.g. in the form of wages and salaries, investment income or income support from government). Over time, the type of income received by the members of a household may vary as their life circumstances change; for example, as they move into and out of the labour force.

At times, households may need to draw upon savings and other forms of accumulated wealth, if available. Also, when needed, services provided by the government and welfare organisations, and/or resources provided by family and friends, may contribute to the resources available to a household. However, for most people for most of their lives, income remains the main economic resource available to them.

In this article, the discussion of recent trends focuses on the growth and distribution of equivalised disposable household income for three groups of Australians — those in low, middle and high income groups (see the definition on this page.) Elsewhere in the article, the analysis focuses on the households to which these people belong, or on households at different life cycle stages. For example, principal source of income and home ownership relate to the households in which people live, rather than to the people themselves, so that these discussions focus on the proportions of households with particular characteristics.

### Average real equivalised disposable household income



(a) Base for each index is 1994–95=100.0.

(b) No survey was conducted in 1998–99.

Source: *Household Income and Income Distribution, Australia, 2000–01* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

### Household income

Income data in this article are drawn from the Surveys of Income and Housing (SIH) conducted between 1994–95 and 2000–01.

*Gross income* comprises regular receipts from employment and investments, and pensions and similar transfers from government, private institutions and other households. *Disposable income* is derived by deducting estimates of personal income tax and the Medicare levy from gross income.

*Equivalised disposable household income* is a standardised income measure, adjusted for the different income needs of households of different size and composition. It takes into account the greater income needs of larger households and the economies of scale achieved when people live together. For a lone-person household, it is equal to disposable household income. For a household comprising more than one person, it indicates the disposable household income that would need to be received by a lone-person household to achieve the same level of economic wellbeing as a household comprising more than one person. See also *Household Income and Income Distribution, Australia, 2000–01* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

This article focuses on people from *low, middle* and *high income* groups. These have been formed by grouping people together after they have been ranked according to their equivalised disposable household income. People in the low income group comprise 20% of people with equivalised household incomes in the second and third deciles; the middle income group, in the fifth and sixth deciles; and the high income group, in the ninth and tenth deciles. Defined in this way, these three groupings cover approximately 60% of all Australians, spread across the income spectrum.

Results in this article are not directly comparable to those in 'The geography of income distribution' in *Australian Social Trends 2003*, as the analysis of geographical detail in that article required the use of some different concepts and data sources.

### Recent trends in income

In 2000–01, there were approximately 18.9 million people living in private dwellings in Australia. They comprised about 7.3 million households. In real terms, equivalised disposable household income for Australians of all ages increased by an average of 12% between 1994–95 and 2000–01. Over the same period, the average real equivalised disposable household income of people in the low income group grew by 8%, while the increases for people in the middle income and high income groups were 11% and 14%, respectively.



**Average real equivalised disposable household income**

	1994–95	2000–01
	\$	\$
Low income	227	245
Middle income	372	413
High income	792	903
<b>Australia</b>	<b>419</b>	<b>469</b>

Source: Household Income and Income Distribution, Australia, 2000–01 (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

In 2000–01, the average equivalised disposable household income of people in high income households was \$903 — more than three times the average for those in low income households (\$245). Thus, a person living on his/her own would require \$245 per week after tax to maintain the same standard of living as people in low income households, but \$903 to maintain the same standard of living as people in high income households.

The share of total income received by people in the low income group in 2000–01 was 10.5%, compared with 38.5% for those in the high income group. The share received by low income people had declined by 0.3 percentage points since 1994–95 because the equivalised disposable household income of the low income group grew by less than the income of the other groups. In contrast, the income share of people in the high income group increased by 0.7 percentage points. In conjunction with other indicators of income distribution, this suggests some possible rise in income inequality over the second half of the 1990s.<sup>1</sup>

**Principal source of income**

While households may derive income from a variety of sources, the principal source of income is the one upon which they are most reliant. For example, households may be reliant, in the short or long term, on government pensions and allowances such as income support payments made to people who are retired or unemployed, or people with disabilities and their carers.

**Percentage share of total income**

	1994–95	2000–01	Change
	%	%	Percentage points
Low income	10.8	10.5	–0.3
Middle income	17.7	17.7	0.0
High income	37.8	38.5	0.7

Source: Household Income and Income Distribution, Australia, 2000–01 (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

**Low income group**

While income is generally a good indicator of economic wellbeing, some households report extremely low and even negative income in the Survey of Income and Housing (SIH). While some households may under-report their incomes in the SIH, others may correctly report low levels of income if they incur losses in their unincorporated business or have negative returns from their other investments.

Studies of income and expenditure as reported in the 1998–99 ABS Household Expenditure Survey (HES) have shown that households in the bottom income decile and with negative gross incomes tend to have expenditure levels comparable to those of households with higher income levels, indicating that these households have access to other economic resources, such as wealth, which are not measured in the SIH, or that the instance of low or negative income is temporary, perhaps reflecting business or investment start up.

Therefore most households in the bottom decile are unlikely to be suffering extremely low levels of economic wellbeing, and income distribution analysis may lead to inappropriate conclusions if such households are included. For this reason, people in the lowest decile have been excluded from the *low income group*.

Wages and salaries were the principal source of income for 57% of Australian households overall in 2000–01. Government pensions and allowances were the main source for a further 28% of households.

In 2000–01, government pensions and allowances were the principal source of income for three-quarters (76%) of the households in which people from the low income group lived. In contrast, wages and salaries were the principal source of income for the majority of households with people in the middle and high income groups. Households in the high income group were more likely to report wages and salaries as their principal source of income than those in the middle income group (88% and 74% respectively).

**Principal source of income — 2000–01**

	Wages and salaries	Government pensions and allowances
	%	%
Low income	15.2	75.9
Middle income	73.7	6.1
High income	87.9	—
<b>Australia</b>	<b>56.9</b>	<b>28.3</b>

Source: Household Income and Income Distribution, Australia, 2000–01 (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

**Selected household characteristics by income group — 2000–01**

	Low income	Middle income	High income
	%	%	%
Owns home without a mortgage	51.5	38.1	30.4
Owns home with a mortgage	15.8	34.8	46.4
Rents from state/territory housing authority	8.7	2.3	**0.2
Rents from private landlord	19.5	21.3	21.1
	no.	no.	no.
Average number of persons in the household	2.3	2.9	2.5
Average number of earners in the household	0.3	1.3	1.9

Source: *Household Income and Income Distribution, Australia, 2000–01* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

Principal source of income often changes over life cycle stages. In 2000–01, 71% of households with a reference person aged 65 years or over reported government pensions and allowances as their principal source of income. Reflecting their much higher participation in the labour force, 77% of households where the reference person was aged 25–34 years reported wages and salaries as their principal source of income, with only 15% reporting government pensions and allowances.

### Home ownership

Housing costs are an essential outlay from household income, and can represent a large proportion of a household's living expenses. For many Australian households, the progression through paying rent, paying off a home mortgage and finally owning a home is part of planning for the future. Households which own their own home without a mortgage have more of their disposable income available for the purchase and consumption of other goods and services. For example, while retired people tend to have low incomes, they have the highest rate of home ownership without a mortgage and, as a result, many are likely to have a higher standard of living than people on a similar level of income who are renting.

In 2000–01, just over half (52%) of low income households owned their own home without a mortgage, a higher proportion than for middle and high income households. This is largely due to the fact that, among people in the low income group, 44% were living in couple only households, with the reference person aged 65 years or over, or lone person households aged 65 years and over. These households had a very high rate of home ownership without a mortgage in 2000–01 (85% and 72% respectively).

### Life cycle stages

The income received by households also partly reflects the life stage a household has reached. Income for younger people, in particular, generally rises as they gain more work experience. Household income may fall after children are born if a parent leaves the labour force or shifts from full-time to part-time employment. Household income may peak when children living in a household are contributing income. In subsequent stages of the life cycle, household income may reduce as individuals move into retirement. At each stage, equivalised income will vary, depending not only on the total income received by the earners in the household, but also on the size and composition of the household.

### ...lone person households

In 2000–01, people living alone had a relatively low average equivalised disposable income of \$388 per week and accounted for one-third (33%) of households in the low income group. Among people living alone, income varied by age. For example, the average income of those aged less than 35 years (331,500 people) was \$513 per week, much higher than the average income of \$274 for those aged 65 years and over (694,500 people). However, the proportion of older lone persons owning their home without a mortgage was 74%, in contrast to only 7% of people aged less than 35 years living alone.

The principal source of income for almost half (47%) of lone-person households was government pensions and allowances in 2000–01. This largely reflected the fact that a high proportion of people aged 65 years and over, who were living alone, were dependent on government pensions and allowances (79%).

## Household composition — 2000–01

Household composition	Low	Middle	High	Average weekly	PSI(a) is	Owns home
	income	income	income	equivalised	government	without
	%	%	%	disposable	benefits	mortgage
				household		
				income		
				\$	%	%
Couple, one family households						
Couple only	28.3	17.6	33.0	512	32.0	54.3
Couple with dependent children only	16.7	29.7	17.9	453	9.3	20.9
Other couple, one family households	5.8	14.8	15.5	537	12.2	50.8
One parent, one family households with dependent children	10.9	9.2	1.6	329	53.0	13.8
Other family households	3.9	7.6	5.4	490	19.3	40.1
Non-family households						
Lone person	32.5	18.8	18.7	388	46.7	44.0
Group households	1.9	2.2	7.9	592	14.3	11.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>469</b>	<b>28.3</b>	<b>38.2</b>

(a) Principal source of income.

Source: Household Income and Income Distribution, Australia, 2000–01 (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

**...couple households with no children**

In 2000–01, households comprising couples without children accounted for 33% of high income households and 28% of low income households. The strong representation in these two income groups reflects the life cycle stages where couples tend to be living without children. Households comprising younger couples without children, where the reference person was aged less than 35 years, had a very high average level of equivalised disposable household income in 2000–01, at \$692 per week. This reflected the high average number of earners (1.8) in these households. In contrast, the average equivalised income of older couple only households, where the reference person was aged 65 years or over, was \$321.

Overall, the total group of households comprising couples without children is dominated by older couples. Consequently, about a third (32%) of couple only households reported government pensions and allowances as their principal source of income. Further, in 2000–01, over half (54%) of the couple only households owned their home without a mortgage; although the rate varied widely from 7% of younger couples to 89% of older couples.

**...couple households with children**

In 2000–01, there were almost 1.7 million households made up of a couple with dependent children only. They were the most common type of household in the middle

income group (accounting for 30%). Their average equivalised disposable household income varied with the age of the eldest dependent child, from \$434 per week for households where the eldest child was aged 5–14 years to \$481 for those households where the eldest dependent child was 15–24 years.<sup>1</sup>

The rate of home ownership of these households reflected their life cycle stage, with over a half (58%) owning their house with a mortgage in 2000–01. Around one-fifth (21%) owned their home without a mortgage.

**...one-parent households**

There were over half a million households comprising a lone parent with dependent children. People living in these households received the lowest average equivalised disposable household income (\$329 per week) for any type of household in 2000–01.

Over half (53%) of one-parent households were reliant on government pensions and allowances as their principal source of income. Consistent with this, the average number of earners was low, at 0.7 per household, compared with an average household size of 3.0 people. The proportion of this type of household, as a proportion of total households, increased from 6% to 7% between 1994–95 and 2000–01.

**Endnotes**

<sup>1</sup> Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2003, *Household Income and Income Distribution, 2000–01*, cat. no. 6523.0, ABS, Canberra.

# Incomes of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Australians

## INCOME DISTRIBUTION

**In 2001, the average equivalised gross household income for Indigenous persons was 62% of that for non-Indigenous persons.**

Income is a key factor in determining the economic wellbeing for most Australians. Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples are widely recognised as being among the most disadvantaged groups in Australia. They experience higher rates of unemployment, poorer educational outcomes and lower rates of home ownership than non-Indigenous Australians.<sup>1</sup> Many rely on government transfers as their major source of income.

When examining economic wellbeing, it is important to consider both individual and household incomes. People living in families or group households generally contribute to the purchase of goods and services shared by other household members, particularly children. Equivalised household income takes into account the economies of scale achieved by people living together — by adjusting for the size and composition of the household.

### Household incomes

On average, after adjustment for household size and composition, the household income of Indigenous persons is much lower than the income of non-Indigenous persons. In 2001, the average equivalised gross household income for Indigenous persons was 62% of the equivalent income for non-Indigenous persons (\$364 per week compared with \$585). In Very Remote areas, where Indigenous persons account for nearly half of the total population, the income for Indigenous persons was only 43% of the income for non-Indigenous persons.

### Indigenous income

This article draws on data from the ABS 1996 and 2001 Censuses of Population and Housing. In the census, a person is defined as Indigenous if they reported, or were reported as, being of Aboriginal and/or Torres Strait Islander Origin.

*Individual income* is gross income (i.e. before tax or other deductions) from all sources including wages and salaries, pensions, allowances, interest and dividends.

*Equivalised gross household income* is a standardised income measure which has been adjusted for the different income needs of households of different size and composition. It takes into account the greater needs of larger households and the economies of scale achieved by people living together.

For a lone-person household it is equal to gross household income. For a household comprising more than one person, it is an indicator of the gross household income that would need to be received by a lone person household to achieve the same level of economic wellbeing as the household in question (see *Australian Social Trends 2004*, Household incomes, pp. 142–145).

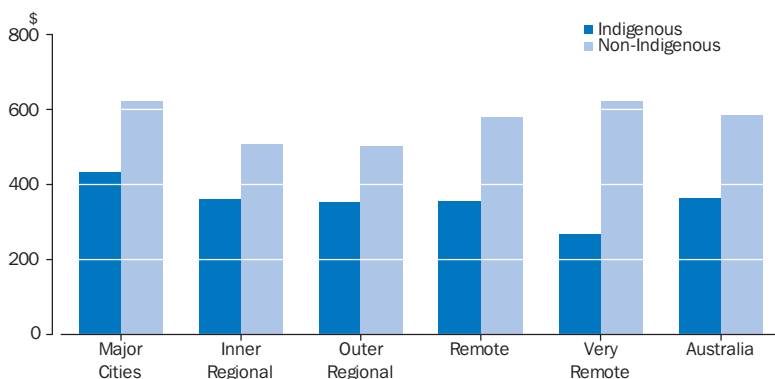
*Community Development Employment Projects (CDEP) scheme* — for a description of the CDEP scheme see *Australian Social Trends 2004*, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples in the labour force, pp. 118–123.

*Mainstream employment* for Indigenous persons is non-CDEP employment.

Average equivalised gross household income for Torres Strait Islanders (\$380 per week) was about 4% higher than the average for all Indigenous persons (\$364 per week), while the corresponding income for Aboriginal persons (\$363 per week) was almost identical to that for all Indigenous persons.

Equivalised gross household income of both Indigenous and non-Indigenous persons increased over the five-year period to 2001. However, in real terms, average equivalised household income for Indigenous persons grew less rapidly over that period (11% compared with 13%). As a result, the average equivalised gross household income for Indigenous persons declined from 64% of the average income for non-Indigenous persons in 1996, to 62% in 2001.

**Average equivalised gross household income per week by Remoteness Area — 2001**



Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

## Average equivalised gross household income per week by Remoteness Area — 2001

	Indigenous					Non-Indigenous	
	Major Cities	Inner Regional	Outer Regional	Remote	Very Remote	Total	Total
	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$	\$
New South Wales	450	357	318	314	305	387	614
Victoria	468	373	336	283	..	415	589
Queensland	426	351	358	365	309	368	549
South Australia	387	370	322	382	279	351	535
Western Australia	388	360	346	387	271	344	576
Tasmania	..	382	375	371	396	379	491
Northern Territory	..	..	425	341	241	288	694
Australian Capital Territory	560	n.a.	..	..	..	559	748
<b>Australia</b>	<b>435</b>	<b>360</b>	<b>352</b>	<b>356</b>	<b>267</b>	<b>364</b>	<b>585</b>

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

## ...regional differences

In 2001, Indigenous equivalised household incomes were highest in Major Cities and generally declined with increasing geographic remoteness. However, such incomes for non-Indigenous persons were highest in Major Cities and Very Remote areas and only slightly lower in Remote areas. As a consequence, in non-remote areas, average equivalised household incomes for Indigenous persons were equal to about 70% of incomes for non-Indigenous persons. In Remote areas they were equal to 61% and in Very Remote areas 43%. For Torres Strait Islanders, the average equivalised gross household income for those living in the Torres Strait Area (\$330 per week) was 87% of the average for all Torres Strait Islanders living in the Strait and elsewhere in Australia.

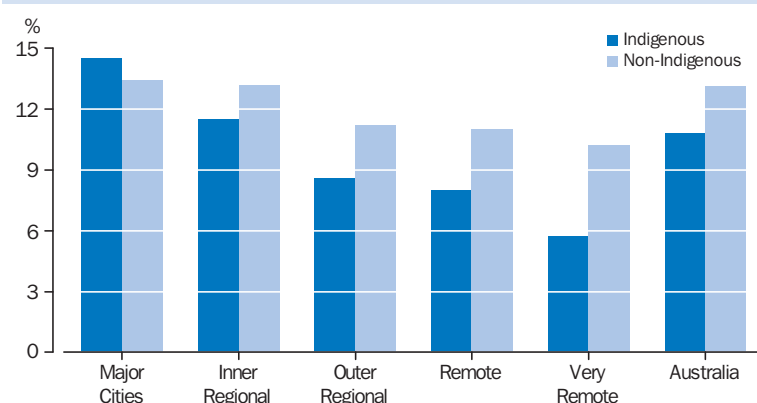
Over the period 1996 to 2001, the rate of growth of average real equivalised gross household income for Indigenous persons was highest in Major Cities and declined with increasing geographic remoteness. In Major Cities, growth in real household income for Indigenous persons (14%) was slightly higher than the growth for non-Indigenous persons (13%). However, in Very Remote areas, where many Indigenous households rely on government transfers as their main source of income, growth in real household income for Indigenous persons was only 6%.

## ...state and territory comparisons

In 2001, the average equivalised gross household incomes for Indigenous persons were highest in the Australian Capital Territory and the more urbanised states of south-eastern Australia; and lower in Queensland, South Australia, Western Australia and the Northern Territory. In particular, these differences were influenced by the proportions of the population living in Very Remote areas, where there are limited and specialised labour market opportunities (for more information, see *Australian Social Trends 2004*, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples in the labour force, pp. 118–123).

Average equivalised gross household incomes for Indigenous persons were highest in the more accessible areas of each state and territory; and generally declined with increasing remoteness. Unlike other capital cities, Darwin is classified within Outer Regional Australia and, largely due to its employment opportunities, the average equivalised gross household income of Indigenous persons in Outer Regional areas

## Growth in average equivalised gross household income by Remoteness Area — 1996–2001



Source: ABS 1996 and 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

of the Northern Territory (\$425 per week) was 24% higher than the average for Indigenous persons in Outer Regional areas elsewhere. Similarly, among Inner Regional areas, Indigenous household incomes were highest in Tasmania (\$382 per week), reflecting in part the classification of Hobart within Inner Regional Australia.

In 2001, the largest difference between Indigenous and non-Indigenous household incomes occurred in the Northern Territory where the average equivalised gross household income for Indigenous persons was less than half (41%) of the average for non-Indigenous persons (\$288 and \$694 per week respectively). This disparity was influenced both by the low Indigenous average (the lowest of any state or territory) and the high non-Indigenous average (second only to the Australian Capital Territory).

### Individual incomes

Individual income is closely related to paid work, as wages and salaries are the major source of income for most Australians. In 2001, the median individual income of Indigenous persons aged 15 years and over was \$226 per week compared with \$380 per week for non-Indigenous persons. Lower rates of mainstream (non-CDEP) employment among Indigenous persons and their greater likelihood to work in lower skill occupations contributed to the income disparity between Indigenous and non-Indigenous persons.

In 2001, 40% of Indigenous persons aged 15 years and over compared with 58% of non-Indigenous persons of this age were employed. When Indigenous persons who reported that they were participants in CDEP were excluded, 33% of Indigenous persons aged 15 years and over were in mainstream employment.

### Low income households

In 2001, 33% of Indigenous persons were in the second and third lowest deciles of the national distribution of all persons when ranked by their equivalised gross household income. Reflecting the general decline in average income with increasing geographic remoteness, the proportion of Indigenous persons in the second and third lowest deciles of household incomes rose from 26% in Major Cities to 44% in Very Remote areas. The Northern Territory, with the highest proportion of its population in Very Remote areas, (63%), was also the state/territory with the highest proportion of Indigenous persons in the second and third lowest deciles (42%).

### Proportion of people in the second and third lowest deciles of equivalised household incomes — 2001

State or territory	Indigenous	Non-Indigenous
	%	%
NSW	29.5	18.7
Vic.	27.2	18.8
Qld	33.5	21.7
SA	34.0	22.7
WA	33.5	18.8
Tas.	32.4	26.0
NT	41.6	10.3
ACT	16.1	9.9
<b>Aust.</b>	<b>32.8</b>	<b>19.6</b>

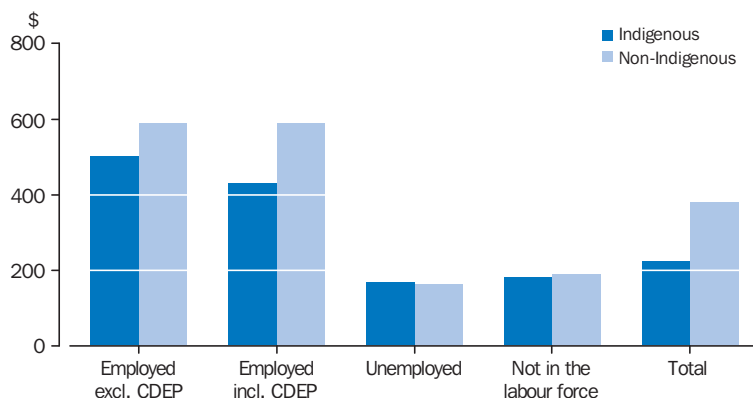
Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

### ...mainstream employment

The median individual income of Indigenous persons in mainstream employment (\$501 per week) was equal to 85% of the median for non-Indigenous persons (\$589 per week). This difference reflects in part the larger share of the Indigenous labour force working in lower skilled occupations and, to a lesser extent, income differences within the same occupation between Indigenous and non-Indigenous persons.

Consistent with lower levels of educational attainment, Indigenous persons in mainstream employment were less likely to be working in the highest skill occupation group than non-Indigenous persons (17% compared to 28%), while the pattern was reversed for the two lowest skill occupation groups (57% compared to 43%). Among Indigenous persons in mainstream employment, the median individual income of persons working in the highest skill

### Median individual income by labour force status — 2001



Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

occupation group was \$691 per week compared with \$439 per week for those in the two lowest skill occupation groups (see *Australian Social Trends 2004*, Work: definitions, pp. 106–107 for definitions of skill groups).

There was a tendency for individual incomes of Indigenous persons to be lower than those of non-Indigenous persons in the same occupation category. Median individual income for Indigenous persons in mainstream employment was equal to 85%–95% of the corresponding individual income of non-Indigenous persons in most major occupation groups. The occupation group with the largest differential in median income levels was Professionals, in which Indigenous persons earned 76% of the income of non-Indigenous persons. Among Elementary clerical, sales and service workers, Indigenous and non-Indigenous persons had nearly the same levels of income, while the median income for Indigenous Intermediate production and transport workers was 97% of the corresponding income of non-Indigenous workers.

Differences in individual income levels between Indigenous and non-Indigenous persons were not significantly influenced by differences in hours worked. Similar proportions of Indigenous and non-Indigenous persons reported working full-time hours. The ratio between Indigenous and non-Indigenous individual incomes for full-time workers was very similar to the ratio between Indigenous and non-Indigenous incomes for all workers.

**Mining**

The Mining Industry is an important source of income for many people living in Remote and Very Remote areas. In 2001, approximately 1,400 Indigenous persons (1.7% of all Indigenous persons in mainstream employment) and 73,400 non-Indigenous persons (0.9% of employed non-Indigenous persons) were employed in the Mining Industry. Western Australia (500) and Queensland (480) had the highest number of Indigenous persons in the Mining Industry.

The median individual income of Indigenous persons in the Mining Industry (\$993 per week) was almost twice as high as the corresponding income of all Indigenous persons in mainstream employment (\$501 per week).

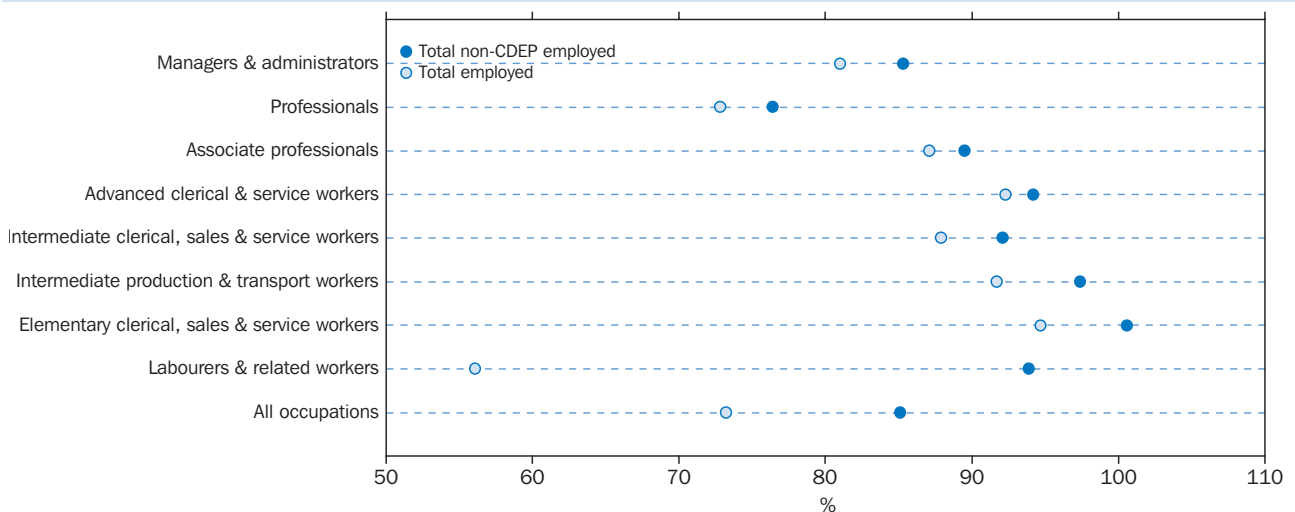
**Median individual income in the Mining Industry(a) — 2001**

	Mining		Total Indigenous
	Non-Indigenous	Indigenous	
	\$	\$	\$
NSW	1 298	1 012	514
Qld	1 299	1 066	479
WA	1 277	1 005	504
SA	1 097	725	507
NT	1 262	872	523
<b>Aust.</b>	<b>1 261</b>	<b>993</b>	<b>501</b>

(a) Includes all Indigenous employed persons 15 years and over not participating in CDEP and all non-Indigenous employed persons 15 years and over.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

**Relative individual income(a) by occupation and CDEP participation — 2001**



(a) Indigenous income is shown as a proportion of non-Indigenous income for all persons aged 15 years and over.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

### ...CDEP

Persons who participate in CDEP are classified by the ABS as 'employed' since they voluntarily forgo unemployment benefits in order to access employment and training opportunities and are entitled to award wages and workers' compensation. There were 17,800 Indigenous persons who were reported on special Indigenous forms (SIFs) as CDEP participants in the 2001 census, equal to about 60% of the total number of persons on CDEP according to administrative records held by Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Services (32,000 persons). People on CDEP who live outside remote areas were unlikely to be identified as CDEP participants in the census since CDEP participation is not captured on general census forms (for more information, see *Australian Social Trends 2004*, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples in the labour force, pp. 118–123).

