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Australian Bureau of Statistics

Australian Social Trends 2003

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Australian Social Trends 2003

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Contents

Preface

Australian Social Trends 2003 is the 10th 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 2003* 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). Three of these chapters have been renamed for this edition to more accurately describe the broadening scope of their topic area. This edition also contains, for the first time, a chapter of feature articles which explore a broader range of topics, some of newly emerging relevance.

The opportunity has been taken to expand and update analysis of some topics of ongoing interest examined in previous editions, using the most recently available data. There is also new information on social, demographic and labour market topics of interest such as ancestry, Internet use, employee training and child protection. Following the release of 2001 Census data, most chapters in this edition contain at least one article that presents regionally based analysis. For example, this edition contains articles on farming families, the geographic distribution of unemployment, outcomes for rural students, and services in remote Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities. Connections between issues have been highlighted through extensive referencing between articles, including those published in previous editions.

As well as analytical articles, *Australian Social Trends 2003* includes a set of national and state summary tables which present key social indicators in each of the seven major areas of social concern. These have been revised and updated in accordance with the ABS aim for ongoing improvement in the relevance of information provided. The indicators show at a glance whether aspects of wellbeing have been changing over time and whether circumstances differ between states and territories. Also included is a set of tables comparing Australia with major OECD countries, our closest neighbours, and our trading partners. Finally, there is a cumulative index to the 324 articles published across all 10 editions.

In addition to thanking the people throughout the ABS who compiled, wrote and edited *Australian Social Trends 2003*, I would like to thank Peter Siminski and Kate Norris of the Social Policy Research Centre for their contribution in writing an article. I would also like to thank reviewers from many organisations who gave their time and expertise. Various organisations assisted in other ways by providing data and advice, including the Australian Council for Educational Research, the Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, the Australian Bureau of Agricultural and Resource Economics, and state and territory revenue offices.

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.

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General information

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Inquiries about the availability of more recent data from 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 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 graphics and tables throughout 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

ABC	Australian Broadcasting Commission
ABSCQ	ABS Classification of Qualifications
ACER	Australian Council for Educational Research
AEI	Australian Education International
AGPS	Australian Government Publishing Service
AIHW	Australian Institute of Health and Welfare
ANZSIC	Australian and New Zealand Standard Industry Classification
ARIA	Accessibility/ Remoteness Index of Australia
ASCED	Australian Standard Classification of Education
ASCO	Australian Standard Classification of Occupations
ASGC	Australian Standard Geographical Classification
AusAID	Australian Agency for International Development
BMI	Body mass index
CDEP	Community Development Employment Program
CPI	Consumer Price Index
CSIRO	Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research Organisation
DALY	Disability Adjusted Life Year
ERP	Estimated resident population
FTE	Full-time equivalent
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GFS	Government Finance Statistics
HECS	Higher Education Contribution Scheme
ICD–10	International Classification of Diseases – 10th revision
ICD–9	International Classification of Diseases – 9th revision
ISCED	International Standard Classification of Education
LSAY	Longitudinal Survey of Australian Youth
NZ	New Zealand
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PISA	Program for International Student Assessment
PNG	Papua New Guinea
SACC	Standard Australian Classification of Countries
SAR	Special Administrative Region of China
SD	Statistical Division
SEIFA	Socio-Economic Indexes for Areas
SLA	Statistical Local Area
SR	Statistical Region
SRS	Statistical Region Sector
SSD	Statistical Subdivision
TAFE	Technical and Further Education
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund
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
hrs	hours
km	kilometre
mins	minutes
n.a.	not available
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
'00,000	hundred thousand
$	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 not stated category, data in this category have been excluded prior to the calculation of percentages. Total numbers shown with such percentages include the number not stated.

Each chapter contains a national summary table which provides, where possible, ten years of data for a particular indicator. These times 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

Population: national summary

COMPOSITION	Units	1992	1993	1994(a)	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002p
1 Total population	'000	17 495	17 667	17 855	18 072	18 311	r18 518	r18 711	r18 926	r19 153	r19 413	19 663
2 Male population	'000	8 716	8 798	8 888	8 994	9 108	r9 203	r9 295	r9 397	r9 505	r9 631	9 754
3 Female population	'000	8 779	8 869	8 967	9 078	9 203	r9 314	r9 417	r9 529	r9 648	r9 783	9 909
4 Indigenous population(b)	'000	352.9	360.7	368.8	377.1	386.0	394.2	402.4	410.6	418.8	427.1	435.4
5 Overseas born population	%	23.0	22.9	22.9	23.0	23.3	23.3	23.3	23.3	23.6	23.1	n.y.a.
6 Born in United Kingdom and Ireland	%	7.1	7.0	6.9	6.8	6.7	6.7	6.5	6.4	6.3	6.1	n.y.a.
7 Born in Europe including former USSR	%	13.8	13.6	13.5	13.3	13.2	13.1	12.9	12.7	12.5	12.1	n.y.a.
8 Born in East and Southern Asia	%	4.4	4.5	4.7	4.9	5.1	5.2	5.3	5.4	5.6	5.5	n.y.a.
9 Population living in capital cities	%	63.5	63.5	63.5	63.5	63.6	63.7	63.7	63.8	64.0	64.1	63.7
10 Population aged 0–14	%	21.8	21.7	21.6	21.5	21.4	21.2	20.9	20.7	20.5	20.2	20.3
11 Population aged 15–64	%	66.7	66.6	66.6	66.6	66.6	66.7	66.9	67.0	67.2	67.4	67.1
12 Population aged 65 and over	%	11.5	11.6	11.8	11.9	12.0	12.1	12.2	12.3	12.3	12.4	12.7
13 Population aged 80 and over	%	2.3	2.4	2.5	2.6	2.6	2.7	2.7	2.8	2.9	3.0	3.2
14 Median age of total population	years	32.7	33.0	33.4	33.7	34.0	34.3	34.6	34.9	35.2	35.4	35.9
15 Median age of Indigenous population(b)	years	19.8	19.9	20.0	20.0	20.1	20.1	20.1	20.2	20.2	20.3	n.y.a.
16 Sex ratio of population aged 0–64	ratio	102.8	102.7	102.6	102.5	102.4	102.3	102.4	102.4	102.4	r101.5	101.5
17 Sex ratio of population aged 65 and over	ratio	75.5	75.9	76.3	76.7	77.1	77.5	77.9	77.5	78.6	r79.8	79.8

POPULATION GROWTH	Units	1992	1993	1994(a)	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002p
18 Total population growth	'000	210.6	172.4	187.6	217.0	239.0	r213.4	r206.2	r206.8	r241.2	r259.9	249.5
19 Births	'000	259.2	260.0	258.3	258.2	250.4	253.7	249.1	250.0	249.3	r247.5	246.3
20 Deaths	'000	120.8	121.3	123.5	126.2	126.4	127.3	129.3	r128.4	128.4	128.9	130.5
21 Natural increase	'000	138.4	138.6	134.8	132.0	124.0	126.4	119.9	121.7	120.9	r118.6	115.9
22 Net overseas migration	'000	68.6	30.0	46.5	80.1	104.1	87.1	r79.2	r96.5	r107.3	r135.7	133.7
23 Population growth rate	%	1.22	0.99	1.06	1.22	1.32	r1.13	r1.05	r1.15	r1.20	r1.36	1.29
24 Net overseas migration to total growth	%	32.6	17.4	24.8	36.9	43.6	40.8	r38.4	r46.7	r44.5	52.2	53.6

MIGRATION	Units	1992	1993	1994(a)	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
25 Total settler arrivals(c)	'000	107.4	76.3	69.8	87.4	99.1	85.8	77.3	84.1	92.3	107.4	88.9
26 Skilled settler arrivals	%	37.6	29.0	18.3	23.1	20.2	23.0	33.6	33.2	35.1	33.3	40.5
27 Family settler arrivals	%	45.3	42.1	48.1	42.4	46.9	42.6	27.3	25.6	21.6	18.8	26.3
28 Humanitarian settler arrivals	%	6.7	14.3	16.3	15.6	13.9	11.5	11.4	10.4	7.9	7.1	7.6

PROJECTIONS — SERIES II	Units	2006	2011	2016	2021	2026	2031	2036	2041	2046	2051	2101
29 Total population	'000	r20 394	21 289	22 132	22 926	23 648	24 254	24 713	25 034	25 253	25 409	25 254
30 Population aged 0–14	%	19.0	17.7	16.8	16.1	15.8	15.5	15.1	14.8	14.5	14.4	14.4
31 Population aged 15–64	%	68.0	68.0	66.9	65.5	63.7	62.3	61.2	60.4	60.0	59.6	58.6
32 Population aged 65 and over	%	13.0	14.3	16.4	18.4	20.5	22.3	23.7	24.8	25.5	26.1	27.0
33 Population aged 80 and over	%	3.4	3.9	4.0	4.4	5.1	6.3	7.2	8.2	8.8	9.4	10.1
34 Median age of total population	years	36.9	38.6	40.0	41.2	42.4	43.4	44.3	45.1	45.6	46.0	46.1
35 Population living in capital cities	%	64.5	64.8	65.1	65.4	65.8	66.1	66.5	66.8	67.2	67.5	n.a.

(a) From 1994, includes Christmas and Cocos (Keeling) Islands.
(b) From 1997, figures are projections.
(c) Total settler arrivals includes special eligibility and non-program migration in addition to family, skilled and humanitarian migration.
Reference periods: Total population, male and female population and projection figures are at 30 June. Growth figures are for the year ended 30 June.

Population: state summary

COMPOSITION	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.(a)
1 Total population	'000	2002p	6 640	4 873	3 707	1 520	1 927	473	198	322	19 663
2 Male population	'000	2002p	3 279	2 401	1 843	752	964	233	104	159	9 754
3 Female population	'000	2002p	3 343	2 471	1 864	768	963	240	94	163	9 909
4 Indigenous population(b)	'000	2002	123.4	25.0	121.6	24.8	62.6	16.9	57.2	3.7	435.4
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	5.0	5.0	5.4	9.1	11.9	5.0	4.0	6.2	6.1
7 Born in Europe including former USSR(c)	%	2001	10.6	13.7	8.8	16.0	17.3	7.6	7.1	12.2	12.1
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	%	2002p	62.6	72.0	45.5	73.2	73.3	41.4	52.9	99.9	63.7
10 Population aged 0–14	%	2002p	20.1	19.7	21.0	19.1	20.7	20.7	25.7	20.2	20.3
11 Population aged 15–64	%	2002p	66.7	67.2	67.2	66.2	68.1	65.3	70.4	71.1	67.1
12 Population aged 65 and over	%	2002p	13.2	13.1	11.8	14.8	11.2	14.0	3.9	8.8	12.7
13 Population aged 80 and over	%	2002p	3.3	3.3	2.9	3.9	2.7	3.6	0.6	2.0	3.2
14 Median age of total population	years	2002p	36.1	36.0	35.3	37.9	35.2	37.7	29.9	33.5	35.9
15 Median age of Indigenous population(b)	years	2001	19.8	20.9	19.8	20.4	20.6	20.3	21.7	21.0	20.3
16 Sex ratio of population aged 0–64	ratio	2002p	101.9	100.4	101.1	101.8	102.8	100.3	109.8	99.2	101.5
17 Sex ratio of population aged 65 and over	ratio	2002p	79.1	78.2	83.6	77.4	81.3	79.2	112.6	79.3	79.8
POPULATION GROWTH	*Units*	*Years*	*NSW*	*Vic.*	*Qld*	*SA*	*WA*	*Tas.*	*NT*	*ACT*	*Aust.*
18 Total population growth	'000	2001–2002	65.1	67.8	78.2	8.5	26.2	0.9	0.2	2.5	249.5
19 Births	'000	2001–2002	83.0	60.6	47.5	17.5	23.9	6.0	3.8	4.0	246.3
20 Deaths	'000	2001–2002	45.5	33.2	23.2	11.6	10.9	3.8	0.9	1.4	130.5
21 Natural increase	'000	2001–2002	37.6	27.3	24.3	5.9	13.0	2.1	2.9	2.6	115.9
22 Net overseas migration	'000	2001–2002	51.3	34.2	24.9	4.5	17.3	0.5	0.1	0.8	133.7
23 Net interstate migration	'000	2001–2002	–23.8	6.2	29.0	–1.9	–4.2	–1.7	–2.8	–1.0	—
24 Population growth rate	%	2001–2002	1.0	1.4	2.2	0.6	1.4	0.2	0.1	0.8	1.3
25 Net interstate migration rate	%	2001–2002	–0.4	0.1	0.8	–0.1	–0.2	–0.4	–1.4	– 0.3	—
PROJECTIONS — SERIES II	*Units*	*Years*	*NSW*	*Vic.*	*Qld*	*SA*	*WA*	*Tas.*	*NT*	*ACT*	*Aust.*
26 Total population	'000	2051	8 248	5 547	6 101	1 411	3 038	319	370	372	25 409
27 Population aged 0–14	%	2051	14.4	13.5	14.8	12.8	15.0	12.5	20.5	14.4	14.4
28 Population aged 15–64	%	2051	59.3	58.7	60.5	56.0	60.6	53.5	69.3	62.3	59.6
29 Population aged 65 and over	%	2051	26.3	27.8	24.7	31.1	24.3	34.0	10.3	23.3	26.1
30 Population aged 80 and over	%	2051	9.4	10.4	8.5	12.2	8.5	13.2	2.1	8.4	9.4
31 Median age of total population	years	2051	46.1	47.1	45.3	50.2	44.5	53.2	34.7	43.3	46.0
32 Population living in capital cities	%	2051	71.0	79.2	46.9	78.1	73.5	45.8	52.0	n.a.	67.5

(a) Australian total includes Jervis Bay Territory, Christmas Island and Cocos (Keeling) Island.
(b) Population projections.
(c) Only available in census years.
Reference periods: Total population, male and female population and projection figures are at 30 June. Growth figures are for the year ended 30 June.

Population: data sources

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

Population: definitions

Birth
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
deaths occurring in that year.
Reference: *Australian Demographic Statistics* (ABS cat. no. 3101.0).

East and Southern Asia
including the countries of North-East, South-East and Southern 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 and the Former USSR
including the United Kingdom and Ireland, the former USSR and the Baltic States.
Reference: *Migration, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 3412.0).

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 2000*, Department of Immigration and Multicultural 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 2000*, Department of Immigration and Multicultural Affairs.

Indigenous population
estimates of the resident Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander population. Estimates are experimental 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 Indigenous 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, plus an adjustment for the net effect of category jumping. This net effect may be either positive or negative.
Reference: *Australian Demographic Statistics* (ABS cat. no. 3101.0).

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
estimated resident population (ERP). 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: definitions continued

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 II most closely reflect prevailing trends and comprise: declining rates of mortality; the total fertility rate for Australia falling to 1.6 by 2008, and then remaining constant; low levels of overseas migration (annual net gain of 90,000 from 2001–2002); and medium levels of interstate migration. The base year for these projections is 1999.

Reference: *Population Projections, Australia, 1999 to 2101* (ABS cat. no. 3222.0).

Sex ratio

the ratio of males to females multiplied by 100.

Refe*rence: 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 2000*, Department of Immigration and Multicultural Affairs.

Total settler arrivals

comprised largely of those who arrived under the migration and humanitarian programs. 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 2000*, Department of Immigration and Multicultural Affairs.

Population characteristics and remoteness

POPULATION DISTRIBUTION

Between 1991 and 2001, the population in Inner Regional areas increased by 14%, while the number of people in Remote areas remained relatively stable.

Australia's population lives across a wide range of places from large, coastal cities to isolated, outback locations. The level of remoteness experienced by people is determined, to a degree, by their geographic location. However, the availability of services such as health and education, and opportunities for employment and social interaction can also influence experiences of remoteness. The distance a person must travel to access a full range of services and opportunities can therefore be used as an indication of remoteness. In addition, an individual's and family's access to services and opportunities can be affected by their cultural background, stage of life and other characteristics.

This article uses a new ABS geographic classification of remoteness to explore some of the characteristics of people across various regions of Australia. The classification summarises the remoteness of an area based on the road distance to different sized urban centres, where the population size of an urban centre is considered to govern the range and type of services available.

Population distribution

In 2001, there were 18.8 million people living in Australia. Of these people, two-thirds were located in Major Cities. The rest were counted mainly in Inner and Outer Regional areas (31%), with only 3% of people counted in either Remote or Very Remote areas. The

Measuring remoteness

Data presented in this article are drawn from the 1991 and 2001 Censuses of Population and Housing. Data are based on place of enumeration (96% of people counted in the census were at home on census night), and exclude overseas visitors. In Very Remote Australia, 15% of the population counted were not usual residents of this area, therefore results may be influenced by visitors.

The Remoteness Structure is a new ABS classification designed to provide a measure of remoteness across Australia. *Remoteness Areas*, as defined in Chapter 8 in *Statistical Geography: Volume 1— Australian Standard Geographical Classification (ASGC), 2001* (ABS cat. no. 1216.0), are based on the Accessibility/ Remoteness Index of Australia (ARIA). ARIA measures the remoteness of a point based on the road distances to the nearest ABS defined Urban Centres (which are classified to five population size classes). The basic premises of ARIA are that there are more services available in large towns than small towns, and that remoteness is a factor of the relative distance one must travel to access a full range of services.

The Remoteness Structure geographically classifies Australia into six areas according to their relative remoteness (or ARIA score). As remoteness is measured nationally, not all Remoteness Areas are represented in each state or territory. 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.

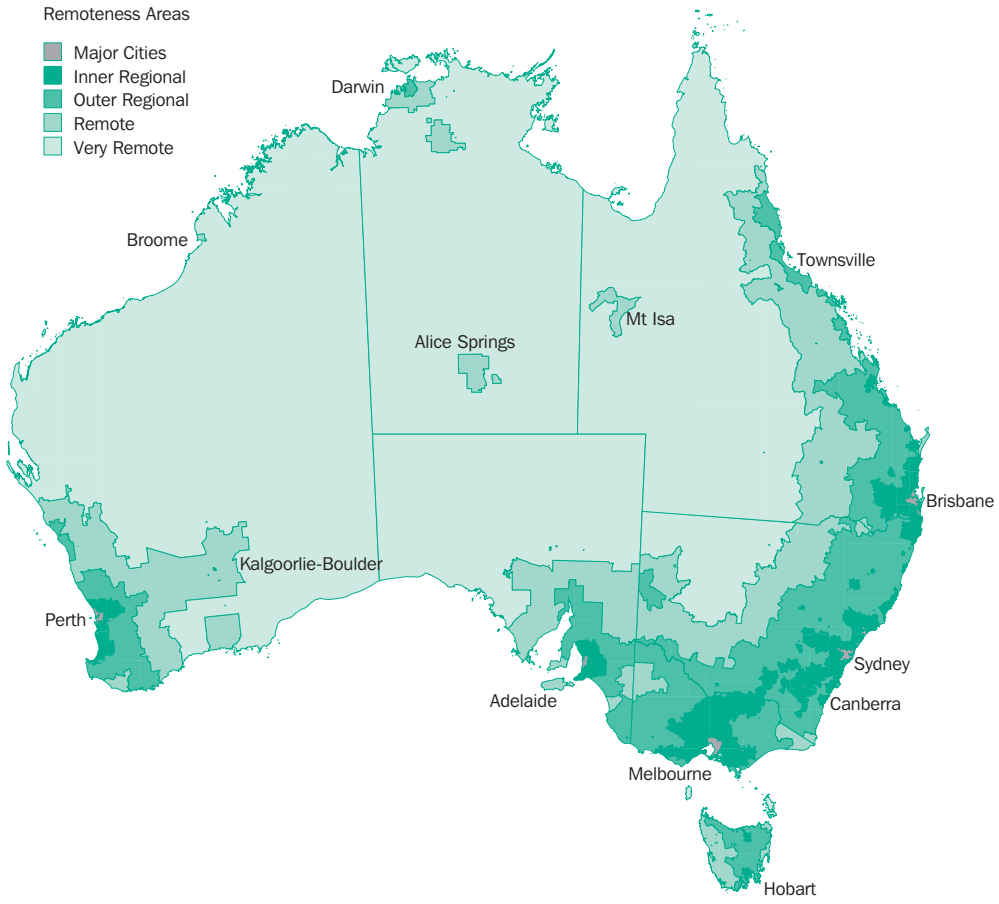
Distribution of the population across Remoteness Areas — 2001

	Major Cities	*Inner Regional*	*Outer Regional*	*Remote*	*Very Remote*	*Total(a)*	
State/territory	%	%	%	%	%	%	'000
New South Wales	71.1	20.6	7.5	0.6	0.1	100.0	6 311.2
Victoria	73.5	21.0	5.4	0.1	—	100.0	4 612.1
Queensland	52.0	25.7	18.0	2.7	1.6	100.0	3 585.6
South Australia	71.6	12.3	11.9	3.1	1.1	100.0	1 458.9
Western Australia	69.7	11.8	9.6	5.3	3.4	100.0	1 832.0
Tasmania	—	63.6	33.8	1.9	0.6	100.0	454.8
Northern Territory	—	—	52.5	21.7	24.8	100.0	202.7
Australian Capital Territory	99.8	0.2	—	—	—	100.0	309.2
Australia(b)	**65.9**	**20.6**	**10.5**	**1.8**	**1.1**	**100.0**	**18 769.2**

(a) Includes persons in Migratory category.
(b) Includes persons in Other Territories.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

Remoteness Areas across Australia — 2001



proportion of the population counted in each of the Remoteness Areas varied considerably across the states and territories. In 2001, almost all of the population of the Australian Capital Territory (99.8%) was located in a Major City, while the Northern Territory had higher proportions of people in Remote (22%) and Very Remote (25%) areas than any other state or territory.

Between 1991 and 2001, the population of Australia grew by 12%. Major Cities experienced a similar population growth over the decade (13%). The population in Outer Regional and Very Remote areas grew by 5% each, while Remote areas remained virtually stable (declining by 800 people). Inner Regional areas had the greatest increase in population over the decade (14%).

In the ten years to 2001, some of the additional 484,000 people in Inner Regional areas were the result of migration to coastal areas and along commuter belts. Such Inner Regional areas can offer accessibility to services without the higher costs associated with living in Major Cities. Of those people who resided in a Statistical Local Area (SLA) within (or mostly within) the Major City area incorporating Sydney in 1996, 54,800 had moved out to the surrounding SLAs of Blue Mountains (C), Gosford (C), Hawkesbury (C), Wollondilly (A), and Wyong (A) by 2001. Over

Population change — 1991 to 2001

	2001	*Change since 1991(a)*
Remoteness Area	'000	%
Major Cities	12 373.3	12.9
Inner Regional	3 872.7	14.3
Outer Regional	1 978.5	4.9
Remote	334.7	–0.2
Very Remote	201.1	4.5
Australia(b)	**18 769.2**	**11.9**

(a) Based on 2001 Remoteness Areas.
(b) Includes persons in Migratory category.

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

Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples — 2001

Remoteness Area	*Indigenous population* '000	*Proportion of Indigenous population* %	*Proportion of Remoteness Area population(a)* %
Major Cities	125.1	30.5	1.1
Inner Regional	83.2	20.3	2.2
Outer Regional	94.6	23.1	5.0
Remote	35.0	8.5	11.0
Very Remote	71.9	17.5	38.3
Australia(b)	**410.0**	**100.0**	**2.3**

(a) People who did not state whether or not they were of Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander origin were excluded prior to the calculation of percentages.
(b) Includes persons in Migratory category.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

the same period, less than half that number (24,500 people) moved from these outer SLAs to the Major City area incorporating Sydney. High housing costs in capital cities particularly affect those on low incomes. People on government benefits who moved out of Sydney to non-metropolitan areas in 2001 indicated that a major reason for moving was housing affordability.[1]

In addition, people moving to Inner Regional areas along the coast may do so as a lifestyle choice. In the five-year period ending June 1999, all 15 SLAs outside capital cities which grew by more than 5,000 people, were coastal SLAs; eight of these were located in (or mostly within) Inner Regional areas of Australia (see *Australian Social Trends 2000*, Regional populations: growth and decline, pp. 11–15).

Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples

In the 2001 Census, there were 410,000 people who indicated they were of Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander origin. Indigenous peoples may experience both cultural and language barriers when accessing services in the community. In addition, a comparatively high proportion of Indigenous peoples live in regional and remote areas, away from many of the services located in larger urban centres. While the largest proportion of Indigenous peoples lived in Major Cities (31%), almost half (49%) lived in Outer Regional, Remote, and Very Remote areas combined, compared with 13% of the total Australian population. For more information about access to services in Indigenous communities see *Australian Social Trends 2003*, Services in remote Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities, pp. 55–59.

The number of Indigenous peoples in Very Remote areas increased by 16% between 1991 and 2001, and as a result this group increased as a proportion of the total population of these areas (from 33% to 38%). This growth was consistent with the younger age profile and higher fertility rates of Indigenous peoples. The increase in the Indigenous population in Very Remote areas is largely the result of natural population increase. The increased propensity for people to identify as being of Indigenous origin is unlikely to have contributed significantly to growth in more remote areas; this was predominantly a factor in urban areas.[2]

People born overseas

The overseas-born population in Australia is highly urbanised. In 2001, 83% of those people born in another country lived in Major Cities. As a result, people born overseas accounted for 29% of the population in Major Cities, with this proportion being lower in the other Remoteness Areas at around 11%. A person's proficiency in spoken English may affect their ability to communicate in day-to-day activities and access services. In 2001, 12% of those people born overseas and located in Major Cities did not speak English or did not speak it well. In comparison, all

People born overseas(a) — 2001

Remoteness Area	*Overseas-born population* '000	*Proportion of overseas-born population* %	*Proportion of Remoteness Area population(b)* %
Major Cities	3 409.0	83.0	29.2
Inner Regional	431.7	10.5	11.7
Outer Regional	208.9	5.1	11.2
Remote	35.0	0.9	11.2
Very Remote	19.5	0.5	10.4
Australia(c)	**4 105.6**	**100.0**	**23.1**

(a) Born overseas includes Australian External Territories, 'Inadequately described', 'At sea', and 'Not elsewhere classified'.
(b) People who did not state their birthplace were excluded prior to the calculation of percentages.
(c) Includes persons in Migratory category.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

other areas had a lower proportion of people in these categories (between 3% and 4%). Migrants who do not speak English, or do not speak it well, may choose to settle in Major Cities where they are more likely to find other people who speak their language, and where they have better access to multilingual and other support services.[3]

Demographic characteristics

In 2001, there were 98 males for every 100 females in Australia. Women outnumbered men in Major Cities and Inner Regional areas, but in the more remote areas there were a greater number of males than females. The highest ratio of males to females occurred in Very Remote areas where there were 125 males for every 100 females. With the exception of the Indigenous population, most adults living in Very Remote areas are likely to be located there for work, with much of this employment focused on male-dominated industries (such as Mining, and Agriculture, forestry and fishing). Men account for 67% of lone person households in Very Remote areas, compared with 45% in Australia overall.

In 2001, the median age in Major Cities (the age at which half the population are older and half are younger) was 35.1 years. In Inner Regional areas the median age was highest at 37.3 years; median ages then declined consistently as remoteness increased, to 32.3 years in Very Remote areas. These variations in median ages across Remoteness Areas are due to underlying differences in the age profile of these areas.

In 2001, Major Cities had the highest percentage of young adults (aged 15–24 years) as a proportion of the population (14%). Major Cities provide opportunities for education, employment and social interaction, which are general requirements of people in this age group. There is a recognised pattern of young people migrating out of country areas to cities, seeking such services and opportunities (see *Australian Social Trends 2003*, Youth migration within Australia, pp. 22–25, and Regional differences in education and outcomes, pp. 91–95). Consistent with this movement, Outer Regional and Remote areas had the lowest proportions of young adults (12% and 11% respectively).

Inner Regional and Outer Regional areas had the highest proportions of people aged 65 years and over (14% and 13% respectively), contributing to higher median ages for these Remoteness Areas. In addition to lifestyle factors, non-metropolitan areas have a comparatively lower cost of living than capital cities, and these locations attract and retain older people (see *Australian Social Trends 2002,* Regional population ageing, pp. 7–11). Further, rates of disability increase with age, affecting just over half (54%) of those people aged 65 years and over.[4] Many Inner Regional areas have the necessary population base to support specific services for the aged, such as nursing homes, and are generally located closer to capital cities where more specialised services are available.[5]

The lowest proportions of people aged 65 years and over were in Remote and Very Remote areas (10% and 8% respectively). This may partly be the result of older people moving away from these areas to less remote locations, such as Inner Regional areas, to access health services and other forms of assistance.[6] The lower percentage of older people is also likely to be related to the higher proportion of Indigenous peoples in these areas and their significantly lower life expectancy compared with the total Australian population (see *Australian Social Trends 2002*, Mortality of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples, pp. 86–90).

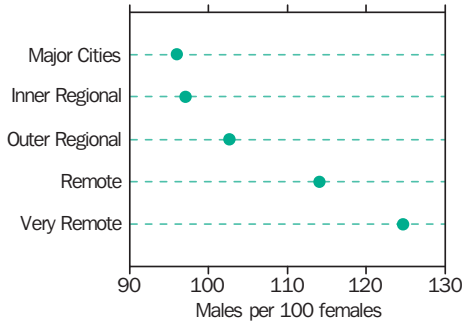
Age profile of Remoteness Areas — 2001

	Major Cities	*Inner Regional*	*Outer Regional*	*Remote*	*Very Remote*	*Australia(a)*
Age group (years)	%	%	%	%	%	%
0–14	20.0	22.3	22.6	23.2	23.6	20.8
15–24	14.3	12.7	11.9	11.2	13.7	13.7
25–34	15.5	12.0	13.0	15.5	17.1	14.5
35–44	15.4	14.9	15.3	16.2	15.1	15.3
45–54	13.6	13.9	14.0	13.8	12.9	13.7
55–64	8.9	10.1	10.5	10.2	9.9	9.4
65 and over	12.3	14.1	12.8	9.7	7.7	12.6
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	years	years	years	years	years	years
Median age	35.1	37.3	36.8	35.0	32.3	35.7

(a) Includes persons in Migratory category.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

Males and females in Remoteness Areas — 2001



Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

Selected family types across Remoteness Areas — 2001

	Major Cities	Inner Regional	Outer Regional	Remote	Very Remote	Australia(a)
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Couple family with children(b)	48.2	44.3	44.6	47.9	49.3	47.0
Couple family without children(c)	*34.1*	*39.0*	*39.8*	*38.1*	*31.4*	*35.7*
Male partner aged less than 35 years	7.9	5.1	5.5	7.0	7.5	7.0
Male partner aged 55 years or over	18.0	24.1	23.0	18.1	11.5	19.8
One-parent family(b)	15.7	15.5	14.3	12.6	17.2	15.4
All families(d)	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**

(a) Includes persons in Migratory category.
(b) Includes children of any age.
(c) Includes couple families without children not specified in table.
(d) Includes other family types not specified in table.

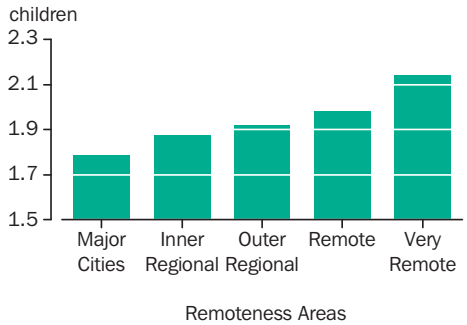
Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

Family characteristics

In 2001, the proportions of family, lone person and group households were similar across Remoteness Areas. However, multi-family households accounted for a greater proportion of family households in Very Remote areas (10%), compared with all other Remoteness Areas (between 1% and 2%).

Opportunities for employment, along with availability of health, education and other services, are important factors in attracting and retaining particular family types. The age distribution of people in an area is also linked to the presence of different family types. In 2001, older couples without children (where the male partner was aged 55 years or over) comprised almost one quarter of families in Inner Regional and Outer Regional areas (24% and 23% respectively), compared with 20% nationally. This is consistent with these areas having higher proportions of older people. In comparison, these predominantly 'empty nest' families (where adult children have left home) accounted for just 12% of families in Very Remote areas, where older people accounted for a smaller share of the population.

Average number of children under 15 years in families with children — 2001



Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

Families in Very Remote areas were more likely to have children living with them than any other area — Very Remote areas had the highest proportion of both couple families with children (49% of all families), and one parent families (17%). Families with children in Very Remote areas were also more likely to contain more children than those in less remote areas; the average number of children (aged less than 15 years) increased across Remoteness Areas from 1.8 children in Major Cities to 2.1 in Very Remote areas. There is a pattern of increasing fertility from city areas to regional and remote areas. In Major Cities, the lower levels of fertility are accompanied by higher levels of educational attainment and skilled occupations. In Remote and Very Remote areas, the higher level of fertility of Indigenous women contributed to the higher average number of children.[7]

Endnotes

1 Marshall, N., Murphy, P., Burnley, I. and Hugo, G. 2003, *Welfare Outcomes of Migration of Low-Income Earners From Metropolitan to Non-Metropolitan Australia*, Australian Housing and Urban Research Institute.

2 Australian Bureau of Statistics 1999, *Occasional Paper: Population Issues, Indigenous Australians, 1996,* cat. no. 4708.0, ABS, Canberra.

3 Birrell, B. and Rapson, V. 2002, 'Two Australias: Migrant settlement at the end of the 20th century', *People and Place*, vol. 10, no. 1, pp. 10–25.

4 Australian Bureau of Statistics 1999, *Disability, Ageing and Carers, Australia: Summary of findings, 1998*, cat. no. 4430.0, ABS, Canberra.

5 Strong, K., Trickett, P., Titulaer, I., and Bhatia, K. 1998, *Health in rural and remote Australia*, AIHW, Canberra.

6 Neyland, B. and Kendig, H. 1996, 'Retirement Migration to the Coast', in *Population Shift: Mobility and Change in Australia*, eds Newton, P. and Bell, M., AGPS, Canberra.

7 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2002, *Births, Australia, 2001,* cat. no. 3301.0, ABS, Canberra.

Ancestry of Australia's population

POPULATION CHARACTERISTICS

In 2001, the most common ancestry reported by people living in Australia was Australian (38%), followed by English (36%).

What is the ethnic make-up of the Australian population? This question is asked for practical reasons, to do with planning programs aimed at immigrants and their children, but it also has a wider interest. Both the general public and social researchers are interested in ethnic and national identity, and in issues of cultural continuity and change. Some of the cultural affiliations of people in Australia are apparent from their birthplaces, the birthplaces of their parents, the languages they speak, and their religions. However, broader information, on self-reported ancestries in the population, can also indicate cultural diversity and change in Australia.

In 2001, the two most common ancestries of the Australian population were Australian (reported by 6.7 million people) and English (reported by 6.4 million). The third most common was Irish (1.9 million people), followed by Italian (800,000), German (742,000), Chinese (557,000) and Scottish (540,000). A further six ancestries were each stated by between 150,000 and 500,000 people — Greek, Dutch, Lebanese, Indian, Vietnamese and Polish. In total, more than 160 ancestries were separately identified, many of which were relatively uncommon (70 were each stated by less than 2,500 people).

Ancestry in the 2001 Census

The 2001 Census of Population and Housing included the question 'What is the person's ancestry?', to which 93% of the population responded. *Ancestry* is as reported by the person and reflects their own assessment of their cultural and ethnic background. As up to two ancestries were recorded per person, some people will be counted in more than one category.

Ancestries were classified using the *Australian Standard Classification of Cultural and Ethnic Groups (ASCCEG)* (ABS cat. no. 1249.0). The classification recognises the self-defined and self-reported ancestries of all Australians and includes ancestries which refer to nations (e.g. French), to groups within nations (e.g. Maori, Sinhalese), or which refer to a group or region which crosses national boundaries (e.g. Kurdish, Jewish).

First generation Australians are people living in Australia who were born overseas.

Second generation Australians are Australian-born people living in Australia, with at least one overseas-born parent.

Since 1986, the fastest growth among the leading ancestries has been in South and East Asian ancestries, with Chinese, Vietnamese and Indian ancestries more than doubling in

Ancestry responses — 2001

Number of people who stated the ancestry	*Ancestries in descending order by size (a)(b)*
6.7 million	Australian
6.4 million	English
1.9 million	Irish
500 000 – 999 999	Italian, German, Chinese, Scottish
150 000 – 499 999	Greek, Dutch, Lebanese, Indian, Vietnamese, Polish
50 000 – 149 999	Maltese, Filipino, New Zealander, Croatian, Serbian, Australian Aboriginal, Welsh, Macedonian, French, Spanish, Maori, Hungarian, Russian, Sinhalese, Turkish, South African
20 000 – 49 999	American, Korean, Danish, Austrian, Portuguese, Ukrainian, Japanese, Indonesian, Samoan, Egyptian, Swedish, Jewish, Swiss, Chilean, Khmer, Thai, Canadian
10 000 – 19 999	Latvian, Iranian, Assyrian/Chaldean, Malay, Finnish, Bosnian, Mauritian, Norwegian, Czech, Fijian, Romanian, Tongan, Armenian, Slovene, Pakistani, Afghan, Anglo-Indian, Lithuanian, Iraqi, Burmese, Albanian, Syrian, Lao
5 000 – 9 999	Torres Strait Islander, Bengali, Papua New Guinean, Cook Islander, Tamil, Estonian, Slovak, Palestinian, Salvadoran, Argentinian, Timorese, Uruguayan, Somali
2 500 – 4 999	Peruvian, Kurdish, Taiwanese, Bulgarian, Sudanese, Brazilian, Colombian, Australian South Sea Islander, Coptic, Ethiopian, Nepalese, Zimbabwean, Jordanian, Hispanic (North American)
Less than 2 500	70 other ancestries

(a) As up to two ancestries were coded per person, these groups are not mutually exclusive.
(b) Includes specific ancestries only, excludes residual categories such as Other British.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

number by 2001. Lebanese ancestry also increased rapidly over the period, by 76%. These changes are consistent with the broad trends in immigration (see *Australian Social Trends 2001*, Coming to Australia, pp. 16–20) and the birth rates of immigrants in Australia. However, other changes seem to have resulted from people describing their ancestry differently in 2001 than they had in 1986. Among the leading ancestries, increases in Australian, Irish and German ancestries and decreases in English, Scottish and Welsh ancestries appear to reflect such shifts in perception or reporting. These reporting shifts at least partly resulted from changes in the design of the census question, in particular the introduction of a tick box format in 2001.

Australian ancestry

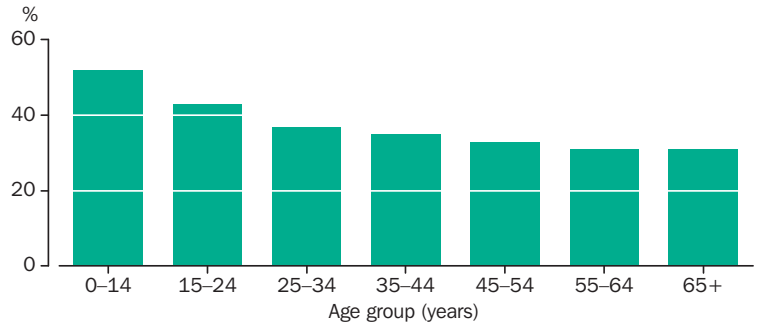
In 2001, 39% of the population reported Australian ancestry (either as their only ancestry or as one of two). Almost all those who gave Australian as an ancestry were born in Australia (99%) and had at least one Australian-born parent (98%). While some people stating Australian ancestry were first or second generation Australians, most of these people had a family connection to Australia. Of the 1% who were born overseas, three-quarters had an Australian-born parent. Of the 16% who were second generation Australians, most had an Australian-born parent as well as one born overseas (91%).

Just over three-quarters of the Australian ancestry group stated no other ancestries. Among the 24% who did report another ancestry, the ancestries most commonly stated were English (reported by 13% of the total Australian ancestry group), Irish (3%), Scottish (1%), German (1%) and Italian (1%). Less than 1% of the Australian ancestry group spoke a language other than English at home.

Over half (52%) of children aged less than 15 years were reported as having Australian ancestry, a higher proportion than in older age groups. This is largely due to the lower proportion of children than adults who were born overseas.

The number of people reporting Australian ancestry in 2001 was almost double the 3.4 million (24% of the population) who gave Australian as their ancestry in the 1986 Census. This reflected a shift to reporting Australian ancestry among Australian-born people with Australian-born parents. Among these people, the proportion stating Australian ancestry increased from 33% to 56%, making this the group most likely to state Australian ancestry in 2001. There was also a substantial increase in reporting of Australian ancestry among Australian-born people with one parent born in Australia and one born overseas. Of this group, 33% stated Australian ancestry in 1986 and 49% in 2001. The explicit inclusion of Australian as an ancestry response in the 2001 Census (through its inclusion among the tick box answers) seems likely to have influenced this change. However, a real change in cultural affiliations may also have contributed. Compared with 1986, some people may have placed more value or relevance on their Australian affiliations and less on historic ties to England.

Australian ancestry(a) — 2001



(a) The proportion of the population of each age group who stated Australian as an ancestry. Those whose ancestry was not stated were excluded prior to the calculation of percentages.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

Change in ancestry since 1986

Prior to 2001, an ancestry question had not been included in the census since 1986. As a result of the experience gained in the 1986 Census, the concept of ancestry was refined, a more exhaustive classification of ethnic and cultural groups was developed, and the format of the question was modified. A key conceptual difference compared with 1986 was an acceptance that the purpose of an ancestry question is to capture current ethnic or cultural affiliations, which are by nature self-perceived, rather than to attempt to document actual historic family origins. For this reason, 'Australian' was included as one of the tick box answers to the ancestry question. In contrast, in 1986 it was regarded as a less informative response and not included among the example answers to the question. For these reasons, only broad comparisons between 1986 and 2001 are possible.

Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples

Indigenous peoples are identified in the census by their answers to specific questions regarding whether people are of Aboriginal and/or Torres Strait Islander origin. In 2001, 410,000 Indigenous persons were counted in the census, an increase of 16% over 1996, continuing the trend of recent years (see *Population Distribution, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Australians 2001,* ABS cat. no. 4705.0). The most common responses of Indigenous peoples to the ancestry question were Australian (59% of Indigenous people), Australian Aboriginal (25%), English (17%), Irish (7%), Torres Strait Islander (3%) and German (2%).

British and Irish ancestries

From the beginning of the colonial period until after the Second World War, people from the United Kingdom and Ireland made up a large majority of people coming to Australia. They continue to make up a substantial proportion of immigrants (for example 10% of those arriving between 1986 and 2001 came from England, the second largest group after New Zealanders). Therefore, many Australian-born people can trace their origins to these countries. In 1986, 8.2 million people (57% of the population) reported at least one British or Irish ancestry. Despite continued immigration from the United Kingdom and Ireland, in 2001 the total number stating a British or Irish ancestry decreased to 7.7 million, or 44% of the population. However, different trends were observed for the two ancestry groups.

All the British ancestries decreased in number and as a proportion of the population. English ancestry was reported by 6.6 million people (46%) in 1986. This decreased to 6.4 million (37%) in 2001. The numbers of people stating Scottish and Welsh ancestries decreased more markedly than did the number reporting English ancestry (by 27% and 29% respectively). However, in contrast to these decreases, the number of people stating Irish ancestry more than doubled, from 903,000 to 1.9 million, and as a proportion of the population this group increased from 6% to 11%. Australian-born people with Australian-born parents were the major contributors to these changes. Among these people, the proportion stating a British ancestry decreased from 59% in 1986 to 41% in 2001, while the proportion stating Irish ancestry increased from 8% to 14%.

As well as the changes to the format of the ancestry question between censuses, the reasons for these changes may include changes in the perception or awareness of British or Irish ancestry among people living in Australia. For example, it has been suggested that a new, positive stereotype of Irish people has replaced a negative view.[1]

Ancestry and post-war immigration

In 2001, the leading ancestries other than Australian, British and Irish, were those stemming primarily from immigration since the Second World War. These ancestry groups ranged in size from the 800,000 people reporting Italian ancestry to 151,000 reporting Polish ancestry. They included ancestries associated with earlier waves of post-war immigration, such as German (742,000) and more recent immigration, such as Indian (157,000). People who were either first or second generation Australians made up a substantial majority of all these groups, except those of German ancestry. While 42% of those of German ancestry were migrants or their Australian-born children, the majority were born in Australia to Australian-born people. German immigration to Australia was quite high in the post-war period up to the 1960s, then dropped substantially, allowing sufficient time for many German migrants to have Australian-born grandchildren. Germans were also the largest overseas-born group in

Selected characteristics of ancestry groups(a) — 2001

	Generations in Australia						
	First generation	*Second generation*	*Australian born of Australian-born parents*	*Also stated another ancestry*	*Spoke a language other than English at home*	*Proportion of the Australian population*	*Total(b)*
Ancestry	%	%	%	%	%	%	'000
Australian	1.5	15.7	82.8	24.3	1.2	38.7	6 739.6
English	18.7	21.1	60.2	41.8	0.9	36.5	6 358.9
Irish	11.4	16.4	72.1	75.8	1.1	11.0	1 919.7
Italian	30.9	44.4	24.7	33.9	42.3	4.6	800.3
German	19.0	22.5	58.5	68.3	9.8	4.3	742.2
Chinese	74.1	20.7	5.2	14.8	79.6	3.2	556.6
Scottish	28.2	26.7	45.1	57.1	0.9	3.1	540.0
Greek	37.8	46.2	16.0	21.2	68.8	2.2	375.7
Dutch	39.4	44.9	15.7	42.7	15.1	1.5	268.8
Lebanese	43.7	50.0	6.4	12.0	80.0	0.9	162.2
Indian	77.4	20.7	2.0	17.1	60.2	0.9	156.6
Vietnamese	73.8	25.9	0.3	6.0	95.9	0.9	156.6
Polish	49.3	38.4	12.3	36.7	40.1	0.9	150.9

(a) Ancestries stated by more than 150,000 people.
(b) Total includes people whose birthplace, parent's birthplaces, or language spoken at home were not stated, not codeable or inadequately described. However, these people were excluded prior to the calculation of percentages.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

Australia, other than the British or Irish born, in the 19th and early 20th centuries. At the other extreme, almost all people of Vietnamese ancestry were first or second generation Australians, consistent with the timing of Vietnamese immigration, which essentially began in the mid-1970s and increased over the 1980s.

The timing and rate of immigration from particular countries determines whether sufficient time has passed for the earliest migrants to have had Australian-born children or grandchildren, and also whether the first generation has been 'replenished' by new arrivals, or has gradually aged and diminished. The leading post-war ancestries differed in the relative sizes of their first and second generation in 2001. Among those of Italian, German, Greek, Dutch and Lebanese ancestry, people who were second generation Australians outnumbered those who were first generation. Among people of Chinese, Indian, Vietnamese and Polish ancestry, the first generation was larger than the second.

In 2001, almost a quarter of the total population (24%) stated more than one ancestry. Some ancestries were typically stated as a sole ancestry, while others most often occurred in combination with other ancestries. Relatively few people of Vietnamese ancestry stated another ancestry (6%). The proportion of people stating another ancestry was also relatively low for the Lebanese (12%), Chinese (15%) and Indian (17%) ancestry groups. Compared with these groups, people of Greek (21%), Italian (34%) and Polish ancestries (37%) were more likely to state another ancestry, but the ancestries associated with post-war immigration which were most likely to occur in combination with another ancestry were Dutch (43%) and German (68%). The British and Irish ancestries were all relatively likely to occur in combination, with Irish ancestry the most extreme case (76% also stated another ancestry). Two related factors contributing to these differences are the length of time since the first immigrants of each group arrived and the extent to which people from each group have married people from different backgrounds in Australia.

Within some ancestry groups, people share the cultural tie of speaking a common language other than English. Among the leading ancestries, the proportion of people who spoke a language other than English at home was highest for those of Vietnamese (96%), Lebanese (80%) and Chinese (80%) ancestry and lowest for those of Dutch (15%) and German (10%) ancestry. In most ancestry groups, one language predominated. However, the languages spoken by those of Chinese ancestry were Cantonese (40% of the ancestry group) and Mandarin (24%), with a further 6% speaking other Chinese languages, and 9% speaking a Southeast Asian language.

Those ancestry groups most likely to speak a language other than English at home, such as Vietnamese, were associated with recent immigration, while the ancestry groups least likely to speak a language other than English, such as German, had a longer history in Australia. Other factors besides time, and number of generations in Australia, are also thought to affect the pace at which immigrants and their descendants shift to speaking only English at home. For example, the size and geographic distribution of the group and the extent to which they intermarry with people of other backgrounds, appear to be influential.[2] Factors such as these may explain some of the differences in the proportion of people speaking a language other than English between ancestry groups such as Dutch (15%) and Italian (42%), where the differences in the timing of immigration are not as pronounced as between German (10%) and Vietnamese (96%).

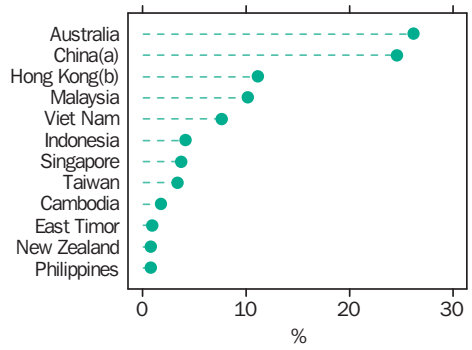
Birthplaces(a) of people with selected ancestries — 2001

Ancestry	'000(b)	*Leading birthplaces(c)*
English	6 358.9	Australia (82%), England (13%), New Zealand (3%)
Chinese	556.6	Australia (26%), China excl. SARs and Taiwan Province (25%), Hong Kong (11%), Malaysia (10%), Viet Nam (8%), Indonesia (4%), Singapore (4%), Taiwan (3%), Cambodia (2%)
Indian	156.6	India (43%), Australia (23%), Fiji (18%), Malaysia (3%), South Africa (2%), Singapore (2%), England (2%)
Croatian	105.7	Australia (49%), Croatia (42%), Bosnia and Herzegovina (4%), Federal Republic of Yugoslavia (2%)
Serbian	97.3	Federal Republic of Yugoslavia (41%), Australia (41%), Bosnia and Herzegovina (5%), Croatia (5%)
Spanish	75.2	Australia (40%), Spain (16%), Philippines (9%), Chile (9%), Uruguay (5%), El Salvador (4%), Argentina (4%), Peru (2%)
Maori	73.0	New Zealand (70%), Australia (29%)
Jewish	22.6	Australia (41%), Israel (13%), Ukraine (8%), Russian Federation (5%), Poland (7%), South Africa (5%), England (2%)

(a) Birthplaces accounting for at least 2% of the ancestry group.
(b) Includes people whose birthplace was not stated, not codeable or inadequately described or who were born at sea.
(c) People whose birthplace was not stated, not codeable or inadequately described, or who were born at sea, were excluded prior to the calculation of percentages.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

Birthplaces of people of Chinese ancestry — 2001



(a) Excluding SARs and Taiwan Province.
(b) SAR of China.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

Ancestry and birthplace

Most of the leading ancestries are strongly associated with Australia and one other birthplace. For example, in 2001, of people stating Italian ancestry, 69% were born in Australia, and 27% were born in Italy, with the remaining 4% spread across many other birthplaces. However, this was not the case for Chinese and Indian ancestry. Due to the historic migrations of people from China, especially to Southeast Asia, Chinese ancestry was associated not only with Australia (26%), China (25%) and Hong Kong (11%) but with several other birthplaces, such as Malaysia (10%) and Viet Nam (8%). Likewise, Indian ancestry in Australia was associated with Fiji as a birthplace (18%), in addition to India (43%) and Australia (23%).

On the other hand, people arriving in Australia from the same birthplace may have different ethnic and cultural affiliations. For example, the ancestries of East Timor-born people living in Australia were Chinese (61%), Timorese (40%) and Portuguese (10%). Of people born in New Zealand, 14% stated Maori as their ancestry, while English (52%) and New Zealander (21%) were the most common responses. As with those born in New Zealand and Australia, ancestries given by those born in some other countries often include a national ancestry and one associated with a colonial power. Thus, a large proportion of those born in Chile reported their ancestry as Chilean (63%), but Spanish was also relatively common (29%).

Several ancestries have links to specific religions. In 2001, Coptic ancestry was reported by 3,300 people, while 1,100 people identified themselves as Sikhs. Jewish was given as an ancestry by 22,600 people, with Australia (41%), Israel (13%), the Ukraine (8%), the Russian Federation (7%) and Poland (7%) the most common birthplaces. Of these people, 69% stated Judaism as their religion (making up 27% of all those reporting Judaism as their religion). The remainder of the Jewish ancestry group included people who stated they had no religion (15%), Christians (10%), and people who did not state a religion (4%).

Endnotes

1 O'Farrell, P. 1993, *The Irish in Australia,* New South Wales University Press, Kensington, NSW.

2 Clyne, M. and Kipp, S. 1997, 'Language maintenance and language shift: Community languages in Australia, 1996', *People and Place*, vol. 5, no. 4, pp. 19–27.

Ancestries(a) of people with selected birthplaces — 2001

Birthplace	'000(b)	*Leading ancestries(c)*
New Zealand	355.8	English (52%), New Zealander (21%), Maori (14%), Irish (13%), Scottish (6%), Samoan (3%), German (2%)
Viet Nam	154.8	Vietnamese (72%), Chinese (28%)
Philippines	103.9	Filipino (93%), Spanish (7%), Chinese (4%), Australian (2%)
India	95.5	Indian (71%), English (17%), Anglo-Indian (7%), Irish (3%)
South Africa	79.4	South African (48%), English (33%), Irish (6%), German (5%), Dutch (5%), Indian (4%), Scottish (3%), Australian (3%), Lithuanian (2%)
Malaysia	78.9	Chinese (72%), Malay (11%), English (6%), Australian (5%), Irish (2%)
Indonesia	47.2	Chinese (50%), Indonesian (42%), Dutch (10%), Australian (2%), English (2%)
Sri Lanka	53.5	Sinhalese (78%), Tamil (10%), Dutch (7%), English (6%)
Singapore	33.5	Chinese (65%), English (12%), Indian (9%), Australian (6%), Malay (4%), Irish (3%)
Chile	23.4	Chilean (63%), Spanish (29%), German (3%), Italian (3%), English (2%)
East Timor	9.4	Chinese (61%), Timorese (40%), Portuguese (10%)

(a) Accounting for at least 2% of the birthplace group.
(b) Includes people whose ancestries were not stated, not codeable or inadequately described.
(c) People whose ancestries were not stated, not codeable or inadequately described were excluded prior to the calculation of percentages.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

People in institutional settings

POPULATION COMPOSITION

From 1981 to 2001, the number of people in psychiatric hospitals or psychiatric institutions decreased from 21,700 to 6,100, while the number in accommodation for the retired or aged increased from 27,400 to 147,700.

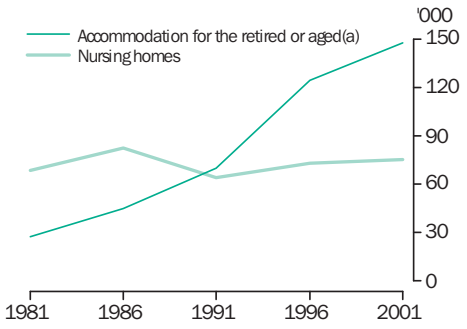
People stay in institutional settings for a variety of reasons, such as frailty associated with old age, disability, ill health, homelessness, economic hardship, rehabilitation, family breakdown or dysfunction, detention, correction, study, employment, and religious observance. This article focuses on reasons related to disability and aged care, breakdown in the functioning of primary social support networks such as the family, and issues of crime and justice. Medical advances and changes in society's demographic structure, economic prosperity, social values and attitudes, government policies, and available housing options have influenced the number of Australians living in institutional settings, and are likely to do so into the future.

Disability and aged care institutions

Over recent decades, population growth and increased life expectancy has had the potential to increase the number of institutionalised older people and people with a disability. Between 1981 and 2001, there was a 67% increase in the number of people aged 65 years and over. Related to this increase, the number of Australians aged five years and over living with severe or profound restriction due to disability more than doubled between 1981 and 1998.

At the same time, the effect of these changes was partly offset by changes to disability and aged care policy. Since the mid-1980s, government policy has increasingly emphasised the need to support older people and people with a disability to live in the community with some degree of independence, receiving help when needed from family, friends, neighbours, and formal service providers (government, private non-profit, and commercial). Since its inception in 1985, the Home and Community Care Program has provided a range of

Number of people in selected types of accommodation for older people



(a) Comprises cared accommodation for the retired or aged and self-care accommodation for the retired or aged.

Source: ABS 1981–2001 Censuses of Population and Housing.

Institutional settings

Most of the data presented in this article were collected in various Censuses of Population and Housing, using census definitions, classifications, collection methodologies and coding procedures. This article mainly looks at people who spent census night in one of the following 10, of 19 types of *non-private dwelling* (i.e. dwellings other than private houses, flats, units or apartments etc.) defined and classified by the census:

- Nursing homes (*nursing homes* are public or private establishments providing mainly nursing care for inpatients, including sanatoria, convalescent homes and hospitals with mainly nursing facilities for the aged and terminally ill, but excluding cared accommodation for the retired or aged.)
- Cared accommodation for the retired or aged (*cared accommodation for the retired or aged* are hostel type structures with common living and eating facilities for people who, in general, are in good health and capable of looking after themselves including hostels for the aged, ANZAC / war veterans homes, and homes for retired members of religious orders, but excluding institutions providing mainly medical or nursing care, establishments owned by retirement trusts, and self-care accommodation for the retired or aged — defined below)
- Hostels for the disabled
- Psychiatric hospitals or institutions
- Hostels for the homeless, night shelters, refuges
- Child care institutions
- Corrective institutions for children
- Other welfare institutions
- Prison, corrective or detention institutions for adults
- Convents, monasteries.

People in *self-care accommodation for the retired or aged* are also discussed in this article but are not considered to be living in an institutional setting as they provide their own meals and are regarded as being self sufficient. This type of accommodation includes retirement villages that offer life tenure arrangements.

services to people who might otherwise have required institutional care. There has also been an increase in self-care-style accommodation for older people. Consequently, the number of people in nursing homes and other traditional disability and aged care institutions has not increased at the same rate as the populations of older people and people with a disability.

...change since 1981

In 2001, 75,400 people spent census night in a nursing home. Most of these people (73,800) lived in the nursing home as a recipient of nursing care while the remainder usually lived elsewhere or were living in the nursing home as an owner, proprietor, staff or family member. Over the preceding two decades, the number of people who spent census night in a nursing home grew more slowly than the aged population.

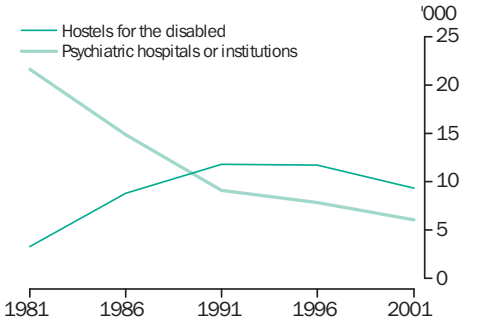
Growth between 1981 and 2001 in other types of accommodation for older people may partly explain this comparatively slow growth in the number of people in nursing homes. For example, the number of people in accommodation for the retired or aged increased from 27,400 to 147,700 over this period. In 2001, most (80,400) of these

Characteristics of people in selected institutional settings — 2001

	Nursing homes	*Cared accommodation for the retired or aged*	*Hostels for the disabled*	*Psychiatric hospitals or institutions*
	%	%	%	%
Age group (years)				
Under 35	0.4	0.3	19.0	25.8
35–64	5.5	5.0	54.5	50.6
65 and over	94.1	94.6	26.5	23.6
Sex				
Male	29.1	26.5	52.6	55.0
Female	70.9	73.5	47.4	45.0
Marital status				
Never married	11.9	12.7	71.3	57.2
Widowed	59.8	67.2	14.4	9.7
Divorced	4.4	5.4	6.3	10.4
Separated but not divorced	1.3	1.7	1.7	4.5
Married	22.7	13.1	6.4	18.2
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total	**75.4**	**67.3**	**9.3**	**6.1**

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

People in hostels for the disabled and psychiatric hospitals or institutions



Source: ABS 1981–2001 Censuses of Population and Housing.

147,700 people were in self-care accommodation such as retirement villages, a 37% increase in number since 1996. In comparison, growth over this five-year period in the number of people in cared accommodation for the retired or aged was much lower at 2%.

The rate of growth in the number of people in nursing homes between 1981 and 2001 is likely to have also been influenced by a range of policies aimed at reducing the proportion of low-dependency residents living in nursing homes.[1] In 1998, 96% of people living in a nursing home or aged care hostel had a disability with specific restriction(s). The vast majority (92%) were severely or profoundly restricted in performing one or more tasks related to communication, mobility or self care.[2]

In the provision of care for people with a disability, non-institutionalisation has been accompanied by de-institutionalisation. Consistent with the large-scale closures of mental health and intellectual disability institutions during the 1970s and 1980s,[3] the number of people in psychiatric hospitals or institutions declined substantially between 1981 (21,700) and 1991 (9,200). The fall in numbers continued at a slower rate over the next decade, dropping to 6,100 by 2001.

Between 1981 and 1991, the number of people staying in hostels for the disabled more than trebled (from 3,300 to 11,800). Over the subsequent decade however, the number of people staying in this particular institutional setting decreased to 9,300 in 2001. This decrease occurred despite an estimated increase between 1993 and 1998 of approximately 40% in the number of Australians aged less than 65 years with a severe or profound communication, mobility or self care restriction.[4]

...demographic profile

At the time of the 2001 Census, 94% of people in nursing homes and 95% of people in accommodation for the retired or aged were aged 65 years and over. In contrast, 27% of people in hostels for the disabled were aged 65 years and over. The majority (55%) were aged between 35 and 64 years, and around one in five (19%) were aged less than 35 years. People in psychiatric hospitals or institutions tended to be younger still. While around half (51%) were aged between 35 and 64 years, 26% were less than 35.

In addition to being older, people in nursing homes and cared accommodation for the retired or aged were predominantly female (71% and 74% respectively) and widowed (60% and 67%). This demographic profile relates to the longer life expectancy of women compared with men. In comparison, there were more males (53%) than females in hostels for the disabled, and nearly three-quarters (71%) of people in this type of institutional setting had never married. People in psychiatric hospitals or institutions were even more likely to be male (55%), but were less likely to have never married (57% compared with 71%). Of people in psychiatric hospitals or institutions who had married at some time in their life, more than half were separated, divorced or widowed.

Welfare institutions

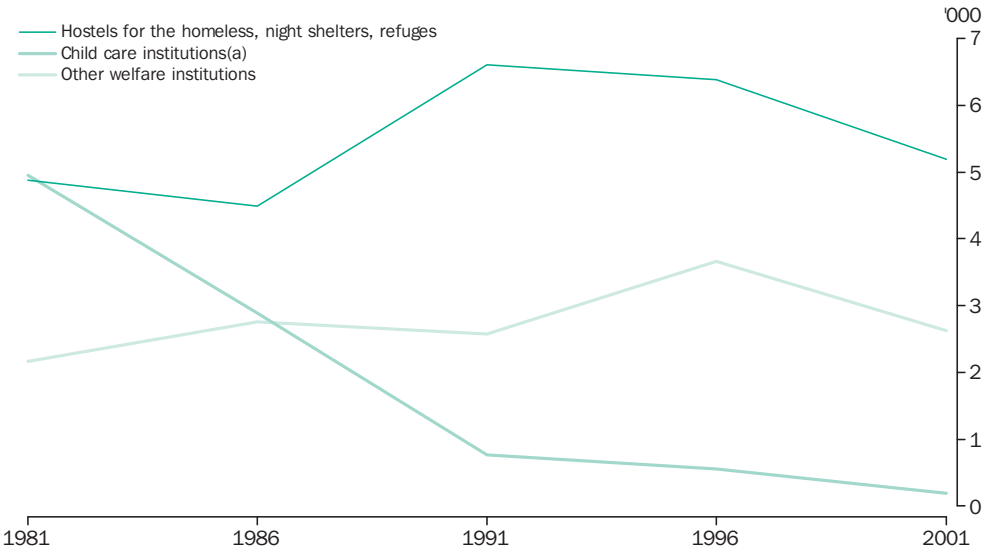
People staying in institutional settings which provide mainly protective care include orphans, homeless people, women seeking refuge, and people undergoing rehabilitation from drug addiction. These institutional settings are commonly funded by governments and run by non-government agencies.

There has been a large decline in numbers in child care institutions in recent decades. The number of children in this type of institutional setting fell from 5,000 to 200 between 1981 and 2001. Influenced by research in the early 1950s that linked emotional adjustment and mental health to maternal love and care in childhood, in the late 1950s and 1960s child protection services began to steadily move away from institution-based services. Child welfare agencies preferred children to be cared for in their own home, in the home of other family members, or in foster care.[3] For more information see *Australian Social Trends 2003*, Child protection, pp. 50–54.

In line with this preference to not institutionalise children, the number of juveniles in corrective institutions for children has also declined over recent decades. On census night in 2001, there were about 500 children in these corrective institutions, representing the continuation of a gradual decrease in number from around 1,500 in 1981.

On census night in 2001, there were 5,200 people staying in hostels for the homeless, night shelters and refuges. The number of people in these institutional settings rose markedly between 1986 and 1991, but declined over the following decade.

People in welfare institutions



(a) Includes adults counted in child care institutions on census night.

Source: ABS 1981–2001 Censuses of Population and Housing.

Members of religious orders

Not everyone living in an institutional setting does so compulsorily or because of a need for care. Some people choose to live communally for religious, educational or other reasons. People living in institutions providing mainly group accommodation for members of religious orders (such as convents and monasteries) are an example of this preference for living in an institutional setting.

Over the past two decades the number of people in convents and monasteries has more than halved. Numbers increased slightly between 1981 (10,600) and 1986 (10,700) but were progressively lower in 1991 (7,500), 1996 (5,900) and 2001 (5,100). In 2001, most people in this type of institutional setting (84%) stated a Christian religion, and 62% were female.

Prisons

Set against the general trend towards non-institutionalisation and de-institutionalisation, one type of institutional setting that has seen its population increase over recent years has been prisons and corrective or detention institutions for adults (i.e. aged 18 years and over). Around 24,000 people spent census night 2001 in such institutional settings. After increasing marginally between 1981 and 1991, the number of people who spent census night in these institutions increased more markedly between 1991 and 2001.

This rise in the number of prisoners and detainees is consistent with increases in some types of recorded crime. For example, between 1993 and 2001, there were increases in the number of victims of robbery (108%) and sexual assault (37%), while between 1995 and 2001 there was a 49% increase in the number of victims of assault.[5] The rise is also consistent with increases between 1991 and 2001 in the median aggregate sentence length (from 3.0 years to 3.3 years), and in the number of unsentenced prisoners remanded in custody (from 1,983 to 4,334).[6]

Changes in other institutional settings may be contributing to increases in crime and in the number of prisoners and detainees. In particular, there is a widespread belief that one consequence of the de-institutionalisation of people with an intellectual or psychiatric disability has been an increase in the rate of imprisonment of such people.[3]

Despite the increased numbers, only a small proportion of people in Australia (well under 1%) spent census night 2001 in a prison, corrective institution or detention institution.

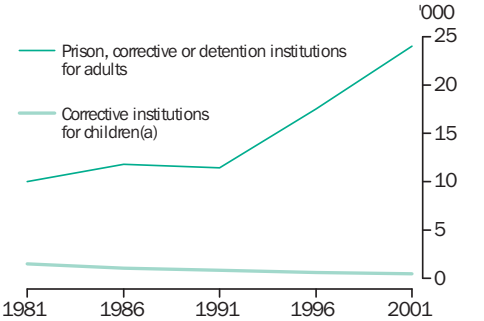
However, this rate of incarceration varied considerably between age groups, between males and females, and between Indigenous and non-Indigenous Australians.

At the end of June 2001, males were more likely than females of the same age group to be in prison. This was particularly true for young adults. For example, the imprisonment rate of men aged 20–24 years (610 per 100,000) was 11 times higher than the imprisonment rate of women of the same age (55 per 100,000). The likelihood of imprisonment was also greatest among relatively young adults (20–24 years for females and 25–29 years for males). Beyond these age groups, increasing age was accompanied by diminishing likelihood of being imprisoned.

The high rate of Indigenous Australians' contact with the criminal justice system and the prison system is an issue of concern to governments and communities. On 30 June 2001, approximately one in five prisoners (4,445) were of Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander origin. Indigenous Australians were much more likely to be imprisoned than other Australians, with an imprisonment rate of nearly 2% (1,829 prisoners per 100,000 Indigenous peoples aged 17 years and over). This rate of imprisonment was 15 times higher than among non-Indigenous Australians (123 prisoners per 100,000 non-Indigenous people aged 17 years and over).[6]

For both males and females, and for all age groups, imprisonment rates tended to be considerably higher among Indigenous than non-Indigenous Australians, with the differences being most pronounced among people aged between 20 and 34 years. In particular, among Australians aged

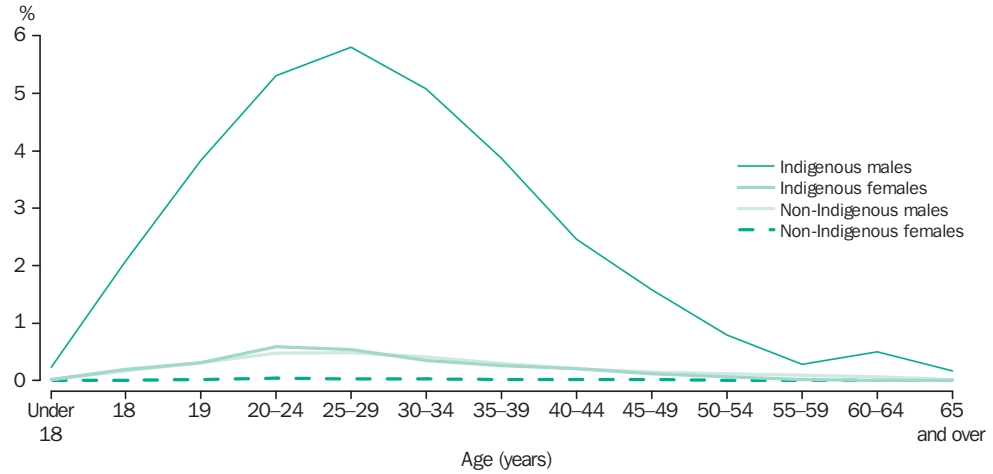
People in prisons, corrective institutions and detention institutions



(a) Includes adults counted in corrective institutions for children on census night.

Source: ABS 1981–2001 Censuses of Population and Housing.

Imprisonment rates — 2001



Source: Prisoners in Australia, 30 June 2001 (ABS cat. no. 4517.0).

25–29 years, the rate of imprisonment of non-Indigenous women was 33 per 100,000. The rate was 15 times higher among non-Indigenous men (490 per 100,000), 16 times higher among Indigenous women (537 per 100,000), and 175 times higher among Indigenous men. Nearly 6% of Indigenous men aged 25–29 years (1,015 men) were in prison on 30 June 2001.

The comparatively high imprisonment rates of Indigenous Australians may be associated with disadvantage experienced across a range of socioeconomic aspects of life (see *Australian Social Trends 2000*, Social conditions of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people, pp. 21–26).

Endnotes

1 Australian Institute of Health and Welfare (AIHW) 1993, *Australia's Welfare 1993: services and assistance*, AIHW Cat. No. AIHW–044, AGPS, Canberra.

2 Australian Bureau of Statistics 1999, *Disability, Ageing and Carers, Australia: Summary of Findings, 1998,* cat. no. 4430.0, ABS, Canberra.

3 Australian Institute of Health and Welfare (AIHW) 2001, *Australia's Welfare 2001*, AIHW Cat. No. AUS–24, AIHW, Canberra.

4 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2001, *Accounting for change in disability and severe restriction, 1981–1998*, Working papers in Social and Labour statistics, No. 2001/1.

5 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2002, *Recorded Crime, Australia, 2001*, cat. no. 4510.0, ABS, Canberra.

6 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2002, *Prisoners in Australia, 30 June 2001*, cat. no. 4517.0, ABS, Canberra.

Youth migration within Australia

POPULATION DISTRIBUTION

Half of all people aged 15–24 years moved residence in the five years to August 2001.

The age structure of rural and regional Australia has changed significantly in recent decades. A feature of this change has been the diminishing proportion of young people (i.e. those aged 15–24 years) in many of these areas. This reflects the continuing trend for young people to leave rural areas, and relocate to larger population centres. A key factor in this movement of young people is the greater availability of employment, education and training opportunities in urban areas.[1] In rural areas, opportunities in the labour force have declined as a result of technological change, economic restructuring and the relocation of businesses to regional centres.[2] Further, young people in rural areas often have to choose between limited educational opportunities available locally, and moving away from family support networks to a large town or city, where the majority of post-compulsory education and training institutions are located.

Rural areas that young people are moving away from usually experience associated declines in population and increasingly older age profiles. In some areas, these population changes also coincide with a decline in key industries and the withdrawal of services, both public (e.g. schools and hospitals) and private (e.g. banking and retail). In turn, such changes may make living in rural areas less attractive to young people, and further impact upon on the wellbeing and sustainability of the remaining community.

Mobility of young people

Young people are typically one of the most mobile population groups. Just over half (52%) of all young people (i.e. people aged 15–24 years) moved residence in the five years to August 2001. Young people aged 20–24 years were more likely to have moved than those aged 15–19 years (64% compared with 42%, respectively).

The age profile of those who moved residence within Australia between censuses has remained relatively constant over the past 30 years and closely resembles that of those who move within other countries.[3] Mobility rates increase from the mid-teens through the young adult years, peaking at 27 years of age, and falling sharply from that point, through to age 75 years.

Internal migration and young people

The main source of data for this article is the 2001 Census of Population and Housing, conducted in August. The census asked where people were usually resident one year and five years prior to the census date. This information can be compared with place of usual residence on census night to examine the migration patterns of Australian residents within Australia.