The median individual income of CDEP participants (\$185 per week) is much closer to that of Indigenous persons who are unemployed (\$167 per week) than to the balance of Indigenous persons in mainstream employment (\$501 per week). When Indigenous persons in mainstream employment and CDEP participants are combined, the median individual income of all Indigenous persons classified as employed (\$431 per week) was equal to 73% of the median individual income of employed non-Indigenous persons (compared with 85% when only mainstream employment is considered). When CDEP is included, the gap between Indigenous and non-Indigenous individual incomes increases in every major occupation group, with the greatest difference for Labourers and related workers.

### 2002 National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Social Survey

The first results from the 2002 National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Social Survey will be released at the end of June 2004. The survey collected information from about 9,500 Indigenous people aged 15 years and over, in both remote and non-remote areas of Australia.

The survey provides detailed information on the income characteristics of Indigenous persons, including those who participate in CDEP. As it collected data across a wide range of areas of social concern, income characteristics can be analysed in relation to other topics such as family and community, culture and language, health, education, employment, housing, crime and justice and transport use.

### Endnotes

- 1 Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) and Australian Institute of Health and Welfare (AIHW) 2003, *The Health and Welfare of Australia's Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples, 2003*, ABS cat. no. 4704.0; AIHW Cat. No. AIHW-11, ABS, Canberra.



# Housing

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	Page
National and state summary tables.....	152
Housing data sources and definitions.....	154

## HOUSING ARRANGEMENTS

<b>Homelessness</b> .....	<b>157</b>
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An estimated 99,900 people were homeless on census night 2001. Homeless people are among the most marginalised people in Australia and their profile has changed in recent years from that of older, lone, men to include more women, youth and families. This article summarises data and analysis from the Australian Census Analytic Program report *Counting the Homeless* (ABS cat. no. 2050.0) by Chris Chamberlain and David MacKenzie. It estimates the numbers of homeless people in Australia in 2001 and discusses their characteristics.

## HOUSING COSTS

<b>Home ownership</b> .....	<b>162</b>
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The proportion of homeowners or purchasers among younger age groups has diminished between 1986 and 2001. This may be related to economic conditions, a delaying effect due to our changing society, or personal choices. The increasing price of housing is also examined in this article, as well as the relationship between the size of first home loans and average earnings.

## HOUSING AND LIFESTYLE

<b>High-rise living</b> .....	<b>166</b>
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The number of people living in four or more storey apartment blocks increased at a much faster rate than the overall Australian population between 1981 and 2001. This article compares the socio-demographic characteristics of high rise residents with those of people living in separate houses, and discusses some ways in which the high rise residential population has changed over the last two decades.

# Housing: national summary

<b>HOUSING STOCK</b>		Units	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
1	Number of occupied private dwellings	'000	6 446	6 579	6 668	6 762	6 910	7 015	7 127	7 250	7 393	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
2	Public sector dwellings completed	'000	11.1	9.9	7.8	6.8	6.0	4.4	5.4	4.8	3.8	3.6	3.3
3	Private sector dwellings completed	'000	145.2	157.3	162.4	129.1	113.4	127.2	136.7	150.5	130.1	127.7	149.2
<b>Dwelling structure – selected(a)</b>													
4	Separate house	%	n.a.	79.4	n.a.	r79.7	r80.0	r79.4	79.5	79.4	78.1	n.a.	n.y.a.
5	Semidetached	%	n.a.	7.9	n.a.	r7.9	r7.8	r8.6	8.9	9.8	9.9	n.a.	n.y.a.
6	Flat	%	n.a.	12.5	n.a.	r11.7	r11.5	r11.5	11.1	10.0	11.3	n.a.	n.y.a.
<b>Housing utilisation</b>													
7	Average persons per household	no.	n.a.	2.6	n.a.	r2.7	r2.7	r2.7	2.6	2.6	2.6	n.a.	n.y.a.
8	Average bedrooms per dwelling	no.	n.a.	2.9	n.a.	r3.0	2.9	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	n.a.	n.y.a.
9	Households with two or more bedrooms above requirements	%	n.a.	32.6	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	36.8	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
10	Households with insufficient bedrooms	%	n.a.	4.9	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	3.7	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
<b>TENURE AND LANDLORD TYPE(b)</b>		Units	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
11	Owner without a mortgage	%	n.a.	41.8	n.a.	r42.8	r41.3	r39.5	38.8	38.6	38.2	n.a.	n.y.a.
12	Owner with a mortgage	%	n.a.	28.3	n.a.	r28.1	r28.3	r30.9	31.3	32.1	32.1	n.a.	n.y.a.
13	Renter – state housing authority	%	n.a.	6.2	n.a.	r6.0	r5.6	r5.8	5.1	5.8	5.0	n.a.	n.y.a.
14	Renter – private landlord	%	n.a.	19.0	n.a.	r19.0	r20.4	r20.0	20.3	19.9	21.0	n.a.	n.y.a.
<b>HOUSING COSTS</b>		Units	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Persons in households with housing stress													
15	Renters	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	3.0	3.2	3.4	n.a.	3.0	3.2	n.a.	n.y.a.
16	Total households	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	6.1	5.7	6.3	n.a.	5.5	5.8	n.a.	n.y.a.
<b>Rental</b>													
17	Mean weekly public rent	\$	n.a.	62	n.a.	62	r66	r62	68	71	73	n.a.	n.y.a.
18	Mean weekly private rent	\$	n.a.	141	n.a.	r149	r154	157	167	166	173	n.a.	n.y.a.
19	Rental cost index	index no.	107.2	107.9	108.9	111.7	115.1	118.5	122.0	125.4	129.3	133.1	136.6
<b>Construction/purchase</b>													
20	Housing interest rate	%	9.9	8.9	10.0	10.3	8.3	6.7	6.6	7.0	7.6	6.3	6.5
21	First home buyers – average loan(c)	\$'000	78.5	86.3	92.9	94.6	104.6	109.9	127.6	133.1	124.8	145.3	162.2
22	Project home price index	index no.	103.0	105.8	108.1	109.5	109.2	110.3	113.1	120.7	134.9	138.1	144.1
23	Established house price index	index no.	106.0	109.1	112.6	112.7	115.1	122.8	130.4	142.3	152.8	178.0	209.9
24	Materials used in house building price index(c)	index no.	106.9	112.0	115.4	115.7	116.1	118.2	119.5	122.8	124.4	126.0	130.5
<b>Finance commitments</b>													
Construction/purchase of new dwellings													
25	Number	'000	111	124	103	85	89	97	94	94	71	98	82
26	Value	\$m	8 200	r10 522	r9 500	r8 264	r9 303	r11 288	r12 157	r13 457	10 131	15 043	14 343
Purchase of established dwellings													
27	Number	'000	342	420	348	366	393	385	395	455	484	533	548
28	Value	\$m	r28 578	r37 310	r32 806	r35 414	r40 676	r43 375	r49 342	r61 495	64 293	81 439	92 348
29	Value for alterations and additions	\$m	r1 642	2 899	3 477	r3 509	3 039	2 779	2 821	3 321	r3 108	4 083	5 182
<b>HOUSING ASSISTANCE</b>		Units	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
30	Public sector rental dwelling stock	'000	377	384	389	393	400	381	386	363	359	354	348
31	Applicants on housing waiting lists	'000	232	235	235	236	221	218	184	213	222	223	208
32	Applicants accommodated	'000	54	55	53	51	47	42	41	41	40	37	33
33	Income units receiving private rental assistance	'000	r950	r969	r983	1 042	1 049	979	r1 026	992	1 029	996	995
34	Mean fortnightly rental assistance received	\$	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	63	59	61	62	68	72	75
35	Mean fortnightly rent paid by rental assistance recipients	\$	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	219	217	221	225	239	253	264

(a) Components do not total 100% because other dwellings are not included.

(b) Components do not total 100% because other renters (paying rent to the manager of a caravan park, an employer, a housing cooperative, or a church or community group), as well as other types of tenure (rent free and others), are not included.

(c) Measured at original prices.

Reference periods: All data are for the financial year ending 30 June except:

Data for indicators 1 and 21 are at June 30.

Data for indicators 4–14, 17–18 and 31 vary according to the timing of the surveys within each year.

# Housing: state summary

<b>HOUSING STOCK</b>		Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT(a)	ACT	Aust.
1	Number of occupied private dwellings	'000	2001	2 434	1 818	1 406	614	739	191	69	123	7 393
2	Public sector dwellings completed	'000	2002-03	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.4	1.0	0.1	0.3	0.1	3.3
3	Private sector dwellings completed	'000	2002-03	42.5	42.6	33.2	8.6	17.3	1.8	0.8	2.4	149.2
<b>Dwelling structure – selected(b)</b>												
4	Separate house	%	2000-01	74.1	81.1	78.1	79.6	80.5	88.4	67.6	78.6	78.1
5	Semidetached	%	2000-01	9.9	8.7	8.4	12.4	14.1	3.9	*16.4	15.8	9.9
6	Flat	%	2000-01	15.0	10.0	12.1	7.8	5.4	6.7	*13.6	*5.3	11.3
<b>Housing utilisation</b>												
7	Average persons per household	no.	2000-01	2.7	2.6	2.5	2.4	2.6	2.4	2.6	2.7	2.6
8	Average bedrooms per dwelling	no.	2000-01	3.0	3.0	3.0	2.9	3.2	3.0	2.8	3.3	3.0
9	Households with two or more bedrooms above requirements	%	1999	35.8	33.1	39.4	35.7	44.8	37.9	22.0	40.2	36.8
10	Households with insufficient bedrooms	%	1999	4.4	r4.3	3.3	2.4	2.2	1.6	*6.3	3.0	3.7
<b>TENURE AND LANDLORD TYPE(c)</b>		Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT(a)	ACT	Aust.
11	Owner without a mortgage	%	2000-01	40.2	39.5	34.2	40.6	35.2	42.0	21.1	33.7	38.2
12	Owner with a mortgage	%	2000-01	29.6	35.0	29.8	34.7	35.3	29.0	30.5	41.6	32.1
13	Renter – state housing authority	%	2000-01	5.0	4.4	4.4	6.1	4.1	9.5	*15.4	7.0	5.0
14	Renter – private landlord	%	2000-01	21.4	17.9	28.2	14.0	21.2	15.7	28.0	16.0	21.0
<b>HOUSING COSTS</b>		Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT(a)	ACT	Aust.
Persons in households with housing stress												
15	Renters	%	2000-01	2.9	2.9	5.2	1.7	2.6	1.8	2.3	0.3	3.2
16	Total households	%	2000-01	6.0	5.6	7.8	3.6	4.7	4.1	2.3	0.3	5.8
<b>Rental</b>												
17	Mean weekly public rent	\$	2000-01	79	74	65	70	61	69	99	74	73
18	Mean weekly private rent	\$	2000-01	208	163	159	132	144	116	203	180	173
19	Rental cost index	index no.	2002-03	142.6	138.2	122.9	135.3	120.5	125.0	124.5	138.1	136.6
<b>Construction/purchase</b>												
20	First home buyers – average loan(d)	\$'000	2003	203.8	166.0	143.2	120.6	131.6	83.0	130.5	176.3	162.2
21	Project home price index(e)	index no.	2002-03	145.2	147.2	142.9	155.9	132.9	158.5	167.2	171.4	144.1
22	Established house price index(e)	index no.	2002-03	233.0	216.4	211.8	182.6	164.4	157.1	218.2	207.2	209.9
23	Materials used in house building price index(d)(e)	index no.	2002-03	137.2	128.4	127.6	135.7	123.0	133.7	n.a.	n.a.	130.5
<b>Finance commitments</b>												
Construction/purchase of new dwellings												
24	Number	'000	2002-03	19.1	23.4	17.7	6.5	12.5	1.4	0.4	1.1	82.1
25	Value	\$m	2002-03	4 200	3 982	2 889	936	1 886	158	56	235	14 343
Purchase of established dwellings												
26	Number	'000	2002-03	184.6	122.0	105.8	46.8	64.3	12.0	3.7	8.7	548.1
27	Value	\$m	2002-03	37 952	20 481	16 302	5 592	8 919	1 116	459	1 528	92 348
28	Value for alterations and additions	\$m	2002-03	2 190	1 251	695	379	430	110	21	106	5 182
<b>HOUSING ASSISTANCE</b>		Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
29	Public sector rental dwelling stock	'000	2002-03	125.2	64.8	49.6	47.8	31.7	12.0	5.8	11.0	348.0
30	Applicants on housing waiting lists	'000	2002-03	85.0	39.7	32.3	29.6	13.4	2.7	1.9	3.5	208.1
31	Applicants accommodated	'000	2002-03	10.1	6.7	5.3	3.8	4.4	1.4	0.8	0.9	33.3
32	Income units receiving private rental assistance	'000	2002-03	333.8	211.8	251.0	68.8	91.0	24.4	5.9	8.5	995.4
33	Mean fortnightly rental assistance received	\$	2002-03	76	74	76	73	74	70	74	71	75
34	Mean fortnightly rent paid by rental assistance recipients	\$	2002-03	283	257	263	242	244	219	269	279	264

(a) Estimates for dwelling structure, tenure type and mean weekly public and private rent for Northern Territory relate to mainly urban areas only.

(b) Components do not total 100% because other dwellings are not included.

(c) Tenure and landlord types do not total 100% because other renters (paying rent to the manager of a caravan park, an employer, a housing cooperative, or a church or community group), as well as other types of tenure (rent free and others), are not included.

(d) Measured at original prices.

(e) State and territory data refer to capital cities only.

Reference periods: All data are for the financial year ending 30 June except:

Data for indicator 1 and 20 are at June 30.

Data for indicators 9–10 are for the period September to December 1999.

# Housing: data sources

DATA SOURCE	Indicators using this source	
	National indicators	State indicators
ABS Australian Housing Survey 1999.	9–10	9–10
ABS Building Activity Survey, September Quarter 2003.	—	2–3
ABS Consumer Price Index, Australia.	19	19
ABS Housing Finance for Owner Occupation, Australia.	26, 28	20, 25, 27–28
ABS 1994 and 1999 Australian Housing Surveys; and Surveys of Income and Housing Costs.	4–8, 11–14, 17–18	—
ABS Surveys of Income and Housing Costs.	15–16	4–8, 11–18
<i>Australian Demographic Statistics, September Quarter 2003</i> (ABS cat. no. 3101.0).	1	1
<i>Building Activity, Australia, December Quarter 2003</i> (ABS cat. no. 8752.0).	2–3	—
Department of Family and Community Services administrative data.	33–35	32–34
<i>House Price Indexes: Eight Capital Cities, December Quarter 2003</i> (ABS cat. no. 6416.0).	22–23	21–22
<i>Housing Finance for Owner Occupation, Australia, February 2003</i> (ABS cat. no. 5609.0).	21, 25, 27, 29	24, 26
<i>Producer Price Indexes, Australia, March 2004</i> (ABS cat. no. 6427.0).	24	23
Reserve Bank of Australia, <i>Indicator Lending Rates – F5</i> , < <a href="http://www.rba.gov.au/Statistics/Bulletin/F05hist.xls">http://www.rba.gov.au/Statistics/Bulletin/F05hist.xls</a> >, accessed 9 February 2004.	20	—
Steering Committee for the Review of Commonwealth/State Service Provision, <i>Report on Government Services 2003</i> < <a href="http://www.pc.gov.au/gsp/reports/rogs/2004/partgattachments.pdf">http://www.pc.gov.au/gsp/reports/rogs/2004/partgattachments.pdf</a> >, accessed 6 February 2004.	30–32	29–31

## Housing: definitions

### Alterations and additions

all approved structural and non-structural changes which are integral to the functional and structural design of the dwelling, e.g. garages, carports, pergolas, reroofing, recladding etc., but excluding swimming pools, ongoing repairs, landscaping, and maintenance and home improvements not involving building work.

Reference: *Housing Finance for Owner Occupation, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 5609.0).

### Applicants accommodated

the number of public rental applicants (households) accommodated in a year.

Reference: Australian Institute of Health and Welfare *Commonwealth-State Housing Agreement national data reports 2002–03, Public rental housing*.

### Applicants on housing waiting lists

the number of applicants (households) waiting for public rental accommodation on 30 June.

Reference: Australian Institute of Health and Welfare *Commonwealth-State Housing Agreement national data reports 2002–03, Public rental housing*.

### Average number of bedrooms per dwelling

the average number of bedrooms in occupied private dwellings.

### Average number of persons per household

the average number of usual residents in occupied private dwellings.

### Canadian National Occupancy Standard

measures the bedroom requirements of a household by specifying that: there should be no more than two people per bedroom; children less than five years of age of different sexes may reasonably share a bedroom; children five years and over of opposite sex should not share a bedroom; children less than 18 years of age and of the same sex may reasonably share a bedroom; and household members 18 years and over should have a separate bedroom, as should parents or couples.

Reference: *Australian Housing Survey – Housing Characteristics, Costs and Conditions* (ABS cat. no. 4182.0).

### Equivalised income

equivalising adjusts actual income to take account of the different needs of households of different size and composition. There are economic advantages associated with living with others, because household resources, especially housing, can be shared. The equivalence scale used to obtain equivalised incomes is that used in studies by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and is referred to as the 'modified OECD scale'. The scale gives a weight of 1.0 to the first adult in the household, and for each additional adult (persons aged 15 years and over) a weight of 0.5, and for each child a weight of 0.3. For each household, the weights for household members are added together to form the household weight. The total household disposable income is then divided by the household weight to give an income that a lone person household would need for a similar standard of living.

Reference: *Household Income and Income Distribution, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

### Established house price index

the price of detached residential dwellings on their own block of land, regardless of age (i.e. including new houses sold as a house/land package as well as established houses) expressed as an index, with base year 1989–90=100.0. Price changes therefore relate to changes in the total price of dwelling and land.

Reference: *House Price Indexes: Eight Capital Cities* (ABS cat. no. 6416.0).

### Finance commitments

firm offers to provide finance for owner-occupation or alterations and additions which have been, or are normally expected to be, accepted. Commitments to provide housing finance to employees and commitments accepted and cancelled in the same month are included. Owner-occupied dwellings being purchased can be either established (completed for more than 12 months or previously occupied) or new (completed for less than 12 months with the borrower being the first occupant).

Reference: *Housing Finance for Owner Occupation, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 5609.0).

# Housing: definitions continued

## **First home buyers: average loan size**

first home buyers are persons entering the home ownership market for the first time. Their average loan is calculated by dividing the total value of lending commitments per month by the total number of dwellings financed per month.

Reference: *Housing Finance for Owner Occupation, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 5609.0).

## **Flat**

includes all self-contained dwellings in blocks of flats, units or apartments. These dwellings do not have their own private grounds and usually share a common entrance foyer or stairwell. This category includes houses converted into flats and flats attached to houses such as granny flats. A house with a granny flat attached is regarded as a separate house.

Reference: *Australian Housing Survey – Housing Characteristics, Costs and Conditions* (ABS cat. no. 4182.0).

## **Household**

a group of related or unrelated people who usually live in the same dwelling and make common provision for food and other essentials of living; or a lone person who makes provision for his or her own food and other essentials of living without combining with any other person.

Reference: *Australian Housing Survey – Housing Characteristics, Costs and Conditions* (ABS cat. no. 4182.0).

## **Households with housing stress**

people in housing stress are those with household incomes between the bottom 10% and bottom 40% of the distribution of equivalised disposable household income, and living in households where housing costs are more than 30% of the household's gross income.

Reference: *Housing Occupancy and Costs, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4130.0).

## **Households with insufficient bedrooms**

households living in dwellings that do not have enough bedrooms to meet the requirements of community standards. See Canadian National Occupancy Standard.

Reference: *Australian Housing Survey – Housing Characteristics, Costs and Conditions* (ABS cat. no. 4182.0).

## **Households with two or more bedrooms above requirements**

households which have at least two bedrooms above that required by the Canadian National Occupancy Standard.

Reference: *Australian Housing Survey – Housing Characteristics, Costs and Conditions* (ABS cat. no. 4182.0).

## **Housing interest rate**

the financial year annual average of the interest rate applicable on the last working day of each month to standard variable rate loans for owner-occupation extended by large bank housing lenders. It is the predominant or representative rate of major banks, although some banks may quote higher or lower rates.

Reference: *Reserve Bank of Australia, Bulletin*.

## **Income units receiving private rental assistance**

families or individuals who pay rent or similar payments for private accommodation and receive a rental assistance payment from the government. Rental assistance may be payable to pensioners without children, families receiving above the minimum family payment and people already receiving a government allowance or benefit.

Reference: Centrelink.

## **Materials used in house building price index**

prices of selected materials used in the construction of dwellings expressed as an index, with base year 1989–90=100.0. Data for national total are a weighted average of the six state capital cities.

Reference: *Price Index of Materials Used in House Building, Six State Capital Cities* (ABS cat. no. 6408.0).

## **Mean rental assistance received**

average rental assistance received fortnightly by eligible social security customers who pay rent in the private rental market.

Reference: Department of Family and Community Services.

## **Mean rent paid by rental assistance recipients**

the average rent paid fortnightly by social security customers who receive rental assistance.

Reference: Department of Family and Community Services.

## **Occupied private dwellings**

the premises occupied by a household. For population estimation purposes, the total number of occupied private dwellings is treated as being equal to the total number of households of the usually resident population.

Reference: *Australian Demographic Statistics* (ABS cat. no. 3101.0).

## **Owner with a mortgage**

a household where the reference person or partner owes an amount on a mortgage or loan secured against the dwelling. Includes persons who have an outstanding mortgage amount but who are not making any payments.

Reference: *Housing Occupancy and Costs, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4130.055.001).

## **Owner without a mortgage**

a household where the reference person or partner does not owe any amount on a mortgage or loan secured against the dwelling. Includes persons who have repaid a mortgage or loan but have not formally discharged the associated mortgage.

Reference: *Housing Occupancy and Costs, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4130.055.001).

## **Private/public sector dwellings completed**

when building activity has progressed to the stage where the building can fulfil its intended function. The ABS regards buildings as completed when notified as such by the respondents (builders) to the survey.

Reference: *Building Activity, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 8752.0).

## **Project home price index**

the price of dwellings available for construction on a client's block of land expressed as an index, with base year 1989–90=100.0. Price changes therefore relate only to the price of the dwelling (excluding land).

Reference: *House Price Indexes: Eight Capital Cities* (ABS cat. no. 6416.0).

## **Public sector rental dwelling stock**

those rental dwellings held by State and Territory Housing Authorities.

Reference: Department of Family and Community Services, *Housing Assistance Act 1996* Annual Report.

## **Rental cost index**

the average rent paid by private households for privately and government owned rental properties, expressed as an index, with base year 1989–90=100.0.

Reference: *Consumer Price Index, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6401.0).

## **Renter: private landlord**

a household paying rent to a landlord who is: a real estate agent; a parent or other relative not in the same household; or another person not in the same household, to reside in the dwelling.

Reference: *Australian Housing Survey – Housing Characteristics, Costs and Conditions* (ABS cat. no. 4182.0).

## **Renter: State housing authority**

a household paying rent to a state or territory housing authority or trust to reside in the dwelling.

Reference: *Australian Housing Survey – Housing Characteristics, Costs and Conditions* (ABS cat. no. 4182.0).

## **Semidetached**

occupied private dwellings with their own private grounds and no dwelling above or below. A key feature is that they are attached in some structural way to one or more dwellings, or separated from neighbouring dwellings by less than half a metre.

Reference: *Australian Housing Survey – Housing Characteristics, Costs and Conditions* (ABS cat. no. 4182.0).

## **Separate house**

occupied private dwellings which are self-contained and separated from other structures by a space of at least half a metre to allow access on all sides. Includes houses with an attached flat.

Reference: *Australian Housing Survey – Housing Characteristics, Costs and Conditions* (ABS cat. no. 4182.0).



# Homelessness

## HOUSING ARRANGEMENTS

**On census night 2001, 99,900 people were homeless, including at least 14,200 people 'sleeping rough'.**

Home provides most Australians not just with shelter from the elements, but with facilities for cooking and self-care, privacy, and a secure base from which to establish routines of living. Homelessness, then, is not a straightforward concept, as it can suggest a lack in any of these areas. A broad definition of a homeless person, used in Australia, is someone who has inadequate access to safe and secure housing.<sup>1</sup> Hence, while those 'sleeping rough' are the most publicly recognised homeless people, other groups are also of concern. These include people staying in shelters and refuges; people staying temporarily with family and friends to deal with a housing crisis; and some of those people renting in caravan parks and boarding houses. Highly transient people moving between such temporary solutions have been termed 'the hidden homeless'.<sup>2</sup>

Homeless people are among the most marginalised people in Australia and their profile has been changing in recent years from predominantly older, lone men to include more women, youth, and families. Factors ranging from increased family breakdown to changes in the labour market have been identified as influencing these changes.<sup>3</sup>

### A snapshot of homelessness

#### ...how many?

On census night 2001, an estimated 14,200 people were in the most extreme situation — 'sleeping rough' (i.e. in improvised dwellings or tents, or in streets, parks, cars or derelict

### Homelessness in Australia

This article summarises a report on Homelessness by Chris Chamberlain and David MacKenzie. This report is part of the Australian Census Analytic Program (ACAP) and uses data from the Census of Population and Housing, modified with administrative and survey data, to estimate the number of homeless persons in 2001.<sup>4</sup>

Homelessness in contemporary Australia is broadly defined by Chamberlain and MacKenzie, as a series of situations below a minimum community standard of a small rented flat with separate bathroom and kitchen and an element of security of tenure. They define three levels of homelessness:

*Sleeping rough (Primary homeless)* refers to people without conventional accommodation, such as people living in improvised dwellings, on the streets, sleeping in parks, squatting in derelict buildings, or using cars or railway carriages for temporary shelter.