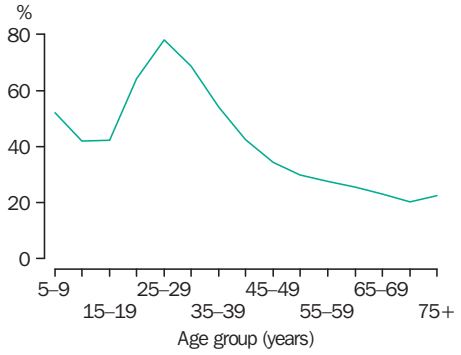
There are limitations in using this information to determine internal migration flows. The census defines usual residence at a point in time and, therefore, cannot measure multiple moves or moves occurring between periods. In addition, people who moved overseas and those who moved but died before the end of the period are omitted.

The Census of Population and Housing has some difficulty obtaining information from younger people. In 2001, it was estimated that information was not collected for 2.5% of people aged 15–24 years. Many of these people may have moved in the year or five years prior to the 2001 Census but are not included in this analysis.

Net migration is the difference between the number of persons who have changed their usual residence by moving into a given area and the number who have changed their usual residence by moving out of that area during a specified time period. This difference can be positive or negative. In this article, the effect of overseas migration has been excluded from net migration.

For this article, *young people* are defined as those aged 15–24 years inclusive.

Proportion of persons who moved(a) — 2001



(a) Those whose usual residence on census night was different to that five years prior. Excludes overseas migration.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

However, most young people do not move out of their local region. In the five years to August 2001, close to a third (31%) of those who had changed residence had moved within the same Statistical Local Area and close to two-thirds (68%) had moved within the same Statistical Division. Around 11% of moves by young people were to an interstate location.

The age profile of urban and rural areas

In 2001, 14% of the total population of Australia were young people (i.e. persons aged 15–24 years). In the Major Urban areas young people made up a slightly greater proportion of the population (15%), with lower proportions in Other Urban areas (13%), Bounded Localities (11%) and the Rural Balance (12%).

In areas with smaller populations, young people are less likely to remain in the area as they pass from childhood to adulthood. In 2001, there were 230,100 persons aged 15–24 years in the Rural Balance of Australia — 36% less than the number of 5–14 year olds in these areas 10 years earlier. In contrast, Major Urban areas had 23% more young people in 2001 than 5–14 year olds in 1991.

The movement of young people out of rural areas and into urban locations is a long-standing demographic phenomenon in Australia.[4] Most of this movement, over the last half of the 20th century, was to Capital Cities, with net inflows of young people fluctuating from 49,800 in the five years to census night in 1976, down to a low of 25,100 in 1986, and up to a high of 82,500 in 2001.

Broad migration flows

There are large flows of young people between Capital Cities, Large Population Centres and Country Areas. In the five years to August 2001, the gross migration levels (numbers of arrivals plus departures) were broadly similar in each of these areas, despite the comparatively smaller numbers of young people in Country Areas. In contrast, net migration (arrivals minus departures) varies considerably between these areas. Over this period, almost three times as many young people left Country Areas than arrived in these areas (226 net departures per 1,000 young people). Nearly two-thirds of the net outflow of these young people was to Capital Cities.

In comparison, Large Population Centres had a net inflow of young people (9,000 net gain). This overall gain of young people comprised

Usual resident age profile by Section of State — 2001

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

People aged 15–24 years: migration flows within Australia(a) — 1996–2001

			Net migration	
			no.	rate(b)
	Capital Cities			
	Arrivals from	*Departures to*		
Large Population Centres	56 836	30 817	26 019	16.3
Country Areas	85 871	29 435	56 436	35.3
All areas	**142 707**	**60 252**	**82 455**	**51.5**
	Large Population Centres			
	Arrivals from	*Departures to*		
Capital Cities	30 817	56 836	–26 019	–60.3
Country Areas	57 786	22 735	35 051	81.2
All areas	**88 603**	**79 571**	**9 032**	**20.9**
	Country Areas			
	Arrivals from	*Departures to*		
Capital Cities	29 435	85 871	–56 436	–139.4
Large Population Centres	22 735	57 786	–35 051	–86.6
All areas	**52 170**	**143 657**	**–91 487**	**–226.0**

(a) Excludes overseas migration and a small number of movements which could not be classified to a specific area.
(b) Net migration expressed as a rate per 1,000 of the 2001 usual resident population.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

a relatively large net inflow of young people from Country Areas (35,100 net gain) that was offset to some degree by a net loss to Capital Cities (26,000 net loss). Between 1996 and 2001, there was a net loss of young people from each of the Large Population Centres (except Gold Coast-Tweed) to Capital Cities, while all of the Large Population Centres experienced a net gain of young people from Country Areas. Often, this influx of young people is sourced from nearby smaller towns and localities.

Characteristics of young people who move

The ages between 15 and 24 years are a time of transition in the life cycle — from childhood to adulthood. During these years many young people move from school to further education (often combined with part-time work), and then full-time work. They are also likely to move out of the parental home to live alone or in group households, prior to many of them forming partnerships or families of their own. The order in which these milestones are reached varies considerably among young people, but when they do occur, they are often associated with a change of address. While this change of address may not always involve moving to another town or region, the characteristics of young people who move are broadly similar regardless of the distance moved.

When using census data to examine the characteristics of young people who move, the data refer to the individual only at the end of the transition period. Therefore the characteristics may not have applied at the time migration occurred and may not have influenced the move. To minimise this effect, in this article the characteristics of young people are only examined for those who moved in the year prior to the census.

Regardless of their age, young people who were not living with their parents were more likely to have moved in the past year than those living with their parents, consistent with the movement of young people being

Geographical classifications

This article uses a range of different geographic classifications from the Australian Standard Geographical Classification (ASGC). For further information see *Statistical Geography: Volume 1 — Australian Standard Geographical Classification (ASGC), 2001* (ABS cat. no. 1216.0).

The Section of State classification is used to examine the age profile of four different sized types of communities and the remaining rural area of Australia. These are: *Major Urban*, which incorporates areas with a population of 100,000 and over; *Other Urban*, includes areas of 1,000 to 99,999 people; *Bounded Localities*, are 200 to 999 people; *Rural Balance* comprises the remainder (excluding those included in the *Migratory* category).

To examine migration patterns, Australia is divided into three areas. *Capital Cities* are Capital City Statistical Divisions from each of the Australian states and territories. *Large Population Centres* are Statistical Districts (excluding the Canberra Statistical Division), which are predominantly urban areas that contain population centres totalling 25,000 persons or more (e.g. Newcastle and Geraldton) and which are not located within a Capital City Statistical Division. The remainder of Australia is referred to as *Country Areas*.

Usual resident population — 2001

	Aged 15–24 years	*Total*
	'000	'000
Capital Cities	1 707.4	11 948.8
Large Population Centres	441.9	3 216.9
Country Areas	408.4	3 556.1

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

Mobility rates(a) of people aged 15–24 years: selected characteristics — 2001

	People who moved	
	%	'000
Selected living arrangements		
Child	10.8	156.8
Partner in a couple	54.1	136.7
Lone parent	51.2	20.0
Group household member	74.4	135.8
Lone person	53.2	44.1
Labour force status		
Employed	30.3	409.4
Unemployed	38.9	82.0
Not in the labour force	22.8	180.8
Type of educational institution attending		
Secondary school	12.2	77.9
Technical or further educational institutions	28.7	61.4
University or other higher educational institutions	31.1	114.8
Not attending an educational institution	37.3	399.2
All young people	**28.6**	**677.1**

(a) Proportion of group whose usual residence on census night was different to that one year prior. Excludes overseas migration.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

associated with the transitions occurring in their lives. In 2001, the mobility rates for young people who were living in the parental home (i.e. as either dependent or non-dependent children) was 11%, compared with 74% for those in group households, 53% for lone persons and 54% for partners in couples. Among those living as a partner in a couple at the time of the census, those in de facto couples were more likely to have moved in the last year (61%), than those who were in a registered marriage (42%). This is partly related to the growing trend for young people to cohabit before entering registered marriage (as those who were already cohabiting before marrying would be more likely to maintain the same address upon marrying). It may also reflect the less permanent nature of some de facto marriages compared with registered marriages generally.[5]

Young people who were in the labour force were more likely to have moved in the past year (30% of those who were employed and 39% of those who were unemployed) than those not in the labour force (23%). Mobility rates were also higher for 15–24 year olds in non-school education (e.g. TAFE and university) compared with those in secondary school (30% and 12% respectively).

Because 20–24 year olds were more likely to have left the parental home than 15–19 year olds, they were more likely overall to have moved than their younger counterparts. In 2001, 38% of 20–24 year olds had moved in the past year compared with 20% of 15–19 year olds. This pattern held regardless of their labour force status and whether or not they were attending an educational institution. However, 20–24 year olds who were not living in the parental home were less likely to have changed address in the past year than the comparatively small group of 15–19 year olds with the same living arrangements. This is likely to reflect the more permanent living arrangements of the older group who had been living outside the parental home for longer.

Endnotes

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Family and community

Family and community: national summary

LIVING ARRANGEMENTS	Units	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
1 Total households	'000	6 302	6 446	6 579	6 690	6 762	6 910	7 015	7 127	7 250	7 393	7 510
2 Lone-person households	%	21.8	22.3	22.7	22.8	23.0	23.6	23.7	24.1	24.6	24.6	25.1
3 Households with three or more persons	%	46.3	45.5	44.8	44.5	44.5	43.8	43.2	43.1	42.5	41.4	41.5
4 Total families	'000	4 587	4 638	4 709	4 791	4 834	4 899	5 027	5 056	5 116	5 248	5 357
5 Families with children aged under 15	'000	2 048	2 038	2 041	2 100	2 092	2 130	2 160	2 166	2 172	r2 186	2 213
6 Couple families	'000	3 883	3 929	3 998	4 051	4 080	4 090	4 158	4 197	4 265	4 350	4 422
7 De facto couple families – of all couple families(a)	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	10.1	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	12.4	n.a.
8 Couple-only families – of all couple families	%	48.7	49.3	51.0	51.1	51.9	51.1	51.8	52.3	52.6	53.5	53.9
9 Couple-only families with female partner aged under 40 – of all couple only families	%	22.1	22.3	22.7	21.6	21.3	20.9	21.3	21.3	21.5	r21.9	23.1
10 Couple families with children aged under 15 – of all families with children aged under 15	%	83.5	83.0	82.8	81.5	81.6	80.0	78.4	78.8	79.1	78.3	77.0
11 Lone-father families with children aged under 15 – of all families with children aged under 15	%	1.5	1.7	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.3	2.0	1.9	2.3	2.3	2.7
12 Lone-mother families with children aged under 15 – of all families with children aged under 15	%	14.9	15.3	15.4	16.6	16.3	17.7	19.5	19.3	18.6	19.3	20.3
13 Families with at least one child aged under 5 – of all families with children aged under 15	%	47.4	47.8	47.8	47.4	47.8	47.8	46.2	45.0	46.1	45.2	44.2
14 Average family size – persons	no.	3.2	3.2	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	%	14.4	14.8	15.3	16.4	16.3	18.0	19.5	19.0	18.2	19.6	20.5
16 Persons aged 20–24 living with parents – of all persons aged 20–24	%	47.4	46.1	44.7	45.2	44.5	46.2	48.0	47.2	45.5	45.8	45.9
17 Persons aged 25–34 living with parents – of all persons aged 25–34	%	10.5	10.7	10.5	10.6	10.7	11.5	12.4	11.8	12.3	12.6	12.7
18 Persons aged 15–64 who live alone – of all persons aged 15–64	%	6.3	6.8	7.0	7.4	7.6	7.9	8.1	8.2	8.2	8.5	8.5
19 Persons aged 65 and over who live alone – of all persons aged 65 and over	%	29.3	31.0	29.4	29.3	29.8	30.7	29.0	29.5	30.9	29.2	30.1

FAMILIES AND WORK	Units	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Couple families with children aged under 15												
20 Both parents employed – of all couple families with children aged under 15	%	51.7	50.6	51.1	56.2	54.5	54.4	55.6	54.9	56.3	56.7	57.1
21 Neither parent employed – of all couple families with children aged under 15	%	9.8	10.8	10.0	8.4	7.9	8.6	8.5	7.9	7.5	7.5	7.2
22 One-parent families with children aged under 15, parent employed – of all one-parent families with children aged under 15	%	40.6	41.4	41.8	43.2	42.7	42.9	42.1	44.0	47.3	46.4	46.2
23 Children aged under 15 living in families where no parent is employed – of all children aged under 15	%	n.a.	18.8	18.5	17.1	17.2	18.1	19.7	18.3	16.8	17.9	17.9

Family and community: national summary cont.

FAMILY FORMATION	Units	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Registered marriages												
24 Number of marriages	'000	113.9	114.8	113.3	111.2	109.4	106.1	106.7	110.6	114.3	113.4	103.1
25 Crude marriage rate (per 1,000 population)	rate	6.6	6.6	6.4	6.2	6.1	5.8	5.8	5.9	6.0	5.9	5.3
26 Marriages where both partners married for the first time – of all marriages	%	67.5	67.2	67.1	67.5	67.5	66.4	66.6	66.7	66.9	66.6	67.0
27 Median age of males at first marriage	years	26.7	26.9	27.0	27.2	27.3	27.6	27.8	27.9	28.2	28.5	28.7
28 Median age of females at first marriage	years	24.5	24.7	24.8	25.1	25.3	25.7	25.9	26.2	26.4	26.7	26.9
29 Median age at remarriage – divorced males	years	39.7	40.1	40.4	40.9	41.1	41.6	41.8	42.0	42.2	42.7	43.1
30 Median age at remarriage – divorced females	years	36.1	36.5	36.8	37.4	37.6	38.0	38.2	38.4	38.6	39.1	39.5
Divorce												
31 Number of divorces	'000	45.6	45.7	48.4	48.3	49.7	52.5	51.3	51.4	52.6	49.9	55.3
32 Crude divorce rate (per 1,000 population)	rate	2.6	2.6	2.7	2.7	2.8	2.9	2.8	2.7	2.8	2.6	2.8
33 Median duration between marriage and final separation	years	7.4	7.4	7.6	7.6	7.6	7.6	7.7	7.8	7.9	8.2	8.3
34 Divorces involving children aged under 18 – of all divorces	%	54.2	52.9	52.6	52.4	n.a.	53.6	54.0	53.4	53.9	52.7	51.2
35 Children aged under 18 affected by divorce	'000	46.7	45.7	48.1	47.5	n.a.	52.5	51.7	51.6	53.4	49.6	53.4
Fertility												
36 Births(b)	'000	257.2	264.2	260.2	258.1	256.2	253.8	251.8	249.6	248.9	249.6	246.4
37 Total fertility rate (per female)	rate	1.86	1.89	1.86	1.85	1.83	1.80	1.78	1.76	1.75	1.75	1.73
38 Births to mothers aged under 20 – of all births	%	5.7	5.4	5.1	5.0	4.9	4.9	4.9	4.7	4.7	4.6	4.8
39 Births to mothers aged 35 and over – of all births	%	10.7	11.4	11.9	12.9	13.7	14.6	15.3	16.1	16.8	17.4	17.8
40 Births outside marriage – of all births	%	23.0	24.0	24.9	25.6	26.6	27.4	28.1	28.7	29.2	29.2	30.8
41 Births outside marriage acknowledged by father – of all births outside marriage	%	79.5	81.0	81.7	82.2	83.3	84.2	85.5	87.1	88.2	88.2	87.9
42 Females aged 35 and over giving birth for the first time – of all females aged 35 and over giving birth	%	12.7	19.9	19.8	20.8	20.8	21.2	22.4	23.3	23.7	n.a.	n.a.
43 Median age of mothers at first birth	years	26.3	26.5	26.7	26.8	26.9	27.1	27.3	27.5	27.6	n.a.	n.a.

CHILD CARE	Units	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
44 Children aged under 3 using formal care – of all children aged under 3(c)	%	n.a.	17.0	n.a.	n.a.	21.6	n.a.	n.a.	22.3	n.a.	n.a.	25.2
45 Children aged under 3 using informal care – of all children aged under 3(c)	%	n.a.	40.3	n.a.	n.a.	39.3	n.a.	n.a.	43.0	n.a.	n.a.	36.9
46 Children aged 3–4 using formal care – of all children aged 3–4(c)	%	n.a.	59.6	n.a.	n.a.	59.2	n.a.	n.a.	65.7	n.a.	n.a.	72.8
47 Children aged 3–4 using informal care – of all children aged 3–4(c)	%	n.a.	42.9	n.a.	n.a.	41.2	n.a.	n.a.	43.2	n.a.	n.a.	36.4
48 Median weekly hours of care received by children aged under 3 – formal and informal combined	hours	n.a.	10	n.a.	n.a.	12	n.a.	n.a.	11	n.a.	n.a.	13
49 Median weekly hours of care received by children aged 3–4 – formal and informal combined	hours	n.a.	13	n.a.	n.a.	14	n.a.	n.a.	14	n.a.	n.a.	16

(a) Includes same-sex couples.

(b) Based on registered births.

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

Reference periods: Data on living arrangements, and on families and work, are at June. Data on de facto couple families are at census date. Data on family formation are for the calendar year. Data on child care are at November 1990, June 1993, March 1996 and June 1999.

Family and community: state summary

LIVING ARRANGEMENTS	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
1 Total households	'000	2002	2 486	1 838	1 437	614	755	190	68	123	7 510
2 Lone-person households	%	2002	24.2	24.3	25.2	27.6	27.0	28.0	24.0	26.6	25.1
3 Households with three or more persons	%	2002	42.4	43.6	40.0	37.1	40.1	37.0	44.4	40.6	41.5
4 Total families	'000	2002	1 791	1 348	1 011	426	527	134	39	81	5 357
5 Families with children aged under 15	'000	2002	752	540	422	162	227	56	20	34	2 213
6 Couple families	'000	2002	1 477	1 127	822	352	434	111	32	68	4 422
7 De facto couple families – of all couple families(a)	%	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	%	2002	52.8	53.8	54.6	58.8	53.8	55.7	47.4	49.1	53.9
9 Couple-only families with female partner aged under 40 – of all couple only families	%	2002	23.1	22.8	23.5	20.4	25.0	16.3	38.8	28.6	23.1
10 Couple families with children aged under 15 – of all families with children aged under 15	%	2002	77.8	78.6	74.4	75.8	76.7	75.0	77.3	80.3	77.0
11 Lone-father families with children aged under 15 – of all families with children aged under 15	%	2002	2.3	2.7	3.0	3.7	2.6	2.0	4.2	2.6	2.7
12 Lone-mother families with children aged under 15 – of all families with children aged under 15	%	2002	19.9	18.8	22.6	20.5	20.9	23.0	18.6	17.1	20.3
13 Families with at least one child aged under 5 – of all families with children aged under 15	%	2002	44.3	43.6	44.9	45.7	43.4	42.5	48.1	39.3	44.2
14 Average family size – persons	no.	2002	3.1	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	%	2002	20.0	19.0	22.8	21.7	20.4	21.7	23.2	18.5	20.5
16 Persons aged 20–24 living with parents – of all persons aged 20–24	%	2002	49.7	52.4	35.0	45.9	40.2	42.2	17.1	41.4	45.9
17 Persons aged 25–34 living with parents – of all persons aged 25–34	%	2002	14.0	16.2	9.2	12.3	7.9	9.5	6.3	7.6	12.7
18 Persons aged 15–64 who live alone – of all persons aged 15–64	%	2002	8.0	8.1	8.5	9.9	10.1	9.7	8.5	8.5	8.5
19 Persons aged 65 and over who live alone – of all persons aged 65 and over	%	2002	29.9	27.6	31.7	31.4	31.6	35.0	32.1	34.9	30.1

FAMILIES AND WORK	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Couple families with children aged under 15											
20 Both parents employed – of all couple families with children aged under 15	%	2002	58.2	55.7	55.4	60.2	56.0	49.7	70.6	71.9	57.1
21 Neither parent employed – of all couple families with children aged under 15	%	2002	6.8	7.8	7.9	7.3	6.2	9.7	4.8	2.9	7.2
22 One-parent families with children aged under 15, parent employed – of all one-parent families with children aged under 15	%	2002	45.3	50.4	42.3	45.0	44.0	50.5	60.4	63.0	46.2
23 Children aged under 15 living in families where no parent is employed – of all children aged under 15	%	2002	17.3	16.7	20.5	19.7	17.5	20.6	13.3	10.8	17.9

Family and community: state summary continued

FAMILY FORMATION	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Registered marriages											
24 Number of marriages	'000	2001	36.1	25.0	20.3	7.4	9.8	2.2	0.8	1.6	103.1
25 Crude marriage rate (per 1,000 population)	rate	2001	5.5	5.2	5.6	4.9	5.1	4.6	3.9	4.9	5.3
26 Marriages where both partners married for the first time – of all marriages	%	2001	68.0	69.0	64.0	65.0	64.0	61.0	63.0	67.0	67.0
27 Median age of males at first marriage	years	2001	28.6	28.9	28.5	28.7	29.0	28.7	29.5	28.1	28.7
28 Median age of females at first marriage	years	2001	26.7	27.3	26.6	26.8	27.1	26.7	27.9	26.9	26.9
29 Median age at remarriage – divorced males	years	2001	42.7	42.7	43.3	44.0	43.4	43.6	44.1	42.8	43.1
30 Median age at remarriage – divorced females	years	2001	39.0	39.4	39.6	40.1	39.9	40.1	38.9	40.2	39.5
Divorce											
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	2.8	3.3	3.0	2.8	3.0	2.2	(b)	2.8
33 Median duration between marriage and final separation	years	2001	7.5	8.5	9.1	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	53.9	53.9	54.3	56.2	47.2	53.1	51.2
35 Children aged under 18 affected by divorce	'000	2001	13.5	13.6	12.5	4.6	5.5	1.5	0.4	1.7	53.4
Fertility											
36 Births(c)	'000	2001	84.6	58.6	47.7	17.3	24.0	6.4	3.8	3.9	246.4
37 Total fertility rate (per female)	rate	2001	1.76	1.61	1.80	1.67	1.72	2.07	2.26	1.51	1.73
38 Births to mothers aged under 20 – of all births	%	2001	4.4	3.2	6.1	4.2	5.5	8.4	13.3	2.9	4.8
39 Births to mothers aged 35 and over – of all births	%	2001	18.3	19.7	15.4	18.8	16.9	14.4	13.1	19.2	17.8
40 Births outside marriage – of all births	%	2001	28.0	26.0	35.0	34.0	35.0	43.0	63.0	27.0	30.8
41 Births outside marriage acknowledged by father – of all births outside marriage	%	2001	87.0	92.0	87.0	90.0	89.0	92.0	63.0	82.0	87.9

CHILD CARE	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT(d)	ACT	Aust.
42 Children aged under 3 using formal care – of all children aged under 3(e)	%	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(e)	%	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(e)	%	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(e)	%	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) Includes same-sex couples.

(c) 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.

(d) Based on registered births.

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

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

Reference periods: Data on family formation are for the calendar year. Data on child care are at June.

Family and community: data sources

DATA SOURCE	*Indicators using this source*
ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.	National (7); State (7)
ABS Births Collection.	National (38–41); State (38–41)
ABS Child Care Survey.	National (44–49); State (42–47)
ABS Labour Force Survey.	National (4–6, 8–23); State (4–6, 8–23)
ABS Marriages and Divorces Collection.	National (26–30, 33–35); State (26–30, 33–35)
AIHW Perinatal Data Collection 1999.	National (42–43)
Australian Demographic Statistics (ABS cat. no. 3101.0).	National (1–3, 24–25, 31–32, 36–37); State (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.
Reference: *Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Families, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6224.0).

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

Births outside marriage acknowledged by 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
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 Status and Other Characteristics of Families, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6224.0).

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 dependents, non-dependents 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: *Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Families, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6224.0).

Couple-only family
a couple family with no dependent children or other family members (e.g. non-dependent children) present.
Reference: *Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Families, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6224.0).

Crude divorce rate
the number of divorces 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 who live together in a consensual union who are not registered as married to each other.
Reference: 1996 Census of Population and Housing.

Divorce
decree absolute of dissolution of 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 Law 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 married 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).

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

Estimated resident population
quarterly estimates of the Australian population are 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
two or more persons, one of whom is aged 15 years and over, 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 a 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: *Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Families, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6224.0).

Formal child care
regulated care, away from the child's home. Includes preschool; before and after school care; long-day care; family day care; occasional care and other formal care.
Reference: *Child Care, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4402.0).

Family and community: definitions continued

Household
a person living alone or a group of related or unrelated people who usually reside and eat together.
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 includes care by (step) brothers or sisters; care by relatives (including non-custodial parents) and by non-relatives such as friends, neighbours, nannies or baby sitters. It may have been 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: *Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Families, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6224.0).

Lone-person household
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: *Australian Demographic Statistics* (ABS cat. no. 3101.0).

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
actually the median age of mothers at 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 duration between marriage and final separation
the median interval between the date of registered marriage and the date of separation.
Reference: *Marriages and Divorces, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 3310.0).

Median hours of care
the number of hours of care per week at which half the children who received formal and/or informal childcare 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 also include any number of other dependent children, non-dependent children and other related individuals.
Reference: *Labour Force Status and Other Characteristics of Families, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6224.0).

Registered marriages
refer to formally registered marriages 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).

Women giving birth for the first time
multiple births (e.g. twins or triplets) may be involved at the time of first birth.
Reference: Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, *Australia's Mothers and Babies (1998)*.

Changing families

LIVING ARRANGEMENTS

Between 1986 and 2001, the number of one-parent families in Australia increased by 53%. In contrast, the number of couple families with children increased by 3%.

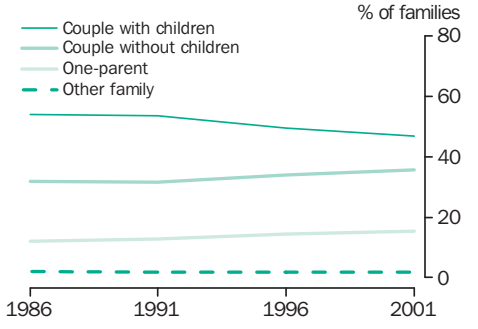
Changes in family composition have implications for a range of government and community services including income support, aged care, health and education services, children's welfare and housing. Family structures are complex and dynamic by nature, with care and support networks often extending outside household boundaries. However, much of the emotional, financial and material support provided by families, particularly for infants, children and adolescents, takes place among family members who live together in the same household. This article focuses on families comprised of people who usually reside in the same household, and the changes occurring in the structure of these families over the period 1986–2001.

Changing family composition

Families underwent significant shifts in structure over the 20th century.[1] At the time of federation, families often had extended kin and unrelated people living with them.[2] In the decades following World War II, nuclear families (i.e. families formed around couples and parent-child relationships, with no extended members) became more common.[2] While this is still the case, social changes in the later part of the century saw increasing diversity in the kinds of family structures that exist within Australian society.

In 2001, 14.8 million Australians (82%) lived with at least one other family member, making up 4.9 million families in total. The number of families in Australia increased by 19% between 1986 and 2001, slightly less than the growth in the population over the same period (21%). While families comprising couples with children (of any age) remain the most prevalent type of family in Australia, the increase in the number of these families was relatively small (3%) between 1986 and 2001. In comparison, the number of one-parent families increased by 53%, and couple families without children living with them

Distribution of family types



Source: ABS 1986–2001 Censuses of Population and Housing.

Family types

This article uses data from the 1986, 1991, 1996 and 2001 Censuses of Population and Housing. Family data have been recoded for consistency with the 2001 Census definitions. While some minor differences remain (for example, families living in manufactured home estates and self-care accommodation for the retired or aged are included from 1996 onwards) these do not affect time series comparisons at the broad level.

A *household* is a person living alone, or a group of related or unrelated people who usually reside together and make common provision for food or other essentials for living. A household may contain more than one family.

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. Family type is determined by the relationship of each household member to the *household reference person*. This is the person listed first on the census form, or if this person is not the most suitable, is assigned based on age, marital status and relationship considerations.

A *couple family* is 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.

A *couple family with children* is a couple family who have children (regardless of age) usually resident in the family.

A *couple family without children* is a couple family with no children usually resident in the family (i.e. includes families where children have left home).

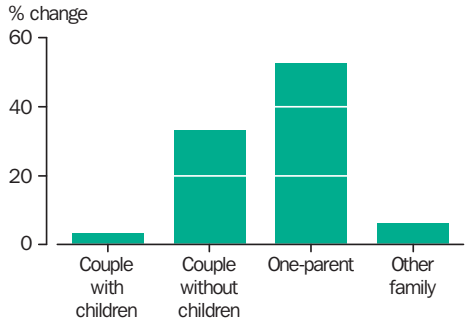
A one-parent family is a parent with no resident partner (married or de facto), with at least one child (regardless of age) usually resident in the family.

Other families are families of related individuals, in which none of the individuals form a couple or parent-child relationship with any other person in the family.

A *step-family* is a couple family containing at least one child who is the step-child of either parent, and no children who are the natural children of both parents.

A *blended family* is a couple family containing both natural and step-children — i.e. at least one child who is the natural child of both parents, and one child who is the step-child of either parent.

Change in the number of families — 1986–2001



Source: ABS 1986 and 2001 Censuses of Population and Housing.

increased by 33% over the same period. Consequently, over time, couple families with children are forming a smaller proportion of all families — 47% of families in 2001, down from 54% in 1986.

In addition to these changes in family composition, changes have also occurred in other living arrangements. For example, there was a 64% increase in the number of people who lived alone, from 1.0 million in 1986 to 1.6 million in 2001.

Trends underlying family change

Shifts in the prevalence of different family types within society can be linked to a range of social and economic trends. In recent decades, trends in divorce and remarriage have contributed to changing numbers of one-parent, step and blended families, just as trends towards delayed childbearing, increased childlessness and greater longevity have contributed to an increase in the number of couple only families. Social changes not only affected the prevalence of different family types, but also the nature and composition of families. For example, the nature of couple families has changed with the increase in de facto partnering. The age profile of particular family types (such as couples with children) has shifted, as young people increasingly postpone major life events. For example, young adults are remaining in education for longer, gaining economic independence later in life and forming long-term relationships at older ages.

Couple families with children

There were 2.3 million couple families with children in 2001, an increase from 2.2 million in 1986. These families may include young

Selected indicators related to changing family composition

	Units	*1986*	*1991*	*1996*	*2001*
Education participation rate of 20–24 year olds	%	18.2	25.0	31.5	34.8
Proportion of 20–24 year olds living in the parental home	%	41.6	47.2	44.5	45.8
Marriage rate (per 1,000 population)(a)	rate	7.2	6.6	5.8	5.3
Proportion of couples cohabiting prior to marriage(a)	%	45.6	57.5	(b)64.7	72.0
Median age at first marriage(a)					
Males	years	25.6	26.7	27.6	28.7
Females	years	23.5	24.5	25.7	26.9
Total fertility rate (births per woman)	rate	1.87	1.86	1.80	1.73
Average number of children aged 0–14 years per family(c)	no.	1.9	1.9	1.5	1.5
Median age of mothers (for all births in the year)	years	27.5	28.5	29.2	30.0
Median age of fathers where recorded	years	30.2	31.0	31.9	32.3
Divorce rate (per 1,000 population)	rate	2.5	2.6	2.9	2.8
Proportion of population (aged 15 years and over) divorced	%	4.7	5.3	6.4	7.4
Median age of the population	years	31.1	32.4	34.0	35.7
Life expectancy(d)					
Males	years	72.8	74.4	75.2	77.0
Females	years	79.1	80.4	81.1	82.4

(a) Refers to registered marriage.
(b) Data are for 1997.
(c) Data are per family with children aged under 15 years, where all children were present on census night.
(d) 1996 and 2001 data are calculated using the three years of data ending in the reference year.

Source: Australian Social Trends, 1996, 2000 and 2002 (ABS cat. no. 4102.0); *Australia's Families – Selected Findings from the Survey of Families in Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4418.0); *Births, Australia, 2001* (ABS cat. no. 3301.0); ABS 1986–2001 Censuses of Population and Housing; *Deaths, Australia, 2001* (ABS cat. no. 3302.0); *Marriages and Divorces, Australia, 1996, 1997 and 2001* (ABS cat. no. 3310.0); *Population by Age and Sex, Australian States and Territories, 1997–2002* (ABS cat. no. 3201.0).

children, teenage students or adult children (e.g. in some families an adult child may be providing care for elderly parents).

The number of young couple families with children (where the reference person was aged less than 35 years) has declined over time. In 2001, these families comprised 20% of all couples with children, down from 29% in 1986. This decline reflects trends toward later partnering and childbearing. For example, over the 15 years to 2001, the median age at first (registered) marriage increased by around 3 years for both men and women, as did the median age of mothers (for all births in those years).

Among couple families with children where the reference person was aged 35 years or over, the largest increase was in those families with a reference person aged 45–49 years. These families comprised 16% of couples with children in 2001, up from 13% in 1986. Again this increase reflects trends toward later partnering and childbearing, as well as the tendency for children to remain in their parents' home for longer (see *Australian Social Trends 2000,* Young adults living in the parental home, pp. 39–42).

The majority of couple families with children have young children present. In 2001, 54% of couple families with children (where all the children were present on census night) had at least one child aged less than 10 years, the same proportion as in 1986. However, there has been an increase in the proportion of couple families in which all resident children are aged 15 years and over (29% in 2001, up from 27% in 1986).

In 2001, most couple families with children (89%) contained only the natural or adopted children of both parents. A further 6% were step-families and 4% were blended families. There were also 33,600 couple families (1% — some of which are included in the families above) which had other children, such as foster children, nieces, nephews, or unrelated children living with the family.

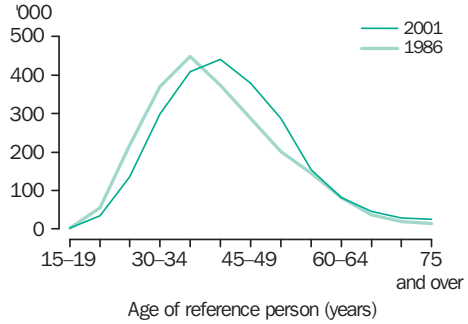
Couple families with no children living with them

There were 1.8 million couple families without children living with them in 2001, up from 1.3 million in 1986. Couple families without children tend to fall into two broad life stage groups, those with a younger reference person who have not had children, and those with an older reference person who may have children who no longer live in the family home.

Over time, the number of couple families without children living with them has increased across nearly all age groups. This increase partly reflects fertility decline, with increasing numbers of people remaining childless across the life cycle (see *Australian Social Trends 2002,* Trends in childlessness, pp. 37–40). It also reflects the ageing of Australia's population. Over the 15 years to 2001, the median age of Australia's population increased from 31.1 to 35.7 years. As older people are forming a larger proportion of the population, older couples without children are forming a larger proportion of all families. This is likely to continue, particularly as the 'baby boomer' generation moves into older age groups and their children leave home.

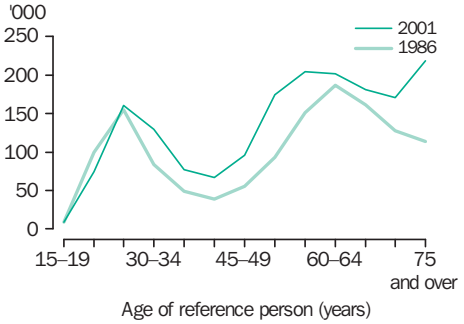
Increases in the number of couple families without children in the oldest age group (where the reference person was aged 75 years or over) also reflect changing living arrangements among older Australians. Since the mid-1980s, government policy has emphasised the need to support older people to live in the community with some degree of independence (see *Australian Social Trends 2003,* People in institutional settings,

Distribution of couple families with children



Source: ABS 1986 and 2001 Censuses of Population and Housing.

Distribution of couple families without children



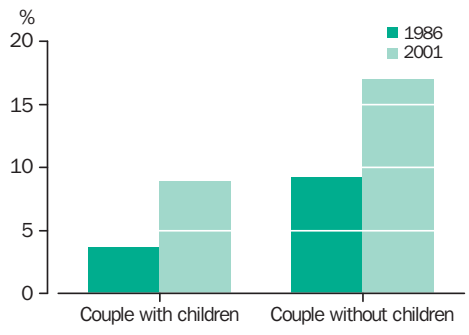
Source: ABS 1986 and 2001 Censuses of Population and Housing.

pp. 17–21). Accordingly older couples may be living together for longer in their own home, or in self-care accommodation for the retired or aged, rather than one or both partners moving into nursing homes or other institutional based care. A narrowing in the life expectancy gap between men and women, so that couples are living together for longer, may also have contributed to increased numbers of older couples. Between 1986 and 2001 the gap between men's and women's life expectancy declined from six years to five years.

Over the period 1986–2001, the only couple families without children which declined in number were those with a reference person aged 20–24 years. While in 1986, 8% of couples without children were in this age range, this declined to 4% in 2001. This decline reflects an overall decline in the number of couples of this age — associated with later partnering. Among those young adults who do form partnerships, an increasing proportion do not have children. In 2001, 68% of couple families with a reference person aged 20–24 years did not have children, up from 64% in 1986. Among couples with a reference person aged 25–29 years, 54% did not have children in 2001, up from 42% in 1986.

The nature of couple relationships in Australia is changing, with an increasing proportion of couple families comprising partners in de facto relationships. In 2001, 12% of all couple families were de facto couples, an increase from 6% in 1986. De facto relationships remain more common among couples without children (17% in 2001), than couples with children (9%). The increase in de facto partnering over time reflects that, increasingly, couples are choosing to live together prior to marriage, or not to marry at all. The proportion of couples who chose to live together before marriage increased from 46% in 1986 to 72% in 2001, and the marriage rate declined from 7.2 to 5.3 marriages per 1,000 population over the same period.

Couple families: proportion in de facto partnerships



Source: ABS 1986 and 2001 Censuses of Population and Housing.

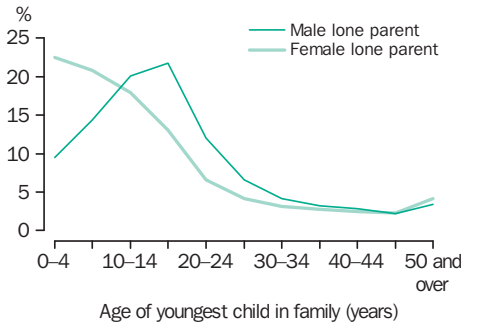
One-parent families

One-parent families increased to 762,600 in 2001, from 499,300 in 1986. This increase was largely associated with an increase in the number of separated and divorced people. While the divorce rate changed little between 1986 and 2001 (fluctuating at under three divorces per 1,000 population), new divorces occurred each year adding more people to the total number of divorcees in Australia. While some divorcees later repartner, overall the number of divorcees in Australia (excluding those who remarried) almost doubled from 0.6 million in 1986 to 1.1 million in 2001.

One-parent families also include those parents who were single at the time of the birth of their child, and did not later form a couple relationship. The proportion of births occurring outside a registered marriage has increased over time, from 17% in 1986 to 31% in 2001. However, increasingly these births include the names of both of the child's parents on the birth certificate (88% in 2001, up from 71% in 1986). This may indicate that the increase in births outside marriage is associated with the increase in de facto relationships, rather than an increase in the number of single mothers.

One-parent families may also be formed through the death of a spouse. However, the proportion of one-parent families formed through widowhood has declined (in 2001, 18% of lone parents were widows, down from 27% in 1986). This is partly because life expectancy has increased for both men and

One-parent families: age of youngest child(a) — 2001



(a) Families with children temporarily absent on census night are excluded.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

women, and, over the long-term, the proportion of relationships ending through divorce rather than death has increased.[3]

Lone mothers comprised 83% of lone parents in both 1986 and 2001. Lone mothers tended to have younger children living with them than lone fathers. In 2001, 22% of lone mothers had at least one child aged 0–4 years living with them, compared with 9% of lone fathers. In 56% of male one-parent families the children present were all aged 15 years or over, compared with 39% of female one-parent families.

Other families

Most families are formed around couple or parent relationships. Over the 15 years to 2001, families other than couple or one-parent families consistently comprised around 2% of all families. The majority of these families are made up of adult siblings living together (70% of the family members in other family types in 2001).

Multi-family households

While most Australian families live in a household by themselves, a small proportion share their dwelling with other families. In 2001, 3% of families lived in multi-family households, down from 5% in 1986. One-parent families were the most likely to live in multi-family households (5% in 2001), followed by couples without children (3%).

Other relatives(a) aged 15 years and over living with families — 2001

	Family type				
	Couple family with children	*Couple family without children*	*One-parent*	*Other*	*Total*
Relationship in household(b)	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000
Brother or sister	20.9	14.7	15.2	132.8	183.5
Father or mother	44.7	21.2	22.9	—	88.8
Grandchild	2.9	6.2	3.5	9.2	21.9
Nephew or niece	8.5	2.7	4.1	6.0	21.3
Cousin	2.0	1.1	1.9	9.6	14.7
Grandfather or grandmother	1.1	0.4	0.6	8.6	10.7
Uncle or aunt	1.6	0.7	1.1	5.5	8.9
Other related individual	7.3	4.8	4.6	17.0	33.7
Total	**89.0**	**51.9**	**53.9**	**188.7**	**383.6**

(a) Excludes partners in couple families, lone parents in one-parent families, and children (of any age).
(b) Relationship to the household reference person, which is one of the partners in a couple family and the lone parent in a one-parent family.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

Multi-family households tend to be built around extended kin relationships. In 2001, 93% of the second and third families present in multi-family households were related in some way to the first family.

Other relatives in families

A range of single relatives may be part of a couple or one-parent family, without forming a separate family within the household. In 2001, 1% of couple families with children included other related children aged less than 15 years (such as nieces, nephews or grandchildren). In addition, 3% of couple families with children, 3% of couple families without children, and 6% of one-parent families had other kinds of relatives aged 15 years and over living with them. These family members were most likely to be the parent of one partner in a couple family (50% of other relatives living in couple families with children, and 41% of those in couple families without children). In one-parent families, 42% of other relatives were the parent of the lone parent. These parents may be living with their child's family for a variety of reasons, including to receive care and support in their older years, following widowhood or divorce, or while their own partner is in non-family based care (such as nursing homes or respite care). Such relatives may also provide care and material support to the families they live with, for example the care of grandchildren, or accommodation or other financial support.

Brothers or sisters (of one partner in the couple, or of the lone parent) were the second largest group of other relatives (23% of other relatives living in couple families with children, and 28% in couple families without children and in one-parent families). Adult grandchildren (aged 15 years and over) formed a higher proportion of other relatives in couple families without children (12%) than in one-parent families (6%) and couple families with children (3%).

People who are not relatives may also live in family households. In 2001, 151,200 people aged 15 years and over (1% of all people living in family households) lived with a family to which they were not related.

Endnotes

1 Hugo, G. 2001, 'A century of population change in Australia' in Australian Bureau of Statistics 2001, *Year Book Australia, 2001*, cat. no. 1301.0, ABS, Canberra.

2 Gilding, M. 2001, 'Changing Families in Australia, 1901–2001', *Family Matters,* No. 60, pp. 6–11.

3 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2001, *Marriages and Divorces, Australia 2000*, cat. no. 3310.0, ABS, Canberra.

Balancing family and work

FAMILY FUNCTIONING

In 2001, around 43% (867,700) of all families with children aged less than 15 years were couple families where both parents were employed.

With the increase in women's participation in the labour force, a growing proportion of Australian families face new challenges combining family and paid work responsibilities. The proportion of traditional 'sole breadwinner' families, where the husband works full-time and earns money for the family and the wife undertakes unpaid household work and child care, is decreasing in Australian society.[1] While some couples still choose this arrangement, in many families both parents continue working after the birth of children, either out of choice or necessity. In addition, one-parent families have become more common over the last 20 years (see *Australian Social Trends 2003,* Changing families, pp. 35–39). Many lone parents face the challenge of earning sufficient income and finding child care without the support of a resident partner.

Balancing family and paid work is a challenge for both men and women. Despite men and women sharing domestic tasks more equitably than in previous generations, men still spend longer hours in paid employment than women, while women continue to take on a greater proportion of child care than men.[2] Women aged 25–34 years are in their main childbearing years, but it is also during this period that employed women are likely to be gaining promotions and taking on greater responsibilities at work.[3] Competing

Paid work and families

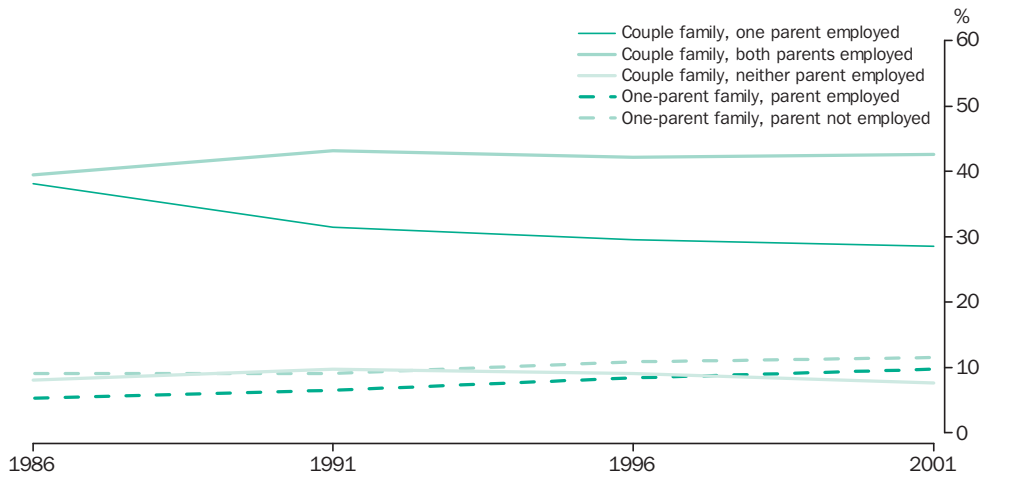
This article draws on the Census of Population and Housing, the ABS June 2002 Labour Force Survey, the ABS 2000 Survey of Employment Arrangements and Superannuation, and the ABS 1999 Child Care Survey.

Couple families are those containing two persons in a registered or de facto marriage who are usually resident in the same household. They may or may not contain children. *One-parent families* are those containing a lone parent and at least one child. Both of these family types may also include other related individuals (e.g. a grandparent or cousin) who reside in the same household. Because of different populations in the surveys used, the families discussed are those with at least one child aged less than 15 years or at least one child aged less than 12 years.

Employed people are those 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 farm, or who worked without pay in a family business, or who had a job, business or farm but were not at work.

An *employee* is a person who works for a public or private employer and receives remuneration in wages or salary, or is paid a retainer fee by his or her employer and works on a commission basis, or works for an employer for tips, piece-rates or payment in kind; or, is a person who operates his or her own incorporated enterprise with or without hiring employees.

Families(a) and parents' labour force status(b)



(a) With children aged less than 15 years.
(b) Excludes families where one parent was temporarily absent on census night, and families where a parent did not state his or her labour force status.

Source: ABS 1986–2001 Censuses of Population and Housing.

aspirations for family and career may result in women delaying having children until later in life (see *Australian Social Trends 2001,* Older mothers, pp. 55–58) or not having children at all (see *Australian Social Trends 2002,* Trends in childlessness, pp. 37–40). 'Family friendly' arrangements are available in an increasing number of workplaces to support families either for a set period of time (e.g. maternity/paternity leave) or in an ongoing way (e.g. flexible working hours). While some parents (usually mothers) leave the labour force for an extended period of time to raise children, many continue to work, using 'family friendly' provisions where possible. This article discusses how families where at least one parent is employed negotiate the claims of work and caring for children.

Families over time

The 2001 Census showed that couple families where both parents were employed were the most common of all families with children aged less than 15 years (43%). Couple families where only one parent was employed were the next most common (28%), followed by one-parent families where the parent was not employed (11%), one-parent families where the parent was employed (10%) and couple families where neither parent was employed (8%). Since 1986, the proportion of couple families with children aged less than 15 years where only one parent is employed has declined, while the proportion of couple families where neither parent is employed has remained stable. Families with other working arrangements have increased over the same time period.

This changing distribution of families partly reflects a growing dependence among couples on two incomes, for various economic and lifestyle reasons. Women with children aged less than five years are more likely to be in the labour force than in the past (see *Australian Social Trends 2003*, Work: national summary table, pp. 28–29), suggesting that mothers may be returning to work sooner after the birth of children.

The changing distribution of families is also associated with the increase in divorce. This has led to a greater proportion of lone parents, many of whom face the challenge of balancing family and work in the absence of a resident partner. The increase in the proportion of couple families where both parents work, and in the proportion of one-parent families, has led to a corresponding decline in the proportion of couple families where only one parent works.

Associated with these changes in families and parents' working arrangements, between 1986 and 2001, the proportion of women aged 15–24 years who were studying increased from 36% to 56%. At the same time, women's participation in the labour force across the years when they are most likely to have children (i.e. 25–34 years) increased from 61% to 70%. These changes in education and work participation have gone hand-in-hand with women's greater aspirations to have a challenging, rewarding career and to be financially independent.[4]

Families and employment

The June 2002 Labour Force Survey showed that more than half (57%) of all couple families with children aged less than 15 years were those where both parents were employed. It was more common for families to have a father employed full-time and a mother employed part-time than for both parents to be employed full-time (34% compared with 19%). Men are therefore more likely to be the primary earners even when their partners work.

The working hours of parents within families are also influenced by the age of children. Children aged less than 5 years generally require more parental care and supervision

Couple families(a): labour force status of parents — 2002

	Father's labour force status			
	Employed full-time	*Employed part-time*	*Unemployed*	*Not in the labour force*
Mother's labour force status	%	%	%	%
Employed full-time	19.2	1.7	0.4	1.2
Employed part-time	33.9	2.2	0.6	1.1
Unemployed	1.8	*0.2	0.5	*0.2
Not in the labour force	28.1	2.2	2.0	4.5

(a) With children aged under 15 years.

Source: ABS June 2002 Labour Force Survey.

One-parent families(a): labour force status of parent — 2002

	Father	*Mother*
	%	%
Employed full-time	48.6	16.8
Employed part-time	13.3	27.2
Unemployed	8.3	8.9
Not in the labour force	29.8	47.0
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**

(a) With children aged under 15 years.

Source: ABS June 2002 Labour Force Survey.

Combined weekly hours worked(a) in employment by parents in couple families(b) — 2002

(a) Hours worked refers to hours actually worked during the reference week, where one, both or neither parent was employed.
(b) With children aged less than 15 years.

Source: ABS June 2002 Labour Force Survey.

than children who are school-aged. Reflecting this, in couple families where the youngest child was aged less than 5 years, 71% of couples worked under 60 hours per week, compared with 53% of couples where the youngest child was aged 5–14 years.

Employed lone parents tend to work fewer hours than employed parents who have partners to share domestic responsibilities. In 2002, around 38% of employed lone parents worked less than 20 hours per week, and a similar proportion (42%) worked 20–39 hours per week. However, lone parents were less likely to be in the labour force than parents in couple families. Close to a third of lone fathers (30%) and almost half of lone mothers (47%) were not in the labour force.

Maternity/paternity leave

Under Australia's current system, male and female permanent employees are entitled to 52 weeks of unpaid maternity/paternity leave after 12 months with the same employer.[5] Paid maternity/paternity leave is additionally available to some employees. In 2000, 44% of male employees and 45% of female employees had access to this type of leave in their main job. Full-time employees were more likely to have access than part-time employees (50% of men and 64% of women working full-time had entitlements, compared with 7% of men and 25% of women working part-time). Public sector employees were around twice as likely to have access as private sector employees (73% of men and 71% of women in the public sector, compared with 37% of men and 36% of women in the private sector).

International comparison

In June 2000, the International Labour Organisation introduced a new Maternity Protection Convention (ILO 183) and Recommendation (Recommendation 191). The convention supports 14 weeks of paid leave and applies to all employed women.[5] Many countries provide other leave to parents surrounding the birth of a child, such as paternity leave for fathers. The current statutory childbirth-related leave provisions for selected countries are outlined below.

Childbirth-related leave provisions — 1998–2002

		Paid leave	
	Duration of unpaid leave	*Duration*	*Proportion of wages paid*
	weeks	weeks	%
Australia	**(a)52**	**0**	..
Canada	(b)	52	55
Ireland	14	18	70
Japan	52	14	60
Korea, Republic of	8	0	..
New Zealand	(b)	12	(c)100
Spain	156	(d)16	100
Sweden	(b)	(d)90	(e)80
United Kingdom	13	(f)18	(g)90
USA	12	0	..

(a) Only available for employees with 12 months of continuous employment with the same employer.
(b) Unpaid leave available but duration not specified.
(c) 100% or a flat rate is paid, whichever is less. May opt for parental tax credit instead of paid leave.
(d) Additional paid leave is available for multiple births.
(e) 80% is paid for the first 78 weeks; thereafter a flat rate is paid.
(f) Additional paid leave of 11 weeks is available for women who have worked with their employer for one year or more, paid at a rate which varies by employment.
(g) Six weeks are paid at 90%; the remaining 12 weeks are paid at a flat rate.

Source: The Clearinghouse on International Developments in Child, Youth and Family Policies at Columbia University, *Maternity, Paternity and Parental Leaves in the OECD Countries, 1998–2002* <http://www.childpolicyintl.org/issuebrief/issuebrief5table1.pdf>, accessed 17 February 2003.

Entitlement to paid maternity/paternity leave is also associated with the length of time employees have spent in their current job. In 2000, employees who had been in their current job for 5 years or more were more likely to have entitlement to paid maternity/paternity leave (53% of male employees and 58% of female employees)

than employees who had been in their current job for less than 2 years (32% of male employees and 33% of female employees). In 1998, around a fifth (19%) of employees who had children aged less than 6 years indicated that they had taken leave of 6 weeks or more (either paid or unpaid) when their youngest child was born.[3]

Flexible working arrangements

In 1999, just over half (53%) of all families with at least one parent employed and with children aged less than 12 years reported using some form of flexible working arrangement to care for children. In general, flexible working hours were the most commonly used arrangement (33% of all families with an employed parent used this arrangement), followed by permanent part-time work (23%).

Couple families with only one employed parent were predominantly made up of a father who was employed and a mother who was not employed. Compared with other families, their use of working arrangements to care for children was relatively low (19%). In contrast, couple families where both parents were employed were more likely to use working arrangements to care for children, although there were notable differences in their use of mothers' and fathers' working arrangements. Over two-thirds (70%) of these families used mothers' working arrangements to care for children, and a third (33%) used fathers' working arrangements. This suggests that even when both parents are working, women still tend to be the primary givers of care, and are more likely than their partners to organise their work around child care responsibilities.

One-parent families were also likely to use working arrangements to care for children (60%). The difference between mothers and fathers in their use of working arrangements was less marked for lone parents than for parents in couple families. Around 62% of employed lone mothers used working arrangements to care for children, compared with 44% of employed lone fathers.

Families with at least one parent employed(a): working arrangements used to care for children — 1999

	Couple families				
		Both parents employed(b)			
	One parent employed	*Fathers' use*	*Mothers' use*	*One-parent families*	*Total(c)*
	%	%	%	%	%
Used working arrangements(d)	*18.6*	*33.1*	*69.8*	*60.2*	*52.9*
Flexible working hours	10.9	22.7	37.7	36.9	32.5
Permanent part-time work	2.5	2.1	34.3	31.8	23.0
Work at home	4.1	9.6	16.9	10.1	13.5
Other	6.0	7.9	15.9	10.8	14.3
Did not use working arrangements	*81.4*	*66.9*	*30.2*	*39.8*	*47.1*
Total(e)	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total(f)	**553.0**	**759.4**	**759.4**	**150.2**	**1 462.6**

(a) With children aged under 12 years.
(b) Data for couple families where both parents are employed give figures for fathers' use and then mothers' use of working arrangements for the same families.
(c) Data are for either parent.
(d) Families could report using more than one working arrangement.
(e) Families where a parent did not state whether he or she used working arrangements have been excluded from these calculations.
(f) Includes families where a parent did not state whether he or she used working arrangements.

Source: ABS 1999 Child Care Survey.

Employees(a): paid maternity/paternity leave entitlements — 2000

	Entitled to paid maternity/paternity leave	
	Males	*Females*
	%	%
Working		
Full-time	50.4	64.3
Part-time	7.0	24.5
Sector		
Public	73.0	71.3
Private	36.8	36.0
Length of time in current job		
Less than two years	31.5	32.6
2–5 years	42.1	44.5
5 years and over	52.7	57.5
Total	**43.5**	**45.1**

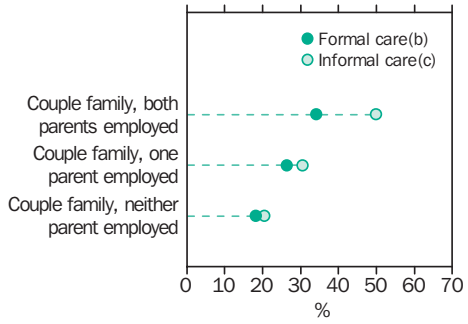
(a) Employees in their main job.

Source: ABS 2000 Survey of Employment Arrangements and Superannuation.

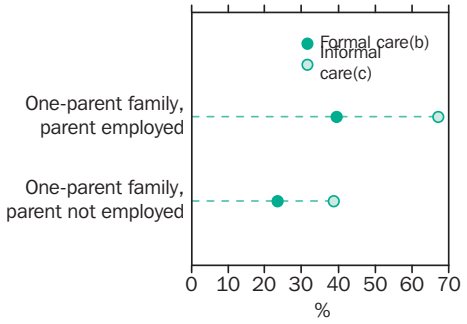
Child care

In 1999, one-parent families where the parent was employed were the most likely to make use of formal care (regulated child care away from the child's home) and/or informal care arrangements (non-regulated child care). Around 40% of these families used formal care and 67% used informal care. Couple families where both parents were employed were the next highest users of child care — 34% of these families used formal care while 50% used informal care. Couple families

Couple families(a): use of child care — 1999



One-parent families(a): use of child care — 1999



(a) With children aged under 12 years.
(b) Formal care is regulated child care away from the child's home, including preschool, long day care, before and after school care, occasional care and family day care.
(c) Informal care is non-regulated child care, including care given by family members (such as the child's siblings, grandparents or other relatives), friends or neighbours, and babysitters or nannies.

Source: ABS 1999 Child Care Survey.

where neither parent was employed were the least likely to use child care, but some of these families still used formal (18%) and informal care (20%).

Reflecting these patterns, in 1999, work was most commonly cited as the main reason for using child care. It was given as the main reason by parents of 46% of children receiving formal care and parents of 45% of children receiving informal care. However, parents may use child care for reasons other than to balance family and work. Personal reasons, such as to undertake study, to go shopping, or to give parents a break or time alone, were also commonly given as the main reason for using child care, especially for children receiving informal care. Personal reasons were given by parents of 12% of children receiving formal care and 42% of children receiving informal care.

Endnotes

1 Murphy, J. 2002, 'Breadwinning: Accounts of work and family life in the 1950s', *Labour and Industry,* Vol. 12, No. 3, pp. 59–75.

2 Bittman, M. 1999, 'Parenthood without penalty: Time use and public policy in Australia and Finland', *Feminist Economics,* Vol. 5, No. 3, pp. 27–42.

3 Australian Bureau of Statistics 1998, *Career Experience, Australia, 1998,* cat. no. 6254.0, ABS, Canberra.

4 Lesthaeghe, R. 2001, 'Postponement and recuperation: Recent fertility trends and forecasts in six Western European countries', paper presented at the IUSSP Seminar, Tokyo, 21–23 March 2001.

5 Human Rights and Equal Opportunity Commission (HREOC) 2002, *Valuing Parenthood: Options for Paid Maternity Leave: Interim Paper,* HREOC, Sydney.

Other family care

Balancing family and work is not only a challenge for parents of young children. Labour force participation can also be affected by the need to care for family members who are elderly, sick, or have a disability. In 1998, carers had lower labour force participation rates than non-carers. Around half (51%) of primary carers were in the labour force (i.e. either employed or unemployed), compared with over three-quarters (77%) of non-carers.

Primary carers(a) aged 15–64 years: labour force characteristics — 1998

	Primary carers
	%
Employed	*45.0*
Full-time	21.5
Often needs time off work because of caring role(b)	5.3
Part-time	23.5
Often needs time off work because of caring role(b)	5.5
Unemployed	*6.0*
Not in the labour force	*49.0*
Total	**100.0**
	'000
Total	**351.3**

(a) A carer is a person who provides help or supervision with everyday activities to any person with a disability or long-term health condition, or to any person aged 60 years or over. The help or supervision must be ongoing or likely to be ongoing, for at least six months.
(b) At least once a week or more on average.

Source: Caring in the Community, Australia, 1998 (ABS cat. no. 4436.0).

Farming families

LIVING ARRANGEMENTS

The number of farming families in Australia decreased by 22% between 1986 and 2001.

Farms in Australia have traditionally been family businesses, passed on to successive generations.[1] However, since the 1950s, the introduction of new technologies, the globalisation of commodity markets, and the removal of protective tariffs, have contributed to the restructuring of the agricultural industry.[2] Due to efficiencies associated with economies of scale, for most commodities increasing farm size is linked to higher rates of return, making larger farms more economically viable than small farms.[3] The amalgamation of properties as some farming families leave the industry has resulted in an increase in average farm sizes.[3] The reduction in the number of farms and farming families has been one contributor to the population declines in the small towns that have traditionally serviced the farm sector.

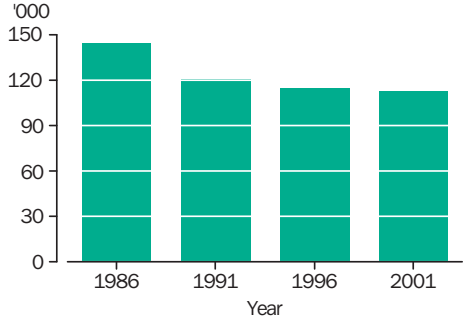
For some farming families, farm income has reduced due to declining profit margins, and can be highly variable, requiring some farmers and family members to obtain off-farm employment to supplement and stabilise the family income.[2] Stress, overwork and reduced time for family and community activities can affect the wellbeing of farmers and their families.[4] The 1990s saw a renewed focus by policy makers and government service providers on the economic, social and personal circumstances of people living in rural Australia, and in particular those living on farms.

Families on farms

In 2001, 91% of farmers in Australia were members of a family household. The majority of farms were owned by family-operated businesses, with around 99% of broadacre and dairy farms operated by owner-managers in 2001.[5] Over the 15 years to 2001, the number of farming families (that is those families where the reference person and/or spouse or partner reported that their main job was a farmer) declined by 31,800 (22%). The departure of some of these families from farming provided greater opportunity for farm amalgamations.

Farming families may leave agriculture for a variety of reasons, including personal (e.g. retirement), economic (e.g. industry restructuring) or environmental (e.g. drought). That said, between 1986 and 2001, the number of farmers leaving agriculture was greatest during periods of high commodity prices, as land values were high and neighbouring farms had the financial capacity to expand.[6] The decline in the number of farming families from 145,000 in 1986 to 120,000 in 1991, was partly influenced by favourable economic

Number of farming families



Source: ABS 1986–2001 Censuses of Population and Housing.

Farming in Australia

This article draws on data from the ABS 1986, 1991, 1996 and 2001 Censuses of Population and Housing.

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.

In this article, *farming families* are those families where the family reference person, and/or their spouse or partner, reported that their main occupation was a farmer or farm manager.

Farmers in farming families refers to the reference person and/or spouse/partner in a family whose main occupation was a farmer or farm manager. It does not include any other members of the family who were farming.

Farmers and farm managers plan, direct, coordinate and perform farming activities in agricultural establishments. Tasks performed typically include managing and participating in farming operations to breed and raise livestock, produce fish and other aquatic stock, and cultivate crops; managing physical and natural resources; managing business capital, maintaining and evaluating records of farming activities; monitoring market activity and planning production to meet contract requirements or market demand. They include farmers and farm managers who own their farming properties, and those who are employees undertaking these farming activities. Farmers and farm managers are referred to as *farmers* in this article.

Broadacre farms include sheep, beef, mixed livestock, wheat and other crop farms (such as grains and pulses), and mixed livestock-crop farms.

Farming families by Remoteness Area(a) — 2001

Remoteness Area	no.	%
Major Cities	6 656	5.9
Inner Regional	38 148	33.8
Outer Regional	52 249	46.3
Remote	12 118	10.7
Very Remote	3 582	3.2
Australia	**112 753**	**100.0**

(a) No farming families were counted in Migratory areas.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

conditions. The lower commodity prices in broadacre industries throughout the 1990s resulted in some farmers delaying their decision to retire, leave farming, or hand the farm over to their children.[7] As a result, the number of farming families declined by smaller amounts between 1991 and 1996 (5,300), and between 1996 and 2001 (2,400).

Consistent with the notion of farming families living in the country, the greatest proportion of farming families in 2001 lived in Outer Regional areas (46%). That said, more farming families were living in Major Cities (6%) than in Very Remote areas (3%). However, farming families account for a larger proportion of families in Very Remote areas (10%) than Major Cities (0.2%), due to the differing population sizes of these areas. In addition to the level of remoteness, farming families can live on-farm in a rural setting or off-farm within an urban environment, travelling to the farm for work. In 2001, of the 113,000 farming families in Australia, 13% lived in urban areas, with the remainder living in rural areas.

Selected family types — 2001

	Farming families %	*All families* %
Couple family with children	*54.3*	*47.0*
Eldest child aged under 15 years	29.6	27.0
Eldest child aged 15 years or over	24.7	20.0
Couple family without children(a)	*42.0*	*35.7*
Male partner aged under 35 years	3.9	7.0
Male partner aged 55 years or over	27.3	19.8
One-parent family	*2.9*	*15.4*
Eldest child aged under 15 years	0.8	7.7
Eldest child aged 15 years or over	2.1	7.8
Total(b)	**100.0**	**100.0**

(a) Includes couple families without children not specified.
(b) Includes other family types not specified.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

Remoteness Areas

This article uses the ABS Remoteness classification to examine the characteristics of farmers and their families 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 — Australian Standard Geographical Classification (ASGC), 2001* (ABS cat. no. 1216.0).

The distribution of farming families across Australia was highly dependent on the type of farming. In 2001, Flower growers and Vegetable growers were more likely to be living in Major Cities (35%) and Inner Regional areas (41%). This partly reflects the historical need for farmers of fresh produce to have close access to consumers, and that these farms are usually smaller and intensively farmed. Two-thirds of Dairy farming families lived in Inner Regional areas, while over half of Sheep farming families (53%), and Mixed crop and livestock farming families (56%), were living in Outer Regional areas.

Family types

In 2001, over half (54%) of farming families consisted of a couple with children living with them, a greater proportion than for all families (47%). A further 42% of farming families were couple families without children (compared with 36% of all families). Almost two-thirds of these couple-only families were older couples (where the male partner was aged 55 years or over). Young couples without children (where the male partner was aged less than 35 years) accounted for just 4% of farming families compared with 7% of all Australian families. Couples without children may include couples who have children that live away from home, for example to attend boarding school.

The lower proportion of young couples without children among farming families is likely to be due to fewer young people entering agriculture as a vocation,[6] and the loss of young people out of country areas reducing the number of children taking over the family farm (see *Australian Social Trends 2003*, Youth migration within Australia, pp. 22–25). In addition, the capital required to enter farming may be a barrier to young couples wanting to take up farming.[2]

In 2001, the proportion of one-parent families among farming families (3%) was lower than that of all families (15%),

suggesting fewer separations and divorces among farming families. However, the lower proportion of one-parent families may also reflect a tendency for lone parents (who are predominantly women) to leave the farm after separating. The other parent (usually the father) becomes a lone person, no longer classified as a farming family.

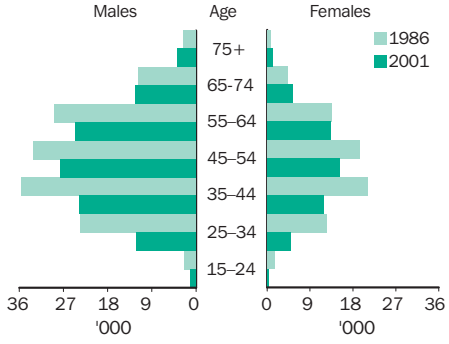
Those farming families with children tended to have more children than all families with children. In 2001, there was an average of 2.1 children aged less than 15 years living in farming families with children, compared with 1.8 in all families with children. The majority of farming families live in Inner Regional, Outer Regional and Remote areas, where fertility is higher than total Australian fertility. In addition, women tend to have children at a younger age in these areas,[8] and when combined with the older age profile of female parents in farming families, this may result in farming families generally being closer to completing their total childbearing than all families.

In 2001, farming families were less likely than all families to be living in a multi-family household (1% and 3% respectively). However, it is possible for successive generations of families to operate the same farm and live in separate households on the property.

Ageing farmers

Farmers often work well beyond the traditional retirement age, with 15% of farmers in farming families being aged 65 years and over in 2001. The proportion of farmers aged 65 years and over in farming families was greater than the proportion aged less than 35 years (12%). In contrast, in 1986, 9% of farmers in farming families were aged 65 years and over, compared with 19% who were aged less than 35 years. Reflecting this shift, the median age of farmers in farming families increased from 47 years in 1986 to 51 years in 2001. This is consistent with the overall trend among young people to delay marriage and parenting, and an increasing propensity to participate in higher education, which have contributed to general population ageing in Australia (see *Australian Social Trends 2002*, Fertility futures, pp. 12–16). In addition to farmers partnering at a later age, fewer young people are becoming farmers.

Age profile of farmers in farming families



Source: ABS 1986 and 2001 Censuses of Population and Housing.

Off-farm income

Over the last two decades Australian farming families have become increasingly dependent on off-farm income to maintain their standard of living.[6] During times of financial hardship, off-farm income can moderate the effect of a reduction or variability in farm income.

In 2000–01 average off-farm income from all sources was valued at $29,300 for broadacre farms and $35,700 for dairy farms (just under half of the average total family income). Small farms with lower incomes, rather than medium or larger farms, are more likely to be dependent on off-farm income.[7] Over the past two decades broadacre farmers experienced a greater rise in average off-farm income than dairy farmers.[7]

Consistent with the shift towards two income families, and the trend towards part-time farming in other developed countries, a major part of off-farm income comes from off-farm employment.[7] In 2000–01, spouses (mostly women) on broadacre and dairy farms were more likely than owner-managers to participate in off-farm employment (29% and 17% respectively).[9] However, these participation rates do not include those who are self-employed away from the farm.

Farming family income(a) — 2000–01

	Farm type	
	Broadacre	*Dairy*
Average annual net income per farm	$	$
Farm income	30 763	44 472
Off-farm income(b)	29 259	35 672
Total family income	**60 022**	**80 144**

(a) For broadacre and dairy farms with an Estimated Value of Agricultural Operations of $22,500 or more per year (representing 73% of farms of this size).
(b) Includes income earned off-farm from wages and salaries, investments and social security payments.

Source: ABARE 2003, *Australian Farm Surveys Report 2002*.

Estimated Value of Agricultural Operations is an estimation of agricultural activity undertaken by an agricultural establishment measured by three-year average weighted prices applied to livestock turnoff and livestock numbers on the farm, and to area and production data for crops.

Women in farming

Since European settlement of Australia, the involvement of women in farming has been relatively unacknowledged.[10] The role of women in farming has ranged from livestock care to business management. Women tend to spend less hours on farm work than men, although they may cook for farm workers or undertake farm-related book keeping and not report this in the census. Women also complete most of the household work and child care in farming families.[11] Further, women may support farming families through gaining off-farm employment to supplement and stabilise family income.

In 2001, one-third (52,500) of farmers in farming families were women. The number of female farmers in farming families decreased by 20,800 between 1986 and 2001. As the total farming population also declined over this period, the proportion of female farmers in farming families remained relatively stable. The majority of female farmers in farming families had male partners who also farmed (87%). Few women were farmers when their male spouse or partner was not (10%), and even fewer female farmers were lone parents (3%).

Family income and hours worked

Overall, the distribution of income (from all sources) for farming families is similar to that for all families. A little over half of farming families (54%) had a weekly gross family income between $400 and $1,199, compared with 48% of all families. In the higher family income categories ($1,200 per week and over), 32% of farming families received this amount compared with 37% of all families. A greater proportion of farming families reported a negative income (3%) compared with all families (0.2%).

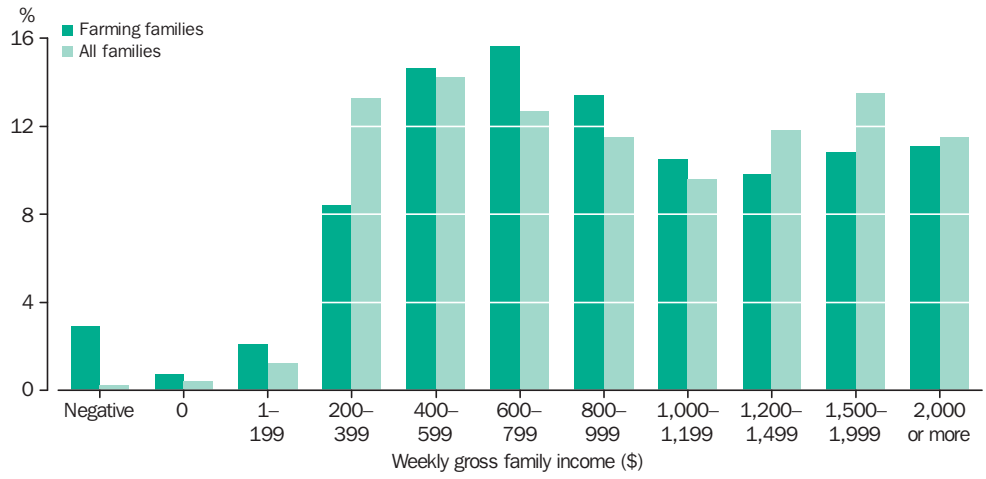
In 2001, 59% of farmers in farming families worked 49 hours or more per week. This compares with 19% of all employed people who spent this amount of time working per week. Just over 85% of farmers in farming families are self-employed (i.e. employers, own account workers and contributing family workers). The remainder are employees on farms, many of whom are likely to be employees of their own small, incorporated companies. In general, self-employed people are more likely to work very long hours than those who are employed (see *Australian Social Trends 2003*, Longer working hours, pp. 119–123). In 2001, farmers in farming families worked a median of 51 hours per week (including time spent on off-farm work), compared with 41 hours for all self-employed people (in all jobs).

Although in 2001 the majority of farmers in farming families continued to work in excess of 49 hours per week (59%), the proportion doing so had declined since 1986 (63%). The proportion of farmers in farming families working 41 to 48 hours per week also decreased from 13% to 7%.

Information technology use

Computers and the internet are increasingly useful to all businesses, including farms, for record-keeping, organising business activities, and receiving and sending information. In farming families, computers and the internet can also provide social contact and be used as an educational resource for children. In 2000,

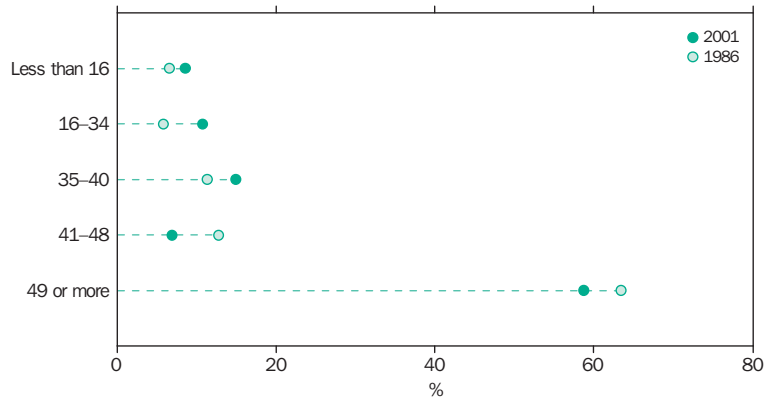
Income(a) distribution for farming families and all families(b) — 2001



(a) Income from all sources.
(b) Families where one or more persons did not state their income were excluded prior to the calculation of percentages.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

Hours worked per week: farmers in farming families(a)



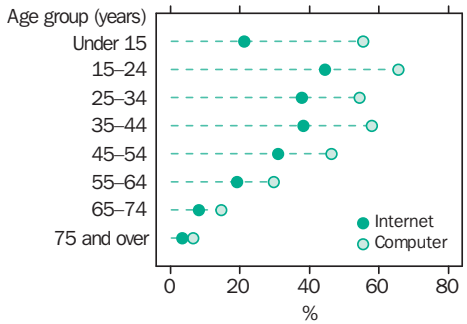
(a) Persons who did not state hours worked were excluded prior to the calculation of percentages.

Source: ABS 1986 and 2001 Censuses of Population and Housing.

a study found that farming families connected to the internet used it primarily for weather reports, market analysis, and educational and banking services.[12]

At June 2000, among Australian farms with an estimated value of agricultural operations of $5,000 or more, 58% used a computer, and 34% used the internet, an increase on the previous year.[13] As farm size (measured by the estimated value of agricultural operations) increased, the proportion using computers and the internet also increased. The proportion of farms using computers and the internet was not uniform across all states and territories. The Northern Territory reported both the highest proportion of farms using a computer (71%) and the highest proportion of farms using the internet (49%). Farms in New South Wales reported the lowest use for both computers and the internet (53% and 31% respectively).[13]

Use of computers and the internet at home by people in farming families(a) — 2001



(a) Persons who did not state their use of computers or the Internet were excluded prior to the calculation of percentages.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

Within farming families in 2001, people aged 15 to 24 years were the most likely to use both a computer (66%) and the Internet (45%) at home. The overall pattern of technology use among members of farming families was similar to that for the total population — those aged between 15 and 24 years were the most likely to use a computer (61%) or the Internet (44%) at home (see *Australian Social Trends 2003*, Household use of computers and the Internet, pp. 194–197). From the age of 45 years, use of computers and the Internet in farming families (and for the total population) generally declined.

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Child protection

SERVICES

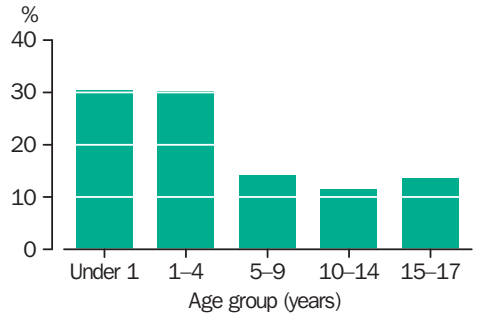
In 2001–02 there were 30,500 substantiated reports of child neglect or abuse made to state or territory community services departments in Australia.

Although most children in Australia are cared for in their family, some come to the attention of authorities because of neglect, or physical, emotional or sexual abuse. Child abuse became a prominent issue in the early 1960s, when research carried out in the USA highlighted the 'battered-child syndrome' — where radiological surveys had revealed untreated fractures and broken bones caused by physical abuse. This research galvanised research in other countries, including Australia. Since then, public and government concern, fuelled by strong media attention, has led to the existing government programs designed to detect and respond to cases of neglect and child abuse.[1] In 2000–01, recurrent expenditure on child protection and out-of-home care services in Australia was at least $712 million, an 8% increase on expenditure in 1999–2000. Well over half (58%) of this expenditure was on out-of-home care of children.[2]

Abuse-related hospitalisation and death among children

For a small number of children, the abuse they suffer can be so severe as to cause hospitalisation or death. In 2000–01, there were 476 recorded hospitalisations of children aged 0–17 years due to assault that were classified by hospitals to 'neglect and abandonment' or 'other maltreatment syndromes'. Nearly a third (30%) of these hospitalisations were for children less than one year of age, and a further 30% were aged 1–4 years. Overall, in 57% of these hospitalisations the parents were recorded as being the perpetrators of the abuse. In general, the proportion of abuse recorded as being perpetrated by a parent was higher for hospitalisations of younger children — with proportions ranging from 82% of hospitalisations for children aged less than 1 year, to 15% of hospitalisations for children aged 17 years.

Age distribution of hospitalisations for neglect and abandonment, and other maltreatment syndromes(a) among children — 2000–01



(a) Counts hospital admissions, not individual children. Does not include out-patients attending casualty departments.

Source: AIHW, National Hospital Morbidity Database.

Child protection

The majority of data and information used in this article is sourced from *Child Protection Australia 2001–02*, published by the Australian Institute of Health and Welfare. In this article children are defined as aged 0–17 years.

Government involvement in child protection in Australia is the responsibility of the community services departments in each state or territory. Because of differences in legislation, policies and practices, data on child abuse are not readily comparable between different states and territories.

Hospitalisations refer to hospital separations, which are episodes of care in hospital. A separation can be a total hospital stay (from admission to discharge, transfer or death), or a portion of a hospital stay beginning or ending in a change of type of care (e.g. from acute to rehabilitation). Out-patient treatment at a casualty or emergency department is not included in hospital separations.

Child protection notifications consist of reports made to authorised departments by persons or other bodies making allegations of child abuse or neglect. A notification can only include one child and one incident of abuse or neglect. If a notification was received for the same child but related to another incident then it would be regarded as another notification.

Substantiations are notifications that have been investigated and it was found that there was reasonable cause to believe that the child had been, was being, or was likely to be, abused, neglected or otherwise harmed.

Care and protection orders cover any child for whom the community services department has a responsibility as a result of some formal legal order or an administrative/voluntary arrangement. They only include orders issued for protective reasons.

Out-of-home care is the placement of children away from their parents for protective or other family welfare reasons. These placements may be voluntary or in conjunction with care and protection orders.

Tragically, a small number of children die from confirmed neglect or abuse. Over the three years spanning 1999–2001, 17 children died from neglect and abandonment or other maltreatment syndromes. Most of these children were very young — 10 were aged less than 1 year old, 6 were aged 1–4 years, and one was aged 5–9 years. This reinforces the observation that very young children are the most likely to suffer neglect or abuse.

Child protection notifications

All states and territories have policies and programs that are intended to identify and help children who are the victims of abuse or at risk of abuse. Although policy and legislation varies by jurisdiction, in general, reports of suspected child abuse or neglect are made to state or territory community services departments. Reports can be made by professionals with a mandate to report, such as general medical practitioners, police officers and school teachers, by any other organisation or individual that has contact with the family or child, or by the child or family themselves. These reports are examined and assessed to determine whether they should be passed on to another agency or taken under the jurisdiction of the community services department. If further action is required, the report will generally either be classified as a family support issue or as a child protection notification.

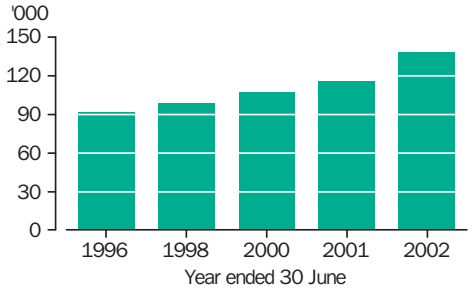
Between 1995–96 and 2001–02, the total number of notifications in Australia increased from 91,700 to 137,900. Over the period 1995–96 to 1999–2000 the number of substantiated cases of abuse or neglect decreased slightly, while notifications increased. This may indicate a greater propensity to report suspected cases of abuse or neglect rather than an increase in the number of children in the community suffering abuse or neglect. For example, the number of notifications in New South Wales increased from 30,400 in 1999–2000 to 40,900 in 2000–01 and then to 55,200 in 2001–02, an 82% increase over the period. However, this coincided with the introduction of new legislation in New South Wales which expanded the categories of risk of harm, and added to the list of agencies and professionals that were mandated to report suspected cases of abuse or neglect. Conversely, over the past two years decreases in the number of notifications were experienced in South Australia and the Australian Capital Territory, which could be related to changes that were made to their child protection policies.[3]

Child protection notifications came from a diverse range of sources. In 2001–02 the most common sources for notifications that were investigated were the police (18%), school personnel (18%), parents and guardians (11%), friends and neighbours (9%), and other relatives (8%).[3]

Child protection substantiations

Whereas notifications represent possible cases of child abuse or neglect, substantiations are confirmed cases of abuse, neglect or harm. Depending on the policies and practices of particular states or territories, notifications are either: unactionable, referred on to other bodies (such as the police or family services), or investigated. A notification is said to be substantiated if, upon investigation, there is reasonable cause to believe that a child has been, or is likely to be, abused or neglected or otherwise harmed. Child protection substantiations are not a complete measure of the prevalence of neglect or child abuse in the community, as an unknown number of cases may not be reported to child protection authorities for investigation.

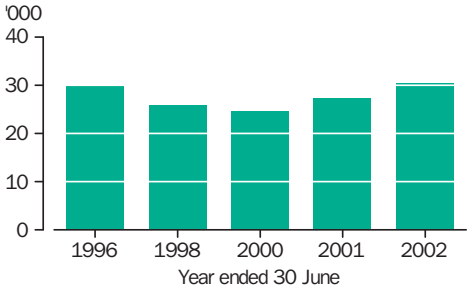
Child protection notifications(a)



(a) Data not available for 1996–97 and 1998–99.

Source: AIHW, *Child Protection Australia, 2000–01* and *2001–02*.

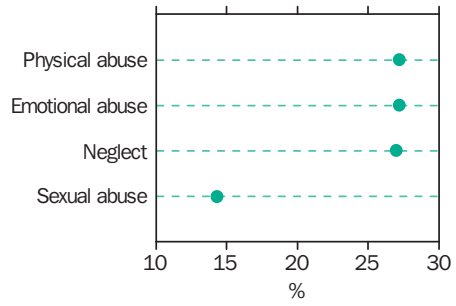
Child protection substantiations(a)



(a) Data not available for 1996–97 and 1998–99.

Source: AIHW, *Child Protection Australia, 2000–01* and *2001–02*.

Substantiations of abuse among children aged 0–17 years: type of substantiation — 2001–02



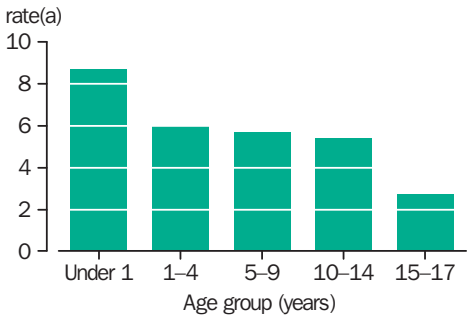
Source: AIHW, *Child Protection Australia, 2001–02*.

In 2001–02 there were 30,500 substantiated cases of child abuse or neglect in Australia — involving 25,600 children aged between 0 and 17 years. Of these cases, the same proportion involved physical abuse, as involved emotional abuse or neglect (27% each). The proportion involving sexual abuse was smaller (14%). The number of substantiations declined from 29,800 in 1995–96 to 24,700 in 1999–2000. Between 1999–2000 and 2001–02 the number increased to 30,500.

Children aged less than 1 year had the highest rate of substantiation in 2001–02, 8.7 per 1,000 children in that age group. Rates of substantiation decreased with age such that by the age of 15–17 years, the rate was 2.7 per 1,000.

In 2001–02, 59% of children who were subject to substantiated abuse or neglect were aged 5–14 years and 9% were aged 15–17 years. A further 8% were aged less than 1 year. Because of the greater number of substantiated cases of girls suffering sexual abuse (2,700 girls compared with 940 boys), overall there were more girls (52%) than boys who were subject to substantiated abuse in 2001–02. However, boys were slightly more likely to be involved in all other types of substantiated cases (i.e. physical abuse 52%, emotional abuse 51%, or neglect 53%).

Children with substantiated abuse: rates by age group — 2001–02



(a) Rate per 1,000 children of the same age in the Australian population at 30 December 2001.

Source: AIHW, *Child Protection Australia, 2001–02* and ABS *Estimated Resident Population*, December 2001.

...and family type

Information collected by community services authorities about the family circumstances of children in substantiated cases of abuse or neglect indicates that, in general, the incidence of abuse or neglect was lower among two-parent families and higher among one-parent families. This is consistent with factors linked to abuse and neglect, such as low income and financial stress, social isolation and lack of family support, which are more likely to occur in one-parent families.[3]

Although the neglect or abuse may not necessarily have been perpetrated by a member of the child's family, the most common perpetrator in all states and territories was a natural parent. In nearly all states and territories over half of the people believed to be responsible for substantiated cases of neglect or abuse were natural parents.[3]

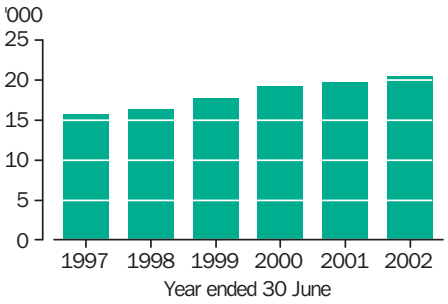
...and Aboriginal and Torres Straight Islander peoples

Indigenous children are more likely to be the subject of substantiated abuse or neglect than non-Indigenous children (16.3 compared with 5.1 per 1,000 children aged 0–16 years respectively). In 2001–02, 13% of the substantiated cases of abuse or neglect among children aged 0–16 years involved children identified as being of Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander origin. In all states and

The Convention on the Rights of the Child

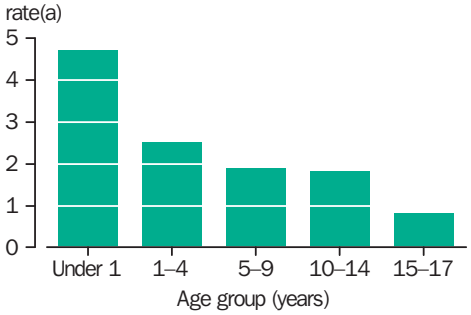
The Convention on the Rights of the Child is an internationally agreed set of standards and obligations which place children centre-stage in the quest for a just, respectful and peaceful society. The Convention spells out the basic human rights of all children — the right to survive, to develop to their fullest, to be protected from harmful influences, abuse and exploitation; and to participate fully in family, cultural and social life. Australia formally ratified the World Declaration on the Survival, Protection and Development of Children, and its associated Plan of Action in May 1991.

Children aged 0–17 years on care and protection orders



Source: AIHW, *Child Protection Australia, 2001–02*.

Children admitted to care and protection orders: rates by age — 2001–02



(a) Rate per 1,000 children of the same age in the Australian population at 30 December 2001.

Source: AIHW, *Child Protection Australia, 2001–02* and ABS *Estimated Resident Population*, December 2001.

territories, apart from Tasmania, the rate of substantiations among Indigenous children was higher than that for non-Indigenous children. These differences in substantiation rates between Indigenous and non-Indigenous children have been linked to their poor socioeconomic status and possibly the intergenerational effects of previous separations from family and culture.[3]

Care and protection orders

Most of the cases of confirmed abuse or neglect, or other problems, that come before state or territory departments of community services are assisted by the provision of support services, such as parent education, family mediation or counselling, and in-home family support. However, at any stage, and generally as a last resort, a community services department can intervene to protect a child by applying to the relevant court (usually the Children's Court) for a care and protection order. Care and protection orders can also refer to legal processes that are available to community services departments without application to a court.

In 2000–01, the proportion of cases of substantiated abuse or neglect that subsequently required care and protection orders within 12 months of substantiation ranged from 14% in South Australia to 52% in Tasmania. Much of the variation is likely to reflect the different policies and legislation in different jurisdictions. The number of children on care and protection orders in Australia has been steadily increasing — from 15,700 at June 1997 to 20,600 at June 2002.

This increase in children on orders is largely the result of the number being admitted to orders exceeding the number discharged from orders each year. For example, in 2001–02 there were 9,600 children admitted to orders while 6,600 were discharged from orders. At June 2002 there were similar proportions of boys (51%) and girls (49%) on care and protection orders. The rates of children admitted to care and protection orders in 2001–02 were much higher for young children than for older children: ranging from 4.7 per 1,000 children among those less than 1 year of age to 0.8 per 1,000 among those aged 15–17 years. Of the children admitted to orders in 2001–02, 67% were aged less than 10 years. However, because children can remain under an order for a long period, 52% of all children on care and protection orders at 30 June 2002 were aged less than 10 years.

Out-of-home care

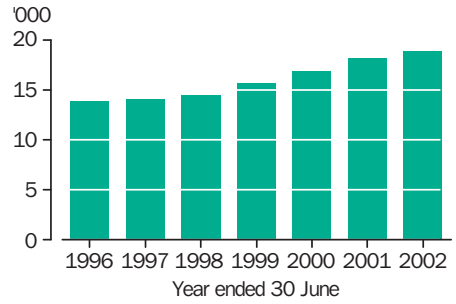
Although community services authorities try to keep children with their families, in some cases, children's interests are best served by removing them from their home environment and placing them in out-of-home care. This can include foster parenting, placements with relatives or kin, or residential care.

The number of children in out-of-home care has steadily increased, particularly in recent years. At June 2002, there were 18,900

Early intervention

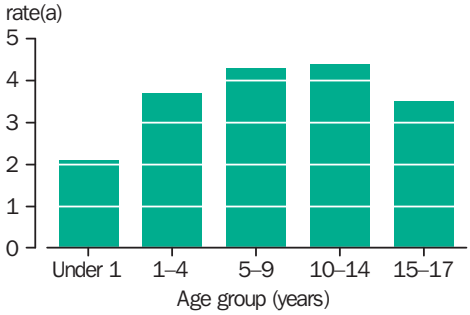
Although this article focuses on programs aimed at identifying and helping children currently suffering abuse, current social policy in Australia is also concerned with preventing child abuse. Preventative programs are mainly intended to identify families at risk and provide help and advice before their problems can escalate into abuse. The main programs operating in Australia are family support programs and community development programs. These initiatives have taken place at all levels of the community, from government to small community groups.[4]

Children aged 0–17 years in out-of-home care



Source: AIHW, *Child Protection Australia, 2001–02*.

Children in out-of-home care: rates by age — June 2002



(a) Rate per 1,000 children of the same age in the Australian population at 30 June 2002.

Source: AIHW, *Child Protection Australia, 2001–02* and ABS *Estimated Resident Population*, June 2002.

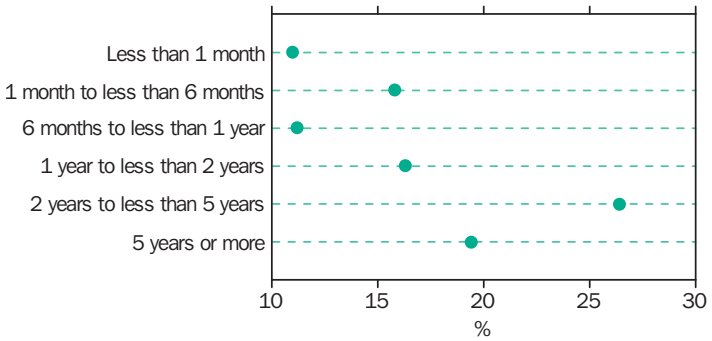
children in out-of-home care, an increase of 35% since 1996. As was the case for care and protection orders, during the year more children were placed in out-of-home care than were discharged. In 2001–02, 12,800 children were admitted to out-of-home care and 10,000 were discharged. Many children placed in out-of-home care stay in it for a long time. At June 2002, 46% of children in out-of-home care had been in continuous care for more than 2 years.

The majority of children in out-of-home care are placed in home-based foster care (51% at June 2002). A further 39% were placed with relatives or kin and 6% in facility-based care (residential). Most children (87% at June 2002) who were in out-of-home care were also on care and protection orders. This reflects the necessity in some jurisdictions for a court order before a child is placed in out-of-home care.[3]

At June 2002, children aged 10–14 years were the most likely to be in out-of-home care (with a rate of 4.4 per 1,000 children of that age). Very young children less than 1 year of age had the lowest rate of out-of-home care (2.1 per 1,000 children in that age group). At June 2002, 32% of children in out-of-home care were aged 10–14 years, 30% were aged 5–9 years and 15% were aged 15–17 years. There were slightly more boys (52%) than girls (48%) in out-of-home care.

At June 2002, 22% (4,200) of children in out-of-home care were Aboriginal or Torres Straight Islander children. This represented a much higher rate of children in out-of-home care among Indigenous children than non-Indigenous children (20.1 per 1,000 compared with 3.2 per 1,000). In all jurisdictions, the Aboriginal Child Placement Principle outlines a preference for Indigenous children to be placed with other Aboriginal or Torres Straight Islander peoples, preferably within the child's extended family or community.[3]

Children aged 0–17 years in out-of-home care at June 2002: time in continuous placement



Source: AIHW, *Child Protection Australia, 2001–02*.

Endnotes

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3 Australian Institute of Health and Welfare 2003, *Child protection Australia, 2001–02*, AIHW Cat. No. CWS 20, AIHW, Canberra.

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Services in remote Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities

SERVICES

While most people living in remote Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities had access to essential services in 2001, many experienced disruptions to supply.

Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples are among the most disadvantaged groups in Australia (see *Australian Social Trends 2000*, Social conditions of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people, pp. 21–26). Many Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples, live in remote areas of Australia where services may be limited, difficult to access, or less reliable than in less remote regional areas and major cities. Services ranging from essential water, power and sewerage supply, to communications, health and community infrastructure are an assumed part of daily life in Australian cities, but are less widely available in remote areas.

Remote communities

While most Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples live in Major Cities of Australia, Outer Regional Australia and Inner Regional Australia (74% in 2001), proportionally more Indigenous than non-Indigenous Australians live in Remote and Very Remote areas of Australia. At the 2001 Census, 26% of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples lived in Remote and Very Remote Australia, compared with 2% of non-Indigenous Australians. Many of the Indigenous peoples living in Remote and Very Remote Australia live in discrete communities, referred to in this article as remote communities.

There were 1,139 remote Indigenous communities across Australia in 2001, with a combined reported usual population of 93,000 people. Over half (54%) reported less than 20 people living in the community, and 23% had populations from 20 to 49 people.

Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities

This article uses information from the 1999 and 2001 Community Housing and Infrastructure Needs Surveys, conducted by the ABS on behalf of the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission. These surveys collected information from discrete Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities across Australia.

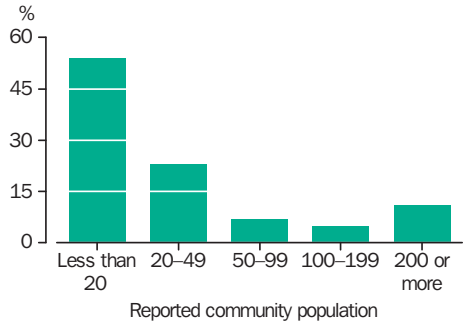
A *discrete Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander community* is defined as a geographic location, bounded by physical or legal boundaries, and inhabited or intended to be inhabited predominantly by Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander peoples, with housing and infrastructure that is managed on a community basis. In this article, *larger communities* refers to communities with reported usual populations of 50 people or more.

The remoteness of discrete Aboriginal and Torres Stratit Islander communities was defined using the ABS Remoteness Classification. For more information about this classification see *Australian Social Trends 2003,* Population characteristics and remoteness, pp. 7–11.

For the purposes of this article *remote communities* include those communities located in *Remote Australia* and *Very Remote Australia*. Together these remoteness categories accounted for 94% of discrete Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities in 2001.

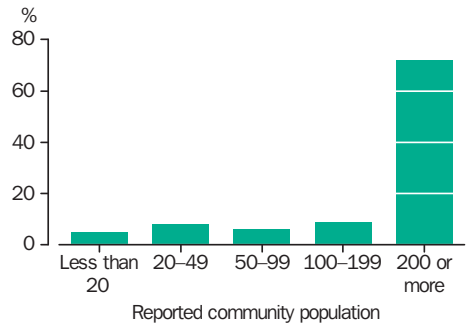
While together these smaller communities accounted for over three-quarters (77%) of all communities, they comprised only 14% of all people living in remote Indigenous communities. Most people (72%) lived in larger communities of 200 people or more.

Size of remote Indigenous communities — 2001



Source: ABS 2001 Community Housing and Infrastructure Needs Survey.

Population distribution in remote Indigenous communities, by community size — 2001



Source: ABS 2001 Community Housing and Infrastructure Needs Survey.

In 2001, 55% of remote Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities were located in the Northern Territory, 24% in Western Australia and 12% in Queensland.

Supply of essential services

The provision and maintenance of essential services can affect the viability of remote communities, and the wellbeing of people living in these communities. Water supply, sewerage systems, power, and rubbish disposal, for example, are critical elements in the development of a healthy living environment.[1] The supply of water of an adequate standard for drinking and washing is a basic health requirement. Electricity is a basic amenity for a range of purposes, including the refrigeration of food, while the disposal of sewage and rubbish is important in preventing the spread of disease.

Most (98%) remote Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities had access to an organised supply of drinking water in 2001. The 2% of communities without an organised supply accounted for less than 1% of the people living in remote communities. For communities with an organised drinking water supply, the proportion in which not all permanent dwellings were connected to the supply decreased from 9% to 6% between 1999 and 2001. In 68% of communities (supporting 66% of the population) bore water was the main source of drinking water. A further 12% of communities (12% of the population) were connected to a town water supply and 8% of communities (16% of the population) used a river or reservoir as their main source of drinking water.

The number of communities with an organised supply of electricity increased between 1999 and 2001. In 2001, 93% of communities had some form of organised electricity supply, up from 89% in 1999 (for more information on service supply in 1999 see *Australian Social Trends 2000,* Housing in remote Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities, pp. 175–178). The 7% of communities without an organised electricity supply in 2001 had relatively small populations, supporting less than 1% of the people living in remote communities. Among those communities with an organised electricity supply, the proportion of communities in which at least one permanent dwelling was not connected to the supply decreased from 9% in 1999 to 7% in 2001.

While the majority (92%) of remote Indigenous communities had some form of organised sewerage, 1,100 people lived in communities without a sewerage system. In 2001, over half of communities (accounting for 36% of the population) used septic tanks as their main type of sewerage system. A further 20% of communities were reliant on pit toilets, with 3,500 people living in these communities.

In 2001, over half (57%) of communities relied on an unfenced tip within the community as their main means of rubbish disposal. A further 20% disposed of rubbish in tips outside the community, while 2% had no organised form of rubbish disposal.

Reliability of services

The supply of essential services is necessary for creating a healthy living environment and poor quality or unreliable infrastructure in

Essential services in remote Indigenous communities — 2001

Service supply	*Proportion of communities*	*Number of people living in these communities*
	%	'000
Main source of drinking water		
Organised supply	*98*	*92.7*
Connected to town supply	12	11.1
Bore water	68	61.5
Water tanks	5	3.7
River or reservoir	8	14.9
Other	6	1.6
Main source of electricity		
Organised supply	*93*	*92.2*
State grid/transmitted supply	16	21.8
Generators	57	66.3
Solar/solar hybrid	19	3.6
Other	1	0.5
Main type of sewerage system		
Organised system	*92*	*91.8*
Connected to town system	4	7.8
Community water-borne system	8	46.8
Septic tanks	59	33.3
Pit toilets	20	3.5
Other	1	0.3
Main type of rubbish disposal		
Organised disposal	*98*	*92.2*
Fenced tip	11	20.3
Unfenced tip	57	53.3
Tip outside community	20	17.6
Other	9	1.0
	no.	'000
Total communities (a)	**1 139**	**92.8**

(a) Includes 21 communities, containing 560 people, which did not state their main type of rubbish disposal.

Source: ABS 2001 Community Housing and Infrastructure Needs Survey.

remote communities can both interrupt the supply and limit the usefulness of these services. To avoid breakdown and costly repair, the technology employed needs to be appropriate for use in rural and remote locations. Adequate regulatory systems are also needed to ensure services operate effectively.[2] While most people living in remote Indigenous communities had access to essential services in 2001, many experienced disruptions to supply.

Over a third (38%) of larger communities (i.e. those with a population of 50 people or more) had experienced water restrictions in the past year, with 31% of these communities experiencing water restrictions five or more times throughout the year. Water restrictions can include restrictions on the amount of water used, the purposes for which water can be used, or restrictions to the times at which water can be used. Equipment breakdown was the most common cause of water restriction (reported by 63% of communities which had experienced a water restriction).

Electricity interruptions were also frequent in the larger remote Indigenous communities. In 2001, 85% of these communities had experienced electricity interruptions of one hour or more, with 40% of these affected communities experiencing 10 or more interruptions throughout the past year. The most commonly reported reason for electricity interruptions in remote Indigenous communities was equipment breakdown (reported by 63% of communities experiencing interruptions), followed by storms (reported by 58%).

In 2001, nearly half (49%) of remote Indigenous communities with a population of 50 people or more experienced sewerage system overflows or leaks, a decrease from 59% in 1999. Blocked drains were the most commonly reported reason for these overflows and leaks (52%), followed by equipment failure (29%) and design or installation problems (29%). Other reasons included factors related to the natural environment, such as wet seasons (27%), and increased demand through population increase (20%).

Service disruptions in remote Indigenous communities(a) — 2001

	Proportion of communities	*Number of people living in these communities*
	%	'000
Water restrictions	38	36.3
Electricity interruptions	85	72.5
Sewerage overflows or leaks	49	44.8
	no.	'000
Total communities	**265**	**80.1**

(a) Communities with a population of 50 people or more.

Source: ABS 2001 Community Housing and Infrastructure Needs Survey.

Health services

A variety of indicators, such as the lower life expectancy of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples and their higher rates of hospitalisation,[3] demonstrate that Indigenous Australians continue to suffer greater ill health than non-Indigenous Australians (see *Australian Social Trends 2002*, Mortality of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples, pp. 86–90). Geographic remoteness can be a barrier to health care services for many Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples, as accessing particular health services may involve multiple forms of transport and overnight stays. These can add to health care costs and reduce the patient's contact with family and friends.[4]

In 2001, 48% of all remote Indigenous communities were located 250 kilometres or more from the nearest hospital, with a further 26% located between 100 and 249 kilometres from a hospital. Distance barriers to hospital access were potentially alleviated for some communities through access to medical emergency air services. In 2001, 51% of the communities (supporting 88% of the population) located 100 kilometres or more from a hospital, had access to both an airstrip and the communications technology (such as radio or telephone) needed to access an emergency air service.

Community health centres were more likely to be located near or within remote Indigenous communities than were hospitals. In addition to the 8% of communities with a hospital located either in, or within 10 kilometres of the community, 23% of communities were located within 10 kilometres of a community health centre. On a population basis, 85% of people in remote communities were living within 10 kilometres of either a hospital or a community health centre. A further 34% of communities (8% of the population) were located within 50 kilometres of a community health centre.

Distance to health services gives some indication of the accessibility of health services for remote Indigenous communities. However, if transport is not available or road access is affected by factors such as flooding, comparatively short distances can become an

Health professionals working in remote Indigenous communities(a) — 2001

	Frequency of work in the community				
Type of health professional	Daily %	Weekly or fortnightly %	Monthly %	Three monthly or less %	Total communities with access %
Dentist	—	4	10	50	64
Doctor	12	58	14	4	88
Drug and alcohol worker	3	4	3	34	44
Indigenous health worker, male	27	8	5	10	50
Indigenous health worker, female	56	10	7	5	78
Mental health professional	1	5	10	37	53
Registered nurse	55	23	8	5	91

(a) Communities with a population of 50 people or more, located 10 kilometres or more from the nearest hospital.

Source: ABS 2001 Community Housing and Infrastructure Needs Survey.

impediment to service usage. The presence of health professionals within communities is one means of alleviating such problems. In 2001, information about how often health professionals worked within communities, including those working in community health centres, was collected for communities with a population of 50 people or more located 10 kilometres or more from the nearest hospital. Registered nurses were the most frequently available health professionals, working in 91% of the remote Indigenous communities surveyed, and on a daily basis in 55%. While doctors worked in 88% of communities, only 12% had doctors working on a daily basis.

Cultural differences, and different understandings of the concepts of health, disease and medicine, can exist between non-Indigenous health providers and Indigenous patients.[4, 5] Access to Indigenous health workers, and health workers of the same sex as the patient, can help provide effective health services for Indigenous communities. Of the remote communities surveyed in 2001, 78% reported that a female Indigenous health worker worked in the community, although the frequency varied. In 56% of the surveyed communities, female Indigenous health workers worked in the community on a daily basis. In comparison, 27% of communities had male Indigenous health workers working on that basis. Male Indigenous health workers were among the least available health professionals, with half of remote communities not having a male Indigenous health worker in the community at all.

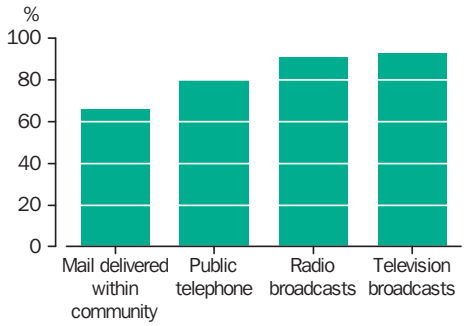
In addition to health professionals working in communities, a number of health promotion programs are conducted in remote Indigenous communities. In 2001, most (83%) larger communities located 10 kilometres or more from a hospital reported that one or more programs were conducted. The most frequently reported health programs were immunisation (conducted in 75% of communities), women's health (74%), sexual health (68%) and well babies (67%) programs.

Connections to the wider community

Transport and communication technologies enable people living in remote communities to access a wider range of information and services than may otherwise be available. In 2001, 4% of remote Indigenous communities were located within towns with services such as shopping and banking. Among the communities not located in such towns, 89% of communities (68% of the population) mainly used road transport to access the closest town. Air transport was the main form of transport to the nearest town for 8% of communities (25% of the population). Given this reliance on road transport, cuts to road access can substantially affect service availability for Indigenous people in remote communities. In 2001, 76% of communities with a population of 50 people or more, that were not located in towns with major services, could not use roads into or out of the community for at least one day in the previous 12 months. Of these communities, nearly one-quarter (24%) were cut off by road on five or more occasions.

Communications infrastructure such as telephones, postal services and television are a means for people in remote communities to access services and information, and to communicate with family and friends in the wider community. In 2001, 18% of larger

Communication services in remote Indigenous communities(a) — 2001



(a) Communities with a population of 50 people or more.

Source: ABS 2001 Community Housing and Infrastructure Needs Survey.

communities had mail delivered to within the community on a daily basis and a further 47% had mail delivered into the community at least weekly. However, 34% of larger communities did not have mail delivered to within the community. These communities accessed mail from a post office box, or other central point, located outside the community.

In the wider Australian community virtually all households have a telephone and at least one television (see *Australian Social Trends 2001,* Household amenities, pp. 182–185). In contrast, communications technology in remote Indigenous communities is less widely available. In 2001, 80% of larger Indigenous communities had at least one public telephone within the community. However, these telephones can sometimes be located in community offices, or other places with restricted opening hours. Further, where telephones are available, these are not always in working order. In 16% of larger communities all of the public telephones were not working, while in a further 6% of larger communities some of the public telephones were not working.

In 2001, 93% of larger remote Indigenous communities received television broadcasts and 91% received radio broadcasts. The most common broadcasts received were Australian Broadcasting Commission (ABC) television (88% of communities), commercial television (87%) and ABC radio (85%). Around two-thirds of remote communities received Indigenous broadcasts including Indigenous radio (68%) and Indigenous television (62%).

Other community facilities

In addition to essential services, other facilities such as sports grounds and halls contribute to community wellbeing through providing meeting places and spaces for recreation and cultural activities. In 2001, the majority of remote Indigenous communities with a population of 50 people or more had an administrative building (71%), hall or meeting area (63%) or store (63%). Over half of communities had outdoor sports courts (56%) or sports grounds (55%). However, 32% of larger remote Indigenous communities (supporting 12% of the population) had no sporting facilities within the community.

Other public facilities available within Indigenous communities of 50 people or more included women's centres (available in 43% of communities), child care centres (34%), and art or cultural centres (27%). Facilities which were less common included youth centres (19% of communities), canteens (17%) and libraries (16%). In 2001, 15% of larger remote Indigenous communities (supporting 4% of the population) did not have any of these public facilities available within the community.

Population change in communities

For a variety of reasons, including seasonal changes, cultural reasons and sporting and recreational events, the population of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities can change substantially for brief, and even extended periods of time. An influx of visitors to a community can create additional demand and stress on services provided.

The *reported usual population* of remote communities is an estimate of the number of people who reside, or intend to reside, in the community for 6 months or more. In 2001, information on temporary population changes experienced by communities in the previous 12 months was collected for communities with a reported usual population of 50 people or more. Three-quarters of these communities reported that they had experienced population increases for a period of two weeks or more, with 55% increasing by up to 99 people, and 20% increasing by 100 people or more.

Cultural reasons were the most commonly given reasons for temporary population increases (reported by 70% of communities which had experienced a population increase). Other reasons included the presence of visitors during holiday seasons (37%), sporting or recreational events held in the community (34%) and wet seasons (35%), which can attract visitors into a community due to access problems in their own communities.

Endnotes

1 Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission, *Community Housing and Infrastructure Program Policy 1997–2000* <http://www.atsic.gov.au/programs/Social_and_Cultural/Community_Housing_and_ Infrastructure>, accessed 14 August 2002.

2 Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission, *Annual Report 2000–01* <http://www.atsic.gov.au/About_ATSIC/annual_report>, accessed 15 August 2002.

3 Australian Bureau of Statistics and Australian Institute of Health and Welfare 2001, *The Health and Welfare of Australia's Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Peoples 2001*, ABS cat. no. 4704.0, AIHW Cat. No. AIHW 6, ABS, Canberra.

4 Gruen, R., Bailie, R., d'Abbs, P., O'Rouke, I., O'Brien, M. and Verm, N. 2001, 'Improving access to specialist care for remote Aboriginal communities: evaluation of a specialist outreach service', *The Medical Journal of Australia*, Vol. 174, No. 10, pp. 507–511.

5 The National Health and Medical Research Council Australia – Health Advancement Standing Committee 1996, *Promoting the health of Indigenous Australians: A review of infrastructure support for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander health advancement*, National Health and Medical Research Council, Canberra.

Health

Health: national summary

	HEALTH STATUS	Units	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
	Life expectancy												
1	Life expectancy at birth – males(a)	years	74.4	74.5	75.0	75.0	75.0	75.2	75.6	75.9	76.2	76.6	77.0
2	Life expectancy at birth – females(a)	years	80.4	80.4	80.9	80.9	80.8	81.1	81.3	81.5	81.8	82.0	82.4
3	Life expectancy at age 65 – males(a)	years	15.4	15.4	15.7	15.7	15.7	15.8	16.1	16.3	16.6	16.9	17.2
4	Life expectancy at age 65 – females(a)	years	19.1	19.2	19.5	19.7	19.5	19.6	19.8	20.0	20.2	20.4	20.7
5	Disability-free life expectancy at birth – males	years	n.a.	n.a.	58.4	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	57.5	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
6	Disability-free life expectancy at birth – females	years	n.a.	n.a.	64.2	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	63.3	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
7	Males surviving to age 50	%	93.3	93.5	93.7	r93.8	r93.6	r93.7	r93.8	93.9	r93.9	94.0	94.2
8	Females surviving to age 50	%	96.4	96.4	96.6	r96.3	r96.6	r96.7	r96.7	96.7	96.7	96.7	96.9
9	Males surviving to age 70	%	70.8	71.3	72.5	r72.9	r72.5	r73.2	r74.0	r74.7	r75.5	r76.3	77.3
10	Females surviving to age 70	%	83.3	83.6	84.2	r85.1	r84.2	r84.5	r84.9	r85.2	r85.7	r86.1	86.6
11	Males surviving to age 85	%	24.1	24.2	25.9	r25.5	r25.6	r26.3	r28.0	r28.6	r29.9	r31.2	32.9
12	Females surviving to age 85	%	43.6	43.7	45.5	r46.7	r45.2	r45.9	r47.0	r47.8	r48.9	r50.2	51.6
	Mortality(b)												
13	Total number of deaths	'000	119.1	123.7	121.6	126.7	125.1	128.7	129.4	127.2	128.1	128.3	128.9
14	Standardised death rate (per 1,000 population)	rate	6.9	6.9	6.6	6.7	6.4	6.4	6.3	6.0	5.9	5.7	5.4
15	Infant mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)	rate	7.1	7.0	6.1	5.9	5.7	5.8	5.3	5.0	5.7	5.2	5.3
16	Perinatal mortality rate (per 1,000 live births and fetal deaths combined)	rate	10.6	10.7	9.2	9.1	9.4	10.0	9.2	8.3	8.5	8.3	8.4
	Disability(c)(d)												
17	Persons with a disability	%	n.a.	n.a.	17.2	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	18.8	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
18	Persons with a profound/severe core activity restriction	%	n.a.	n.a.	4.0	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	5.5	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.

	CAUSES OF DEATH	Units	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
	Death rates are per 100,000 population												
	Leading causes(c)												
19	Cancer	rate	181	181	180	181	177	177	r172	r169	r165	r162	162
20	Ischaemic heart disease	rate	r175	r176	162	161	151	145	r139	r130	122	r112	107
21	Stroke	rate	69	67	65	67	63	61	r57	r55	r52	r50	48
	Selected cancers(c)												
22	Lung cancer – males	rate	60	59	57	59	56	55	r51	r52	50	48	47
23	Lung cancer – females	rate	18	18	19	19	19	r19	19	r18	19	r19	20
24	Breast cancer – females	rate	27	25	27	r26	26	25	24	23	22	r21	21
25	Prostate cancer – males	rate	31	34	35	35	33	33	29	r30	28	29	28
26	Skin cancer	rate	6	7	7	7	7	7	6	6	6	r6	6
	Heart disease and diabetes(c)												
27	Ischaemic heart disease – males	rate	r235	r233	r217	r214	r202	196	r186	r173	r163	r149	141
28	Ischaemic heart disease – females	rate	r128	r131	r118	118	r110	r106	r102	r94	r88	r83	78
29	Diabetes mellitus	rate	13	14	14	15	14	15	r15	13	r13	13	13
	Motor vehicle accidents												
30	Motor vehicle traffic accident(c)	rate	13	12	11	11	11	11	10	9	9	9	9
31	Males aged 15–24	rate	38	31	33	r31	r33	32	r28	27	r27	r28	27
32	Females aged 15–24	rate	12	12	10	10	11	8	10	9	r9	r10	7
	Suicide												
33	Suicide(c)	rate	14	13	12	13	13	13	15	14	13	12	13
34	Males(c)	rate	22	21	19	21	21	21	23	23	21	r20	20
35	Females(c)	rate	6	5	4	5	5	5	6	6	5	5	5
36	Males aged 15–24	rate	27	27	25	27	25	r26	31	27	23	r20	20
37	Females aged 15–24	rate	6	6	4	4	6	4	7	6	r6	6	5
	Drug induced(c)												
38	Drug induced	rate	5	5	5	6	7	6	7	9	9	8	5
39	Males	rate	6	7	6	8	9	9	10	13	14	12	7
40	Females	rate	4	4	3	4	4	4	5	5	5	5	4

Health: national summary continued

	RISK FACTORS	Units	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
	Immunisation status(e)												
41	Children not fully immunised aged 3 months to 6 years – of children aged 3 months to 6 years	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	47.7
	Drinking and smoking(e)												
42	Risky/high-risk drinkers – of males aged 18 and over	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	10.3	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	13.2
43	Risky/high-risk drinkers – of females aged 18 and over	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	6.1	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	8.5
44	Current smokers – of males aged 18 and over	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	28.5	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	27.3
45	Current smokers – of females aged 18 and over	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	21.8	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	21.4
	Diet and exercise(e)												
46	Overweight/obese adults – of males aged 18 and over	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	49.0	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	54.4
47	Overweight/obese adults – of females aged 18 and over	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	32.5	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	38.2
48	Adults with low usual intake of fruit – of males aged 18 and over	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	53.2	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	53.5
49	Adults with low usual intake of fruit – of females aged 18 and over	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	44.7	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	41.9
50	Adults who are physically inactive– of males aged 18 and over	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	35.0	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	30.9
51	Adults who are physically inactive– of females aged 18 and over	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	35.2	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	32.0
	High blood pressure(e)												
52	Hypertension – of males aged 18 and over	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	13.9	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	12.8
53	Hypertension – of females aged 18 and over	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	14.5	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	13.9

	SERVICES	Units	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
54	Hospital separations (per 1,000 population)	rate	n.a.	237	247	260	263	276	283	291	295	298	305
55	Hospital beds (per 1,000 population)	no.	5.0	4.5	4.4	4.2	4.5	4.6	r4.4	r4.3	4.2	4.1	4.1
56	Average length of stay in hospital	days	5.1	4.8	4.8	4.7	4.3	4.3	4.2	4.1	3.9	r3.9	3.7
57	Doctors (per 100,000 population)	no.	225	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	241	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	248
58	Residential aged care places (per 1,000 population aged 70 and over)	no.	94.0	93.7	93.1	92.6	92.2	90.6	89.4	87.5	85.7	83.8	83.3
	Medicare usage												
	Average Medicare services processed(c)												
59	Per persons	no.	8.5	8.9	9.7	10.0	10.3	10.5	10.5	10.6	10.6	10.6	10.6
60	Per male	no.	6.9	7.2	7.8	8.2	8.4	8.7	8.7	8.7	8.7	8.6	8.8
61	Per female	no.	10.1	10.6	11.5	11.8	12.2	12.4	12.4	12.4	12.4	r13.0	12.5
62	Per person aged 65 and over	no.	15.4	16.4	17.9	18.8	19.6	r20.4	r20.8	21.4	r21.8	r22.4	22.6
63	Proportion of Medicare services used by persons aged 65 and over	%	20.6	21.0	21.4	22.0	22.5	23.0	23.6	24.2	24.6	25.3	25.8

	EXPENDITURE	Units	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
64	Persons with private health insurance	%	43.7	41.0	39.4	37.2	34.9	33.6	31.9	30.5	30.6	43.0	44.7
65	Total health expenditure per person per year (1999–2000 reference year)	$	1 820	r1 904	r1 996	r2 082	r2 183	r2 313	r2 453	r2 596	r2 743	r2 922	3 153
66	Total health expenditure as a proportion of GDP	%	7.9	8.2	8.2	r8.3	r8.3	r8.4	r8.5	r8.6	r8.7	r8.8	9.0

(a) 1991 data calculated using the average of three years. It includes the year prior to and the year following the date shown. 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.

(b) Based on deaths registered during the year.

(c) Rates are age-standardised.

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

Reference periods: All health status data and causes of death data are for the calendar year except for (a).

Health: state summary

HEALTH STATUS	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT(a)	ACT	Aust.
Life expectancy											
1 Life expectancy at birth – males	years	1999–2001	76.9	77.5	76.9	77.0	77.3	76.0	70.8	78.5	77.0
2 Life expectancy at birth – females	years	1999–2001	82.4	82.7	82.3	82.5	82.8	81.2	76.5	82.9	82.4
3 Males surviving to age 50	%	1999–2001	94.3	94.6	94.1	94.1	94.1	93.6	87.3	95.1	94.2
4 Females surviving to age 50	%	1999–2001	97.0	97.0	96.7	96.8	96.9	96.7	93.1	97.4	96.9
5 Males surviving to age 70	%	1999–2001	77.0	78.4	76.7	77.4	78.0	75.6	63.1	80.6	77.3
6 Females surviving to age 70	%	1999–2001	86.6	87.1	86.5	86.5	87.3	84.6	74.1	87.6	86.6
7 Males surviving to age 85	%	1999–2001	32.4	34.0	32.9	32.6	33.9	29.4	21.8	36.6	32.9
8 Females surviving to age 85	%	1999–2001	51.4	52.2	51.5	51.7	52.8	47.1	35.0	52.4	51.6
Mortality(b)											
9 Total number of deaths	'000	2001	44.6	32.3	22.9	11.9	10.8	3.9	0.9	1.4	128.9
10 Standardised death rate (per 1,000 population)	rate	2001	5.4	5.3	5.5	5.5	5.2	6.2	8.1	5.1	5.4
11 Infant mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)	rate	2001	5.3	4.8	5.9	4.6	5.1	6.2	10.7	3.0	5.3
12 Perinatal mortality rate (per 1,000 live births and fetal deaths combined)	rate	2001	7.8	8.7	9.7	8.5	7.9	5.6	12.2	8.3	8.4
Morbidity and disability prevalence											
13 Cancer(c)	%	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(c)	%	2001	1.6	2.1	2.5	1.8	1.5	2.2	n.a.	2.2	1.9
15 Diabetes(c)	%	2001	2.9	3.1	2.8	2.9	2.7	2.1	n.a.	3.1	2.9
16 Asthma(c)	%	2001	11.1	12.1	12.0	12.6	10.5	11.7	n.a.	12.3	11.6
17 Injury(c)	%	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 pshychological distress – aged 18 and over(c)	%	2001	12.9	12.9	11.8	14.2	11.1	13.9	n.a.	9.2	12.6
19 Arthritis(c)	%	2001	13.9	12.9	14.1	12.9	13.5	18.7	n.a.	11.8	13.6
20 Persons with a disability(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(d)	%	1998	6.0	5.7	6.8	5.9	5.9	7.3	6.6	6.7	6.1

CAUSES OF DEATH	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Death rates are per 100,000 population											
Leading causes(d)											
22 Cancer	rate	1999–2001	160	165	165	162	162	181	196	155	163
23 Ischaemic heart disease	rate	1999–2001	116	104	126	116	104	121	141	100	114
24 Stroke	rate	1999–2001	54	46	52	49	45	54	53	49	50
Selected cancers(d)											
25 Lung cancer – males	rate	1999–2001	48	46	50	47	50	52	64	32	48
26 Lung cancer – females	rate	1999–2001	19	20	19	18	21	23	33	17	19
27 Breast cancer – females	rate	1999–2001	21	23	21	22	21	25	27	25	22
28 Prostate cancer – males	rate	1999–2001	27	29	30	30	25	32	16	25	28
29 Skin cancer	rate	1999–2001	7	5	8	5	6	5	8	4	6
Heart disease and diabetes(d)											
30 Ischaemic heart disease – males	rate	1999–2001	153	140	162	158	140	160	178	124	151
31 Ischaemic heart disease – females	rate	1999–2001	84	76	95	83	75	90	96	79	83
32 Diabetes mellitus	rate	1999–2001	10	16	13	13	14	14	40	11	13
Motor vehicle accidents											
33 Motor vehicle traffic accident(d)	rate	1999–2001	9	9	9	10	10	11	21	5	9
34 Males aged 15–24	rate	1999–2001	25	24	27	32	35	37	70	10	27
35 Females aged 15–24	rate	1999–2001	8	8	7	8	10	14	20	7	8
Suicide											
36 Suicide(d)	rate	1999–2001	12	11	14	13	14	14	20	12	13
37 Males(d)	rate	1999–2001	19	17	23	22	22	24	33	20	20
38 Females(d)	rate	1999–2001	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
39 Males aged 15–24	rate	1999–2001	19	16	27	22	27	23	51	21	21
40 Females aged 15–24	rate	1999–2001	5	5	5	4	6	8	11	7	5
Drug induced(d)											
41 Drug induced	rate	1999–2001	8	9	6	7	8	4	7	5	8
42 Males	rate	1999–2001	12	12	8	10	10	5	11	8	11
43 Females	rate	1999–2001	4	6	4	4	5	4	2	3	5

Health: state summary continued

RISK FACTORS	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Immunisation status(c)											
44 Children not fully immunised aged 3 months to 6 years – of children aged 3 months to 6 years	%	2001	49.1	48.3	52.0	44.8	35.6	44.1	n.a.	41.0	47.7
Drinking and smoking(c)											
45 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
46 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
47 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
48 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
Diet and exercise(c)											
49 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
50 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
51 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
52 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
53 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
54 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
High blood pressure(c)											
55 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
56 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

SERVICES	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
57 Hospital separations (per 1,000 population)	rate	2000–2001	273	317	329	331	322	273	360	293	305
58 Hospital beds (per 1,000 population)	no.	2000–2001	3.9	4.0	4.5	4.9	4.4	4.1	2.9	2.2	4.1
59 Average length of stay in hospital	days	2000–2001	4.0	3.5	3.3	3.8	3.5	4.3	3.3	3.5	3.7
60 Doctors (per 100,000 population)	no.	2001	251	252	234	276	232	235	253	287	248
61 Residential aged care places (per 1,000 population aged 70 and over)	no.	2000–2001	83.0	80.0	86.8	85.2	85.3	82.8	109.2	79.9	83.3
Medicare usage											
Average Medicare services processed(d)											
62 Per persons	no.	2000–2001	11.1	10.7	10.6	10.3	9.6	9.6	6.5	9.3	10.6
63 Per male	no.	2000–2001	9.4	8.8	8.6	8.6	7.7	7.7	5.3	7.7	8.8
64 Per female	no.	2000–2001	13.0	12.5	12.5	12.1	11.6	11.5	8.2	11.3	12.5
65 Per person aged 65 and over	no.	2000–2001	23.5	22.9	22.4	22.0	20.7	19.8	13.1	20.5	22.6
66 Proportion of Medicare services used by persons aged 65 and over	%	2000–2001	26.3	26.8	24.2	29.1	23.4	26.9	8.5	19.3	25.8

EXPENDITURE	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
67 Persons with private health insurance(e)	%	2001	45.3	44.8	42.1	45.7	47.8	44.5	33.8	n.a.	44.7

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

(b) Based on deaths registered during the year.

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

(d) Rates are age-standardised.

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

Health: data sources

DATA SOURCE	*Indicators using this source*
ABS 1995 National Health Survey; ABS 2001 National Health Survey.	National (42–47, 50–53)
ABS 1995 National Nutrition Survey, Australia; ABS 2001 National Health Survey.	National (48–49)
ABS 1998 Survey of Disability, Ageing and Carers.	National (5–6)
ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing and *Australian Demographic Statistics, September Quarter 2002* (ABS cat. no. 3101.0).	National (57); State (60)
ABS 2001 National Health Survey.	State (13–19, 45–56)
Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, *Australia's Health Expenditure 2000–2001,* (AIHW Cat. No. HWE-20).	National (65–66)
Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, *Australian Hospital Statistics 2000–2001,* (AIHW Cat. No. HSE-20).	National (54–56); State (57–59)
Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, *Residential Aged Care in Australia 2000–2001: A Statistical Overview,* (AIHW Cat. No. AGE-22).	National (58); State (61)
ABS Causes of Death Collection.	National (19–40); State (22–43)
ABS 2001 National Health Survey.	National (41); State (44)
Deaths, Australia (ABS cat. no. 3302.0).	National (1–4, 7–16); State (1–12)
Disability, Ageing and Carers, Australia: Summary of Findings, 1998 (ABS cat. no. 4430.0).	National (17–18); State (20–21)
Health Insurance Commission 2001, *Health Insurance Commission Annual Report 2001,* Medicare Statistical Tables, HIC, Canberra.	National (59–63); State (62–66)
Private Health Insurance Administration Council 2001, *Private Health Insurance Administration Council (PHIAC) Annual Report 2001–02,* PHIAC, Canberra.	National (64); State (67)

Health: definitions

Arthritis
the proportion of 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
the proportion of 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.

Average Medicare services processed
average number of services processed per Australian resident per year.
Reference: Health Insurance Commission, *Financial Statements and Statistical Tables, 2000–01.*

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
the proportion of 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).

Children not fully immunised
the proportion of children reported as not having received all the required vaccinations scheduled for their age. The required vaccinations are based on the National Health and Medical Research Council Standard Childhood Vaccination Schedule.
Reference: *National Health Survey: Summary of Results, 2001* (ABS cat. no. 4364.0).

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).

Health: definitions continued

Diabetes
the proportion of 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).

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,* Australian Institute of Health and Welfare.

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, Australian Institute of Health and Welfare.

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 heart beat.

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

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 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: Australian Institute of Health and Welfare 2002, *Health and Welfare Expenditure Series, Number 14: Health Expenditure Australia 2000–01*.

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*, Australian Institute of Health and Welfare.

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, 2000–01* Australian Institute of Health and Welfare.

Hypertension
the proportion of 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
the proportion of 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
the proportion of 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 heart beat.

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

Low usual intake of fruit
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).

Health: definitions continued

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; and
- 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.

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 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/insurenotsure/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 Psychological Distress Scale – 10 (K–10). 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: *Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, 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 50ml and up to and including 75ml of absolute alcohol (risky) or more than 75ml (high-risk) per day, and females aged 18 years and over who reported drinking more than 25ml and up to and including 50ml of absolute alcohol (risky) and more than 50ml (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 are 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 1991 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 until 1994 and from 1999 onwards. From 1995 to 1997 the life tables were produced by the Australian Government Actuary. From 1995 onwards, probability of survival is based on life tables calculated using three years' data to reduce the impact of year-to-year statistical variations.

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

Medical practitioners

HEALTH SERVICES

The number of doctors in the population doubled between 1971 and 2001, from 122 to 248 per 100,000 population. However, the distribution of doctors is not even across Australia.

General practitioners are the main providers of primary medical care in Australia, and are also responsible for referring patients elsewhere in the health system, in particular to specialists. Specialist practitioners use sophisticated knowledge in particular areas of medicine to diagnose or treat patients. The number of doctors, their distribution, and the balance of general and specialist medical practitioners are basic considerations affecting access to health care, and also impact on doctors' working conditions. The cost of public funding for medical services provided by doctors is also an issue, particularly as the average number of medical services provided to each person has increased since the Medicare scheme was introduced in 1984.[1] In the 1980s and 1990s, concern focused on the availability of general practitioners outside metropolitan areas, while the number of general practitioners in metropolitan areas has been considered to be more than adequate, and to show indications of over-supply.[2] Keeping pace with the need for specialists has also been a concern.

How many doctors?

Over the 30 years to 2001, the number of doctors increased at a much faster rate than the population. As a result, between 1971 and 2001 the number of doctors in the population doubled, from 122 to 248 per 100,000 population. Over this period, the fastest growth was in the 1970s, with the number of doctors per person increasing to 181 per 100,000 population by 1981. Over the 1980s and 1990s the rate of increase slowed, particularly in the five years to 2001, with the 248 doctors per 100,000 population in 2001 only slightly higher than the 241 in 1996. A number of factors may have restrained growth over these five years. The annual number of medical graduates was held relatively stable over the late 1980s and 1990s, in contrast to previous increases. From 1995 onwards, changes were made to training and accreditation for general practice, there were new restrictions on access to Medicare billing

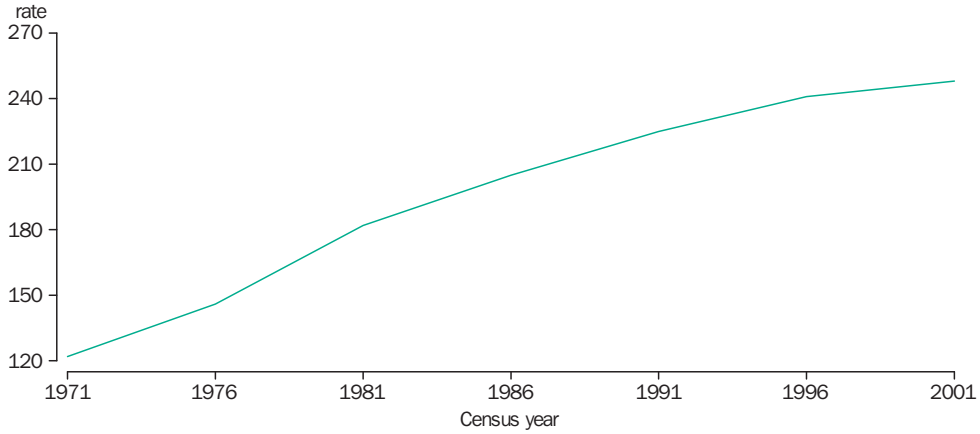
Doctors

In the Census of Population and Housing, medical practitioners (doctors) are identified from information each employed person supplies about the job they had in the week prior to census night, including their occupation and the main tasks performed.

Generalist medical practitioners (General practitioners) diagnose, treat and prevent human physical and mental disorders and injuries; hold a bachelor degree or higher qualification and one year of hospital-based training; and are registered or licensed by state or territory authorities. Counts of general practitioners in this article include interns and other medical practitioners in training, who have completed a medical qualification and work under the supervision of a specialist or a senior general practitioner.

Specialist medical practitioners (Specialists) diagnose and treat physical and mental diseases or disorders using specialist testing, diagnostic, medical and surgical techniques. Medical Registrars who are training as Specialist Medical Practitioners are included in this group.

Doctors per 100,000 population(a)



(a) Estimated resident population at 30 June each year.

Sources: ABS 1971–2001 Censuses of Population and Housing; ABS Estimated resident populations at 30 June 1971–2001.

rights, and changes to the value of medical qualifications for those seeking to immigrate as skilled migrants, while specialist trainee numbers were gradually increased. These measures were designed to slow the flow of doctors into general practice, in favour of specialist training and hospital positions.

The long-term increase in the number of doctors has been partly offset by the increased proportion of doctors who work part-time. In 2001, 20% of doctors worked part-time, compared with 8% in 1971. This partly reflects the increased number of women who have taken up medicine as a career. Similar proportions of women doctors worked part-time in 1971 and 2001 (34% and 36% respectively) but this had a greater impact in 2001 when women made up a larger proportion of all doctors (33% compared with 13% in 1971). In addition, it has become more common for male doctors to work part-time: 12% worked part-time in 2001, compared with 4% in 1971.

Doctors in 2001

In August 2001, there were 48,200 employed medical practitioners in Australia. About two-thirds were Generalist medical practitioners (including 2,760 medical graduates who were working as general practitioners in supervised positions). Of the 15,900 Specialists, Surgeons (3,270) and Anaesthetists (2,140) were the largest groups separately identified in the census.

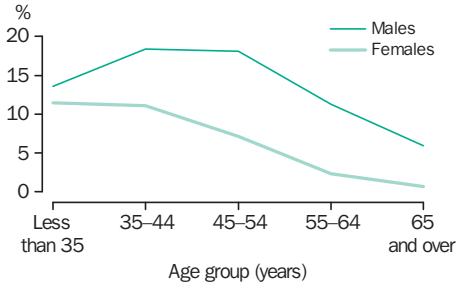
Doctors: occupations — 2001

Occupational groups	*Doctors* no.	*Proportion who were female* %	*Doctors per 100,000 people* rate
Generalist medical practitioner	*32 000*	*35.9*	*164.8*
Medical practitioner in training	2 758	46.2	14.2
Specialist medical practitioner	*15 875*	*26.3*	*81.8*
Anaesthetist	2 140	24.3	11.0
Dermatologist	240	37.9	1.2
Emergency medicine specialist	327	32.7	1.7
Obstetrician & gynaecologist	796	28.1	4.1
Opthamologist	438	21.0	2.3
Paediatrician	795	40.3	4.1
Pathologist	1 147	48.1	5.9
Specialist physician	1 934	22.6	10.0
Psychiatrist	2 010	36.1	10.4
Radiologist	1 376	24.3	7.1
Surgeon	3 269	8.1	16.8
Other	497	38.2	2.6
Total(a)	**48 211**	**32.7**	**248.3**

(a) Includes 336 Medical practitioners who were not classifiable as general practitioners or specialists.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

Distribution of doctors by age and sex — 2001



Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

...personal characteristics

The median age of doctors was 43 years (i.e. one-half of all doctors were older than this age). One-quarter of all doctors were aged less than 35 years and three-quarters were aged less than 53 years. However, the age pattern varied between men and women. Female doctors were generally younger than male doctors, with a median age of 39 years compared with 45 years for males. Women constituted 46% of all doctors aged less than 35 years, decreasing to 10% of those aged 65 years and over. This age pattern largely reflects the fact that an increasing number of female graduates have entered the profession over the last two decades: reaching 48% of those graduating from bachelor level courses in medicine in 1999.[3]

Women made up a smaller proportion of Specialists (26%) than of General practitioners (36%). The most common female specialists were Psychiatrists (730), Pathologists (550) and Anaesthetists (520). The most common male specialists were Surgeons (3,000), Anaesthetists (1,600) and Specialist physicians (1,500). The proportion of specialists who were female ranged from 8% for Surgeons to 48% for Pathologists.

In 2001, 43% of doctors in Australia had been born overseas, compared with 22% of the total population. Doctors born overseas have increased as a proportion of all doctors since 1971, when they accounted for 31%. Overseas-born doctors include those who study medicine after migrating to Australia and those who train in medicine overseas and subsequently migrate. In 1998 about one-fifth of employed medical practitioners in Australia had gained their initial medical qualification overseas and of these, 96% were Australian citizens or permanent residents.[2]

In addition to doctors who immigrate, doctors with temporary resident visas come to Australia for periods of one or two years under a program designed to allow State health authorities to augment their doctor workforces, and especially to staff positions

which are difficult to fill. In general, temporary resident doctors fill hospital positions, or work in general practice in rural areas. The number of temporary resident doctors entering Australia each year increased markedly over the 1990s, from 670 in 1992–93 to 2,370 in 1999–2000, and as at 30 June 2002 there were an estimated 2,900 such doctors working in Australia.[3,4]

...working arrangements

General practitioners, as defined in the census, do not necessarily all work in General practice medical services, although 63% did in 2001, while 24% worked in Hospitals (excluding psychiatric hospitals). Specialists most commonly worked in Specialist medical services (34%) and in Hospitals (excluding psychiatric hospitals) (30%), but also in General practice medical services (14%) with the remainder in other health related services.

Doctors tend to work longer hours than people employed in many other occupations. In 2001, they worked a median of 48 hours per week, compared with a median of 40 hours per week for all employed people. Doctors had higher median hours than most other Professional occupations (see *Australian Social Trends 2003*, Longer working hours, pp. 119–123). Medical practitioners working in Hospitals (excluding psychiatric hospitals) had a median of 50 hours per week, as did those working in Specialist medical services. Those working in General practice medical services had somewhat lower median hours of 45 hours per week, partly reflecting the number of women in General Practice (the median was 50 hours per week for men in General Practice compared with 35 hours per week for women).

Many full-time doctors worked more than 50 hours a week (59%). This included 13% of full-time doctors who worked 70 hours a week or more in August 2001. Males who were full-time tended to work longer hours than females who were full-time. For example, 65% of male full-time doctors worked 50 hours or more per week, compared with 44% of female full-time doctors.

Three-quarters of specialists and just over one-half of general practitioners earned $1,500 per week or more (the highest income bracket recorded in the 2001 Census). In total, 59% of doctors were in this bracket, compared with 13% of all Professionals and 23% of Managers and Administrators.

Geographic distribution

Although not all doctors work in the same area in which they live, the number of general practitioners and specialists living in Remoteness Areas are an indication of the number of doctors available per person in those areas. In 2001, 80% of doctors lived in Major Cities, compared with 67% of the Australian population. This distribution meant that there were more doctors per person living in Major Cities than was the case elsewhere in Australia. For example, in Major Cities there were

Selected characteristics(a) of doctors — 2001

	Males	*Females*	*Persons*
Industry	%	%	%
General practice medical services	47.1	46.2	46.8
Specialist medical services	15.0	7.1	12.4
Hospitals (excluding psychiatric hospitals)	24.0	30.4	26.1
Pathology services	0.9	1.9	1.2
Community health centres	0.8	1.2	1.0
Other	12.3	13.1	12.6
Hours worked(b)			
Part-time (less than 35 hours per week)	11.8	35.8	19.6
Full-time doctors working long hours			
Worked 50 hours or more per week	64.9	44.0	59.5
Worked 70 hours or more per week	14.3	7.6	12.5
Weekly gross personal income from all sources			
$1–799	6.4	18.4	10.3
$800–999	6.1	13.3	8.5
$1,000–1,499	18.1	29.7	21.9
$1,500 or more	69.3	38.6	59.3
Total(a)	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**

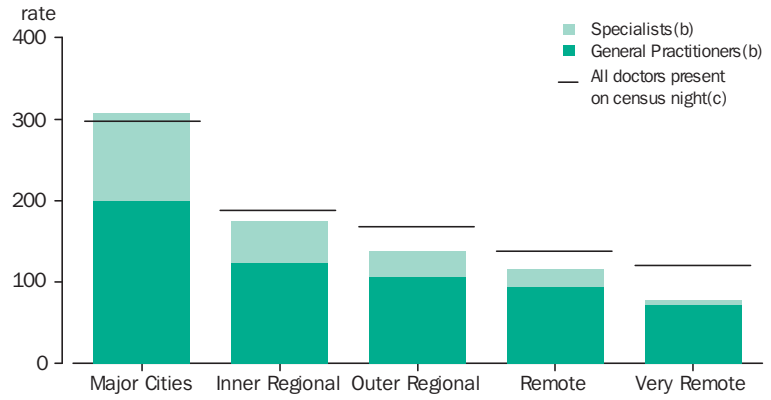
(a) Doctors whose answers to census questions on industry, hours worked or weekly income were not stated or inadequately described were excluded prior to the calculation of the relevant percentages.
(b) Based on hours worked in the two weeks to census night 2001. Doctors who were employed but did no work in those two weeks (for example, those on leave) were excluded prior to the calculation of percentages.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

Remoteness Areas

This article uses the ABS Remoteness Classification to examine the characteristics of doctors 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. Except where otherwise specified, in this article doctors have been classified to Remoteness Areas based on the location of their *usual residence* (the address at which they were living or expected to live for a total of six months or more in 2001). 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 — Australian Standard Geographical Classification (ASGC), 2001* (ABS cat. no. 1216.0).

Doctors per 100,000 population(a) by Remoteness Area — 2001



(a) Usual resident population at Census 2001.
(b) Doctors were classified to a Remoteness Area on the basis of the location of their usual residence.
(c) Doctors were classified to a Remoteness Area on the basis of their actual location on census night. Excludes those doctors who were not at their usual residence on census night and had also not performed any work in the previous two weeks or did not state any hours worked.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

308 doctors per 100,000 population, 76% higher than the 175 doctors per 100,000 population in Inner Regional areas. Rates for other areas were lower and decreased with increasing remoteness, to 77 per 100,000 population in Very Remote areas. Access to health services in remote areas is affected by the sparse distribution of doctors and their patients, which increases patients' travelling times and makes transport essential in order to access medical services. In addition, the range of specialist treatment facilities in remote areas is more limited.

The rates above are based on the usual residence of doctors. However, to help meet the health needs of people who live in more remote areas, locums and specialists travel to more remote areas both as need arises and as part of a regular rotation between centres. This work-related travelling of doctors, together with travel for personal reasons (such as holidays), means that the numbers of doctors actually located in Remoteness Areas on census night differs from the number who live there. For example, 196 doctors were in Very Remote areas on census night (excluding some who did not work in the previous two weeks and therefore appear most likely to be travelling for personal reasons), 54% more than the number who usually lived there. Taking these non-residents into account produces rates which range from 299 doctors per 100,000 usual resident population in Major Cities to 119 per 100,000 population in Very Remote areas, and reduces the difference between rates across Remoteness Areas compared with taking only usual resident doctors into account.

Usual resident doctors and those located in Remoteness Areas on census night(a) — 2001

	Usual resident of area	*Located in area on census night*
Remoteness Area	no.	no.
Major Cities	38 412	37 256
Inner Regional	6 691	6 931
Outer Regional	2 632	3 055
Remote	349	422
Very remote	127	196

(a) Excludes doctors who were not at their usual residence on census night and had also not performed any work in the previous two weeks or did not state any hours worked.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

Characteristics of doctors living in different Remoteness Areas

The geographic distribution of general practitioners, who mostly provide primary care, is different from that of specialists. Specialists tend to be located in hospitals in Major Cities, and to a lesser extent Inner and Outer Regional areas, where the population supports other complementary expert medical services, appropriate medical technology and provides a sufficient flow of patients with the relevant health needs. Specialists made up 35% of doctors living in Major Cities, but this proportion decreased steadily with increasing remoteness, to be 6% of doctors in Very Remote areas.