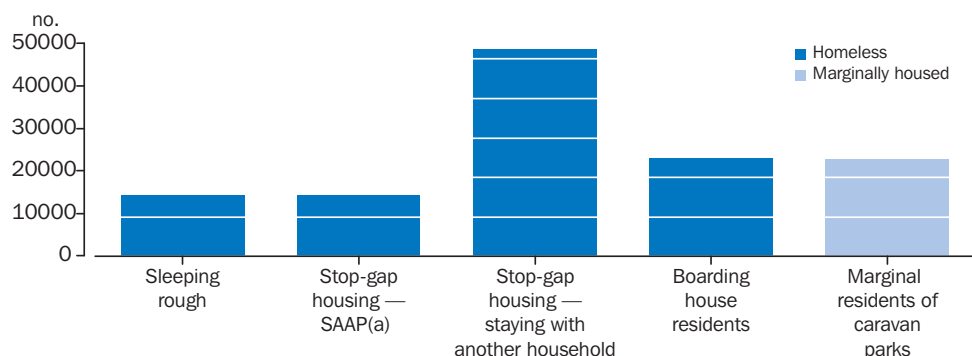
*Stop-gap housing (Secondary homeless)* refers to people who move frequently from one form of temporary shelter to another. Included are: people using emergency or transitional accommodation such as a refuge or a shelter within the Supported Accommodation Assistance Program (SAAP); people residing temporarily with other households who have no accommodation of their own; and those using boarding houses on a short-term basis.

*Boarding house residents (Tertiary homeless)* refers to people who live in boarding houses on a medium to long-term basis.

They also identify an additional group of interest:

*Marginal residents of caravan parks* refers to people who have homes but are renting accommodation in a caravan park apparently from financial necessity rather than as a lifestyle choice and who seem likely to have difficulty accessing more mainstream housing.

### Homeless and marginally housed people — census night 2001



(a) Also includes some people in institutions.

Source: Chamberlain, C and MacKenzie, D 2003, *Australian Census Analytic Program: Counting the Homeless*, (ABS cat. no. 2050.0).

buildings). A similar number of people (14,300) were staying in emergency or transitional housing, principally in the network of refuges or shelters in the Supported Accommodation Assistance Program (SAAP). A further, large group were defined as homeless because they were staying with another household and had no usual residence (48,600). Finally, 22,900 people living in boarding houses were included in the homeless count. In total, 99,900 people were estimated to be homeless on census night 2001. For every 10,000 people in Australia in 2001, there were 53 homeless people. This was a slight decline from the estimate of 59 for 1996 (although this was largely due to a change in the classification of dwellings in Indigenous communities).<sup>4</sup>

In 2001, a further group of concern were identified from census data: 22,900 people living in caravan parks who were 'marginally housed'. These people did not have anyone employed full-time in their household, and did not own their caravan. They made up 16% of all people in caravan parks on census night. The wellbeing of marginal caravan park residents has been a focus of concern since the 1970s (see *Australian Social Trends 2000*, Caravan park residents, pp. 179–183).

### ...state differences

As might be expected, New South Wales, with the largest population of any state or territory, also had the highest numbers of homeless people on census night (26,700

#### Homeless people by state — 2001

State or territory	no.	rate per 10,000 population
New South Wales	26 676	42.2
Victoria	20 305	43.6
Queensland	24 569	69.8
South Australia	7 586	51.6
Western Australia	11 697	64.0
Tasmania	2 415	52.4
Northern Territory	5 423	288.3
Australian Capital Territory	1 229	39.6
<b>Australia</b>	<b>99 900</b>	<b>53.2</b>

Source: Chamberlain, C and MacKenzie, D 2003, *Australian Census Analytic Program: Counting the Homeless*, (ABS cat. no. 2050.0).

#### The National Homelessness Strategy

Public discussions towards a National Homelessness Strategy were initiated in 2000 by the Department of Family and Community Services. The themes of the National Homelessness Strategy are:

- ◆ prevention
- ◆ early intervention
- ◆ working together
- ◆ crisis transition and support.

The strategy re-affirms the role of the Supported Accommodation Assistance Program (SAAP) in assisting people in crisis and also acknowledges the important role that a broad range of other policies, programs and agencies play in preventing and addressing homelessness.<sup>3</sup>

#### Factors influencing homelessness

The National Homelessness Strategy identifies several factors which have been changing the nature of homelessness in recent years:

- ◆ changes to family formation including increased family breakdowns
- ◆ deinstitutionalisation of people with psychiatric illness and physical and intellectual disabilities
- ◆ increases in the incidence of women and children fleeing domestic violence
- ◆ a decrease in rooming house and other low cost accommodation
- ◆ shifts in the pattern of substance abuse and the availability of illicit drugs
- ◆ changes to the structure of the labour market so that there are fewer jobs for low-skilled people.

people). However, relative to the size of its population, the Northern Territory had the most homeless people of any state or territory, by a large margin. There were 288 homeless people per 10,000 population in the Northern Territory. Two reasons which may contribute to the higher rate in the Northern Territory are the proportionally higher Indigenous population (many of whom live in remote areas) and a relative lack of inexpensive accommodation. In Queensland and Western Australia, there were 70 and 64 homeless people per 10,000 population respectively, considerably fewer than the Northern Territory but higher than the southern states and the Australian Capital Territory where rates ranged from 40 to 52 homeless people per 10,000 population.



### ...demographic characteristics

Close to half of the 99,900 homeless people were less than 25 years of age (46%), with those aged 12–18 years a prominent group (26% of all homeless people). There were somewhat more homeless males than females (58% compared with 42%). In age groups over 34 years, men made up around two-thirds of homeless people. There were more males than females in every segment of the homeless population except those in supported accommodation, where males made up 47% (supported accommodation agencies include many refuges for women escaping domestic violence). Most notable was the predominance of males in boarding houses (72%) and there were also more males than females sleeping rough (61%) and staying with friends or relatives (53%).

While 2% of the population identified as Indigenous at the 2001 census, 9% of homeless people were Indigenous. Indigenous people made up 19% of those sleeping rough, 11% of those in supported accommodation, 7% of those in boarding houses and 3% of those staying with friends or relatives.

### ...lone people or families?

Of the 99,900 homeless people, 58% were lone persons. (These lone persons were not necessarily 'alone': 50% were living *with* another household, although it was not their usual address.) Couples without children made up 19% of homeless people while members of families with children accounted for 23%.

Lone persons ranged from 34% of people in supported accommodation to 83% of people in boarding houses. Couples were more common among those staying with another household (27%) or sleeping rough (23%)

### Duration of homelessness

Long periods spent homeless seem likely to have a more negative effect on individuals than shorter periods, and to indicate that substantial barriers exist to their obtaining housing. From the information available, Chamberlain and MacKenzie estimate broadly that, in 2001, about 60% to 70% of homeless people who were sleeping rough, in supported accommodation or who were boarding house residents, were likely to be or have been homeless for a considerable period (six months or more). This was also the case for about 50% of adults staying with other households. (These latter adults include more people who are employed and thus more likely to be able to save money towards the initial costs of renting.) Young people staying temporarily with other households are thought to be a high turnover group with many likely to return to their family.

than among the other groups of homeless. People who were part of a family with children were more common among those in supported accommodation (61%), or people sleeping rough (41%) than among other groups.

### ...economic resources

People staying with another household included more people who were employed either full-time (27%) or part-time (14%), than did either those staying in boarding houses or marginal caravan park residents. One explanation for this may be that people tend to turn first to friends or family for help whereas those in other situations may have exhausted their social as well as their financial resources. However, as with boarding house residents and marginal caravan park residents, the largest group of those staying with other households were not in the labour force (43%) and a further substantial proportion were unemployed (16%).

### Selected homeless and marginally housed people aged 15 years and over, labour force and employment status(a) — 2001

	Staying with friends and relatives (secondary homeless)	Boarding house residents (tertiary homeless)	Marginal residents of caravan parks
	%	%	%
Employed full-time	27	17	..
Employed part-time	14	9	15
Unemployed	16	14	25
Not in labour force	43	60	60
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>

(a) By definition, caravan park renters classified as marginally housed had no-one in their household in full-time employment; whereas this was not a component of the definitions of boarding house residents or those staying with other families.

Source: Chamberlain, C and MacKenzie, D 2003, *Australian Census Analytic Program: Counting the Homeless*, (ABS cat. no. 2050.0).

### Use of crisis services

Since the 1980s a diverse group of over 1,000 mainly non-government service, advocacy or self-help agencies have been brought together under a joint Commonwealth-State funding arrangement, as the Supported Accommodation Assistance Program. During 2002–03, SAAP agencies supported an estimated 97,600 clients, with an average of around 22,000 occasions of support being provided to clients on any given day. Clients might have more than one period of support, and the total number of periods was 176,300 over the year.

### ...agencies and their target clients

SAAP agencies are diverse, having developed over time to meet different needs, such as to provide safe places to sleep for chronically homeless people; places for women and children to escape domestic violence; or refuges which help prevent dangerous outcomes for teenagers who run away from home. Of total periods of support in 2002–03, more than one-fifth were provided by agencies which principally targeted women escaping domestic violence (22%), while agencies targeting young people (21%) and single men (19%) also accounted for many support periods. Agencies targeting families or single women accounted for relatively few periods of support. Close to one-third (30%) of support periods were supplied by generalist or cross-targeting agencies and of these periods, about half were to men presenting alone.

### ...services provided

Support provided by the agencies ranged from advice or counselling accomplished within a day to providing people with accommodation over several months. On average, clients requested seven different types of support service in each period of support. Help with accommodation was provided in 75% of support periods. As well as accommodation within SAAP this included help in obtaining other housing. Of periods of accommodation in SAAP of at least one day, 31% were for one day only and 28% were for 2–7 days. Long stays were relatively rare: 9% were for more than 3 months.

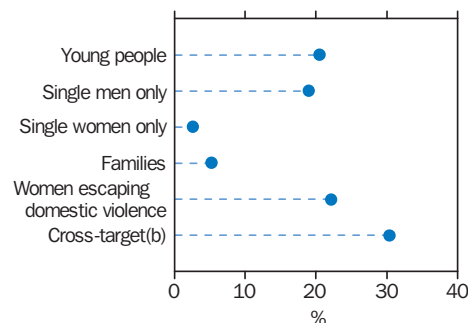
General support and advocacy was also provided in 75% of support periods. This included providing advice, information, liaison, advocacy, brokerage, or assistance with legal matters. Other basic support services such as meals, showers, laundry facilities, recreation and transport, were also commonly provided (65%).

### ...accommodation outcomes

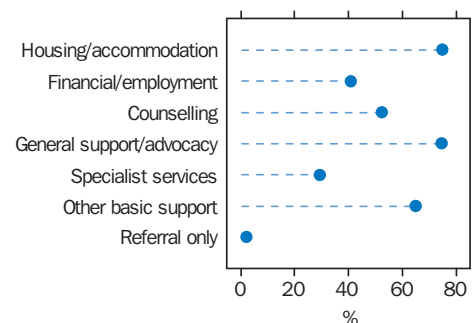
Despite the diversity of clients and services, a broad aim of SAAP is to help clients to find safe and secure housing and re-establish a capacity to live independently of SAAP. Information from 2002–03 on the type of accommodation SAAP clients were in before and after being assisted shows that those in independent housing increased, from 31% before assistance to 39% after assistance. This group comprised people in private and public rentals or owner occupied dwellings.

**SAAP support periods(a) by main target of agency and type of service provided — 2002–03**

**Target of service**



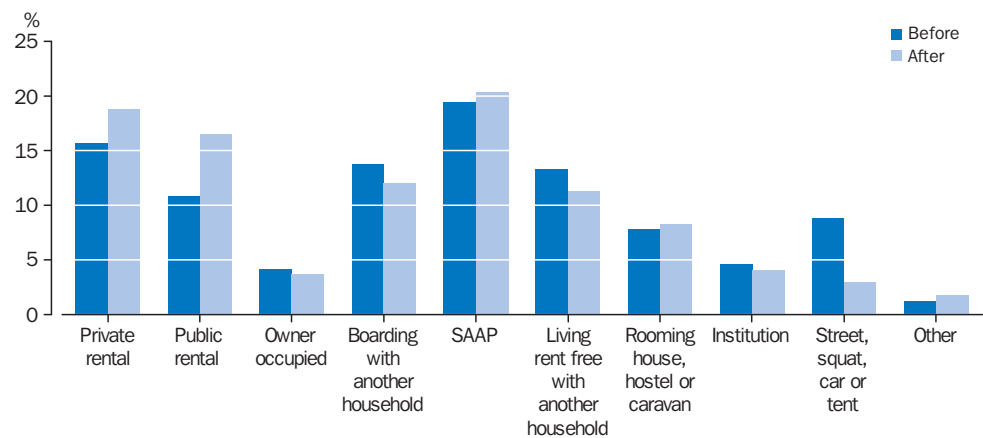
**Type of service**



(a) Support periods without valid data were removed from the total prior to the calculation of percentages. Clients were able to receive more than one type of service so percentages in respect of services provided will not add to 100%.  
 (b) Cross-target, general or multiple targets.

Source: Australian Institute of Health and Welfare (AIHW) 2003, *Homeless people in SAAP: SAAP NDC Annual report 2002–03*, AIHW, Canberra.

### Accommodation before and after support in SAAP(a) — 2002–03



(a) 'Before' percentages based on the 104,300 closed support periods with valid data about accommodation prior to receiving SAAP services; 'after' percentages based on the 77,800 closed support periods with valid data about accommodation after receiving SAAP services.

Source: Australian Institute of Health and Welfare (AIHW) 2003, *Homeless people in SAAP: SAAP NDC Annual report 2002–03*, AIHW, Canberra.

The main proportional decrease was in those sleeping rough, which decreased from 9% to 3%, but people in other situations which would be classified as being homeless or marginally housed under the broad definitions did not show substantial change.

The fact that most clients appear to have exhausted their personal resources prior to seeking SAAP assistance may be a barrier to their obtaining independent housing. In 2002–03, most clients either had no income

(8%) or an income from a government pension or benefit (84%) when they contacted SAAP. More than half were not in the labour force (58%), one-third were unemployed, while only 9% were employed and two-thirds of these worked part-time.

### Endnotes

- 1 Strategic Partners Pty Ltd 2001, *Technical Forum on the Estimation of Homelessness in Australia, 11 and 12 October, 2000, Canberra, Final Report* <<http://www.facs.gov.au/internet/facsinternet.nsf/aboutfacs/programs/house-estimating-homelessness.htm>>, accessed 5 January 2004.
- 2 Mission Australia 2001, *Hidden Homelessness* <<http://www.mission.com.au/cm/Resources/SocialPolicyDocs/SPR13-Hidden%20Homeless.pdf>>, accessed 4 March 2004.
- 3 Department of Family and Community Services *National Housing Strategy* <<http://www.facs.gov.au/internet/facsinternet.nsf/aboutfacs/programs/house-nhs-nav.htm>>, accessed 5 January 2004.
- 4 Chamberlain, C and MacKenzie, D 2003, *Australian Census Analytic Program: Counting the Homeless 2001*, ABS cat. no. 2050.0, Australian Bureau of Statistics, Canberra.
- 5 Chamberlain, C and MacKenzie, D 2003, *Homeless Careers: pathways in and out of homelessness*, Counting the Homeless 2001 Project Swinburne and RMIT Universities, Melbourne.

### Pathways to homelessness

People who remain homeless for longer periods may increasingly identify as a homeless person and lose other expectations. Four major pathways to homelessness — one applicable to youth and three to adults — were identified in a special study conducted in 2001.<sup>5</sup> These were:

- ◆ a youth pathway, characterised by a transition phase in which teenagers remain with their families but have episodes of staying away from home, usually to be with friends
- ◆ an adult pathway of having been homeless and usually unemployed since youth
- ◆ an adult 'housing crisis' pathway of persistent poverty and indebtedness followed by a new setback which results in the loss of accommodation and little prospect of regaining it
- ◆ an adult pathway of domestic violence or other family break down precipitating the end of existing living arrangements.

Understanding these pathways can help develop policy responses to homelessness, in particular interventions to prevent homelessness.

# Home ownership

## HOUSING COSTS

**Between 1997–98 and 2002–03 the price index for established houses rose steeply, by 71%, compared with a more modest 31% increase for project homes (excluding land value).**

For most people, buying a house is their largest financial undertaking. Recent economic trends have included a boom in real estate prices. For home owners, an increase in house prices represents an increase in wealth. For people looking to purchase their first home in a period of increasing land values, entry into the real estate market will require a larger investment.

The Productivity Commission, an independent Australian government agency that reviews and advises on social and micro-economic policy and regulations, released a discussion draft on first home ownership in 2003. This report examined price trends and the implications for the affordability of home ownership, especially for first home buyers. The report mainly attributed the recent house price rises to a surge in demand that outstripped supply. Much of this demand came from existing home owners looking to 'upgrade'. The growth in demand was aided by economic growth through the 1990s, decreasing interest rates and easier access to finance.<sup>1</sup>

These price rises have taken place in a society that has traditionally placed great value on home ownership. However, data from the five-yearly Censuses of Population and Housing identify a slight decrease in home ownership among young adults between 1981 and 2001, which may be related not only to changing economic and social circumstances, but also to changing housing preferences among young adults.<sup>2</sup>

### Household reference person

The data on home ownership in this article are drawn from ABS Censuses of Population and Housing spanning the period 1981 to 2001. In this article, the age of the reference person is used to represent the age of the owner(s) of the dwelling. In the census, the reference person is used to establish the relationships of the residents in a dwelling. In nearly all households the reference person is a partner in a couple family, a lone parent or a lone person. The reference person will usually, but not always, be the owner or part owner of the dwelling.

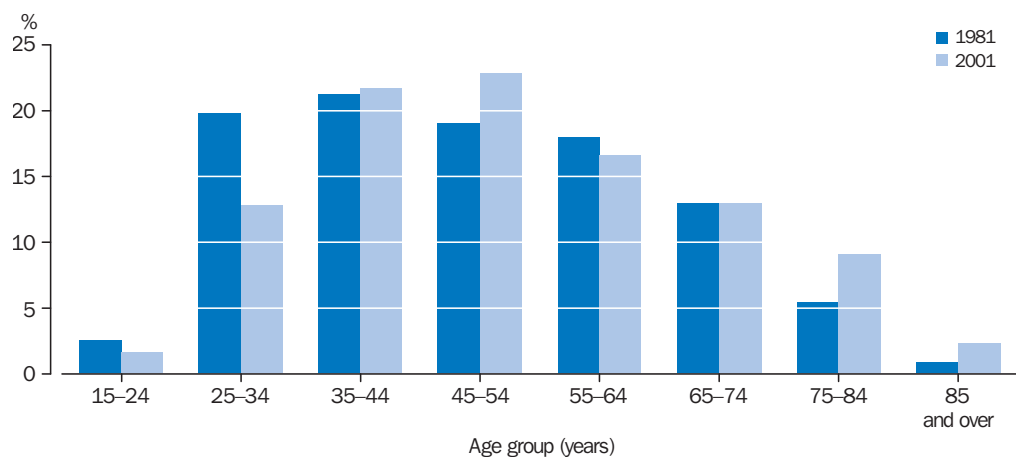
### Delaying home ownership?

Reflecting the housing aspirations of successive generations, Australia has consistently had a relatively high rate of home ownership — since the early 1960s, around 70% of occupied private dwellings have been either owned outright or being purchased.

Although the overall proportion of homes owned outright or being purchased has remained similar for a long period, the age distribution of home owners and purchasers (based on the age of the household reference person) has shifted over the past twenty years. In 2001, 15% of home owners and purchasers were aged 15–34 years, seven percentage points less than the comparable figure of 22% in 1981.

While the ageing of the Australian population and the policy of supporting older people to stay in their own home for as long as possible are likely to have contributed to this shift in

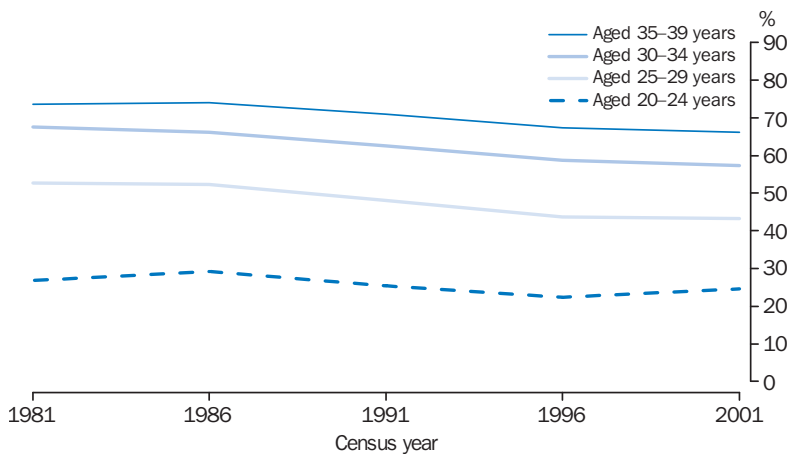
**Age distribution of home owners and purchasers(a) — 1981 and 2001**



(a) Based on the age of the household reference person in the dwelling.

Source: ABS 2001 and 1981 Censuses of Population and Housing.

### Proportion of household reference people living in a house that was owned outright or being purchased(a)



(a) Data from 1986 onwards excludes caravans in caravan parks to achieve comparability with the 1981 census. In all years, not stated responses have been excluded prior to calculating percentages. However, data presented for 1986 and 1991 also exclude Other and Inadequately described responses.

Source: ABS 1981–2001 Censuses of Population and Housing.

age profile, the greater influence is probably related to declining rates of home ownership or purchase observed among younger age groups, particularly those aged 25–34 years. The proportion of reference people aged 30–34 years, who lived in a house that was owned or being purchased declined by 11 percentage points between 1981 and 2001, from 68% to 57%. Over the same period, the rate for 25–29 years olds declined by 10 percentage points, from 53% to 43%.

The decline in home ownership among younger adults is probably related to marked changes in the ages at which successive generations have moved into different stages of their lives. Most of the stages that relate to

an individual's life path — finishing education, getting a job, leaving home, marrying and having children — are happening at older ages. In addition, some researchers have suggested that another factor in the declining home ownership rates among younger people may be related to changing preferences and priorities among young people compared with earlier generations.<sup>2</sup>

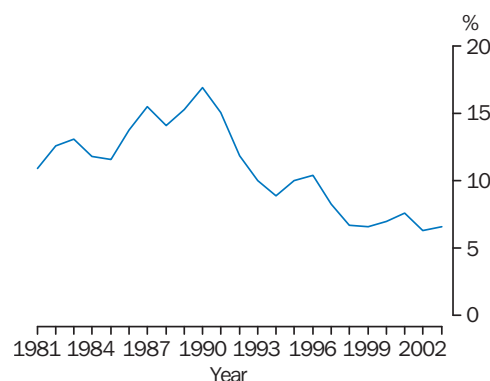
Young adults aged 25–29 years who have formed partnerships would be likely to consider home ownership. However, among reference people aged 25–29 years who were married or in a de facto partnership, the proportion who owned or were purchasing their dwelling declined by eight percentage points between 1986 and 2001, from 64% to 56%.

The decline in home ownership among young adults mainly occurred between 1986 and 1996, a period which encompassed both recession and persistent high interest rates. It also predated the onset of declining interest rates and the current real estate price boom in the late 1990s. Between 1986 and 1996, the average housing interest rate rose from 14%, peaking at 17% in 1990, before declining to 10% by 1996. Further declines led to an average housing interest rate of 7% by 2003.

### Increasing house prices

In a society that places so much importance on home ownership, house prices are a common topic of conversation and attract a deal of media attention. The most recent dramatic price increase began in about 1998. For the previous nine years, the price index

### Housing interest rates(a)



(a) Based on the average monthly standard variable housing loan rate for banks for the year ended 30 June.

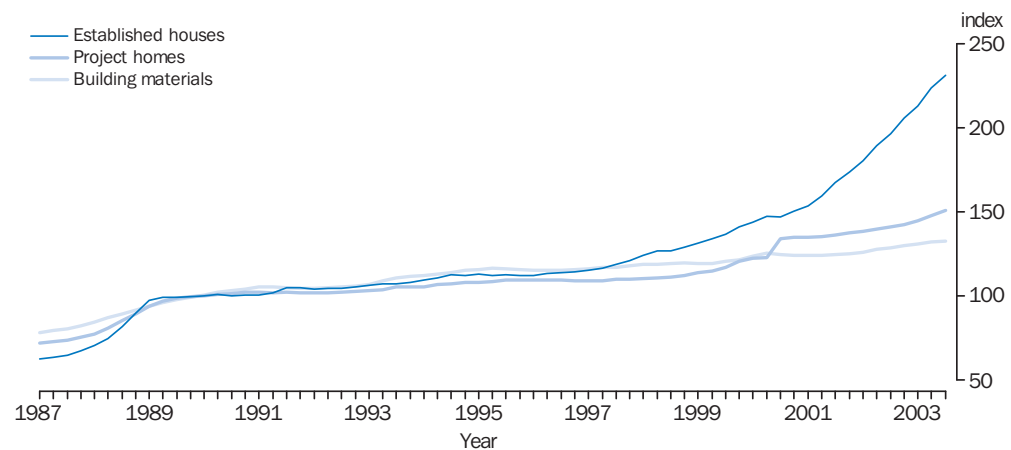
Source: Reserve Bank of Australia, Bulletin.

### Price index

A price index is intended to measure relative price change that is not due to changes in quantity or quality. The index number is based on changes in price, relative to prices in the base year of 1989–90 when the index equals 100. Differences in the price in subsequent years from the price in the base year are expressed as an index number equivalent to 100 plus (or minus for price decreases) the percentage change from the base year. While the price index for project homes (which excludes the value of land) can be constructed to maintain a measure of constant quality, this is more difficult in the case of the price index for established homes (which includes the value of land) because of the number and variety of these homes, and the inherent value of geographical location. The indexes presented are based on the weighted average of prices across the eight capital cities.

See *Australian Social Trends 2004*, Housing: definitions, pp.154–155.

### Quarterly price indexes(a) for established houses, project homes and building materials



(a) Base year 1989–90=100.