Outside of Major Cities, doctors tended to work longer hours, and to have higher incomes as remoteness increased. Hours worked per week increased with remoteness from a median of 46 hours in Major Cities to 55 hours in Very Remote areas. This partly reflects the fewer doctors working part-time outside Major Cities: the proportion of doctors who worked part-time decreased with remoteness from 20% in Major Cities to 10% in Very Remote areas. In addition, the proportion of full-time doctors who worked 50 hours or more a week increased with remoteness from 58% in Major Cities to 75% in Very Remote areas. Consistent with these longer hours, and with other factors, including the higher proportion of doctors in Major Cities who are salaried hospital staff rather than private practitioners, doctors' incomes tended to be higher in areas outside of Major Cities. In Major Cities, 58% of doctors earned $1,500 or more per week, compared with 81% of doctors in Very Remote areas.

There were also demographic differences between doctors in different geographic areas. People aged less than 35 years made up 17% of doctors in Inner and Outer Regional areas compared with 27% in Major Cities and 25% in Remote and Very Remote areas. In contrast, in Inner and Outer Regional areas relatively more doctors were aged 45–54 years (30%) than was the case in Major Cities (24%) or in Remote and Very Remote areas (23%). In 2001, women made up 27% of doctors in Inner Regional areas, 34% in Major Cities, and from 31% to 33% elsewhere.

Overseas-born doctors made up a lower proportion of doctors in Inner Regional areas (35%) than in Major Cities (44%) and Outer Regional areas (44%). However, the proportion of doctors who were born overseas was highest in Remote areas (56%) and Very Remote areas (51%).

Educated in medicine but not working as doctors

There were 17,600 people counted in the 2001 Census who stated that they had a bachelor degree or higher qualification in medical studies as their highest qualification but who were not working as doctors. Just over half were not in the labour force (52%), while 44% were working in another occupation and the remainder were unemployed. More than half of the 9,050 who were not in the labour force were aged 65 years or over (55%). Of the remaining 4,070 people, who were not in the labour force and less than 65 years, 61% were women and 39% men.

Of the 7,790 medical graduates who were working, but not as doctors, some were Health Professionals other than doctors (1,380 people), Medical scientists (570 people), or Health service managers (220 people), but most were in occupations apparently unrelated to medicine (5,450).

Selected characteristics of doctors(a) by Remoteness Areas — 2001

	Major Cities	*Inner Regional*	*Outer Regional*	*Remote*	*Very Remote*
	%	%	%	%	%
Female	33.9	27.2	30.4	31.2	33.1
Occupational group					
Generalist medical practitioner	64.6	71.0	76.4	83.4	93.7
Medical practitioner in training	6.0	4.4	3.9	6.9	6.3
Specialist medical practitioner	34.7	28.5	23.1	15.5	5.5
Industry					
General practice medical services	43.7	58.3	59.4	54.9	53.5
Specialist medical services	12.7	12.5	8.9	3.7	—
Hospital (excluding psychiatric)	28.7	15.6	17.0	21.8	18.1
Pathology services	1.2	1.3	1.1	0.6	—
Community health centres	1.0	0.7	0.8	1.7	6.3
Other	12.7	11.5	12.8	17.2	22.0
Hours worked					
Part-time (less than 35 hours per week)	20.0	19.2	16.9	10.6	10.2
Full-time doctors who worked long hours					
50 hours or more per week	58.4	63.2	62.5	63.4	74.5
70 hours or more per week	11.4	15.9	18.3	19.9	23.6
Weekly gross personal income from all sources $1,500 or more	58.1	63.3	64.2	66.4	80.5
	no.	no.	no.	no.	no.
Total	**38 412**	**6 691**	**2 632**	**349**	**127**

(a) Doctors were classified to a Remoteness Area on the basis of the location of their usual residence.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

In all Remoteness Areas, General and Specialist medical services and Hospitals (excluding psychiatric hospitals) together accounted for the employment of most doctors. Nevertheless there were some differences between areas in the industries in which doctors worked. These reflected the locations of hospitals, community health centres and other organisations. In Major Cities a greater proportion of all doctors worked in Hospitals (29%) than was the case elsewhere. In regional areas, higher proportions of doctors were in General practice or Specialist medical services (71% in Inner Regional areas and 68% in Outer Regional areas) than was the case elsewhere. In Very Remote areas 6% of doctors were employed in Community health centres compared with 1 to 2% of doctors elsewhere.

Endnotes

1 Australian Medical Workforce Advisory Committee and Australian Institute of Health and Welfare 1998, *Medical Workforce Supply and Demand in Australia: A Discussion Paper*, AMWAC Report 1998.8, AIHW Cat. No. HWL 12, AMWAC, Sydney.

2 Australian Medical Workforce Advisory Committee 2000, *The Australian Medical Workforce: Workforce Characteristics and Policy Update,* paper presented at the 5th International Medical Workforce Conference, Sydney <http://www.AMWAC.health.NSW.gov.au/corporate-services/amwac/003austmedwrkfrce.pdf>, accessed 7 April 2003.

3 Australian Institute of Health and Welfare 2003, *Medical labour force 1999*, AIHW Cat. No. HWL 24, AIHW, Canberra.

4 Australian Medical Workforce Advisory Committee 2002, *Annual Report 2001–02* <http://www.AMWAC.health.NSW.gov.au/amwac/annual20022pdf>, accessed 8 April 2003.

Health risk factors among adults

RISK FACTORS

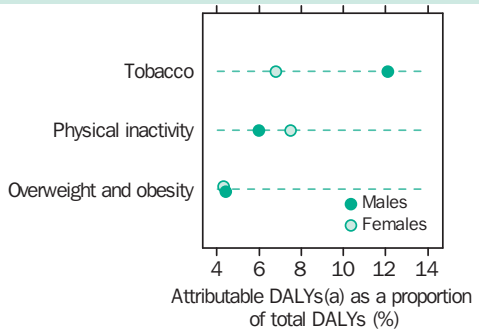
Between 1989–90 and 2001, the proportion of physically inactive Australian adults declined and smoking rates decreased. However, the proportion of adults who were overweight or obese increased.

There are a range of risk factors associated with higher rates of illness or injury in the population. Such factors may be physiological (e.g. high blood pressure), they may relate to the environment (e.g. air pollution) or to lifestyle choices (e.g. smoking). Risk factors have been found to contribute substantially to disease and disability, and thus to reduced length of life and quality of life in Australia.[1] However, many risk factors are modifiable. Their impact may often be reduced through action taken by individuals (e.g. quitting smoking or undertaking exercise). In turn, these actions may be influenced by government or community action (e.g. anti-smoking education).

This article focuses on three risk factors: smoking; physical inactivity; and overweight and obesity. While each of these is discussed individually, they interact with other risk factors, and are rarely the sole contributor to a disease.[2] In 1996, the risk factor responsible for the greatest disease burden was tobacco smoking.[1] That is, this factor had the greatest impact on reducing the quality and length of life of Australians. It was responsible for 12% of all healthy years lost due to early death or disability among males and 7% among females. Physical inactivity was responsible for 6% of the total disease burden for males and 8% for females, while overweight and obesity accounted for 4% for both males and females.[1]

Between 1989–90 and 2001, the proportion of Australian adults (aged 18 years and over) who smoked declined. At the same time, adults increased the amount of deliberate exercise they undertook. However, despite this rise in deliberate physical activity, the adult population, on average, became more overweight or obese.

Burden of disease for selected risk factors — 1996



(a) Disability adjusted life years. One DALY is a healthy year of life lost calculated by combining years lost due to early death and healthy years lost from disability.

Source: AIHW *The Burden of Disease and Injury*, 1999 (Cat. No. PHE 17. Canberra: AIHW).

Risk factors

Data in this article come from the ABS 1989–90, 1995 and 2001 National Health Surveys. Data collected in regard to smoking, physical activity and overweight/obesity are comparable across the three time periods. In this article, the data refer to adults aged 18 years and over.

To account for the different age structure of the population at each survey as well as between certain sub–populations (such as smokers/non–smokers) all rates and proportions presented in this article have been age standardised. The standard population used was the 2001 National Health Survey benchmark population.

Current smokers refers to those adults who answered 'yes' when asked whether they currently smoked. It is not based on regularity of smoking.

Ex-smokers refers to those adults who were not current smokers but reported they had previously smoked regularly.

Never smoked refers to those adults who have never smoked regularly.

Levels of exercise were assessed as inactive, low, moderate or high based on the frequency, duration and intensity of deliberate exercise.

Deliberate exercise refers to exercise undertaken for recreation, sport or fitness during the two weeks prior to interview. Types of exercise covered in the survey were walking, moderate and vigorous exercise.

Physically inactive adults refers to adults who did no exercise or who exercised at a very low level in the two weeks prior to interview.

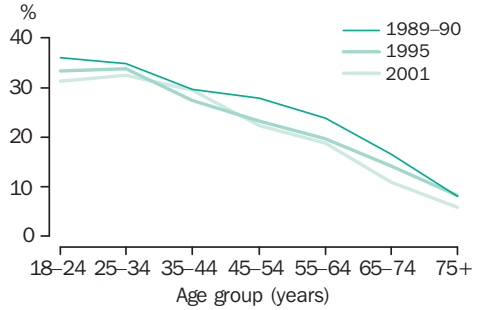
Overweight and obesity were measured using the body mass index (BMI). The BMI is calculated as weight (kg) divided by height (m) squared. A BMI of 25 or more indicates overweight, and 30 or more indicates obesity.[3] BMI data presented in this article are based on self-reported height and weight estimates. Therefore, the figures presented are considered to be underestimates since studies have shown that respondents tend to overestimate height and underestimate weight.[4]

For more detail refer to *National Health Survey: Summary of Results, 2001* (ABS cat. no. 4364.0).

Smoking

Worldwide, smoking is estimated to cause almost 5 million premature deaths each year.[5] In Australia, it is estimated that around 19,000 people died as a result of smoking in 1998.[6] Among other conditions, smoking is

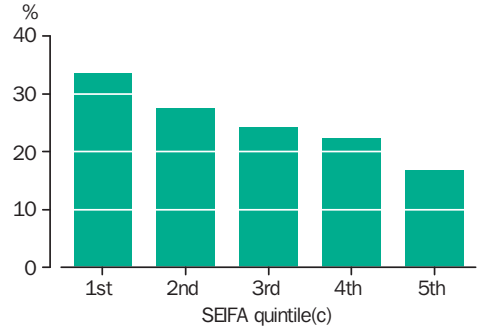
Proportion of adults who were current smokers



Source: ABS 1989–90, 1995 and 2001 National Health Surveys.

associated with increased risk of coronary heart disease, stroke, lung cancer, other types of cancer and various respiratory and cardiovascular diseases.[2] In 2001, people aged 18 years and over who currently smoked were 2.0 times more likely to have bronchitis and were 1.7 times more likely to have emphysema compared with non-smokers. In relation to other conditions such as coronary heart disease, there was little difference between current smokers and people who had never smoked. However, current smokers combined with ex-smokers were 1.4 times more likely to have coronary heart disease and were 1.7 times more likely to have a malignant cancer than those who had never smoked. These higher disease rates — apparent once ex-smokers are included — suggest that certain health conditions may be associated not only with current smoking but with a history of smoking.

Proportion of adults who were current smokers(a) in areas of relative socioeconomic disadvantage(b) — 2001



(a) Age standardised to the 2001 National Health Survey benchmark population.
(b) Based on the Socio-Economic Indexes for Areas (SEIFA).
(c) Where the first quintile represents the 20% of the total population living in areas with the highest levels of disadvantage and the fifth quintile represents the 20% of the total population living in areas with the lowest levels of disadvantage.

Source: ABS 2001 National Health Survey.

In 2001, 24% of the adult population were current smokers. This followed an overall decrease in smoking among the adult population (in 1989–90, 28% of the population were smokers). Of this decrease, 41% was due to a decline in smoking among 45–64 year olds. However, the greatest reduction in smoking over the period was among 65–74 year olds (down from 17% to 11% between 1989–90 and 2001). In 2001, smoking was highest among 25–34 year olds (32%), and people were less likely to smoke as they reached older age groups. This is partly because smoking is associated with higher premature death rates, and smokers are less likely to live to the older age groups.

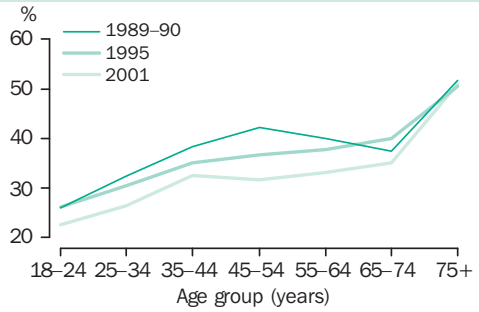
In 2001, 27% of men smoked compared with 21% of women. Smoking was consistently higher among men over the period 1989–90 to 2001, despite a slightly greater decline in smoking among men (down 4 percentage points) than among women (down 3 percentage points) over this period. Of all women, those aged 18–24 years experienced the greatest reduction in smoking (from 36% to 27% in 2001), while women aged 35–44 years experienced an increase (up from 25% to 27%).

Adults from the most disadvantaged socioeconomic areas (those in the lowest Socio-Economic Index For Areas (SEIFA) quintile) were more likely to smoke (34% in 2001 compared with 17% of adults from the least disadvantaged socioeconomic areas, i.e. those in the highest SEIFA quintile). Consistent with this, adults without a tertiary education were more than twice as likely to smoke (28% in 2001) compared with those with a tertiary qualification (13%). Smoking was also more prevalent among the unemployed. In 2001, 40% of unemployed adults aged 18–64 years smoked compared with 26% of people aged 18–64 years who were employed.

Socio-Economic Indexes For Areas

The Socio-Economic Index for Areas (SEIFA) Index of Relative Socio-Economic Disadvantage uses a selection of weighted variables, such as income, educational attainment and employment, to determine the level of disadvantage of a geographic area. Households falling in the lower quintiles have lower index scores. This occurs when the area has a relatively high level of disadvantage, with a high proportion of people on low incomes, who have a low educational attainment, who are in unskilled occupations or who are unemployed. Households in the higher quintiles have higher scores, representing areas with relatively low levels of disadvantage, where there are smaller proportions of people with these characteristics. (See *Information Paper: Census of Population and Housing – Socio-Economic Indexes for Areas, Australia, 1996,* ABS cat. no. 2039.0).

Proportion of adults who were physically inactive



Source: ABS 1989–90, 1995 and 2001 National Health Surveys.

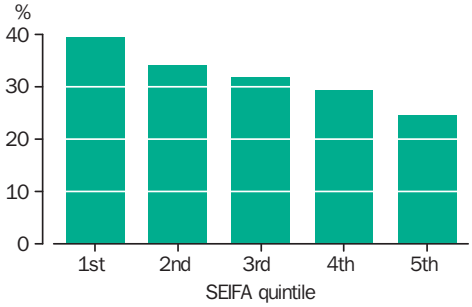
Physical inactivity

The health benefits of engaging in physical activity are numerous, such as offering protection against some cancers, a reduction in the risk of diabetes and cardiovascular disease and improvements in mental health.[7] Physical activity may also reduce the risk of injury among older people,[7] reduce body fat and improve musculoskeletal health.[5] Conversely, physical inactivity increases the risk of developing some cancers such as bowel and breast cancer, coronary heart disease, Type II diabetes and depression, among other conditions.[1] In 2001, physically inactive adults were 1.3 times more likely to have coronary heart disease, and 1.2 times more likely to be obese, than those who exercised. This difference was more evident when comparing inactive adults with those who exercised at moderate or high (rather than low) levels. In this case, physically inactive adults were 1.6 times more likely to be obese and 1.7 times more likely to have a high or very high level of psychological distress.

In 2001, 32% of the adult population were physically inactive (that is, they did not undertake deliberate exercise, or did so at a very low level, during the survey reference period). When asked to rate their health, 74% of physically inactive adults considered their health to be better than fair, compared with 81% of the total adult population.

Overall, between 1989–90 and 2001, there was a decrease in physical inactivity among Australian adults. In 1989–90, 38% of Australian adults were physically inactive compared with 32% of adults in 2001. However, this was driven by an increase in the number of adults undertaking light exercise (such as walking), while the proportion of adults exercising at a moderate or high level remained around 30% over the same period. The National Physical Activity Guidelines for Australians suggests undertaking 30 minutes of moderate physical activity on most days of the week.[8]

Proportion of adults who were physically inactive(a) in areas of relative socioeconomic disadvantage(b) — 2001



(a) Age standardised to the 2001 National Health Survey benchmark population.
(b) Based on the Socio-Economic Indexes for Areas (SEIFA).
(c) Where the first quintile represents the 20% of the total population living in areas with the highest levels of disadvantage and the fifth quintile represents the 20% of the total population living in areas with the lowest levels of disadvantage.

Source: ABS 2001 National Health Survey.

Over the 12 years to 2001, similar proportions of men and women were physically inactive (31% and 32% in 2001 respectively). However, men were more likely to exercise at a moderate level in 2001 (26%) than women (23%), and to exercise at a high level (9% in 2001 compared with 4% of women).

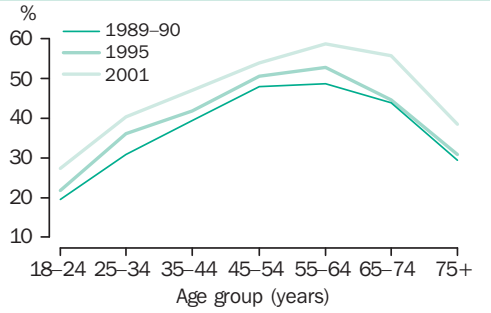
In 2001, physical inactivity was highest among 65–74 year olds and those aged 75 years and over (35% and 51% respectively). Of adults aged 45–54 years, 32% were physically inactive. This group experienced the largest improvement in level of physical activity over the period 1989–2001 (42% were physically inactive in 1989–90). Older age groups (i.e. those aged 65 years and over) demonstrated the least improvement in physical activity over the period.

Physical inactivity was more common among adults from the more disadvantaged socioeconomic areas (lower SEIFA quintiles). Among adults from the most disadvantaged socioeconomic areas (lowest SEIFA quintile), 40% were physically inactive compared with 25% of adults from the least disadvantaged socioeconomic areas (highest SEIFA quintile).

Overweight and obesity

The proportion of people who are either overweight or obese is increasing worldwide,[3] and despite decreases in the proportion of people who are physically inactive, Australians are also carrying more excess weight. The World Health Organisation recognises that globally there was a decrease in the physical

Proportion of adults who were overweight or obese

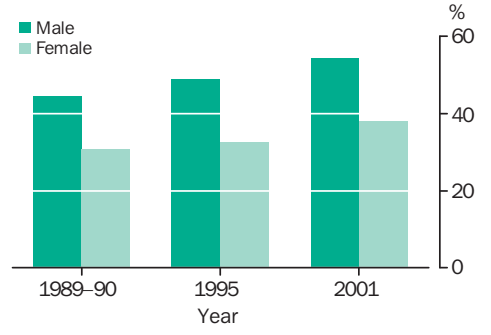


Source: ABS 1989–90, 1995 and 2001 National Health Surveys.

energy people expend in everyday living over the second half of the 20th century.[3] For example, there is more reliance on motorised transport, and use of labour-saving devices. Changes in the workplace, such as increased use of computers, mean that fewer people now work in physically demanding jobs. Furthermore, there is increased demand for convenience foods which are higher in fat (especially saturated fat).[3] People are also more likely now than in the past to participate in leisure activities which involve little, if any, physical activity, such as watching television. In 1997, on average, Australians spent more than half of their free time on such passive leisure activities. Watching television accounted for 36% of all free time.[9] Between 1992 and 1997, time spent on outdoor or sporting activities decreased, particularly during the weekends (down, on average, 11 minutes for males and 8 minutes for females aged 15 years and over).[9] All of these factors are likely to contribute to the increase in the prevalence of overweight and obese people.

Being overweight or obese is associated with a range of illnesses including coronary heart disease, Type II diabetes, certain types of cancer, gallbladder disease, osteoarthritis and high blood pressure.[3] Compared with adults within the acceptable weight range (according to the Body Mass Index — BMI), persons aged 18 years and over who were overweight or obese were 1.9 times more likely to have Type II diabetes and were 1.6 times more likely to have high blood pressure in 2001. The likelihood increased among those adults who were obese. This group was 2.9 times more likely have Type II diabetes, 2.2 times more likely to have high blood pressure, and 1.5 times more likely to have a form of arthritis. However, while adults who were obese were 2.8 times more likely to have any form of diabetes (compared with adults in the acceptable BMI category), the likelihood was less in 2001 than it had been in both 1989–90 and 1995 (approximately 3.2).

Proportion of adults who were overweight or obese(a)



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

Source: ABS 1989–90, 1995 and 2001 National Health Surveys.

In 2001, more than 6.5 million Australian adults were overweight or obese (31% and 15% of the adult population respectively). In addition, the rate at which the population is becoming more overweight or obese has increased. While the proportion of overweight or obesity increased by 3 percentage points in the period 1989–90 to 1995, it increased by 6 percentage points from 1995 to 2001. Consistent with this, the average weight of Australians increased. In 1989–90, the average weight for an Australian adult was 70.1 kilograms. In 2001, this had increased to 74.3 kilograms, equivalent to each Australian gaining more than 350g per year on average over that time. The proportion of adults who were overweight or obese tended to increase with age, peaking among those aged 55–64 years (59% in 2001). This was the case among both males and females (64% and 53% respectively). Men were more likely to be overweight or obese (54% in 2001) than women (38%). However, women were slightly more likely to be obese than men.

Growth in the proportion of adults who were overweight or obese was stronger among the older age groups. The rate of increase was greatest among those aged 65–74 years (up from 44% in 1989–90 to 56% in 2001). Between 1995 and 2001, the prevalence of overweight and obesity increased from 45% to 56% among this group. The rate of increase was also higher among men, with a 10 percentage point increase since 1989–90, compared with a 7 percentage point increase for women.

The prevalence of overweight or obesity is higher among certain groups in the population than others. For example, in 2001, 39% of men from the least disadvantaged socioeconomic areas (highest

Adults: Risk factor combinations: association with selected diseases(a) — 2001

Risk factor			Prevalence		Relative prevalence of selected conditions(a)					
Current smoker?	Physically inactive?	Overweight or obese?	'000	%	Coronary heart disease	Type II diabetes	Arthritis	Malignant cancer	High blood pressure	High cholesterol
No	No	No	3 542.7	25.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
No	Yes	No	1 304.1	9.2	1.5	0.6	1.2	0.6	1.1	1.0
No	No	Yes	3 551.6	25.0	1.2	1.5	1.3	1.0	1.6	1.4
Yes	No	No	1 081.8	7.6	*0.7	*0.7	1.0	*0.8	0.8	0.8
No	Yes	Yes	1 555.2	11.0	1.6	1.9	1.5	1.1	1.9	1.6
Yes	Yes	No	605.9	4.3	*1.8	*0.7	1.4	*0.8	0.9	1.1
Yes	No	Yes	886.2	6.2	*1.1	2.3	1.4	*1.3	1.4	1.6
Yes	Yes	Yes	558.6	3.9	*2.0	2.0	1.5	*0.7	1.0	1.2
Total persons aged 18 years and over(b)			**14 184.7**	**100.0**	**1.3**	**1.4**	**1.3**	**0.9**	**1.4**	**1.2**

(a) Measures the likelihood of having a particular condition given the presence of certain risk factor(s), compared with the likelihood of having the condition among the population who did not have any of the three risk factors.
(b) Includes persons whose Body Mass Index was not stated or not known.

Source: ABS 2001 National Health Survey.

SEIFA quintile) were overweight compared with 35% of men from the most disadvantaged socioeconomic areas (lowest SEIFA quintile). Conversely, there was a higher prevalence of obesity among women from the most disadvantaged socioeconomic areas (19%) than among women from the least disadvantaged socioeconomic areas (11%). Adults living outside of Capital Cities were also more likely to be overweight or obese (49%) than those in the Capital Cities (45%). There were similar patterns of differences in 1995.

Combined risk factors

In 2001, 4% of the Australian adult population (more than half a million people) had all three of the risk factors discussed in this article. That is, this group were physically inactive, smoked and were either overweight or obese. Compared with the quarter of the adult Australian population who did not have any of these three risk factors, this group were 2.0 times more likely to have Type II diabetes and 1.5 times more likely to have a form of arthritis.

The likelihood of having certain conditions (e.g. high cholesterol) was not much higher for the group with all three risk factors, than it was for those without any of the risk factors. However, the likelihood increased when ex-smokers were included in the analysis. That is, those adults who were current or ex-smokers, physically inactive and overweight or obese were 2.4 times more likely to have coronary heart disease, 1.5 times more likely to have high blood pressure, and 1.7 times more likely to have a malignant cancer than adults who had never smoked, were active and were neither overweight nor obese.

Among those adults without any of the three risk factors discussed individually in this article, 65% rated their own health as very good or excellent. This compared with 32% of adults who were current smokers, overweight or obese and physically inactive, who rated their health as very good or excellent.

Endnotes

1 Mathers, C., Vos, T. and Stevenson, C. 1999, *The burden of disease and injury in Australia*, AIHW, Canberra.

2 Australian Institute of Health and Welfare 2001, *Chronic diseases and associated risk factors in Australia*, AIHW, Canberra.

3 World Health Organisation 2000, *Obesity: preventing and managing the global epidemic*, WHO Technical Series: No. 894, WHO, Geneva.

4 Australian Bureau of Statistics 1995, *National Nutrition Survey: Selected Highlights, Australia*, cat. no. 4802.0, ABS, Canberra.

5 World Health Organisation 2002, *The World health report 2002*, WHO, Geneva.

6 Riddolfo, B. and Stevenson, C. 2001, *The quantification of drug-caused mortality and morbidity in Australia*, 1998, AIHW, Canberra.

7 Armstrong, T., Bauman, A. and Davies, J. 2000, Physical activity patterns of Australian adults. Results of the 1999 National Physical Activity Survey, Australian Institute of Health and Welfare, Canberra.

8 Commonwealth Department of Health and Aged Care 1999, *National physical activity guidelines for Australians* <http://www.health.gov.au/pubhlth/publicat/strateg/active/who.htm>, accessed 25 March 2003.

9 Australian Bureau of Statistics 1998, *How Australians Use Their Time*, cat. no. 4153.0, ABS, Canberra.

Injuries

During the 1990s, the number of people dying as a result of injury from traffic accidents decreased, and suicide became the leading cause of death from injury in Australia.

Australian Health Ministers have identified injury prevention as one of seven National Health Priority Areas, a policy initiative that seeks to focus on diseases and conditions of particular importance for the health of Australians. The focus on injury has arisen because although a greater proportion of Australians now live into old age than at any time in the past, each year significant numbers are hurt or die as a result of injury. Most injuries are not fatal. In 2001, 7,876 Australians died from injury, while 2.25 million people reported being injured over a four-week period in the same year. Injuries not resulting in death range in severity from minor cuts and bruises to permanent impairment and disability. However, an important aspect of both fatal and non-fatal injuries is that many of them are preventable.

Some groups within society, such as the young, the elderly and those employed in certain occupations, tend to be more at risk from injury. For example, injury remains the main cause of death among young people, and, while older Australians are injured at a lower rate than other age groups, they are more likely to die of injury than any other age group. Understanding who is most at risk and the circumstances that surround injuries can assist in injury prevention and management.

Injury-related deaths and recent injuries

In 2001, the leading cause of death from injury in Australia was suicide, accounting for 31% of all injury-related deaths. Following suicide, transport accidents were the next most common cause of injury-related death,

Injury-related deaths and recent injuries

This article draws on data from two sources. Data on injury-related deaths come from the ABS Deaths Collection, which compiles information from death certificates. Data on injuries come from the ABS National Health Survey conducted in 2001.

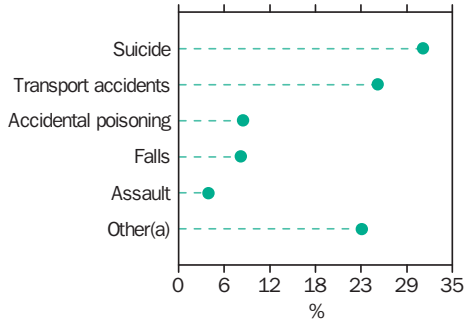
An *injury* is a trauma, poisoning, or other condition of rapid onset to which factors and circumstances external to the person contributed significantly. External causes of injury may be physical, chemical or psychological.[1] Injuries may be unintentional, for example, as a result of motor vehicle accidents, sporting injuries and accidental poisonings. Some injuries may be intentional, for example, those resulting from assault.

Injury-related deaths are deaths where the underlying cause was determined to belong to the International Classification of Diseases (ICD-10) Category 'External Causes of Morbidity and Mortality (V01-Y98)'.

Recent injuries are defined as those injuries sustained as the result of an event/accident in the four weeks prior to interview. All injuries which required some treatment or action were covered by the survey, ranging from minor first aid to attendance at a hospital casualty department. Although people could report a large number of such events in the four weeks prior to interview, detailed data were reported for the most recent event only.

Long-term conditions resulting from injury were included in the 2001 National Health Survey. People were asked if any current long-term conditions had been caused by injury. Unlike recent injuries, these injuries may have occurred at any point in a person's life and were reported only if they resulted in a condition lasting, or expected to last, longer than six months.

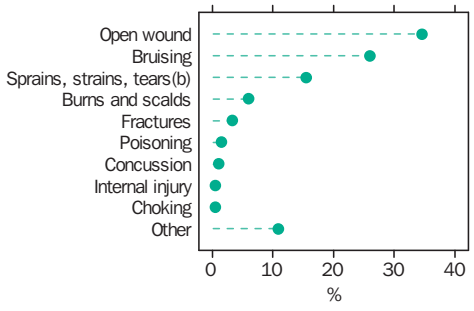
Selected causes of injury-related deaths — 2001



(a) Includes choking, suffocation, drowning, and many other external causes.

Source: ABS Deaths Collection.

Persons who reported a recent injury: selected injuries(a) — 2001



(a) Most recent injury in the past four weeks.
(b) Includes dislocations, torn muscles and ligaments.

Source: ABS 2001 National Health Survey.

Persons who reported a recent injury: selected causes of injury(a) — 2001

	%
Low fall (one metre or less)	31.0
Collision/struck by object	18.6
Bite or sting	8.6
High fall (greater than one metre)	2.6
Vehicle accident	2.1
Exposure to fire	2.0
Assault	2.0
Total(b)	**100.0**

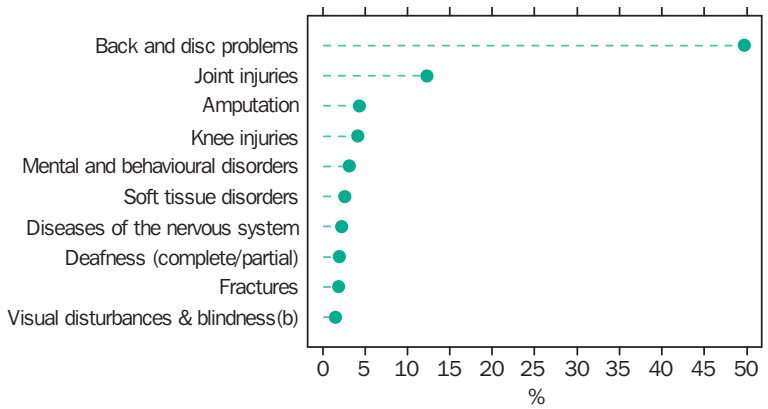
(a) Most recent injury in the past four weeks.
(b) Includes recent injuries not specified above.

Source: ABS 2001 National Health Survey.

causing 25% of such deaths. This has not always been the case. Between 1971 and 1990, motor vehicle traffic accidents caused more injury-related deaths than suicide. However, over the 30 years to 2001, there was a consistent decline in the age-standardised death rate from motor vehicle traffic accidents (from 30 to 9 deaths per 100,000 population in 2001), while the rate of suicide remained relatively stable (at around 13 deaths per 100,000). In 2001, accidental poisoning and falls each caused 8% of injury-related deaths, while assault caused 4% of injury-related deaths.

In 2001, open wounds and bruises were the most common types of recent injuries reported in the National Health Survey (63% of people reporting recent injuries). Other relatively common injuries were sprains, strains or tears (18% of people with recent injuries), and burns and scalds (6%).

Persons with a long-term health condition(a) arising from injury: selected conditions — 2001



(a) Conditions impacting on health for at least six months.
(b) Complete or partial blindness.

Source: ABS 2001 National Health Survey.

In 2001, low falls (one metre or less) were the leading cause of recent injury. This type of fall injured around 31% of people reporting recent injuries. Collisions or being struck by an object were also relatively common (19% of those injured), and were also the most common event causing concussion (37% of concussed people).

Effects of injuries

Many injuries have a relatively minor impact on health. For example, of those people reporting a recent injury in 2001, less than 9% attended hospital. While injuries such as fractures and concussions were less common than some other types of injury, they often required a visit to the hospital. In 2001, 55% of people with a fracture and 37% of concussed people attended hospital, compared with 6% of people with open wounds (the most common type of recent injury).

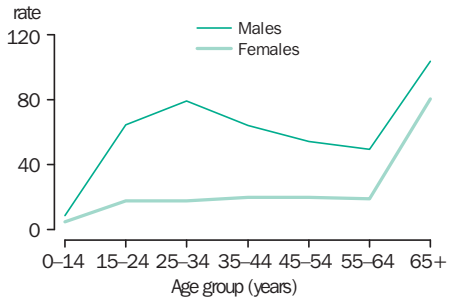
However, injuries may result in longer-term adverse health affects. In 2001, 2.26 million Australians reported a long-term health condition which was due to an injury. The most commonly reported long-term health conditions arising from injury were back or disc problems. These accounted for half (50%) of the people reporting long-term conditions arising from injury. Joint injuries were the next most common type of long-term health condition arising from injury (12%), followed by amputation and knee injuries (each 4%).

Who experiences injury?

Males of all ages are more likely to die from injury than females. In 2001, the age-standardised death rate from injury for males was 57 per 100,000 population, compared with 21 for females. This partly reflects differences in the behaviour of males and females. For example, in the case of suicide, methods of self-harm typically chosen by males (e.g. hanging or firearms) are generally more lethal than those typically chosen by females (e.g. ingestion of poisons).[2] While the overall age-standardised rate of suicide remained relatively stable in the 30 years to 2001, the rate among males of all ages generally increased, from around 17 per 100,000 in the mid-1970s to 20 per 100,000 in 2001 (with peak levels of 23 per 100,000 in 1997 and 1998). In contrast, the suicide rate among females declined over the same period (from 10 to 5 per 100,000 population).

Males of all ages are also more likely than females to experience injury. Again, this difference reflects differences in the activities in which males and females typically engage, for example in the type of work men and women commonly do. In 2001, the industry

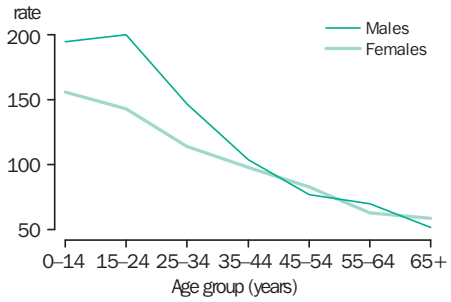
Age-specific death rates(a) from external causes — 2001



(a) Age-specific death rate per 100,000 people.

Source: ABS 2001 Deaths Collection.

Rates(a) of recent injuries by age — 2001



(a) Rate per 1,000 people.

Source: ABS 2001 National Health Survey.

that employed the greatest number of full-time male workers aged 15 years and over was the Manufacturing industry, which employed 719,200 men (78% of full-time workers in that industry). Just under 8% of these men reported being injured while working. In contrast, the industry employing the greatest number of full-time female workers in the same age group was the Health and community services industry, which employed over 322,800 women (67% of the full-time workers in that industry). Under 2% of these women reported being injured while working (see also *Australian Social Trends 2002,* Work-related injuries, pp. 77–81).

Similarly, because more males participate in organised sport, they are more at risk of sustaining sport-related injuries than females. In 2001, 27% of men participated in organised sport, compared with 20% of women. Boys aged 5–14 years were also more likely to participate in organised sport than girls in the same age group (66% and 52% respectively).[3] Overall, males of all ages were more than twice as likely as females to report being injured playing organised sport (3% of males compared with 1% of females). Differences in the type of sports played by males and females may also affect the rate, nature and severity of sporting injuries.

Age-related differences in injury rates are also linked to differences in behaviour and physical characteristics. Young children may have less knowledge of risks and be less able to avoid injury, and young adults are less experienced and tend to take more physical risks than older people (see *Australian Social Trends 2002,* Selected risks faced by teenagers, pp. 57–62). In keeping with this, the rate of recent injury was highest among children aged 0–14 years (18%) and people aged 15–24 years (17%), and lowest among older Australians aged 65 and over (6%). However, the rate of injury-related death was highest among older Australians, reflecting their physical vulnerability when injured.

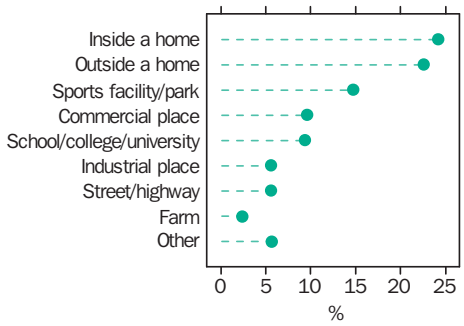
Although young people are less likely to die from injury than older people, injury accounts for the greatest number of deaths among people aged 15–24 years (79% of all deaths among men, and 60% of deaths among women in this age group in 2001). This is partly because young people are less likely than older people to die from other causes, such as health conditions that may develop over long periods of time (e.g. cancers and heart disease — currently the leading overall causes of death in Australia).

People of different ages also experience and die from different kinds of injuries. Children aged 0–14 years were more likely to die from drowning or other accidental threats to breathing, such as choking, suffocation and strangulation (31%), and in transport accidents (37%), than from other causes of injury. Of all types of recent injuries, children in this age group were most likely to be injured in low falls (53%), or from collisions or being struck by an object (14%).

More people aged 15–24 years died in transport accidents than from other causes of injury (45% of all injury-related deaths experienced by this group), while the most common recent injuries in this age group were from low falls, or from collisions or being struck by an object (22% and 23% respectively). While suicide was a major cause of death for young people aged 15–24 years (30% of all injury-related deaths in this age group), the suicide rate was highest among people aged 25–34 years (21 per 100,000 population) in 2001. This age group was also more likely to die from suicide than other causes of injury (43% of injury-related deaths).

Falls made up a higher proportion of injury-related deaths for people aged 65 years and over, than they did for other age groups. This group was also more likely to be injured from a fall than from other types of injury.

Persons who reported a recent injury: location of injury(a) — 2001



(a) Most recent injury in the past four weeks.

Source: ABS 2001 National Health Survey.

Circumstances of recent injuries

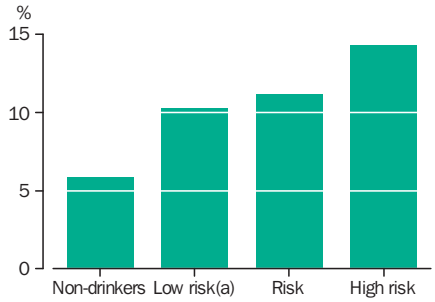
Information about the locations in which injuries occur, and about the activities people are undertaking at the time of injury can assist in managing the risk of injury in the community. In 2001, injuries most commonly occurred in people's homes — their own or someone else's (46% of all people reporting recent injuries). The most common type of injury in and around the home was an open wound, such as a cut which could occur from a sharp knife or tool (45% of those people injured in and around a home).

The next most commonly reported location for injury to have occurred in 2001 was at a sports facility or athletics field or park (15% of people reporting recent injuries). The most common type of injury reported at this location was a dislocation, sprain, or strained or torn muscle or ligament. Over three-quarters (77%) of people injured at a sports facility, field or park sustained the injury participating in organised sport. A further 17% of these people were injured using these areas informally for leisure.

Of a range of activities associated with recent injuries, most people were injured during their leisure time (26% of people reporting recent injuries). Working for income was the next most common activity associated with injury (21% of people of all ages reporting recent injuries), followed closely by domestic activities (20% of those injured) and organised sport (15% of those injured).

In 2001, the majority of people reporting a current long-term condition arising from injury, sustained that injury at work or school (1 million people, or 46% of people with an injury-related long-term health condition), with most of these injuries being work-related (79%). Injuries from motor vehicle accidents or sport or exercise participation also left large numbers of people with a long-term health condition (495,300 and 545,200, respectively).

Alcohol risk(a) and proportion of people(b) injured — 2001



(a) Risk categories refer to alcohol-related harm in the long-term (i.e. if levels of daily consumption were maintained). Low risk drinking is up to 4 standard drinks per day for men, and up to 2 standard drinks per day for women. Risky drinking is 5 to 6 standard drinks per day for men and 3 to 4 per day for women. High risk drinking is 7 or more standard drinks per day for men and 5 or more for women.
(b) Age standardised.

Source: ABS 2001 National Health Survey.

The consumption of alcohol at high levels (i.e. an average of more than five standard drinks per day for men or more than three standard drinks per day for women) is a well known contributing factor in a range of health conditions.[4] In addition, there is an association between alcohol consumption and the risk of injury.[5] In 2001, the likelihood of people reporting an injury increased with the risk level of their drinking. For example, 6% of non-drinkers reported an injury in the four weeks prior to interview, compared with 15% of high risk drinkers. People who drank at risky or high risk levels were more than twice as likely to report a high fall than were people who didn't drink or who drank at a low risk level. They were also more than five times as likely to have been injured as a result of being attacked.

Endnotes

1 Australian Institute of Health and Welfare (AIHW) & Department of Health and Family Services 1998, *National Health Priority Areas Report, Injury Prevention and Control,* AIHW Cat. No. PHE 3, Canberra.

2 Commonwealth Department of Human Services and Health 1995, *Youth Suicide in Australia: a background monograph*, AGPS, Canberra.

3 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2001, *Involvement in Organised Sport and Physical Activity, Australia,* cat. no. 6285.0, ABS, Canberra.

4 Mathers, C., Vos, T. and Stevenson, C. 1999, *The burden of disease and injury in Australia,* AIHW, Canberra.

5 National Injury Prevention Advisory Council 1999, *Directions in Injury Prevention, Report 1: Research needs*, Commonwealth Department of Health and Aged Care, Canberra.

Education and training

Education and training: national summary

	PARTICIPANTS	Units	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
1	School students(a)	'000	3 099	3 098	3 099	3 109	3 143	3 172	3 199	3 227	3 247	3 268	3 302
2	Students in government schools(a)	%	72.1	71.9	71.5	71.0	70.7	70.3	70.0	69.7	69.2	68.8	68.4
3	Females – of all Year 11 and 12 students(a)	%	51.0	51.1	51.4	51.8	51.8	51.8	52.0	52.1	52.1	51.8	51.5
4	Year 12 apparent retention rate – males(a)	%	72.5	71.9	69.6	66.7	65.9	66.2	65.9	66.4	66.1	68.1	69.8
5	Year 12 apparent retention rate – females(a)	%	82.0	81.4	79.9	77.9	77.0	77.8	77.7	78.5	78.7	79.1	80.7
6	Education participation – of all aged 15–19(b)	%	72.8	73.4	72.9	73.9	74.0	77.4	76.9	77.8	77.6	77.4	77.3
7	Education participation – of all aged 20–24(b)	%	27.1	25.8	26.6	28.0	31.5	31.0	32.1	34.4	34.4	34.8	37.2
8	Vocational Education and Training (VET) students(c)	'000	1 043	1 121	1 132	1 273	1 347	1 459	1 535	1 647	1 749	1 757	n.y.a.
9	Apprentices and trainees	'000	151.9	138.0	131.0	136.0	157.0	r171.1	r192.7	r252.2	r276.4	r314.9	357.0
10	Females – of all VET students(c)	%	45.1	45.9	45.9	47.2	47.6	48.1	47.3	48.7	49.0	49.0.	n.y.a.
11	VET students – of all aged 15–24(b)	%	11.8	11.5	9.8	12.2	12.5	12.1	12.6	13.0	13.4	11.8	12.3
12	Higher education students	'000	559.4	575.6	585.4	604.2	634.1	658.8	671.9	686.3	695.5	726.2	795.0
13	Females – of all higher education students	%	53.4	53.4	53.5	53.9	54.3	54.4	54.7	55.0	55.2	55.0	54.9
14	Overseas students – of all higher education students(d)	%	6.1	6.4	6.9	7.6	8.4	9.6	10.7	12.1	13.7	15.5	18.3
15	Higher education students – of all aged 15–24(b)	%	13.7	13.1	14.9	14.2	15.5	16.4	16.4	17.6	17.2	18.4	19.8

	EDUCATION OUTCOMES	Units	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
	With non-school educational qualifications of all persons aged 15–64												
16	Of all aged 15–64(e)(f)	%	41.7	39.1	39.0	41.0	42.3	40.4	41.9	43.7	43.8	47.2	48.2
17	Bachelor degree or above	%	9.6	10.1	11.5	11.9	12.8	13.6	14.3	15.4	15.7	17.0	17.8
18	Advanced diploma and diploma or below(f)	%	32.1	28.9	27.5	29.1	29.4	26.8	27.6	28.3	28.1	30.2	30.4
19	Females – of all with non-school educational qualifications	%	43.6	42.6	44.1	43.9	44.1	44.6	45.1	45.2	45.8	r46.6	46.8
	With non-school educational qualifications of all persons aged 25–64												
20	Of all aged 25–64(e)(f)	%	47.5	44.6	44.1	46.4	47.7	45.5	47.3	49.3	49.5	53.3	54.4
21	Bachelor degree or above	%	11.3	11.8	13.4	13.8	14.8	15.6	16.6	17.7	18.1	19.7	20.4
22	Advanced diploma and diploma or below(f)	%	36.2	32.8	30.8	32.6	32.9	29.9	30.7	31.7	31.4	33.6	33.9
23	Higher education students completing courses	'000	120.6	132.9	138.7	141.0	145.3	155.3	161.7	164.4	r171.1	186.5	n.y.a.
	Without non-school educational qualifications												
24	Of all aged 15–64(e)	%	58.3	60.9	61.0	59.0	57.7	59.6	58.1	56.3	56.2	52.8	51.8
25	Did not complete highest level of secondary school	%	34.5	37.3	37.7	36.1	34.8	36.3	34.2	32.7	32.0	36.1	34.9
	Reading – proportion of Year 5 students reaching national benchmarks(g)												
26	Males	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	83.4	85.2	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
27	Females	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	88.4	89.6	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
	Numeracy – proportion of Year 5 students reaching national benchmarks												
28	Males	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	89.4	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
29	Females	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	89.8	n.y.a.	n.y.a.

Education and training: national summary cont.

	LABOUR MARKET OUTCOMES	Units	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
	Unemployment rate (aged 15–64)												
30	With non-school educational qualifications(e)(f)	%	7.7	7.1	6.1	5.5	5.3	5.4	5.0	4.6	4.4	4.6	4.2
31	Bachelor degree or above	%	4.3	4.8	4.7	3.6	3.8	3.5	3.1	3.0	3.0	2.8	2.7
32	Advanced diploma and diploma or below(f)	%	8.8	8.0	6.7	6.3	6.0	6.5	6.0	5.5	5.2	5.7	5.1
33	Without non-school educational qualifications(e)	%	13.7	14.1	13.0	11.1	11.3	11.6	10.9	10.3	9.1	9.6	9.1
34	Completed Year 12	%	n.a.	12.3	11.0	9.9	10.0	8.9	8.6	7.7	7.2	7.5	7.0
35	Did not complete Year 12	%	n.a.	14.9	13.9	11.7	12.0	13.0	12.2	11.8	10.3	10.8	10.3
	FINANCIAL RESOURCES	Units	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999(h)	2000	2001	2002
36	Total expenses on education – proportion of GDP(i)	%	5.6	5.6	5.4	5.3	5.2	5.3	5.2	6.8	6.7	6.7	n.y.a.
	Government expenses on education(i)												
37	Proportion of GDP	%	4.9	4.9	4.7	4.6	4.5	4.5	4.4	5.2	5.1	5.2	n.y.a.
38	Primary and secondary	$'000m	11.6	12.0	12.2	12.5	13.0	13.9	14.7	17.3	18.2	19.5	n.y.a.
39	Tertiary	$'000m	6.4	6.9	7.1	7.6	7.6	8.1	8.0	11.7	12.1	12.8	n.y.a.
	HUMAN RESOURCES	Units	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
	School student/teaching staff ratio												
40	All schools	ratio	15.3	15.3	15.5	15.4	15.4	15.3	15.3	15.0	14.9	14.7	14.7
41	Government schools	ratio	15.1	15.2	15.4	15.4	15.4	15.3	15.3	14.9	14.9	r14.7	14.8
42	Primary schools	ratio	18.4	18.4	18.5	r18.2	18.1	17.9	17.9	17.3	17.3	17.0	16.9
43	Secondary schools	ratio	12.4	12.4	12.6	r12.7	r12.8	r12.8	r12.8	r12.7	r12.6	r12.5	12.5
44	Higher education	ratio	n.a.	15.3	14.7	15.1	15.9	17.3	18.0	18.0	18.3	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
	Female teachers/academic staff												
45	Of all primary school teachers	%	74.2	74.4	74.7	76.1	76.2	76.9	77.5	78.0	78.3	78.7	79.1
46	Of all secondary school teachers	%	50.6	51.1	51.3	52.3	52.6	53.1	53.5	54.1	54.4	54.9	55.1
47	Of all higher education academic staff(j)	%	31.9	32.6	32.8	33.5	34.1	34.4	35.1	35.5	r36.3	37.5	38.1
	PROVIDERS	Units	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
48	Schools	no.	9 957	9 865	9 679	9 648	9 630	9 609	9 587	9 590	r9 609	r9 609	9 632
49	Government schools – of all schools	%	74.8	74.7	74.0	73.8	73.6	73.2	73.0	72.7	72.6	r72.4	72.4

(a) Refers to full-time students only.

(b) Data for 1993–1995 refer to courses leading to recognised qualifications only.

(c) 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, and private providers were included from 1996.

(d) Prior to 1996, New Zealand students were counted as being overseas students.

(e) From 1993, estimates refer to recognised qualifications only.

(f) Includes persons who have a qualification where the level can not be determined.

(g) In 1999, data do not include a number of Queensland students, who were formally exempted from testing.

(h) 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.

(i) 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.

(j) Data cover full-time and fractional full-time staff but exclude casual academic staff.

Reference periods: Expenditure data are for financial years. Schools data are at August, except for 1992–1994 (July). Higher education and overseas data are at 31 March. Data on participation rates, educational attainment and unemployment rates are at May. VET and apprentice and trainee data for 1991–1997 are at June and from 1998–2001 are at 31 December. Reading and numeracy benchmark data are at August.

Education and training: state summary

	PARTICIPANTS	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT(a)	ACT	Aust.
1	School students(b)	'000	2002	1 105	814	620	249	335	82	37	61	3 302
2	Students in government schools(b)	%	2002	68.2	65.5	71.0	68.3	69.7	74.7	76.9	61.5	68.4
3	Females – of all Year 11 and 12 students(b)	%	2002	51.9	52.2	50.6	51.6	50.6	52.7	50.9	49.5	51.5
4	Year 12 apparent retention rate – males(b)	%	2002	64.9	73.4	77.4	61.1	69.3	66.0	48.9	87.1	69.8
5	Year 12 apparent retention rate – females(b)	%	2002	75.1	88.7	85.5	72.6	78.3	79.4	57.1	89.1	80.7
6	Education participation – of all aged 15–19	%	2002	78.9	82.6	72.5	76.7	69.5	71.1	82.0	84.1	77.3
7	Education participation – of all aged 20–24	%	2002	37.5	42.3	33.0	35.5	33.2	28.0	26.0	43.0	37.2
8	Vocational Education and Training (VET) students	'000	2001	604.7	471.7	320.4	144.0	136.4	35.3	22.6	21.6	1 756.8
9	Apprentices and trainees	'000	2002	102.7	120.5	61.8	30.7	21.9	12.7	2.5	4.2	357.0
10	Females – of all VET students	%	2001	51.1	47.3	48.7	50.3	46.4	44.2	46.9	47.2	49.0
11	VET students – of all aged 15–24	%	2002	12.2	13.2	11.8	12.7	11.4	13.1	*4.8	*12.0	12.3
12	Higher education students(c)(d)	'000	2002	253.7	205.7	151.4	53.9	78.1	14.4	5.4	21.6	795.0
13	Females – of all higher education students(c)(d)	%	2002	54.6	54.3	54.6	57.0	56.3	50.7	64.5	50.8	54.9
14	Overseas students – of all higher education students(c)(d)	%	2002	17.8	20.8	17.4	17.6	20.7	8.4	4.7	15.2	18.3
15	Higher education students – of all aged 15–24	%	2002	19.9	22.7	18.2	17.1	18.7	9.5	*14.3	24.8	19.8
	EDUCATION OUTCOMES	*Units*	*Years*	*NSW*	*Vic.*	*Qld*	*SA*	*WA*	*Tas.*	*NT(a)*	*ACT*	*Aust.*
	With non-school educational qualifications of all persons aged 15–64											
16	Of all aged 15–64(e)(f)	%	2002	49.8	47.8	46.0	45.6	50.1	41.6	50.0	55.6	48.2
17	Bachelor degree or above	%	2002	18.9	19.6	15.0	14.0	16.7	11.4	17.8	30.5	17.8
18	Advanced diploma and diploma or below(f)	%	2002	30.9	28.2	31.0	31.6	33.4	30.2	32.3	25.1	30.4
19	Females – all with non-school educational qualifications	%	2002	47.6	46.5	46.7	45.5	45.8	45.4	45.5	48.8	46.8
	With non-school educational qualifications of all persons aged 25–64											
20	Of all aged 25–64(e)(f)	%	2002	56.6	53.8	51.6	50.7	56.2	46.8	55.4	63.6	54.4
21	Bachelor degree or above	%	2002	21.8	22.3	17.4	16.0	19.4	13.6	20.0	35.5	20.4
22	Advanced diploma and diploma or below(f)	%	2002	34.8	31.5	34.2	34.6	36.8	33.2	35.4	28.2	33.9
23	Higher education students completing courses(d)	'000	2001	58.1	52.5	31.1	12.8	18.3	3.8	0.8	6.1	186.5
	Without non-school educational qualifications											
24	Of all aged 15–64(e)	%	2002	50.2	52.2	54.0	54.4	49.9	58.4	50.0	44.4	51.8
25	Did not complete highest level of secondary school	%	2002	33.6	34.3	36.6	39.8	33.2	46.7	35.6	23.7	34.9
	Reading – proportion of Year 5 students reaching national benchmarks											
26	Males	%	2000	87.1	90.6	75.1	82.2	92.4	78.7	69.3	93.0	85.2
27	Females	%	2000	91.2	93.7	81.7	86.7	94.9	84.3	73.1	98.7	89.6
	Numeracy – proportion of Year 5 students reaching national benchmarks											
28	Males	%	2000	90.8	94.1	86.0	83.1	87.5	87.9	74.5	91.0	89.4
29	Females	%	2000	91.5	94.4	87.0	82.7	87.5	87.2	73.7	91.6	89.8

Education and training: state summary continued

	LABOUR MARKET OUTCOMES	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
	Unemployment rate (aged 15–64)											
30	With non-school educational qualifications(e)(f)	%	2002	3.5	3.7	5.8	5.0	5.0	4.0	2.1	3.8	4.2
31	Bachelor degree or above	%	2002	2.6	2.5	2.8	3.7	3.6	2.2	0.9	2.7	2.7
32	Advanced diploma and diploma or below(f)	%	2002	4.1	4.6	7.3	5.6	5.7	4.8	2.7	5.4	5.1
33	Without non-school educational qualifications(e)	%	2002	9.6	8.1	9.6	9.2	8.6	11.6	6.4	6.1	9.1
34	Completed Year 12	%	2002	6.8	6.7	7.2	7.9	6.9	11.6	3.3	5.0	7.0
35	Did not complete Year 12	%	2002	11.4	9.0	11.0	9.8	9.7	11.6	7.9	7.4	10.3
	HUMAN RESOURCES	*Units*	*Years*	*NSW*	*Vic.*	*Qld*	*SA*	*WA*	*Tas.*	*NT*	*ACT*	*Aust.*
	School student/teaching staff ratio											
36	All schools	ratio	2002	14.9	14.4	14.6	15.0	15.2	14.7	13.1	14.4	14.7
37	Government schools	ratio	2002	15.1	14.5	14.7	15.0	15.4	14.8	13.0	13.9	14.8
38	Primary schools	ratio	2002	17.6	16.6	16.0	17.0	17.7	16.3	14.5	16.7	16.9
39	Secondary schools	ratio	2002	12.4	12.3	12.9	12.4	12.4	13.1	11.0	12.4	12.5
	Female teachers/academic staff											
40	Of all primary school teachers	%	2002	80.4	79.9	77.6	76.0	78.1	78.7	83.0	83.4	79.1
41	Of all secondary school teachers	%	2002	55.2	56.6	55.7	49.3	52.3	53.8	59.1	60.4	55.1
42	Of all higher education academic staff(d)(g)	%	2002	36.7	40.8	37.0	38.2	38.5	32.9	47.7	30.4	38.1
	PROVIDERS	*Units*	*Years*	*NSW*	*Vic.*	*Qld*	*SA*	*WA*	*Tas.*	*NT*	*ACT*	*Aust.*
43	Schools	no.	2002	3 115	2 320	1 726	810	1 060	280	183	138	9 632
44	Government schools – of all schools	%	2002	71.0	70.0	74.8	75.3	73.1	76.4	82.0	68.8	72.4

(a) Estimates for Northern Territory refer to mainly urban areas only, except all schools data and VET students.

(b) Data refer to full-time students only.

(c) State and territory totals exclude students of the Australian Catholic University which has campuses in more than one state or territory.

(d) Australian total includes multi-state universities.

(e) Data refer to recognised qualifications only.

(f) Includes persons who have completed a course where the level can not be determined.

(g) Data cover full-time and fractional full-time staff but exclude casual academic staff.

Reference periods: Schools data are at August. Data on participation rates, educational attainment and unemployment rates are at May. VET and apprentice and trainee data are at 31 December. Higher education data and overseas student data are at 31 March. Schools data are at August. Reading and numeracy benchmark data are at August.

Education and training: data sources

DATA SOURCE	*Indicators using this source*
ABS Survey of Education and Work.	National (6–7, 11, 15, 18–22, 25, 30–35); State (6–7, 11, 15, 18–22, 25, 30–35)
Department of Education, Science and Training, Higher Education Student Statistics.	National (12–14, 23); State (12–14, 23)
Department of Education, Science and Training, Higher Education Staff Statistics.	National (44, 47); State (42)
Education and Work, Australia (ABS cat. no. 6227.0).	National (16–17, 24); State (16–17, 24)
Government Finance Statistics, Education, Australia – Electronic delivery (ABS cat. no. 5518.0.55.001).	National (36–39)
Ministerial Council on Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs, National Report on Schooling.	National (26–29); State (26–29)
National Centre for Vocational Education Research, Apprentices and Trainees.	National (9); State (9)
National Centre for Vocational Education Research, VET Students.	National (8, 10); State (8, 10)
Schools, Australia (ABS cat. no. 4221.0).	National (1–5, 40–43, 45–46, 48–49); State (1–5, 36–41, 43–44)

Education and training: definitions

Advanced diploma and diploma or below
an advanced diploma, associate degree, diploma, certificate IV, certificate III, certificate II, or certificate I.
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
a bachelor degree (including honours), a graduate or post-graduate diploma, master's degree or a doctorate.
Reference: *Australian Standard Classification of Education (ASCED)* (ABS cat. no. 1272.0).

Did not complete highest level of secondary school
a person without non-school qualifications who did not complete the highest level of secondary schooling available at the time they left school.
Reference: *Education and Work, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6227.0).

Educational participation
all persons enrolled and attending any institution with a primary role of education. Included are schools, higher education establishments, colleges of technical and further education, public and private colleges.
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).

Higher education student
a person who has been admitted to a higher education institution and who was enrolled (either full-time, part-time or externally) in a higher education award course, enabling course or non-award course at any time in the year prior to the reference date of 31 March. 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, *Higher Education Students 2002.*
Data for the proportion of 15–24 year olds attending higher education refers to persons aged 15–24 years attending at least one of the following higher education institutions: University, College of Advanced Education; Institute of Advanced Education; Institute of Higher Education; Institute of Tertiary Education; Agricultural College or Institute of Technology. State totals are based on the student's usual state or territory of residence.
Reference: *Education and Work, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6227.0).

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).

Education and training: definitions continued

Non-school educational qualification
an award for attainment as a result of formal learning from an accredited non-school institution. Educational qualifications are classified according to the *ABS Classification of Qualifications* (ABSCQ) (ABS cat. no. 1262.0). The level of attainment includes higher degrees, postgraduate diplomas, bachelor degrees, undergraduate and associate diplomas, and skilled and basic vocational qualifications.

From 2001, and with the implementation of the Australian Standard Classification of Education (ASCED) (ABS cat. no. 1272.0), 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.

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 person who is a full-fee paying student at a higher education institution and whose residence is usually overseas.

Reference: Department of Education, Science and Training, *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 pre-school 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,* 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 pre-school 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 divided by 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).

Total expenses on education
total government expenses on education plus total private expenses on education less private expenses on education financed by government transfers.

Reference: *Government Finance Statistics, Education, Australia,* – Electronic delivery (ABS cat. no. 5518.0.55.001).

Unemployment rate
an estimate of unemployed persons in any group expressed as a percentage of the labour force in the same group.

Reference: *Education and Work, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6227.0).

Vocational Education and Training (VET) student
a person aged 15–64 years for whom there is a full-time or part-time vocational stream enrolment in a TAFE college or a course provided by some private or adult and community education providers in the reference year. Does not necessarily equate to individuals, as some people may have more than one enrolment.

Reference: National Centre for Vocational Education Research, *Australian Vocational Education and Training Statistics: In Detail*.

Year 12 apparent retention rate
the percentage of full-time students of a given cohort group who continue from the first year of secondary schooling to Year 12.

Reference: *Schools, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4221.0).

Regional differences in education and outcomes

In 2001, secondary school attendance among 16 year olds ranged from 84% in Major Cities to 41% in Very Remote areas.

Students in regional and remote areas are more likely than those in cities to face problems of access and limited choice as they strive to complete their education. Residents of regional and remote Australia have consistently had lower rates of attendance in the non-compulsory years 11 and 12 of school and at non-school education institutions than city residents. Therefore, people living in these areas have been identified as a disadvantaged group requiring targeted policies to create more equal opportunity and increase participation in education.[1]

Qualifications across Remoteness Areas

In 2001, of Australians aged 25–64 years, 46% stated they had gained a non-school qualification. The proportion of people with non-school qualifications declined with increasing remoteness. Among people aged 25–64 years, those counted in Major Cities were most likely to hold non-school qualifications (49%). The lowest proportion occurred among those counted in Very Remote areas, where 33% had a non-school qualification.

Among people aged 25–64 years the single highest non-school qualification most commonly held was a Certificate. The proportion of people whose highest

Education and remoteness

This article uses information from the August 2001 Census of Population and Housing to examine how the education and labour force status of young Australians varies with remoteness. The data presented are based on where people were counted on census night.

The characteristics of people in any region are affected by the movement of individuals into and out of the region over time. Consequently the data presented here for Remoteness Areas reflects only the characteristics of those counted in a particular area at the time of the census. In 2001, 15% of the people counted in Very Remote areas did not usually live there. In addition, the high proportion of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people in Remote and Very Remote areas, and the poor education outcomes associated with these people, influences the overall characteristics of people counted in those areas (see *Australian Social Trends 2002*, Education of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples, pp. 109–113).

Higher education institutions provide higher education courses and include universities, colleges of advanced education, institutes of advanced education, institutes of higher education, institutes of tertiary education, agricultural colleges and some institutes of technology.

Non-school qualifications are awarded for educational attainments other than those of pre-primary, primary or secondary education.

Definitions of qualifications can be found in the *Australian Standard Classification of Education (ASCED), 2001* (ABS cat. no. 1272.0).

Non-school qualifications among people aged 25–64 years by Remoteness Area — 2001

Highest level of non-school qualification completed(a)	*Major Cities* %	*Inner Regional* %	*Outer Regional* %	*Remote* %	*Very Remote* %	*Australia(b)* %
Postgraduate degree	3.4	1.4	1.1	1.1	1.1	2.7
Graduate diploma and Graduate certificate	2.3	1.8	1.4	1.4	1.3	2.1
Bachelor degree	15.5	9.5	8.4	8.2	7.4	13.3
Advanced diploma and Diploma	8.5	7.2	6.4	6.1	5.5	8.0
Certificate	19.1	22.7	21.2	20.8	18.1	20.0
Total	**48.8**	**42.6**	**38.6**	**37.5**	**33.3**	**46.1**

(a) People who stated they had a non-school qualification but did not indicate the type or supply enough information to determine the type were excluded prior to calculation of percentages.
(b) Includes persons in Migratory category.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

qualification was a Certificate ranged from 23% of this age group in Inner Regional areas to 18% in Very Remote areas — all close to the national figure of 20%.

Overall in 2001, 18% of Australians aged 25–64 years had a Bachelor degree or higher as their highest non-school qualification. Among people in this age group, 21% of those counted in Major Cities held a degree or a post-graduate qualification, the highest proportion of all Remoteness Areas. Across the other Remoteness Areas, the proportion was about half this, ranging from 13% in Inner Regional areas to 10% in Very Remote areas. This difference between Major Cities and the other Remoteness Areas is probably augmented by the movement of young people to cities to undertake higher education or to obtain employment. In addition, the majority of jobs requiring higher education qualifications are likely to be found in Major Cities.

Staying on at school

The comparatively low proportion of people with higher education qualifications outside of Major Cities is at least partly linked to the lower rates of participation in post-compulsory secondary schooling in these areas. In 2001, compulsory schooling in Australia ended at the age of 15 years (16 years in Tasmania). After that age, children could leave school or voluntarily continue on to complete years 11 and 12 of their secondary education. Post-compulsory education was once mainly undertaken by students intending to undertake further studies — in the mid-1960s, under a quarter of secondary students stayed until year 12.[2] In the 1980s, a greater proportion of students were successfully encouraged to remain in school and complete year 12.[3] Over the past two decades the overall proportion of secondary students who stayed at school through to year 12 increased from 36% in 1982 to 75% in 2002 (see *Australian Social Trends 2003*, Education and training: national summary tables, pp. 84–85).

In 2001, 92% of boys and 94% of girls aged 15 years were attending a secondary school. Among 17 year olds, the proportions were lower — 62% of boys and 69% of girls. When examined by Remoteness Areas, two patterns

Geographical classifications

This article uses a range of different geographic classifications from the Australian Standard Geographical Classification (ASGC). For further information see *Statistical Geography: Volume 1—Australian Standard Geographical Classification (ASGC), 2001* (ABS cat. no. 1216.0).

The ABS Remoteness classification is used to examine the characteristics of 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.

To examine migration, Australia is divided into three areas. *Capital Cities* are Capital City Statistical Divisions from each of the Australian states and territories. *Large Population Centres* are Statistical Districts (excluding the Canberra Statistical Division), which are predominantly urban areas that contain population centres totalling 25,000 persons or more (e.g. Newcastle and Geraldton) and which are not located within a Capital City Statistical Division. The remainder of Australia is referred to as *Country Areas*.

Proportion of young people attending a secondary school(a) by Remoteness Area — 2001

	Aged 15 years		*Aged 16 years*		*Aged 17 years*	
	Males	*Females*	*Males*	*Females*	*Males*	*Females*
Remoteness Area	%	%	%	%	%	%
Major Cities	93.1	94.6	82.2	86.6	65.5	71.7
Inner Regional	92.1	93.8	77.5	82.7	59.5	68.1
Outer Regional	91.5	93.6	75.1	80.6	54.6	62.5
Remote	87.1	90.3	67.7	75.4	39.5	52.0
Very Remote	60.7	70.6	37.6	44.7	18.0	25.1
Australia(b)	**92.3**	**94.1**	**79.7**	**84.6**	**62.2**	**69.3**

(a) People who did not state whether or not they were attending an educational institution or did not state the type of educational institution they were attending were excluded prior to the calculation of percentages.
(b) Includes persons in Migratory category.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

People aged 15–19 years who had left school(a): selected indicators by Remoteness Area — 2001

Remoteness Area	% who completed year 12	% attending an educational institution: Of those who completed year 12	% attending an educational institution: Of those who did not complete year 12
Major Cities	61.7	67.5	25.8
Inner Regional	46.0	53.9	25.8
Outer Regional	40.5	37.8	21.6
Remote	32.8	22.7	14.1
Very Remote	20.0	16.1	4.1
Australia(b)	**55.4**	**62.4**	**24.5**

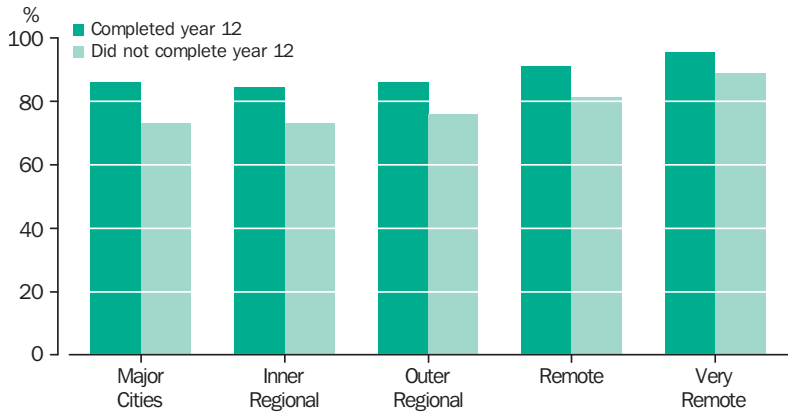
(a) Comprises those who were not attending a secondary school. Excludes those who did not state whether or not they were attending an educational institution and those who did not state the type of educational institution they were attending.
(b) Includes persons in Migratory category.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

are discernible. Firstly, the proportion of young people attending secondary school outside of Major Cities was lower than the national average and decreased with increasing remoteness. Secondly, the rate of decrease in attendance with increasing remoteness was greater for boys than girls.

One factor that may influence the low secondary school participation rates in more remote areas is the high proportion of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples in Remote and Very Remote areas. Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples have lower rates of participation in secondary education than non-Indigenous peoples (see *Australian Social Trends 2002*, Education of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples, pp. 109–113). Other factors influencing secondary education participation rates in more remote areas may include difficulty in accessing educational institutions; greater teacher turnover combined with a higher proportion of inexperienced teachers; and restrictions on the range of subjects that can be offered. In addition, some regional high schools do not offer years 11 and 12.[4] Although these issues may partly explain the regional differences, other attitudinal factors may also be involved. For example, a study published in 1999 suggested that, in general, higher education is considered less relevant to life and work by people in regional and remote areas.[5]

People aged 15–19 years who were not attending an educational institution(a): proportion of those in the labour force who were employed — 2001



(a) Excludes those who did not state whether or not they were attending an educational institution and those who did not state the type of educational institution they were attending.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

School completion

The 2001 Census counted 600,500 young people aged 15–19 years who were no longer attending secondary school. The characteristics of these young people varied with the Remoteness Area in which they were counted. In general, as remoteness increased, the likelihood of their having completed year 12 decreased. Further, among those who had completed year 12, the proportion undertaking further study decreased with increasing remoteness. For example, among young people aged 15–19 years who had left school and were counted in Major Cities, 62% had completed year 12; of these, 68% were undertaking further study. Among young people counted in Inner Regional areas 46% had completed year 12, and of these, 54% were undertaking further studies. This decline continued as remoteness increased. Again, accessibility may be a major factor influencing participation in further study in Remote and Very Remote areas, since there are few further education institutions in these areas.

Proportion of 15–24 year olds attending a non-school educational institution(a) by Remoteness Area — 2001

Selected type of non-school educational institution	*Major Cities* %	*Inner Regional* %	*Outer Regional* %	*Remote* %	*Very Remote* %	*Australia(b)* %
Males						
University or other higher educational institutions	17.5	8.1	4.1	1.4	0.8	14.0
Technical or further educational institutions (including TAFE colleges)	10.7	10.4	8.1	6.1	3.0	10.3
Females						
University or other higher educational institutions	21.9	12.3	7.3	3.6	2.5	18.3
Technical or further educational institutions (including TAFE colleges)	7.9	8.1	7.1	6.2	3.2	7.8

(a) Excludes people who did not state whether or not they were attending an educational institution. Those who stated they were attending an educational institution but did not state the type of educational institution have been excluded from the calculation of percentages.
(b) Includes persons in Migratory category.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

Among school leavers aged 15–19 years who were not undertaking further study, and who were participating in the labour force, the proportion who were employed was higher in the remote areas (91% in Very Remote areas and 85% in Remote areas) than in the less remote areas (78% in Inner Regional areas and 79% in Major Cities). This supports the premise that jobs in more remote areas may be less likely to demand non-school qualifications. However, across all areas those who had completed year 12 had a higher employment rate than those who had left school early. For example, in Major Cities the proportion employed among labour force participants who were not studying and who had completed year 12 was 86%, compared with 73% of young people who had not completed year 12.

Overall, 17% of school leavers aged 15–19 years who were not studying were not in the labour force (i.e. they were neither working nor looking for work). Among young people who were not studying and who had completed year 12, 9% were not in the labour force. In comparison, among those who had not completed year 12, 22% were not in the labour force. A similar difference was observed across all the Remoteness Areas, though the difference between those who completed year 12 and those who did not complete year 12 was greater for Remote and Very Remote areas.