Source: *House Price Indexes: Eight capital cities* (ABS cat. no. 6416.0).

for both project homes (this excludes the value of the land) and established homes had increased at a relatively slow rate. For established homes, the index increased from 100 in 1989–90 to 123 in 1997–98 (i.e. an increase of 23%). In the following five years, between 1997–98 and 2002–03, the price index for established houses rose steeply to 210 (an increase of 71% from the index of 123 in 1997–98). Over the same period, the index for project homes rose to 144 (an increase of 31% from the 1997–98 index figure of 110).

The large increase in the price index of established houses compared with the more moderate price increase of project homes, which excludes land values, suggests that increasing land values have had a strong influence on established house prices.<sup>1</sup>

The price index for building materials increased at a rate similar to that of project homes, adding weight to the argument that the dramatic increase in house prices is not so much about what it costs to build a house, but more about how much people are prepared to pay to buy a house in a particular location — reflecting high demand and limited supply.

#### ...contributing factors

The Productivity Commission's discussion report on first home ownership, published in 2003, suggested that much of the 'demand' in the current housing market came from existing home owners, looking to upgrade their properties, in an environment of low interest rates and good economic conditions.

The report also suggested that this environment also suited investors looking for capital gains in the property market. The introduction of the First Home Owners

#### Estimated value of homes

The estimated value of separate houses, given by owner/purchaser households, illustrates the degree of difference in house values between state capitals. For example, the median estimate for Sydney is more than double that for Hobart. Much of this difference relates to the impact of high demand in particular locations.

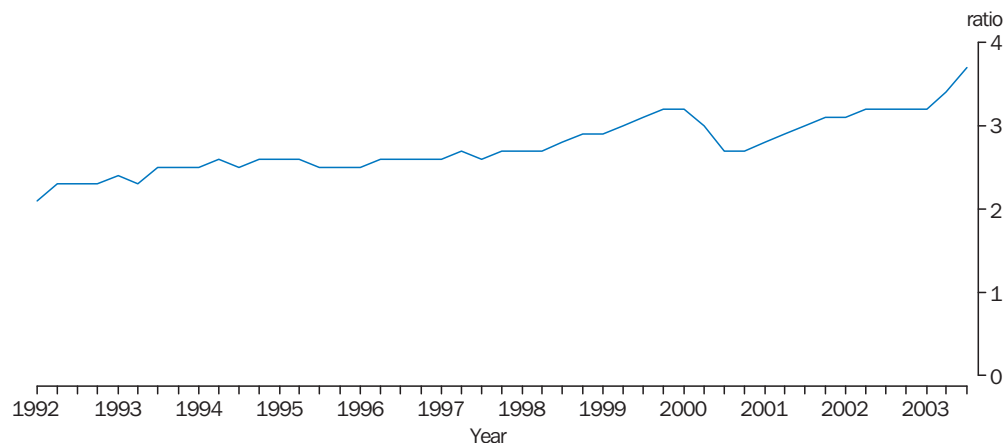
#### Owner/purchaser households: median estimated separate house values — 2000–01

Capital city	\$'000
Sydney	320
Melbourne	200
Brisbane	150
Adelaide	140
Perth	180
Hobart	135
Darwin(a)	205
Canberra(a)	200
<b>All capital cities(a)</b>	<b>200</b>

(a) Capital city estimates for Darwin relate to total NT, excluding sparsely settled areas. The estimate for Canberra includes all of the ACT.

Source: *Housing Occupancy and Costs, Australia, 2000–01* (ABS cat. no. 4130.0.55.001).

### Quarterly ratio of average loan for first home buyers to average annual earnings of adult males employed full-time (excluding overtime)



Source: ABS Housing Finance for Owner Occupation collection and Average Weekly Earnings of Employees collection.

Scheme and some changes to capital gains taxation also added to the demand.<sup>1</sup>

One contributor to the overall increase in house prices over time has been the rising standard of new housing. New project homes being constructed on the fringes of our cities are larger than in the past, more have four bedrooms and nearly all feature double garages and ensuite bathrooms (*Australian Social Trends 1998*, Smaller households, larger dwellings, pp. 157–159). Presumably this change has been driven by the growing wealth and aspirations of successive generations.

#### ...affordability for first home buyers

One way of gauging the relative increase in house prices is to compare a measure of house costs with a measure of income. Any simple comparison can only be indicative, as they are necessarily based on averages of both costs and incomes — both of which have marked geographical differences. In August 2003, the average first home loan (\$187,000) was 3.7 times the average annual earnings of a full-time male worker (\$51,100) — an increase from a ratio of 2.3 in August 1992. Using the average weekly earnings of a full-time male worker provides a consistent comparison over time. However, this comparison does not take into account how individual incomes may be pooled in households that increasingly have two income earners, fewer children, and thus more disposable income (see *Australian Social Trends 2004*, Family and Community: national summary, pp. 28–31). In addition, the relatively low interest rates prevalent in the late 1990s and the early 2000s made larger housing loans more affordable.

For further information on disposable household income and housing tenure over life-cycle stages see *Australian Social Trends 2004*, Household income, pp. 142–145.

The First Home Owners Grant was introduced in 2000, giving first home purchasers a \$7,000 grant, coinciding with a brief decline in the ratio of loan size to average weekly earnings. In March 2001, the grant was augmented by an additional \$7,000 for those purchasing newly built homes (previously unoccupied). About a year later, this additional grant was reduced to \$3,000 before being abolished in July 2002.<sup>1</sup> For further information on first home buyers and the First Home Owners Grant, see *Australian Social Trends 2003*, First home buyers, pp. 171–174.

#### Endnotes

- 1 Productivity Commission 2003, *First Home Ownership*, Productivity Commission Discussion Draft, Melbourne.
- 2 Baum, S and Wulff, M 2003, *Housing aspirations of Australian households*, Australian Housing and Urban Research Institute, Queensland Research Centre & Swinburne-Monash Research Centre.

# High-rise living

## HOUSING AND LIFESTYLE

**Half (52%) of all people living in four or more storey apartment blocks in 2001 were living alone or in a couple family without children.**

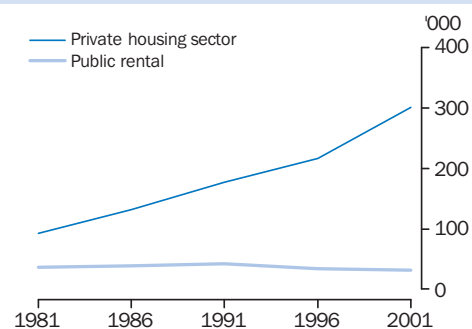
High-rise living has traditionally been very uncommon in Australia, and in 2001 accounted for only 2% of people living in private dwellings. However, over recent decades the number of people living in high-rise housing has increased at a faster rate than the total population.

Living in separate houses in suburbs remains the preference of people with children, partly due to the capacity of such housing to accommodate growing families and the accessibility of traditional play spaces. However, changing trends in family structures and lifestyles mean that more people are living in other kinds of household arrangements and looking for alternative housing options. High-rise apartment blocks — often located close to employment, shops, restaurants, and public amenities — offer a lifestyle attractive to many Australians.

### Trends between 1981 and 2001

In 1981, separate housing was by far the predominant form of housing in Australia. Of people living in private dwellings, 86% were living in a separate house. Two decades later, while this proportion was still very high, it was a little lower, at 83%. Offsetting this have been increases in the proportions living in medium density housing (e.g. duplexes and terrace houses), and in high density housing (e.g. unit developments and apartment blocks). Within this high density sector, the number of people living in high-rise units rose from approximately 129,000 in 1981 to around 334,000 in 2001, representing an increase from roughly 1% to 2% of people living in private dwellings.

### Number of people living in high-rise units



Source: ABS 1981–2001 Censuses of Population and Housing.

### Concepts and data collection

Data in this article are drawn from Censuses of Population and Housing conducted by the ABS between 1981 and 2001.

*Separate houses* are dwellings that stand alone in their own grounds and are separated from other dwellings by at least half a metre. A separate house may have a flat attached to it, such as a granny flat or converted garage. For practical reasons, analysis of *people living in separate houses* in this article is restricted to people who were considered to have spent census night in a separate house in which they usually lived. Overseas visitors and other people who spent census night in a separate house in which they did not usually live have been excluded. Also excluded are people who usually lived in a separate house in Australia but who were absent from that separate house on census night.

In this article, *high-rise units* are defined as residential units in apartment blocks of four or more storeys. High-rise units usually do not have their own private grounds and usually share common entrance foyers and/or stairwells. For practical reasons, analysis of *people living in high-rise units* in this article is restricted to people who were considered to have spent census night in a high-rise unit in which they usually lived. Overseas visitors and other people who spent census night in a high-rise unit in which they did not usually live have been excluded. Also excluded are people who usually lived in a high-rise unit in Australia but who were absent from that unit on census night.

For the 2001 census, changes to classification procedures were introduced to count more completely people and households living in the mixed use apartment blocks that were being built from the early to mid-1990s. As a result, probable undercounting in the 1996 census was rectified. Further, an imputation program is used to estimate the number of residents in households with whom census collectors were unable to make contact. Post 2001 census analysis has indicated a probable slight overestimation of persons in high-rise and other dwellings in the census results.

To maximise the comparability of data between censuses, and between dwelling types, non-response to census questions has generally been apportioned to valid question responses on a pro-rata basis prior to the calculation of numerical estimates, percentage distributions and averages.

The proportion of high-rise residents living in a unit rented from a state or territory housing authority steadily declined from 28% in 1981 to 23% (1986), 19% (1991), 14% (1996) and 10% (2001). This reflects the strong growth in high-rise private housing residents outstripping growth in high-rise public housing tenants (with the latter contracting in



recent years), and changes in government housing policies over the period — from primarily the provision of low-cost public rental housing to the provision of additional forms of housing support such as rent assistance.

### The geography of high-rise living

In 2001, more than half (68%) of all high-rise residents lived in New South Wales. Much smaller proportions lived in Victoria (14%), Queensland (11%), and Western Australia (4%), with 1% or less in each of the other states and territories. Between 1981 and 2001, the proportion of all high-rise residents who lived in New South Wales and Queensland increased, while the proportion living in Victoria and Western Australia declined.

In contrast to the overall distribution, half of all people living in public rental high-rise units in Australia in 2001 were living in Victoria (around 16,000 people), with a further 42% living in New South Wales. The proportion living in Victoria represents a decrease from 1981, when two-thirds of all public high-rise renters (approximately 24,000 people) were living in that state. The proportion of Victorian high-rise residents living in public rental housing fell from 76% in 1981 to 34% in 2001.

In each state and territory in 2001, the area with the highest concentration of residents living in high-rise housing was located within or adjoining its capital city's central business district, possibly reflecting the employment opportunities and lifestyle amenities in those areas. A similar pattern was evident twenty years earlier, in 1981.

In several states, the desirability of being close to water may have been a factor in the location of high-rise apartment blocks constructed over this period. In 2001, 42% of all high-rise residents in Australia lived in harbourside local government areas in Sydney (an increase from 35% in 1981), while a further 18% lived in other Sydney beachside or waterfront local government areas (up from 13% in 1981). Despite the decline in the proportion of high-rise residents in Victoria, there was an increase in the proportion of all high-rise residents in Australia living in local government areas with a Port Philip or Corio Bay shoreline (from 4% in 1981 to 6% in 2001). In Queensland, strong growth was evident in both the Gold Coast (from 2% to 4%) and suburbs along the Brisbane River (from 3% to 5%).

### Geographic distribution of people living in high-rise units

State or territory	1981	2001
	%	%
New South Wales	60	68
Victoria	24	14
Queensland	6	11
South Australia	1	1
Western Australia	7	4
Tasmania	1	0
Northern Territory	0	1
Australian Capital Territory	1	1
<b>Australia</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>
	'000	'000
<b>Australia</b>	<b>129</b>	<b>334</b>

Source: ABS 1981 and 2001 Censuses of Population and Housing.

### Socio-demographic trends

The socio-demographic profile of people living in high-rise units changed between 1981 and 2001. High-rise residents in 2001 were more likely to be aged between 25 years and 44 years than their counterparts in 1981 (40%, up from 31%), and, consistent with this, were more likely to be employed (55%, up from 49%). In turn, these shifts are consistent with the location of high-rise units in often revitalised inner-city areas close to jobs and city attractions.

However, the proportion of residents living in public rental high-rise units who were of prime working age remained constant over the period: approximately one quarter (23%) in both 1981 and 2001. There was a decrease in the proportion of children aged less than 15 years (from 27% to 19%) and an increase in the proportion of people aged 45 years and over (from 34% to 47%). At the same time, there was an increase in the proportions of high-rise residents in public rental units who were unemployed (from 5% to 8%) and not in the labour force (from 70% to 77%).

In 2001, half of all high-rise residents had been born overseas. This even mixture of Australian born and overseas born people in high-rise units differed sharply from that in the total Australian population, of whom less than one-quarter (23%) had been born overseas. In 2001, high-rise residents were more likely to have been born overseas than their counterparts in 1981. This change may be partly related to an increase during this period in the number of foreign citizens residing in Australia on temporary student

### Selected characteristics of people living in high-rise units and separate houses

	High-rise units		Separate houses	
	1981	2001	1981	2001
	%	%	%	%
Age group of residents				
Less than 15 years	14	10	27	23
15–24 years	18	17	16	13
25–44 years	31	40	29	29
45–64 years	21	19	20	24
65 years and over	17	13	8	11
Labour force status of residents(a)				
Employed	49	55	43	46
Unemployed	4	5	2	3
Not in the labour force	47	40	55	50
Dwelling tenure				
Owned or being purchased	30	34	80	79
Rented from a state/territory housing authority	28	10	4	3
Rented from another landlord	41	54	12	16
Other	2	2	4	2
Country of birth				
Australia	58	50	81	79
Overseas	42	50	19	21
<b>All residents</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>
	'000	'000	'000	'000
<b>All residents</b>	<b>129</b>	<b>334</b>	<b>11 372</b>	<b>14 609</b>

(a) As a proportion of those aged 15 years and over.

Source: ABS 1981 and 2001 Censuses of Population and Housing.

visas. In 2001, 20% of overseas born high-rise residents aged 18 years and over were full-time students, up from 4% in 1981.

Consistent with the direction of changes in age distribution and labour force status, the income distribution of people living in high-rise housing also changed relative to that of the Australian population. In 1981, high-rise residents aged 15 years and over were slightly over represented in middle to higher income brackets. By 2001, they were strongly over represented in the highest income ranges. For example, 11% of high-rise residents aged 15 years and over received a gross weekly income of \$1,500 or more in 2001, compared with just 4% of all Australians in this age group. Over representation in this income range was

greater among high-rise residents born in Australia (13% of people aged 15 years and over) than among those born overseas (9%).

One striking difference between people living in separate houses and people living in high-rise units is that the former have a strong tendency to be home owners while the latter are predominantly renters. This difference was only slightly less pronounced in 2001 than it had been two decades earlier.

### Rents and mortgage repayments

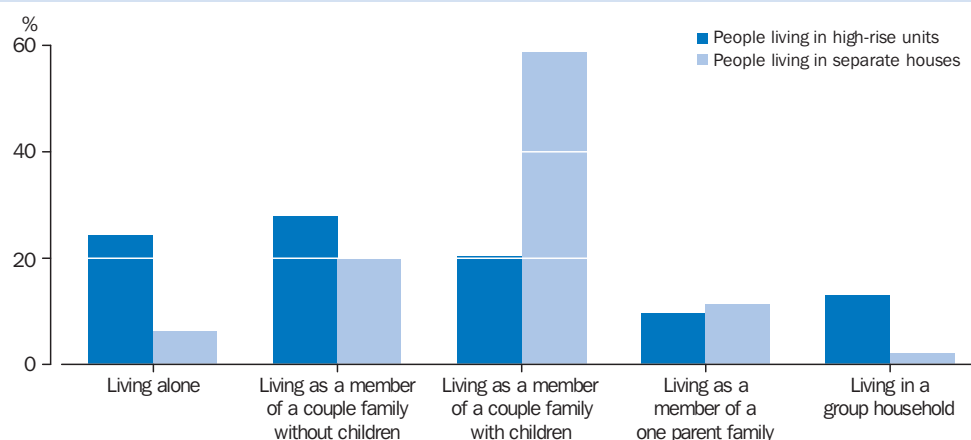
At the national level in 2001, households renting high-rise units paid a median weekly rent of \$240 for their unit. This was considerably more than that paid by households renting separate houses (\$150), and by households renting other higher density dwellings (\$140). However, these differences are likely to reflect the greater concentration of high-rise apartment blocks in urban areas with high land values. When looking only at such areas, rents may be lower for high-rise units than for other forms of housing in surrounding streets. For example, in the harbourside local government area of Woollahra in Sydney's eastern suburbs in 2001, the median weekly rent was lower for high-rise units (\$330) than for separate houses (\$600) or other higher density dwellings (\$353).

Similarly, across Australia in 2001, the median monthly mortgage repayment made by households purchasing their high-rise unit (\$1,300) was larger than for households purchasing their separate house (\$867) or another type of higher density dwelling (\$945). Yet for any given local area, monthly mortgage repayments may be quite different to these nationwide averages. For example, in the inner Melbourne bayside local government area of Port Phillip City in 2001, high-rise households who were purchasing their unit made a median monthly mortgage repayment of \$1,400. This was less than the median repayment made by households purchasing separate houses in the same area (\$1,500), but more than for households purchasing other types of higher density housing (\$1,200).

### Living arrangements and mobility

The tendency for high-rise residents to rent rather than purchase their unit might suggest that high-rise living is for many a transitional form of housing. The living arrangements of high-rise residents might also indicate that this is so. In 2001, around half (52%) of people living in high-rise housing were either living alone or as a member of a couple family

### Selected living arrangements in high-rise units and separate houses — 2001



Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

without children. Only 20% were living as part of a family containing children, compared with 59% of people living in separate houses.

Greater residential transience among people living in high-rise housing is further suggested by the proportion who had been living elsewhere one year earlier (35%) and five years earlier (72%). Comparable proportions of people living in separate houses were considerably lower at 15% and 40% respectively.

#### Housing capacity and utilisation

High-rise units tend to be designed to accommodate fewer people than separate houses. In 2001, the vast majority (83%) of high-rise units had fewer than three bedrooms, with most (58%) having two bedrooms. One quarter of high-rise units were either one bedroom units or studio apartments with no separate bedroom. In

contrast, only 13% of separate houses had fewer than three bedrooms. Over half (55%) were three bedroom dwellings, while a further 32% had four or more bedrooms.

Commensurate with their reduced housing capacity, the average number of residents per dwelling was lower in high-rise units (1.8) than in separate houses (2.8). On balance, the housing capacity of high-rise units tended to be more fully utilised, with spare bedrooms more likely to be found in separate houses. In 2001, there was an average of one person per bedroom in high-rise units compared with the equivalent of four persons for every five bedrooms in separate houses.

#### Motor vehicle ownership and use

Concern about the congestion and pollution associated with car use has prompted transport policies that encourage less car use in favour of walking, bicycling and public transportation.<sup>1</sup> Closer proximity to principal

### Residential mobility and methods of travel to work — 2001

	People living in high-rise units	People living in separate houses
	%	%
Lived at different address one year earlier(a)	35	15
Lived at different address five years earlier(b)	72	40
Travelled to work by private motorised vehicle(c)(d)	54.0	89.0
Used public transport to get to work(d)(e)	32	9
Walked only or bicycled only to work(d)	15	4

(a) As a proportion of those aged one year and over.

(b) As a proportion of those aged five years and over.

(c) By car, taxi, truck, motorbike or motor scooter for all or part of the journey.

(d) As a proportion of those aged 15 years and over who travelled to work on census day.

(e) By train, bus, ferry, tram or light rail for all or part of the journey.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

### Housing capacity and utilisation, and private motor vehicle ownership — 2001

	High-rise units	Separate houses
	no.	no.
Average number of people per dwelling	1.8	2.8
Average number of people per bedroom	1.0	0.8
Average number of motorised vehicles(a) per dwelling	1.1	1.9
Average number of motorised vehicles(a) per person aged 17 years and over	0.7	1.0
	%	%
Number of bedrooms		
Less than two(b)	25	1
Two	58	12
Three	16	55
More than three	1	32
Total	100	100
	'000	'000
<b>Total number of dwellings(c)</b>	<b>182</b>	<b>5 285</b>

(a) Registered vehicles owned or used by dwelling residents which were garaged at their dwelling or parked nearby on census night. Included are motorbikes and motor scooters, and vans and company vehicles kept at home.

(b) Includes studio apartments and bedsitters.

(c) Private dwellings occupied by at least one usual resident on census night.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

employment zones and major hubs of public transport networks may partly explain high-rise residents' lower reliance on private motorised vehicles as a means of getting to work. Of high-rise residents who travelled to work on census day in August 2001, 54% travelled by car, taxi, truck, motorbike or motor scooter for all or part of the journey. This proportion was much higher among those living in separate houses (89%), who were less likely to walk, bicycle or ride public transport to work.

In 2001, 94% of households living in separate houses had at least one registered motorised vehicle, garaged or parked at or near their

dwelling on census night, that they owned or used. In contrast, high-rise households were much less likely to have such a vehicle (71%). While some of this difference may be due to proximity to transport hubs and amenities, it may also be partly due to the limited availability of car parking space within the property boundaries of apartment blocks.

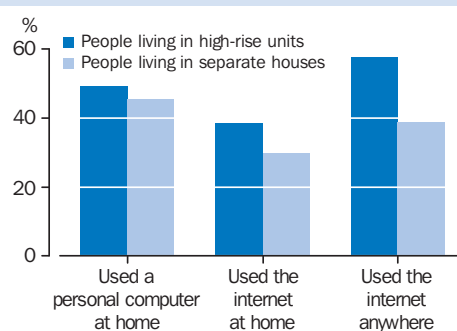
### Computer and Internet use

People living in high-rise units might be expected to have greater Internet access, given their socio-demographic profile, their predominantly inner city location, and the relative newness of privately owned high-rise units. In 2001, most high-rise residents (58%) had used the Internet in the week prior to the census, with over a third (39%) accessing it from home. Comparable proportions among people living in separate houses were lower at 39% and 30%. Despite these differences, people living in high-rise units were only slightly more likely than people living in separate houses to have used a personal computer at home in the week prior to the census (49% compared with 46%).

### Endnotes

- 1 O'Connor, K, Darby, A and Rapson, V, 'The great mistake: consolidation policy in Melbourne and Sydney', *People and Place*, vol. 3, no. 3, 1995, pp. 40–45.

### Computer and Internet use(a) — 2001



(a) In the week prior to the census.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

# Other areas of social concern

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Page

## TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATION

### Overseas travel and recent world events.....173

In the two months following the Bali bombing in October 2002, Australian departures to Indonesia dropped by 59%. This article reports on the characteristics of people travelling to and from Australia, as well as travel patterns in the months following recent world events.

## ENVIRONMENT

### Environmental concerns and related activities.....177

In 2001, nearly two-thirds (62%) of adults stated that they were concerned about environmental problems. This article examines changes in environmental concerns and related activities of people in different age groups over a ten-year period. It discusses people's involvement in environmental protection activities and household participation in recycling, use of environmentally-friendly products and water conservation.

## RELIGION

### Religious affiliation and activity.....181

Between 1971 and 2001, the proportion of Australians stating an affiliation with Christianity fell from 86% to 68% while the proportion stating an affiliation with a non-Christian religion rose from 1% to 5%. This article presents and analyses religious affiliation trends as reported in censuses since 1933, then draws data from various surveys to examine the relationship between religious affiliation, religious activity, and doing unpaid voluntary work for an organisation.

## CRIME AND JUSTICE

### Women in prison.....185

While women are a small minority among prisoners (7% in 2002) their numbers have increased faster than have male prisoners in recent years. This article presents information on trends in women's imprisonment and the characteristics of women prisoners.



# Overseas travel and recent world events

## TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATION

**Immediately following the September 11 terrorism attacks, the Bali bombing and SARS outbreak there were decreases in overseas short-term arrivals and departures.**

People travel overseas for many reasons — to experience other cultures and countries, to visit friends and relatives and increasingly for work and business. However, there are barriers to world travel which can impact on the numbers of international travellers and/or their destinations. These can range from economic concerns over increased costs arising from fluctuations in exchange rates to personal concerns associated with the safety of international travel after events such as the September 11 attacks in the United States of America (USA) in 2001. There is public and policy interest in reasons for fluctuations in numbers and types of travellers as tourism represents a significant economic opportunity for Australia. In 2001–02 tourism contributed \$31.8 billion of GDP.<sup>1</sup> From 2004, the new Australian Government body, Tourism Australia, will receive an additional \$121 million over four and a half years for international marketing of Australia as a holiday destination.<sup>2</sup> This article examines short-term travel, both to and from Australia. It explores the characteristics of people travelling, as well as travel patterns in the months following recent world events.

### Trends over recent decades

Since the 1970s, travel by air has been the preferred travel mode for most people visiting Australia as well as Australians travelling overseas. Decreases in the time and costs of air travel were associated with increases in the numbers of people travelling

### Overseas short-term travel

This article draws on short-term travel data from the ABS *Overseas Arrivals and Departures* collection.

*Short-term travel* refers to travel for a period of less than 12 months. Estimates refer to travellers' intended duration of travel.

*Overseas arrivals* (of overseas visitors) and *departures* (of Australian residents) through Australian ports relate to the number of movements of travellers rather than the number of travellers.

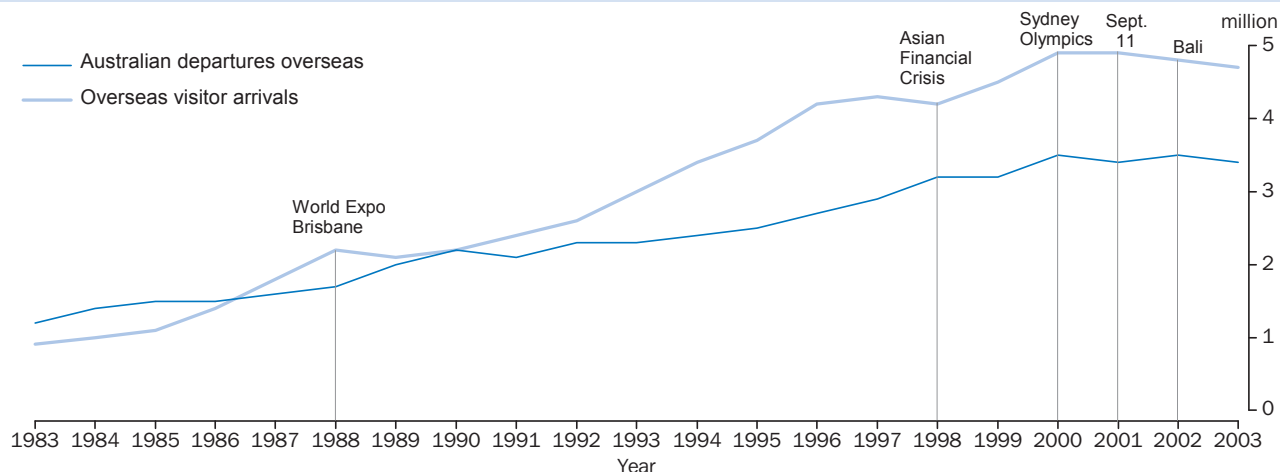
*Seasonally adjusted* estimates are derived by removing systematic calendar related effects from the original estimates, such as seasonal influences. That is, seasonally adjusted estimates capture trend behaviour but still contain residual/irregular effects.