Further studies

Historically, urban Australians have been more likely to undertake further education than regional and remote residents. This is probably related to the better access urban dwellers have to non-school educational institutions and to differences in educational aspirations between residents of city and regional and remote areas.[5]

In 2001, the census corroborated this difference, finding that among young people aged 15–24 years, the proportion attending a non-school educational institution declined with increasing remoteness. However, some of this difference may be related to young people moving to less remote areas to undertake further education. In Major Cities, 28% of young men and 30% of young women aged 15–24 years were attending either a University or other higher educational institution, or a Technical or further educational institution. These levels declined with increasing remoteness, with proportions in Outer Regional areas of 12% and 14% respectively. Among young men in this age group, attendance at a Technical or further educational institution was more common than at a University or other higher educational institution in all Remoteness Areas other than Major Cities. Among young women, a greater proportion attended a University or other higher educational institution than Technical or further educational institutions in all areas except in Remote and Very Remote areas (where very few universities are located).

People aged 15–24 years who had left secondary school: those who moved to a more populous area(a) — 2001

	People who moved(a)		All 15–24 year olds who had left school	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
	%	%	%	%
Attending a Technical or further educational institution	12.2	9.5	14.3	11.0
Attending a University or other higher educational institution	26.2	34.2	19.5	25.7
Not attending an educational institution	59.8	53.9	64.5	60.8
Total(b)	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total(c)	**80.1**	**94.3**	**908.4**	**873.0**

(a) Comprises youth aged 15–24 years who moved from a Country Area to a Large Population Centre or Capital City, and those who moved from a Large Population Centre to a Capital City between 1996 and 2001.
(b) Includes those attending Other educational institutions.
(c) Includes those attending Other educational institutions and educational institution not stated.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

Young people moving

Every year, young people move to find work or to study. Those in regional areas are particularly likely to move because of the greater employment and education opportunities available to them in Major Cities (see *Australian Social Trends 2003*, Youth migration within Australia, pp. 22–25).

In 2001, the census counted 174,400 young people aged 15–24 years who were no longer attending school and who had changed their address since 1996 to one in a more populous area. These young people were more likely than all young people aged 15–24 years who had left school to be attending a University or other higher educational institution. In 2001, 26% of young men who moved compared with 20% of all young male 15–24 year olds were attending a University or other higher educational institution. For women, the comparable figures were 34% and 26% respectively. In contrast, the proportion of young people who moved and were attending a Technical or further education institution (11%) was slightly lower than for all 15–24 year olds who had left school (13%), perhaps reflecting the wider availability of those institutions in Large Population Centres.

Among young people aged 15–24 years who moved to a more populous area, 60% of young men and 54% of young women were not attending an educational institution. Although most of these young people were working or looking for work, 11% were not. Young men who had moved and were not studying were the most likely to be in the labour force (93% compared with 90% of all 15–24 year old men who had left school and were not studying). A smaller proportion of young women who had moved and were not studying were in the labour force (84%), though this proportion was still larger than that found among all 15–24 year old women who had left school and were not studying (80%).

The employment rate of young labour force participants aged 15–24 years who had left school, were not studying, and who moved, was the same as that among all young people aged 15–24 who had left school, who were not studying and were in the labour force (86%).

Endnotes

1 Department of Employment, Education and Training, 1990, *A Fair Chance For All*, AGPS Canberra.

2 Commonwealth Schools Commission 1987, *In the National Interest: Secondary Education and Youth Policy in Australia*, AGPS, Canberra.

3 Marginson, S. 1997, *Educating Australia: government, economy and citizen since 1960*, Cambridge University Press, Melbourne.

4 National Youth Affairs Research Scheme 2001, *Creating better educational and employment opportunities for rural young people*, Australian Clearinghouse for Youth Studies, Hobart, Tasmania.

5 James, R., et al 1999, *Rural and Isolated School Students and their Higher Educational Choices*, National Board of Employment, Education and Training, Higher Education Council, Canberra.

Pathways from school to work

EDUCATION AND WORK

Of young people who had been in year 10 in the late 1980s, 57% did not enter higher education in the seven years after leaving school. Nearly one-third of these young people spent a considerable portion of their post-school years unemployed, working part-time (without studying full-time), or out of the labour force.

The ways young people move from compulsory schooling to the workforce have changed over the last two decades. A greater proportion of students now complete years 11 and 12 of secondary school and there is also increased participation in a variety of non-school education and training options. Young people, especially teenagers, are now less likely to be in the full-time labour force but more likely to be in part-time employment in their initial years in the workforce. As a result of such changes, the transition from compulsory schooling to the full-time workforce can now be a long process for many young people, lasting several years, with less time overall spent in full-time work during this period. A major social concern given these changed circumstances has been that young people, especially those who leave school early, might find themselves in mainly part-time or casual work, or unemployed, for several years, and in the long-term be unable to find ongoing full-time employment.

The post-school experiences of secondary students have been monitored in longitudinal studies conducted by the Australian Council of Educational Research (ACER) since the 1970s. Much of the research based on these surveys has focused on the transitions young people make between education, training and work. A recently completed study relates to those who were in year 10 in 1986–1988, and examined their experiences over seven post-school years.[1] On average, there were 259,000 students in year 10 in each year between 1986 and 1988, or 778,000 students in total, according to the National Schools Statistics Collection.[2]

Leaving school

One of the first significant choices that young people make is when to leave school. Of those students who were in year 10 between 1986 and 1988, 26% left without completing year 12. The remaining 74%, who completed year 12, comprised 43% who entered higher education and 33% who did not.

When asked their main reason for leaving school, non-completers in the late 1980s most often expressed a desire to work, to train for work, or to earn money (76% of young men and 62% of young women). Dislike of or lack of success in school were the main reason for leaving school for 19% of young men and

Young people in transition

Longitudinal surveys of young people's transitions to adulthood have been conducted since the 1970s by the Australian Council for Educational Research (ACER), an independent non-profit organisation, on behalf of the Department of Education, Science and Training. This article summarises data and analysis from two reports from these surveys:

- *Patterns of success and failure in the transition from school to work in Australia* (LSAY Research report no. 18)
- *School leavers in Australia: profiles and pathways* (LSAY Research report no. 31).

Other ACER reports used in the article are specifically referenced.

Longitudinal surveys, which track people over time, are subject to attrition and there is a possibility that surveys results could therefore become less representative over time. Attrition is likely to be higher the longer the period studied. However, annual adjustments to weighting of the Longitudinal Surveys of Australian Youth aim to compensate for the differing rates at which people with various characteristics are lost from the survey.

Terms used in this article are as defined in the above ACER reports and may differ from ABS standard definitions.

Seven post-school years is the seven-year period following the calendar year in which those who completed school were in year 12. For example, for persons who were in year 10 in 1986 the seven-year period covered 1989–1995.

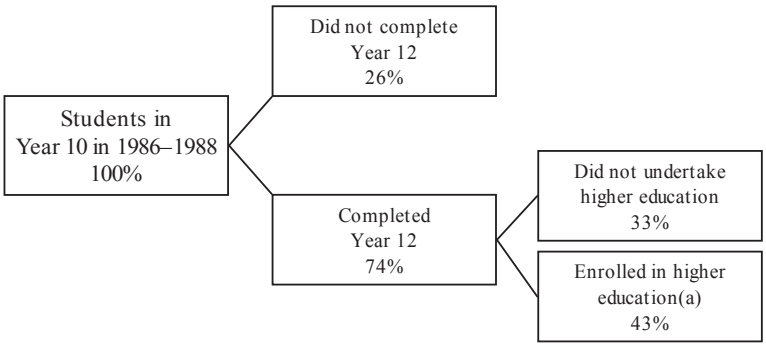
For the period covered by this article, years 7 to 10 are defined as the *compulsory years* of secondary school, while years 11 and 12 are defined as *post-compulsory years*, although the state and territory laws which govern education are expressed in terms of age rather than year level.

Non-completers are those who did not complete year 12. They comprise *early school leavers*, who did not begin year 11 and did not go back to school within the period of the survey and *later school leavers* who began year 11 or year 12 but did not complete year 12 and did not go back to school within the period of the survey. However, some non-completers may have subsequently completed year 12 qualifications at another type of institution such as an institute of Technical and Further Education (TAFE).

Completers are students who completed year 12. (For the 1995 year 9 cohort discussed later in this article, completers were those who were attending school in August of their Year 12 year.)

Higher education refers to study for an associate diploma (TAFE), or a bachelor degree or higher qualification.

Educational pathways of persons who were in year 10 in 1986–1988



(a) Had completed a higher education qualification by the seventh post-school year, or were enrolled in higher education in the seventh post-school year. Includes some people who entered higher education without completing year 12 (2% of those who were in year 10).

Source: Australian Council of Educational Research 2001, *Patterns of success and failure in the transition from school to work in Australia,* (LSAY Research report no. 18), ACER, Camberwell.

25% of young women, while 5% of young men and 13% of young women left school for other reasons. The same general pattern was observed in the early 1990s.[3]

Students' literacy and numeracy skills in the middle school years have shown one of the strongest associations with subsequent participation in education.[4] Those more likely to leave school early, in both the late 1980s and mid-1990s, include young men, students from families of lower socioeconomic status (as indicated by parents' level of education and occupation), those located in rural areas, and those who attended Government schools. Those who spoke a language other than English at home or who were born overseas were less likely to leave school early.[3, 4] (See also *Australian Social Trends 2001*, Trends in completing school, pp. 99–102.)

Pathways after leaving school

Close to 57% of those students who had been in year 10 in the late 1980s did not enter higher education. Over seven post-school years, many of these individuals moved between different activities such as education and training, full-time and part-time work, unemployment, and activities outside the labour force such as raising children. Seven years after leaving school, 69% of those who did not enter higher education could be said to have taken a relatively smooth pathway from school to full-time work. The mix of experiences in the path to full-time work varied between young men and women, and between school non-completers and completers. Of those young people who did not enter higher education, 20% went straight from school into full-time work and remained in full-time work over the period of the study.

Pathways from school to work

Young people were interviewed annually, over seven post-school years, to identify their main activity in each year (one covering at least six months). They were then classified to eight pathways (combinations of annual activities).

Full-time work only covers those whose main activity each year was full-time work. Full-time work was defined as 30 hours or more per week.

Training and work covers those who undertook an apprenticeship or traineeship and then remained in full-time work.

Study and work covers those who studied full-time and then entered and remained in full-time work.

Brief interruption then work includes those who experienced a period of up to two years in which they were unemployed, not in the labour force (excluding full-time study) or working part-time, and then entered and remained in full-time work.

Extended interruption then work includes those who spent more than two but less than four years unemployed, in part-time work, or not in the labour force (excluding full-time study), and were in full-time work for the remainder of the period.

Mainly part-time work covers those whose main activity was part-time work (less than 30 hours per week) in at least four of the seven years.

Mainly unemployed includes those whose main activity was not working and looking for work in at least four of the seven years.

Mainly not in the labour force includes those whose main activity was not working and not looking for full-time work (excluding full-time study) in at least four of the seven years.

This was more common among young women than young men and most common among female completers (25%).

The training and work pathway — undertaking an apprenticeship or traineeship (where training is employment-based and under contract) and then continuing in full-time work for the remainder of the seven years — was the pathway of 13% of those who did not enter higher education. The training pathway was especially common for male non-completers, 30% of whom took this path compared with 16% of male completers. In contrast, training and work was an uncommon pathway for young women, involving 4% of female completers and 4% of female non-completers.

A further 12% of those who did not undertake higher education undertook full-time study before working. This study was principally in non-degree courses at an institute of TAFE and might include some students who after leaving school undertook courses equivalent to senior secondary school. In contrast to training, the study and work pathway was rare

Pathways(a) after school of persons who were in year 10 in 1986–1988, who did not enter higher education

	Non-completers		Completers		Total
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Persons
Pathway	%	%	%	%	%
Full-time work only	17	21	18	25	20
Training and work	30	4	16	4	13
Study and work	3	1	17	14	12
Brief interruption then work	23	25	24	24	24
Extended interruption then work	9	15	14	15	13
Mainly part-time work	3	7	3	6	5
Mainly unemployed	13	5	7	6	7
Mainly not in the labour force	2	23	1	7	7
Total who did not enter higher education	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
Total as a proportion of all year 10 students	93	92	49	40	57

(a) Summary of activities over seven years following the calendar year in which those who completed school were in year 12. For example, for persons who were in year 10 in 1986 the seven year period covered 1989–1995.

Source: Australian Council of Educational Research 2001, *Patterns of success and failure in the transition from school to work in Australia,* (LSAY Research report no. 18), ACER, Camberwell.

for both male and female non-completers (3% and 1% respectively) but accounted for 17% of male and 14% of female completers.

Of those who did not enter higher education, 24% experienced some kind of relatively brief interruption (lasting less than two years) before entering full-time work and staying in it for the remainder of the seven post-school years. This pathway was almost equally common for young men and women, and for completers and non-completers.

In total, 69% of young people who did not enter higher education were involved in one of the four relatively smooth pathways to work discussed above. The remaining 31% of all those who did not enter higher education spent a considerable portion of their post-school years unemployed, working part-time, or out of the labour force (without studying full-time). Four more pathways summarise the post-school activities of these young people. The most common of these pathways involved 13% of those who did not enter higher education. They experienced an extended period in one of the above activities, or a combination of them, but had nevertheless experienced at least three years in full-time employment by the time they approached their mid-twenties. Male non-completers were less likely to be in this pathway (9%) than female non-completers (15%) and male and female completers (14% and 15% respectively). However, male non-completers were the most likely of the four groups of young people to have been in another pathway, that of being mainly unemployed in the first seven post-school years (13% compared with 5% to 7% of the other three groups).

The remaining two pathways accounted for those mainly working part-time and those mainly not in the labour force. Young women were predominant in these pathways. Working part-time in at least four out of the first seven years after school was the experience of 7% of female non-completers and 6% of female completers, compared with 3% of both these groups of young men. Being outside the labour force (and not studying full-time) for at least four out of seven post-school years was the experience of close to one-quarter of female non-completers (23%), but was considerably less common for female completers (7%), and quite rare for males (1 to 2%). Over half of the females in this pathway had children in or by their first post-school year (57%). By the seventh post-school year 86% had children. Each year between one-third and one-half of those in this pathway who did not have children gave their main activity as domestic duties. In each year, well over half of those in this pathway who did not have children said they would work if a job was available — that is they could be considered as marginally attached to the labour force.

Experiences associated with different pathways

As well as experiences of employment, training or study, there were other differences for young people following different pathways, including differences in job mobility, earnings, time spent unemployed and occupation. Job mobility was high among those young people who were in year 10 in the late 1980s and who did not enter higher education. Excluding those who were mainly unemployed or mainly not in the labour force, these young people on average had five jobs over seven post-school years. Job mobility was lowest (with an average of four jobs) among those who took either the full-time work pathway or the training pathway. Job mobility was highest for those in the pathway of extended interruption then work and the pathway of mainly part-time work (an average of over six jobs in each case.)

Of the pathways leading to full-time work, that of training then work resulted in the highest average weekly earnings seven years after leaving school ($570), followed by study then work ($543) and full-time work only ($522). Those who experienced either a brief (up to two years) or extended (up to four

years) interruption in the transition to full-time work had the lowest average weekly earnings seven years after leaving school ($503 and $449 respectively). Factors affecting the average earnings of these latter two groups may include a relative lack of work experience and of qualifications.

The average time spent unemployed was naturally highest for those in the pathway of being mainly unemployed (49 months). However, spending a relatively long period unemployed out of the seven post-school years was also a feature of other pathways. For those who experienced an extended interruption (over two but less than four years spent out of full-time work or full-time study), the average time spent unemployed was 16 months. The average time spent unemployed was 13 months for those mainly in part-time work, 11 months for those mainly not in the labour force and 9 months for those who experienced a brief interruption (up to two years when they were not in full-time work or study).

The occupations that people had seven years after school tended to vary by pathway. There were also differences in occupations between men and women in the same pathways, consistent with the general pattern of the workforce. Some pathways are strongly associated with certain types of occupation, the most obvious being that of the training and work pathway which was strongly associated with a skilled trade (66% of young men in this pathway and 55% of young women). However, skilled trades generally employ a greater number of men than women and many young men arrived in skilled trades by other pathways. For example, more than a quarter of young men in the pathways of brief or extended interruptions then full-time work were in a skilled trade occupation in the seventh post-school year. The study then work and the full-time work pathways were more strongly associated than other pathways with a managerial, professional or technical occupation, especially among young men (with 42% and 30% of young men in these respective pathways in this broad occupational group). Among young men the pathways of brief or extended interruption then full-time work were associated with being a labourer (19% and 25% respectively were labourers compared with around 10% of those in other pathways). The extended interruption then work pathway was also associated with being a labourer among young women (21% were labourers compared with 6% or less of women in other pathways).

Persons who were in year 10 in 1986–1989, who did not enter higher education: type of occupation(a) seven years after year 12(b) by pathway

	Pathway				
	Full-time work	*Training/ work*	*Study/ work*	*Brief interruption/ work*	*Extended interruption/ work*
Occupation	%	%	%	%	%
		Males			
Managerial/ professional/technical	30	9	42	19	20
Skilled trades	12	66	17	28	25
Clerical	11	1	6	5	6
Sales and service	23	5	19	18	22
Plant/machine operators	12	7	6	12	3
Labourers	12	10	10	19	25
Total	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
		Females			
Managerial/ professional/technical	19	5	24	22	10
Skilled trades	2	55	4	8	9
Clerical	42	20	41	24	30
Sales and service	30	15	27	40	33
Plant/machine operators	2	—	4	2	2
Labourers	6	5	—	4	21
Total	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**

(a) The occupational groups used in this ACER research may differ from those based on the Australian Standard Classification of Occupations, edition 2, used elsewhere in this publication.
(b) Seven years after the calendar year in which those who completed school were in year 12.

Source: Australian Council of Educational Research 2001, *Patterns of success and failure in the transition from school to work in Australia,* (LSAY Research report no. 18), ACER, Camberwell.

Undertaking higher education

The transitions to work of the 43% of year 10 students from the late 1980s who undertook higher education contrasted with those who did not undertake study of this type. About 6% of those who entered higher education either experienced extended interruptions in the path to work, or had not settled into the workforce after seven post-school years (and were not studying full-time). This contrasts with the 32% of those who did not enter higher education who were in such pathways. A further 17% of those who undertook higher education experienced a short period (less than 12 months) in activities other than full-time work or full-time study but were in the full-time workforce at the end of the study. However, most made a smooth transition to the full-time workforce, with 45% going straight from school to higher education and

then to the workforce; 9% following a similar path except that they initially deferred study for work; and 7% remaining in work for the whole seven years while studying part-time. Another 16% were still studying in the seventh post-school year.[5]

School leavers in the 1990s

More recent information on post-school activities is available, regarding young people who were in year 9 in 1995 (approximately 245,000 students according to the National Schools Statistics Collection).[2] Many of this group were available to enter the labour force between 1997 and 1999, if they did not go on to higher education. This information covers the activities of these young people from 1997 to 2000, or from ages 16 to 19 years in most cases. By 2000, 9% of those who had been in year 9 in 1995 had left school without beginning year 11 and 13% had begun either year 11 or 12 but had not completed year 12. The 79% who had completed year 12, comprised 38% who had entered higher education, and 41% who had not. Those who entered higher education had not completed degrees by 2000, so it is only possible to compare the early experiences in the labour force and education of school non-completers and completers who did not enter higher education.

In 2000, unemployment was more common for non-completers than completers (11% compared with 6%) and non-completers were also more likely than completers not to be in the labour force (9% compared with 4%). However, most non-completers had used the years when most of their contemporaries were at school to gain experience in the workforce, and many also gained qualifications. By 2000, 67% of non-completers were in full-time employment as were 61% of completers. Of those in full-time employment, non-completers had the higher median weekly income in 2000 ($430 for early school leavers, $400 for later school leavers and $350 for school completers). By 2000, non-completers also had lower job mobility than completers, with 67% of early school leavers and 63% of later school leavers in the same job as the previous year, compared with 57% of school completers. A greater proportion of non-completers than completers combined full-time work with some kind of study or training in 2000 (28% compared with 22%) and by 2000, 50% of early school leavers and 34% of later school leavers had completed some kind of qualification.

Earlier research from the longitudinal surveys has shown similar short-term advantages for non-completers. For example, if compared in the first few years after leaving school, those who left without completing year 12 had higher average earnings than completers. However, in the long-term, the average earnings of school completers overtook those of non-completers.[1]

Main annual activities of persons who had been in year 9 in 1995 who did not enter higher education

School completion status, main activity for year	*1997* %	*1998* %	*1999* %	*2000* %
Non-completer				
Still at school	39	4	—	—
Full-time study (after leaving school)	7	12	10	5
Full-time work	36	56	63	67
Full-time work and part-time study or training	20	31	28	28
Part-time work	6	9	9	8
Unemployed	8	13	11	11
Not in the labour force(a)	4	5	6	9
Total	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
Completers who did not enter higher education				
Still at school	100	100	5	—
Full-time study (after leaving school)	—	—	28	17
Full-time work	—	—	48	61
Full-time work and part-time study or training	—	—	20	22
Part-time work	—	—	11	12
Unemployed	—	—	6	6
Not in the labour force(a)	—	—	3	4
Total	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**

(a) Excluding full-time students.

Source: Australian Council of Educational Research 2003 *School leavers in Australia: profiles and pathways,* (LSAY Research report no. 31), ACER, Camberwell.

Endnotes

1 Australian Council for Educational Research (ACER) 2001, *Patterns of success and failure in the transition from school to work in Australia*, (LSAY Research report no. 18), ACER, Camberwell.

2 Australian Bureau of Statistics, *Schools Australia* (various issues), cat. no. 4221.0, ABS, Canberra.

3 Australian Council for Educational Research 2000, *Non-completion of school in Australia: the changing patterns of participation and outcomes*, (LSAY Research report no. 16), ACER, Camberwell.

4 Australian Council for Educational Research 2003, *School leavers in Australia: profiles and pathways,* (LSAY Research report no. 31), ACER, Camberwell.

5 Australian Council for Educational Research 2001, *The pathways from school to further study and work for Australian graduates* (LSAY Research report no. 19), ACER, Camberwell.

School teachers

EDUCATION AND WORK

Between 1982 and 2002, the student/teacher ratio in primary schools declined from 20.8 to 16.9 students per teacher.

Teachers play a key role in equipping children with the skills and knowledge they will need to participate fully in working and social life. In Australia, school education is compulsory for all children between the ages of 5 and 15 years (or 16 years in some states and territories). During the 1980s and 1990s, several factors contributed to an increasing demand for teachers. These included the trend for greater numbers of students to participate in school education beyond the minimum leaving age, and a commitment to achieving smaller class sizes, especially in primary schools, by state and territory governments.

While the number of school teachers relative to students increased over the 1990s, an ageing teaching workforce with many teachers nearing retirement has implications for how effectively the demand for school teachers can be met in the future. The supply of teachers is currently broadly in balance with the demand across Australia; however recruitment difficulties are being experienced in parts of rural and regional Australia, and in certain subject matter areas such as mathematics and science.[1]

Number of teachers

Over the 1980s and 1990s, governments sought to increase the number of teaching resources allocated per student, particularly in primary schools. Consistent with this, between 1982 and 2002, the total number of teachers in Australian schools increased by 34% to 255,100. In full-time equivalent terms, there were 225,400 teachers in 2002, an increase of 24% from 181,500 in 1982. This was greater than the increase in the number of full-time school students, which increased by 10% over the same period.

The increased numbers of full-time equivalent teachers relative to students was more marked for primary school teachers than for secondary school teachers. Over the 20 years to 2002, the full-time equivalent number of primary teachers increased by 30% to 114,400 while the full-time equivalent number of secondary teachers increased by 27% to 110,900. At the same time the student/teacher ratio in primary schools decreased from 20.8 to 16.9 students per teacher and the ratio for secondary schools decreased from 13.1 to

Teachers in schools

The data in this article are drawn largely from the National Schools Statistics Collection (NSSC). The NSSC is an annual census of schools in Australia and is published in *Schools, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4221.0).

The NSSC uses full-time equivalent (FTE) teachers in Australian schools as a measure of the total level of teaching staff resources. The FTE of a full-time staff member is equal to 1.0. The calculation of FTE for part-time staff is generally based on the proportion of time worked compared with full-time staff performing similar duties. However some states and territories base FTE calculations on wages, resource allocations or student/teacher numbers instead of time. All measures are broadly comparable.

Student/teacher ratios are calculated by dividing the number of full-time students by the number of FTE teachers. The ratio is not intended to provide a measure of class size.

Number of school teachers(a)

	1982		*2002*	
	Teachers(b)	*Student/teacher ratio(c)*	*Teachers*	*Student/teacher ratio(c)*
	'000	ratio	'000	ratio
Primary	88.3	20.8	114.4	16.9
Secondary	87.6	13.1	110.9	12.4
Government	142.2	16.1	153.0	14.8
Non-government	39.3	18.1	72.4	14.4

(a) Full-time equivalent.
(b) In 1982, special school teachers were identified separately and it is not possible to attribute them to either primary or secondary level.
(c) Number of full-time equivalent teachers per full-time student.

Source: Schools, Australia (ABS cat. no. 4221.0).

Non-government school teachers(a): affiliation of school

Affiliation	1982 '000	2002 '000	Change between 1982 and 2002 %
Catholic	27.9	41.7	49.5
Independent(b)	11.4	30.6	169.1
Total	***39.3***	***72.4***	***84.2***

(a) Full-time equivalent.
(b) Includes Anglican and Other.

Source: Schools, Australia (ABS cat. no. 4221.0).

12.4 students per teacher. In addition to changes in government policy, the increase in the number of teachers in secondary schools is also linked to rapid growth in the number of students staying on at school beyond the minimum leaving age towards the end of the 20th century. Between 1982 and 2002, apparent retention rates, from Year 7/8 to Year 12, increased from 36% to 75%.

In the 20 years to 2002, the non-government school system experienced much faster growth than the public education system. Over this period, the number of full-time equivalent teachers in non-government schools increased by 84%, while the number in government schools rose by 8%. The rise in the number of full-time equivalent teachers in non-government schools can be attributed to a 47% rise in the number of students in non-government schools between 1982 and 2002. In comparison, the number of government school students fell slightly over the same period. In 2002, the proportion of full-time equivalent teachers in non-government schools was 32%, up from 22% in 1982. This change was more pronounced at the secondary school level, where 37% of full-time equivalent secondary teachers were in non-government schools in 2002, compared with 24% in 1982.

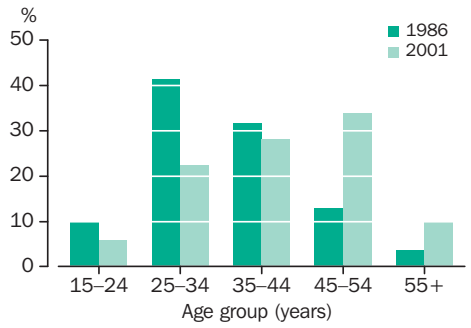
Of those full-time equivalent teachers in non-government schools in 2002, 58% were in Catholic schools, with the other 42% in Independent schools (including Anglican schools). However, the number of full-time equivalent teachers in Independent schools experienced the strongest growth between 1982 and 2002 (by 169%) while in Catholic schools the number increased by 50% over the same period.

Non-government schools also experienced the greatest decreases in student/teacher ratios at both the primary and secondary levels, with the number of students per teacher falling from 22.0 to 17.3 at the primary school level, and from 14.9 to 12.3 at the secondary school level. In government schools, the number of primary school students per teacher fell from 20.5 in 1982 to 16.7 in 2002, while in secondary schools, the number of students per teacher decreased slightly from 12.5 to 12.4.

Who teaches?

With fewer young people entering the teaching profession, concern has been raised about teacher shortages in coming years. In the 15 years to 2001, the age profile of teachers became older, with the median age of the teacher population rising from 34 years to 43 years over the period. In 2001, around one-quarter (28%) of all teachers were aged less than 35 years, a decrease from around half (51%) in 1986. Over the same period, the number of teachers aged 45 years and over increased from 17% to 44%.

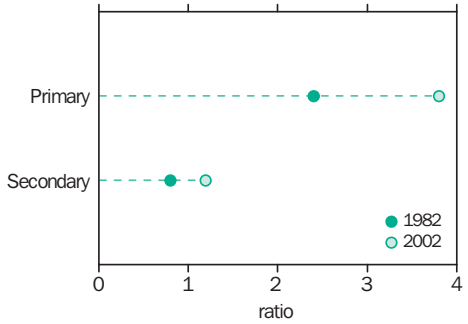
Age distribution of teachers(a)



(a) Comprises full-time, part-time and temporary teachers including those not working in schools.

Source: ABS 1986 and 2001 Censuses of Population and Housing.

Female/male ratios of school teachers(a)



(a) Full-time equivalent.

Source: Schools, Australia (ABS cat. no. 4221.0).

In addition, there has been much debate in recent years about the need to have both female and male teachers in schools. The issues surrounding the gender balance of teachers have been highlighted in recent years by both government and other commentators.[2, 3] The majority of school teachers are women, and the proportion of female teachers increased steadily over the 20 years to 2002. In full-time equivalent terms, there were 2.1 female teachers for every male teacher in 2002, up from 1.4 in 1982. The female/male ratio was most pronounced at the primary school level where there were 3.8 female teachers for every male teacher in 2002, increasing from 2.4 in 1982. The gender balance was more equal at the secondary school level, with 1.2 female teachers for every male teacher in 2002, up from 0.8 in 1982.

Further, the population of male teachers is slightly older than that of female teachers. In 2001, there was a greater proportion of male teachers aged 45 years and over (49%) than female teachers in this age group (42%). Almost one-third (30%) of female teachers were aged less than 35 years in 2001, compared with 24% of male teachers.

Where do they teach?

The distribution of teachers across Australia largely mirrors the distribution of the total population (see *Australian Social Trends 2003*, Population characteristics and remoteness, pp. 7–11). In 2001, 63% of all teachers were teaching in Major Cities, with most of the remainder teaching in Inner and Outer Regional Areas (34%).

Of all primary level teachers, 3% were teaching in Remote or Very Remote Areas, compared with 2% of all secondary teachers. This difference reflects the migration of older students from these areas to Regional Areas or Major Cities (see *Australian Social Trends 2003*, Youth migration within Australia, pp. 22–25).

Remoteness Areas

This article uses the ABS Remoteness classification to examine the characteristics of school teachers 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 — Australian Standard Geographical Classification (ASGC), 2001* (ABS cat. no. 1216.0).

In 2001, 75% of the teachers in Remote and Very Remote areas were female, compared with 72% of teachers in Major Cities and 69% of teachers in Inner and Outer Regional areas.

Teacher qualifications

In addition to changes in the demographic characteristics of teachers, the nature of the teaching profession has changed in a number of ways. While the overall number of people graduating from university increased over the decade to 2001, the number of people completing a university qualification in the field of teacher education decreased by 13% (to 19,400 in 2001). Three-quarters of people who completed university courses in 2001 in the field of teacher education were women. Similar patterns occur in the number of people commencing and continuing study in teacher education courses. In 2002, there were 72,400 people studying a university course in the field of teacher education, including 30,900 people who commenced in 2002. Almost three-quarters of these students were women.[4]

However, there are many people with teaching qualifications who are not employed as teachers or in associated occupations. In 2002, almost 18% of people aged 15–64 years with a teaching qualification were not in the

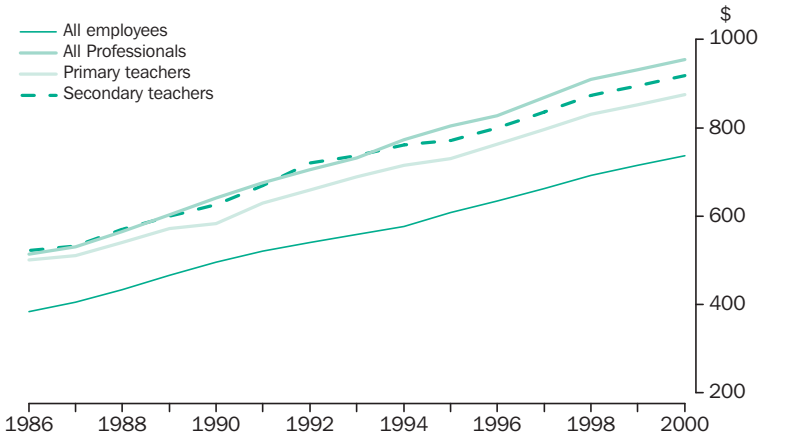
Location of teachers(a) — 2001

	Major Cities	*Inner Regional*	*Outer Regional*	*Remote*	*Very Remote*	*Australia(b)*
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Primary	61.8	23.1	11.7	2.3	1.1	100.0
Secondary	64.7	22.6	10.6	1.5	0.6	100.0

(a) Comprises full-time, part-time and temporary teachers and those not working in schools who worked in the week prior to census night.
(b) Includes persons in Migratory category.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

Average weekly ordinary time earnings of full-time adult non-managerial employees: selected occupations



Source: ABS Survey of Employee Earnings and Hours.

labour force. Almost 82% of people with teaching qualifications were employed, with only a small proportion being unemployed. Of those who were employed in 2002, over one-third (35%) were employed in occupations other than teaching or teaching-related occupations.

Working as a teacher

Changes in the wages and working conditions of teachers over time can impact on the number of people choosing to enter the teaching profession. In 1999, 81% of teachers (excluding temporary — relief and casual — teachers) were employed on a permanent full-time basis, and 10% on a permanent part-time basis. The remainder were employed under fixed term contracts. While most teachers were employed on a permanent basis, female teachers were almost twice as likely as male teachers to be employed on contract (14% and 8% respectively).[5]

Over the 15 years to 2000, the average weekly ordinary time earnings of full-time adult non-managerial secondary teachers increased by 76% to $918, while for primary teachers earnings increased by 75% to $875 in 2000. In comparison, the average weekly ordinary time earnings of all full-time adult non-managerial Professionals increased by 86% in this period (to $954).

In the week prior to census night 2001, 35% of Australian teachers had worked between 40 and 49 hours, and 19% had worked more than 50 hours. Male teachers tended to work longer hours than female teachers, with 25% reporting that they worked 50 hours or more in the preceding week, compared with 17% of female teachers.

Endnotes

1 Conference of Education Systems Chief Executive Officers National Teacher Supply and Demand Working Party 2001, *Demand and Supply of Primary and Secondary School Teachers in Australia,* <http://www.curriculum.edu.au/mceetya/public/pub326.htm>, accessed 13 May 2003.

2 House of Representatives Standing Committee on Education and Training 2002, *Boys: Getting it Right — Report on the inquiry into the education of boys*, the Parliament of the Commonwealth of Australia, Canberra.

3 Buckingham, J. 2002, 'Getting it Right Some of the Time — An Appraisal of the Report on the Inquiry into the Education of Boys', *Issue Analysis*, no. 27, pp. 1–4.

4 Department of Education, Science and Training 2003, Higher Education Statistics Collection.

5 Dempster, N., Sim, C., Beere, D. and Logan, L. 2000, *Teachers in Australian Schools 1999: The Fourth National Study*, Centre for Leadership and Management in Education, Faculty of Education, Griffith University.

Work-related training

EDUCATION AND WORK

In 2001, 4.6 million people in the labour force completed one or more work-related training courses, an increase of 67% (almost 2 million people) since 1993.

Completion of work-related training by employees has become increasingly valued as a means of achieving economic growth and productivity, job security and advancement in the workplace.[1] The past decade has seen the Australian labour force undergo many changes, with increased emphasis on multi-skilling, the broadening of job descriptions and more diverse working arrangements (see *Australian Social Trends 2001*, Changes experienced at work, pp. 125–128). The late 1980s saw a shift toward emphasis on education and training, with the Australian government recognising that developing skills in the labour force would promote economic growth and improve Australia's international competitiveness (see *Australian Social Trends 1995*, Employee training, pp. 81–84).

Participation in work-related training (courses and on-the-job training) by employees increased by around 6% from 1989 to 1993, a period that saw the introduction of the Training Guarantee Legislation in 1990. Participation rose more rapidly between 1993 and 2001, reflecting increased requirements for technical and professional skills in the work force.

Participation in work-related training by persons in the labour force(a)

	1993	*1997*	*2001*
	%	%	%
Undertook work-related training(b)(c)	73.8	72.8	75.2
Completed a work-related training course	29.8	41.6	44.6
Did on-the-job training	70.7	65.5	68.8
Did not undertake work-related training(d)	26.2	27.2	24.8
	million	million	million
Total	**9.2**	**9.4**	**10.3**

(a) Includes persons who were marginally attached to the labour force, excluding those aged 15–20 years (for the 1993 and 1997 survey) and 15–24 years (for the 2001 survey) who were still at school.
(b) People may have undertaken more than one type of training and therefore components do not add to total persons in the labour force.
(c) In the 12 months prior to the survey.
(d) Includes persons who started training courses in the 12 months prior to the survey but did not complete them.

Source: Education and Training Experience, Australia, 2001 (ABS cat. no. 6278.0).

Participation in work-related training

The data in this article come from the ABS Survey of Education, Training and Information Technology conducted in 2001, and the 1997 Survey of Education and Training. Figures represent work-related training completed within the 12 months prior to the survey.

The surveys provide information on participation in work-related training by persons aged 15–64 years. Most of the data presented in this article refer to training undertaken by wage or salary earners.

Data on training course completions were collected for a maximum of four training courses per person.

Wage or salary earners, as defined by the Survey of Education, Training and Information Technology, are those persons who work for an employer for wages or salary in their main job, excluding persons working in their own business.

Individuals *in the labour force* are people who, during the reference week, were employed, or unemployed and actively looking for work. In this article this group includes those *marginally attached to the labour force*.

Work-related training refers to activities that are undertaken primarily to obtain, maintain or improve employment-related skills or competencies. It can be further divided into work-related training courses and on-the-job training (i.e. 'learn-as-you-go' training).

Completion of work-related training courses

In 2001, 4.6 million people in the labour force completed one or more work-related training courses, an increase of 67% (almost 2 million participants) since 1993. During this period, the proportion of all people in the labour force who completed a work-related training course increased from 30% to 45%, while the proportion of those doing on-the-job training decreased slightly. This change reflects increasing importance being placed on the completion of formalised, structured courses, with Australia's training system now based on nationally agreed industry competencies, qualifications and assessment.[2] Employers are encouraged to deal with registered training organisations (RTOs), as they provide nationally recognised training.

Who completes work-related training courses?

In 2001, most work-related training courses were completed by people who were wage and salary earners at the time of training (84%). Courses completed by people working in their own business or under other arrangements made up 12% of work-related training completed, with a further 4% of courses completed by individuals who were not working. The remainder of this article focuses on the 8.3 million training courses completed by wage and salary earners in 2001.

While an equal proportion of work-related training courses were completed by men and women in 2001, training was more likely to be undertaken during the early to middle stages of a person's career. Almost 78% of all training courses were completed by wage and salary earners aged 25–54 years. Training courses were less likely to be undertaken or completed by individuals at the beginning of their working experience (16% among 15–24 years) and closer to the age of retirement (6% among 55–64 years).

Training course completions by wage and salary earners — 2001

	Proportion of training course completions(a)	*Change in course completions 1997–2001*
Occupation Group(b)(skill level(c))	%	%
Managers and administrators (1)	7.6	15.0
Professionals (1)	30.3	7.2
Associate professionals (2)	13.8	26.7
Tradespersons and related workers (3)	8.4	8.7
Advanced clerical and service (3)	3.2	7.1
Intermediate clerical, sales and service (4)	19.2	16.3
Intermediate production and transport (4)	5.6	19.7
Elementary clerical, sales and service (5)	8.0	33.2
Labourers and related workers (5)	4.0	11.8
Sector of employment(b)		
Public	34.9	1.5
Private	65.1	23.8
Employment type(b)		
Full-time	76.2	7.9
Part-time	23.8	49.1
Total(d)	**100.0**	. .
	'000	%
Total(e)	**8 261.6**	**14.7**

(a) In the 12 months prior to the survey, by persons who were wage and salary earners at the time of training.
(b) Relates to occupation in job of main period of employment over the previous 12 months.
(c) Skill level ranked from 1 (the highest) to 5 (the lowest) based on the ASCO – *Australian Classification of Occupations, Second Edition* (ABS cat. no. 1220.0).
(d) Responses not determined were excluded prior to the calculation of percentages.
(e) Includes responses not determined.

Source: ABS 1997 Survey of Education and Training; *Education and Training Experience, Australia, 2001* (ABS cat. no. 6278.0).

Employment characteristics

The distribution of work-related training course completions varies across different occupation groups. In 2001, Professionals and Intermediate clerical, sales and service workers completed the most work-related training courses (30% and 19% respectively).

Variation in the number of work-related training course completions between occupation groups partly reflects their differing sizes. For example, as Professionals and Associate professionals together made up the largest occupation group of employees in 2001 (around 30%),[3] they also completed the highest proportion of training courses (44%). However, patterns of training course completions are also likely to be related to differing demands for skill and knowledge development in certain occupations groups. For example, lower skilled occupations such as Labourers and related workers (completing 4% of all courses) may develop skills on the job rather than through formal training courses.

Between 1997 and 2001, the number of training course completions increased for each of the broad occupation groups. Most notably, work-related training course completions increased by 33% for Elementary clerical, sales and service workers and 27% for Associate professionals.

The number of work-related training course completions by part-time wage and salary earners increased by almost 50% between 1997 and 2001. This may be attributed to the steady rise in part-time employment within the labour force over the same period.[3]

Employer characteristics

In 2001, 35% of work-related training courses were completed by wage and salary earners employed within the public sector, although this sector accounted for 20% of all wage and salary earners in the labour force.[4] In contrast, the private sector made up 80% of wage and salary earners in 2001 but accounted for 65% of training course completions. These differences can largely be attributed to the occupational composition of each sector.

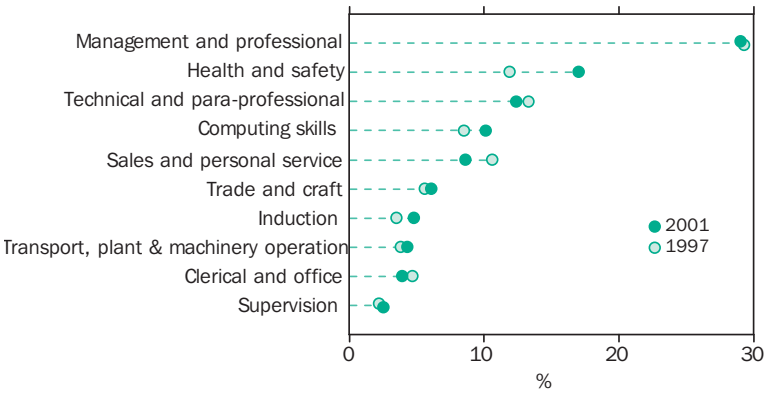
Small businesses (i.e. those with fewer than 20 workers) are less likely than other businesses to offer work-related training. Although in 2001, 38% of wage and salary earners (working within the private sector) were employed by small businesses,[4] only 13% of course completions were from this group. On the other hand, 87% of all work-related training courses over the same period were completed by wage and salary earners in larger businesses, which may have a greater need for standard training across their organisations, as well as the resources to support such training.

Field of work-related training

Completion of training courses in specific fields reflects industry needs for certain skills and expertise in particular areas. In 2001, 29% of all work-related training course completions were in the Management and professional field. However, completions of Health and safety training courses increased most rapidly between 1997 and 2001, from 12% to 17%. This may reflect more attention being placed on health and safety issues in the workplace than in the past.

In 2001, lower proportions of work-related training course completions were recorded in fields such as Trade and craft, Transport, plant and machinery operation, and Clerical and office. Where skills required are lower, and/or labour with skills needed is in abundance, employers may be less likely to offer work-related training.[5] It has also been suggested that there is a lower return on investment in training for employers who largely rely on contracted labour (such as trade work), due to the more transient nature of contract employment.[5]

Training course completions(a): field of training



(a) In the 12 months prior to the survey, by persons who were wage and salary earners at the time of training.

Source: ABS 1997 Survey of Education and Training; ABS 2001 Survey of Education, Training and Information Technology.

Vocational education and training

Although many Australians participate in employer provided work-related training, vocational education and training (VET) programs also represent a major source of work-related training. VET is education and training for work. It aims to recognise and develop competencies and skills of learners, and assist participants to achieve nationally-recognised qualifications.[2] VET is an industry-led system in Australia, developing industry-recognised training packages under the leadership of the Australian National Training Authority (ANTA).

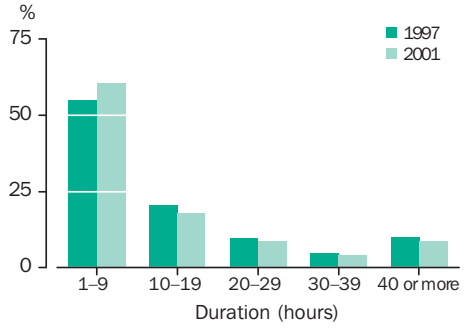
In May 2001, there were over 4,000 registered training organisations, including Technical and Further Education (TAFE) institutes, private training and assessment organisations, universities, schools and adult education providers.[2] Close to 1.8 million people (13% of Australia's working age population) participated in VET in 2001, 78% more participants than in 1991. Within the VET field, most study undertaken in 2001 was in the areas of Business, administration, and economics (20%), Service, hospitality and transportation (13%) and Engineering and surveying (12%).[6]

Time spent on work-related training

Most work-related training courses are relatively short in duration, with 60% of course completions in 2001 being undertaken in less than 10 hours. Completions of shorter courses (i.e. less than 10 hours) increased by 26% between 1997 and 2001, accounting for the overall increase in work-related training course completions over the same period. The number of course completions with a duration of 10 hours or more remained stable.

Consistent with this trend, the average duration of courses completed by wage and salary earners fell from 20.6 hours to 17.4 hours between 1997 and 2001. Across

Time spent on each training course(a)



(a) Completed in the 12 months prior to the survey, by persons who were wage and salary earners at the time of training.

Source: ABS 1997 Survey of Education and Training; ABS 2001 Survey of Education, Training and Information Technology.

industries, Communication services and Government administration and defence were the only industry groups that experienced an increase in the average duration of courses completed by wage and salary earners between 1997 and 2001 (up by 2.1 and 4.1 hours respectively).

Training course costs and support

Participation in work-related training is largely supported by employers who, in most cases, bear the costs in terms of time and money. In 2001, 77% of training course completions were undertaken wholly during work time with a further 7% undertaken in both work and own time. The financial costs of training were incurred by participants for 7% of all course completions. For those courses that involved a cost to the participant, the average expenditure was slightly higher in 2001 than in 1997 ($272 per course, compared with $243). The average cost of training course completions for men was substantially higher than for women ($374 compared with $199 per course). This variation is likely to be related to the differing types of courses men and women complete, and the fields in which they tend to be employed.

Training course completions(a): training support received and costs of training

	1997	*2001*
When training course conducted	%	%
In work time	74.7	77.2
In own time	18.1	15.8
In both work and own time	7.1	7.0
Whether employee incurred a cost		
Yes	8.2	6.8
No	91.8	93.2
Whether employee received employer financial support(b)		
External training course(c)		
Received employer financial support	19.4	19.2
No employer support	10.4	7.8
Internal training course	70.2	73.0
Total training courses	**100.0**	**100.0**
	'000	'000
Total training courses	**7 205.8**	**8 261.6**

(a) In the 12 months prior to the survey, by persons who were wage and salary earners at the time of training.
(b) Relates to main employer during the period.
(c) Training course mainly attended by people not working for the person's employer or business at the time of training.

Source: ABS 1997 Survey of Education and Training; ABS 2001 Survey of Education, Training and Information Technology.

Training of unemployed persons

Participation in work-related training provides essential work-related skills, not only for employed persons, but also for those who are preparing to enter or re-enter the workforce. Of the 4.8 million people who completed a work-related training course in 2001, almost 400,000 people were not working at the time of training. A greater proportion of those participants aged 20–24 reported that training helped to obtain a job (44%) compared with all other age groups (20%).

Vocational education and training (VET) is a major resource for unemployed persons and those not in the labour force, assisting them to obtain practical work-related skills. In 2001, 14% of all VET courses were undertaken by unemployed persons, and 12% by people not in the labour force.[7] During the previous year, 50% of Technical and Further Education (TAFE) graduates, who were unemployed before their course, found work within six months of completing their training.[8]

The Australian government has implemented various strategies to encourage participation in, and assist in the provision of, work-related training for the unemployed. 'Training credits' assist unemployed people working for the dole by providing funding for employment training.[9] Similarly, 'Training accounts' are offered to assist mature age and Indigenous job seekers, to access funding for training. 'Transition to work' programs are also offered to provide financial assistance to the long-term unemployed, to develop skills through training similar to that offered by TAFE institutions.[10]

Most work-related training courses completed were internal courses (i.e. courses were mainly attended by people working for the person's employer at the time of training). Of the 27% of training courses that were external, almost three-quarters were completed by participants who received some financial support. In 2001, support for training was provided mainly through employers paying for training fees (14% of courses) and providing paid study leave (13% of courses, double the proportion in 1997). Government administration and defence industries provided the most support for external training in 2001, funding 85% of external course completions within that industry. Accommodation, cafes and restaurants, and Culture and recreation industries provided the lowest proportion of financial support compared with other industries, funding 63% of external course completions within those industries.

Outcomes of training courses

While training involves an investment of both time and money, it also usually results in benefits to both employers and employees. For employees, training often provides the relevant skills and knowledge to remain

Training course completions(a): outcomes of training — 2001

	Skills are transferable	*Helped obtain promotion/pay rise*
Age group (years)	%	%
15–19	93.5	8.1
20–24	91.0	13.6
25–34	88.2	11.0
35–44	89.4	6.4
45–54	88.0	5.7
55–64	88.7	5.4
Sex		
Males	88.6	10.3
Females	89.5	6.5
All persons	**89.1**	**8.4**

(a) In the 12 months prior to the survey, by persons who were wage and salary earners at the time of training.

Source: Education and Training Experience, Australia, 2001, (ABS cat. no. 6278.0).

competitive in today's labour market. In 2001, 89% of training courses were completed by wage and salary earners who considered skills gained from training to be transferable to a similar job with another employer. Overall, 8% of courses were reported to have helped obtain a promotion or pay rise, with younger people (aged 20–34 years), having the highest proportion at 55%.

Persons experiencing barriers to accessing work-related training courses — 2001(a)

	Males	*Females*	*Persons*
Selected main reasons did not complete training courses although wanted to(b)	%	%	%
Too much work	22.7	13.8	18.4
No time	18.4	16.1	17.2
Financial reasons	12.6	15.0	13.7
Personal or family reasons	7.2	20.6	13.7
Lack of employer support	14.0	10.2	12.1
Course-related reasons	11.6	10.8	11.2
Other work-related reasons	5.1	3.6	4.4
Total(c)	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	'000	'000	'000
Total	**1 497.3**	**1 434.2**	**2 931.6**

(a) Excludes persons currently studying at school.
(b) Includes persons who attended a training course, but wanted to undertake additional training courses.
(c) Includes other reasons.

Source: Education and Training Experience, Australia, 2001 (ABS cat. no. 6278.0).

Access to training courses

Although 4.8 million people participated in work-related training courses, others experienced difficulty in gaining access to training courses. In 2001, almost 3 million Australians indicated they were unable to undertake the work-related training courses they desired. Limited access to training was most likely to be due to 'too much work', reported as the main reason by 18% of respondents, or 'no time' (17%).

The main barriers for accessing work-related training courses for men and women differed, with 23% of men claiming to have 'too much work' as the main reason, while 21% of women reported 'personal/family' reasons. Barriers to accessing training also differed across age groups. For example, people aged 20–24 years reported not having enough time (18%) or 'financial reasons' (17%) as the main barriers, while people aged 25–44 years reported 'too much work' (19%) as the main reason for limited access to training courses.

Endnotes

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10 Centrelink, *Transition to work factsheet,* <http://www.centrelink.gov.au>, accessed 1 September 2002.

Work

Work: national summary

LABOUR FORCE	Units	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
1 Total labour force	'000	8 514	8 569	8 690	8 881	9 061	9 169	9 256	9 395	9 574	9 755	9 889
2 Females – of total labour force	%	41.9	41.9	42.3	42.7	43.0	43.1	43.2	43.3	43.6	43.9	44.0
3 Participation rate	%	62.9	62.6	62.7	63.3	63.6	63.4	63.1	63.1	63.4	63.7	63.7
4 Males	%	74.3	73.8	73.6	r73.7	73.8	73.4	72.9	72.8	72.5	72.5	72.4
5 Females	%	51.9	51.7	52.2	53.2	53.8	53.8	53.6	53.8	54.5	r55.1	55.3
6 Females with children aged 0–4	%	46.6	r47.6	46.1	49.3	47.4	47.7	48.2	47.1	49.3	49.8	49.2
7 Persons aged 15–19	%	55.7	r55.0	55.8	r58.7	r59.1	r58.9	r57.6	r58.2	59.3	r60.0	59.6
8 Persons aged 20–24	%	r82.5	r82.0	82.1	r82.7	83.0	82.5	r81.9	r82.1	82.2	r82.2	81.8
9 Median age of male labour force	years	r36	r36	r36	r36	r37	r37	r37	r37	r37	38	38
10 Median age of female labour force	years	r34	r35	r35	r35	r36	r36	r36	r36	r37	r37	37

EMPLOYED PEOPLE	Units	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
11 Total employed	'000	7 659	7 655	7 802	8 113	8 324	8 404	8 519	8 703	8 940	9 130	9 232
12 Proportion of the total population in work	%	44.0	43.5	43.9	45.2	45.7	45.6	45.7	46.2	46.9	47.4	47.3
Part-time work												
13 Persons employed part-time – of total employed	%	23.1	23.7	r23.9	24.5	24.7	25.3	25.7	26.1	26.3	26.7	27.9
14 Males employed part-time – of total males employed	%	9.8	10.3	10.5	11.0	11.1	11.8	12.1	12.6	12.6	13.4	14.4
15 Females employed part-time – of total females employed	%	r41.3	r41.8	42.2	42.6	42.6	43.1	43.5	43.6	r43.8	43.6	45.2
16 Females employed part-time – of total part-time employed	%	75.6	75.0	74.9	74.5	74.5	73.6	73.3	72.6	72.9	71.9	71.3
17 Average hours worked per week by persons employed part-time	hours	r14.9	r14.9	r15.0	15.3	15.2	15.4	15.5	15.6	15.7	r15.7	15.8
18 Persons employed part-time who prefer more hours – of all part-time employed	%	26.4	29.2	28.3	26.1	26.1	26.2	25.8	25.1	23.9	24.3	27.3
19 Persons employed part-time who worked 15 hours or less per week – of all part-time employed	%	r53.4	53.4	52.8	51.8	52.1	r51.2	50.8	50.8	49.8	49.6	49.2
Full-time work												
20 Average hours worked per week by persons employed full-time	hours	40.6	40.3	40.7	40.9	40.5	41.0	41.2	41.1	41.4	40.7	40.8
21 Persons employed full-time working 50 hours or more per week – of all full-time employed	%	22.1	22.4	23.7	24.3	23.7	r24.3	24.9	24.9	25.5	23.9	24.3
22 Employees without leave entitlements – of all employees	%	22.3	22.7	23.7	24.0	26.1	25.8	26.9	26.4	27.3	r27.2	27.3
23 Males employed without leave entitlements – of all male employees	%	15.6	16.4	18.1	18.5	21.2	20.9	22.6	22.0	23.0	r23.6	23.5
24 Females employed without leave entitlements – of all female employees	%	30.9	30.6	30.8	30.8	32.0	31.7	32.0	31.8	32.3	r31.5	31.6
25 Employers and own account workers – of total employed	%	15.0	15.2	15.2	14.6	14.6	13.9	14.3	13.6	13.5	13.2	13.2
Industry												
26 Employed in service industries – of total employed	%	71.1	70.8	71.0	r71.7	r72.3	72.6	r72.9	r73.6	73.1	73.7	74.0
27 Employed in manufacturing industry – of total employed	%	14.2	14.3	14.1	13.8	13.4	13.5	r13.3	12.5	12.5	12.5	11.9
Occupation												
28 Employed in highest skill (ASCO Skill Level 1) occupations(a) – of total employed	%	24.6	24.9	24.9	24.7	24.8	24.5	25.1	25.2	25.1	25.5	26.3
29 Employed in lowest skill (ASCO Skill Level 5) occupations(a) – of total employed	%	22.1	21.8	22.0	22.0	21.8	20.4	20.4	20.3	19.7	19.6	19.0
30 Females – of all employed in highest skill (ASCO Skill Level 1) occupations(a)	%	34.7	34.9	35.0	35.0	35.5	41.4	41.2	40.8	41.9	42.5	42.3

Work: national summary continued

WORKPLACE RELATIONS	Units	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
31 Trade union members – of all employees	%	39.6	37.6	35.0	32.7	31.1	30.3	28.1	25.7	24.7	24.5	23.1
32 Working days lost due to industrial disputes (per 1,000 employees)	days	147	100	76	79	131	75	72	87	61	50	32
33 Pay set by collective agreements – of all employees	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	36.7	n.a.	38.2
34 Pay set by individual agreements – of all employees	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	40.0	n.a.	41.3

UNEMPLOYMENT	Units	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
35 Total unemployed	'000	854.8	914.1	888.5	768.6	736.5	764.9	737.8	691.7	634.5	625.5	656.8
36 Long-term unemployed – of total unemployed	%	27.4	33.7	34.6	32.3	27.5	27.0	29.3	29.7	26.7	23.4	19.5
37 Long-term unemployed – of total labour force	%	2.8	3.6	3.5	2.8	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.2	1.8	1.5	1.3
38 Unemployment rate	%	10.0	10.7	10.2	8.7	8.1	8.3	8.0	7.4	6.6	6.4	6.6
39 Males	%	10.6	r11.5	10.7	8.9	8.5	8.6	8.2	7.6	6.7	6.7	6.9
40 Females	%	9.3	9.6	r9.6	8.3	7.6	8.0	7.6	7.1	6.5	r6.1	6.3
41 Capital cities	%	10.1	10.7	10.1	8.7	8.1	8.2	7.6	6.7	6.3	6.1	6.3
42 Balance of states and territories	%	10.8	11.5	11.3	9.4	9.0	9.6	9.6	7.9	8.1	7.7	7.3
Unemployed looking for full-time work												
43 Of all persons aged 15–19	%	9.1	8.9	8.6	7.3	7.1	6.9	6.5	5.7	5.0	5.0	5.2
44 Of all persons aged 20–24	%	11.3	11.6	10.8	8.7	8.5	8.9	8.6	7.6	6.3	6.4	6.6
45 Median duration of unemployment – males	weeks	r30	r31	r30	r26	r22	r24	r24	r22	r21	r18	20
46 Median duration of unemployment – females	weeks	r23	r24	r22	21	r17	r17	r18	r15	r12	r17	14
47 Retrenchment rate	%	6.4	n.a.	5.4	n.a.	4.6	n.a.	4.4	n.a.	4.0	n.a.	3.9
48 Persons previously retrenched and currently employed – of all retrenched	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	54.7	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	67.2	n.y.a.
Labour force underutilisation												
49 Labour force underutilisation rate	%	n.a.	n.a.	14.1	13.8	13.8	13.6	13.0	11.8	10.9	12.5	11.9
50 Extended labour force underutilisation rate	%	n.a.	n.a.	15.5	15.1	15.2	15.0	14.3	13.2	r12.2	13.6	13.0

NOT IN THE LABOUR FORCE	Units	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
51 Marginally attached	'000	846.4	907.8	773.3	862.8	879.6	890.5	922.6	883.2	823.9	816.5	808.1
52 Discouraged jobseekers	'000	145.6	147.4	106.5	111.9	118.9	118.4	110.9	105.8	106.5	81.7	78.0

TRANSITION TO RETIREMENT	Units	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Persons aged 55–64												
53 Participation rate – males	%	61.6	60.8	61.3	61.4	60.8	60.5	60.4	60.9	60.8	61.1	61.8
54 Participation rate – females	%	25.2	25.6	27.3	27.9	30.1	31.1	31.6	32.0	34.6	36.1	38.4
55 Males employed part-time – of all employed males aged 55–64	%	13.0	12.8	12.4	13.5	13.1	13.8	14.7	14.9	13.9	15.8	16.3
56 Females employed part-time – of all employed females aged 55–64	%	49.9	50.1	50.2	50.7	49.8	51.2	49.6	51.0	51.3	51.3	52.3

(a) Australian Standard Classification of Occupation (ASCO) second edition was introduced in August 1996. Data prior to this date are concorded with ASCO second edition at the major group level.

Reference periods: All data are annual averages for the year ending 30 June except: labour force participation of females with children (June); median age of labour force (June); employees without leave entitlements (August); occupation and trade union membership (August); working days lost due to industrial disputes (year ending 31 December); pay set by collective and individual agreements (May); median duration of unemployment (June); retrenchment rate (February); persons previously retrenched and currently employed (July); labour force underutilisation (September); not in the labour force data (September).

Work: state summary

LABOUR FORCE	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
1 Total labour force	'000	2001–2002	3 276	2 489	1 875	736	1 013	217	106	176	9 889
2 Females – of total labour force	%	2001–2002	43.8	43.8	44.3	44.3	43.3	44.3	44.0	47.3	44.0
3 Participation rate	%	2001–2002	62.6	63.7	65.0	60.6	66.5	58.3	74.3	71.6	63.7
4 Males	%	2001–2002	71.4	72.9	73.3	68.9	75.4	66.8	80.1	77.1	72.4
5 Females	%	2001–2002	54.1	54.9	57.0	52.6	57.6	50.2	68.0	66.3	55.3
6 Females with children aged 0–4	%	2001–2002	49.4	48.2	49.9	51.2	46.3	43.6	57.7	61.9	49.2
7 Persons aged 15–19	%	2001–2002	54.6	57.8	66.6	61.4	66.5	55.3	56.5	61.3	59.6
8 Persons aged 20–24	%	2001–2002	81.2	82.0	82.9	81.9	81.1	80.5	77.5	84.3	81.8
9 Median age of male labour force	years	2002	38	38	38	38	38	39	37	37	38
10 Median age of female labour force	years	2002	37	37	37	38	37	39	35	37	37

EMPLOYED PEOPLE	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
11 Total employed	'000	2001–2002	3 075	2 333	1 727	685	947	198	99	168	9 232
12 Proportion of the total population in work	%	2001–2002	46.8	48.0	47.2	45.4	49.2	42.1	50.9	54.0	47.3
Part-time work											
13 Persons employed part-time – of total employed	%	2001–2002	26.5	27.9	28.5	31.0	29.7	30.9	25.9	26.0	27.9
14 Males employed part-time – of total males employed	%	2001–2002	13.8	14.1	14.8	15.6	14.3	14.4	19.1	16.0	14.4
15 Females employed part-time – of total females employed	%	2001–2002	42.7	45.4	45.6	50.0	49.6	51.0	34.6	37.0	45.2
16 Females employed part-time – of total part-time employed	%	2001–2002	70.8	71.5	71.0	72.1	72.8	74.3	58.9	67.9	71.3
17 Average hours worked per week by persons employed part-time	hours	2001–2002	16.0	15.2	16.1	16.2	15.6	15.3	17.8	15.9	15.8
18 Persons employed part-time who prefer more hours – of all part-time employed	%	2001–2002	25.9	26.1	31.9	29.1	26.8	27.1	15.0	24.3	27.3
19 Persons employed part-time who worked 15 hours or less per week – of all part-time employed	%	2001–2002	47.5	52.3	48.0	49.4	50.3	51.5	31.6	48.2	49.2
Full-time work											
20 Average hours worked per week by persons employed full-time	hours	2001–2002	41.0	40.3	41.4	40.6	41.1	39.8	41.1	39.0	40.8
21 Persons employed full-time working 50 hours or more per week – of all full-time employed	%	2001–2002	24.3	23.1	26.6	23.2	25.2	21.6	25.4	19.5	24.3
22 Employees without leave entitlements – of all employees	%	2002	26.2	25.9	30.8	30.2	27.0	27.4	22.6	22.6	27.3
23 Males employed without leave entitlements – of all male employees	%	2002	22.4	22.8	26.6	24.1	23.9	21.9	23.9	19.7	23.5
24 Females employed without leave entitlements – of all female employees	%	2002	30.7	29.4	35.7	37.2	30.6	33.6	21.1	25.5	31.6
25 Employers and own account workers – of total employed	%	2001–2002	12.6	11.9	15.2	15.0	14.8	13.7	8.4	8.1	13.2
Industry											
26 Employed in service industries – of total employed	%	2001–2002	75.7	72.1	73.3	71.7	72.7	72.9	83.4	91.0	74.0
27 Employed in manufacturing industries – of total employed	%	2001–2002	11.3	15.1	10.6	13.9	9.6	10.8	4.7	3.2	11.9
Occupation											
28 Employed in highest skill (ASCO Skill Level 1) occupations(a) – of total employed	%	2002	27.7	28.4	22.4	24.8	24.1	23.2	24.5	36.2	26.3
29 Employed in lowest skill (ASCO Skill Level 5) occupations(a) – of total employed	%	2002	17.7	18.2	21.5	21.0	19.3	22.5	22.8	14.4	19.0
30 Females – of all employed in highest skill (ASCO Skill Level 1) occupations(a)	%	2002	41.4	42.4	43.5	43.1	42.1	41.7	49.7	43.4	42.3

Work: state summary continued

WORKPLACE RELATIONS	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
31 Trade union members – of all employees	%	2002	23.7	22.7	23.0	26.4	18.7	30.6	24.2	21.8	23.1
32 Working days lost due to industrial disputes (per 1,000 employees)	days	2002	27	46	30	18	40	20	8	7	32
33 Pay set by collective agreements – of all employees	%	2002	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	43.3	44.4	34.4	35.8	48.8	29.3	38.6	30.4	41.3

UNEMPLOYMENT	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
35 Total unemployed	'000	2001–2002	201.3	155.6	148.2	51.8	65.6	19.0	7.2	8.1	656.8
36 Long-term unemployed – of total unemployed	%	2001–2002	19.7	18.2	19.4	25.3	15.3	32.5	12.1	16.5	19.5
37 Long-term unemployed – of total labour force	%	2001–2002	1.2	1.1	1.5	1.8	1.0	2.8	0.8	0.8	1.3
38 Unemployment rate	%	2001–2002	6.1	6.3	7.9	7.0	6.5	8.8	6.8	4.6	6.6
39 Males	%	2001–2002	6.3	6.3	8.0	7.8	6.9	9.8	7.1	5.4	6.9
40 Females	%	2001–2002	6.0	6.1	7.7	6.1	5.9	7.4	6.4	3.8	6.3
41 Capital cities	%	2001–2002	5.2	6.2	7.9	7.1	6.5	8.8	(b)	(b)	6.3
42 Balance of states and territories(c)	%	2001–2002	8.0	6.4	7.9	6.7	6.3	8.7	6.8	4.6	7.3
Unemployed looking for full-time work											
43 Of all persons aged 15–19	%	2001–2002	4.9	4.2	6.4	6.4	5.4	7.5	5.8	3.8	5.2
44 Of all persons aged 20–24	%	2001–2002	5.6	6.0	8.8	6.7	6.5	10.5	6.0	4.9	6.6
45 Median duration of unemployment – males	weeks	2002	21	21	17	27	18	21	14	8	20
46 Median duration of unemployment – females	weeks	2002	16	13	14	16	12	22	9	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	%	2001	69.4	66.4	63.8	69.1	66.3	68.3	72.9	70.8	67.2
Labour force underutilisation											
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

NOT IN THE LABOUR FORCE	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
51 Marginally attached	'000	2002	265.1	197.0	160.3	66.4	78.9	26.1	4.6	9.7	808.1
52 Discouraged jobseekers	'000	2002	22.6	17.7	17.6	7.5	8.0	2.9	*0.7	*0.8	78.0

TRANSITION TO RETIREMENT	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
Persons aged 55–64											
53 Participation rate – males	%	2001–2002	60.8	62.6	62.8	56.9	66.5	52.1	73.0	64.3	61.8
54 Participation rate – females	%	2001–2002	37.9	37.0	39.8	37.0	41.0	34.5	58.0	48.1	38.4
55 Males employed part-time – of all employed males aged 55–64	%	2001–2002	14.8	17.0	15.9	18.0	17.9	22.1	12.9	17.4	16.3
56 Females employed part-time – of all employed females aged 55–64	%	2001–2002	51.4	55.4	49.1	54.3	53.1	61.1	39.4	43.2	52.3

(a) Australian Standard Classification of Occupation (ASCO) second edition was introduced in August 1996. Data prior to this date are concorded with ASCO second edition at the major group level.

(b) Separate estimates for capital cities are not available.

(c) Data for Northern Territory and Australian Capital Territory include estimates for capital cities.

Reference periods: All data are annual averages for the year ending 30 June except: labour force participation of females with children (June); median age of labour force (June); employees without leave entitlements (August), occupation and trade union membership (August); working days lost due to industrial disputes (year ending 31 December); pay set by collective and individual agreements (May); median duration of unemployment (June); retrenchment rate (February); persons previously retrenched and currently employed (July); labour force underutilisation (September); not in the labour force data (September).

Work: data sources

DATA SOURCE	*Indicators using this source*
ABS Labour Force Survey.	National (1–11, 13–21, 25–30, 35–46, 49–50, 53–56); State (1–11, 13–21, 25–30, 35–46, 49–50, 53–56)
ABS Labour Force Survey and *Australian Demographics Statistics* (ABS cat. no. 3101.0).	National (12); State (12)
Employee Earnings, Benefits and Trade Union Membership, Australia, August 2002 (ABS cat. no. 6310.0).	National (22–24, 31); State (22–24, 31)
Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia, May 2002 (ABS cat. no. 6306.0).	National (33–34); State (33–34)
Industrial Disputes, Australia, December 2002 (ABS cat. no. 6321.0).	National (32); State (32)
Labour Mobility, Australia, February 2002 (ABS cat. no. 6209.0).	National (47); State (47)
Persons Not in the Labour Force, Australia, September 2002 (ABS cat. no. 6220.0).	National (51–52); State (51–52)
Retrenchment and Redundancy, Australia, July 2001 (ABS cat. no. 6266.0).	National (48); State (48)

Work: definitions

Average hours worked per week
aggregate hours worked, including overtime, by full-time/part-time employed during the survey reference week divided by the number of full-time/part-time employed. The hours are those actually worked and are not necessarily the hours paid for.
Reference: *Labour Force, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6203.0).

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; or
- 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); or
- worked for one hour or more without pay in a family business or on a farm (i.e. contributing family workers); or
- were employees who had a job but were not at work; or
- were employers or own account workers who had a job, business or farm, but were not at work.

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

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

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

Extended labour force underutilisation rate
the unemployed, plus the underemployed, plus two groups of persons marginally attached to the labour force:
i. 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; and
ii. discouraged jobseekers;
as a percentage of the labour force augmented by (i) and (ii).
Reference: *Information paper: Measures of Labour Underutilisation* (ABS cat. no. 6296.0).

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

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

Labour force underutilisation rate
the unemployed plus the underemployed, as a percentage of the labour force.
Reference: *Information paper: Measures of Labour Underutilisation* (ABS cat. no. 6296.0).

Long-term unemployed
persons unemployed for a period of 52 weeks or longer.
Reference: *Labour Force, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6203.0).

Manufacturing industries
consists of the manufacturing division of the Australian and New Zealand Standard Industrial Classification (ANZSIC), a detailed description of which appears in *ANZSIC, 1993* (ABS cat. no. 1292.0).
Reference: *Labour Force, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6203.0).

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

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

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 comprises the major groups, 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; and 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: *Labour Force, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6203.0).

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

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

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

Proportion of the total population in work
the number of employed persons expressed as a percentage of the total population.

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; or
- 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), *ANZSIC 1993* (cat. no. 1292.0): 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: *Labour Force, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6203.0).

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 persons are employed persons who worked less than 35 hours during the reference week, who wanted to work additional hours and were available to work additional hours within the next four weeks.
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; or
- 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: *Labour Force, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6203.0).

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

Unemployment rate
for any group, the number of unemployed persons expressed as a percentage of the labour force in the same group.
Reference: *Labour Force, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6203.0).

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).

Longer working hours

PAID WORK

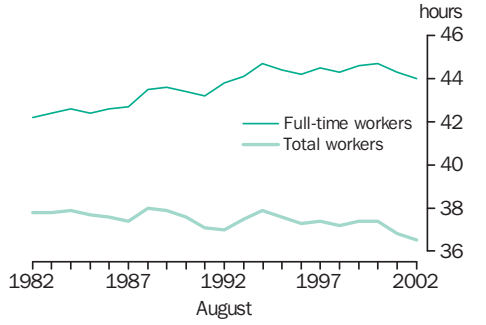
Between 1982 and 1994, the average hours worked by full-time workers increased from 42 to 45 hours per week, but has since dropped back to 44 hours per week in 2002.

The past two decades have seen a shift away from the standard working week to a greater variety of working hours (see *Australian Social Trends 1999,* Decline of the standard working week, pp. 105–109). Strong growth in part-time employment has increased the proportion of workers working short hours, resulting in a slight decline in the overall average hours worked per week. However, among full-time workers, there has been a trend towards longer working hours during the past 20 years. In addition, the working hours of many families have increased during this period, as growth in women's labour force participation has resulted in more couple families with both partners engaged in paid employment. Consequently, while some people cannot find enough work (see *Australian Social Trends 2003,* Underutilised labour, pp. 129–133), there is also a growing awareness of the issues associated with working long hours, and the need for individuals and family units to be able to achieve a satisfactory balance between paid work and personal, family and community life (see *Australian Social Trends 2003,* Balancing family and work, pp. 40–44).

Longer hours for full-time workers

Between 1982 and 1994, average hours worked by full-time workers increased from 42 to 45 hours per week. This trend levelled off during the late 1990s, and since 2000, average hours worked by full-time workers have dropped back to around 44 hours per week (45 hours for men and 41 hours for women). Over the same period, the distribution of full-time hours changed considerably. Between 1982 and 2002, the proportion of full-time workers working a

Average hours worked per week



Source: ABS Labour Force Survey.

Hours worked

Most of the statistics on working hours used in this article are drawn from the ABS Labour Force Survey (LFS) and the 2001 Census of Population and Housing. There may be small differences between LFS estimates and Census data, reflecting differences in collection methodology. Data on preferred working hours is from the ABS 2000 Survey of Employment Arrangements and Superannuation, while data on employees who regularly worked overtime come from the ABS Survey of Working Arrangements.

Average hours worked per week is the total hours worked per week, averaged across all people who worked one hour or more in the reference week. Those who did not work in the reference week (e.g. those on leave or rostered off) are excluded.

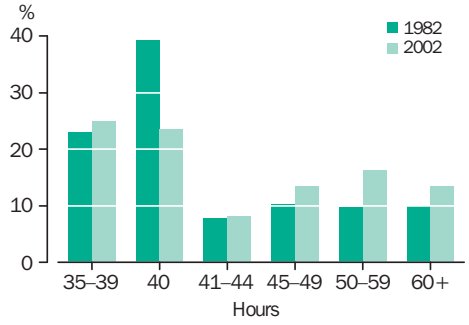
Average hours worked per week by families is the total combined hours worked by all employed family members, averaged across all families in which at least one member worked one hour or more in the reference week.

In the census, *full-time workers* are employed persons who worked 35 hours or more in all jobs in the week prior to the census (or reference week). For all other data sources used in this article, full-time workers also include those who usually work 35 hours or more per week.

Proportions of full-time workers who worked specific ranges of hours (e.g. 50 hours or more per week) are calculated as percentages of those full-time workers who actually worked 35 hours or more in the reference week. Those full-time workers who did not work in the reference week, or who worked less than 35 hours in the reference week, are excluded.

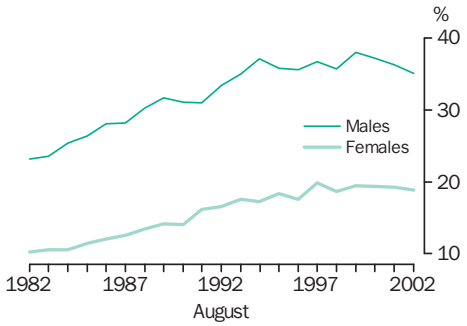
Overtime is any work undertaken outside, or in addition to, ordinary or standard working hours, whether paid or unpaid. Data on overtime relate to employees in their main job.

Distribution of full-time hours worked per week



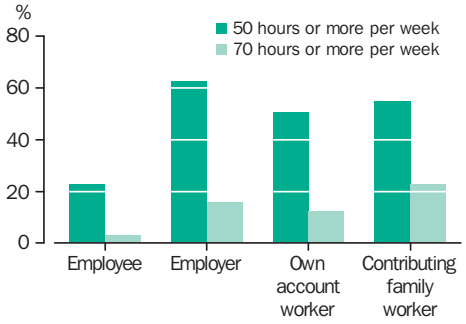
Source: ABS Labour Force Survey.

Proportion of full-time workers working 50 hours or more per week



Source: ABS Labour Force Survey.

Proportion of full-time workers working very long hours — 2001



Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

40 hour week declined from 39% to 24%. While this was accompanied by a slight increase in the proportion of full-time workers working less than 40 hours per week, most of the shift was towards longer working hours. The greatest increase was in the proportion of full-time workers working 50–59 hours per week (from 10% to 16%). This trend towards longer working hours was relatively uncommon among other OECD countries, most of which either experienced little change, or continued the longer term trend in reducing full-time working hours.[1]

People working very long hours

The relatively small increase between 1992 and 2002 in the average number of hours worked by all full-time workers appears to be the result of a growing number of people working 50 hours or more per week. In August 2002, around 1.7 million Australians worked 50 hours or more per week, twice as many as 1982. As a proportion of full-time workers, those working 50 hours or more per week increased from 20% to 30%. The proportion of female full-time workers working 50 hours or more per week almost doubled from 10% in 1982 to 19% in 2002, and may be linked to increasing representation of women in managerial and professional occupations. That said, very long working hours remain more common among men. In 2002, 35% of male full-time workers were working 50 hours or more per week, up from 23% in 1982.

Very long working hours are more common among workers who are self-employed (i.e. own-account workers and employers in unincorporated businesses) than among employees. In 2001, 57% of self-employed workers worked 50 hours or more per week (compared with 23% of employees) while 14% of self-employed workers worked 70 hours or more per week (compared with 3% of employees).

...occupation

Very long working hours are also more prevalent in some occupations than others, and this is associated with a range of factors, many of which are closely interrelated. For example, very long working hours tend to be more common in occupations characterised by relatively high levels of self-employment in small business or private practice. Among employees, very long working hours are most common in occupations involving high levels of personal responsibility and accountability, relatively high earnings and in jobs with no standard working hours. Very long working hours tend to be less prevalent in predominantly female occupations and in occupation groups with more highly regulated working hours and conditions.

Of all occupation groups in 2001, very long working hours were most common among Managers and administrators. Over half (56%) of all full-time workers in this group worked 50 hours or more per week, and 11% worked 70 hours or more per week. However, there was considerable variation among the specific occupations within this, and indeed all, broad occupation groups. For example, among full-time Managers and administrators, 76% of Mixed crop and livestock farmers (who are mainly males and self-employed) worked 50 hours or more per week, compared with 24% of Child care coordinators (who are mainly females and employees).

After Managers and administrators, Associate professionals were the next most likely occupation group to work very long hours. Overall, 36% of full-time Associate professionals worked 50 hours or more per

Proportion of full-time workers working 50 hours or more per week: selected occupations — 2001

Major groups and selected minor occupation groups	%
Managers and administrators	56.0
Mixed crop and livestock farmers	75.8
General managers	65.0
Child care co-ordinators	24.0
Professionals	29.7
Specialist medical practitioners	64.8
Generalist medical practitioners	56.7
Mining and materials engineers	55.4
Secondary school teachers	31.1
Registered nurses	11.8
Associate professionals	36.1
Hotel and motel managers	73.3
Shop managers	52.2
Police officers	18.4
Tradespersons and related workers	24.2
Plumbers	28.4
Hairdressers	14.5
Advanced clerical and service workers	13.6
Insurance agents	20.2
Secretaries and personal assistants	10.4
Intermediate clerical, sales and service workers	15.8
Sales representatives	32.5
General clerks	8.9
Intermediate production and transport workers	28.9
Automobile drivers	60.4
Truck drivers	46.5
Miners	43.3
Sewing machinists	12.1
Elementary clerical, sales and service workers	16.1
Street vendors and related workers	48.2
Sales assistants	15.9
Labourers and related workers	17.3
Mining support workers and drillers' assistants	52.3
Product assemblers	5.9
Total	**28.8**

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

week. Within this group, very long hours were most common among managerial occupations, also associated with high rates of self-employment in small business. For example, 73% of all full-time Hotel and motel managers worked 50 hours or more per week and 37% worked 70 hours or more per week. In contrast, 18% of full-time Police officers (employees working in large, relatively highly regulated workplaces) worked 50 hours or more per week.

The proportion of full-time workers working 50 hours or more per week was also relatively high among Professionals (30%) and Intermediate production and transport workers (29%). Among Professionals, doctors worked the longest hours, with 65% of full-time Specialist medical practitioners, and 57% of full-time Generalist medical practitioners, working 50 hours or more per week. While high rates of self-employment are a factor in doctors' long hours, other factors such as doctor shortages in some areas and a traditional culture of long hours among hospital interns also contribute to longer working hours for doctors.[2] In contrast, 12% of full-time Registered nurses (mainly female employees working in relatively highly regulated workplaces) worked 50 hours or more per week.

Very long working hours were common in the transport industry, particularly for drivers, many of whom are self-employed. In 2001, 60% of full-time Automobile drivers (e.g. taxi drivers and chauffeurs) and 47% of full-time Truck drivers worked 50 hours or more per week. Workers in most mining occupations were also likely to work very long hours despite low rates of self-employment. For example, 43% of full-time Miners worked 50 hours or more per week, as did 52% of Mining support workers and drillers' assistants and 55% of Mining and materials engineers. This may be partly due to the prevalence of extended working shifts (e.g. two weeks on and two weeks off each month) in the more remote mining locations. As the census only identifies those full-time workers who actually worked 35 hours or more in the week before the census, the proportions of full-time workers mentioned above exclude those who worked fewer hours or who were rostered off in that week. Therefore, these figures may overstate, to some degree, the prevalence of long working hours in mining and in other occupations where similar patterns of extended shift work are common.

In general, the distribution of very long working hours across occupation groups was fairly similar for both male and female full-time workers. However, in all occupation groups, women working full-time were less

likely than their male counterparts to work 50 hours or more per week. This is consistent with the fact that women, even those with full-time jobs, tend to spend more time than men on unpaid household work and child care (see *Australian Social Trends 2002,* Time spent on unpaid household work, pp. 142–145).

Workers' preferences

Very long working hours may contribute to work-related health problems (e.g. stress or fatigue) or difficulties in balancing work with personal or family life. These effects may be greater for those workers who are not happy with their working hours and would prefer to work less.

In 2000, 11% of employees who usually worked 49 hours or more per week in their main job preferred to work fewer hours (and earn less). A further 16% preferred to work fewer hours and earn the same. However, the majority (65%) preferred to continue working the same hours (for the same pay) while about 8% preferred to work more hours (and earn more). Of those employees who usually worked between 35 and 48 hours per week, 19% preferred to work more hours, and earn more (see *Australian Social Trends 2002,* Employment arrangements, pp. 131–135). This indicates that financial considerations influence workers' preferences, and that for some workers, the opportunity to increase earnings may override other concerns associated with working long hours. However, workers who prefer to work long hours may also be influenced by other factors such as enjoyment of their work.

Overtime

A substantial proportion of Australian workers regularly undertake either paid or unpaid overtime (i.e. work outside, or in addition to, their ordinary or standard working hours). While some part-time workers regularly work overtime (12% in 2000), it is much more common among full-time workers (41% in 2000). For some full-time workers, overtime may result in a very long working week. However, not all workers who work very long hours are necessarily working overtime. For many, particularly the self-employed, whose working hours are not directly regulated by awards or agreements, the concept of standard working hours, and consequently overtime, either does not exist or is not clearly defined. For this reason, statistics on overtime are generally limited to employees.

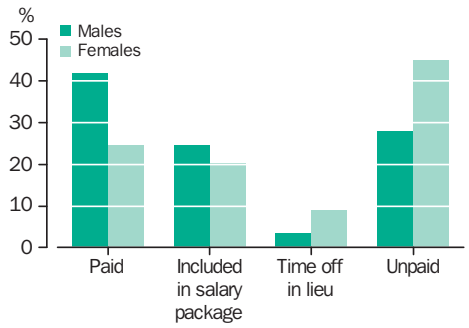
Between 1993 and 2000, there was little change in either the proportion of employees regularly working overtime, the number of overtime hours worked, or the proportion of employees working unpaid overtime.

In 2000, 2.3 million full-time employees regularly worked overtime in their main job. Among full-time employees, males were more likely than females to regularly work overtime (44% compared with 36%). Men also worked more overtime hours than women. Of those full-time employees who regularly worked overtime in 2000, 47% of males usually worked 10 hours or more of overtime per week compared with 33% of females.

The majority of full-time employees who regularly worked overtime were paid for their most recent period of overtime work. Some were paid directly by the hour (37%) while others were paid indirectly, as part of their salary package (23%), time off in lieu (5%) or by some other arrangement (2%). However, one-third of full-time employees who regularly worked overtime in 2000 reported that they had not been paid for their most recent period of overtime work. Women were more likely than men to work unpaid overtime. Among full-time employees who regularly worked overtime in 2000, 45% of females had not been paid for their most recent period of overtime, compared with 28% of males.

The prevalence of unpaid overtime varied across occupation and industry groups. In 2000, 49% of full-time Professional employees who regularly worked overtime were not paid for their most recent period of overtime. Unpaid overtime was also relatively common among full-time Advanced clerical and service

Method of reimbursement for employee(a) overtime(b) — 2000



(a) Full-time employees who worked overtime on a regular basis in their main job.
(b) For the most recent period of overtime worked in their main job.

Source: ABS November 2000 Working Arrangements Survey.

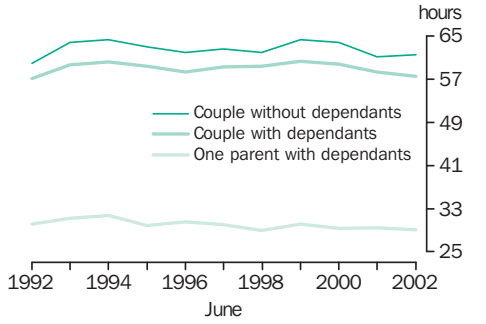
workers (44% of full-time employees), Managers and administrators (42%) and Associate professionals (41%). By far the highest rates of unpaid overtime (and overtime in general) were found in education. In 2000, 62% of full-time employees in the Education industry worked overtime on a regular basis. Two-thirds of these employees had not been paid for their most recent period of overtime.

Family working hours

Increased participation of women in paid employment during the 1980s and 1990s contributed to an increase in the number of hours worked within many families. The proportion of couple families with both partners employed increased from 40% in 1985 to 52% in 2002. However, at the broad level, the effect of these trends on average family working hours has been fairly limited. This is because the increases in women's employment, much of which is part-time, has been offset to some extent by declines in male full-time employment (see *Australian Social Trends 2001,* Trends in employment population ratios, pp. 133–136).

The average combined hours worked per week by all employed family members (including dependent and non-dependent children) increased from 1992 to the mid-1990s, and then fluctuated during the second half of the 1990s and the early 2000s. As with trends in individual working hours, these movements were broadly consistent with changes in economic conditions over this period. In June 2002, couple families without dependents spent an average of 62 hours per week in paid employment, almost 2 hours more than in 1992. For couple families with dependents, average working hours increased by about half an hour overall, to 58 hours per week in 2002. For one-parent families with dependents, there was an overall decrease of one hour in average working hours during the period, down to 29 hours per week in 2002.

Average hours worked per week by families(a)



(a) Combined hours worked per week by all employed family members, including dependent and non-dependent children.

Source: ABS Labour Force Survey.

Similarly, there was little or no sustained increase between 1992 and 2002 in the proportion of families working very long hours. Among couple families without dependents, the proportion working 80 hours or more per week increased from 22% in 1992 to 24% in 2002 (although reaching as high as 28% in 1994 and 29% in 1999). Among couple families with dependents, the proportion working 80 hours or more per week was the same in 2002 as in 1992 (17%), although it reached 21% in 1994 and 1999.

Endnotes

1 Campbell, I. 2002, *Cross-National Comparisons: Work Time Around the World*, Australian Council of Trade Unions <http://www.actu.asn.au/public/papers/crossnationalcomp/index-4.html>, accessed 13 January 2003.

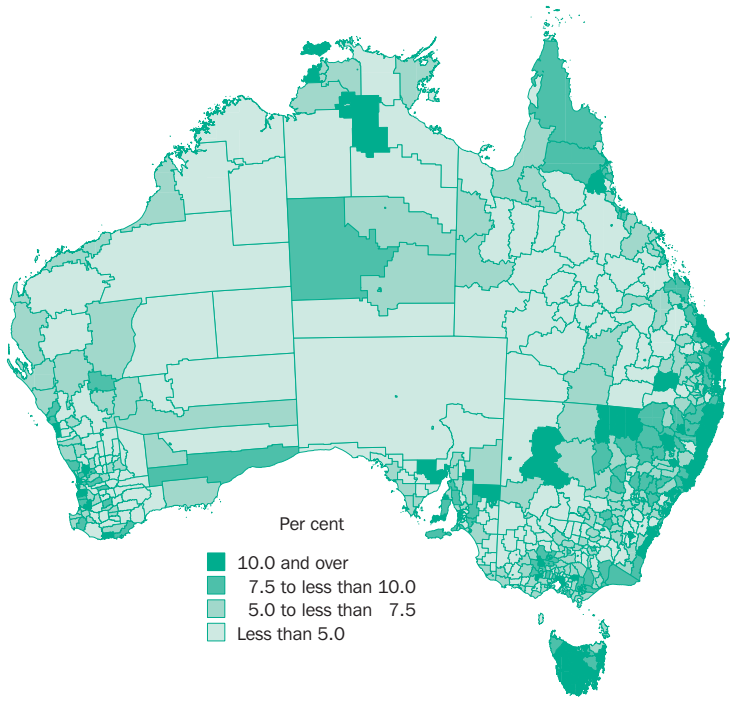
2 Holmes, G. 1998, Junior doctors' working hours: an unhealthy tradition? *Medical Journal of Australia,* Vol. 168, pp. 587–588.

Geographic distribution of unemployment

In 2001, the unemployment rate varied widely between Statistical Local Areas, from less than 1% in some to more than 20% in others.

The rate of unemployment is widely regarded as being one of the key indicators of a community's wellbeing. However, the reasons for, and impacts of, unemployment can differ from region to region. This is because regions themselves may differ in terms of their labour market conditions and their socio-demographic make-up. For example, some areas rely on a limited number of industries to maintain population size, services, infrastructure and income levels. If such an area experiences job reductions in one of those industries, then it may experience high unemployment as people lose jobs and are unable to find others. Alternatively, such an area may experience low unemployment (and population decline) as job seekers move to other areas to find work. A high unemployment rate may also be fuelled by people moving to an area primarily for lifestyle rather than employment reasons. In this case, it is possible for the same area to simultaneously experience strong employment growth. This article focuses on the variation of unemployment rates across diverse geographic areas of Australia.

Unemployment rate in Statistical Local Areas — 2001



Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

Unemployment

Data presented in this article are mainly from the most recent Census of Population and Housing, conducted in August 2001. Census counts of unemployment tend to be higher than August 2001 Labour Force Survey estimates due to differences in the way the census collects information on labour force status. However, census data allows for the comparison of levels of unemployment between small geographic areas.

Data presented in this article are based on place of enumeration (96% of people counted in the census were at home on census night). While in some areas labour force participation rates and unemployment rates that are based on place of enumeration differ from those based on usual residence, this does not have a major impact on the broad comparisons in this article.

Employed people are those aged 15 years and over 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 aged 15 years and over who do not have a job but are actively looking for work and are available to start work.

The *labour force* consists of people who are employed or unemployed, as defined above. The *labour force participation rate* is the proportion of all people aged 15 years and over who are in the labour force (i.e. either employed or unemployed).

The *unemployment rate* is the proportion of people aged 15 years and over in the labour force who are unemployed.

Unemployment across Statistical Local Areas

In August 2001, unemployment rates ranged widely across Statistical Local Areas (SLAs). However, while there was variation within states and territories, there was also a tendency for some adjoining SLAs within a state or territory to share similar rates of unemployment. For example, set against a national unemployment rate of 7.4% (as measured in the 2001 Census), most Tasmanian SLAs (84%) had above average unemployment, with the majority (57%) having a rate of at least 10%. On the mainland, a long belt of coastal and coastal hinterland SLAs in northern New South Wales and southern Queensland had an unemployment rate of 10% or higher.

Range of unemployment rates among Statistical Local Areas — 2001

State/territory	*Lowest(a) unemployment* rate	*Highest(a) unemployment* rate
NSW	1.4	19.7
Vic.	2.4	15.3
Qld	0.5	23.4
SA	1.7	22.3
WA	1.0	13.5
Tas.	4.2	16.3
NT	2.6	14.2
ACT	1.0	21.9
Aust.	**0.5**	**23.4**

(a) Excludes Statistical Local Areas (SLAs) with fewer than 350 people enumerated on census night, SLAs which are military establishments, and Off-Shore Areas and Migratory SLAs.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

On the other hand, below average rates were common in inland SLAs on the mainland, with lower than 5% unemployment prevailing in many of the more remote SLAs, particularly those in central Queensland, the Riverina and the more arid parts of South Australia and Western Australia. Many of these SLAs had small populations, characterised by self employment in agriculture, and an above average labour force participation rate. The outward migration of some unemployed people may also have contributed to the comparatively low rate of unemployment in these SLAs.

Broader regions

The unemployment rate varies considerably between small areas such as SLAs, due to the tendency for residential clustering of people with similar demographic, socioeconomic and/or labour market characteristics, and because of very localised labour markets. Hence it is also useful to look at broader geographic areas when considering unemployment.

At the broader Statistical Subdivision (SSD) level in 2001, each state and territory (with the exception of Tasmania and the Australian Capital Territory) comprised SSDs with unemployment rates ranging from lows of between 2.5% and 4.1%, to highs of between 12.0% and 15.0%. Of the exceptions, each Tasmanian SSD had an unemployment rate above the national average (ranging from 9.2% to 12.5%) while those in the Australian Capital Territory were all below the average (ranging from 3.8% to 6.9%).

Geographical classifications

This article uses a range of different geographical classifications from the Australian Standard Geographical Classification (ASGC). For further information see *Statistical Geography: Volume 1—Australian Standard Geographical Classification (ASGC), 2001* (ABS cat. no. 1216.0).

In very general terms, a *Statistical Local Area (SLA)* is based on the boundary of the corresponding Local Government Area (LGA) if such an LGA exists and does not contain too many people. There were 1,353 SLAs in Australia in 2001.

A *Statistical Subdivision (SSD)* consists of one or more adjoining SLAs that are socially and economically alike. People in a SSD usually associate with each other in areas such as employment, health, education, tourism and industry, or share transport and communication networks. There were 207 SSDs in Australia in 2001.

Statistical Regions (SRs) and *Statistical Region Sectors (SRSs)* are used primarily for disseminating selected labour force statistics. In 2001, the whole of Australia was covered without gap or overlap by 64 SRs and by 88 SRSs.

The ABS Remoteness classification is used to examine unemployment across 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.

Across all SSDs in 2001, a low unemployment rate tended to be accompanied by a high labour force participation rate, and a high unemployment rate tended to be accompanied by a low labour force participation rate. Further, for each of the six states, the SSD with the highest rate of unemployment was either one of two types of areas. Some were areas with a growing population but not necessarily commensurate employment opportunities, i.e. Clarence (excluding Coffs Harbour) in northern New South Wales, Hervey Bay City Part A in southern Queensland, and Mandurah in Western Australia. Others were areas affected by economic restructuring and which traditionally had a relatively high concentration of employment in industries experiencing job losses over the last decades of the 20th Century (i.e. Whyalla in South Australia, Burnie-Devonport in Tasmania, and La Trobe Valley in Victoria).

On the other hand, the SSD with the lowest rate of unemployment in each state tended to be either a group of capital city suburbs, or a farming area with a high incidence of self employment among those employed. In New

Statistical Subdivisions with the lowest and highest unemployment rate — 2001

	Lowest unemployment(a)		Labour force participation	Median age	Highest unemployment(a)		Labour force participation	Median age
State/territory	Statistical Subdivision	rate	rate	years	Statistical Subdivision	rate	rate	years
NSW	Northern Beaches	3.4	69.6	37	Clarence (excl. Coffs Harbour)	15.0	50.0	41
Vic.	West Mallee	3.3	63.7	41	La Trobe Valley	12.0	59.0	35
Qld	Central West	3.6	70.0	36	Hervey Bay City Part A	14.9	43.9	43
SA	Upper South East	2.5	69.5	36	Whyalla	13.2	57.8	35
WA	Lakes	3.1	78.4	36	Mandurah	12.4	53.0	39
Tas.	Greater Hobart	9.2	60.0	36	Burnie-Devonport	12.5	55.7	37
NT	East Arnhem	4.1	53.6	26	Bathurst-Melville	13.1	47.1	24
ACT	Gungahlin-Hall	3.8	79.7	29	North Canberra	6.9	66.5	32

(a) In each state and territory during the week prior to census night. Statistical Subdivisions containing fewer than 1,000 people, those comprising Off-Shore Areas, and persons in the Migratory category were excluded from consideration.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

South Wales, the SSD of Northern Beaches (comprising the Sydney SLAs of Manly, Pittwater and Warringah) had the state's lowest unemployment rate (3.4%). In Victoria, the SSD with the lowest rate (West Mallee 3.3%) had a relatively high proportion of employed persons working as employers, own account workers or contributing family workers (41% compared with the national average of 18%). Similarly, in Queensland, South Australia and Western Australia, the rate of unemployment was lowest in rural SSDs with a relatively high propensity for self employment in agriculture.

The reasons for low unemployment vary from one area to another. For example, in the territories, SSDs with the lowest rate had different demographic and labour market profiles to those with the lowest rate in each of the six states. In the Australian Capital Territory, the unemployment rate was lowest in Gungahlin-Hall (3.8%), with this SSD having the nation's highest labour force participation rate (80%). Gungahlin-Hall had a young population (median age of 29 years) and a higher proportion of children than the national average. The area also had comparatively high rents and housing loan repayments, and few public housing tenants.

In the Northern Territory, the SSD with the lowest unemployment rate was East Arnhem. Unlike most other SSDs with a low rate of unemployment, East Arnhem had a comparatively small propensity for self-employment among employed persons (6%), and a relatively low labour force participation rate (54% compared with the national average of 63%). An above average proportion of employed people in East Arnhem were employed in the Mining industry (14% compared with less than 1% nationwide) and, reflecting East Arnhem's largely Indigenous population, a comparatively high proportion of employed people were employed under the Community Development Employment Program (CDEP) (25% compared with less than 1% nationally).

Characteristics of unemployed people

In 2001, the average rate of unemployment in Major Cities was 7.1%. While higher overall outside these cities (8.0%), the rate varied across regional and remote Australia and generally eased with increasing remoteness. The rate was higher in Inner Regional areas (8.5%), lower in Outer Regional areas (7.9%), and decreased to 4.5% in Very Remote areas. In terms of absolute numbers of unemployed people, the vast majority were located in Major Cities (65%) or Inner Regional areas

Community Development Employment Program (CDEP)

The CDEP was developed in 1976 as a response to remote Aboriginal communities' requests for local employment to be created, with a particular focus on community development in areas where the labour market could not otherwise provide employment opportunities. The CDEP enables members of Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander communities to work and train in activities managed by a local Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander community organisation. In the census, people who stated they were CDEP participants were classified as being employed.

In 1985, the CDEP expanded to include Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities located in rural and urban areas. The CDEP is funded and supported by the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Commission (ATSIC) which allocates grants to participating community organisations employing members of the local Indigenous community.

(22%), with 2% in Remote or Very Remote areas. This distribution across Remoteness Areas largely reflects the spread of the total population across these areas and partly mirrors the higher rate of unemployment in non-remote areas.

The characteristics of unemployed people in each of the Remoteness Areas also tended to reflect the overall population characteristics of each area (see *Australian Social Trends 2003*, Population characteristics and remoteness, pp. 7–11). For example, more than one-third (35%) of all unemployed people in Major Cities were aged 15–24 years. In more remote areas, unemployed people were more likely to be older.

In each Remoteness Area, the unemployment rate among 15–24 year olds was higher than it was among older people. Yet this youth unemployment rate itself varied considerably between Remoteness Areas. In particular, the youth unemployment rate was much lower in Very Remote areas (7.5%) than in Inner Regional areas (16.4%); a difference that may partly reflect the outward migration of young people to areas with more employment opportunities.[1]

Men have slightly higher unemployment rates than women, with more unemployed men than women in each of the Remoteness Areas. The majority of unemployed people in Major Cities were men (59%), and this proportion increased with remoteness. In Remote and Very Remote areas, nearly two in three (64%) unemployed people were men.

Unemployed people in Major Cities and regional areas were also more likely than unemployed people in more remote areas to be living as a member of a family with one or more dependent children. For example, 58% of unemployed people in Major Cities were in this living arrangement compared with 44% of unemployed people in Very Remote areas. Furthermore, unemployed people in Major Cities were more likely to have non-school qualifications than unemployed people in Very Remote areas (37% compared with 27%). At each degree of remoteness in 2001, labour force participants without a non-school qualification were twice as likely to be unemployed as those who did possess a non-school qualification. Nevertheless, the unemployment rate among people without a non-school qualification was lower for those in Very Remote areas (5.7%) than for those in Major Cities (9.6%) and Inner Regional areas (11.1%). This may partly reflect migration of job seekers between Remoteness Areas.

The proportion of unemployed people who were Indigenous rose with increasing remoteness. In 2001, Indigenous peoples constituted a markedly greater proportion of unemployed people in Very Remote areas (42%) and Remote areas (21%) than in Outer Regional areas (9%), Inner Regional areas (4%) and Major Cities (2%).

At each degree of remoteness, the Indigenous unemployment rate was around three times higher than the non-Indigenous rate. Yet the Indigenous unemployment rate itself varied widely between Remoteness Areas, being considerably lower in Very Remote areas (8.2%) than in Inner Regional areas (25.3%). This difference may partly reflect the higher

Selected characteristics of unemployed people(a) in Remoteness Areas — 2001

	Remoteness Area					
	Major Cities	*Inner Regional*	*Outer Regional*	*Remote*	*Very Remote*	*Total(b)*
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Proportion who were						
Male	59.0	59.7	62.1	63.8	63.5	59.6
Of Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander origin	2.1	4.3	8.9	21.3	42.2	3.8
With non-school qualifications	37.2	31.9	29.7	28.3	26.8	35.0
Age group (years)						
15–24	34.6	34.0	30.2	27.8	27.5	33.9
25–34	24.0	21.7	23.0	24.7	25.0	23.4
35–44	19.3	20.2	21.6	21.9	20.4	19.8
45–54	14.3	15.5	16.1	15.7	16.2	14.8
55–64	7.0	8.0	8.5	9.1	9.8	7.5
65 and over	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.8	1.0	0.7
Living arrangement						
In a family with dependent children	58.4	54.7	51.3	44.4	44.0	56.5
In a family without dependent children	13.9	14.7	16.0	17.1	15.7	14.3
Not in a family	27.7	30.6	32.7	38.5	40.3	29.2
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total unemployed	**428.0**	**146.6**	**72.2**	**9.7**	**4.0**	**660.7**
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Unemployment rate	7.1	8.5	7.9	5.9	4.5	7.4
Proportion of all unemployed people	64.8	22.2	10.9	1.5	0.6	100.0

(a) Non response has been excluded from percentage calculations presented in this table.
(b) Includes Migratory category.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

proportion of CDEP employment among Indigenous labour force participants in Very Remote areas compared with Inner Regional areas.

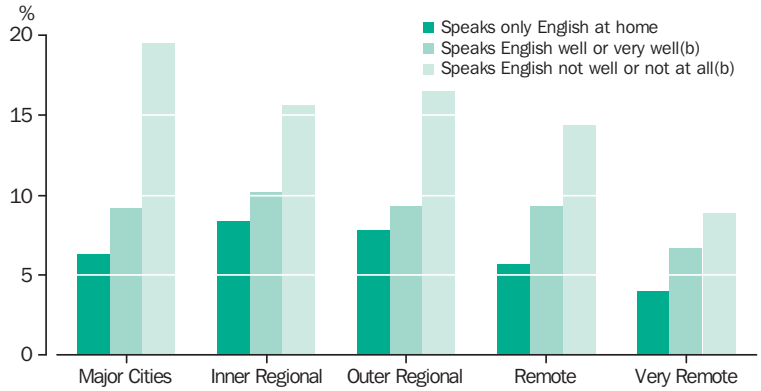
English language proficiency

In Australia, level of skill in comprehending and expressing ideas in the English language can affect a person's chances of getting and holding a job. This communication skill is likely to be more important for some jobs than others.

In 2001, the unemployment rate for people who spoke only English at home followed the same pattern across Remoteness Areas as the total population. The pattern also prevailed among people who spoke a language other than English at home but who nevertheless spoke English well or very well. However, at each degree of remoteness, the unemployment rate among the latter group of people who spoke a language other than English at home was a little higher than the unemployment rate among those who spoke only English at home. In Major Cities, for example, comparative rates of unemployment were 9.2% and 6.3% respectively.

The story differed for people who spoke a language other than English at home but who did not speak English well. Among these people, those located in Major Cities had the highest unemployment rate (19.5%). Their rate was still high outside the Major Cities when compared with rates for those who spoke only English at home, and those who spoke another language at home yet spoke English well or very well. However, the difference in the unemployment rate between people with and without English language difficulty generally lessened as remoteness increased.

Unemployment rate by Remoteness Area and English language proficiency(a) — 2001



(a) Non response has been excluded from percentage calculations presented in this graph.
(b) For those who speak a language other than English at home.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

Long-term unemployment

Some people experience a short spell of unemployment before finding work while others remain unemployed for long periods of time. People who are unemployed for at least one year are defined as being long-term unemployed. Concern about long-term unemployment includes the heightened risk of poverty and other impacts on the individual and their family, as well as the costs borne by taxpayers in the wider community. For some long-term unemployed, the lack of recent work experience may lead to a loss of confidence and motivation for finding work. Some may also experience greater difficulty in finding work than people unemployed for short periods because of the negative perceptions of some employers.[2]

In August 2001, the Australian long-term unemployment rate (i.e. the proportion of the labour force unemployed for at least one year) was 1.4%, down from 2.0% in August 1999. As with unemployment, some small area labour markets had a higher than average rate of long-term unemployment, with some having a rate above 3%.

Areas with a relatively high rate of long-term unemployment — 2001

Statistical Region (Sector/s)	%
Hunter(a) (NSW)	3.7
Mersey-Lyell(b) (Tas.)	3.5
North Western Melbourne(a) (Vic.)	3.4
Wide Bay-Burnett(a) (Qld)	*3.4
Northern and Western SA(a) (SA)	*3.1
Greater Hobart-Southern(b) (Tas.)	3.1
Northern Adelaide(a) (SA)	2.8
Northern(b) (Tas.)	2.7
Gold Coast City Parts A and B(c) (Qld)	2.7
Loddon-Mallee(a) (Vic.)	*2.7
Western Adelaide(a) (SA)	2.5
Australia	**1.4**

(a) Statistical Region.
(b) Statistical Region Sector.
(c) Statistical Region Sectors.

Source: ABS August 2001 Labour Force Survey.

Endnotes

1 Haberkorn, G., Hugo, G., Fisher, M. and Aylward, R. 1999, *Country Matters: Social atlas of rural and regional Australia*, Bureau of Rural Sciences, Canberra.

2 Chapman, B. 1993, 'Long-term unemployment: The case for policy reform', reprinted in the *Social Security Journal*, June 1994, pp. 19–39, AGPS, Canberra.

Underutilised labour

In addition to the 628,000 people in the labour force in September 2002 who were unemployed, a further 574,000 were underemployed.

Lack of paid work may have a significant impact on the financial, personal and social lives of both individuals and their families. People who lack work comprise those who are entirely without work, as well as those who want more work than they currently have. These are people whose labour services are not fully utilised. The number of unemployed people and the unemployment rate are the best known measures indicating the number of people lacking work. However, they do not measure the full extent of underutilised labour.

In September 2002, there were 628,000 people unemployed in Australia. However, there were other people in the labour force who shared some labour market characteristics of the unemployed: employed people who wanted and were available to take up more work than they had. These people are considered to be underemployed, and may be considered as underutilised labour resources. In September 2002, there were 574,000 underemployed people in the labour force.

There are also some people who are not in the labour force, but nevertheless want paid work. They may be looking for work, or share other characteristics of the unemployed, such as being available to start work. People who want to work and meet some, but not all, of the criteria used to determine unemployment

Persons aged 15 years and over: underutilised labour — September 2002

	Number	*Rate*
	'000	%
Persons in the labour force		
Unemployed persons	628.5	6.2
Underemployed persons	574.3	5.7
Labour force underutilisation	*1 202.8*	*11.9*
Persons not in the labour force		
Underutilised labour not in the labour force(a)	121.9	..
Extended labour force underutilisation	**1 324.6**	**13.0**

(a) Comprises two groups of persons marginally attached to the labour force: persons actively looking for work, not available to start work in the reference week but available to start work within four weeks; and discouraged jobseekers.

Source: Labour Force, Australia, September 2002 (ABS cat. no. 6203.0); *Persons Not in the Labour Force, Australia, September 2002* (ABS cat. no. 6220.0); *Underemployed Workers, Australia, September 2002* (ABS cat. no. 6265.0).

Underutilised labour

This article uses data from the monthly ABS Labour Force Survey (LFS) and annual supplementary surveys of Underemployed Workers and Persons Not in the Labour Force.

The *labour force* consists of persons who were employed or unemployed, as defined, during the survey reference week.

Employed persons are those 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; or worked without pay in a family business; or had a job but were not at work.

Unemployed persons 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.

Underemployed workers are employed persons who worked less than 35 hours during the reference week, who wanted to work additional hours and were available to work additional hours within four weeks.

The *unemployment rate* or *underemployment rate* is, for any group, the number of persons within the relevant population as a percentage of the labour force in the same group.

The *labour force underutilisation rate* represents the underutilisation of labour within the labour force and is the sum of the unemployment and underemployment rates.

Persons *marginally attached to the labour force* are those who were not in the labour force in the survey reference week, who wanted to work and who:

- were actively looking for work but were not available to start work in the reference week; or
- were not actively looking for work but were available to start work within four weeks.

Discouraged jobseekers are persons who want to work and could start within four weeks if offered a job, but who are not actively looking for work for reasons associated with the labour market.

The *extended labour force underutilisation rate* is, for any group, unemployed persons, plus underemployed persons, plus two groups of persons marginally attached to the labour force:

- persons actively looking for work, not available to start work in the reference week, but available to start work within four weeks; and
- discouraged jobseekers.

as a percentage of the labour force augmented by the above two groups of persons marginally attached to the labour force.

Underemployed workers — September 2002

	Males	Females	Persons
	%	%	%
Part-time workers wanting more hours who were available to start work with more hours	*84.9*	*96.5*	*91.7*
Looking and available to start	52.0	50.5	51.1
Not looking but available to start	32.9	46.1	40.6
Full-time workers who worked less than 35 hours in the reference week for economic reasons	15.1	3.5	8.3
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	'000	'000	'000
Total	**240.3**	**334.0**	**574.3**

Source: Underemployed Workers, Australia, September 2002 (ABS cat. no. 6265.0).

in ABS labour force statistics are considered to be marginally attached to the labour force. In September 2002, there were 78,000 people with marginal attachment to the labour force who did not actively look for work for labour market reasons (i.e. were discouraged jobseekers). There were also 44,000 people who were actively looking for work and, while available to start work within four weeks, were not available to start within the survey reference week. Together, these 122,000 people were included in the broadest of the ABS measures of underutilised labour.

Underemployed workers

Underutilised labour resources are often viewed as comprising people who are out of work, whether unemployed or out of the labour force completely. However, underutilised labour can also include some people who are in work: specifically, those who work fewer hours than they want to — the underemployed.

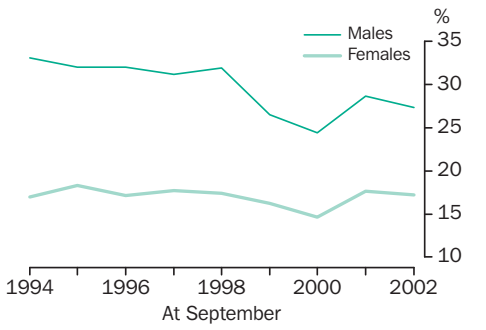
For practical reasons, the ABS defines underemployed people as either part-time workers who want, and are available for additional hours of work, or full-time workers who worked part-time hours in the survey reference week for economic reasons (e.g. they had been stood down, put on short time, or there was insufficient work available for them). In September 2002, 8% of underemployed people were in this latter category, that is, they usually worked full-time, but worked part-time for economic reasons. In September 2002, men were more likely than women to be underemployed for this reason (15% of underemployed men, compared with 3% of underemployed women).

In 2002, most underemployed people (92%) were part-time workers wanting more work. The majority of these underemployed people were women. This is partly because women are far more likely to be working part-time than men. In September 2002, there were 1.9 million women working part-time, compared with 769,000 men. Despite this, men working part-time were more likely to be underemployed than women working part-time.

While all underemployed workers want to work more hours, not all want to work full-time. Underemployed men are more likely to want full-time work than underemployed women. In September 2002, almost three-quarters (73%) of all underemployed male part-time workers wanted full-time work, compared with 49% of all underemployed female part-time workers.

Underemployed part-time workers were more likely to be aged less than 25 years than other part-time workers (37% of underemployed part-time workers in September 2002 compared with 30% of all part-time workers). They were also less likely to be aged 45 years

Proportion of part-time workers who are underemployed



Source: Underemployed Workers, Australia, September 1994 to *September 2002* (ABS cat. no. 6265.0).

Underemployed part-time workers looking for additional hours by main difficulty in finding additional work — September 2002

Main difficulty in finding work	Males %	Females %	Persons %
No vacancies in line of work	23.6	19.5	21.3
Lacked necessary skills or education	9.1	11.8	10.6
Too many applicants for available jobs	9.9	9.4	9.6
No vacancies at all	8.4	9.2	8.9
Considered too young or too old by employers	10.9	6.5	8.4
Unsuitable hours	5.7	10.1	8.2
Insufficient work experience	5.5	6.4	6.0
Other difficulties(a)	19.9	21.1	20.6
No difficulties reported	6.9	6.0	6.4
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**

(a) Includes: own health or disability; too far to travel/transport problems; language difficulties; difficulties with ethnic background; difficulties with childcare; other family responsibilities and other difficulties.

Source: Underemployed Workers, Australia, September 2002 (ABS cat. no. 6265.0).

or over than other part-time workers (22% of underemployed part-time workers compared with 32% of all part-time workers).

Between 1994 and 2002, the total number of underemployed people increased by 25%, consistent with an increase in the total number of part-time workers. While the proportion of female part-time workers who were underemployed changed little over this period (17% in both September 1994 and September 2002), the proportion of male part-time workers who were underemployed decreased from 33% in September 1994 to 27% in September 2002.

Underemployment can also be thought of in terms of the amount of extra work sought by underemployed people (sometimes referred to as 'volume' measures). In September 2002, employed people performed 328.1 million hours of work during the Labour Force Survey reference week. If underemployed part-time workers had worked their preferred number of extra hours, this total would have increased by 8.0 million hours (2.4%). In general, underemployed people working shorter hours wanted to increase their hours of work by more than those working longer hours. In September 2002, underemployed part-time workers who usually worked 10 hours per week or less wanted, on average, an extra 19 hours of work per week. In contrast, underemployed part-time workers who usually worked more than 30 hours per week wanted, on average, 8 hours of extra work.

Criteria for unemployment

Official estimates of unemployment are compiled in accordance with international standards for labour force statistics. In the ABS, a person aged 15 years or over is defined as unemployed if they satisfy all three of the following critieria.

- The person must not be employed, i.e. they must be *without work*. In essence, any person who did one or more hours of paid work during the survey reference week is defined as being employed, irrespective of whether they were also looking for work.
- The person must be actively *looking for work*. A person must have, at some time during the previous four weeks, undertaken specific 'active' steps to look for work, such as applying to an employer for work, answering an advertisement for a job, visiting an employment agency, using a touchscreen at a Centrelink office, or contacting friends or relatives to search for work. The search may be for full-time or part-time work but, in either case, the person must have done more than merely read job advertisements in newspapers. This criterion is waived for persons who 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.
- The person must be *available to start work*. This is taken to mean that they were available to start work in the survey reference week (i.e. the week before the interview).

...difficulties in finding more work

In September 2002, almost one in three (30%) underemployed part-time workers looking for additional hours of work said they had encountered difficulties because there were no vacancies in their line of work, or simply no vacancies at all. An additional 29% said there were too many applicants for available jobs, that they were considered too young or too old by employers, or that they lacked necessary skills or education.

Men were more likely than women to mention one of these five reasons as their main difficulty in finding additional hours of work (62% of male underemployed part-time workers looking for additional work compared with 56% of their female counterparts). Women were more likely than men to cite difficulties related to a lack of necessary skills or education (12% of females compared with 9% of males), or to unsuitable hours (10% of females compared with 6% of males).

Persons marginally attached to the labour force — September 2002

	Males	*Females*	*Persons*
	%	%	%
Wanted to work and were actively looking for work	*11.4*	6.6	*8.2*
Were available to start work within four weeks	7.9	4.2	5.4
Were not available to start work within four weeks	3.5	2.4	2.7
Wanted to work but were not actively looking for work and were available to start work within four weeks	*88.6*	*93.4*	*91.8*
Discouraged jobseekers	9.3	9.8	9.6
Other	79.3	83.6	82.2
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	'000	'000	'000
Total	**263.0**	**545.2**	**808.1**

Source: Persons Not in the Labour Force, Australia, September 2002 (ABS cat. no. 6220.0).

People with marginal attachment to the labour force

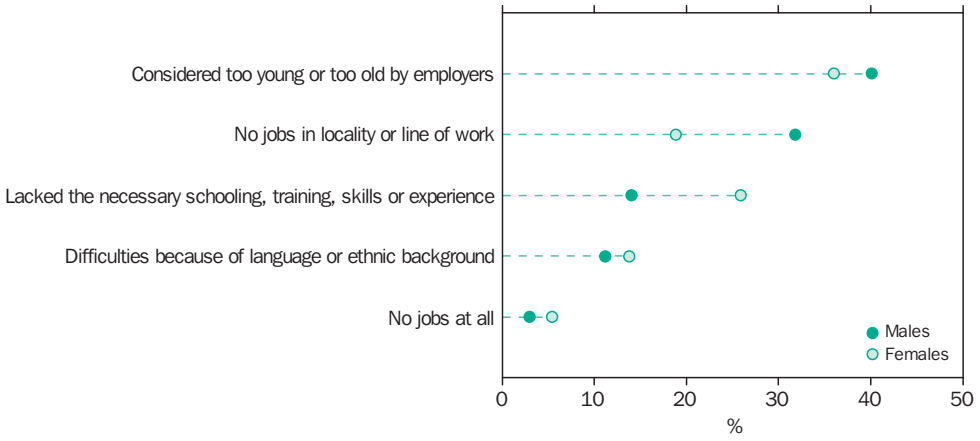
Some jobless people would like to work but, for a variety of reasons, are either not actively looking for work, or not available to start work. They therefore do not meet all the criteria used to define unemployment in ABS labour force statistics. However, these people do meet some of the criteria, and can be regarded as having marginal attachment to the labour force.

Most people marginally attached to the labour force (92% in September 2002) are not actively looking for work, but would be available to start work within four weeks. The remainder are actively looking for work but not available to start within the survey reference week.

Women are more likely than men to be marginally attached to the labour force, although the number of men who are marginally attached to the labour force increased over the decade to 2002. Over this period, the number of men marginally attached increased by 7% (from 247,000 to 263,000 men), while the number of women marginally attached decreased by 9% (from 600,000 to 545,000 women). Men marginally attached to the labour force tend to be younger than women marginally attached to labour force. In September 2002, 39% of men marginally attached to the labour force were aged 15–24 years compared with 23% of women marginally attached to the labour force.

Like unemployment, marginal attachment to the labour force is, for many, a short-term situation. It is also often voluntary, as people may chose to remain out of the labour force, for example, to raise children or to study. In

Discouraged jobseekers by main reason not actively looking for work — September 2002



Source: Persons Not in the Labour Force, Australia, September 2002 (ABS cat. no. 6220.0).

September 2002, 59% of people marginally attached to the labour force intended to join the labour force within the next 12 months. Men marginally attached were more likely to intend to enter the labour force within 12 months than women marginally attached (69% compared with 55%).

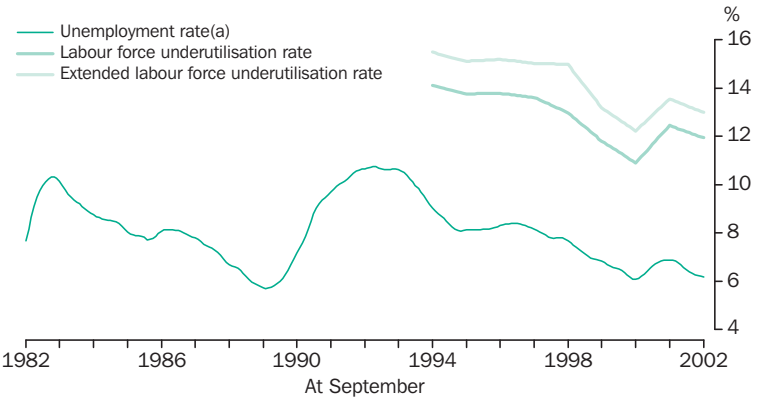
More than half (56%) of all people with marginal attachment to the labour force who were not actively looking for work intended to enter the labour force within the next 12 months. Of those who cited personal reasons (including study) for not looking for work, 58% intended to join the labour force within 12 months, compared with 44% of those who cited family reasons (including childcare). While most people not looking for work for family reasons were women, men in this category were slightly more likely than women to be intending to enter the labour force within 12 months (48% compared with 44%).

...discouraged jobseekers

Discouraged jobseekers are people who are not actively looking for work for reasons directly associated with the labour market (that is, as a result of difficulties in finding work). In September 2002, 10% of all people marginally attached to the labour force were discouraged jobseekers (78,000 people).

A large proportion of discouraged jobseekers gave up looking for work because they felt that employers considered them either too young or too old. In September 2002, 40% of discouraged men and 36% of discouraged women fell into this category. Less than a third (27%) of all people discouraged for this reason expected to enter the labour force in the next 12 months.

Labour underutilisation rates



(a) Trend series.

Source: ABS 1982–2002 Labour Force Surveys; *Persons Not in the Labour Force, Australia, September 1994* to *September 2002* (ABS cat. no. 6220.0); *Underemployed Workers, Australia, September 1994* to *September 2002* (ABS cat. no. 6265.0).

Long-term unemployment

The longer individuals remain unemployed, the more difficult it can be for them to find a job. Long-term unemployed persons are those who have been unemployed for at least one year. The long-term unemployment rate is the number of long-term unemployed persons expressed as a percentage of the labour force.

While unemployment fluctuates with the economic cycle, the highest incidence of long-term unemployment generally occurs after, rather than during, economic downturns. Contributing to these peaks are people who become unemployed either prior to or during recessions, and who do not find work during the subsequent economic recovery.

Long-term unemployment rates (trend series) peaked in 1993, with close to 4% of the labour force (around 35% of all unemployed persons) unemployed for 12 months or more. By September 2002, the long-term unemployment rate had dropped to a little over 1% of the labour force (22% of all unemployed persons).

Men were more likely than women to give up looking for work because of difficulties associated with their locality or line of work (32% of men compared with 19% of women). However, women were more likely than men to give up looking for work because they felt they lacked necessary schooling, training, skills or experience (26% of women compared with 14% of men).

Underutilisation rates

By grouping the unemployed with underemployed people and with some groups of people with marginal attachment to the labour force, some broader measures of labour underutilisation can be formed. In September 2002, the labour force underutilisation rate, incorporating unemployed and underemployed people, was twice the size of the unemployment rate (12% compared with 6%). The extended labour force underutilisation rate, which includes unemployed people, underemployed people, and some people marginally attached to the labour force,was 13%.

Movements in labour underutilisation rates are primarily driven by movements in unemployment. Unemployment fluctuates with the economic cycle, although each labour market downturn over recent decades (1972, 1978, 1983 and 1993) has been associated with progressively higher levels of unemployment (see *Australian Social Trends 2001*, Unemployment trends and patterns, pp. 137–141). However, in the decade to 2002, the trend unemployment rate has almost halved, dropping from almost 11% in September 1992 to 6% in September 2002.

Changes in labour force participation across generations

PAID WORK

Between 1971 and 2001, the proportion of employed persons working full-time declined from 89% to 69%. This decrease varied across successive cohorts of men and women.

Social and economic change transformed Australian society over the latter half of the 20th century. Associated with this were changes, many of them interrelated, in people's participation and experiences in the labour market, and in the nature of work itself. Changes in attitudes to the role of women are reflected in large increases in women's labour force participation (from 37% to 55%) between 1971 and 2001. Increased participation of women also contributed to an increase in overall labour force participation (from 59% to 63%).

Over the same period, changes in the labour market contributed to a decline in the proportion of employed people working full-time (from 89% to 69%). In addition, changes to Australian industry saw growth in the service sector, with the proportion of employed persons working in service industries increasing from 57% to 75%, between 1971 and 2001. This growth provided increased employment opportunities for people across all age groups, with many of the positions being part-time.

In keeping with the growing importance of educational qualifications to success in the labour market, and greater tertiary education opportunities, the proportion of employed people with a bachelor degree or higher also increased from 3% to 19% during this 30 year period. Moreover, 35% of 15–24 year olds were participating in education in 1971, compared with 54% in 2001.

Cohort comparisons

In the context of the changes described above, this article primarily examines the labour force experiences, over the period 1971 to 2001, of people who were born between 1907 and 1981 (i.e. those people who would be expected to be aged between 20 and 94 years in 2001). These people are divided into 5-year age groups (or cohorts). For the purposes of this article each person is assumed to have turned their stated age during the census year.

For simplicity, the graphs in this article present data for six cohorts of people who were born between 1927 and 1981. The most recent or youngest cohort, those born in 1977–1981, had reached work force age (15–19 years) by the 1996 Census, and in 2001 were aged 20–24 years. The next cohort, those born in 1972–1976, were aged 15–19 years in 1991, and 25–29 years in 2001. This continues up to the oldest cohort (those born in 1927–1931), where these people were aged 40–44 years in 1971, and 70–74 years in 2001 (for more information on cohort analysis see *Australian Social Trends 2002*, Changes across Australian generations, pp. 46–51). Comparing the level and nature

Labour force participation

This article draws on data from the ABS Census of Population and Housing, held every five years and most recently conducted in August 2001. Data from censuses held from 1971 to 2001 inclusive are used to examine successive 5-year age cohorts in the labour force. For the purposes of this article each person is assumed to have turned their reported age during the calendar year the census was held.

Employed people are those aged 15 years and over 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.

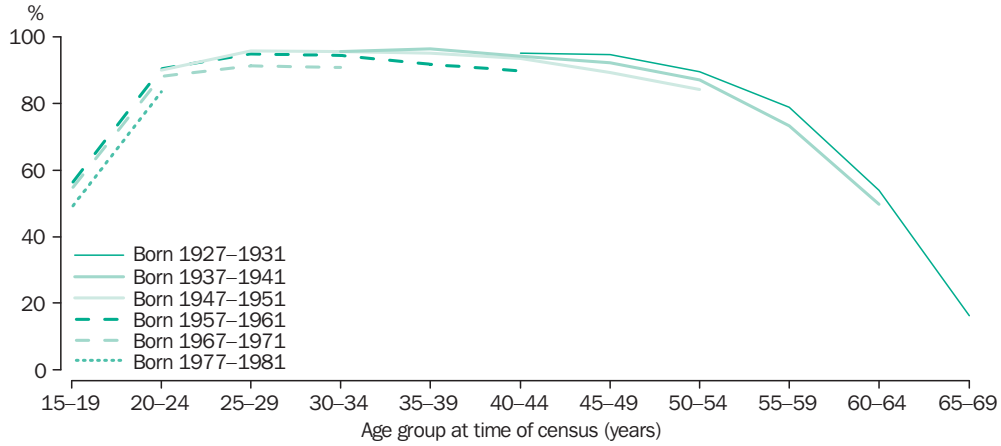
The *labour force* consists of people aged 15 years and over who are employed, or those who do not have a job but are actively looking for work and are available to start work. The *labour force participation rate* is the proportion of all people aged 15 years and over who are in the labour force.

Selected indicators of changing labour force characteristics

	Units	*1971*	*2001*
Labour force participation	rate	58.8	63.0
Female labour force participation	rate	37.1	55.3
Members of the labour force aged 55 years and over	%	13.2	11.5
Employed persons in full-time work	%	89.0	69.4
Employed persons working in service industries	%	56.6	74.9
Employed persons with bachelor degree or higher qualification	%	3.2	18.7
Persons aged 15–24 years attending a school or other educational institution	%	34.8	54.2

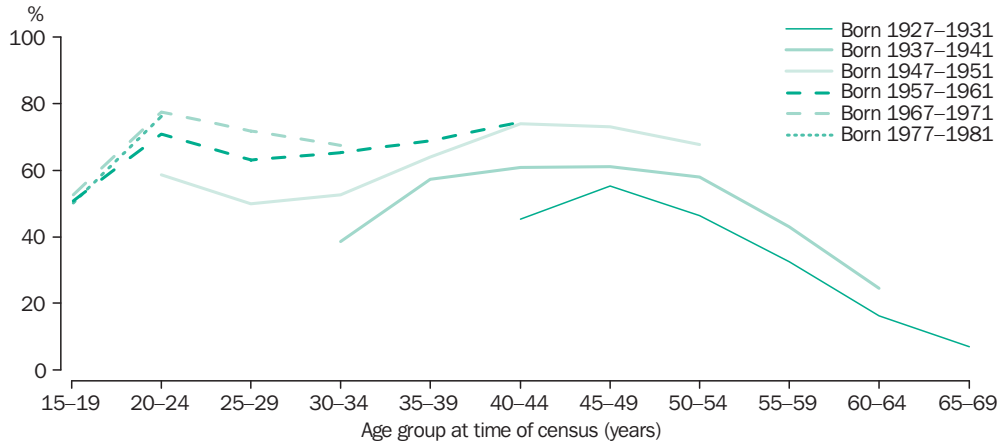
Source: ABS 1971 and 2001 Censuses of Population and Housing.

Labour force participation rates for males in selected birth year groups — 1971–2001



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

Labour force participation rates for females in selected birth year groups — 1971–2001



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

of labour force participation for each cohort with the levels experienced by other cohorts at the same ages shows how the labour force experience of successive groups of Australians has changed over time.

Participation in the labour force

Between 1971 and 2001, the overall level of men's labour force participation declined from 81% to 71%. When comparing successive cohorts, this overall decline reflects relatively consistent decreases in the labour force participation of men across all stages of their working lives. Comparing the cohorts of men aged between 20–24 and 50–54 years in 1971 with those in the same age groups 30 years later (i.e. in 2001), there was a consistent decline of between 5 and 8 percentage points in labour force participation across all age groups.

Comparisons of cohorts at older ages (i.e. between 50–54 and 65–69 years) show larger declines. For example, in 1971, three-quarters of the cohort of men born in 1907–1911 were participating in the labour force at age 60–64 years, compared with half of the cohort aged 60–64 years in 2001 (those born in 1937–1941). These larger declines in participation reflect the trend towards earlier retirement among men. While some older men choose early retirement, others leave the labour force as a result of industry restructuring and the higher incidence of long-term unemployment in older age groups (see *Australian Social Trends 2000*, Retirement and retirement intentions, pp. 130–133).

In contrast to the decline in men's labour force participation, the participation rate for women increased from 37% to 55% between 1971 and 2001. In addition to general

acceptance of women in the workforce, greater opportunities emerged for women to participate in paid work while raising children, such as the increased availability of child care and more flexible working arrangements (notably part-time work). Women were also able to participate and progress in a wider variety of jobs as a result of increased completion of secondary school, access to and participation in post-school education, and management of fertility through increased use of contraception.

When comparing successive cohorts of women at the same age, participation in the labour force increased over time for almost all age groups. The only exceptions to this were in the youngest age groups (15–19 and 20–24 years), where slight falls occurred for the youngest cohorts, reflecting increased participation in education among younger women. The most substantial increases in labour force participation for successive cohorts of women occurred when they were in the age groups between 20–24 and 45–49 years.

Despite this growth in participation, women in all cohorts tended to have lower labour force participation during the years they were most likely to have very young children. During these years, the lowest levels of labour force participation for the three cohorts of women born between 1947 and 1961 (i.e. those aged between 40 and 54 years in 2001), were when they were aged 25–29 years. Consistent with current trends of younger women delaying marriage and child bearing, the following two cohorts (those born in 1962–1971) had lower levels of labour force participation when they were aged 30–34 years. In keeping with this, the largest increase in women's labour force participation occurred across the successive cohorts of women aged 25–29 years. For the cohorts of women in this age group in 1971 (those born in 1942–1946) and those in 2001 (those born in 1972–1976), the participation rate increased from 39% to 73% respectively.

The next largest increase in participation across cohorts was among women aged 45–49 years between 1971 and 2001 (from 43% to 76%). While reflecting the overall increased participation of women in the workforce, this trend may also be influenced by increasing dependence on dual incomes within many families and some women returning to or taking up paid work after separation or divorce.

Full-time and part-time workers

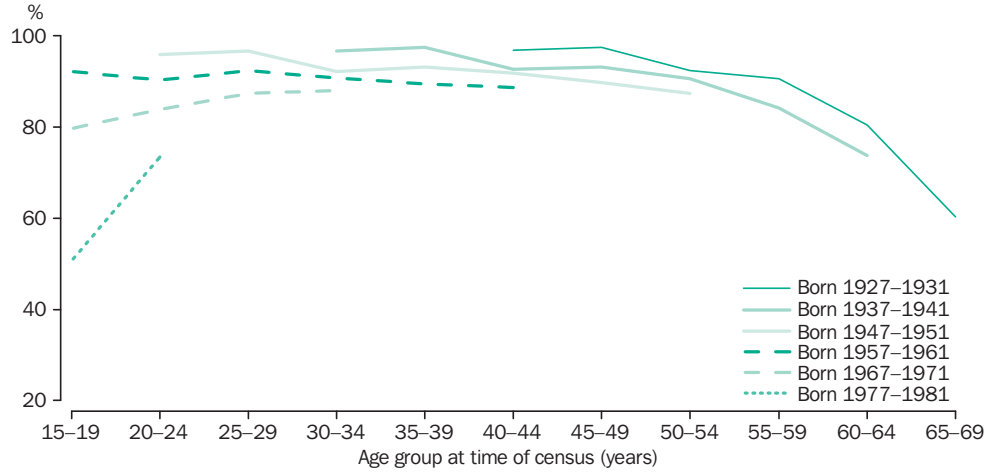
People employed *full-time* are those who reported working 35 hours or more per week in the week prior to the census.

People employed *part-time* are those who reported working 1–34 hours per week in the week prior to the census.

Full-time or part-time work

In an increasingly competitive economy, the use of part-time employees can be seen by business as an avenue to achieve flexibility and gain cost advantages.[1] Part-time work can also benefit employees, such as parents and students, as it provides income and involvement in the labour market while allowing reduced or flexible working hours. On the other hand, part-time work is also associated with lower

Proportion of employed males working full-time for selected birth year groups — 1971–2001



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

earnings than full-time work, due to fewer hours being worked, and therefore does not suit the needs of some workers.

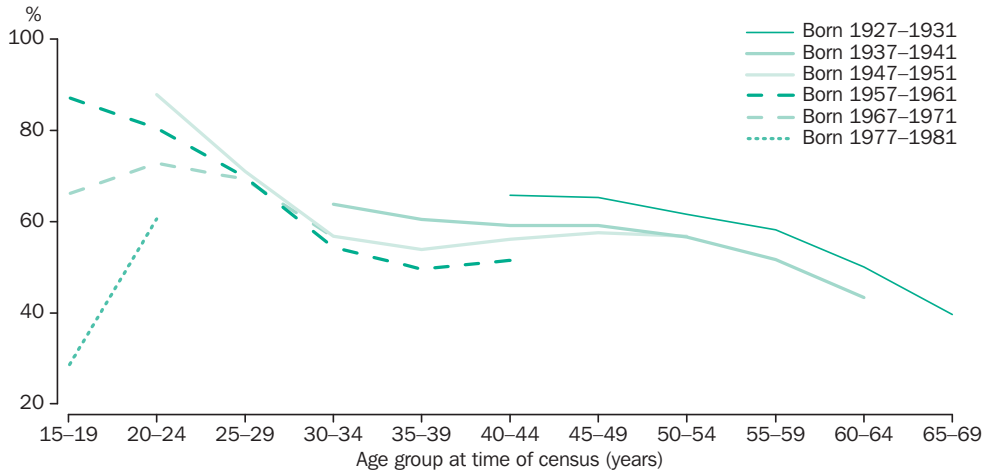
Over the latter part of the 20th century, most employed men worked full-time (approximately 90% or more), until they reached 55 years of age. From age 55 years, the propensity to be working full-time decreased. However, in keeping with a shift to part-time work, the likelihood of workers in successive cohorts to be working full-time at any particular age declined over time. The size and reasons for these declines varied at different stages in their working lives.

Among employed men from the youngest four cohorts (those born between 1962–1966 and 1977–1981), the propensity to be working full-time decreased more markedly than for those in older cohorts. Moreover, these declines were largest for men in their early working years (i.e. those aged between 15–19 and 20–24 years). In 1986, of those aged 15–19 years (those born in 1967–1971), 80% were working full-time. In 2001, the cohort born 15 years later (in 1982–1986) were in the same age group and 43% were working full-time. This was 36 percentage points lower than the cohort mentioned above. These declines are consistent with the trend towards students working part-time while studying, and the overall increase in participation in further education during the last two decades of the 20th century (see *Australian Social Trends 2001*, Combining study and work, pp. 113–115).

Over the 30 years to 2001, most of the growth in women's participation in the labour force reflects their take-up of part-time work. As a result, while overall numbers of employed women increased over this period, the proportion of employed women working full-time declined across almost all age groups, when comparing successive cohorts at the same ages. In the 1970s, women in the youngest age groups were the most likely of all age groups to be employed on a full-time basis. Over the 30 years to 2001, this became increasingly less likely to be the case. This change was at least partly associated with increased participation in further education and the associated take up of part-time work. For example, in 1971, 88% of employed women aged 20–24 years (those born in 1947–1951), were working full-time. By 2001, 61% of employed women in the same age group (those born in 1977–1981) worked full-time.

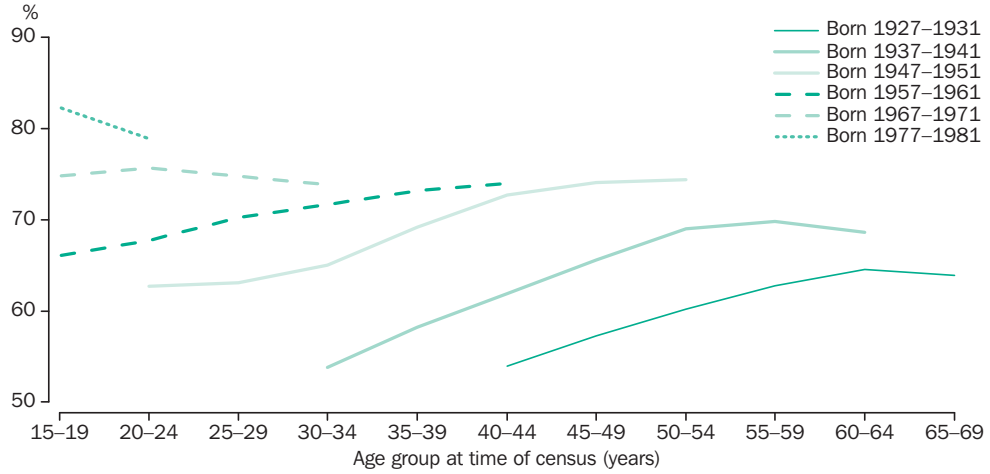
In contrast, women in the 25–29 and 30–34 year age groups experienced little change in the propensity to be working full-time across successive cohorts. This is likely to reflect increasing numbers of women who establish a career after obtaining post-school qualifications and the delay in child-bearing often associated with this. The lower likelihood of working women to be engaged in full-time, rather than part-time, employment in successive cohorts is again evident among older age groups of women (i.e. those aged between 35–39 and 65–69 years). Women working part-time while caring for children are also likely to be influencing this trend, along with women in the older age groups shifting to part-time work as they approach retirement.

Proportion of employed females working full-time for selected birth year groups — 1971–2001



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

Proportion of employed persons working in service industries for selected birth year groups — 1971–2001



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

Shift to service industries

Over the latter half of the 20th century, shifts in the composition of the labour force, such as the increase in part-time work, occurred alongside substantial growth in employment in the service industries. The likelihood of successive cohorts to be working in service industries, rather than in goods-producing industries, at any particular age increased between 1971 and 2001. Over the 30 years to 2001, across successive cohorts, increasingly larger proportions of people in each age group have been employed within service industries. In 1971, 54% of 40–44 year olds (those born in 1927–1931) were employed in service industries. In comparison, in 2001, 74% of people in the same age group (from the cohort born in 1957–1961) were employed in these industries.

In addition to the general expansion of employment in the service industries, these industries are relatively large employers of women, compared with goods-producing industries. This is most notable for particular service industry groups such as Wholesale and retail trade; Community services; Recreational, personal and other services; and Finance (see *Australian Social Trends 1997*, Changing industries, changing jobs, pp. 93–98). Between 1971 and 2001, the proportion of employed women working in service industries rose from 74% to 87%. Over the same period, the proportion of employed men working in these industries also rose markedly (from 49% to 65%).

Goods-producing and service industries

In this article, industry information is presented by combining broad divisions of the ASIC and ANZSIC industry classifications into two groups:

- *Service industries,* which are defined as Property and business services; Accommodation, cafes and restaurants; Cultural and recreational services; Personal and other services; Health and community services; Retail trade; Education; Wholesale trade; Government administration and defence; Finance and insurance; Transport and storage; and Communication services.
- *Goods-producing industries*, which are defined as Construction; Agriculture, forestry and fishing; Manufacturing; Mining; and Electricity, gas and water.

Some industries listed as service industries have goods-producing components. However, the ABS classifies industries according to their predominant activity. See *Information Paper: Australian and New Zealand Standard Industrial Classification (ANZSIC), 1993* (ABS cat. no. 1298.0).

Endnotes

1 O'Connor K., Stimson R. and Daly M., 2001, *Australia's Changing Economic Geography: A society dividing*, Oxford University Press, South Melbourne.

Multiple spells of looking for work

UNDERUTILISED LABOUR

In 2001, 5% of people aged 15–69 years who had been in the labour force for some or all of the previous year had experienced at least two spells of looking for work during that year.

While some people experience ongoing periods of paid work, others move between employment, unemployment and being out of the labour force. The inability to secure continuous employment over a long period of time may restrict a person's capacity to undertake and fulfil long-term financial and other commitments such as repaying a mortgage or raising children. It may also limit their development of work experience, skills, knowledge and social networks. However, not all movement between employment and being out of work is necessarily involuntary. People leave employment for a variety of reasons, such as retrenchment, unsatisfactory work conditions, to care for a child, to study, or for financial benefit (e.g. to get a better paying job). Furthermore, a succession of short-term jobs may suit the life stage, or career path of some people.

This article focuses on people who had at least two spells looking for paid work, interspersed with periods of employment or being out of the labour force, over a 12-month period. It does not include people who looked for another job while employed, or who moved directly from one business or employer to another (for more information about this group, see *Australian Social Trends 2001*, Changing employer or business, pp. 129–132).

Employment, unemployment and spells of looking for work

Data in this article are from the ABS Labour Force Experience Survey most recently conducted in February 2001. The Labour Force Experience Survey was first conducted in 1969, and has been conducted on a biennial basis since February 1996. The scope of the survey is limited to the civilian population aged 15–69 years.

Unemployed persons 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.

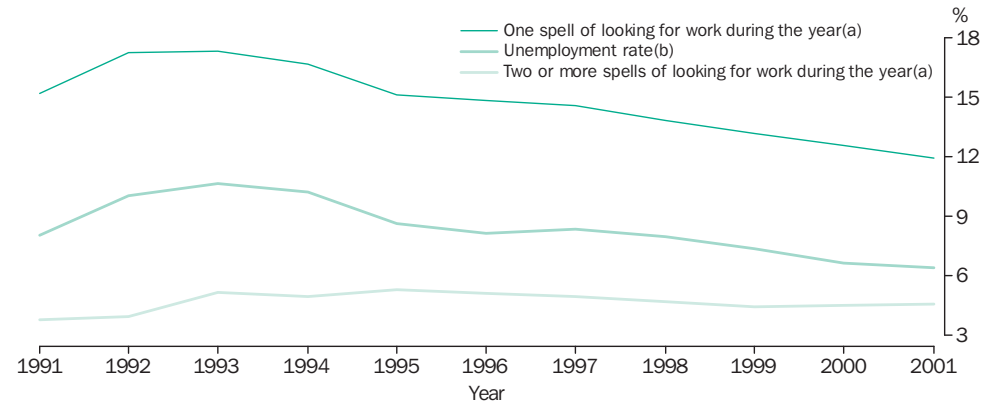
Employed people are those aged 15 years and over who, during the reference week, worked for one hour or more for pay, profit, commission, payment in kind in a job or business or on a farm, or worked without pay in a family business, or who had a job but were not at work.

The *labour force* consists of persons who were employed or unemployed during the survey reference week.

The *unemployment rate*, for any group, is the number of unemployed persons expressed as a percentage of the labour force in the same group.

Number of spells of looking for work during the previous 12 months is the number of different periods, including the current period, during which a person was not working and was looking for a job, i.e. unemployed. People who have experienced two or more spells have spent at least two separate periods looking for work while not working during the previous 12 months interspersed by at least one period of employment, or being out of the labour force.

Persons aged 15–69 years: spells of looking for work and unemployment rate



(a) As a proportion of those who had been in the labour force for some or all of the 12 months ending March until 1994, and the 12 months ending February thereafter. Data points for 1996, 1998 and 2000 have been estimated.
(b) Seasonally adjusted annual average ending 30 June.

Source: Labour Force Experience, Australia (ABS cat. no. 6206.0) and *Labour Force, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6203.0).

Persons(a) who looked for work over the past year(b): number of spells of looking for work

Number of spells	*1991*	*1993*	*1995*	*1997*	*1999*	*2001*
	%	%	%	%	%	%
One	80.0	77.0	74.0	74.6	74.7	72.2
Two	9.6	9.4	11.2	11.3	10.8	11.2
Three	4.5	4.9	5.6	5.4	5.3	5.9
Four or more	5.8	8.7	9.2	8.7	9.1	10.6
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total	**1 748.7**	**2 110.1**	**1 968.4**	**1 926.5**	**1 777.5**	**1 730.6**

(a) Aged 15–69 years who had been in the labour force for some or all of the previous 12 months.
(b) Year ending March until 1993, and the year ending February thereafter.

Source: Labour Force Experience, Australia (ABS cat. no. 6206.0).