*Trend estimates* are produced by smoothing the seasonally adjusted series, as a means of reducing the impact of the irregular component of the series. These trend series are used to analyse the underlying behaviour of the series over time. Revisions may occur with seasonally adjusted and trend series. Unless otherwise stated, seasonally adjusted and trend data are at February 2004.

to and from Australia. In 2003, there were nearly 17 times as many overseas short-term visitor arrivals to Australia (4.7 million) as there were in 1975 (281,000).

Over the past 20 years, short-term arrivals and departures have generally increased year by year. Prior to the mid-1980s, Australian departures were generally higher than

### Overseas short-term arrivals and departures(a)



(a) Annual data (i.e. total number of arrivals or departures in the year).

Source: ABS Overseas Arrivals and Departures Collection.

overseas arrivals. However, since 1987, there have been more overseas arrivals than Australian departures every year.

Historically, a wide range of world events have appeared to influence short-term travel patterns. These have included world sporting and cultural events which attract people to specific destinations. For example, there were increases in the number of overseas short-term arrivals in 1982, 1988, and 2000; the years of the Brisbane Commonwealth Games, Brisbane World Exposition, and the Sydney Olympics.

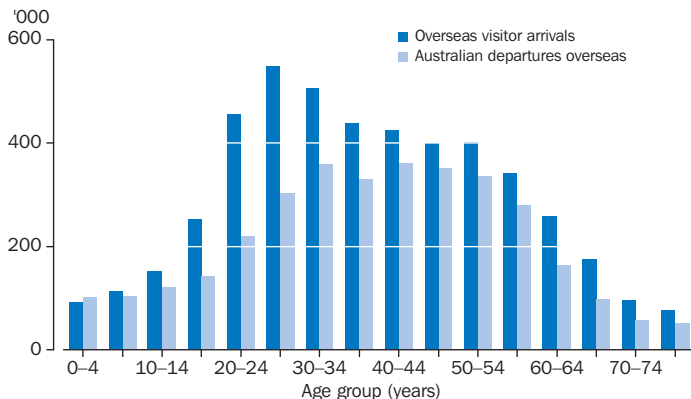
More recent world events have included the September 11 attacks in the USA in 2001, the Bali bombings in 2002, commencement of military action in Iraq in 2003, and the outbreak of Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome (SARS) across many countries in 2003. While these events may have affected short-term travel, within a few months travel patterns have tended to re-establish themselves.

### Recent visitors to Australia

Australia attracts many types of visitors from many places; from backpackers to those on business, who may have travelled from as close as our neighbouring Asian countries or half way around the world.

While people of all ages visit Australia, the vast majority of overseas visitors are of working age. In 2003, there were 4.7 million short-term visitor arrivals, and 80% of these were people aged 20–64 years. Over half a million were 25–29 year olds who were generally visiting Australia for a holiday. People travelling mainly for business tended to be aged 35–44 years, while many people travelling to visit friends and relatives in Australia were aged 45–54 years.

### Overseas short-term arrivals and departures by age — 2003



Source: ABS Overseas Arrivals and Departures Collection.

### Overseas short-term visitor arrivals to Australia(a)



(a) Monthly data with January, May and September marked.

Source: ABS Overseas Arrivals and Departures Collection.

Generally, there were more females than males visiting Australia in each age group aged less than 30 years, with many female visitors (294,000) in the 25–29 year age group, but more males than females in most age groups from 30 years.

Over half (58%) of all short-term visitor arrivals to Australia in 2003 were from New Zealand, the United Kingdom (UK), Japan, the USA and Singapore. These countries comprised the top five countries for short-term arrivals in 2003, led by New Zealand with 839,000 arrivals. Most people travelling from these countries were visiting Australia for a holiday or to visit friends and relatives.

Reflecting Australia's location in the Asia Pacific region, there were six Asian countries in the top 10 countries for short-term visitor arrivals in 2003: Japan, Singapore, Korea, China, Malaysia and Indonesia. Asian short-term travellers to Australia in 2003 made up 40% of all arrivals for the year. Further, Asian countries had relatively high proportions of students travelling to Australia for education. About 12% of short-term Chinese visitors were students compared with 1% of New Zealand visitors.

### ...recent events

Short-term visitor arrivals in 2000 were the highest ever, reaching 4.9 million. The Sydney Olympics and Paralympics took place in Australia during this year, and these events may have attracted more people than usual. This peak was maintained in 2001, but the number of visitors declined in 2002 and 2003.

In the months following the September 11 attacks in 2001, there were decreases in monthly arrivals — in November 2001, there were 82,000 fewer (seasonally adjusted) visitor arrivals than in November 2000. While



seasonally adjusted monthly arrivals increased through 2002, the total number of short-term arrivals for that year (4.8 million) was lower than in 2001 and 2000.

There were large decreases in seasonally adjusted monthly arrivals again in the early months of 2003. These followed the lead up to, and subsequent commencement of, military action in Iraq (March 2003), as well as the outbreak of SARS in some countries in 2003 (the World Health Organisation issued a SARS travel advisory in March). Monthly arrivals increased steadily later in 2003, particularly in the months leading up to October when Australia hosted the 2003 Rugby World Cup. During this period, there were increases in arrivals from some participating countries (e.g. New Zealand, the UK and South Africa). Despite this, the total number of short-term visitor arrivals declined again in 2003 to 4.7 million.

Changes in patterns of short-term arrivals following world events varied by country of origin. Changes in visitor arrivals from New Zealand have been relatively minor, with seasonally adjusted monthly arrivals remaining at a similar level over the past three years. In contrast, visitor arrivals from other countries declined more dramatically — before increasing steadily in the months following each event as people resumed travel, presumably after the initial shock of the events had subsided. Short-term visitor arrivals from the UK, Japan and the USA all declined in the months following the September 11 attacks in 2001. Japanese visitor arrivals declined strongly in the months following the Bali bombings in October 2002.

Japanese short-term arrivals declined in the early months of 2003 following the outbreak of SARS in some Asian countries, with Japanese monthly arrivals (seasonally adjusted) more strongly affected than arrivals from other countries. This may reflect the fact that a number of countries affected by SARS are transit points for international travel, such as travel between Japan and Australia. The Japanese tourist market appeared to be recovering in the second half of 2003, with 628,000 Japanese visitor arrivals to Australia by the end of 2003.

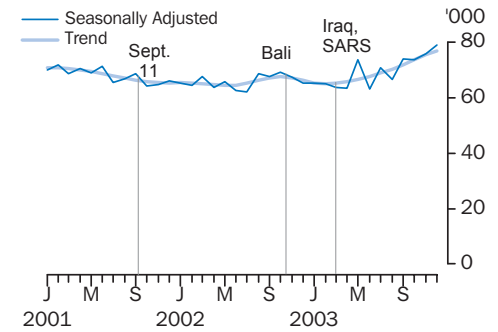
**Australians travelling overseas**

Australians are enthusiastic travellers. Australian short-term departures overseas have nearly tripled over the past 20 years; there were 1.3 million departures in 1983, compared with 3.4 million in 2003.

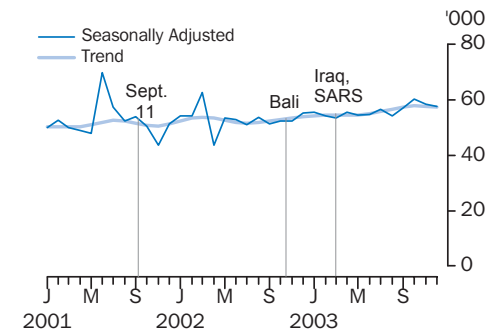
In 2003, 51% of Australian short-term departures overseas were by people aged 30–54 years. People in this age group were

**Short-term visitor arrivals(a) in Australia from selected countries**

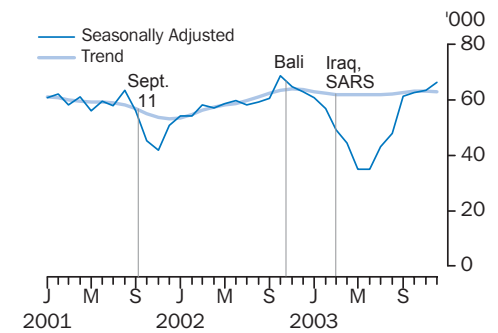
**New Zealand**



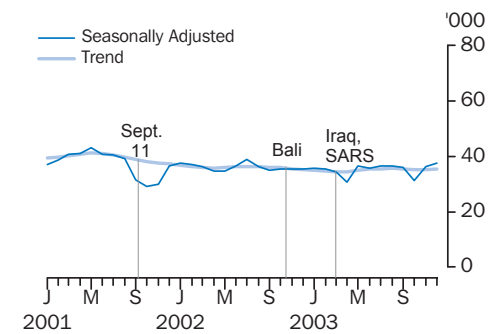
**United Kingdom**



**Japan**



**United States of America**



(a) Monthly data with January, May and September marked.

Source: ABS Overseas Arrivals and Departures Collection.

travelling overseas mainly to visit friends or relatives, or for business. Australians travelling overseas in younger age groups were mainly travelling for holidays.

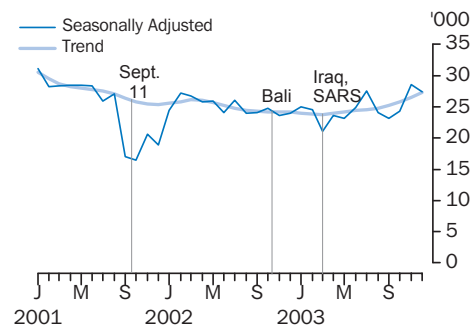
Similar to short-term visitor arrivals, there were generally more females than males departing Australia in each age group aged less than 30 years (with more female travellers in the 30–34 years age group than any other age group) but generally more males than females in age groups from 30 years.

Nearly half (47%) of all Australian short-term departures in 2003 were to New Zealand, the UK, the USA, Indonesia, and Fiji. These countries comprised the top five destinations for Australian departures, with New Zealand the most popular destination with 663,000 departures. Most people travelling to these countries were going for a holiday, except for travellers to the UK, where many were visiting friends and relatives.

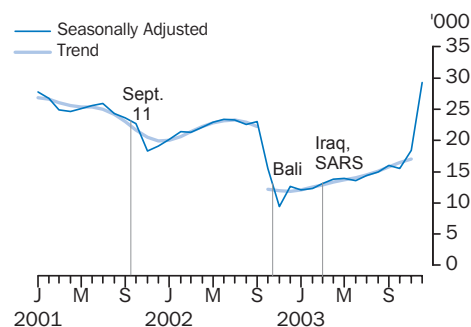
Asia was also a popular destination. In 2003, just over one-third (35%) of Australian short-term departures overseas were to an Asian country. Departures to Asia have steadily climbed in the last 20 years from 357,000 departures in 1983 to 1.2 million in 2003.

### Australian short-term departures(a) to selected countries

#### United States of America



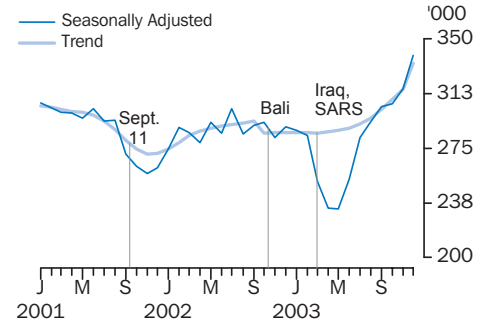
#### Indonesia



(a) Monthly data with January, May and September marked.

Source: ABS Overseas Arrivals and Departures Collection.

### Australian short-term departures overseas(a)



(a) Monthly data with January, May and September marked.

Source: ABS Overseas Arrivals and Departures Collection.

### ...recent events

In 2000, Australian short-term departures overseas reached 3.5 million. In each of the three years since then, Australian departures have remained at a similar level, decreasing slightly in 2003 to 3.4 million.

In the months following the September 11 attacks in 2001, there were large decreases in the numbers of Australian departures overseas — in November 2001, there were 49,000 fewer (seasonally adjusted) departures than in November 2000. Similarly, in the months following the commencement of military action in Iraq and the outbreak of SARS in 2003, there were also decreases in seasonally adjusted monthly departures. In May 2003, there were 60,000 fewer (seasonally adjusted) Australian departures overseas than in May 2002.

In 2001, Australian departures to the USA dropped by 39% (seasonally adjusted) during the two months after the September 11 attacks. Similarly, after the Bali bombing in October 2002, Australian departures to Indonesia dropped by 59% in the following two months. However, towards the end of 2003, monthly seasonally adjusted Australian departures to both Indonesia and the USA were increasing, and appeared to be at similar levels to totals experienced in early 2001.

### Endnotes

- 1 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2002, *National Accounts: Tourism Satellite Account, 2001–02*, cat. no. 5249.0, ABS, Canberra.
- 2 Department of Industry, Tourism and Resources <<http://www.industry.gov.au/content/itrinternet/cmscontent.cfm?objectID=F270E2D5-F78D-1E02-69F2FFB933496C7A>>, accessed 22 April 2004.

# Environmental concerns and related activities

## ENVIRONMENT

**The proportion of Australians aged 18 years and over who stated that they were concerned about environmental issues decreased from 75% in 1992 to 62% in 2001.**

Australia's environment is integral to the quality of life of our population and the sustainability of our society. Public concern about environmental issues may influence actions taken to protect and restore the natural environment. Such actions may be undertaken by individuals, governments, non-government organisations or industry. Individuals may register their concerns in the public arena through writing letters, signing petitions or attending demonstrations. They may join an environmental protection group or donate time and/or money towards the environment. Households may choose to recycle products, conserve water or buy environmentally-friendly goods and services.

This article examines patterns and trends in people's environmental concerns and related activities in the decade to 2003. It presents data showing that higher proportions of people are taking actions to protect the environment, including increased household recycling; and smaller proportions of people are expressing that they were concerned about environmental problems.

### Environmental concerns

In 2001, 62% of adults (8.9 million people) stated that they were concerned about environmental problems. This was almost 10 percentage points lower than in 1998 (71%) and continued a downward trend, from 75% in 1992.

Although most Australians stated that they were concerned about environmental problems, only 8% (down from 10% in 1992)

### Data sources

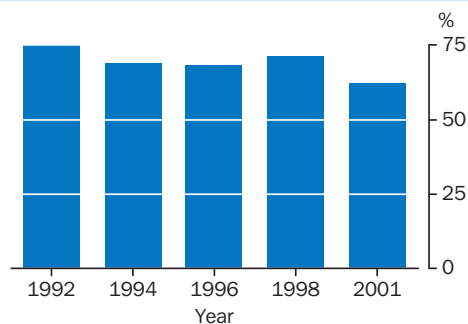
The majority of the data in this article comes from Environmental Issues Surveys run annually in association with the March Monthly Population Survey and is published in *Environmental Issues: People's Views and Practices* (ABS cat. no. 4602.0). Survey topics are rotated on a three-yearly basis. Data about environmental concerns and activities and water use refer to 2001. Data about energy and appliances refer to 2002. Data about recycling refer to 2003. Only people aged 18 years and over were asked about their environmental views and practices.

had actually registered their concern in a public way. The most common methods were signing a petition or writing a letter — both used by about a third of those who had registered their concern.

Some analysts have suggested that public concern for the environment decreases when governments appear to address environmental issues, or when other issues are more prominent.<sup>1</sup> The lower levels of concern about environmental problems in the latter part of the last decade may be partly in response to initiatives such as the funding of many environmental and natural resource projects through the Natural Heritage Trust established by the Australian Government in 1997.

Although concern about environmental problems decreased across all age groups between 1992 and 2001, the greatest decrease was among young adults aged 18–24 years. In 1992, young adults were among those most likely to be concerned, but by 2001, only people aged 65 years and over had a lower rate of concern than 18–24 year olds (51% and 57% respectively). In 2001, people

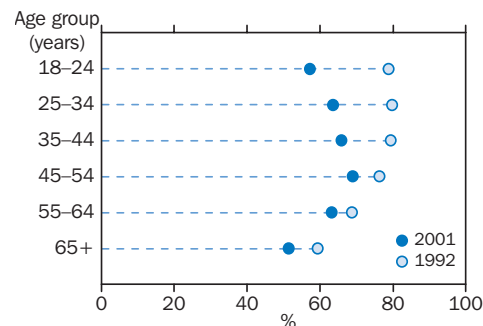
**Adults concerned about environmental problems(a)**



(a) As a proportion of all people aged 18 years and over.

Source: *Environmental Issues: People's Views and Practices*, March 2001 (ABS cat. no. 4602.0).

**Environmental concern by age(a)**



(a) As a proportion of people in each age group.

Source: *Environmental Issues: People's Views and Practices*, March 2001 (ABS cat. no. 4602.0).

aged 45–54 years were the most likely to be concerned about the environment (69%) and were also the most likely to have registered their concern in the last 12 months (10%). People aged 65 years and over remained the least likely to be concerned (51%) and to have registered their concern (6%) in 2001.

Between 1992 and 2001, the proportions of people who stated they were concerned about environmental problems decreased in all states and territories, most notably in the Northern Territory (down from 80% to 62%). Concern about environmental issues varied across Australia in 2001, from 71% of people in the Australian Capital Territory to 59% of people in New South Wales stating that they were concerned. Higher rates of concern did not necessarily mean that more people formally registered concern. People in the Australian Capital Territory were among the least likely to have registered concern (7%) despite their relatively high rate of concern.

The variation across Australia may be related to regional environmental issues and activities. For example, water issues associated with the Murray River are prominent in South Australia, while the issue of mining activities is predominant in northern Australia and protection of the Great Barrier Reef is a concern in Queensland.

### Environmental protection activities

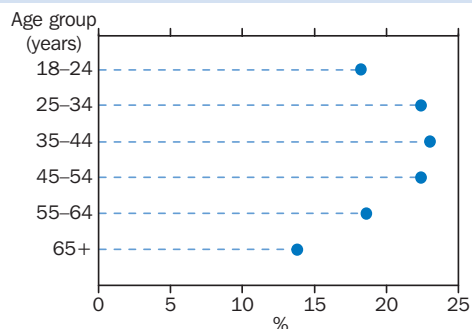
Participation in environmental protection activities may range from making a donation or taking part in a single event to more extensive commitments (e.g. membership of an environmental protection group). In 2001, one in five Australian adults (2.9 million) had given time or money towards environmental protection in the last 12 months. For example, more than 700,000 people were

involved in Clean Up Australia Day in 2001.<sup>2</sup> However, the proportion of adults who donated time or money to environmental protection decreased from 28% in 1992 to 20% in 2001.

The relative rate of participation in environmental activities by people in different age groups generally reflected their levels of concern. People aged 25–54 years were the most likely to have expressed concern about environmental problems and to have donated time or money to environmental protection. This may be linked to the higher incomes of people in their prime working years. In keeping with their lower rate of concern and lower incomes, people aged 65 years and over were the least likely to have donated time or money towards environmental protection.

Despite decreases in the proportions of people concerned about environmental problems and donating time or money towards the environment, membership of environmental protection groups has remained fairly steady since 1998. There were 609,000 members of environmental protection groups in 2001, representing 4% of all adults (or 7% of people aged 18 years and over who were concerned about the environment). Landcare or catchment management groups were the most popular, with 220,000 members. Although people aged 18–24 years were among the least likely to be concerned about the environment, they were among the most likely to be members of environmental protection groups (5%). Only 3% of people aged 65 years and over were members.

### People who donated time or money to environmental protection(a) — 2001



(a) As a proportion of people in each age group.

Source: *Environmental Issues: People's Views and Practices, March 2001* (ABS cat. no. 4602.0).

### Reason for non-involvement(a) in environmental activities — 2001

Selected reasons	People not involved %
No time	49.1
Age/health/unable to	10.0
Don't know how to get involved	6.6
No money	4.7
Don't think it will make a difference	3.7
Don't care/not interested	3.5
<b>Total(a)</b>	<b>5 733.8</b>

(a) People aged 18 years and over who were concerned about environmental problems, but did not register their concern, were not members of an environmental group and had not donated time or money to help protect the environment.

Source: *Environmental Issues: People's Views and Practices, March 2001* (ABS cat. no. 4602.0).

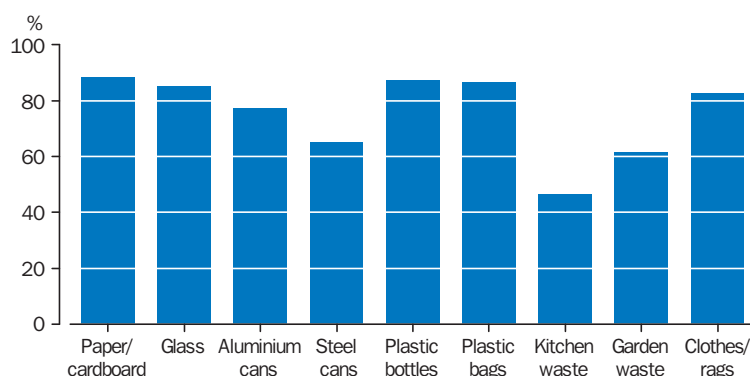
In 2001, the likelihood of either making a donation towards the environment or being a member of an environmental protection group reflected the prevalence of concern about environmental problems across Australia. People in South Australia, Western Australia and the Australian Capital Territory were the most concerned about the environment and were the most likely to have participated in either activity.

Almost two-thirds of people aged 18 years and over who said that they were concerned about environmental issues (5.7 million people) had not registered concern about environmental problems, nor donated time or money towards environmental protection nor been part of an environmental protection group in the 12 months to March 2001. Almost half (49%) of these people cited a lack of time as the main reason for this. Another 10% said that they were unable to become involved, for reasons such as their age or health. Smaller proportions of people said that they did not know how to get involved (7%) or had no money (5%).

### Household environmental activities

In addition to individual contributions towards environmental protection, many households undertake environmental activities. These include recycling, using environmentally-friendly products, power and appliances, and conserving water in homes and gardens. While fewer Australians appear to be concerned about the environment, some of these environmental activities have become more common in Australian households over the last decade. Over this period, state and territory legislation and local government decisions increasingly supported recycling and some other measures (such as water conservation), thereby encouraging or requiring households to participate in these activities.

Households recycling(a) selected items — 2003



(a) Includes the reuse of items within the household.

Source: *Environmental Issues: People's Views and Practices, March 2003* (ABS cat. no. 4602.0).

### ...recycling

The waste minimisation hierarchy of 'avoid, reduce, reuse, recycle, recover, treat and dispose' aims to minimise the use of resources and energy, as well as the creation of landfill.<sup>3</sup> In 2003, 98% of households said they recycled or reused at least some items. This continued the upward trend from 85% of households in 1992 and 91% in 1996.

The most commonly recycled items were paper/cardboard (88% of households), plastic bottles and bags (both 87%), and glass (85%). Households in the ACT were the most likely to recycle almost all of the items, with 9% recycling all the listed items, compared with 5% across Australia. This is likely to be related to the provision of regular kerbside recycling collections to all ACT households. Between 1992 and 2003, the proportion of Australian households not recycling at all dropped from 15% to 2%.

The method of recycling varies between items. In 2003, at least 90% of households had paper/cardboard, glass, steel cans and plastic bottles collected from the house, while plastic bags tended to be reused (88%) and about two-thirds of kitchen (or food) waste and garden waste were used as compost or mulch. Overall, collection from the house and re-use within the household were the most common methods of recycling, used by 87% and 85% of households respectively.

Of households not recycling all the listed items, the most common reason was that the household did not have enough recyclable materials (74%). The next most common reason was the lack or inadequacy of recycling services or facilities (19%). A further 13% of households were not interested or felt that it was too much work. These reasons may have contributed to the failure to meet waste reduction targets set by state and territory governments for 2000 in the early 1990s, despite overall improvements in recycling rates over the decade.<sup>4</sup>

### ...environmentally-friendly products

The use of environmentally-friendly products (EFPs) also contributes to the waste minimisation hierarchy, because they take fewer resources to produce and generate less waste than their counterparts. In 2001, 70% of households used recycled paper at least sometimes, making it the most commonly used EFP. Other EFPs included refillable containers (used either regularly or occasionally by 65% of households), unbleached paper (51%) and phosphate-free cleaning products (40%).

**Water conservation — 2001**

Selected water conservation methods	Households %
<b>Methods used in dwellings</b>	
Dual flush toilet	63.8
Reduced flow shower head	34.7
Turn off/repair dripping taps	19.5
Full loads when washing	15.8
Shorter showers	14.4
Recycle/reuse water	11.3
Wash car on lawn	6.8
Less water in baths/troughs/basins	6.6
Use bucket to wash car	4.6
<b>Methods used in gardens(a)</b>	
Water early morning/late evening	26.2
Water less frequently but for longer	12.4
Use recycled water	10.6
Do not water lawn area	6.3
Check soil moisture before watering	5.7
Do not water/rely on rainfall	5.6

(a) As a proportion of all households with gardens.

Source: *Environmental Issues: People's Views and Practices, March 2001* (ABS cat. no. 4602.0).

Although 14% of households used all of the listed EFPs at least sometimes, 9% of households did not use any. The most common reason given by people not using EFPs was that they were more expensive (37%). Other reasons included a lack of availability (19%), inferior quality (16%) and brand loyalty (15%).

**...environmentally-friendly electricity and appliances**

A very small proportion of households (3%) were connected to greenpower (electricity generated by renewable sources, such as wind or hydro-electric generators and solar panels) in 2002. Solar power was slightly more common, being used by 5% of households in 2002. Although 40% of households purchasing white goods in 2002 considered the energy rating efficiency, environmental concerns played a relatively small role in the choice of white goods and heaters. In 2002, only 7% of households buying white goods (e.g. fridges, washing machines and airconditioners) and 4% of those buying heaters considered environmental factors when making their purchase.

**...water conservation**

Using water wisely helps to ensure a healthy environment and prolong our current water supply. Although households account for only 8% of all water usage, their careful use of water makes a valuable contribution.<sup>5</sup>

A survey in New South Wales by the Environmental Protection Authority in 2000 found that most people felt there was a need to conserve water and had made an effort for environmental reasons to do so.<sup>1</sup> A higher proportion of households living outside the capital cities in 2001 had conserved water than their capital city counterparts (44% and 40% respectively).

In 2001, almost two-thirds of Australian households had a dual flush toilet, and just over one-third had a reduced flow shower head (up from 39% and 22% respectively in 1994). These were most common in South Australia and Western Australia, two of the driest states, with around 80% of households having at least one of the two. Their presence in a high proportion of households may also reflect long-standing regulations (e.g. Victoria has consistently had a high proportion of dual flush toilets and, in 1984, was the first state to make them compulsory in new homes). Other water conservation methods included turning off or repairing dripping taps (20% of households), doing full loads when washing (16%) and having shorter showers (14%).

Just over 60% of households with gardens conserved water in their gardens. The most common water conservation method was watering in the early morning or late evening (a quarter of households with gardens). Other methods included watering gardens less frequently but for longer (12%) or using recycled water (11%). Smaller proportions did not water their lawn or did not water at all (both 6%). In addition, half of the households with gardens used mulch in order to save water.<sup>6</sup>

**Endnotes**

- 1 New South Wales Environmental Protection Authority 2000, *Who Cares about the Environment?*, EPA, Sydney.
- 2 John, K (Clean Up Australia) 2003, email, 16 October.
- 3 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2003, *Australia's Environment: Issues and Trends*, cat. no. 4613.0, ABS, Canberra.
- 4 Australian State of the Environment Committee 2001, *Australia — State of the Environment 2001*, CSIRO Publishing, Melbourne.
- 5 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2000, *Water Account for Australia 1993–94 to 1996–97*, cat. no. 4610.0, ABS, Canberra.
- 6 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2001, *Environmental Issues: People's Views and Practices*, cat. no. 4602.0, ABS, Canberra.

# Religious affiliation and activity

## RELIGION

**In 2001, 74% of Australians aged 18 years and over reported affiliating with a religion. In the following year, 23% reported participating in church or religious activities over a three month period.**

**A**ffiliating with a religion and participating in its group activities is one of the ways by which people develop social networks and bind into communities. Religious beliefs and values may also influence people's behaviour and decisions in many areas of life. For example, they may motivate people to perform unpaid voluntary work, which complements government funded services. Consequently, as well as reflecting shifts in the nature and cultural foundations of Australian society, changes in religious affiliation and activity may have implications for both the level of civic engagement and the provision of community services in Australia.

### Trends in religious affiliation

The proportion of all Australians stating an affiliation to some type of religion remained relatively stable from 1933 until 1971, at slightly less than 90%. This proportion dropped to 80% in 1976, then slowly declined to 73% in 2001. This gradual fall occurred against a backdrop of change in social values and attitudes, particularly since the late 1960s, and an increased secularisation of society in the last three decades of the 20th century. It was accompanied by a rising tendency among all Australians to state that they did not affiliate with any religion — particularly evident since the 1970s (7% in 1971 and 16% in 2001).

### Concepts and data collection

*Religious affiliation* is the set of religious beliefs and practices to which a person adheres or the religious group to which a person belongs.

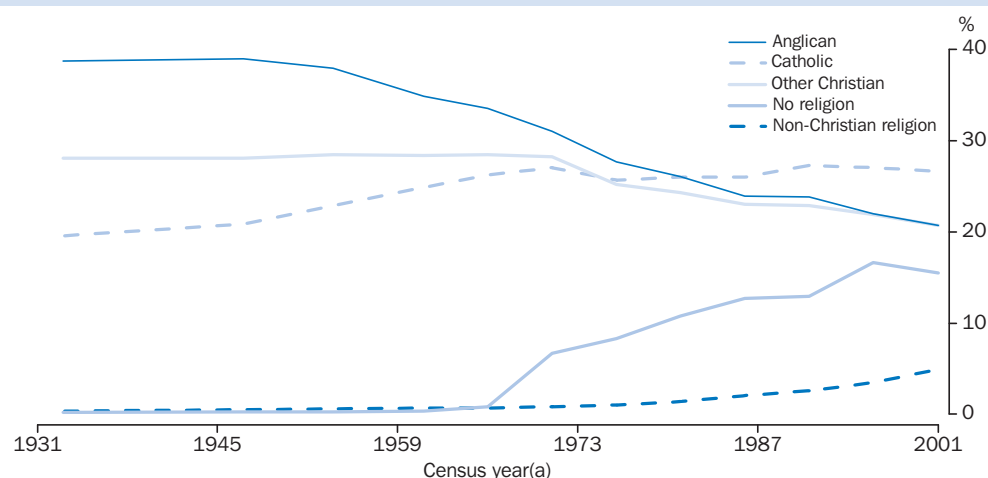
Religious affiliation data presented in this article were collected in various Censuses of Population and Housing, the most recent of which was conducted in 2001. In each census, the religious affiliation of a proportion of the population is not known if the question was not answered or the description was inadequate on the census form. This proportion has varied from census to census, and this variation needs to be taken into account when comparing census religious affiliation data. From a peak of 13% in 1933, the proportion has been as low as 6% in 1971, and as high as 12% in 1986 and 2001.

In this article, affiliates to any given religion represent people whose affiliation to that religion was adequately reported on the census form, and is likely to be less than the actual number of affiliates. In addition to varying from census to census, the extent of undercounting may be greater for some religious groups (including people with no religion) than others.

*Religious organisations* administer religious services and rituals or promote religious beliefs as their primary focus.

Data presented in this article on participation in church or religious activities are from the ABS 2002 General Social Survey, conducted between March and July and are limited to people aged 18 years and over. Data on unpaid voluntary work have also been sourced from this survey, as well as from the ABS 2000 Survey of Voluntary Work.

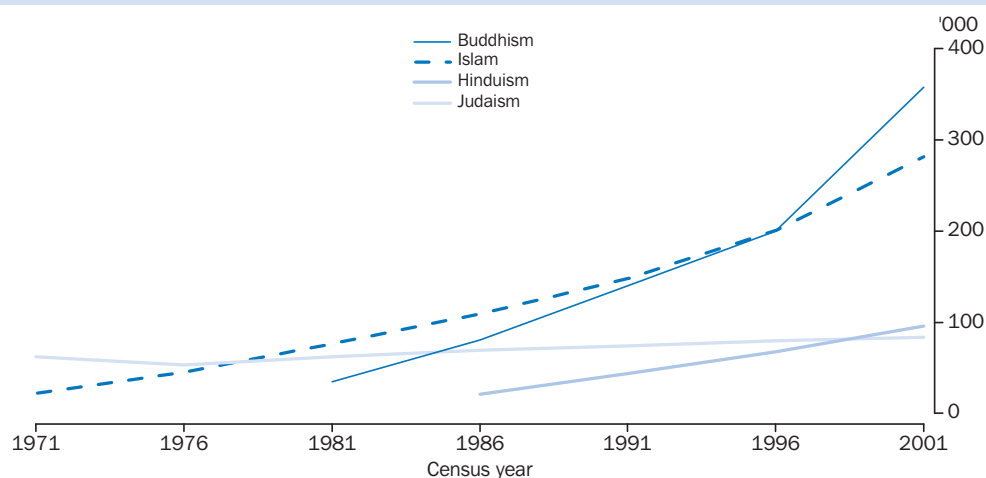
### Religious affiliation of Australians of all ages



(a) Censuses were conducted in 1933, 1947, 1954, 1961, and subsequently at five-yearly intervals to 2001.

Source: *Year Book Australia* 2003 (ABS cat. no. 1301.0).

### Affiliation of Australians of all ages to major non-Christian religions



Source: ABS 1971–2001 Censuses of Population and Housing.

Showing a similar pattern of stability followed by change, the distribution of affiliation across religions and Christian denominations remained relatively stable during the 1930s and early 1940s, but began to change considerably following the end of the second world war. In particular, migration from continental Europe gradually increased the proportion of all Australians affiliating with Catholicism. More recently, immigration from Asia and the Middle East helped increase the proportion of all Australians affiliating with a non-Christian religion.

Between 1971 and 2001, the proportion of all Australians affiliating with Christianity fell from 86% to 68%, while those affiliating with a non-Christian religion increased from 1% to 5%. Some non-Christian religions grew more rapidly than others over this period. Whereas the number of Australians of all ages affiliating with Judaism increased modestly between 1971 and 2001, affiliation with Buddhism, Islam and Hinduism increased more markedly.

#### Factors influencing change

Growth in the numbers and proportions of Australians of all ages affiliating with Buddhism, Islam and Hinduism are largely due to changes in the countries of origin of recent immigrants (see *Australian Social Trends 2001*, Coming to Australia, pp. 16–20). Of all people affiliating with Hinduism in 2001, 82% had been born overseas, with 34% born in India and 11% in Sri Lanka. Similarly, nearly three-quarters of all those affiliating with Buddhism had been born overseas — 26% in Viet Nam and 8% in China. Of Australians of all ages affiliating

with Islam in 2001, 62% were overseas born, with almost 11% born in Lebanon and 9% in Turkey.

Partnering and parenting patterns are also likely to have contributed to the increase in affiliation to Islam in Australia between 1971 (22,300) and 2001 (281,600). Based on ABS 2001 Census data, recently arrived overseas born Muslims were slightly younger when they migrated to Australia than were other immigrants, and Australian Muslims in general marry at a relatively young age and have a relatively high fertility rate.<sup>1</sup>

There was a clear increase in an affiliation to Buddhism, particularly between 1996 (199,800) and 2001 (357,800). This may be due in part to the globalisation of religious ideas and practices.<sup>2</sup>

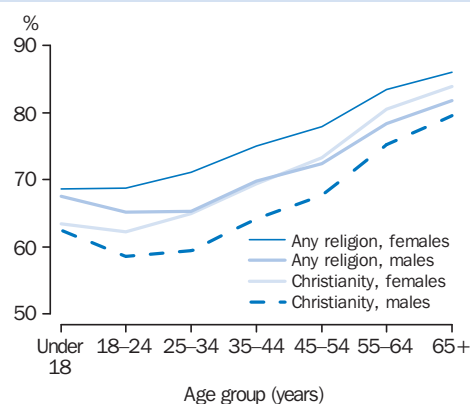
#### Demographic differences

In 2001, 74% of Australian adults (i.e. aged 18 years or over) affiliated with a religion, and 70% affiliated with Christianity. However, these rates of affiliation varied between men and women, and between age groups. Women were more likely to affiliate with a religion (and with Christianity) than were men of the same age group, although with increased age both men and women were more likely to affiliate with a religion (and with Christianity).

Among young adults aged 18–24 years, 69% of women affiliated with a religion (62% with Christianity) compared with 65% of men (59% with Christianity). Affiliation rates among older Australians aged 65 years and over were all higher than this. Of older women, 86% affiliated with a religion (84% with Christianity), while 82% of older men



### Age/sex affiliation rates — 2001



Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

affiliated with a religion (80% with Christianity). This increase with age may be due partly to personal change associated with growing older, and partly to generational change.<sup>3</sup>

Also in 2001, 68% of males aged less than 18 years were reported as affiliating with a religion (62% with Christianity). Rates were only slightly higher among females aged less than 18 years, of whom 69% were reported to affiliate with a religion and 63% with Christianity.

### Participation in religious activities

According to the ABS 2002 General Social Survey, 23% of Australian adults participated in church or religious activities during the three months prior to interview. In keeping with being more likely to affiliate with a religion, women (26%) were more likely than men (20%) to have participated in church or religious activities. This pattern was evident among all age groups.

As with religious affiliation, participation in church or religious activities tended to increase with age. Among 18–24 year olds, 23% of women and 16% of men had participated in church or religious activities. Rates for people aged 65 years and over were higher at 29% for women and 24% for men.

### Voluntary work

Some religions encourage adherents to be charitable to those in need. Thus, having a particular religious affiliation may predispose a person to do unpaid voluntary work. In 2000, while 18% of volunteers cited a desire for social contact as a reason for volunteering, 12% of volunteers were motivated to volunteer by religious belief.<sup>4</sup>

Of the 23% of Australian adults who had participated in church or religious activities within the three months prior to interview in 2002, just over a half (52%) had also done unpaid voluntary work for an organisation within the previous 12 months. In comparison, less than a third (29%) of adults who had not participated in church or religious activities had done such voluntary work.

There was a clear difference in the likelihood of having done unpaid voluntary work for a religious organisation between adults who had participated in church or religious activities and those who had not. Of those who had participated in church or religious activities, 30% had also done some unpaid voluntary work for a religious organisation

### Time spent on religious activity and ritual ceremony

The activity classification category 'Religious activities/ritual ceremonies' used in ABS Time Use Surveys encompassed a range of activities. These included prayer, religious meditation, studying religious text, missionary work, visiting a burial site, worshipping at a sacred place, and going to a wedding, funeral or other religious initiation, coming of age or rite of passage ceremony.<sup>5</sup>

According to the Time Use Survey, on an average day in 1997 only a small proportion of Australians aged 15 years and over (4% of males and 6% of females) spent time on a religious activity or ritual ceremony as a main activity.<sup>6</sup> Among those who spent time in this way (either as a main or simultaneous activity), the amount of time spent on an average day by males and females was 103 minutes and 85 minutes respectively. In 1992, a very similar proportion of Australians spent some time on a religious activity or ritual ceremony as a main activity.<sup>6</sup> However, those who did so in 1992, spent more time on average than those who did so in 1997 (105 minutes compared with 92 minutes per person per day). This was true for both males and females.

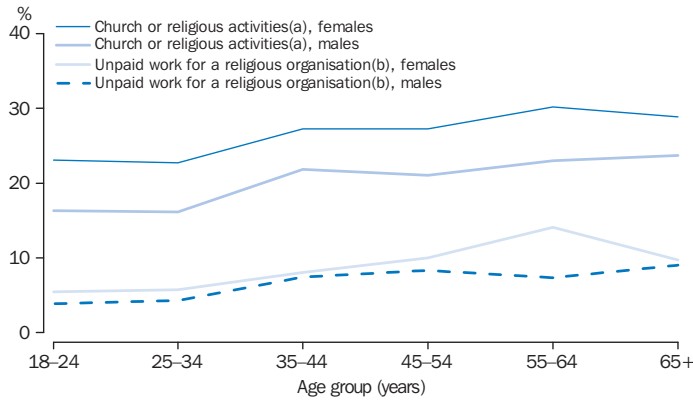
### Average amount of time spent(a) on religious activity or ritual ceremony

	1992 average minutes per day	1997 average minutes per day
Males	125	103
Females	91	85
<b>Persons</b>	<b>105</b>	<b>92</b>

(a) By people aged 15 years and over who participated in religious activity or ritual ceremony during the survey reference period.

Source: *How Australians Use Their Time, 1997* (ABS cat. no. 4153.0).

**Rate of participation in church or religious activities and unpaid voluntary work for a religious organisation — 2002**



(a) Participated in church or religious activities within the previous three months.  
 (b) Did unpaid voluntary work for a religious organisation within the previous 12 months.

Source: ABS 2002 General Social Survey.

within the 12 months prior to interview, compared with just 1% of those who had not participated in church or religious activities.

Overall, older people were more likely than younger people, and women more likely than men, to have done unpaid work for a religious organisation. However, differences between age groups and the sexes were small.

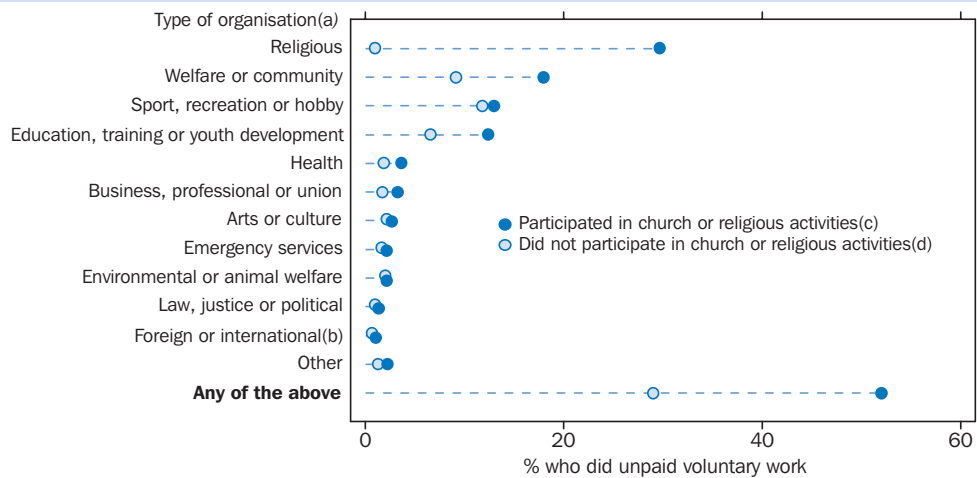
In addition to religious organisations, there are many other types of organisations for which people volunteer to perform unpaid work (see *Australian Social Trends 2002*, Voluntary work, pp. 146–150). In 2002, adults

who had participated in church or religious activities within the three months prior to interview were more likely to have volunteered for a welfare or community organisation (18% compared with 9% of those who had not participated in church or religious activities), and for an organisation concerned with education, training or youth development (12% compared with 7%). However, there was little difference between the rates of volunteering for an emergency services organisation (both 2%), an environmental or animal welfare organisation (also both 2%), a law, justice or political organisation (both 1%), and a foreign or international organisation in Australia (again both 1%).

**Endnotes**

- 1 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2001, *Births, Australia, 2000*, cat. no. 3301.0, ABS, Canberra.
- 2 Bouma, G, 'Globalization and recent changes in the demography of Australian religious groups: 1947 to 2001', *People and Place*, vol. 10, no. 4, 2002, pp. 17–23.
- 3 Bouma, G and Hughes, P, 'Religion and age in Australia' in *People and Place*, Vol. 6, No. 1, 1998, pp. 18–25.
- 4 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2001, *Voluntary Work, Australia, 2000*, cat. no. 4441.0, ABS, Canberra.
- 5 Australian Bureau of Statistics 1998, *Time Use Survey, Australia – Users' Guide, 1997*, cat. no. 4150.0, ABS, Canberra.
- 6 Australian Bureau of Statistics 1998, *How Australians Use Their Time, 1997*, cat. no. 4153.0, ABS, Canberra.

**Unpaid voluntary work, by religious participation of worker — 2002**



(a) For which unpaid voluntary work has been done within the previous 12 months.  
 (b) Excluding work done overseas.  
 (c) Adults who participated in church or religious activities within the previous three months.  
 (d) Adults who had not participated in church or religious activities within the previous three months.

Source: ABS 2002 General Social Survey.

# Women in prison

## CRIME AND JUSTICE

**Between 1995 and 2002, there was a 60% increase in the imprisonment rate for women in Australia, in contrast to a 15% increase in the rate for men.**

In Australia and elsewhere, the prison population is made up predominantly of men. In June 2002, 93% of the 22,492 prisoners counted in the National Prisoner Census were men: there were only 1,484 women in prison in Australia. However, while women comprised only 6.6% of prisoners, this represented a considerable increase over 1995, when 835 women made up 4.8% of all prisoners at 30 June. As well as increasing in number, the composition of women in prison has changed, so that those charged with or convicted of more serious offences, such as robbery, make up a larger group. As these trends do not reflect changes in crime and justice policy specifically aimed at women, there has been research and debate about their causes. These changes have also impacted on policy regarding the use of imprisonment, and on the planning of corrective services.

Planning of corrective services involves consideration of the backgrounds of women offenders, their offences, and the outcomes of imprisonment or its alternatives. Both male and female prisoners appear to often come from backgrounds of multiple disadvantage. In 2003, women prisoners were described as often experiencing 'multiple social and economic disadvantages pre and post release, through a constellation of low education, limited employment skills and opportunities, inadequate housing, insufficient income and difficulties establishing social networks'.<sup>1</sup> Women in prison appear to be a high-need

### Prisoners in Australia

The National Prisoner Census at 30 June covers all adults in gazetted Australian prisons. It is based on data extracted from administrative records held by corrective services agencies in each Australian state and territory. The Prisoner Census provides a picture of the persons in prison at one point in time, and does not describe the flow of prisoners during the year. The majority of prisoners in the census are serving long-term sentences for serious offences, whereas the flow of offenders in and out of prisons consists primarily of persons serving short sentences for lesser offences. Information drawn from the National Prisoner Censuses is published in *Prisoners in Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4517.0).

A *prisoner* is a person held in custody, whose confinement is the responsibility of a corrective services agency. Persons in juvenile detention institutions or immigration custody are not included. In Victoria and Queensland *prisoners* include persons aged 17 years; elsewhere in Australia persons under 18 years are treated as juveniles and would not normally be confined in an adult prison. For full details on exclusions and inclusions see *Prisoners in Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4517.0).

*Imprisonment rate* is the number of prisoners on 30 June per 100,000 estimated resident population at 30 June aged 17 years or over.

The *Australia Standard Offence Classification (ASOC), 1997* (ABS cat. no. 1234.0) groups offences set out in state and territory legislation so that national statistics can be compiled and state and territory data compared. For most offences, data from 1995 onwards have been coded to ASOC. For some offences this was not possible and the data series is from 1996 onwards.

### Prisoners in Australia at 30 June

	no.	%	Imprisonment rate(a)
<b>Males</b>			
1995	16 593	95.2	245.9
2002	21 008	93.4	282.4
<b>Females</b>			
1995	835	4.8	12.0
2002	1 484	6.6	19.2
<b>Persons</b>			
1995	17 428	100.0	127.3
2002	22 492	100.0	148.3

(a) Per 100,000 estimated resident population aged 17 years and over.

Source: *Prisoners in Australia, 2002* (ABS cat. no. 4517.0) and ABS 1995 National Prisoner Census.

group, with many having poor physical and mental health. Many women in prison have children and some are pregnant. The effects of parents' imprisonment on children is a subject of concern. So too is the effect on prisoners of being separated from their children.

### Trends in women's imprisonment

The imprisonment rate for women increased by 60% between 1995 and 2002, in contrast to an increase of 15% in the imprisonment rate for men. The imprisonment rate for women increased faster than that for men in each state and territory, although there were differences in the timing and the extent of the increases. Among the larger states, Queensland and Victoria recorded the largest proportional increases in the imprisonment rate for women.

In addition to adult prisoners, there were also 54 young females in juvenile detention in Australia in 2002, making up 10% of all those in juvenile detention. Their number had also increased in recent years, up from a low of 36 (6% of those in juvenile detention) reached in 1992. This increase followed a long period during which females decreased in number and as a proportion of all those in juvenile detention. In 1981 there were 233 young females in juvenile detention, 17% of the total.<sup>2</sup>

**...legal status**

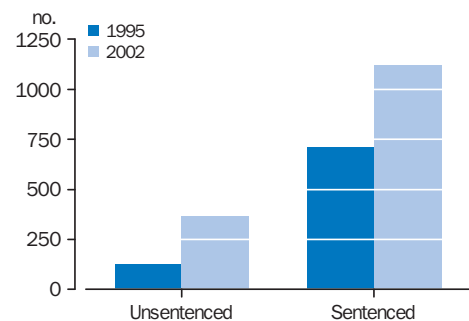
Prisoners on remand awaiting trial or sentencing represent 25% of women in prison. The number of unsentenced people in prison more than doubled between 1995 and 2002, and the increase was higher for women than men. The number of unsentenced women increased by 189% (from 126 to 364) while the number of unsentenced men increased by 116%.

There was a lesser but still substantial proportional increase in the number of sentenced women in prison (58%) from 709 to 1,120. This was almost four times the increase of 15% for men.

**...nature of offences**

The number of sentenced women increased across several offence groups between 1995 and 2002, with the largest increases recorded for women whose most serious offences were robbery (172%), theft (95%), assault (79%) and homicide (70%). In contrast, the number of women whose most serious offence was deception was 19% lower in 2002 than in 1996.

**Legal status of women in prison**



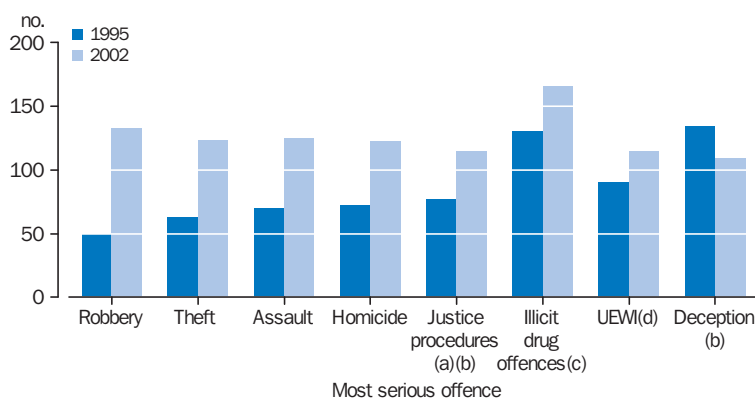
Source: *Prisoners in Australia, 2002* (ABS cat. no. 4517.0) and ABS 1995 National Prisoner Census.

As a result of these changes, women convicted of some of the more serious offences made up a larger proportion of sentenced women in prison in 2002. Those with a most serious offence of robbery, theft or assault rose from one-quarter of sentenced women in prison in 1995 to one-third in 2002. In contrast, between the mid 1990s and 2002, those with a most serious offence of deception decreased from 16% to 10% of sentenced women in prison, and those with a most serious offence of unlawful entry with intent decreased from 13% to 10%.

**...length of sentence**

Consistent with the increase in more serious offences between 1995 and 2002, the median aggregate sentence length for women increased by almost a third (from 18 months to 24 months). This contrasted with a 10% increase in the median aggregate sentence length for men. Most of the increase for females occurred early in the period, between 1995 and 1997.

**Sentenced women in prison by selected most serious offences**



(a) Offences against justice procedures, government security and government operations.  
 (b) Data are for 1996.  
 (c) Includes offences of possessing, manufacturing, cultivating, dealing or trafficking drugs.  
 (d) Unlawful entry with intent (UEWI) (includes burglary, break and enter and like offences).

Source: *Prisoners in Australia, 2002* (ABS cat. no. 4517.0); ABS 1995 National Prisoner Census.