Spells of looking for work

In the year to February 2001, 12% of people aged 15–69 years who had been in the labour force for some or all of the 12-month period experienced one spell of looking for work, and a further 5% experienced two or more spells. Over the 12 months to June 2001, the unemployment rate averaged around 6%. The unemployment rate refers only to people who are unemployed at a point in time (i.e. in the given survey reference week), while the proportion of people who had at least one spell of looking for work refers to their experiences over a 12-month period. However, while they relate to quite different lengths of time (and hence have quite different levels), between 1991 and 2001, movement in the unemployment rate and in numbers of people who had experienced one spell of looking for work were similar. Both rates increased from 1991 with the unemployment rate reaching 11% in December 1992, and the proportion of people who had one spell of looking for work reaching 17% in March 1993. Since then, both rates have generally declined. However, the proportion of people who had experienced two or more spells was relatively stable over this period at around 5%, despite the decreasing unemployment rate.

Persons(a) who had two or more spells of looking for work(b): time spent in the labour force(b) — 2001

Weeks in the labour force	*Proportion of people*
	%
1 to under 4	1.7
4 to under 13	9.3
13 to under 26	7.1
26 to under 39	13.1
39 to under 52	20.4
52	48.5
Total	**100.0**
	'000
Total	**480.8**

(a) Aged 15–69 years who had been in the labour force for some or all of the previous 12 months.
(b) During the 12 months to February 2001.

Source: ABS 2001 Labour Force Experience Survey.

Of the 1,730,600 people aged 15–69 years who experienced at least one spell of looking for work during the 12 months to February 2001, the majority had one spell of looking for work (72%). Smaller proportions had two spells (11%), three spells (6%), and four or more spells (11%). Between 1991 and 2001, the proportion who had one spell of looking for work declined by 8 percentage points while those who experienced two and three spells increased by 2 and 1 percentage points respectively. The proportion of people who experienced four or more spells almost doubled (an increase from 6% to 11%).

Multiple spells of looking for work

During the 12 months to February 2001, 480,800 people experienced two or more spells of looking for paid work, interspersed with periods of employment or being out of the labour force. While all of these people spent some time in the labour force, almost one in five (18%) were in the labour force for less than half the year, and just over half (52%) spent some time out of the labour force. Among those who experienced two or more spells of looking for work,

Persons aged 15–69 years(a) who had two or more spells of looking for work(b): full-time and part-time status of employment(b) — 2001

	Males	*Females*	*Persons*
	%	%	%
Worked at some time	*86.9*	*68.3*	*79.0*
Time worked was all full-time	38.0	14.8	28.1
Time worked was more full-time than part-time	17.7	8.8	13.9
Time worked full-time was same as time worked part-time	*1.1	*0.5	*0.8
Time worked was more part-time than full-time	8.9	8.3	8.6
Time worked was all part-time	21.3	35.9	27.5
Did not work at any time	13.1	31.7	21.0
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	'000	'000	'000
Total	**276.3**	**204.6**	**480.8**

(a) Who were in the labour force at some stage in the 12 months to February 2001.
(b) During the 12 months to February 2001.

Source: ABS 2001 Labour Force Experience Survey.

proportionately more women than men spent at least half of the year out of the labour force (27% and 12% respectively). In keeping with this, women were generally more likely than men to have been out of the labour force at some time (66% and 41% respectively).

Among people who had multiple spells of looking for work, 21% found no employment during the 12 months to February 2001. Proportionately more women than men experienced this with 32% of women remaining unemployed or out of the labour force over the entire period, compared with 13% of men.

However, 79% of people who had multiple spells of looking for work in the 12 months to February 2001 were employed at some stage during the year. Just over one-third (34%) had one employer, and 46% had two or more employers. The full-time and part-time status of these jobs differed between men and women. Men were more likely than women to have gained work in jobs that were all full-time (38% compared with 15%), while women were more likely than men to have been employed in jobs that were all part-time (36% and 21% respectively).

Despite these differences, men and women were equally likely overall to have experienced multiple spells of looking for work during the 12 months to February 2001 (5% and 4% respectively). However, there were notable differences between people in different age groups. Younger people were more likely than older people to have experienced multiple spells, with the highest proportions being among people aged 15–19 years (8%), and those aged 20–24 years (6%). This partly reflects the higher proportion of 15–24 year olds who take short-term employment while studying, and who tend to experience a variety of jobs before settling on a career path (see *Australian Social Trends 2001,* Changing employer or business, pp. 129–132). Many of these jobs tend to be casual (i.e. without leave entitlements), require relatively low skill levels, and do not require previous work experience. The likelihood of having experienced multiple spells of looking for work was progressively lower among older age groups, and was lowest among men and women aged 55–69 years (3% and 2% respectively). This is in keeping with the lower mobility of older workers compared with younger workers.

The propensity to experience multiple spells of looking for work also varied according to a person's living arrangements. Partnered

Persons aged 15–69 years(a): proportion who had two or more spells of looking for work(b) — 2001

	%
Age group (years)	
15–19	8.3
20–24	6.4
25–34	4.9
35–44	3.7
45–54	3.7
55–69	2.6
Relationship in household	
Partner in a couple with dependants(c)	3.2
Partner in a couple without dependants(c)	2.9
Lone parent with dependants(c)	9.9
People without a partner or dependants(c)	6.4
Total	**4.6**

(a) Who were in the labour force at some stage in the 12 months to February 2001.
(b) During the 12 months to February 2001.
(c) Children under 15 years of age or aged 15–24 years who are full-time students (except those who have a partner or child of their own usually resident in the household).

Source: ABS 2001 Labour Force Experience Survey.

people were less likely to have experienced multiple spells of looking for work during the 12 months to February 2001 (3%) than people without partners. This partly relates to people of workforce age with partners generally being in older age groups than those without partners. In comparison, the likelihood of having had multiple spells of looking for work was highest among lone parents (10%). This may reflect the greater difficulties faced by single parents when balancing work around family responsibilities. Lone parents have a greater tendency to be employed in jobs that are lower skilled, and in jobs that do not provide leave entitlements.

...job characteristics

The likelihood of people experiencing multiple spells of work also varies according to the type of work they are employed in. This is partly because certain types of jobs are more likely than others to be associated with mobility within the labour force, or with movement in and out of the labour force. In particular, those jobs which are seasonal, casual or which do not require previous experience or extensive training are more likely to be offered by employers on a short-term basis, or to be taken up by people looking for short-term employment. Many of these jobs also have lower skill requirements than those offered on a longer-term basis.

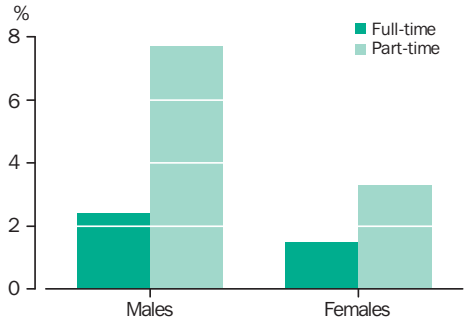
Proportion of persons(a) who had two or more spells of looking for work and proportion of employees without leave entitlements by industry(b) — 2001

Industry	*Proportion experiencing two or more spells(c)* %	*Proportion without leave entitlements(d)* %
Construction	5.1	32.6
Cultural and recreational services	3.9	42.0
Property and business services	3.7	29.8
Accommodation, cafes and restaurants	3.7	55.2
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	3.1	54.2
Retail trade	2.9	44.9
Manufacturing	2.6	13.9
Transport and storage	2.5	23.2
Personal and other services	2.2	22.1
Wholesale trade	2.0	18.7
Mining	*1.9	12.6
Health and community services	1.7	22.5
Education	1.6	18.2
Communication services	*1.4	15.3
Finance and insurance	*1.3	13.3
Government administration and defence	*1.2	9.9
Electricity, gas and water supply	**0.9	11.0

(a) Aged 15–69 years.
(b) Main job of employment at February 2001.
(c) During the 12 months to February 2001.
(d) Data relate to employees at August 2001.

Source: ABS 2001 Labour Force Experience Survey and *Employee Earnings, Benefits and Trade Union Membership, Australia, August 2001* (ABS cat. no. 6310.0).

Full-time/part-time status(a) of persons(b) who had two or more spells of looking for work(c) — 2001



(a) Main job of employment at February 2001.
(b) Aged 15–69 years.
(c) During the 12 months to February 2001.

Source: ABS 2001 Labour Force Experience Survey.

Half of all people aged 15–69 years who experienced multiple spells of looking for work were employed at February 2001. Of these 242,800 people, part-time workers were more likely than full-time workers to have experienced multiple spells of looking for work during the previous 12 months (5% and 2% respectively). Men working in part-time jobs were more likely to experience multiple spells of looking for work than men in full-time jobs (8% and 2% respectively), or women in part-time or full-time jobs (3% and 1% respectively). This may be because on average men who work part-time tend to be younger than women who work part-time. They are also more likely to be employed on a casual basis. In August 2001, 80% of men who were an employee in their main job were not entitled to paid holiday or sick leave in that job compared with 58% of women.[1]

With the exception of Manufacturing, people employed in industries where comparatively high proportions of employees did not have leave entitlements were more likely to have experienced multiple spells of looking for work during the 12 months to February 2001. Many of these industries employ younger casual workers, or have a seasonal aspect to them. People employed in Construction, Cultural and recreational services, Property and business services, and Accommodation,

cafes and restaurants were most likely to have experienced multiple spells of looking for work (each over 3%). These industry groups also contained 29% or more of employees without leave entitlements. On the other hand, people working in Electricity, gas and water supply, Government administration and defence, Finance and insurance, and Communication service industries were least likely to have had multiple spells of looking for work (each less than 2%). These industries had relatively low proportions of employees without leave entitlements (each less than 16%), and also comparatively high proportions of people working in occupational groups such as Managers and administrators, and Professionals.

The likelihood of having had multiple spells of looking for work also varied according to the occupational group in which people were employed at February 2001. People employed in occupational groups with higher skill levels tended to be less likely to have had multiple spells of looking for work. In February 2001, those employed as Managers and administrators, Associate professionals, and Advanced clerical, sales and service workers were the least likely of all occupation groups to have experienced multiple spells of looking for work in the previous 12 months (each less than 2%). For Managers and administrators, this may partly reflect the higher proportion of older workers employed in this occupational group, consistent with the length of time or training often needed to reach these positions.[2] People in occupational groups with lower skill requirements such as Labourers and related workers (6%), Intermediate production and transport workers (4%), and Elementary clerical, sales and service workers (3%) were among the most likely to have had multiple spells of looking for work. A high proportion of younger people tend to be employed as Labourers and related workers, and Elementary clerical, sales and service workers. Proportionately more men than women are employed as Labourers and related workers, and Intermediate production and transport workers, and more women are employed as Elementary clerical, sales and service workers.

Proportion of persons(a) who had two or more spells of looking for work(b) by occupation(c) — 2001

Major group (of occupation) (Skill level(d))	%
Managers and administrators (1)	*0.5
Professionals (1)	1.8
Associate professionals (2)	1.2
Tradespersons and related workers (3)	3.7
Advanced clerical and service workers (3)	1.2
Intermediate clerical, sales and service workers (4)	2.7
Intermediate production and transport workers (4)	3.8
Elementary clerical, sales and service workers (5)	3.4
Labourers and related workers (5)	5.6

(a) Aged 15–69 years.
(b) During the 12 months to February.
(c) Main job of employment at February 2001.
(d) Occupations are based on the ASCO — Australian Standard Classification of Occupations, 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 Labour Force Experience Survey.

Endnotes

1 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2002, *Employee Earnings, Benefits and Trade Union Membership, Australia, 2001,* cat. no. 6310.0, ABS, Canberra.

2 Norris, K. and McLean, B. 2000, 'How long do jobs last in Australia?', *Australian Bulletin of Labour,* Vol. 26, No. 2, pp. 97–106.

Economic resources

Economic resources: national summary

	INCOME GROWTH	Units	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
1	Real net national disposable income per capita(a)	$'000	21.9	22.4	22.9	23.5	24.4	25.3	26.2	27.0	28.0	28.3	29.2
2	Real GDP per capita(a)	$'000	r27.2	r27.9	r28.7	r29.6	r30.4	r31.2	r32.2	r33.6	r34.5	r34.7	35.7
	Weekly earnings												
3	Average weekly total earnings – all employees	$	r510	r526	r533	r551	r574	n.a.	r610	n.a.	r653	n.a.	698
4	Average weekly ordinary time earnings of full-time adult non-managerial employees	$	541	558	578	608	634	n.a.	692	n.a.	737	n.a.	800
5	Total hourly rates of pay excluding bonuses	index no.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	100.0	101.2	104.4	107.4	111.1	114.8
6	Full weekly benefit received by a single age pensioner	$	196.3	196.5	196.8	189.3	196.8	199.1	201.6	203.3	202.8	206.7	210.9
7	Full weekly benefit received by a couple with two children	$	326	339	347	355	370	386	393	397	405	r445	465
8	Consumer price index	index no.	107.3	108.4	110.4	113.9	118.7	120.3	120.3	121.8	124.7	132.2	136.0

	INCOME DISTRIBUTION	Units	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
9	Female/male ratio of mean weekly ordinary time earnings of full-time adult non-managerial employees	ratio	0.92	0.91	0.92	0.91	0.89	n.a.	0.89	n.a.	0.90	n.a.	0.89
	Household disposable income												
	Mean weekly income of selected households(b)												
10	Lone person aged under 35	$	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	383	403	437	414	n.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
11	Couple only, reference person aged under 35	$	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	809	834	865	875	n.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
12	Couple with dependent children only	$	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	752	763	789	834	n.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
13	One parent with dependent children only	$	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	367	394	408	435	n.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
14	Couple only, reference person aged 65 and over	$	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	373	389	446	422	n.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
15	Lone person aged 65 and over	$	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	201	218	235	236	n.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
	Mean weekly equivalised income for selected groups of households(b)												
16	Low income	$	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	408	408	427	427	n.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
17	Middle income	$	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	687	680	707	720	n.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
18	High income	$	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	1 556	1 518	1 561	1 642	n.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
	Weekly equivalised income of households at top of selected income percentiles(b)												
19	20th(P20)	$	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	402	404	419	420	n.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
20	50th(P50)	$	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	687	676	704	716	n.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
21	80th(P80)	$	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	1 122	1 121	1 160	1 180	n.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
	Ratios of weekly equivalised incomes of households at top of selected income percentiles												
22	P90/P10	ratio	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	3.92	3.90	3.84	3.96	n.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
23	P80/P20	ratio	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	2.79	2.77	2.77	2.81	n.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
24	P80/P50	ratio	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	1.63	1.66	1.65	1.65	n.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
25	P20/P50	ratio	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	0.59	0.60	0.60	0.59	n.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
	Share of weekly equivalised income received by households with:												
26	High incomes	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	39.1	38.6	38.3	39.2	n.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
27	Low incomes	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	10.2	10.4	10.5	10.2	n.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
28	Gini coefficient of weekly equivalised household income	ratio	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	0.320	0.315	0.309	0.322	n.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.

Economic resources: national summary cont.

	EXPENDITURE	Units	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
29	Real household final consumption expenditure per capita(a)	$'000	16.9	17.0	17.2	17.9	18.3	18.6	19.3	20.0	20.5	20.9	21.4
	SOURCES OF INCOME	*Units*	*1992*	*1993*	*1994*	*1995*	*1996*	*1997*	*1998*	*1999*	*2000*	*2001*	*2002*
	Main source of income – of all households												
30	Wages and salaries	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	r58.0	r57.1	r56.8	r57.0	n.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
31	Own business or partnership	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	r6.2	r7.4	6.6	r6.0	n.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
32	Government pensions and allowances	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	r28.1	r27.7	r28.0	r28.4	n.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
33	Other	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	r6.6	r6.9	r7.7	r7.6	n.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
	Income support												
34	GDP spent on social assistance benefits in cash to residents(b)	%	8.3	8.6	8.9	8.7	8.7	8.7	8.3	8.4	8.4	9.1	8.6
	Main source of income is government pensions and allowances – proportion of all households in selected life-cycle groups												
35	Lone person aged under 35	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	12.7	14.8	15.3	16.1	n.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
36	Couple only, reference person aged under 35	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	**3.4	**1.8	**3.0	**3.9	n.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
37	Couple with dependent children only	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	10.8	11.3	10.8	10.9	n.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
38	One parent with dependent children only	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	64.1	59.9	66.1	59.1	n.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
39	Couple only, reference person aged 65 and over	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	69.8	70.3	64.2	65.6	n.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
40	Lone person aged 65 and over	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	83.5	79.3	79.5	78.1	n.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
	Receipients of selected government payments												
41	Labour market program allowance(c)	'000	851.8	913.8	878.3	822.6	846.6	829.9	809.6	745.9	672.3	665.8	n.y.a.
42	Single-parent payment(d)	'000	287.2	298.4	313.4	324.9	342.3	358.9	372.3	r384.9	397.3	424.6	436.6
43	Disability support pension(d)	'000	378.6	406.6	436.2	464.4	499.2	527.5	555.3	r577.8	r602.4	623.9	658.9
44	Age pension	'000	1 446	1 516	1 582	1 579	1 603	1 680	1 683	1 716	1 730	1 786	1 811
45	Age pensioners – of persons of qualifying age	%	61.0	62.8	64.3	63.0	62.7	64.4	65.4	65.5	65.9	r65.8	n.y.a.
46	Females – of all age pensioners	%	69.0	68.2	67.5	65.5	64.4	64.4	63.5	63.1	62.1	61.6	60.8

(a) Chain volume measure, reference year 2000–01.

(b) Adjusted for changes in the Consumer Price Index; values are given in 1997–98 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: Data for income distribution, sources of income (except average weekly total earnings data which are at May) are for the year ending 30 June. Income support data are at June.

Economic resources: state summary

INCOME GROWTH	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
1 Gross household disposable income per capita	$'000	2001–2002	25.5	25.1	21.5	22.0	23.9	19.5	25.6	34.3	24.2
Weekly earnings											
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	115.6	114.7	114.2	114.1	114.5	112.6	113.2	113.5	114.8

INCOME DISTRIBUTION	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
Household disposable income											
Mean weekly income of selected households											
6 Lone person aged under 35	$	1997–1998	431.2	411.3	430.0	424.2	355.2	295.7	*492.5	*506.0	413.7
7 Couple only, reference person aged under 35	$	1997–1998	910.0	908.2	798.8	807.9	885.9	742.3	*1 016.4	*1 003.5	875.0
8 Couple with dependent children only	$	1997–1998	833.1	840.4	863.5	728.2	820.5	713.8	1 037.4	969.8	833.8
9 One parent with dependent children only	$	1997–1998	422.7	449.2	425.9	412.4	460.6	390.8	612.3	468.0	434.5
10 Couple only, reference person aged 65 and over	$	1997–1998	432.8	420.6	416.5	353.6	438.1	406.0	**277.3	*683.4	421.9
11 Lone person aged 65 and over	$	1997–1998	237.4	223.8	247.5	224.8	248.7	224.7	253.2	297.1	236.1
Mean weekly equivalised income for selected groups of households											
12 Low income	$	1997–1998	425	445	426	398	433	405	479	509	427
13 Middle income	$	1997–1998	733	734	709	629	730	604	887	932	720
14 High income	$	1997–1998	1 740	1 590	1 604	1 373	1 729	1 404	1 666	1 783	1 642
Weekly equivalised income of households at top of selected income percentile											
15 20th(P20)	$	1997–1998	421	439	420	398	422	408	491	519	420
16 50th(P50)	$	1997–1998	725	722	700	627	739	595	860	943	716
17 80th(P80)	$	1997–1998	1 229	1 178	1 125	1 071	1 206	963	1 281	1 428	1 180
Ratios of weekly equivalised incomes of households at top of selected income percentiles											
18 P90/P10	ratio	1997–1998	4.11	3.90	3.80	3.59	4.07	3.41	4.13	4.44	3.96
19 P80/P20	ratio	1997–1998	2.92	2.68	2.68	2.69	2.86	2.36	2.61	2.75	2.81
20 P80/P50	ratio	1997–1998	1.70	1.63	1.61	1.71	1.63	1.62	1.49	1.51	1.65
21 P20/P50	ratio	1997–1998	0.58	0.61	0.60	0.63	0.57	0.69	0.57	0.55	0.59
Share of weekly equivalised income received by households with:											
22 High incomes	%	1997–1998	40.2	37.9	38.9	37.8	40.3	39.1	35.6	35.9	39.2
23 Low incomes	%	1997–1998	9.8	10.6	10.3	10.9	10.0	11.2	10.4	10.2	10.2
24 Gini coefficient of weekly equivalised household income	ratio	1997–1998	0.336	0.307	0.316	0.308	0.332	0.304	0.290	0.295	0.322

Economic resources: state summary continued

	SOURCES OF INCOME	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
	Main source of income – of all households											
25	Wages and salaries	%	1998	r56.8	r59.8	r55.8	r49.3	r57.9	r51.5	r72.4	r65.7	r57.0
26	Own business or partnership	%	1998	5.6	5.9	6.9	5.2	7.9	4.2	*3.2	*4.9	6.0
27	Government pensions and allowances	%	1998	r29.2	r25.1	r29.4	r35.5	r26.0	r36.7	r21.1	r15.9	r28.4
28	Other	%	1998	7.5	8.2	7.1	7.7	7.2	6.8	n.a.	12.6	7.6
	Income support											
	Main source of income is government pensions and allowances – proportion of all households in selected life-cycle groups											
29	Lone person aged under 35	%	1998	15.1	*11.9	*13.9	*17.5	*25.3	*36.6	n.a.	n.a.	16.1
30	Couple only, reference person aged under 35	%	1998	*6.4	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	3.9
31	Couple with dependent children only	%	1998	12.8	7.8	12.3	16.7	*7.4	*11.5	n.a.	n.a.	10.9
32	One parent with dependent children only	%	1998	60.2	54.1	62.4	70.0	56.5	62.7	n.a.	**47.6	59.1
33	Couple only, reference person aged 65 and over	%	1998	66.8	67.0	60.4	72.6	61.5	75.7	n.a.	**32.7	65.6
34	Lone person aged 65 and over	%	1998	81.1	71.0	80.6	79.4	77.1	88.0	n.a.	**51.5	78.1
	Recipients of selected government payments											
35	Labour market program allowance(a)	'000	2001	196.2	147.1	151.1	58.7	66.3	23.6	15.4	6.0	664.9
36	Single-parent payment(b)	'000	2002	141.5	95.4	95.2	35.1	45.1	12.8	6.0	5.4	436.6
37	Disability support pension(b)	'000	2002	217.1	155.2	124.9	63.0	55.1	22.9	5.2	6.7	658.9
38	Age pension(b)	'000	2002	601.4	462.8	308.6	170.6	151.0	49.2	5.7	16.5	1 810.8
39	Age pensioners – of persons of qualifying age	%	2001	62.4	65.7	63.7	69.3	63.1	66.9	64.4	51.4	65.8
40	Females – of all age pensioners	%	2001	62.4	62.2	61.4	62.2	62.4	62.2	57.1	64.4	61.6

(a) Point in time data which will not match average of weekly data. This data include people whom 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: Data for income distribution and sources of income (except average weekly total earnings data which are at May) are for the year ending 30 June. Income support data are at June.

Economic resources: data sources

DATA SOURCE	Indicators using this source
ABS Australian System of National Accounts, 2001–02.	National (34)
ABS Australian System of National Accounts, 2001–02 and ABS Estimated resident population.	National (29)
ABS Surveys of Income and Housing Costs.	National (10–28, 30–33, 35–40); State (6–34)
Australian National Accounts: State Accounts, 2001–02 (ABS cat. no. 5220.0).	State (1)
Australian System of National Accounts, 2001–02 (ABS cat. no. 5204.0).	National (1–2)
Consumer Price Index, Australia, September Quarter 2002 (ABS cat. no. 6401.0).	National (8)
Department of Family and Community Services administrative data.	National (6–7, 41–45); State (35–39)
Department of Family and Community Services administrative data and ABS Estimated resident population.	National (46); State (40)
Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia (ABS cat. no. 6306.0).	National (3–4, 9) State (2–3, 5)
Wage Cost Index, Australia, *June Quarter 2002* (ABS cat. no. 6345.0).	National (5); State (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 1 July 2002 the qualifying age for females was 62 years.
Reference: Commonwealth 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, salary sacrificed, overtime payments, and payments not related to the survey reference period, such as retrospective pay, pay in advance and leave loadings.
Non-managerial employees are those who are not managerial employees as defined below and includes 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 including ordinary time earnings plus overtime earnings.
Reference: *Average Weekly Earnings, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6302.0).

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.
Reference: *Housing Occupancy and Costs, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4130.0).

Couple with dependent children only household
a household which contains a couple, their dependent children, and no other persons.
Reference: *Housing Occupancy and Costs, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4130.0).

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: *Housing Occupancy and Costs, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4130.0).

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*.

Disposable income
gross income less personal income tax (including the Medicare levy).
Reference: *Income Distribution, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

Economic resources: definitions continued

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 or 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 and multiplied by 2.1 (the weight of a standard, 2 adult, 2 child household) to give an income that a standard household would need for a similar standard of living.
Reference: *Measuring Australia's Progress* (ABS cat. no. 1370.0).

Full-time employees
employees who usually work 35 hours or more a week, or the agreed or award hours for a full-time employee in their occupation.
Reference: *Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6306.0).

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 and one aged 5 or over but under 13). The calculation for 2002 includes unemployment benefits or 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.

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.

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: *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: *Income Distribution, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

Government pensions and allowances
payments from government under social security and related government programs.
Reference: *Income Distribution, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

High income households
households in the top income quintile (9th and 10th deciles) after being ranked by their equivalised income.
Reference: *Measuring Australia's Progress* (ABS cat. no. 1370.0).

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: *Housing Occupancy and Costs, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4130.0).

Households at the 10th (P10), 20th (P20), 50th (P50), 80th (P80) and 90th (P90) income percentile
households whose income is such that n% of households have less or equal income and (100-n%) have more income.
Reference: *Measuring Australia's Progress* (ABS cat. no. 1370.0).

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: *Housing Occupancy and Costs, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4130.0).

Low income households
households in the 2nd and 3rd income deciles after being ranked by their equivalised income.
Reference: *Measuring Australia's Progress* (ABS cat. no. 1370.0).

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: *Income Distribution, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

Managerial employees
managerial, executive and senior professional 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 receive payment for overtime.
Reference: *Employee Earnings and Hours, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6306.0).

Mean weekly income of households
the sum of the income of all households in a population, divided by the number of households in the population.
Reference: *Housing Occupancy and Costs, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4130.0).

Middle income households
households in the middle income quintile (5th and 6th deciles) after being ranked by their equivalised income.
Reference: *Measuring Australia's Progress* (ABS cat. no. 1370.0).

One parent with dependent children only household
a household which contains a single person with his/her dependent child(ren), and no other persons.

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: *Income Distribution, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

Percentiles
when households are ranked from the lowest to the highest on the basis of some characteristic such as their 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 of 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: *Measuring Australia's Progress* (ABS cat. no. 1370.0).

Economic resources: definitions continued

Ordinary time
employees' agreed hours of work including 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).

Ratios of incomes
the ratio is calculated by dividing the highest value in a selected percentile by the highest value in a second percentile (see percentiles). For example, the household at the top of the 80th percentile for Australia when ranked by weekly equivalised disposable income has a weekly equivalised disposable income of $1,180. If this is divided by the weekly equivalised disposable income of the household at the top of the 20th percentile ($420), the result is 3.96.

Reference: *Measuring Australia's Progress* (ABS cat. no. 1370.0).

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 2000–01) 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 2000–01, 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 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 use 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 person in a household who is the point of reference for family structures in that household i.e. the husband or wife in a couple household, the parent in a one-parent household, or the person in a lone-person household.

Reference: *Housing Occupancy and Costs, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4130.0).

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 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: *Income Distribution, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

The geography of income distribution

INCOME DISTRIBUTION

Contributed by Peter Siminski and Kate Norris, Social Policy Research Centre, University of New South Wales.

In 2001, average weekly equivalised gross household income in the Major Cities of Australia was 7% higher than the national average, while in Outer Regional areas it was 16% lower.

Income is a key factor in determining the standard of living of most Australian households, influencing both their access to economic resources and services, and ability to participate fully in society. The sustainability and wellbeing of regional and remote communities is a current focus of public policy debate in Australia, and differences in the level and the distribution of incomes across Australia is one aspect of this debate. This article uses Remoteness Areas to compare the level and distribution of household income across different parts of Australia. In addition, the distribution of household income among people within each of the Remoteness Areas is examined, along with the concentration of people in lower income households in each area.

Average gross income levels across Remoteness Areas

In 2001, the average weekly equivalised gross household income for all Australian households was $1,205. Comparing the level of average weekly equivalised household income for the four most populous Remoteness Areas shows that household income varied across these areas. In addition, between 1996 and 2001 there was some change in the distribution of incomes across these areas.

In 2001, Major Cities had the highest average weekly equivalised gross household income of $1,291, 7% higher than the national average. Higher incomes in Major Cities are consistent with there being a larger proportion of managerial and professional workers in these areas. All other areas outside of Major Cities had average weekly

Average weekly equivalised gross household income — 2001

Selected Remoteness Areas	$	% change 1996 –2001(a)	% of all persons(b)
Major Cities	1,291	17.1	66.9
Inner Regional	1,034	15.1	20.7
Outer Regional	1,013	13.3	10.1
Remote	1,154	14.7	1.5
Australia(c)	**1,205**	**16.3**	**100.0**

(a) Adjusted to 2001 dollars using the CPI for the eight capital cities.
(b) In occupied private dwellings, excluding persons in households where an income was not stated or a usual resident was not present on census night.
(c) Includes households in Very Remote and Migratory categories.

Source: ABS 1996 and 2001 Censuses of Population and Housing.

Gross household income

Data in this article are drawn from the 1996 and 2001 Censuses of Population and Housing. Income data are adjusted to 2001 dollars using the Consumer Price Index (CPI) for the eight capital cities.

A *household* is a person living alone, or a group of related or unrelated people who usually reside together and make common provision for food or other essentials for living. In practice, most dwellings contain a single household.

Gross household income is the combined gross incomes (before tax and other deductions are removed) of all the usual residents of the household. As the census collects income using broad ranges, information from the 1996 and 2001 ABS Survey of Income and Housing Costs was used to estimate the mean income for each of the census income ranges. This mean income value for each household member was then summed to produce gross household income.

Equivalised gross household income is household income adjusted on the basis of the household's size and composition. This allows the relative standard of living of different households to be compared. For example, an adjustment is made to more accurately account for the difference that would exist in the standard of living between a couple with children and a couple without children who both receive the same household income. The Henderson equivalence scale has been used in this article to derive equivalised gross household income. When comparing equivalised household income, the relative magnitude of the figures is most relevant, rather than the absolute levels. For more information see *Income Distribution, Australia, 1999–2000* (ABS cat. no. 6523.0).

Remoteness Areas

This article uses the ABS Remoteness classification to examine various aspects of household income across the four most populous of 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 — *Australian Standard Geographical Classification (ASGC), 2001* (ABS cat. no. 1216.0).

equivalised gross household incomes below the national average. Inner and Outer Regional areas had the lowest average weekly equivalised household incomes (14% and 16% below the national average respectively). These levels are consistent with the higher proportions of people aged 65 years and over living in these areas, many of whom rely on the age pension for income. While Remote areas had the second highest average weekly equivalised household income ($1,154), this level was 4% below the national average. This high average for Remote areas, compared with other areas outside Major Cities, is partly explained by a comparatively high proportion of employed people in this area working in the Mining industry (8% compared with 1% nationally), and the high average rates of pay associated with this industry.

There are considerable differences in the average levels of income between the states and territories. Several states had average weekly equivalised gross household incomes below the national average. Tasmania was lowest (17% below the national average at $1,000), followed by South Australia (9% below) and Queensland (7% below). In contrast, the Australian Capital Territory was 29% above the national average at $1,554, followed by New South Wales (6% above). There were similar variations between Remoteness Areas when comparisons are made across the states and territories. For example, Major Cities in South Australia, Queensland and Western Australia had the lowest average weekly equivalised household income levels — 12%, 8% and 6% lower respectively than that of Major Cities nationally ($1,291). A number of factors contribute to differences in incomes between states and territories, including sources of income (i.e. age pension, wages and salaries, etc.), levels of employment and unemployment, and differences in average earnings (for more information see *Australian Social Trends 2000*, Interstate income inequality, pp. 154–158).

Between 1996 and 2001, average weekly equivalised gross household income rose by 16% nationally (when adjusted for inflation using the CPI). Across Australia, all Remoteness Areas experienced growth in average weekly equivalised household income during this period. However, Major Cities, which had the highest average weekly equivalised household income in 1996, experienced the highest growth in income over this period (17%). In contrast, Outer Regional areas had the lowest average weekly equivalised household incomes in 1996 and grew by the least (13%). This resulted in Outer Regional areas falling further behind the other areas in relative terms over the second half of the 1990s.

Over the same period, a similar pattern of growth occurred across the states and territories. The Australian Capital Territory,

Households and persons excluded from analysis

Households (and the people within them) were excluded from the analysis in this article where the income data for the household was incomplete. These were households where one or more household members, aged 15 years and over, were temporarily absent on census night, or did not state their income. Very Remote areas are not discussed in the detailed analysis in this article due the large proportion of households excluded in these areas.

It should be noted that households with lower incomes are more likely than others to not state their incomes (for more information see, *Census Working Paper 00/04 — 1996 Census Data Quality: Income*). In addition, data from ABS household collections are likely to miss some of the most disadvantaged people in society, such as homeless people.

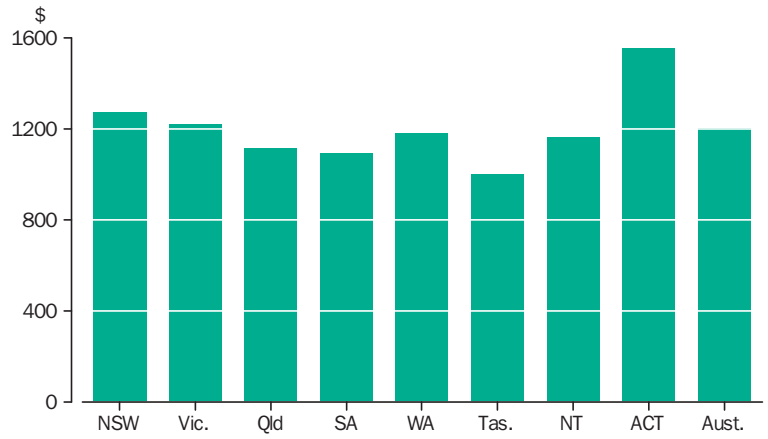
Persons excluded(a)

Census year	*Person temporarily absent* % of persons	*Income not stated(b)* % of persons	*Total excluded* '000
1996	8.5	8.0	2,852.7
2001	8.4	9.8	3,351.0

(a) Persons in households only.
(b) Not including those households already excluded for having a person temporarily absent.

Source: ABS 1996 and 2001 Censuses of Population and Housing.

Average weekly equivalised gross household income: states and territories — 2001



Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

Income(a) distribution between persons within Remoteness Areas

Selected Remoteness Areas	Gini coefficient 2001	Gini coefficient 1996–2001 % change
Major Cities	0.332	1.6
Inner Regional	0.307	1.2
Outer Regional	0.318	-1.2
Remote	0.353	-1.1
Australia(b)	**0.332**	**1.5**

(a) Equivalised gross household income.
(b) Includes persons in Very Remote and Migratory categories.

Source: ABS 1996 and 2001 Censuses of Population and Housing.

which had the highest average weekly equivalised gross household income in 1996, also experienced the highest growth in average income (20%), while Tasmania, which had the lowest average weekly equivalised household income in 1996 also had the lowest growth (12%). However, as a result of different rates of growth in each of the states and territories, between 1996 and 2001, Victoria replaced Western Australia as the state or territory with the third highest average weekly equivalised household income (behind the Australian Capital Territory and New South Wales).

Income distribution within Remoteness Areas

Another consideration in the regional distribution of income is the level of income inequality within each of the Remoteness Areas. Comparing Gini coefficients (a measure of inequality) shows that in 2001, income inequality was highest for people in Remote areas (0.35), and lowest in Inner Regional areas (0.31).

This pattern of Remote and Inner Regional areas having the highest and lowest levels of income inequality respectively was evident among the five most populous states. This comparison cannot be made for Tasmania and the two territories as they do not include all four Remoteness Areas discussed (for example, Tasmania does not have a Major City area). Comparing the Gini coefficient for the states and territories, New South Wales and the Northern Territory both had the highest level of income inequality (both 0.34). In New South Wales this is likely to be due to greater proportions of people living in households with very high average weekly equivalised gross household income. In the Northern Territory, the comparatively high Gini coefficient reflects relatively high proportions of people with both higher and lower average weekly equivalised household incomes. The lowest levels of inequality were in Tasmania (0.30) and South Australia (0.31) — the states with the two lowest levels of average weekly equivalised household income.

While average weekly equivalised gross household income grew in all areas between 1996 and 2001, the Gini coefficient for people in households indicated income inequality had increased in some Remoteness Areas and had declined in others. However, it showed that inequality had increased in every state and territory. Nationally, the Gini coefficient increased from 0.327 to 0.332, or by 1.5%. For people in households within Major Cities, the Gini coefficient rose by 1.6% and within Inner Regional areas it rose by

Income distribution and housing costs

The *Gini coefficient* is a measure for assessing inequality of income distribution. The measure, expressed as a ratio between 0 and 1, is low for populations with relatively equal income distributions and high for populations with relatively unequal income distributions.

People in low income households are those people who are placed in the bottom 20% of all people, when they are ranked by their average weekly equivalised gross household income.

Direct housing costs comprise the value of the mortgage payments (including the capital component) for owners with a mortgage and regular rent paid by those who rent. When these housing costs are removed from household income, the Henderson equivalence scales, less the housing component, have been used to adjust the income to account for household size and composition (for further information see *Income Distribution, Australia 1999–2000*, ABS cat. no. 6523.0). To obtain the revised household income, direct housing costs, in whole dollar values, are subtracted from the median of the income ranges. In addition to the exclusions relating to households for which income data were incomplete, people in households that did not state their direct housing costs were excluded (1.5% in 1996 and 1.8% in 2001).

Removal of direct housing costs does not take into account the quality of housing purchased or rented in the different Remoteness Areas. In addition, mortgage payments include both an interest (an expense) and a capital component (an investment). Rent paid will include costs such as rates and repairs, not accounted for in either mortgage payments and for those households where the dwelling is owned outright. Other household expenses, such as those relating to transport, are likely to result in higher costs being incurred in more remote areas but no information is collected on these expenses in the census.

1.2%. Inequality, as measured by the Gini coefficient, fell in Outer Regional areas and Remote areas, by 1.2% and 1.1% respectively.

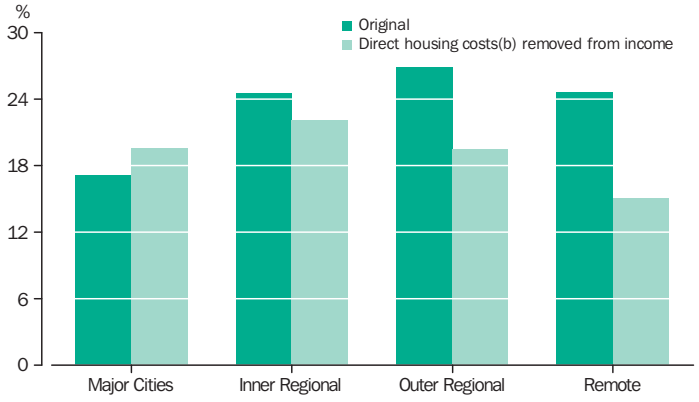
People in low income households

People in households with limited access to financial resources (usually those on lower incomes) are often the focus of government programs and community services organisations. As a result, their location is of considerable interest to policy makers and service providers.

In 2001, 17% of people in Major Cities were in low income households (i.e. they were in the bottom 20% of the national distribution of people when ranked by their gross equivalised household income), the lowest proportion in any Remoteness Area. In comparison, Outer Regional areas had the highest proportion of people in low income households (27%), while Inner Regional and Remote areas also had relatively high proportions (24% and 25% respectively). That said, as the majority of the population live in Major Cities, these areas contained the greatest number of people in low income households. In 2001, 58% of all people in low income households were in Major Cities, compared with 2% in Remote areas. Between 1996 and 2001, there was little change in the distribution of people in low income households across Remoteness Areas.

In 2001, among the states and territories, the proportion of people in low income households was highest in Tasmania (27%) and the Northern Territory (25%), and lowest in the Australian Capital Territory (11%). In addition, there were some substantial differences in the distribution of people in low income households within the states and territories. For example, Remote areas in Victoria, Tasmania and New South Wales had the highest proportions of people in low income households (between 34% and 32%), while Major Cities in the Australian Capital Territory and the Outer Regional areas of the Northern Territory (which included Darwin) had the lowest (11% and 15% respectively). Tasmania and the Northern Territory which had the highest proportions of people in low income households in 2001, also had the largest increases in the proportion of people in low income households between 1996 and 2001 (increasing by 1.4 and 3.1 percentage points respectively). The Australian Capital Territory, which had the lowest proportion of people in low income households in 1996 also had the greatest decrease in this proportion between 1996 and 2001 (a decrease of 1.6 percentage points).

Proportion of persons in low income households(a) in selected Remoteness Areas — 2001



(a) Those persons in the bottom 20% of the national distribution of persons when ranked by their equivalised gross household income.
(b) Comprises the value of the mortgage payments (including the capital component) for owners with a mortgage and regular rent paid by those who rent. Households who had either of these expenses but did not state them were excluded from the calculations.

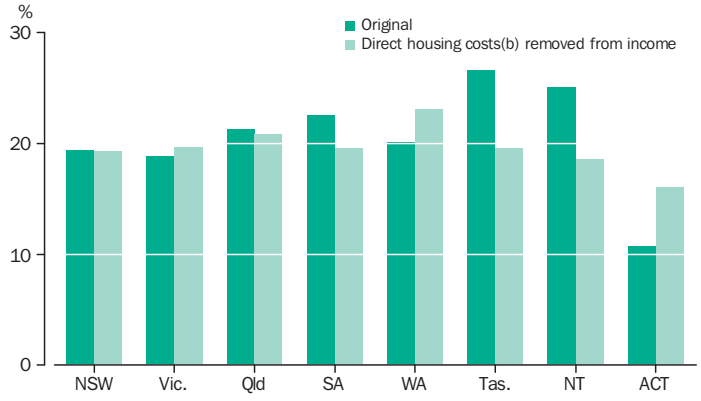
Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

...after direct housing costs

Many factors influence the relationship between income and economic wellbeing, not least of which are the geographical differences in the costs of many goods and services, and in the typical 'baskets' of goods and services that households in different areas consume. Housing costs are a major item of expenditure for many Australian households. These costs vary across Australia and across Remoteness Areas. Such variations, combined with variations in incomes across areas, affect the amount of income available to people within households for other purposes. When direct housing costs (i.e. rent and mortgage payments) are removed from household income, and the national distribution of equivalised household income is recompiled, there are a number of notable changes to the proportions of people in low income households across Remoteness Areas.

Removing direct housing costs results in a decrease in the proportion of people in low income households in all Remoteness Areas in 2001, except for Major Cities. In Remote areas, the proportion of people in low income households falls from 25% to 15%. In contrast, the proportion of people in low income households in Major Cities increases from 17% to 20% when direct housing costs are removed. These two examples reflect the relatively high direct housing costs in Major Cities, compared with relatively low direct housing costs in Remote areas. For Outer Regional areas, the reduction in the proportion of people in low income

Proportion of persons in low income households(a): states and territories — 2001



(a) Those persons in the bottom 20% of the national distribution of persons when ranked by their equivalised gross household income.
(b) Comprises the value of the mortgage payments (including the capital component) for owners with a mortgage and regular rent paid by those who rent. Households who had either of these expenses but did not state them were excluded from the calculations.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

households, when direct housing costs are removed, is also comparatively large (from 27% to 19%), while the reduction is not as marked for Inner Regional areas (from 24% to 22%).

Prior to the removal of housing costs, the prevalence of people in low income households tended to increase as remoteness increased (though the rate for Remote areas was lower than for Outer Regional areas). However, removing direct housing costs largely reverses this pattern, with the prevalence of low income households decreasing with increasing remoteness. Major Cities were the exception to this pattern, where the proportion of low income households is slightly lower than in Inner Regional areas (20% compared with 22% respectively). After the removal of direct housing costs, Inner Regional areas have the highest proportion of people in low income households of all areas. This may reflect higher direct housing costs in Inner Regional areas, similar to those experienced in Major Cities, not being offset by the higher incomes more commonly earned in Major Cities.

The prevalence of people in low income households is more even across states and territories after the removal of housing costs. In 2001, Western Australia has the highest proportion of people in low income households after housing costs are removed (23%, up from 20%), while the lowest proportion is in the Australian Capital Territory (16%, up from 11%). Reflecting their lower housing costs, Tasmania and the Northern Territory have substantial decreases in the proportion of people in low income households when the effect of direct housing costs are removed from income.

Taxes and government benefits: the effect on household income

INCOME DISTRIBUTION

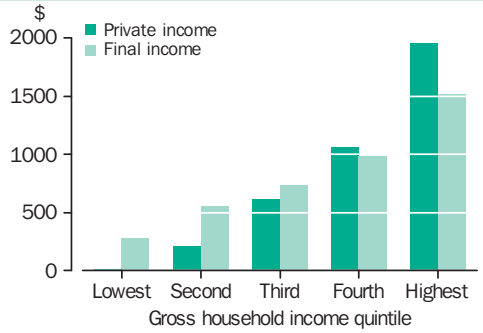
In 1998–99, the gap in gross incomes received by the top 20% of households (by gross income) compared with the bottom 20% was reduced by one-third through the taxation and indirect government benefits attributed to households.

One consequence of governments collecting personal income taxes and providing cash benefits to individuals and families is the redistribution of disposable income between households in Australia. That is, some households pay more tax than they receive in cash benefits while others pay less tax than they receive in cash benefits. For example, older households and one-parent households are more likely to be net cash recipients from the taxation and benefits systems, while younger couple only households are likely to pay more tax than they receive in cash benefits.

Governments also collect revenues through indirect taxes. Since July 2000, the Goods and Services Tax has been the most significant indirect tax levied in Australia. Prior to this, taxes were levied on production, sales, payroll, and imports. Indirect taxes become embedded in the prices of the goods and services produced and imported, and ultimately consumed. Governments use their taxation revenues to provide benefits to society in the form of subsidised or free goods and services. Much of these goods and services provided are benefits which cannot be readily attributed to individuals, such as law and order, and defence expenditures. However, some government expenditures are more identifiable as specific household consumption of the goods and services provided, such as education and health services.

Modelling the incidence of personal taxation, indirect taxation, and cash and selected non-cash benefits provides a summary view of their effects on the net income and consumption of households. For the purposes of the analysis in this article, the impact on the private income of households of direct and indirect taxation and cash benefits is brought together with the value of free or subsidised household consumption. This is then presented as the final income of these households. It should be noted that data in this article relate to the year ended

Average weekly value of private and final household income — 1998–99



Source: Government Benefits, Taxes and Household Income, Australia, 1998–99 (ABS cat. no. 6537.0).

Taxes, benefits and income

The data presented in this article are derived from the 1998–99 Household Expenditure Survey. Further details of the concepts and methods relevant to this article can be found in *Government Benefits, Taxes and Household Income, Australia, 1998–99* (ABS cat. no. 6537.0). While the methods used to allocate both taxes and benefits to households are similar to those used in other studies in Australia and overseas, other approaches could have been taken which may have produced different results. The results in this article are dependent on the particular assumptions described in the above publication.

The data in this article incorporate revisions to the results included in the above publication. For more information see *Australian Economic Indicators, April 2002*, Upgrading Household Income Distribution Statistics (ABS cat. no. 1350.0).

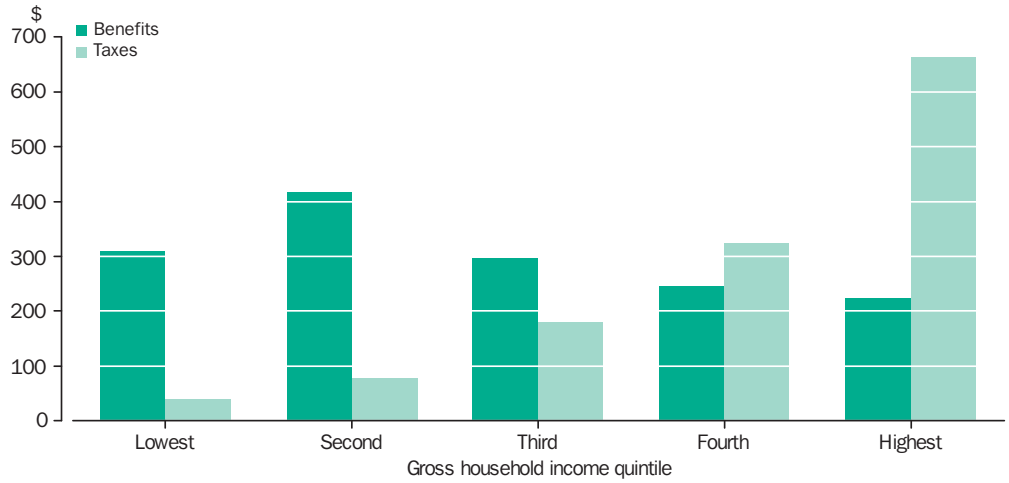
Total taxes are the sum of direct tax (personal income tax) and indirect tax. *Indirect tax* comprises sales taxes, payroll taxes, excise and import duties that are paid indirectly by the household when goods and services are purchased.

Total benefits are the sum of direct and indirect benefits. *Direct benefits* are regular cash payments received from the government, e.g. age pensions and unemployment allowances. *Indirect benefits* are non-cash benefits received by households from government funded services in the areas of social security and welfare, housing, health and education. Indirect benefits were given the value equivalent to the cost to government of providing them. The value was then added to the income of the households that received the benefit.

Private income is household income from non-government sources, such as wages and salaries, interest, rent, dividends, profits, investments and superannuation. *Gross income* equals private income plus direct benefits. *Final income* equals gross income plus indirect benefits minus direct and indirect taxes.

Income quintiles are formed by ranking all households in terms of gross income and then dividing the households into five groups each containing 20% of all households. Comparisons between income quintiles over time are affected by changes to household size and composition.

Average weekly value of taxes paid and benefits received by households — 1998–99



Source: Government Benefits, Taxes and Household Income, Australia, 1998–99 (ABS cat. no. 6537.0).

30 June 1999, which was prior to the introduction of the Goods and Services Tax and other tax changes.

The effect on high and low income households

In 1998–99, average weekly private income was $15 for households in the lowest gross household income quintile, and $1,960 for households in the highest quintile (the amount for households in the lowest quintile is affected by people reporting negative income due to business losses). When taxes were subtracted and benefits added, this difference was reduced. Final income of the lowest quintile was $286 per week and final income of the highest quintile was $1,520 per week. As a result, the difference between the final incomes of the two quintiles ($1,234) was much less than the difference between their private incomes ($1,945).

The amount of taxes paid by households increases as their income increases. In 1998–99, the 40% of households with the lowest incomes (i.e. the bottom two quintiles) paid 3% of all personal income taxes and 24% of all indirect taxes. The composition of taxes paid also changed as income increased. In 1998–99, the lowest income quintile paid 5% of their total tax in direct tax while the highest quintile paid 81%.

However, across all quintiles, the receipt of benefits did not increase as income decreased. Households in the lowest income quintile did not receive the greatest value

Average weekly value of components of final household income — 1998–99

Selected life-cycle groups	*Private income* $	*Direct taxes* $	*Indirect taxes* $	*Direct benefits* $	*Indirect benefits* $	*Final income* $	*Net benefits(a)* $
Lone person aged less than 35 years	556	136	49	31	55	457	–99
Couple only, reference person aged less than 35 years	1 209	285	90	*13	83	929	–279
Couple with dependants only, eldest less than 5 years	961	235	92	70	155	858	–103
Couple with dependants only, eldest 5–14 years	1 009	241	99	83	311	1 064	54
Couple with dependants only, eldest 15–24 years	1 215	297	106	83	391	1 286	70
One parent with dependent children only	268	44	50	213	281	668	400
Couple with dependent and non-dependent children only	1 378	299	134	118	354	1 417	**40
Couple with non-dependent children only	1 264	274	124	110	164	1 140	–123
Couple only, reference person aged 55–64 years	571	115	75	105	117	602	**31
Couple only, reference person aged 65 years or over	231	31	59	227	227	595	364
Lone person aged 65 years or over	116	20	26	155	130	354	238

(a) Total benefits less total taxes.

Source: Government Benefits, Taxes and Household Income, Australia, 1998–99 (ABS cat. no. 6537.0).

Average weekly government benefits to households — 1998–99

	Direct benefits			Indirect benefits			
Selected life-cycle groups	Age/disability support pension $	Family payments $	Other direct benefits $	Education $	Health $	Other indirect benefits $	Total benefits $
Lone person aged less than 35 years	*4	–	27	25	24	7	87
Couple only, reference person aged less than 35 years	**1	–	12	32	49	*1	96
Couple with dependants only, eldest less than 5 years	4	56	10	19	97	38	225
Couple with dependants only, eldest 5–14 years	5	64	13	191	87	34	393
Couple with dependants only, eldest 15–24 years	*13	38	33	276	91	23	474
One parent with dependent children only	5	193	15	167	62	52	494
Couple with dependent and non-dependent children only	23	36	58	218	106	31	473
Couple with non-dependent children only	74	–	36	26	108	30	274
Couple only, reference person aged 55–64 years	68	–	37	*2	84	31	221
Couple only, reference person 65 years or over	180	–	47	–	168	59	454
Lone person 65 years or over	117	–	38	–	94	36	285

Source: Government Benefits, Taxes and Household Income, Australia, 1998–99 (ABS cat. no. 6537.0).

from benefits. This was received by households in the second quintile. This is because income is not the only influence on the receipt of benefits. The size and composition of households is also influential. Households in the second quintile had a higher average number of people receiving government cash benefits. They also had a higher average number of dependants than households in the lowest quintile.

Net benefits over the life-cycle

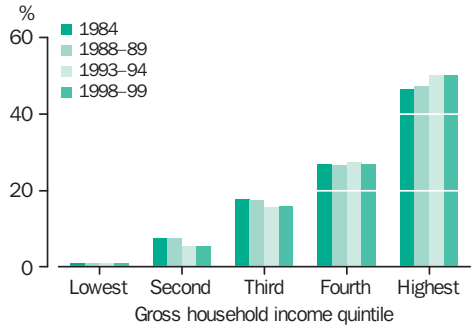
The extent to which households pay tax and benefit from government expenditure varies over the life cycle. In the early stages of the adult life cycle, when people are young and living alone, or living as a partner in a couple without children, the payment of taxes considerably outweighs benefits received. These households receive little in benefits because of the absence of children (and therefore of associated family payments and education benefits), high labour force participation, and relatively low usage of health services. In 1998–99, young lone-person households paid on average $186 per week in taxes and received $87 in benefits. Households comprising young couples without children (i.e. those with a reference person aged less than 35 years) received only marginally more in benefits ($96 per week) but paid around twice as much in taxes ($376 per week), reflecting that both partners are often employed.

In 1998–99, households comprising couples with dependants received more in direct and indirect benefits on average than young couple-only households and young lone-person households. Direct benefits were higher because couples with dependants tended to be eligible for family allowance and other benefits, such as Austudy. Indirect benefits were also higher. Couples with dependants received more in health benefits since there were more people in the household, and received greater education benefits because many contained children who were participating in school or other education. While the average level of taxes was greater than that of benefits for households containing couples with children aged less than 5 years only, for those with older children, the opposite was true. In 1998–99, couples with dependants where the eldest child was aged 15–24 years paid on average $404 per week in taxes and received $474 in benefits.

Households containing one parent with dependants receive comparatively high levels of direct and indirect benefits, including family payments and education benefits. They have relatively low incomes and spend less, so they pay less tax. In 1998–99, these households received the highest net benefits on average of all selected life-cycle groups. They paid on average $94 per week in taxes and received $494 in benefits. Their final income was two and a half times their private income, but was still lower than the final income of households containing couples with dependants.

Households where the children are no longer studying but are still living at home tend not to receive as many indirect benefits because fewer household members use education services. Levels of household income and expenditure are both high, resulting in high

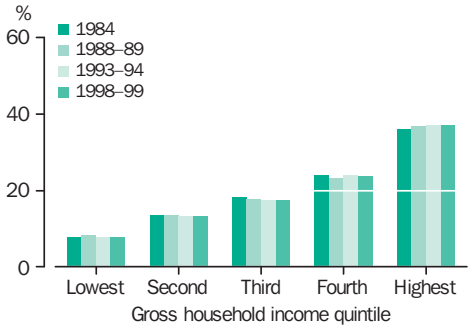
Distribution of private household income(a)



(a) 1984 refers to calendar year, other periods are for the 12 months ended 30 June.

Source: Government Benefits, Taxes and Household Income, Australia, 1998–99 (ABS cat. no. 6537.0).

Distribution of final household income(a)



(a) 1984 refers to calendar year, other periods are for the 12 months ended 30 June.

Source: Government Benefits, Taxes and Household Income, Australia, 1998–99 (ABS cat. no. 6537.0).

direct and indirect taxes for these households. In 1998–99, couples with non-dependent children only, paid on average $398 per week in taxes and received $274 in benefits. Their final weekly income was $123 less than their private income.

When one partner in a couple, or a person living alone, is aged 65 years or over, their private household income tends to be low (after retirement) so their direct taxes are low. They often receive direct government benefits, mainly the age pension. The level of indirect benefits for these households is often higher than in other households without children due mainly to greater use of health services, while indirect taxes tend to be low because expenditure is low. In 1998–99, households comprising couples where the reference person was aged 65 years or over paid on average $90 per week in taxes and received $454 in benefits. Households containing a lone person aged 65 years or over paid an average of $47 in taxes and received $285 in benefits. Their final income was three times their private income, but was still the lowest of the selected life-cycle groups.

Changes in distribution of income

Comparisons of income distribution over time can provide a useful perspective on changes in the way income is distributed among households, and shed light on the compositional effects on income distribution that arise when the type or size of households change over time. In the following analysis, comparisons between income quintiles over time are affected by changes in the methodologies used, as well as by differences in, and changes over time to, household size and composition.

The spread of private household incomes across quintiles in 1998–99 was very similar to the spread in 1993–94. However, the highest income quintile received a larger share of private income in 1998–99 than in 1984 (50% compared with 47%). The share of private income received by the second and third quintiles decreased over this time.

In contrast, the distribution of final household incomes remained relatively unchanged between 1984 and 1998–99. Despite the reduction in the share of private incomes received by households in the second and third income quintiles, an increase in the share of benefits received by these groups and a reduction in their share of taxes paid means that there has been little change in their share of final income over this time. The second quintile consistently received about 14% of final income and the third quintile about 18%. Households in the lowest quintile consistently received about 8% of final income, despite a change in the demographic characteristics of households in this quintile. In 1998–99, households in the lowest quintile were on average smaller than in 1984. In particular, 65% of the households in the lowest quintile in 1998–99 were lone-person households, compared with 54% in 1984. While the share of total government benefits accruing to these lower income households decreased over the period, the level of government benefits increased sufficently to maintain this quintile's share of final income at 8%.

For households in the highest quintile, the increased share of private household income between 1984 and 1998–99 was partly offset by an increase in the share of taxes paid and a reduction in the share of benefits received. This group's share of final income therefore remained relatively constant over the period (between 36% and 37%).

Community services sector

EXPENDITURE

Expenditure on community services and related activities increased by 32% between 1995–1996 and 1999–2000, with most of this growth driven by Not for profit organisations.

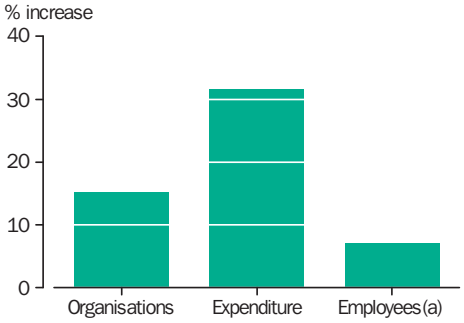
The community services sector assists and supports individuals, families and communities in need, contributing to the wellbeing and quality of life of these Australians. Direct assistance is offered through activities that include: child care; personal and social support; financial and material assistance; and residential care and accommodation for the aged or people with a disability. In June 2000, there were 9,300 organisations operating in the community services sector, of which 94% were private organisations. During 1999–2000, community services organisations received 7.6 million requests for information, advice and referral services, and managed 3.7 million cases of individual and family support, and 1.7 million cases of financial and material assistance (on a temporary emergency basis).

Over the 1990s, arrangements within the community services sector shifted towards governments contracting out services, competitive tendering for government funding rather than bulk grants, and an emphasis on measurable performance outcomes.[1] This was a result of trends in policy, at all levels of government, towards privatisation and government purchasing rather than the delivery of services. This article discusses the growth of the community services sector in the latter part of the decade, in light of this continuing policy shift.

Growth in the sector

In the four years to 1999–2000, total expenditure on community services activities increased by 32% to $12.6 billion. This expenditure also increased as a proportion of Australia's Gross Domestic Product (from 1.9% to 2.0%). At the same time, the number of organisations and employees involved in the provision of community services increased by 15% and 7% respectively. However, growth was not consistent across the sector, with increases (or decreases) varying across types of organisations and the nature of the activity they were involved in. This variation partly reflects the changes in government funding and service delivery arrangements that continued to be implemented over the period.

Change in the community services sector — 1995–1996 to 1999–2000



(a) Change in employees from June 1996 to June 2000.

Source: Community Services, Australia, 1999–2000 (ABS cat. no. 8696.0).

Community services organisations and activities

Data in this article come from the 1995–1996 and 1999–2000 ABS Community Services Surveys which collected information on the workforce, expenditure and activities of organisations engaged in the provision of community services. Both private and government organisations were included in the surveys. Community services activities, and their associated employment and expenditure are separated into two categories depending on the nature of the activities.

- *Direct* community services activities are those provided to individuals or families on an interactive or face-to-face basis, or on their behalf. Employees classified as working on direct activities spend the majority of their working time on direct community services provision.
- *Other* community services activities include: fundraising; providing assistance to other organisations; social planning and policy development; government administration of funding and monitoring; group advocacy and social action; and licensing and regulating of service providers. Employees involved in other activities were mainly managers and administrative support staff, but also included other employees such as cooks and cleaners.

Community services activities were classified according to the National Classification of Community Services (NCCS), developed by the Australian Institute of Health and Welfare (AIHW).

Improvements in the ability of organisations to distinguish between direct and other community services activities may affect some time series comparisons between 1995–1996 and 1999–2000. For more information see *Community Services, Australia, 1999–2000* (ABS cat. no. 8696.0).

Government community services organisations

	1999–2000	Change since 1995–1996
	$m	%
Expenditure	*3 445.2*	*25.4*
Direct	2 639.5	6.1
Other	805.7	211.9
	'000	%
Employees(a)	*59.2*	*–13.0*
Direct	49.0	–5.8
Other	10.2	–36.2
Volunteers(b)	18.0	–18.5

(a) Employees at end June 2000 and June 1996.
(b) Volunteers for the month of June 2000.

Source: Community Services, Australia, 1999–2000 (ABS cat. no. 8696.0).

Government organisations

Between 1995–1996 and 1999–2000, expenditure by Government organisations on community services increased by 25%. While more than three-quarters of the $3.4 billion spent in 1999–2000 was spent on direct community services activities, most of the growth over the four-year period was due to an increase in Government expenditure on other community services activities. Expenditure on these activities more than tripled over the period (from $258 million to $806 million). While some of this increase reflects improvements in data quality, it also reflects the additional administration, monitoring and support costs associated with the purchasing of services rather than directly delivering them. This expenditure on other activities by Government organisations does not include funding to other community service organisations for service provision.

Also consistent with the scaling down of actual provision of community services by Government organisations,[2] were changes in the number of employees in these organisations over the period. Between 1995–1996 and 1999–2000, the number of employees in Government community service organisations decreased by 13%. The numbers of employees involved in both direct and other activities declined (down 6% and 36% respectively). The comparatively large decrease in the number of employees involved in other activities, and the large increase in other expenditure, is likely to reflect the tendency by governments to contract out functions supporting community services facilities, such as catering and cleaning.

Private organisations

Private providers of community services include both For profit and Not for profit organisations. In terms of the level of expenditure, and numbers of employees and volunteers, Not for profit community services organisations tend to dominate the entire community services sector (i.e. Government and private organisations combined). In 1999–2000, private Not for profit organisations accounted for 56% of expenditure, 64% of employees and 93% of volunteers involved in community services activities.

Further, between 1995–1996 and 1999–2000, Not for profit organisations experienced the strongest growth of all organisations in the community services sector, driving much of the growth in the sector overall. They experienced the largest growth in spending,

Private community services organisations

	Not for profit organisations		*For profit organisations*	
	1999–2000	*Change since 1995–1996*	*1999–2000*	*Change since 1995–1996*
	$m	%	$m	%
Expenditure	*7 086.2*	*42.0*	*2 111.3*	*13.4*
Direct	6 010.2	46.9	2 098.3	15.8
Other	1 076.0	19.6	13.0	–74.5
	'000	%	'000	%
Employees(a)	*217.8*	*20.6*	*64.4*	*–8.7*
Direct	168.2	46.7	60.1	6.4
Other	49.7	–24.7	4.3	–69.5
Volunteers(b)	278.3	30.7	3.1	–20.8

(a) Employment at end June 2000.
(b) Volunteers for the month of June 2000.

Source: Community Services, Australia, 1999–2000 (ABS cat. no. 8696.0).

Expenditure on direct community services activities

Type of activity	1999–2000 $m	Change since 1995–1996 %
Residential care and accommodation placement	6 091.8	24.6
Personal and social support	2 170.4	49.0
Child care	1 156.3	16.7
Training and employment for people with a disability	498.5	33.3
Juvenile and disability corrective services	246.4	28.5
Statutory protection and placement	232.8	18.7
Foster care placement	189.9	68.8
Financial and material assistance	141.6	–3.4
Other direct community services activities	20.4	–39.3
Total	**10 748.1**	**28.1**

Source: Community Services, Australia, 1999–2000 (ABS cat. no. 8696.0).

reaching $7.1 billion in 1999–2000, an increase of 42% on 1995–1996 expenditure. In keeping with the continued privatisation of the provision of community services over the period, growth in expenditure by Not for profit community services organisations on direct activities was more than double that of other activities (47% and 20% respectively).

Not for profit organisations also experienced an increase in number of employees between 1995–1996 and 1999–2000 (up by 21%). This growth reflected a 47% increase in the number of employees in direct services provision, which more than compensated for a decrease of 25% in employment in other activities. Volunteer participation is also vital to the operation of many Not for profit community services organisations.[3] In June 2000, there were 128 volunteers for every 100 people employed by these organisations, representing an overall increase of 31% in volunteer numbers since June 1996. This is in keeping with the increased proportion of Australians generally participating in voluntary work over the period (see *Australian Social Trends 2002*, Voluntary work, pp. 146–150).

In contrast, between 1995–1996 and 1999–2000, For profit community services organisations experienced more modest growth in expenditure (up 13% to $2.1 billion), and a decrease in the number of employees. The decrease in the total number of employees was the result of a 70% decrease in the number of employees involved in other community services activities, to 4,300. This was partly offset by a 6% increase (to 60,100) in the number of employees involved in direct community services activities in For profit organisations.

Direct community services activities

In 1999–2000, expenditure on direct community services was concentrated on three main activities. Residential care and accommodation placement accounted for over half of spending on direct activities, followed by personal and social support (20% of direct activities expenditure), and child care (11%). However, foster care placement showed the largest growth in direct activities expenditure between 1995–1996 and 1999–2000, up 69%. Over the same period, spending on personal and social support services by the sector rose by 49%, a result of private organisations (both For profit and Not for profit) doubling their expenditure on this activity.

Endnotes

1 O'Brien, J. 2000, 'Resignation, radicalism or realism? What role for non-government agencies in the changing context of child and family welfare?', *Children Australia*, Vol. 25, No. 1, pp. 4–9.

2 Kerr, L. and Savelsberg, H. 2001, 'The Community Service Sector in the Era of the Market Model: Facilitators of social change or servants of the State?', *Just Policy*, September 2001, No. 23, pp. 22–32.

3 Ohlin, J. 1998, *Will Privatisation and Contracting Out Deliver Community Services?*, Social Policy Group Research Paper 15, Parliamentary Library Web Pages <http://www.aph.gov.au/labrary/pubs/rp/1997/98rp15.htm>, accessed 29 August 2002.

Housing

Housing: national summary

HOUSING STOCK	Units	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
1 Number of occupied private dwellings	'000	6 302	6 446	6 579	6 668	6 762	6 910	7 015	7 127	7 250	7 393	7 510
2 Public sector dwellings completed	'000	9.7	11.1	9.9	7.8	6.8	6.0	4.4	5.4	4.8	3.8	3.6
3 Private sector dwellings completed	'000	123.0	145.2	157.3	162.4	129.1	113.4	127.2	136.7	150.5	130.1	127.7
Dwelling structure – selected(a)												
4 Separate house	%	78.2	n.a.	79.4	79.3	78.6	79.5	78.8	79.5	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.a.
5 Semidetached	%	7.0	n.a.	7.9	7.9	8.1	7.9	8.8	8.9	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.a.
6 Flat	%	12.5	n.a.	12.5	11.9	12.4	11.9	11.7	11.1	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.a.
Housing utilisation												
7 Average persons per household	no.	2.7	n.a.	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.6	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.a.
8 Average bedrooms per dwelling	no.	n.a.	n.a.	2.9	2.9	2.9	2.9	3.0	3.0	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.a.
9 Households with two or more bedrooms above requirements	%	n.a.	n.a.	r32.6	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	r36.8	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
10 Households with insufficient bedrooms	%	n.a.	n.a.	r4.9	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	r3.7	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.

TENURE AND LANDLORD TYPE(b)	Units	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
11 Owner without a mortgage	%	41.6	n.a.	41.8	41.3	41.7	40.9	39.4	38.8	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.a.
12 Owner with a mortgage	%	27.6	n.a.	28.3	29.8	28.2	28.0	30.4	31.3	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.a.
13 Renter – State Housing Authority	%	5.6	n.a.	6.2	4.9	5.9	5.4	5.6	5.1	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.a.
14 Renter – private landlord	%	18.9	n.a.	19.0	17.8	20.0	21.0	20.5	20.3	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.a.

HOUSING COSTS	Units	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Households with affordability problems												
15 Renters	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	5.8	5.9	6.2	6.8	n.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.a.
16 Total households	%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	10.6	10.5	10.6	11.3	n.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.a.
Rental												
17 Mean weekly public rent	$	66	n.a.	62	59	62	64	63	68	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.a.
18 Mean weekly private rent	$	127	n.a.	141	138	148	153	157	167	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.a.
19 Rental cost index	index no.	106.7	107.2	107.9	108.9	111.7	115.1	118.5	122.0	125.4	129.3	133.1
Construction/purchase												
20 Housing interest rate	%	11.9	9.9	8.9	10.0	10.3	8.3	6.7	6.6	7.0	7.6	6.3
21 First home buyers – average loan size(c)	$'000	73.3	78.5	86.3	92.9	94.6	104.6	109.9	127.6	133.1	124.8	145.3
22 Project home price index	index no.	102.1	103.0	105.8	108.1	109.5	109.2	110.3	113.1	120.7	134.9	138.1
23 Established house price index	index no.	104.6	106.0	109.1	112.6	112.7	115.1	122.8	130.4	142.3	152.8	178.0
24 Materials used in house building price index	index no.	104.9	106.9	112.0	115.4	115.7	116.1	118.2	119.5	122.8	124.4	126.0
Finance commitments												
Construction/purchase of new dwellings												
25 Number	'000	94	111	124	103	85	89	97	94	94	71	98
26 Value	$m	6 466	8 200	10 524	9 502	8 263	9 302	11 287	12 158	13 456	10 131	15 043
Purchase of established dwellings												
27 Number	'000	285	342	420	348	366	393	385	395	455	484	533
28 Value	$m	22 071	28 579	37 311	32 808	35 416	40 677	43 374	49 344	61 496	64 293	81 439
29 Value for alterations and additions	$m	1 359	1 641	2 899	3 477	3 510	3 039	2 779	2 821	3 321	3 109	4 083

HOUSING ASSISTANCE	Units	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
30 Public sector rental dwelling stock	'000	370	377	384	389	393	400	381	386	363	359	354
31 Applicants on housing waiting lists	'000	216	232	235	235	236	221	218	184	213	222	223
32 Applicants accommodated	'000	49	54	55	53	51	47	42	41	41	40	37
33 Persons receiving private rental assistance	'000	868	941	976	931	1 042	1 049	979	1 016	992	1 029	996
34 Mean rental assistance received	$	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a	63	59	61	62	68	72
35 Mean rent paid by rental assistance recipients	$	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a	n.a	219	217	221	225	239	253

(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: Data are for the year ending 30 June except: average number of persons per household and bedrooms per dwelling; households with two or more spare bedrooms and with insufficient bedrooms; structure; tenure type; mean weekly rent and applicants on housing waiting lists, which vary according to the timing of the surveys within each year. Data for average loan size of first home buyers are at June 30.