**...why?**

As there are many steps from a person's actions to their imprisonment, the number of people in prison can be influenced by changes in a number of areas: criminal behaviour, legislation, policing, prosecution, conviction, sentencing and availability of appropriate correctional facilities. On this basis, it is difficult to definitively identify causes. The conclusion of a New South Wales Select Committee inquiry (2001) was that most likely a matrix of factors was increasing the women's imprisonment rate in that state.<sup>3</sup> Both the flow of women into prison in New South Wales, and the median time they spent there, had increased. Possible causes included a shift in women's offending behaviour towards robbery, and to a lesser extent towards other crimes such as assault, with

increased heroin use suggested as influencing increases in these crimes. Factors identified as increasing the total prison population (who are mostly men) were changes in legislation and practice which made it more difficult to

obtain bail, and which had abolished remission; and changes in police practice towards 'targeted policing' which were bringing a greater volume of people before the courts. However, it was not clear if and why these general changes were having a greater effect on the number of women in prison than men.

### International comparison



Women make up from 3% to 7% of prison populations in most countries for which relatively recent information is available.<sup>4,5</sup> The main exceptions are some Asian countries, for example Thailand, in which women made up 18% of prisoners in 2001.<sup>5</sup> Countries with a similar cultural background and history to Australia are of particular interest. The 7% of prisoners in Australia in 2002 who were women was comparable to the proportion in recent years in the United States of America (7%) and slightly higher than in England and Wales (6%), New Zealand (5%) or Canada (5%). In New Zealand, the United States of America and England and Wales the female prison population has increased faster than the male prison population since 1995. In England and Wales the increase has been attributed to an increased number of women coming before the magistrates courts (which deal with less serious offences) combined with an increased use of custodial sentences by both Crown and magistrates courts (i.e. for both serious and less serious offences).<sup>6</sup>

### Prisoners(a)

Country	Women as a proportion of all prisoners %	Average annual growth rate since 1995	
		Male %	Female %
Canada	5.0	n.a.	n.a.
New Zealand	5.2	3.7	8.6
England and Wales	5.6	3.1	11.2
United States of America	6.8	3.5	5.2
<b>Australia</b>	<b>6.6</b>	<b>3.4</b>	<b>8.6</b>

(a) Data are for latest year available: Canada 2001; New Zealand 2003; England and Wales 2001; United States of America 2002; Australia 2002.

Source: Australian Institute of Criminology 2001, *Correctional statistics for Asia and the Pacific 2001* <<http://www.aic.gov.au/stat/apcca/2001/>>; New Zealand Department of Corrections 2003, *Annual report 2002/03* <<http://www.corrections.govt.nz/public/pdf/annualreport2003partA.pdf>>; New Zealand Department of Corrections 2003, *Census of Prison Inmates and Home Detainees 2001* <<http://www.corrections.govt.nz/public/pdf/research/census/census2001.pdf>>; Home Office 2003, *Statistics on Women and the Criminal Justice System 2002* <<http://www.homeoffice.gov.uk/rds/pdfs2/s95women02.pdf>>; United States Department of Justice 2003, *Prisoners in 2002* (Bureau of Justice Statistics Bulletin) <<http://www.ojp.usdoj.gov/bjs/pub/pdf/po2.pdf>>, all accessed November 2003.

### Profile of women in prison

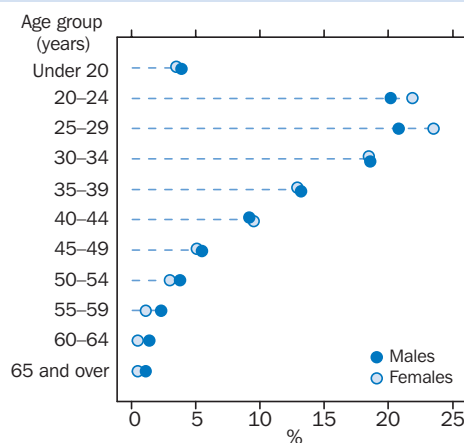
#### ...demographic characteristics

Women in prison tend to be relatively young: 45% were aged 20–29 years and 67% were aged 18–35 years at 30 June 2002. This pattern is similar to that for men and is thought to reflect the age groups at which people are more likely to be involved in crime. This age distribution means that many women in prison have dependent children at the time of entering prison: around 60% of women in prison had children aged less than 16 years according to recent state surveys.

Between 1995 and 2002, the number of Indigenous women prisoners increased by 124%, from 164 to 367. One in four women in prison in 2002 were Indigenous, up from one in five in 1995. Indigenous men made up 20% of male prisoners in 2002 and 17% in 1995. Based on their representation in the population, in 2002 Indigenous women were almost 20 times more likely to be imprisoned than were non-Indigenous women. This ratio was higher than for Indigenous men who were 16 times more likely to be imprisoned than were non-Indigenous men.

Most women prisoners were born in Australia (73%). Being in prison in Australia may have specific difficulties for those born in other

### Age distribution of prisoners in Australia, by sex — 2002



Source: *Prisoners in Australia, 2002* (ABS cat. no. 4517.0).

countries, especially where there are language and cultural differences from Australian-born women. About 7% of women in prison were born in either the United Kingdom, Ireland, New Zealand or the United States of America, countries which are mainly English speaking. The remainder were distributed in mostly very small numbers across a wide variety of birthplaces, with Viet Nam the most common (2% of total).

### ...health and wellbeing

Women prisoners are a high-need group compared with women in the general community, according to surveys of women prisoners' health conducted by several state government agencies. Mental health and substance abuse were prominent problems among women prisoners in New South Wales, Queensland and Western Australia. More than half of women prisoners (ranging from 51% to 57%) reported that they had been diagnosed with a mental health condition, most commonly depression. From 30% to 40% of women prisoners reported that they had attempted suicide at some stage. Most attempts had taken place in the community rather than in prison.

Detailed results from the New South Wales survey in 2001 also indicated that the self-reported prevalence of mental disorders (psychosis, anxiety and affective disorders) during the previous 12 months was very high and significantly higher than among women in the general community, as was the prevalence of substance abuse disorders and personality disorders. The survey results indicated that 90% of women and 78% of men in New South Wales prisons had at least one of these mental disorders in the 12 months prior to interview.

The proportion of women prisoners who have a history of regular use of illicit drugs is high according to the state surveys. For example, 63% of women in prison in Queensland had regularly used illicit drugs in the 12 months prior to imprisonment with the most commonly used drugs being cannabis (36%), amphetamines/speed (35%) and opiates (33%). Further, more than half (56%) had injected illicit drugs at some stage in their lives (thus risking infection). Over a third (37%) had sought treatment for substance use (including alcohol use).

Consistent with the high proportion of prisoners who had injected illicit drugs, very high proportions of women in prison tested positive to some infectious diseases when

### State surveys of prisoners' health

Surveys of prisoners' health were conducted in New South Wales in 1996 and 2001,<sup>7,8</sup> in Western Australia in 2001,<sup>9</sup> and in Queensland in 2002.<sup>10</sup> The surveys were mainly based on interviews with prisoners and the data are thus mostly self-reported. All surveys included a basic physical examination with/without a blood test. In addition, the 2001 New South Wales survey administered a diagnostic mental health questionnaire which identified mental disorders by asking about behavioural and emotional symptoms during the 12 months prior to interview.

The key statistics on women prisoners' health presented in this article are significantly higher than rates reported in national surveys such as the Survey of Mental Health and Wellbeing (1997) and the 2001 National Health Survey (both conducted by the Australian Bureau of Statistics) or the 2001 National Drug Strategy Household Survey (conducted by the Australian Institute of Health and Welfare).

screened through blood testing in the state surveys. For example, 45% tested positive to exposure to hepatitis C in the Queensland survey and 64% in the New South Wales survey.

While mental health conditions, often in conjunction with substance use, create particular challenges for corrective health services, the physical health of women in prison was also poor on a range of measures. For example, higher proportions of women prisoners in the state surveys reported that they had a chronic physical condition than did women in the general community. The most common of these was asthma, which was from two to four times more prevalent than in the total population (44% of women in prison in New South Wales, 36% in Queensland and 21% in Western Australia reported that they had been diagnosed with asthma).

### Prisons

As women are a small minority among prisoners, logistic problems tend to limit the range of facilities and programs that are available to them. Most obviously, the small number of women prisoners means that there is not the same network of prisons as is the case for men. As a consequence, women may have to serve their sentences at a greater distance from their home area than do men. There are also a greater variety of custodial options for men. In most states and territories it is possible to have some prisons dedicated to prisoners of specific security levels but this

is not as practicable for women's prisons. For example, the Emu Plains Women's Prison in New South Wales (established 1994) and the Nyandi annex of Bandyup Women's Prison in Western Australia (established 1998) were the first women's prisons exclusively for minimum security prisoners in those states.

In addressing the specific needs of women prisoners, some states have moved to enabling a very small number of women in prison to have their infants or young children live with them in special facilities within prison. For reasons of child welfare as well as other considerations, these facilities are intended for exceptional circumstances. Further, the style of accommodation in certain prisons has at times been adapted to cottage style units for small groups of women, thought better suited to women's behavioural style.

The care of mentally ill prisoners is an area of concern in corrective services systems. In Tasmania, a Secure Mental Health Unit is expected to be in place by 2005, to be owned and operated by the Tasmanian Department of Health and Human Services. It will provide secure care and a therapeutic environment for mentally ill prisoners of both sexes, whether on remand, sentenced or found not guilty by reason of insanity. This initiative is noteworthy because the Unit will be independent of the prison system.

## Endnotes

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- 2 Bareja, M and Charlton, K 2003, *Statistics on Juvenile Detention in Australia: 1981–2002*, Technical and Background Paper Series, no. 5, Australian Institute of Criminology, Canberra.
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- 9 Western Australian Department of Justice 2002, *Profile of Women in Prison* <[http://www.justice.wa.gov.au/content/files/profile\\_of\\_women\\_in\\_prison.pdf](http://www.justice.wa.gov.au/content/files/profile_of_women_in_prison.pdf)>, accessed 4 March 2004.
- 10 Hockings, BA et al. 2002, *Queensland Women Prisoners' Health Survey*, Department of Corrective Services, Brisbane.







	<b>Page</b>
<b>Population</b> .....	<b>192</b>

Population composition; population growth; population projections.

<b>Health</b> .....	<b>195</b>
---------------------	------------

Life expectancy; health services and expenditure.

<b>Education</b> .....	<b>197</b>
------------------------	------------

Educational attainment; educational participation and expenditure;  
student performance; unemployment rates and educational attainment.

<b>Work</b> .....	<b>201</b>
-------------------	------------

Labour force; employment and unemployment.

## **Caution**

Statistics presented in this chapter have been reproduced from international statistical compendia. National statistical systems differ from country to country and therefore caution should be exercised when comparing international data. Details of national differences can be found in the country specific notes in the source publications.

**Population composition(a)**

Country	Reference year(b)	Total population '000	Reference year(c)	0-14 years %	15-59 years %	60 years and over %	Total population '000
<b>Australia</b>	<b>2003</b>	<b>19 731</b>	<b>2000</b>	<b>21</b>	<b>63</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>19 153</b>
Canada	2003	31 510	2000	19	64	17	30 769
China (excludes SARs and Taiwan Province)	2003	1 304 196	2000	25	65	10	1 275 215
France	2003	60 144	2000	19	61	21	59 296
Greece	2003	10 976	2000	15	62	23	10 903
Hong Kong (SAR of China)	2003	7 049	2000	17	69	14	6 807
Indonesia	2003	219 883	2000	31	62	8	211 559
Italy	2003	57 423	2000	14	62	24	57 536
Japan	2003	127 654	2000	15	62	23	127 034
Korea (Republic of)	2003	47 700	2000	21	68	11	46 835
Malaysia	2003	24 425	2000	34	60	7	23 001
New Zealand	2003	3 875	2000	23	61	16	3 784
Papua New Guinea	2003	5 711	2000	42	54	4	5 334
Singapore	2003	4 253	2000	22	68	11	4 016
Sweden	2003	8 876	2000	18	59	22	8 856
United Kingdom	2003	59 251	2000	19	60	21	58 689
United States of America	2003	294 043	2000	22	62	16	285 003
Viet Nam	2003	81 377	2000	33	59	8	78 137

(a) Medium variant projection.

(b) For total population.

(c) For population by age.

Source: United Nations 2003, *World Population Prospects: The 2002 Revision* <<http://www.un.org/esa/population/publications/wpp2002>>, accessed 15 April 2003.



### Population growth(a)

Country	Reference year	Annual average growth rate %	Crude birth rate(b) rate	Crude death rate(b) rate	Total fertility rate rate
<b>Australia</b>	<b>2000–2005</b>	<b>1.0</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>1.7</b>
Canada	2000–2005	0.8	10	8	1.5
China (excludes SARs and Taiwan Province)	2000–2005	0.7	15	7	1.8
France	2000–2005	0.5	13	9	1.9
Greece	2000–2005	0.1	9	11	1.3
Hong Kong (SAR of China)	2000–2005	1.1	9	6	1.0
Indonesia	2000–2005	1.3	21	7	2.4
Italy	2000–2005	-0.1	9	11	1.2
Japan	2000–2005	0.1	9	8	1.3
Korea (Republic of)	2000–2005	0.6	12	6	1.4
Malaysia	2000–2005	1.9	23	5	2.9
New Zealand	2000–2005	0.8	14	8	2.0
Papua New Guinea	2000–2005	2.2	32	9	4.1
Singapore	2000–2005	1.7	10	5	1.4
Sweden	2000–2005	0.1	10	11	1.6
United Kingdom	2000–2005	0.3	11	10	1.6
United States of America	2000–2005	1.0	15	8	2.1
Viet Nam	2000–2005	1.4	20	6	2.3

(a) Medium variant projection.

(b) Per 1,000 population.

Source: United Nations 2003, *World Population Prospects: The 2002 Revision* <<http://www.un.org/esa/population/publications/wpp2002>>, accessed 15 April 2003; Population Division of the Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the United Nations Secretariat, *World Population Prospects: The 2002 Revision and World Urbanization Prospects: The 2001 Revision*, <<http://www.esa.un.org/unpp>>, accessed 23 April 2003.



**Population projections(a)**

Country	Population			Median age			0–14 years			65 years and over		
	2005 million	2020 million	2050 million	2005 years	2020 years	2050 years	2005 %	2020 %	2050 %	2005 %	2020 %	2050 %
<b>Australia(b)</b>	<b>20.1</b>	<b>22.5</b>	<b>25.6</b>	<b>36.5</b>	<b>40.1</b>	<b>43.7</b>	<b>19.4</b>	<b>16.9</b>	<b>16.3</b>	<b>12.8</b>	<b>17.3</b>	<b>23.9</b>
Canada	32.0	35.2	39.1	38.9	43.0	45.8	17.3	14.7	15.4	13.2	18.7	25.7
China (excludes SARs and Taiwan Province)	1 322.3	1 429.5	1 395.2	32.4	37.4	43.8	21.8	18.8	16.1	7.5	11.7	22.9
France	60.7	63.6	64.2	38.9	42.2	45.1	18.4	17.2	15.9	16.3	20.3	26.4
Greece	11.0	10.8	9.8	40.8	46.3	51.3	14.3	12.7	13.6	19.0	22.3	33.2
Hong Kong (SAR of China)	7.2	8.2	9.4	38.6	44.5	48.5	14.6	12.9	14.5	11.4	16.4	29.6
Indonesia	225.3	261.1	293.8	26.2	31.3	39.9	28.7	23.8	18.0	5.5	7.1	16.9
Italy	57.3	54.3	44.9	42.2	48.5	52.4	13.9	11.7	13.0	19.6	23.7	34.4
Japan	127.9	125.6	109.7	42.8	48.2	53.2	14.0	12.4	13.0	19.7	28.1	36.5
Korea (Republic of)	48.2	50.0	46.4	34.4	42.1	50.2	19.4	14.5	13.8	8.8	14.0	30.5
Malaysia	25.3	31.6	39.6	24.8	29.2	38.3	32.3	25.5	18.4	4.6	7.4	15.7
New Zealand	3.9	4.3	4.5	36.0	39.2	43.7	21.8	18.6	16.3	12.1	16.3	22.9
Papua New Guinea	6.0	7.8	11.1	19.7	23.9	32.8	40.3	31.7	22.3	2.5	3.3	8.8
Singapore	4.4	4.8	4.5	37.5	45.5	52.0	19.6	12.2	12.6	8.4	17.4	30.5
Sweden	8.9	9.0	8.7	41.0	44.3	46.3	17.0	16.0	15.2	17.7	22.7	27.0
United Kingdom	59.6	62.3	66.2	38.8	41.4	43.8	17.9	15.9	16.1	15.9	18.6	23.3
United States of America	300.0	344.3	408.7	35.9	37.0	39.7	21.2	20.0	17.9	12.3	15.9	20.0
Viet Nam	83.6	100.1	117.7	24.9	30.9	40.4	29.4	24.3	17.8	5.4	6.6	18.0

(a) Medium variant projection.

(b) United Nations projections for Australia may not agree with ABS projections owing to differences in assumptions and methodology.

Source: Population Division of the Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the United Nations Secretariat, *World Population Prospects: The 2002 Revision and World Urbanization Prospects: The 2001 Revision* <<http://www.esa.un.org/unpp>>, accessed 23 April 2003.



## Life expectancy

Country	Reference year	Infant mortality rate(a)(b) rate	Life expectancy at birth(b)		Reference year	Healthy life expectancy at birth(c)	
			Males years	Females years		Males years	Females years
<b>Australia</b>	<b>2000–2005</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>76.4</b>	<b>82</b>	<b>2002</b>	70.9	74.3
Canada	2000–2005	5	76.7	81.9	2002	70.1	74.0
China (excludes SARs and Taiwan Province)	2000–2005	37	68.9	73.3	2002	63.1	65.2
France	2000–2005	5	75.2	82.8	2002	69.3	74.7
Greece	2000–2005	6	75.7	80.9	2002	69.1	72.9
Hong Kong (SAR of China)	2000–2005	4	77.3	82.8	..	n.a.	n.a.
Indonesia	2000–2005	42	64.8	68.8	2002	57.4	58.9
Italy	2000–2005	5	75.5	81.9	2002	70.7	74.7
Japan	2000–2005	3	77.9	85.1	2002	72.3	77.7
Korea (Republic of)	2000–2005	5	71.8	79.3	2002	64.8	70.8
Malaysia	2000–2005	10	70.8	75.7	2002	61.6	64.8
New Zealand	2000–2005	6	75.8	80.7	2002	69.5	72.2
Papua New Guinea	2000–2005	62	56.8	58.7	2002	51.4	52.4
Singapore	2000–2005	3	75.9	80.3	2002	68.8	71.3
Sweden	2000–2005	3	77.6	82.6	2002	71.9	74.8
United Kingdom	2000–2005	5	75.7	80.7	2002	69.1	72.1
United States of America	2000–2005	7	74.3	79.9	2002	67.2	71.3
Viet Nam	2000–2005	34	66.9	71.6	2002	59.8	62.9

(a) Per 1,000 live births.

(b) Medium variant projection.

(c) Healthy life expectancy at birth summarises the expected number of years to be lived in what might be termed the equivalent years of 'full health'.

Source: Population Division of the Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the United Nations, Secretariat *World Population Prospects: The 2002 Revision and World Population Prospects: The 2001 Revision* <<http://esa.un.org/unpp>>, accessed 7 April 2003; The World Health Organization, *The World Health Report 2003: Shaping the Future* <<http://www.who.int/whr/2003/en/Annex4-en.pdf>>, accessed 7 March 2004.



**Health services and expenditure**

Country	Reference year	Health expenditure as % of GDP	Health expenditure per capita at PPP(a) \$US '000	Reference year	Doctors per 1,000 population	Reference year	Acute hospital beds per 1,000 population
		%			no.		no.
<b>Australia</b>	<b>2001</b>	<b>9.2</b>	<b>2.5</b>	<b>2001</b>	<b>2.5</b>	<b>2000</b>	<b>3.8</b>
Canada	2001	9.5	2.8	2001	2.1	2000	3.2
China (excludes SARs and Taiwan Province)	2001	5.5	0.2	..	n.a.	..	n.a.
France	2001	9.6	2.6	2001	3.3	2000	4.2
Greece	2001	9.4	1.5	2001	4.4	2000	4.0
Hong Kong (SAR of China)	..	n.a.	n.a.	..	n.a.	..	n.a.
Indonesia	2001	2.4	0.1	..	n.a.	..	n.a.
Italy	2001	8.4	2.2	2001	4.3	2001	4.3
Japan	2001	8.0	2.1	2000	1.9	..	n.a.
Korea (Republic of)	2001	6.0	0.9	2000	1.3	2000	5.2
Malaysia	2001	3.8	0.3	..	n.a.	..	n.a.
New Zealand	2001	8.3	1.7	2000	2.2	1991	7.0
Papua New Guinea	2001	4.4	0.1	..	n.a.	..	n.a.
Singapore	2001	3.9	1.0	..	n.a.	..	n.a.
Sweden	2001	8.7	2.3	2001	3.0	2000	2.4
United Kingdom	2001	7.6	2.0	2001	2.0	2001	3.9
United States of America	2001	13.9	4.9	1999	r2.7	2001	2.9
Viet Nam	2001	5.1	0.1	..	n.a.	..	n.a.

(a) PPP (purchasing power parities) are the rates of currency conversion which eliminate the differences in price levels between countries.

Source: The World Health Organisation (WHO), *The World Health Report 2003: Shaping the Future*, <[www.who.int/whr/2003/en/Annex5-en.pdf](http://www.who.int/whr/2003/en/Annex5-en.pdf)>, accessed 4 February 2004; Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) 2002, *OECD Health Data 2002: A comparative analysis of 30 countries* <<http://www.oecd.org>>, accessed 4 April 2003.



### Distribution of persons aged 25–64 years by level of educational attainment

Country	Reference year	Below upper secondary education(a) %	Upper secondary education and post-secondary non-tertiary education(b) %	Tertiary type B education(c) %	Tertiary type A and advanced research programs(d) %	Total %
<b>Australia</b>	<b>2001</b>	<b>41</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>19</b>	<b>100</b>
Canada	2001	18	40	21	20	100
China (excludes SARs and Taiwan Province)	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	100
France	2001	36	41	11	12	100
Greece	2001	49	33	5	12	100
Hong Kong (SAR of China)	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	100
Indonesia	1999	77	18	2	3	100
Italy	2001	55	35	(e)	10	100
Japan	2001	17	49	15	19	100
Korea (Republic of)	2001	32	44	7	17	100
Malaysia	1998	65	27	—	8	100
New Zealand	2001	24	47	15	14	100
Papua New Guinea	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	100
Singapore	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	100
Sweden	2001	19	49	15	17	100
United Kingdom	2001	17	57	8	18	100
United States of America	2001	13	50	9	28	100
Viet Nam	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	100

(a) International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) levels 0, 1 and 2. For Australia this includes Preschool, Primary School and lower Secondary School levels as well as the Basic Vocational level.

(b) International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) levels 3 and 4. For Australia this includes Year 12 completion as well as the Skilled Vocational level.

(c) International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) level 5B. For Australia this includes Associate Diplomas and Undergraduate Diplomas.

(d) International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) levels 5A and 6. For Australia this includes Bachelor degree level or higher.

(e) Data are included in another column of the table.

Source: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) 2003, *Education at a Glance: OECD Indicators, 2003*, OECD, Paris.



**Educational participation(a) and expenditure**

Country	Reference year(b)	Enrolment rates by age group (years)				Reference year(b)	Total public expenditure as a proportion of GDP(c)	Total public and private expenditure as a proportion of GDP(d)
		15–19 %	20–29 %	30–39 %	40 and over %		%	%
<b>Australia</b>	<b>2000</b>	<b>81.8</b>	<b>28.2</b>	<b>14.9</b>	<b>7.1</b>	<b>1999</b>	<b>4.5</b>	<b>5.8</b>
Canada	2000	74.2	21.7	4.6	1.2	1999	5.3	6.6
China (excludes SARs and Taiwan Province)	2000	n.a.	n.a.	—	—	1999	2.0	3.7
France	2000	86.4	19.1	1.7	(e)	1999	5.8	6.2
Greece	2000	87.4	16.9	0.1	—	1999	3.6	3.9
Hong Kong (SAR of China)	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	..	n.a.	n.a.
Indonesia	2001	38.5	3.0	—	—	2000	0.8	1.2
Italy	2000	65.5	18.7	2.3	0.1	1999	4.4	4.8
Japan	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	1999	3.5	4.7
Korea (Republic of)	2000	78.6	23.9	1.4	0.3	1999	4.1	6.8
Malaysia	1999	46.5	6.0	0.5	0.1	1999	5.0	n.a.
New Zealand	2000	72.4	21.4	9.0	3.1	1999	5.9	n.a.
Papua New Guinea	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	..	n.a.	n.a.
Singapore	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	..	n.a.	n.a.
Sweden	2000	86.4	33.4	15.0	3.4	1999	6.5	6.7
United Kingdom	2000	73.3	23.8	13.2	5.4	1999	4.4	5.2
United States of America	2000	73.9	21.2	5.4	1.5	1999	4.9	6.5
Viet Nam	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	..	n.a.	n.a.

(a) Participation rates are based on full-time and part-time enrolments.

(b) 1 January of the reference year is considered a good proxy for the mid-point of the school year except for New Zealand, Australia and Korea where 1 July is used as the mid-point of the reference period.

(c) Includes both purchases by the government agency itself on educational resources and also appropriations by the government agency to educational institutions which have been given responsibility to purchase educational resources themselves. Also includes public subsidies to households attributable for educational institutions, and direct expenditure on educational institutions from international sources.

(d) Public expenditure refers to the spending of public authorities at all levels. Private expenditure refers to expenditure funded by private sources i.e. households, private business firms and nonprofit organisations of religious, charitable or business and labour associations.

(e) Data are included in another column of the table.

Source: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) 2003, *Education at a Glance: OECD Indicators, 2003*, OECD, Paris.




**Student performance on Combined reading, Mathematical and Scientific literacy scales**

Country	Reference year	Combined reading literacy		Mathematical literacy		Scientific literacy	
		Males Mean score	Females Mean score	Males Mean score	Females Mean score	Males Mean score	Females Mean score
<b>Australia</b>	<b>2000</b>	<b>513</b>	<b>546</b>	<b>539</b>	<b>527</b>	<b>526</b>	<b>529</b>
Canada	2000	519	551	539	529	529	531
China (excludes SARs and Taiwan Province)	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
France	2000	490	519	525	511	504	498
Greece	2000	456	493	451	444	457	464
Hong Kong (SAR of China)	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Indonesia	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Italy	2000	469	507	462	454	474	483
Japan	2000	507	537	561	553	547	554
Korea (Republic of)	2000	519	533	559	532	561	541
Malaysia	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
New Zealand	2000	507	553	536	539	523	535
Papua New Guinea	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Singapore	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Sweden	2000	499	536	514	507	512	513
United Kingdom	2000	512	537	534	526	535	531
United States of America	2000	490	518	497	490	497	502
Viet Nam	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.

Source: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) 2001, *Knowledge and skills for life: First results from PISA 2000, 2001*, OECD, Paris.



**Unemployment rates by level of educational attainment and gender of 25–64 year olds**

Country	Reference year	Below upper secondary education		Upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education		Tertiary non-University education		University education		All levels of education	
		Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
		%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
<b>Australia</b>	<b>2001</b>	<b>8.1</b>	<b>7.0</b>	<b>4.5</b>	<b>5.2</b>	<b>4.5</b>	<b>3.9</b>	<b>2.5</b>	<b>2.6</b>	<b>5.2</b>	<b>5.1</b>
Canada	2001	10.2	10.2	6.2	6.2	4.8	4.5	4.4	4.4	6.2	5.8
China (excludes SARs and Taiwan Province)	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
France	2001	9.7	14.4	5.1	9.3	4.3	5.0	4.1	5.6	6.2	9.8
Greece	2001	4.9	12.3	6.2	15.1	4.9	8.3	4.5	9.6	5.3	12.5
Hong Kong (SAR of China)	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Indonesia	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Italy	2001	6.9	14.0	4.9	9.3	(a)	(a)	3.8	7.2	5.8	10.7
Japan	2001	6.9	4.3	4.8	4.7	3.2	3.8	2.8	3.1	4.4	4.2
Korea (Republic of)	2001	4.3	1.8	3.7	2.7	5.0	3.3	3.2	2.0	3.8	2.3
Malaysia	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
New Zealand	2001	7.4	5.9	3.0	3.6	4.4	2.9	2.8	3.2	4.0	3.9
Papua New Guinea	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Singapore	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Sweden	2001	5.6	6.4	5.0	4.2	3.4	2.5	2.6	2.2	4.5	3.8
United Kingdom	2001	9.4	5.7	4.1	3.7	2.7	1.7	2.0	1.9	4.1	3.4
United States of America	2001	7.5	8.9	4.2	3.4	2.5	2.3	1.9	2.0	3.7	3.3
Viet Nam	..	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.

(a) Data for Tertiary non-University are included in University education column.

(b) Care should be taken when comparing these data between countries. In any one year, different countries can be at different stages of the economic cycle which is a major influence on unemployment rates.

Source: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) 2003, *Education at a Glance: OECD Indicators*, 2003, OECD, Paris.



## Labour force

Country	Reference year	Economically active population(a) '000	Reference year	Participation rate of persons aged 15 to 64 years		
				Total %	Males %	Females(a) %
<b>Australia</b>	<b>2002</b>	<b>9 942.7</b>	<b>1999</b>	<b>72.9</b>	<b>82.1</b>	<b>63.9</b>
Canada	2002	16 689.5	2000	76.3	82.1	70.5
China (excludes SARs and Taiwan Province)	2001	737 060.0	1995	85.4	90.1	80.4
France	2002	26 653.1	2000	68.0	74.4	61.7
Greece	2002	4 369.0	1998	62.5	77.1	48.5
Hong Kong (SAR of China)	2002	3 487.9	1998	70.0	84.0	55.8
Indonesia	1999	95 793.2	1999	69.6	86.3	53.2
Italy	2001	23 900.0	1999	59.8	74.1	45.5
Japan	2002	66 890.0	2000	72.5	85.2	59.6
Korea (Republic of)	2001	22 181.0	1999	63.9	77.3	50.7
Malaysia	2000	9 616.1	1999	64.3	82.8	44.7
New Zealand	2002	1 972.2	1999	75.2	83.2	67.4
Papua New Guinea	..	n.a.	1995	79.1	88.7	68.7
Singapore	2002	2 128.5	1998	69.0	82.7	56.3
Sweden	2002	4 421.0	1999	78.5	80.9	76.0
United Kingdom	2002	29 933.9	1999	76.3	84.1	68.4
United States of America	2001	141 815.0	2000	77.2	83.9	70.8
Viet Nam	1989	29 525.5	1995	82.6	86.0	79.4

(a) Participation rates for women are frequently not comparable internationally since, in many countries, relatively large numbers of women assist on farms or in other family enterprises without pay. There are differences between countries in the criteria used to count economically active workers.

(b) Care should be taken when comparing these data between countries. In any one year, different countries can be at different stages of the economic cycle which is a major influence on the labour force.

Source: International Labour Office, *Year Book of Labour Statistics* 1998, 2000, 2001 and 2002; International Labour Office, *Key Indicators of the Labour Market* 2001-02.



**Employment and unemployment(a)**

Country	Reference year	Employment '000	Reference year	Unemployment '000	Unemployment rate %
<b>Australia</b>	<b>2002</b>	<b>9 311.4</b>	<b>2002</b>	<b>631.3</b>	<b>6.3</b>
Canada	2002	15 411.8	2002	1 277.6	7.7
China (excludes SARs and Taiwan Province)(b)	2002	737 400.0	2002	7 700.0	4.0
France	2002	23 942.0	2002	2 341.0	8.9
Greece	2002	3 948.9	2002	420.7	9.6
Hong Kong (SAR of China)	2002	3 232.3	2002	255.5	7.3
Indonesia	2002	91 647.0	2002	9 132.1	9.1
Italy	2002	21 922.0	2002	2 163.0	9.0
Japan	2002	63 300.0	2002	3 590.0	5.4
Korea (Republic of)	2002	22 169.0	2002	708.0	3.1
Malaysia	2002	9 520.8	2002	381.0	3.8
New Zealand	2002	1 876.8	2002	102.5	5.2
Papua New Guinea	..	n.a.	..	n.a.	n.a.
Singapore	2002	2 017.4	2002	111.2	5.2
Sweden	2002	4 244.0	2002	176.0	4.0
United Kingdom	2002	28 414.5	2002	1 519.4	5.1
United States of America	2002	136 485.0	2002	8 378.0	5.8
Viet Nam	1997	36 994.0	..	n.a.	n.a.

(a) For most countries the employed and unemployed populations are aged 15 years and over. However, the age range varies for some countries: China and Viet Nam — Not specified; Malaysia — 15–64 years; Sweden — 16–64 years; UK and USA — 16 years and over. Definitions also vary in terms of the inclusion or exclusion of certain other segments of the population such as the armed forces.

(b) Employment relates to total economy; unemployment relates to urban areas only.

(c) Care should be taken when comparing these data between countries. In any one year, different countries can be at different stages of the economic cycle which is a major influence on employment and unemployment.

Source: International Labour Office, *Year Book of Labour Statistics* 2002.

# Cumulative topic list

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	<b>Page</b>
<b>Population</b> .....	<b>204</b>
<b>Family and community</b> .....	<b>204</b>
<b>Health</b> .....	<b>205</b>
<b>Education and training</b> .....	<b>205</b>
<b>Work</b> .....	<b>206</b>
<b>Economic resources</b> .....	<b>207</b>
<b>Housing</b> .....	<b>207</b>
<b>Other areas of social concern</b> .....	<b>208</b>

# Cumulative topic list

	Edition	Page		Edition	Page
<b>Population</b>					
<b>Population characteristics</b>					
20th century: beginning and end. . . . .	2000. . . . .	6			
Ancestry of Australia's population. . . . .	2003. . . . .	12			
Populations of Australia and New Zealand: a comparison. . . . .	2001. . . . .	7			
Seachange — new residents in coastal areas. . . . .	2004. . . . .	11			
Social conditions of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people. . . . .	2000. . . . .	21			
Socioeconomic disadvantage across urban, rural and remote areas. . . . .	2000. . . . .	16			
<b>Population composition</b>					
Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people. . . . .	1994. . . . .	5			
Asian-born Australians. . . . .	2001. . . . .	12			
Australian citizenship. . . . .	1996. . . . .	5			
Birthplace of overseas-born Australians. . . . .	1997. . . . .	12			
Changing links with Europe. . . . .	1997. . . . .	16			
Expanding links with Asia. . . . .	1996. . . . .	10			
Indigenous languages. . . . .	1999. . . . .	16			
Languages spoken in Australia. . . . .	1999. . . . .	11			
New Zealanders in Australia. . . . .	2002. . . . .	22			
Older overseas-born Australians. . . . .	2002. . . . .	17			
People in institutional settings. . . . .	2003. . . . .	17			
Regional population ageing. . . . .	2002. . . . .	7			
Second generation Australians. . . . .	1995. . . . .	5			
<b>Population distribution</b>					
Aged Australia. . . . .	1994. . . . .	22			
Internal migration. . . . .	1995. . . . .	16			
Interstate migration. . . . .	1998. . . . .	5			
Island populations. . . . .	1999. . . . .	21			
Population characteristics and remoteness. . . . .	2003. . . . .	7			
Regional populations: growth and decline. . . . .	2000. . . . .	11			
Small towns: which ones are in decline?. . . . .	1998. . . . .	10			
Where do overseas-born people live?. . . . .	2004. . . . .	22			
Youth migration within Australia. . . . .	2003. . . . .	22			
<b>Population growth</b>					
Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander fertility. . . . .	1994. . . . .	18			
Australia's child population. . . . .	1997. . . . .	8			
Australia's population growth. . . . .	1996. . . . .	17			
Birthplaces of Australia's settlers. . . . .	1994. . . . .	9			
Capital city growth and development. . . . .	1996. . . . .	23			
Changes in immigration intake. . . . .	1998. . . . .	18			
Coming to Australia. . . . .	2001. . . . .	16			
Echoes of the baby boom. . . . .	2004. . . . .	7			
Emigration. . . . .	1994. . . . .	13			
Growth and distribution of Indigenous people. . . . .	1998. . . . .	15			
International population comparison. . . . .	1997. . . . .	5			
Leaving Australia. . . . .	2001. . . . .	21			
Net overseas migration. . . . .	1995. . . . .	11			
<b>Population projections</b>					
Fertility futures. . . . .	2002. . . . .	12			
Our ageing population. . . . .	1999. . . . .	6			
Population projections for the 21st century. . . . .	2001. . . . .	26			
Projections of the aged population. . . . .	1994. . . . .	27			
Projections of the working age population. . . . .	1995. . . . .	21			
Scenarios for Australia's ageing population. . . . .	2004. . . . .	16			
<b>Family and community</b>					
<b>Community functioning</b>					
Being unemployed, a lone parent or a recently arrived migrant. . . . .	2004. . . . .	51			
Social interactions outside home. . . . .	2004. . . . .	35			
<b>Family formation</b>					
Adoptions. . . . .	1998. . . . .	33			
Age at first marriage. . . . .	1997. . . . .	27			
Cultural diversity within marriages. . . . .	2000. . . . .	52			
Family planning. . . . .	1998. . . . .	29			
Older mothers. . . . .	2001. . . . .	55			
Remarriage trends of divorced people. . . . .	1999. . . . .	45			
Trends in childlessness. . . . .	2002. . . . .	37			
Trends in de facto partnering. . . . .	1995. . . . .	38			
Trends in fertility. . . . .	1996. . . . .	36			
Trends in marriage and divorce. . . . .	1995. . . . .	33			
<b>Family functioning</b>					
Balancing family and work. . . . .	2003. . . . .	40			
Families and work. . . . .	1997. . . . .	30			
Family support. . . . .	1995. . . . .	41			
Families with no employed parent. . . . .	2004. . . . .	46			
Looking after the children. . . . .	1999. . . . .	39			
Children with parents with a disability. . . . .	2000. . . . .	35			
Spending time alone. . . . .	1999. . . . .	35			
War veterans and their carers. . . . .	1996. . . . .	41			
<b>Services and assistance</b>					
Caring in the community. . . . .	2001. . . . .	46			
Child care. . . . .	1994. . . . .	47			
Child care. . . . .	1998. . . . .	38			
Child care arrangements. . . . .	2001. . . . .	41			
Child protection. . . . .	2003. . . . .	50			
Community service workers. . . . .	2004. . . . .	124			
Formal child care. . . . .	2004. . . . .	57			
Formal respite care. . . . .	2000. . . . .	47			
People with a disability: need for guidance. . . . .	2002. . . . .	41			
Principal carers and their caring roles. . . . .	1996. . . . .	44			
Services in remote Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities. . . . .	2003. . . . .	55			
Support for people with a disability. . . . .	2004. . . . .	41			

	Edition	Page
<b>Living arrangements</b>		
Caring for children after parents separate. . . . .	1999. . .	42
Changes across Australian generations. . . . .	2002. . .	46
Changes in living arrangements. . . . .	1994. . .	35
Changing families. . . . .	2003. . .	35
Children in families. . . . .	1995. . .	29
Farming families. . . . .	2003. . .	45
Future living arrangements. . . . .	2001. . .	51
Living with parents. . . . .	1994. . .	43
Lone fathers with dependent children. . . . .	1994. . .	40
One-parent families. . . . .	1997. . .	34
People who live alone. . . . .	1996. . .	33
People without partners. . . . .	2000. . .	43
Rural families. . . . .	1998. . .	42
Selected risks faced by teenagers. . . . .	2002. . .	57
Transitions in living arrangements. . . . .	2002. . .	52
Young adults living in the parental home. . . . .	2000. . .	39

## Health

### Health expenditure

Private health insurance: who has it? . . . . .	1994. . .	73
Private health insurance. . . . .	2001. . .	80

### Health related actions

Cancer screening. . . . .	2000. . .	78
Food and energy intake. . . . .	1998. . .	64
How women care for their health. . . . .	2004. . .	77
Organ donation. . . . .	2002. . .	73
Use of medication. . . . .	1998. . .	60

### Health services

Distribution of general practitioners. . . . .	1994. . .	70
Medical practitioners. . . . .	2003. . .	69
Medicare: the first ten years. . . . .	1996. . .	66
Private hospitals. . . . .	2001. . .	85

### Health status

Disability among adults. . . . .	2001. . .	75
Health and socioeconomic disadvantage of area. . . . .	1999. . .	62
Health experiences of men and women. . . . .	1998. . .	55
Health of older people. . . . .	1999. . .	57
Health of the population. . . . .	1997. . .	45
Health of Indigenous people. . . . .	1996. . .	55
Mental health. . . . .	1999. . .	71
Life expectancy trends. . . . .	1995. . .	51
Older people with disabilities. . . . .	1995. . .	55
Protecting the health of our children. . . . .	1997. . .	49

### Mortality and morbidity

Accidental death of children. . . . .	1996. . .	59
Accidental drowning. . . . .	2000. . .	69
Acquired immunodeficiency syndrome. . . . .	1997. . .	60
Asthma. . . . .	1999. . .	67
Cancer trends. . . . .	1995. . .	58
Cancer trends. . . . .	2004. . .	72
Cardiovascular disease: 20th century trends. . . . .	2002. . .	81
Diabetes. . . . .	1998. . .	68
Drug-related deaths. . . . .	2001. . .	71
Infant mortality. . . . .	2002. . .	91
Infectious diseases. . . . .	1997. . .	54
Injuries. . . . .	2003. . .	79
Living with asthma. . . . .	2004. . .	69
Mortality in the 20th century. . . . .	2001. . .	67
Mortality of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples. . . . .	2002. . .	86
Suicide. . . . .	2000. . .	65
Youth suicide. . . . .	1994. . .	55

### Health risk factors

Alcohol use. . . . .	1995. . .	62
Children's immunisation. . . . .	1994. . .	66
Health risk factors among adults. . . . .	2003. . .	74
Health risk factors and Indigenous people. . . . .	1996. . .	62
Tobacco use. . . . .	1994. . .	60
Trends in smoking. . . . .	2000. . .	73
Work-related injuries. . . . .	2002. . .	75

## Education and training

### Education and work

Academics. . . . .	1997. . .	79
Combining study and work. . . . .	2001. . .	113
Developments in contracted training: apprentices and trainees. . . . .	2000. . .	102
Educating and training Australia's workers. . . . .	1999. . .	91
Employee training. . . . .	1995. . .	81
From school to work. . . . .	1996. . .	79
Higher education graduates in the labour market. . . . .	2004. . .	95
Pathways from school to work. . . . .	2003. . .	96
Qualified tradespeople. . . . .	1995. . .	78
School teachers. . . . .	1997. . .	75
School teachers. . . . .	2003. . .	101
Workplace training. . . . .	1998. . .	91
Work-related training. . . . .	2003. . .	105

	Edition	Page		Edition	Page
<b>Educational attainment</b>					
Early school leavers.....	1996..	82			
Field of study and employment.....	2001..	107			
Gender differences					
in educational achievement.....	1998..	81			
Education and employment.....	1997..	84			
Education and training:					
international comparisons.....	2002..	119			
Educational profile of Australians.....	1999..	83			
Literacy and numeracy					
among school students.....	2002..	114			
Literacy skills.....	1998..	77			
Migrants and education.....	1996..	86			
People with degrees.....	1994..	94			
<b>Education and training expenditure</b>					
Expenditure on formal education.....	1998..	86			
Paying for university education.....	2004..	91			
<b>Participation in education</b>					
Attending preschool.....	2004..	98			
Beyond compulsory schooling.....	2000..	93			
Destinations of school leavers.....	1999..	87			
Disability and schooling.....	2000..	89			
Education of Aboriginal and Torres Strait					
Islander people.....	1994..	81			
Education of Aboriginal and Torres Strait					
Islander peoples.....	2002..	109			
Education of Indigenous people.....	1996..	75			
Gender differences in higher education.....	1994..	90			
Government and non-government schools.....	1997..	69			
Home-based higher education.....	1995..	71			
Mature age people in education and training.....	2000..	98			
Overseas students.....	2002..	103			
Overseas students in higher education.....	1995..	75			
Regional differences in education					
and outcomes.....	2003..	91			
Time spent on education.....	1994..	86			
Time spent studying.....	2001..	103			
Trends in completing school.....	2001..	99			
<b>Work</b>					
<b>Employment arrangements</b>					
Decline of the standard working week.....	1999..	105			
Employment arrangements.....	2002..	131			
Employment arrangements in the late 1990s.....	2000..	115			
Home workers.....	1995..	94			
How pay is set.....	2002..	151			
Sick leave.....	1996..	105			
Small business.....	1997..	99			
The working week.....	1995..	91			
Trends in part-time work.....	1994..	103			
Working from home.....	2002..	141			
<b>Industrial relations</b>					
Industrial disputes.....	1996..	109			
Trade union members.....	2000..	134			
Trends in trade union membership.....	1994..	109			
<b>Labour force projections</b>					
Projections of the labour force.....	1995..	89			
<b>Not in the labour force</b>					
Early retirement among men.....	1994..	126			
Retirement and retirement intentions.....	2000..	130			
<b>Paid work</b>					
Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander					
peoples in the labour force.....	2004..	118			
Changes experienced at work.....	2001..	125			
Changes in labour force participation					
across generations.....	2003..	134			
Changing employer or business.....	2001..	129			
Changing industries, changing jobs.....	1997..	93			
Community service workers.....	2004..	124			
Culture-leisure workers.....	1995..	161			
Employment of people with a handicap.....	1997..	104			
Longer working hours.....	2003..	119			
Mature age workers and the labour market.....	2004..	114			
Medical practitioners.....	2003..	69			
Migrants in the labour force.....	1998..	107			
Public sector employment.....	1998..	115			
School teachers.....	1997..	75			
School teachers.....	2003..	101			
Trends in employment population ratios.....	2001..	133			
Trends in women's employment.....	1998..	111			
Work and Indigenous people.....	1996..	101			
Young people in employment.....	2004..	109			
Youth employment.....	1996..	97			
<b>Underutilised labour</b>					
Geographic distribution of unemployment.....	2003..	124			
Long-term unemployment.....	1994..	114			
Long-term unemployment.....	2000..	120			
Men and women wanting work.....	1999..	110			
Multiple spells of looking for work.....	2003..	139			
Older jobseekers.....	1999..	114			
Retrenchment and redundancy.....	2000..	125			
Searching for work.....	2002..	136			
Underutilised labour.....	2003..	129			
Unemployment trends and patterns.....	2001..	137			
Young jobseekers.....	1998..	103			
Youth unemployment.....	1995..	98			
<b>Unpaid work</b>					
How couples share domestic work.....	1999..	119			
Time spent on unpaid household work.....	2001..	142			
Unpaid household work.....	1994..	120			
Voluntary work.....	1997..	109			
Voluntary work.....	2002..	146			



Edition Page

Edition Page

## Economic resources

### Income distribution

Charity at home and overseas aid. . . . .	1997. .	125
Differences in men's and women's earnings. . .	1995. .	111
Economic resources of older Australians. . . .	1999. .	138
Female/male earnings. . . . .	2000. .	149
Household assets, liabilities and financial stress. . . . .	2004. .	137
Household income. . . . .	2004. .	142
Household income redistribution. . . . .	1996. .	117
Income distribution and life cycle. . . . .	1998. .	130
Income of Indigenous people. . . . .	1996. .	121
Income sharing and income distribution. . . .	1999. .	129
Incomes of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Australians. . . . .	2004. .	146
Interstate income inequality. . . . .	2000. .	149
Lower income working families. . . . .	1999. .	134
Poverty: different assumptions, different profiles. . . . .	1998. .	125
Taxes and government benefits: the effect on household income. . . . .	2003. .	157
The geography of income distribution. . . . .	2003. .	153
Trends in earnings distribution. . . . .	1994. .	137
Trends in earnings distribution. . . . .	2000. .	145
Trends in household disposable income. . . .	1997. .	117
Value of unpaid work. . . . .	1995. .	118
Value of unpaid work. . . . .	2001. .	162
Women's contribution to couple earnings. . . .	1995. .	115
Women's incomes. . . . .	2001. .	153
Youth income. . . . .	1997. .	121

### Income support

Income support for children. . . . .	2000. .	159
Income support among people of workforce-age. . . . .	2001. .	166
Social security transfer payments. . . . .	1994. .	147
Trends in disability support. . . . .	2002. .	165

### Sources of income

Employee superannuation. . . . .	2002. .	175
Tertiary student income. . . . .	1994. .	139
Retirement income. . . . .	1994. .	143
Special employee benefits. . . . .	1996. .	126
Superannuation: who will pay for the future?.	1995. .	120

### Taxation

How much tax do we pay?. . . . .	1998. .	139
----------------------------------	---------	-----

### Expenditure

Community services sector. . . . .	2003. .	161
Expenditure in low-income households. . . . .	2001. .	157
Expenditure on gambling. . . . .	1999. .	141
Household debt in the 1990s. . . . .	2002. .	180
Household expenditure on recreation. . . . .	1997. .	130
Households in financial stress. . . . .	2002. .	170
Purchasing power. . . . .	1995. .	124
Spending patterns and life cycle. . . . .	1998. .	134
State differences in household expenditure. . .	1996. .	129

## Housing

### Housing arrangements

Homelessness. . . . .	2004. .	157
Home ownership. . . . .	2004. .	162
Home ownership across Australia. . . . .	2003. .	180
Housing after separation. . . . .	1996. .	146
Housing of recent immigrants. . . . .	1998. .	149
Housing for older people. . . . .	1996. .	150
Renter households. . . . .	2002. .	195

### Housing assistance

Government assistance for housing. . . . .	1997. .	143
Home care, hostels and nursing homes. . . . .	1999. .	157
Public tenants. . . . .	1994. .	171

### Housing costs

Housing affordability. . . . .	1994. .	167
Housing costs. . . . .	2000. .	171
Housing finance. . . . .	2001. .	190
Low income private renters. . . . .	1995. .	143
Purchasing a home. . . . .	1997. .	139

### Housing and lifestyle

Energy efficiency in the home. . . . .	2002. .	203
Environment and the home. . . . .	1997. .	152
First home buyers. . . . .	1999. .	153
First home buyers. . . . .	2003. .	171
High-rise living. . . . .	2004. .	166
Home renovation. . . . .	2002. .	191
Household amenities. . . . .	2001. .	182
Housing experience through life-cycle stages.	2001. .	177
Smaller households, larger dwellings. . . . .	1998. .	157
Youth housing. . . . .	1997. .	148

### Housing stock

Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander housing in non-remote areas. . . . .	2001. .	186
Caravan park residents. . . . .	1994. .	163
Caravan park residents. . . . .	2000. .	179
Changes in Australian housing. . . . .	2003. .	175
Home fire safety. . . . .	2000. .	184
Home ownership. . . . .	1996. .	137
Housing condition and maintenance. . . . .	2002. .	199
Housing conditions of Indigenous people. . . .	1996. .	142
Housing in remote Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities. . . . .	2000. .	175
Housing the population. . . . .	1994. .	159
Inner city residential development. . . . .	1999. .	167
Investment in residential rental property. . . .	1995. .	139
Rental investors. . . . .	1999. .	162
Safe as houses?. . . . .	1995. .	136
Trends in housing. . . . .	1995. .	133
Wealth in the family home. . . . .	1998. .	154

## Edition Page

**Other areas of social concern****Crime and justice**

Crime victimisation and feelings of safety. . . . .	2003..	187
Criminal justice system. . . . .	1997..	161
Murder and manslaughter. . . . .	1997..	171
Prisoners in Australia. . . . .	1997..	184
Reported crimes. . . . .	1997..	167
Victims of assault. . . . .	1997..	175
Violence against women. . . . .	1997..	179
Women in prison. . . . .	2004..	185

**Culture and leisure**

A sporting nation. . . . .	1995..	151
Children's out of school activities. . . . .	2003..	190
Culture-leisure workers. . . . .	1995..	161
Household pets. . . . .	1995..	168
How Australians use their free time. . . . .	1999..	173
Interests in the arts and cultural activities. . . . .	1999..	177
Leisure at home. . . . .	1995..	164
Music and performing arts. . . . .	1995..	147
Sporting Australians. . . . .	1999..	183
Travel and tourism in Australia. . . . .	1995..	156

**Environment**

Environmental concerns and related activities. . . . .	2004..	177
Household energy use. . . . .	1998..	171
Household waste management. . . . .	1998..	180
People and the environment. . . . .	1998..	163
People's concerns about environmental problems. . . . .	1998..	167
Transport choices and the environment. . . . .	1998..	175

**Religion**

Geographic distribution of religions. . . . .	1994..	183
Religion and education. . . . .	1994..	190
Religion and marriage. . . . .	1994..	186
Religious activity. . . . .	1994..	194
Religious affiliation and activity. . . . .	2004..	181
Trends in religious affiliation. . . . .	1994..	177

**Transport and communication**

Car use. . . . .	1996..	163
Household use of computers and the Internet. . . . .	2003..	194
Information technology in the home. . . . .	1999..	189
Motor vehicle traffic accidents. . . . .	1996..	170
Overseas travel and recent world events. . . . .	2004..	173
Public transport use. . . . .	1996..	167
Registered cars. . . . .	1996..	159



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