Housing: state summary

HOUSING STOCK	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT(a)	ACT	Aust.
1 Number of occupied private dwellings	'000	2002	2 485.6	1 838.2	1 436.5	613.5	755.2	190.3	67.9	122.9	7 510.1
2 Public sector dwellings completed	'000	2001–2002	0.9	0.5	0.7	0.2	0.9	—	0.2	0.1	3.6
3 Private sector dwellings completed	'000	2001–2002	34.3	36.3	29.8	7.2	16.1	1.4	0.8	1.7	127.7
Dwelling structure – selected											
4 Separate house	%	1999	74.7	82.0	84.1	78.7	79.7	87.9	72.1	81.4	79.5
5 Semidetached	%	1999	8.4	9.2	5.1	14.1	13.1	5.8	9.6	8.3	8.9
6 Flat	%	1999	16.7	8.7	8.8	6.8	6.7	5.8	16.0	10.2	11.1
Housing utilisation											
7 Average persons per household	no.	1999	2.6	2.7	2.6	2.4	2.5	2.5	2.8	2.5	2.6
8 Average bedrooms per dwelling	no.	1999	3.0	2.9	3.0	2.8	3.1	2.9	2.7	3.0	3.0
9 Households with two or more bedrooms above requirements	%	1999	r35.8	r33.1	r39.4	r35.7	r44.8	r37.9	r22.0	r40.2	r36.8
10 Households with insufficient bedrooms	%	1999	r4.4	r4.5	r3.3	r2.4	r2.2	r1.6	r*6.3	r3.0	r3.7

TENURE AND LANDLORD TYPE(b)	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT(a)	ACT	Aust.
11 Owner without a mortgage	%	1999	40.6	42.5	34.8	38.1	34.3	40.5	16.2	30.7	38.8
12 Owner with a mortgage	%	1999	29.0	32.2	32.7	30.9	33.6	30.1	29.4	37.4	31.3
13 Renter – State Housing Authority	%	1999	5.3	3.8	3.4	10.7	4.5	5.9	13.2	10.1	5.1
14 Renter – private landlord	%	1999	21.9	17.3	23.7	14.6	21.4	18.4	21.5	17.8	20.3

HOUSING COSTS	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT(a)	ACT	Aust.
Households with affordability problems											
15 Renters	%	1998	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
16 Total households	%	1999	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.	n.y.a.
Rental											
17 Mean weekly public rent	$	1999	65	74	68	66	61	65	91	79	68
18 Mean weekly private rent	$	1999	200	156	150	127	143	121	200	170	167
19 Rental cost index	index no.	2002	140.6	134.7	117.6	128.9	118.0	120.3	123.1	129.2	133.1
Construction/purchase											
20 First home buyers – average loan size(c)	$'000	2002	180.9	146.2	125.4	105.6	124.1	78.3	118.4	149.0	145.3
21 Project home price index(d)	index no.	2002	141.3	142.1	133.5	148.2	128.8	145.1	158.5	161.3	138.1
22 Established house price index(d)	index no.	2002	192.2	193.7	169.8	150.1	145.5	140.1	204.2	173.1	178.0
23 Materials used in house building price index(c)(d)	index no.	2002	132.0	125.0	122.0	130.6	119.4	128.4	n.a.	n.a.	126.0
Finance commitments											
Construction/purchase of new dwellings											
24 Number	'000	2002	23.8	28.9	21.0	7.2	13.9	1.3	0.4	1.2	97.8
25 Value	$m	2002	4 514	4 326	2 986	895	1 934	132	527	203	15 043
Purchase of established dwellings											
26 Number	'000	2002	187.4	117.4	98.1	44.6	61.9	11.5	4.0	8.1	532.9
27 Value	$m	2002	35 026	17 983	13 114	4 800	7 900	951	420	1 245	81 439
28 Value for alterations and additions	$m	2002	1 587	1 148	498	262	423	81	17	67	4 083

HOUSING ASSISTANCE	Units	Years	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
29 Public sector rental dwelling stock	'000	2002	127.8	64.7	50.2	49.1	32.6	12.7	6.1	11.2	354.1
30 Applicants on housing waiting lists	'000	2002	96.0	45.5	26.8	32.7	14.3	2.8	1.9	3.3	223.3
31 Applicants accommodated	'000	2002	10.8	7.0	6.6	3.8	4.6	1.9	1.0	1.2	36.9
32 Persons receiving private rental assistance	'000	2002	335.4	211.8	251.1	67.8	91.5	24.0	6.0	8.7	996.4
33 Mean rental assistance received	$	2002	73	71	73	70	71	68	72	69	72
34 Mean rent paid by rental assistance recipients	$	2002	272	246	251	231	235	210	262	263	253

(a) Estimates for dwelling structure, tenure type and mean weekly public and private rent for Northern Territory relate to mainly urban areas only.

(b) 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.

(c) Measured at original prices.

(d) State and Territory data refer to capital cities only.

Reference periods: Data are for year ended 30 June. Data for average loan size of first home buyers are at June 30.

Housing: data sources

DATA SOURCE	*Indicators using this source*
ABS Australian Housing Survey 1999.	National (9–10); State (7–10)
ABS Building Activity Survey September Quarter 2002.	State (2–3)
ABS Consumer Price Index Australia.	National (19); State (19)
ABS Housing Finance for Owner Occupation Australia.	National (26, 28); State (20, 25, 27–28)
ABS 1992 Family Survey; 1994 and 1999 Australian Housing Survey; and Surveys of Income and Housing Costs.	National (4–8, 11–14, 17–18); State (4–6, 11–14, 17–18)
ABS Surveys of Income and Housing Costs.	National (15–16); State (15–16)
Australian Demographic Statistics, September Quarter 2002 (ABS cat. no. 3101.0).	National (1); State (1)
Building Activity, Australia, September Quarter 2002 (ABS cat. no. 8752.0).	National (2–3)
Department of Family and Community Services administrative data.	National (33–35); State (32–34)
House Price Indexes: Eight Capital Cities, September Quarter 2002 (ABS cat. no. 6416.0).	National (22–23); State (21–22)
Housing Finance for Owner Occupation, Australia, July 2002 (ABS cat. no. 5609.0).	National (21, 25, 27, 29); State (24, 26)
Producer Price Indexes, Australia, December 2002 (ABS cat. no. 6427.0).	National (24); State (23)
Reserve Bank of Australia, *Indicator Lending Rates – F5*, <http://www.rba.gov.au/Statistics/Bulletin/F05hist.xls>, accessed 18 March 2003.	National (20)
Steering Committee for the Review of Commonwealth/State Service Provision, *Report on Government Services 2003* <http://www.pc.gov.au/gsp/2003/attachment16.pdf>, accessed 20 February 2003.	National (30–32); State (29–31)

Housing: definitions

Affordability problems
proportion of households in the bottom 40% of the income distribution with housing costs above 30% of their disposable income. The income distribution ranks households into equivalised income groups to take account of the different size and composition of households and thus their different income needs. Housing costs — including rent, mortgage and rate payments — are calculated as a proportion of the household's unequivalised disposable income. For more information, see *Measuring Australia's Progress* (ABS. cat. no. 1370.0).

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: Department of Family and Community Services, *Housing Assistance Act 1996 Annual Report*. For data after 1998 Steering Committee for the Review of Commonwealth/State Service Provision (SCRCSSP) 2003, *Report on Government Services 2003,* Ausinfo, Canberra.

Applicants on housing waiting lists
the number of applicants (households) waiting for public rental accommodation on 30 June.

Reference: Department of Family and Community Services, *Housing Assistance Act 1996 Annual Report*. For data after 1998, SCRCSSP.

Average number of bedrooms per dwelling
the average number of bedrooms in occupied private dwellings.

Reference: Income and Housing Surveys; 1991 Census of Population and Housing; 1999 Australian Housing Survey; and Surveys of Income and Housing Costs.

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 2 people per bedroom; children less than 5 years of age of different sexes may reasonably share a bedroom; children 5 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).

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).

Housing: definitions continued

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).

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 person living alone or a group of related or unrelated people who usually reside and eat together.

Reference: *Australian Housing Survey – Housing Characteristics, Costs and Conditions* (ABS cat. no. 4182.0).

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*.

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.

Mean weekly public/private rent
the average weekly rent paid by renters of public/private dwellings.

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. Prior to 1995 known as 'being purchased', and excluded dwellings with mortgages for alteration/addition or other purposes.

Reference: *Housing Occupancy and Costs, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4130.0).

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. Prior to 1995 known as 'owned', and included dwellings whose only mortgage was for alteration/addition or other purposes.

Reference: *Housing Occupancy and Costs, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4130.0).

Persons receiving private rental assistance
persons on low incomes 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: Survey data from Centrelink.

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).

Housing: definitions continued

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).

First home buyers

In the three years to 1999, 309,000 Australian households bought their first home.

Home ownership is an aspiration of many Australians, because of the security of tenure and long-term financial benefits it can provide. However, some people may not want to buy a home, while for others it may be financially out of reach. Purchasing a home generally requires a substantial financial commitment; initially to save a deposit and then to meet ongoing mortgage repayments. In recognition of these benefits and barriers, a range of policies encourage and assist home purchase in Australia (e.g. capital gains tax exemptions on the sale of private homes which are main residences).[1]

In the decade to 2002, the number of Australians obtaining finance to purchase their first home fluctuated between 96,000 and 142,000 per year, peaking in 2001–2002. This may be partly due to people timing their purchasing plans in response to the introduction in July 2000 of the Goods and Services Tax and the First Home Owner Grant, as well as historically low interest rates. In 2001–2002, first home buyers represented almost a quarter (23%) of all financed home purchases.

Attaining home ownership

Many interrelated factors can affect the relative costs and benefits of home ownership and the financial capacity of households to purchase a home. Ultimately, these factors can determine whether or not a household enters into home ownership. Such factors include interest rates, property values, the cost of renting, and the ability of a household to save a deposit and to meet ongoing repayments. The ability to purchase may also be affected by labour market changes and the level of household members' attachment to the workforce. For example, people in casual or contract employment may be less able to make long-term financial commitments or obtain a loan than those in more stable (i.e. permanent, full-time) employment.[2] In addition, a range of social trends, such as the delay in family formation and increased participation by young people in further education and training, may affect the timing of first home purchase. Further, home ownership may not align with changing lifestyle choices or situations.

First home purchases(a)

(a) The number of homes for which finance was provided to first home buyers in the financial year.

Source: Housing Finance for Owner Occupation, Australia (ABS cat. no. 5609.0).

Home owners and buyers

Data in this article come from the 1999 Australian Housing Survey (see *Australian Housing Survey — Housing Characteristics, Costs and Conditions 1999,* ABS cat. no. 4182.0) and the ABS Housing Finance collection (see *Housing Finance for Owner Occupation, Australia, 2002,* ABS cat. no. 5609.0).

Home owners are households in which one or more residents own their current home, either with or without a mortgage.

First home buyers are home owner households, where none of the current owners had previously owned or been purchasing a home.

Changeover buyers are home owner households where at least one of the current owners had previously owned or been purchasing a home.

Recent home buyers are first home buyers and changeover buyers that purchased their home in the three years to 1999.

Recent first home buyers

Most households which purchased their first home in the three years to 1999 were relatively young, with the reference person in three-quarters of these households aged 25 to 44 years. After the age of 44 years, the proportion of recent first home buyers was lower for each successive age group. This is largely because households containing people aged 45 years and over are more likely to have previously purchased a home (i.e. prior to 1997) and therefore are not classified as recent first home buyers. For example, although households with a reference person aged 65 years or over were the least likely to be recent first home buyers, overall they were the most likely to be home owners in 1999.

In 1999, the household reference person was aged 25–34 years in more than half (58%) of all recent first home buyer households. This may be attributed to several factors. Broad life-cycle differences between 15–24 year olds and 25–34 year olds mean the latter are more likely to enter into home ownership. For example, the generally higher incomes of 25–34 year olds and their greater likelihood of having stable employment than their younger counterparts may make home purchase more affordable and increase the likelihood of having a loan approved. They are also more likely to have formed long-term relationships. Partnering has traditionally preceded home purchase,[3] and often has the advantage of providing two incomes with which to meet the associated costs.

Couples with children represented almost a third of households that bought their first home in the three years to 1999. A further quarter of recent first home buyers were couple-only households where the reference person was aged less than 35 years. However, 14% of recent first home buyers were people aged 15–34 years who lived alone. One-parent households made up less than 3% of recent first home buyers. This may be because they had owned or partly owned their home prior to separation or divorce. However, one-parent households also have below average incomes, and account for a relatively small proportion of households overall (6%).

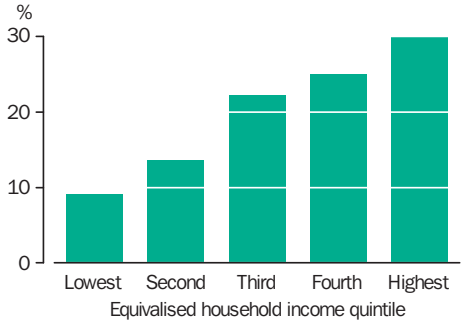
Recent first home buyers(a) — 1999

	First home buyers
Age of reference person	%
15–24 years	12.7
25–34 years	57.9
35–44 years	17.8
45–54 years	7.6
55–64 years	3.0
65 years or over	1.1
Selected life-cycle groups	
Lone person under 35 years	13.8
Couple only, reference person under 35 years	24.9
Couple with children(b)	29.5
Lone parent(b)	2.5
Couple only, reference person 55 years or over	*1.0
Lone person 55 years or over	*2.6
All households	**100.0**
	'000
All households	**308.5**

(a) Households that purchased their first home in the three years to 1999.
(b) Includes households with at least one dependent child.

Source: ABS 1999 Australian Housing Survey.

Income distribution of recent first home buyers(a) — 1999



(a) Households that purchased their first home in the three years to 1999.

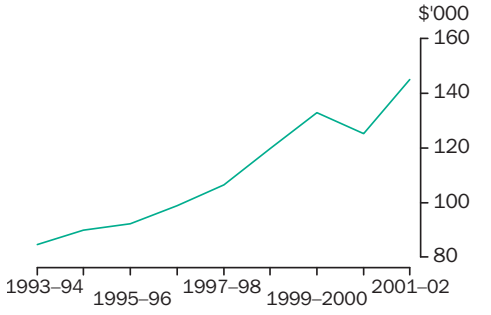
Source: ABS 1999 Australian Housing Survey.

First home buyers generally have above average incomes, with more than three-quarters (77%) of recent first home buyer households ranked in the third, fourth and fifth equivalised income quintiles in 1999. This may be partly because of the relatively high proportion of households where the reference person was aged 25 to 44 years in these quintiles, as households in this age group were the most likely to be purchasing their first home. For example, such households represented almost half (48%) of those in the upper three quintiles (compared with 30% in the lower two quintiles). Conversely, households where the reference person was aged 65 years or over accounted for 8% of all households in the upper three quintiles (compared with almost 40% in the lower two quintiles) and, as previously discussed, were unlikely to have recently purchased their first home.

What sort of home?

While Australian homes have traditionally been separate houses, higher density dwellings represent an increasing proportion of homes. Separate houses represented 76% of all homes in 2001, down from 78% a decade earlier (see *Australian Social Trends 2003,* Changes in Australian housing, pp. 175–179). However, separate houses remain the most common type of home purchased. While most (81%) recent first home buyers bought a separate house, this was slightly lower than for recent changeover buyers (83%).

Average size of loans taken out by first home buyers(a)



(a) First home purchases for which finance was provided in the financial year.

Source: Housing Finance for Owner Occupation, Australia (ABS cat. no. 5609.0)

The costs of home purchase

The average size of first home buyers' loans rose from $84,500 to $144,900 in the nine years to 2001–2002, partly reflecting the rise in housing prices over time. Between 1993–1994 and 2001–2002, the price index for established houses (which takes changes in the quality of dwellings into account) rose by 63% (see *Australian Social Trends 2003,* Housing: national summary table, pp. 166). However, a range of other factors may also have influenced the size of first home buyers' loans, such as the changing conditions under which home buyers have been able to acquire and use housing finance (see *Australian Social Trends 2001,* Housing finance, pp. 190–193).

Of those households that bought their first home in the three years to 1999, 87% had a loan secured against their dwelling in 1999, compared with 61% of recent changeover buyers. However, on average, recent first home buyers owed less on their mortgage in 1999 than recent changeover buyers ($95,000 compared with $115,000). The median repayments of recent first home buyers were $180 (18% of their income) per week, with just over half (53%) making above the minimum repayments.

Households with a mortgage that bought their first home in the three years to 1999 spent a median $120,000 on their home, with the average deposit representing about 10% of the purchase price. Of those who paid a deposit, 78% had saved it. This indicates that being able to save is a key factor in first home purchase. Another 11% of recent first home buyers had received their deposit as a gift or loan from family or friends.

Recent first home buyers had a median $40,000 equity in their home, just under half that of recent changeover buyers ($86,000). This is consistent with the greater incomes and accumulated wealth of changeover buyers, compared with first home buyers. Over time, home ownership can in itself increase a household's wealth (largely through enforced saving and rises in property values) and make upgrading a home more financially viable. Upgrading may involve moving, renovating or both (see *Australian Social Trends 2002,* Home renovation, pp. 191–194).

Median costs for recent home buyers(a) that had a mortgage — 1999

	First home buyers	*Changeover buyers*
At time of purchase	$'000	$'000
Purchase price of home	120	180
Deposit	13	22
At time of survey		
Amount owing on mortgage	95	115
Dwelling value	140	210
Equity in dwelling(b)	40	86
At time of survey	$	$
Weekly mortgage repayments	180	218
Weekly gross household income	1 019	1 250
	'000	'000
Number of households	**267.9**	**409.5**

(a) Households that had purchased their current home in the three years to 1999.
(b) The amount by which the value of the dwelling exceeds the amount owed on the dwelling.

Source: ABS 1999 Australian Housing Survey.

The First Home Owner Grant

Programs encouraging and assisting home ownership, such as capital gains tax exemptions on the sale of main residence private homes, have long operated in Australia.[1] A previous First Home Owners Scheme helped almost 360,000 recipients to buy their first home in the 1980s.[4] In its first two years of operation, the First Home Owner Grant, introduced in July 2000, assisted a similar number of recipients. This grant was introduced alongside, and to compensate for the possible effects of, the GST. From July 2000 to June 2002, around 360,200 payments were made. Based on the 2001 Census population of 7.1 million households, 5% of all households received the grant during this period, totalling almost $3 billion in assistance.

Around 311,000 of the grant recipients (86%) received the initial grant of up to $7,000. Although many of these would have purchased an established home, due to timing restrictions on the additional grant for those buying a new home, some may have bought new homes. The remaining 14% of recipients built or purchased a new home and received either $10,000 or $14,000. Of the grants given, the greatest proportion going to people buying or building a new home was in Western Australia (20%), compared with a low of 6% in Tasmania.

First Home Owner Grant recipients — July 2000–June 2002

	Payment received			
	$7,000(a)	$10,000	$14,000	*Total*
State or territory	no.	no.	no.	no.
New South Wales	93 937	646	11 062	105 645
Victoria	80 140	510	12 699	93 349
Queensland	63 044	867	11 157	75 068
South Australia	25 604	134	3 432	29 170
Western Australia	30 342	341	7 015	37 698
Tasmania	9 017	17	539	9 573
Australian Capital Territory	6 079	42	522	6 643
Northern Territory	2 480	33	511	3 024
Australia	**310 643**	**2 590**	**46 937**	**360 170**

(a) Includes some applicants receiving under $7,000.

Source: New South Wales Office of State Revenue; Victorian State Revenue Office *Monthly Treasury Report*, June 2002; Queensland Government Office of State Revenue <http://www.osr.qld.gov.au/fhog/html/statistics.htm>, accessed 4 September 2002; Taxpayer Services, RevenueSA; Western Australia First Home Owner Grant On-line system; The Commissioner of State Revenue, Tasmania; Australian Capital Territory Department of Treasury Oracle Database; National First Home Owners Grant Database in reconciliation to the Northern Territory Government Accounting System Ledgers.

The First Home Owner Grant

The introduction of the Goods and Services Tax (GST) in July 2000 increased the costs of buying or building a home and had the potential to cause a drop in the housing construction market.[5] To compensate for this, the Commonwealth Government introduced the First Home Owner Grant.[6]

To qualify for the grant, neither the owner nor their spouse must have owned a home previously, and the owner must occupy the home within 12 months of completion or settlement.

The *First Home Owner Grant* is not means tested and consists of a one-off, tax free payment of $7,000 to Australians buying or building their first home in Australia from July 2000. An additional grant of $7,000 (subsequently reduced to $3,000 from the end of 2001) was made available to first home owners building or purchasing a new (previously unoccupied) home up to the end of June 2002.[7]

Endnotes

1 Australian Housing and Urban Research Institute (AHURI) 2000, *Australia at Home; an overview of contemporary housing policy issues,* AHURI, 2000.

2 Kupke, V. and Marano, W. 2002, *The implications of changes in the labour market for the ownership aspirations, housing opportunities and characteristics of first home buyers,* AHURI, 2002.

3 Baum, S. and Wulff, M. 2001, *Housing aspirations of Australian households: Positioning paper,* AHURI, 2001.

4 Australian Bureau of Statistics 1992, *Year Book, Australia, 1991,* cat. no. 1301.0, ABS, Canberra.

5 Gilfillan, G. 2001, *Impact of the GST and the First Home Owners' Scheme on the Housing Industry* <http://www.aph.gov.au/Library/pubs/rn/2001-02/02RN01.htm>, accessed 30 August 2002.

6 CanberraConnect <http://www.canberraconnect.com.au/general/housing/buyingahome/firsthomebuyer.html>, accessed 30 August 2002.

7 fhog Online <http://www.firsthome.gov.au.html>, accessed 30 August 2002.

Changes in Australian housing

HOUSING STOCK

Between 1991 and 2001 there was a 37% increase in higher density housing, and an 18% increase in separate houses.

During the last decade of the 20th century, a number of factors influenced the types of dwellings being added to Australia's housing stock. The demand for more variety in dwelling types was influenced by changes in the age structure of the population, household and family composition and size, as well as demand for lower priced accommodation and housing closer to employment centres.[1]

During this period, government and urban planners supported and promoted increased housing choice, essentially seeking to increase the availability of various types of higher density housing. Other factors influenced this policy push towards more higher density housing, including the price of land close to city centres, the infrastructure costs of developing non-urban land, and environmental concerns relating to the spread of urban development.

Australia's housing stock

While influenced to a certain extent by overall population growth, demand for housing is more specifically influenced by changes in the number and composition of households occupying dwellings, as well as their financial situation. Between 1991 and 2001, Australia's population increased by 12% while the number of occupied private dwellings increased by 21%. Of the 1.2 million additional dwellings, separate houses represented 66% of the total increase and higher density housing represented 35% (other dwellings dropped by 1%).

Dwellings

Data presented in this article are drawn from the 1991 and 2001 ABS Censuses of Population and Housing.

Private dwellings are separate houses; semidetached, row or terrace houses, townhouses; flats, units or apartments; and other dwellings (which includes caravans, cabins, houseboats; improvised homes, tents, sleepers out; houses or flats attached to a shop, office, etc.). Hotels, boarding houses, hostels, hospitals and prisons are regarded as non-private dwellings and are not discussed in this article.

In this article, *dwellings* refer to occupied private dwellings. Unoccupied private dwellings are excluded from this article.

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

In this article, *higher density housing* refers to the combination of 'semidetached, row or terrace houses and townhouses' and 'flats, units and apartments'. Since the 1991 Census additional dwelling types were included in this category, which will have resulted in a small increase in the number of higher density dwellings in the 2001 Census.

The greater increase in the number of dwellings compared with population growth is largely due to social and demographic changes leading to smaller households. For example, fewer group households, declining

Occupied private dwellings(a)

Dwelling structure	*1991* %	*2001* %	*Change in number of dwellings 1991–2001* %
Separate houses	78.0	75.9	17.5
Higher density housing	*19.5*	*22.2*	*37.2*
Semidetached, row or terrace house, townhouse etc.	7.8	9.0	39.6
Flat, unit or apartment	11.7	13.2	35.6
Other dwellings	2.5	1.9	–6.1
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**20.8**
	'000	'000	'000
Total	**5 852.5**	**7 072.2**	**1 219.7**

(a) Dwellings where the dwelling structure was not stated were excluded prior to the calculation of percentages.

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

marriage rates, an increasing number of divorces and an ageing population have all contributed to more and smaller households. Between 1991 and 2001 there was a 43% increase in the number of lone person households, a 37% increase in the number of lone-parent households and a 29% increase in the number of couple households without children. In contrast, the number of couple households with children increased by less than 1%.

Between 1991 and 2001, while the number of separate houses increased by 18%, the increase in the number of higher density dwellings was twice as high (37%). However, the faster growth in higher density housing did not dramatically change the balance of housing stock in Australia, with the number of separate houses decreasing slightly as a proportion of all dwellings (from 78% in 1991 to 76% in 2001). In 2001, there were 5.3 million separate houses compared with 1.6 million higher density dwellings.

Despite the trend toward smaller households and the slight shift towards higher density housing, the average number of bedrooms in Australian dwellings has increased over the past decade (2.97 bedrooms per dwelling in 2001 compared with 2.85 in 1991). The proportion of separate houses with four bedrooms increased from 20% in 1991 to 27% in 2001, while the proportion of higher density dwellings with three bedrooms increased from 18% in 1991 to 25% in 2001.

Geographical classifications

This article uses a range of different geographic classifications from the Australian Standard Geographical Classification (ASGC). For further information see *Statistical Geography: Volume 1 — Australian Standard Geographical Classification (ASGC), 2001* (ABS cat. no. 1216.0).

To examine the distribution of dwellings, Australia is divided into three areas. *Capital Cities* are Capital City Statistical Divisions from each of the Australian states and territories. *Large Population Centres* are Statistical Districts (excluding the Canberra Statistical Division), which are predominantly urban areas that contain population centres totalling 25,000 persons or more (e.g. Newcastle and Geraldton) and which are not located within a Capital City Statistical Division. The remainder of Australia is referred to as *Country Areas*.

Geographic differences

Over the 10 years to 2001, the number of dwellings in Australia grew by 20% in Capital Cities, 45% in Large Population Centres and 6% in Country Areas. In each area, the majority of this growth was met by separate houses. Increases in the number of higher density dwellings were confined to Capital Cities and Large Population Centres. In the 10 years to 2001, the number of higher density dwellings increased by 72% in Large Population Centres and by 36% in Capital Cities. Despite this, in 2001, the proportion of housing that was higher density was still

Selected occupied private dwellings: geographic distribution(a) — 2001

	Separate houses		*Higher density housing*		
	2001	*Change in number of dwellings 1991–2001*	*2001*	*Change in number of dwellings 1991–2001*	*Total dwellings(b)*
	%	%	%	%	'000
Capital Cities	*72.4*	*16.1*	*26.7*	*36.2*	*4 453.4*
Sydney	63.7	10.2	35.5	36.5	1 438.4
Melbourne	74.5	13.9	24.7	36.0	1 243.4
Brisbane	80.6	25.9	18.3	73.5	601.1
Adelaide	75.5	13.5	24.0	13.9	430.2
Perth	77.9	26.1	21.5	30.5	511.2
Hobart	83.1	15.4	16.2	8.2	76.1
Darwin	62.6	32.8	29.8	55.4	38.2
Canberra	76.9	18.0	22.8	49.6	114.7
Large Population Centres	76.8	40.0	20.8	71.5	1 257.9
Country Areas	86.5	7.0	8.5	–0.1	1 361.0
Australia	**75.9**	**17.5**	**22.2**	**37.2**	**7 072.2**

(a) Dwellings where the dwelling structure was not stated were excluded prior to the calculation of percentages.
(b) Includes Other dwellings.

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

highest in Capital Cities (27% of all dwellings in these areas), compared with 21% of dwellings in Large Population Centres and 9% of dwellings in Country Areas.

Between 1991 and 2001, the growth in higher density housing varied between Capital Cities. In Sydney, higher density housing increased at more than three times the rate of separate houses, with a similar pattern observed in Melbourne, Brisbane and Canberra. In 2001, Hobart had the highest proportion of separate houses (83%) of all Capital Cities, and was the only capital city where the number of separate houses increased at a faster rate than higher density housing. In Adelaide and Perth the rates of increase were similar across the two housing types. Overall, in 2001, Sydney had the highest proportion of higher density housing across the Capital Cities (36% of all dwellings in this city), followed by Darwin (30%). The lowest proportions of higher density housing were in Hobart (16%) and Brisbane (18%).

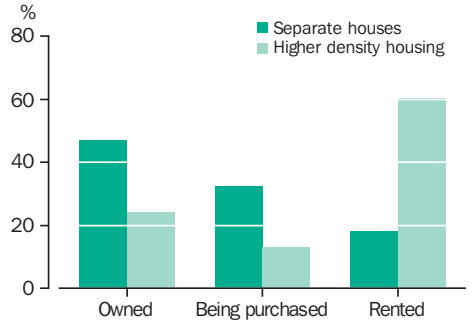
Characteristics of residents

Australians' housing choices tend to be related to the life-cycle stages through which many households progress. Australians tend to follow the pattern of renting in early adulthood, moving to purchasing and paying off a home when forming relationships and raising a family, and owning the home outright (i.e. without a mortgage) in older age (see *Australian Social Trends 2001*, Housing experience through life-cycle stages, pp. 177–181).

Overall, the dwelling choice of the life-cycle groups examined changed little between 1991 and 2001. In 2001, lone persons aged less than 35 years were the life-cycle group most likely to live in higher density housing (52%). One-third of young couples (with a male partner aged less than 35 years) without children lived in higher density housing (105,000 families), compared with 8% of couple families with dependent children (144,000 families). Higher density housing may offer young people a more affordable option when renting or purchasing a dwelling. In addition, the location and relatively easy maintenance of many higher density dwellings may also suit their lifestyles.

Families with dependent children were far more likely to live in separate houses than higher density housing. In 2001, 92% of couple families with dependent children (1.7 million families) and 78% of one-parent families with dependent children lived in separate houses (386,000 families). Older couples (with a male partner aged 65 years or over) without children were also more likely to live in separate houses (84% in 2001) than higher density housing. In contrast, older lone

Dwellings by tenure type(a) — 2001



(a) Dwellings where the dwelling structure was not stated were excluded prior to the calculation of percentages.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

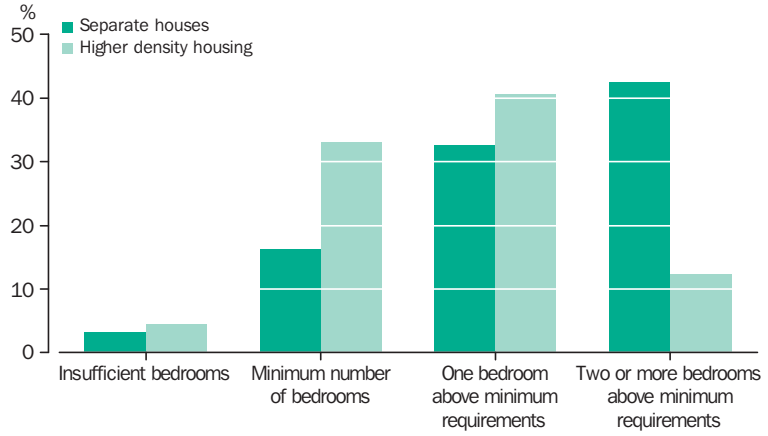
Life-cycle groups by housing density(a)

	Separate houses		*Higher density housing*	
	1991	*2001*	*1991*	*2001*
Selected life-cycle groups	%	%	%	%
Lone person aged under 35 years	44.7	44.7	50.3	52.3
Couple only, male partner aged under 35 years	69.4	66.2	28.4	33.0
Couple, dependent children(b)	92.5	91.8	6.5	7.7
One-parent family, dependent children(b)	74.9	77.8	23.6	21.4
Couple only, male partner aged 65 years or over	84.6	84.1	14.3	14.8
Lone person aged 65 years or over	61.9	60.5	36.2	37.7
Total(c)	**78.0**	**75.9**	**19.5**	**22.2**

(a) Dwellings where the dwelling structure was not stated were excluded prior to the calculation of percentages.
(b) Dependent children includes children under the age of 15 years and full-time students aged 15–24 years.
(c) Includes life-cycle groups not specified.

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

Housing occupancy(a)(b) — 2001



(a) Dwellings where the dwelling structure was not stated were excluded prior to the calculation of percentages.
(b) Based on the Canadian National Occupancy Standard for housing suitability.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

persons (aged 65 years or over) were more than twice as likely to live in higher density housing (38% in 2001) than older couples.

Tenure type varied according to the type of dwelling, as well as the life-cycle stage of households. In 2001, higher density housing was more likely to be rented (60%) than separate houses (18%). Almost half (47%) of separate houses were owned outright, while 33% were being purchased. On the other hand, 24% of higher density dwellings were owned outright and 13% were being purchased. The comparatively high rate of outright home ownership among lone persons aged 65 years or over (75% in 2001) is likely to have contributed to the greater outright ownership rate for higher density dwellings (24%), compared with the proportion being purchased (13%). On the other hand, the high proportion of lone persons aged less than 35 years who pay rent for their dwelling (60%) may be a factor contributing to the high proportion of higher density dwellings that are rented.

Housing occupancy

In 2001, few separate houses and higher density dwellings in Australia were overcrowded (according to the Canadian National Occupancy Standard), with 3% and

Selected life-cycle groups: housing occupancy(a)(b) — 2001

	Proportion of households with:				
	Insufficient bedrooms	*Minimum number of bedrooms*	*One bedroom above minimum requirement*	*Two or more bedrooms above minimum requirement*	*All households(e)*
	%	%	%	%	%
Lone person aged under 35 years	—	4.6	5.0	4.8	4.4
Couple only, male partner aged under 35 years	1.0	1.9	4.4	7.5	4.5
Couple with dependent children(c)	45.4	38.9	33.8	13.4	26.4
Lone parent with dependent children(c)	22.7	14.2	7.3	1.5	7.1
Couple only, male partner aged 65 years or over	0.7	1.0	5.5	16.3	7.8
Lone person aged 65 years or over	—	6.9	9.4	10.7	8.6
All households(d)	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000
All households(d)	**238.6**	**1 410.6**	**2 367.9**	**2 456.2**	**7 072.2**
	no.	no.	no.	no.	no.
Average number of bedrooms	2.5	2.4	2.8	3.5	2.9

(a) Dwellings where the dwelling structure was not stated were excluded prior to the calculation of percentages.
(b) Based on the Canadian National Occupancy Standard for housing suitability.
(c) Dependent children includes children under the age of 15 years and full-time students aged 15–24 years.
(d) Includes life-cycle groups not specified.
(e) Includes not applicable, and unable to determine.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

4% respectively requiring one or more extra bedrooms to meet the minimum bedroom requirement. In contrast, a large proportion of dwellings had bedrooms in excess of the minimum set by this standard. In 2001, 75% of separate houses and 53% of higher density housing had rooms in excess of the standard. This includes 43% of separate houses and 12% of higher density housing which had two or more bedrooms above minimum requirement.

The degree of overcrowding (i.e. insufficient number of bedrooms) in Australian dwellings declined slightly from 5% in 1991 to 3% in 2001. There has also been a decrease in the proportion of dwellings with the exact number of bedrooms required by the standard. In 2001, 20% of dwellings had just the minimum required number of bedrooms, compared with 25% in 1991. Consistent with smaller household sizes and an increase in the average number of bedrooms in homes, the number of dwellings with bedrooms in excess of the minimum requirement increased over the 10 years to 2001. In 2001, 35% of dwellings had two or more bedrooms above the minimum requirement compared with 27% in 1991.

Families with dependent children were the most likely to live in one of the 239,000 dwellings that had insufficient bedrooms, with 45% of these dwellings containing couple families with children and 23% containing one-parent families. On the other hand, couple families without children were the life-cycle group who were most likely to live in dwellings with two or more bedrooms above the minimum requirement (48% of these dwellings in 2001). However, only a small proportion of all dwellings with two or more bedrooms above the minimum requirement contained couple families without children where the male partner was aged less than 35 years (8%). This is consistent with many older couples remaining in the family home after their children have left home.

Housing occupancy

The Canadian National Occupancy Standard for housing suitability is often used to assess the bedroom requirements of a household according to its size and composition, and specifies that:

- there should be no more than two persons per bedroom
- a single, lone person may occupy a bedsitter (i.e. no bedrooms)
- couples are expected to share a bedroom
- children less than 18 years of age and of the same sex are expected to share a bedroom
- children less than 5 years of age are expected to share a bedroom with siblings less than 5 years of age of the opposite sex;
- single household members 18 years or over should have a separate bedroom.

Households living in dwellings where this standard cannot be met are considered to be overcrowded (i.e. have insufficient bedrooms).

Endnotes

1 Yates, J. 2002, *Housing implications of social, spatial and structural change,* Australian Housing and Urban Research Institute, Sydney.

Home ownership across Australia

More than two-thirds of Australian households owned or were buying their dwelling at the time of the August 2001 Census. However, home ownership rates vary considerably across Australia.

Home ownership is an aspiration for many Australians and has widely been referred to as 'the great Australian dream'.[1] This desire for home ownership is consistent with relatively high home ownership rates in Australia compared with many other developed countries. Ownership may bring a sense of privacy and autonomy for the owner, including the freedom to make changes to the physical structure and appearance of the home. Home ownership also provides owners with a financial asset which can be of future benefit, especially in later life when a household's earning potential may be reduced.

In August 2001, 4.6 million (69%) households in Australia owned their dwellings (with or without a mortgage). However, home ownership rates vary considerably across Australia. This article explores these variations and the social and demographic characteristics of households that own their home (with or without a mortgage).

Home ownership

Data in this article were drawn from the Census of Population and Housing, conducted in August 2001.

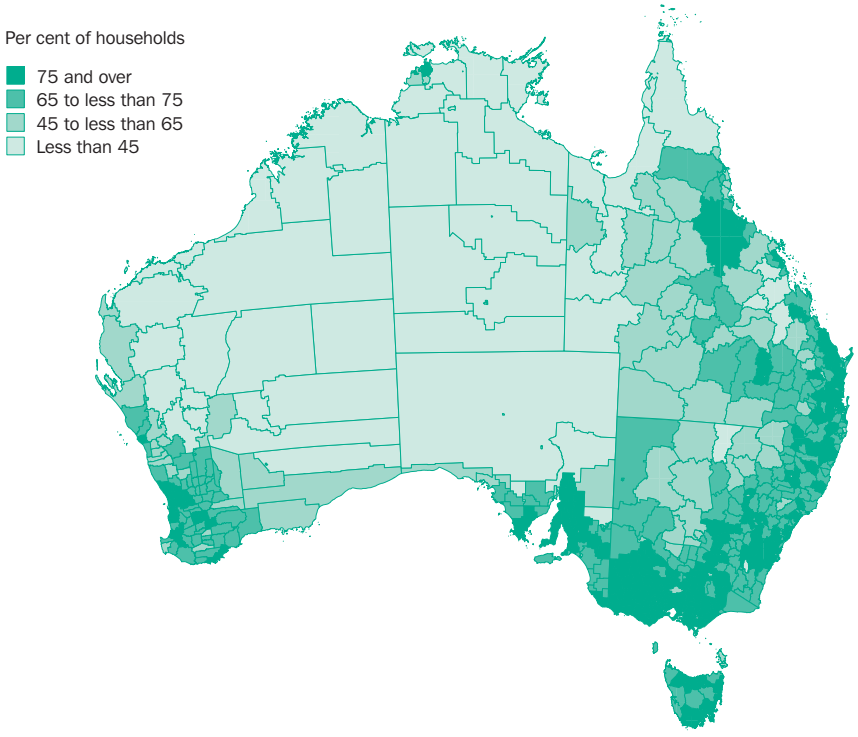
The *home ownership rate* in this article refers to the proportion of households in occupied private dwellings which are fully owned or being purchased by them, as a proportion of all households.

This article only considers private dwellings which were occupied on census night. It excludes households not classifiable by household type.

Geographic variations in home ownership

Across Statistical Local Areas (SLAs), many of which have relatively small populations, comparatively high ownership rates were found in and around capital cities. In most of these SLAs, over 75% of households owned their dwelling (with or without a mortgage). Outside of capital cities, equally high

Households(a): home ownership rate(b) by Statistical Local Area — 2001



(a) In occupied private dwellings. Excludes households not classifiable by household type, including those in Migratory category.
(b) Comprises households that were fully owned or being purchased.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

ownership rates were found among households located in areas along the south eastern coast of Australia; in Tasmania; Litchfield - Pt B in the Northern Terrritory; and in areas close to regional cities such as Townsville (Queensland) and Geraldton (Western Australia). Adjoining these SLAs and spreading inland from the capital cities, the proportion of households that owned their home tended to be between 65% and less than 75%. Ownership rates were generally lower the more remote the area. Within SLAs in western New South Wales, central Queensland, and the south and central coast of Western Australia, the proportion of households that owned their home was generally between 45% and less than 65%. SLAs in central Australia and far north Queensland tended to have ownership rates of less than 45%.

While analysis at the SLA level shows differences in home ownership rates across relatively small areas of Australia, combining similar adjoining SLAs together to the Statistical Subdivision (SSD) level is useful in providing a broader perspective. In August 2001, seven of the ten SSDs with the highest ownership rates were in Victoria. However, Beaudesert Shire Part A, located on the southern fringe of Brisbane, had the highest ownership rate (87%) of all SSDs.

In New South Wales and Victoria, both the highest and lowest ownership rates were in capital city SSDs (i.e. within Sydney and Melbourne). In both of these cities, households in the central part of the city tended to have the lowest propensity to own their home (45% in Inner Sydney SSD and 43% in Inner Melbourne SSD). Households in Central Northern Sydney, and in the surrounding SSDs of Inner Melbourne such as South Loddon, Yarra Ranges Shire Part A, and Northern Outer Melbourne had the highest ownership rates (all above 82%). In Queensland, South Australia and Western Australia, households in SSDs on the outskirts of the capital city tended to be more likely to own their home, while those located in more remote areas of the state were least likely.

Geographical classifications

This article uses a range of different geographic classifications from the Australian Standard Geographical Classification (ASGC). For further information see *Statistical Geography: Volume 1 — Australian Standard Geographical Classifications (ASGC), 2001* (ABS cat. no. 1216.0).

In very general terms, a *Statistical Local Area (SLA)* is based on the boundary of the corresponding local government area (LGA), if such an LGA exists and does not contain too many people. There were 1,353 SLAs in Australia in 2001.

A *Statistical Subdivision (SSD)* consists of one or more adjoining SLAs that are socially and economically alike. People in an SSD usually associate with each other in areas such as employment, health, education, tourism and industry, or share transport and communication networks. There were 207 SSDs in Australia in 2001.

The ABS Remoteness classification is used to examine home ownership 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.

Statistical Subdivisions(a) with the lowest and highest home ownership rate(b) in each state and territory — 2001

	Highest home ownership rate		*Lowest home ownership rate*	
State or territory	Statistical Subdivision	%	Statistical Subdivision	%
NSW	Central Northern Sydney	81.8	Inner Sydney	45.2
Vic.	South Loddon	84.0	Inner Melbourne	43.4
Qld	Beaudesert Shire Part A	86.6	North West	50.5
SA	Barossa	81.3	Far North	42.4
WA	East Metropolitan	76.6	Ord	26.3
Tas.	Southern	78.5	Lyell	69.8
NT	Litchfield Shire	79.0	Bathurst-Melville	0.4
ACT	Tuggeranong	76.2	North Canberra	53.2

(a) Excludes Statistical Subdivisions containing fewer than 400 households.
(b) Rates refer to households. Includes households in occupied private dwellings that are fully owned or being purchased. Excludes households not classifiable by household type, including those in Migratory category.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

Tasmania had the least variation in ownership rates, with at least 69% of households owning their home across all SSDs. In the Australian Capital Territory, SSDs on the outskirts of Canberra had higher ownership rates (about 76%) than SSDs closer to the city centre, which had ownership rates of about 53%.

The five SSDs with the lowest ownership rates were all in the Northern Territory. This may reflect the higher proportions of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples living in these SSDs. Indigenous peoples generally have lower ownership rates than non-Indigenous people (for more information see *Australian Social Trends 2001*, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander housing in non-remote areas, pp. 186–189). Many Indigenous peoples living in remote communities share ownership of land, and have an Indigenous community housing organisation administering property, providing security of tenure, as well as several of the other benefits of individual ownership not usually available in the private rental market.

In SSDs where 75% or more of households owned their home, median individual incomes tended to be above the Australian level. However, a high median income did not always indicate higher ownership rates across all SSDs. For example, this was less likely to be the case in some SSDs in remote areas where higher proportions of people are employed in the Mining industry. People working in this industry may be more likely to be employed on short-term contracts, and tend to rent, or live rent-free, rather than own their house.

Characteristics of households

In keeping with regions nearest Major Cities having the highest ownership rates and those in central and northern Australia having the lowest, in August 2001, Remoteness Areas show ownership rates generally decreasing as remoteness increased. Inner Regional areas had the highest ownership rate (72%), while Major Cities had a slightly lower ownership rate (69%). Households in Very Remote areas were least likely to own their home (36%). Many of the differences in ownership rates across Remoteness Areas reflect differences in the characteristics of people living in each area.

...age

Home ownership rates generally increase with the age of the household reference person. This is in keeping with younger people being less likely to own their home for a range of social and economic reasons (see *Australian Social Trends 2001,* Housing experience through life-cycle stages, pp. 177–181). While ownership rates were 75% for households with a reference person aged 35–64 years, ownership rates were higher for households with a reference person aged 65–74 years (83%), and for those with a reference person aged 75 years and over (81%).

For all age groups, home ownership rates were higher in Major Cities than in Remote and Very Remote areas. This difference was most evident among households with a reference person aged 35–64 years and least evident among households with a reference person aged 75 years or older.

Households(a): home ownership rates(b) by age of reference person(c) and Remoteness Area — 2001

Age group of household reference person (years)	*Remoteness Area*					
	Major Cities	*Inner Regional*	*Outer Regional*	*Remote*	*Very Remote*	*Australia*
	%	%	%	%	%	%
15–34	44.1	45.9	41.3	33.6	18.7	43.8
35–64	74.8	77.0	73.9	63.4	39.8	74.7
65–74	82.6	85.1	83.1	79.3	60.0	83.1
75 and over	80.8	82.5	80.2	76.1	61.5	81.1
Total that owned their dwelling(d)	**69.0**	**72.3**	**68.4**	**57.6**	**35.7**	**69.2**
	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000
All households	**4 476.8**	**1 413.6**	**704.2**	**106.7**	**43.6**	**6 744.8**

(a) In occupied private dwellings. Excludes households not classifiable by household type, including those in Migratory category.
(b) Comprises households that were fully owned or being purchased.
(c) The household reference person is chosen by applying, to all usual residents aged 15 years and over in the household, the following selection criteria, in order of precedence: the person with the highest tenure type (ranked from owner without a mortgage, owner with a mortgage, renter, other tenure), the person with the highest income, the eldest person.
(d) Households where tenure type was not stated were excluded prior to the calculation of percentages.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

Households in Inner Regional areas with a reference person aged 65–74 years had the highest propensity to own their home of all Remoteness Areas and all age groups (85%). This may be linked to people moving out of capital cities after retirement to settle in less populous areas such as along Australia's eastern coast. However, for most Remoteness Areas, ownership rates decreased slightly for households with a reference person aged 75 years or over, and were lower again for households with a reference person aged 85 years or over. That said, this was not the case in Very Remote areas where ownership rates increased for households with a reference person aged 75 years or over. This is consistent with the comparatively high proportion of Indigenous peoples in these areas and their lower life expectancy (and lower home ownership rates) compared with non-Indigenous people. It may also reflect (the mainly non-Indigenous) people in this age group who are in ill health relocating to less remote areas to access health and care facilities, while those in good health may be more likely to remain in their homes in Very Remote areas (see *Australian Social Trends 2001*, Housing experience through life-cycle stages, pp. 177–181).

...household income

Home ownership rates generally increased with household income. In 2001, 81% of households with a weekly gross income of $1,500 or more per week owned their home. In contrast, 56% of households with an income between $1 and $299 per week owned their home. This partly reflects the comparatively high proportion of age pension recipients in this income group which offset other households with relatively lower home ownership rates.

In contrast, home ownership rates in Very Remote areas tended to decrease as household income increased. This different pattern among households in Very Remote areas is likely to be linked to some of the industries employing people living in these areas. For example, people employed in the Mining, Government administration and defence, and Education industries often live in remote areas for relatively short periods or fixed duration. These people generally have tenure arrangements such as rental, or rent-free accommodation. In contrast, people employed in agricultural based industries may have more permanency in a local area. Households in Very Remote areas with a reference person earning a weekly gross income of $1,000 or more employed in the Mining industry accounted for 18% of all households in that area. Those with a reference person employed in Government administration and defence, and in the Education industries accounted for 12% and 10% respectively. Households with a reference person earning over $1,000 per week employed in the Agriculture, forestry and fishing industry accounted for 15%. Those employed in the Mining, Government administration and defence, and Education industries had ownership rates of 21%, 17% and 15% respectively, while those employed in Agriculture, forestry and fishing were most likely to own their home (70%).

Households(a)(b): home ownership rates(c) by weekly gross income and Remoteness Area

	Remoteness Area					
Weekly gross household income	*Major Cities*	*Inner Regional*	*Outer Regional*	*Remote*	*Very Remote*	*Australia*
	%	%	%	%	%	%
$1 to $299	54.7	59.0	58.1	55.7	42.5	56.1
$300 to $699	62.0	67.0	65.7	58.3	35.9	63.5
$700 to $1499	71.3	77.5	71.1	55.2	29.9	72.0
$1,500 or more	80.3	87.1	79.0	57.2	33.4	80.6
Total that owned their dwelling(d)	**68.9**	**72.0**	**68.0**	**56.7**	**34.0**	**69.0**
	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000	'000
Total households(b)	**4 352.8**	**1 377.4**	**682.0**	**102.3**	**41.1**	**6 555.7**

(a) In occupied private dwellings. Excludes households not classifiable by household type, including those in Migratory category.
(b) Excludes households with nil or negative income.
(c) Comprises households that were fully owned or being purchased.
(d) Households with partially incomplete incomes, not stated incomes, or not stated tenure type were excluded prior to the calculation of percentages.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

Households(a) with a mortgage: proportion that spent 25 per cent or more of their weekly gross income(b) on housing loan repayments by Remoteness Area — 2001

	Remoteness Area					
	Major Cities	*Inner Regional*	*Outer Regional*	*Remote*	*Very Remote*	*Australia*
Weekly gross household income	%	%	%	%	%	%
$1 to $299	70.4	70.2	70.1	66.2	62.1	70.2
$300 to $699	58.9	49.4	44.1	43.6	34.7	54.1
$700 to $1,499	26.1	17.3	16.1	16.7	11.2	23.0
$1,500 or more	12.6	7.4	6.0	5.2	3.0	11.4
Total households with a mortgage(c)	**27.0**	**24.3**	**23.4**	**21.3**	**17.0**	**26.0**

(a) In occupied private dwellings that are fully owned or being purchased. Excludes households not classifiable by household type, including those in Migratory category.
(b) Excludes households with nil or negative incomes.
(c) Households with partially incomplete, or not stated incomes were excluded prior to the calculation of percentages.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

If mortgage repayments constitute a substantial proportion of a household's income (for this article a threshold of 25% has been used), the household may experience financial difficulty because of their limited income remaining for other expenses. In August 2001 there were 1.8 million households who were paying off a mortgage. Of these households, 26% were spending 25% or more of their household income on housing loan repayments.

As household income increased, the proportion of households spending 25% or more of their household income on housing loan repayments decreased. In households with an income between $1 and $299 per week in 2001, 70% were spending 25% or more of their household income on housing loan repayments. However, these households accounted for only 3% of all households with a mortgage. In contrast, 11% of households with a weekly income of $1,500 or more were spending 25% or more on housing loan repayments. This pattern was similar across each of the Remoteness Areas. However, households with a mortgage in Major Cities were more likely to be spending 25% or more of their household income on housing loan repayments than those in any other Remoteness Area, within each income range. Generally, houses and land in more remote areas are cheaper than in Major Cities. However, these savings can often be offset by higher building costs for new houses, and higher maintenance costs for older houses.[2] Across Remoteness Areas, households with a mortgage in Very Remote areas were least likely to be spending 25% or more of their household's income on housing loan repayments.

Endnotes

1 Baum, S. and Wulff, M. 2001, *Housing aspirations of Australian households: Positioning Paper,* Australian Housing and Urban Research Institute.

2 Commonwealth Department of Housing and Regional Development 1994, *Beyond the capitals, urban growth in regional Australia,* Urban futures research program.

Feature articles

Crime victimisation and feelings of safety

In 2001, Australians aged 65 years and over were the least likely of all age groups to be victims of assault, sexual assault or kidnapping.

Victims of crime and their families and communities can suffer physically, emotionally and financially. Increases in crime rates are therefore of ongoing community concern. The annual incidence of recorded crime increased for each offence between 1995 and 2001. The largest increase (64%) was in robberies, from 68 to 111 victims per 100,000 people over the seven years. Over the same period, the proportion of people who were victims of assault rose by 39%, from 563 to 783 victims per 100,000. Although the victimisation rates for the different offences have fluctuated over time, the ranking of offences has remained fairly constant. Assault has consistently been the most common offence, followed by robbery; sexual assault; homicide and related offences; and kidnapping.

Just as direct experience of crime can affect people's day-to-day lives and wellbeing, so too can fear of crime. Fear of becoming a victim and decreased feelings of safety may restrict a person's participation in society. However, people's perceptions of crime do not always align with levels of criminal activity and victimisation.

Crime

This article draws on data from a variety of sources, including the ABS Recorded Crime Collection and the 1998 Crime and Safety Survey — see *Crime and Safety, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4509.0).

Most of the data come from the ABS Recorded Crime Collection, which is based on information about victims recorded by police. Victims of crimes which went unrecorded are therefore not included. Surveys in Australia and overseas show that in about 60% of crimes, victims do not report the incident to police.[1] Levels of reporting vary between different offences and population groups.

This article discusses individual person victims of recorded person offences (it excludes property offences, for which data on person victims are not available). These are homicide and related offences; assault; sexual assault; kidnapping; and robbery. Homicide and related offences comprise murder, attempted murder, manslaughter and driving causing death.

Because multiple offences may occur in a single criminal incident, it is not possible to aggregate the offence categories to produce a total number of recorded crime victims or incidents. For more information, see *Recorded Crime, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4510.0).

Characteristics of crime victims

The incidence of recorded crime varies noticeably between offence categories, ranging from five homicide victims per 100,000, to 783 assault victims per 100,000 in 2001. Despite this, the age pattern associated with victimisation was similar across offence categories (with assault being the most common in each age group). This pattern may be related to a variety of factors, including a person's lifestyle, whether they take safety precautions, their ability to defend themselves, and previous life experiences.[2]

Victimisation rates(a) for selected recorded crimes — 2001

	Homicide and related offences	*Assault*	*Sexual assault*	*Kidnapping*	*Robbery*
Age group (years)	rate	rate	rate	rate	rate
0–14	2.3	279.2	173.3	5.9	29.5
15–24	8.5	1 572.3	191.7	10.6	337.8
25–34	8.3	1 409.5	73.8	4.3	141.8
35–44	6.3	900.8	38.6	2.0	88.3
45–54	4.0	510.7	17.0	0.7	69.5
55–64	4.2	265.6	6.7	0.5	55.6
65 and over	2.6	88.3	3.4	0.2	31.4
Total(b)	**5.4**	**782.9**	**86.4**	**3.9**	**111.3**
	no.	no.	no.	no.	no.
All recorded offences	**1 047**	**151 753**	**16 744**	**758**	**21 576**

(a) Per 100,000 population.
(b) Includes victims for whom age was not specified.

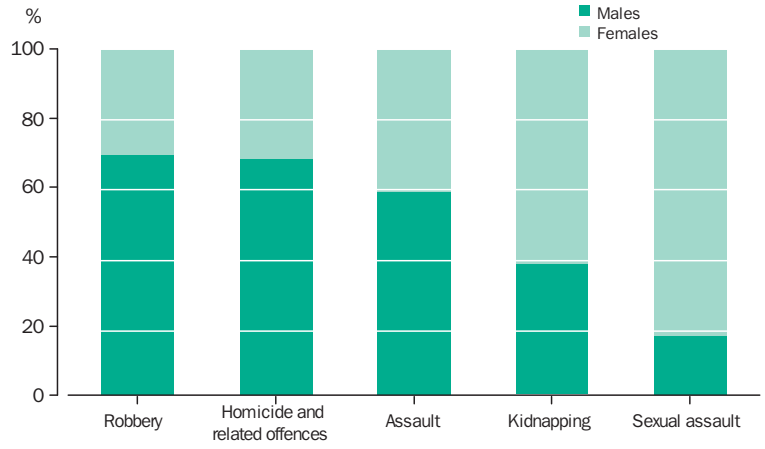
Source: ABS 2001 Recorded Crime Collection.

While children up to the age of 14 years were less likely than most age groups to be victims of certain crimes, they were comparatively more likely to be victims of sexual assault and kidnapping in 2001 — with rates of 173 and 6 victims per 100,000 respectively). These rates were second only to those experienced by young adults aged 15–24 years. Children were less likely to be victims of homicide and related offences than people in any other age group (2 victims per 100,000), and their experience of robbery was about one-quarter of the overall rate (30 compared with 111 victims per 100,000).

Young adults aged 15–24 years experienced the highest levels of assault, sexual assault, kidnapping and robbery. The incidence of robbery among young adults (338 per 100,000) was more than three times the overall rate (111 per 100,000), while assault, sexual assault and kidnapping were all at least twice as prevalent among this age group.

With the exception of sexual assault, people aged 25–34 years also experienced comparatively high rates of victimisation. However, these rates were generally lower than those of 15–24 year olds. Following this pattern, victimisation was progressively less common for people in the older age groups. People aged 65 years and over were less likely than people of any other age to become a victim of assault, sexual assault or kidnapping. This was particularly so for sexual assault (a rate of 3 per 100,000) and kidnapping (0.2 per 100,000). The victimisation rates for people aged 65 years and over for homicide and related offences and robbery were also below the average for all age groups, with only children experiencing lower rates.

Sex of crime victims — 2001



Source: ABS 2001 Recorded Crime Collection.

Selected crime locations(a) — 1998

	Robbery	*Assault(b)*	*Sexual assault(c)*
	%	%	%
Homes	*20.6*	*24.0*	*57.8*
Victim's home	16.9	n.a.	39.8
Work/study	11.8	14.9	*6.5
Street/open land	33.8	13.7	13.6
Other	33.8	23.3	22.1
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**

(a) For victims aged 15 years and over.
(b) Excludes assaults where the offender was a partner, ex-partner or family member of the victim, for which location was not collected.
(c) Refers only to females aged 18 years and over.

Source: ABS 1998 Crime and Safety Survey.

Males and females experience different types of crimes. For example, the majority of victims of recorded homicide and related offences, assaults and robberies in 2001 were male. However, females were at greater risk of being sexually assaulted or kidnapped than males. In particular, 83% of sexual assault victims recorded by police were female.

Where do crimes occur?

Crimes (whether recorded by police or not) occur in many locations, from homes and workplaces to streets and other open land. In the year to April 1998, 34% of robberies happened in a street or open land and 17% in the victim's home. Assaults occurred most frequently in homes (24%), at the victim's place of work or study (15%) and in streets or open land (14%). For women aged 18 years and over, sexual assault occurred most commonly in homes (58%).

In 1998, the offender in the 24% of assaults for which the location was not collected, was a partner, ex-partner or family member of the victim. This is in keeping with the relatively high proportion of assaults and sexual assaults occurring in homes in 1998, and data about recorded assault and sexual assault victims in 2001. Police records show that for victims of reported assault, 38% of men and 68% of women reported knowing their offender, while for sexual assault, 69% and 62% respectively knew their offender.[3]

Feelings of safety

As well as recorded person offences, property offences (which are far more prevalent) and unreported crimes can affect people's feelings of safety. Perceptions of safety vary according to a range of factors. However, perceptions do not always align with recorded

victimisation rates or the locations where crimes are most likely to occur. From 1998 to 2000, when asked about their feelings of safety in six specified situations (i.e. at home alone, walking/jogging and on public transport; each during the day and at night) adults indicated that they felt safest when alone at home during the day and least safe when on public transport at night.[4]

Although people aged 65 years and over were generally less likely to be victims of crime than people in other age groups, they were the most fearful for their safety, regardless of the situation. There may be many reasons for this, such as a sense of personal vulnerability arising from their declining health.[2] In contrast, young adults (aged 18–24 years) felt the safest in each of the six situations specified above, despite experiencing some of the highest levels of crime victimisation. Similarly, men felt safer than women in each of the situations (especially at night) despite being more likely to be victims of crime. In addition, stronger feelings of safety were reported by adults born in Australia than by those who were born overseas.[4]

Fear for personal safety can restrict a person's social participation and diminish trust within the community. At the same time, an awareness of personal safety can encourage people to take precautions, such as avoiding potentially dangerous places, installing home security, keeping entryways locked and participating in Neighbourhood Watch and similar schemes. In 1999, over 90% of households in New South Wales had some form of home security (such as alarms, deadlocks or sensor lights). Over half had installed security items since moving into their home. Of those who had installed security items, 41% had done so because they felt a need for more security, and a further 27% because crimes had occurred in their home or local area. For households with no home security, the most common reason was that they lived in a low crime area.[5]

In recognition of the importance of feeling safe, in some communities, part of the role of police is to improve public perceptions of crime and safety (as well as reducing criminal activity). Some communities are also adopting environmental design principles aimed at preventing crime, such as installing better lighting, improving signage and creating safe routes through public areas. These initiatives can make public places safer and help people feel safer when using them. This in turn may increase the level of use, and thus the safety, of the area.[6]

Indigenous victims of recorded crime

The Indigenous status of victims is only available for New South Wales recorded crime data. In 2000, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples in New South Wales were approximately three times more likely than non-Indigenous people to be victims of murder, assault or sexual assault. However, in terms of recorded crime, they were less likely to be victims of robbery, with a victimisation rate approximately one-fifth that of non-Indigenous people. Indigenous victims of reported crime were most likely to be victims of Indigenous offenders (ranging from 57% of murder victims to 80% of assault victims).[7]

Victimisation rates(a), NSW — 2000

	Indigenous population	*Non-Indigenous population*
Offence(b)	rate(c)	rate
Murder	5.5	1.6
Assault	3 240.8	1 011.1
Sexual assault	159.3	54.7
Robbery	46.9	240.8

(a) Victimisation rates are per 100,000 population.
(b) Data available for selected offences only.
(c) Indigenous victims may be reluctant to report some crimes to police, resulting in conservative recorded victimisation rates.

Source: NSW Bureau of Crime Statistics and Research, *Aboriginal victimisation and offending: the picture from police records, 2001.*

Endnotes

1 Australian Institute of Criminology 2002, *Australian Crime: Facts and Figures 2001*, Australian Institute of Criminology, Canberra.

2 Carcach, C., Graycar, A. and Muscat, G. 2001, 'The victimisation of older Australians', *Trends & Issues in Crime and Criminal Justice*, No. 212, June 2001.

3 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2001, *Recorded Crime, Australia, 2001,* cat. no. 4510.0, ABS, Canberra.

4 Data from the ABS 1996–2000 Population Survey Monitor analysed on behalf of the Australasian Centre for Policing Research.

5 Australian Bureau of Statistics 2000, *Home Security Precautions, New South Wales, October 1999,* cat. no. 4516.1, ABS, Canberra.

6 Australian Institute of Criminology and Australian Housing and Urban Research Institute 2002, Housing, Crime and Stronger Communities Conference, Melbourne.

7 Fitzgerald, J. and Weatherburn, D. 2001, 'Aboriginal victimisation and offending: the picture from police records', *Crime and Justice Statistics Bureau Brief*, December 2001.

Children's out of school activities

In 2000, 59% of children aged 5–14 years participated in organised sport and 29% in selected organised cultural activities, outside of school hours.

Children's participation in sporting, cultural and leisure activities can enhance their social skills and self-esteem, as well as contribute to their physical development. These activities can also encourage social development, such as understanding social rules and developing friendships, as well as imagination and creativity.[1] Some physical activities may provide health benefits for children and promote behaviour that may help to prevent health problems as an adult. There is some community and professional concern that sedentary activities, such as watching television and playing computer games, may be taking the place of physical activity in Australian children's lives.[2]

While schools are an important setting for physical and cultural programs for children, many children also take part in these types of activities outside of school hours. However, participation in activities varies outside of school. This article examines the participation of children aged 5–14 years in sporting, cultural and leisure activities outside of school hours.

In the 12-month period to April 2000, of the 2.6 million children aged 5–14 years, 59% were reported to have participated at least once in an organised sport and 29% in selected organised cultural activities, outside of school hours. Overall, boys were more likely than girls to participate in organised sport (66% compared with 52%), but girls were twice as likely as boys to participate in cultural activities (40% compared with 20%). During the year, 19% of children participated

Children's activities

Data in this article are drawn from the survey of *Children's Participation in Cultural and Leisure Activities, Australia* (ABS cat. no. 4901.0), run as a supplementary survey to the April 2000 Monthly Population Survey. Information on the out of school activities of children aged 5–14 years was reported by a responsible adult in the household. For organised sport and cultural activities, data were collected for the 12 months prior to April 2000. For leisure activities, data were collected for the two school weeks prior to interview.

Organised sport is sport played or trained for outside of school hours which is organised by a club, association or school.

Organised cultural activities include playing a musical instrument, singing, dancing (includes ballet and callisthenics, and musicals when dancing is predominant) and drama.

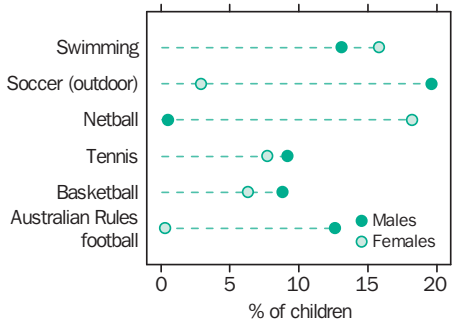
Leisure activities include skateboarding or rollerblading, bike riding, watching TV or videos, playing electronic or computer games, and art and craft activities. Leisure activities are not necessarily organised, unlike sport and cultural activities.

The period outside of the hours of 9am to 3pm on weekdays is considered *outside of school hours*.

Participation is being involved in an organised sport or cultural activity at least once during the year, or a selected leisure activity at least once during the past two weeks.

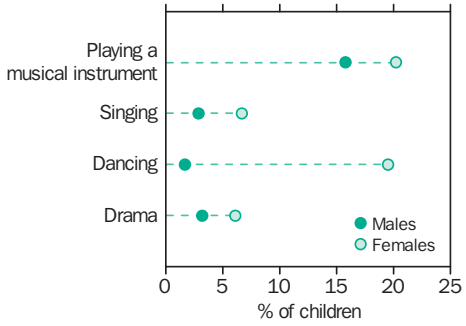
The *participation rate* for any group of children is the number of children in that group who took part in an activity expressed as a percentage of the total number of children in that group.

Children aged 5–14 years: participation rates in most common organised sports — 2000



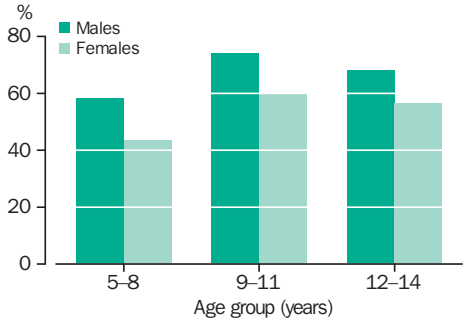
Source: Children's Participation in Cultural and Leisure Activities, Australia, 2000 (ABS cat. no. 4901.0).

Children aged 5–14 years: participation rates in organised cultural activities — 2000



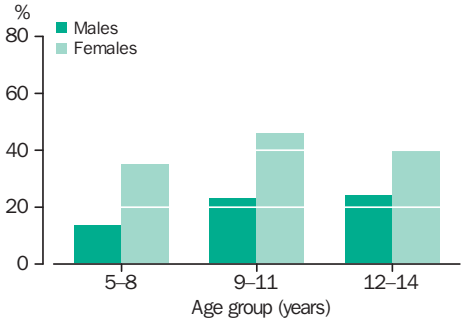
Source: Children's Participation in Cultural and Leisure Activities, Australia, 2000 (ABS cat. no. 4901.0).

Children's participation in organised sport — 2000



Source: Children's Participation in Cultural and Leisure Activities, Australia, 2000 (ABS cat. no. 4901.0).

Children's participation in organised cultural activities — 2000



Source: Children's Participation in Cultural and Leisure Activities, Australia, 2000 (ABS cat. no. 4901.0).

in both organised sport and cultural activities, while 30% did not participate in either organised sport or cultural activities, outside of school hours.

Organised activities

Boys and girls tended to take part in a different mix of organised activities. The three most popular sports for boys were outdoor soccer (20% participation), swimming (13%) and Australian Rules football (13%). Netball was the most popular sport for girls (18%), followed by swimming (16%) and tennis (8%).

During the 12 months to April 2000, almost half (49%) of children who participated in organised sport trained, practised or played more than once a week (representing 29% of all children). In addition, 27% of children involved in sport participated in two or more sports outside of school hours during the year.

The most popular cultural activity for both boys and girls was playing a musical instrument (16% and 20% respectively). However, for girls, dancing was equally as popular as playing a musical instrument, with 20% participating in some form of dance during the year. Further, more girls participated in dance (251,000 in total) than in any individual sport. Consequently dance is an important source of physical activity for girls.

Just over half (52%) of the children who played a musical instrument practised, had lessons or performed more than once a week (representing 9% of all children). Children involved in other cultural activities tended to participate less frequently than those who played a musical instrument, with 27% of the dancers, 14% of the singers and 7% of those involved in drama taking part more than once a week.

Participation in both organised sport and cultural activities was lowest among younger children (5–8 years). About half (51%) of these younger children participated in sport, compared with 67% of those aged 9–11 years and 62% of those aged 12–14 years. About a quarter (24%) of 5–8 year olds participated in cultural activities, compared with about a third of older children (34% of 9–11 year olds and 32% of 12–14 year olds).

Children aged 5–14 years undertaking leisure activities: time spent on selected activities in the past two weeks — 2000

	Skateboarding or rollerblading	*Bike riding*	*Watching TV or videos*	*Electronic or computer games*	*Art and craft activities*
Duration (hours)	%	%	%	%	%
4 or less	65.4	57.9	7.6	48.7	54.0
5–9	17.3	19.8	10.4	21.8	21.0
10–19	11.9	16.1	30.5	20.7	17.8
20 or more	5.3	6.3	51.6	8.8	7.2
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**

Source: Children's Participation in Cultural and Leisure Activities, Australia, 2000 (ABS cat. no. 4901.0).

Leisure activities

As well as formally organised activities, children take part in a range of leisure activities. In the two school weeks prior to the survey, the most common leisure activity, of the five examined in the survey, was watching TV or videos, (97% of children aged 5–14 years). Playing electronic or computer games (69%) and bike riding (64%) were also common, while fewer children participated in art and craft activities (44%) and skateboarding or rollerblading (31%).

The participation rates for watching TV and videos, and skateboarding and rollerblading were similar for boys and girls. However, boys had higher participation rates than girls for bike riding (71% and 56% respectively) and for playing electronic or computer games (79% and 58%), while boys were less likely than girls to participate in art and craft activities (34% and 55% respectively).

There is some community concern that children are spending a lot of time on sedentary leisure activities and too little time on physical activities.[3] Of the 2.6 million children who watched TV or videos, about half watched for 20 hours or more during the two weeks prior to the survey. In addition, close to one-third watched for 10–19 hours. For other leisure activities, it was most common for children to have participated for 4 hours or less over the two week period.

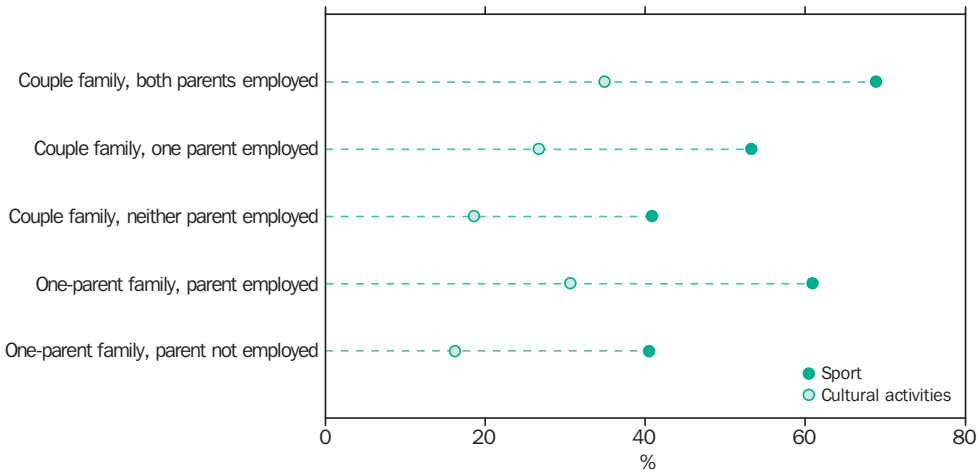
Family

Parents often provide encouragement or support for children's participation in activities. In addition, they often supply the means to participate in activities (such as fees, equipment, transport or supervision). There tend to be ongoing costs involved in organised activities, which parents who are employed may be better able to afford. Consistent with this, children's participation in organised activities varied according to their family situation.

In 2000, within couple families, a higher proportion of children from families with both parents employed (69%) participated in organised sport than did children with one parent employed (53%), with lower participation again for families where neither parent was employed (41%). A similar pattern occurred for children from one-parent families, with greater participation where the parent was employed (61%) than if the parent was not employed (41%). Overall, children from one-parent families were less likely to participate in sport than children from couple families (51% compared with 61%), which may reflect that over 50% of lone parents are not employed (see *Australian Social Trends 2003*, Family and community: national summary table, pp. 28–29). A similar pattern was evident for organised cultural activities.

In contrast to organised activities, there was less variation in children's participation in leisure activities according to their family situation. For example, children's participation in watching TV or videos did not differ between couple and one-parent families (97%). However, there was slightly more variation for activities such as skateboarding and rollerblading, where children from couple families participated less than children from one-parent families (30% and 37% respectively).

Family characteristics of children aged 5–14 years participating in sport and cultural activities — 2000



Source: Children's Participation in Cultural and Leisure Activities, Australia, 2000 (ABS cat. no. 4901.0).

Family characteristics of children aged 5–14 years participating in leisure activities — 2000

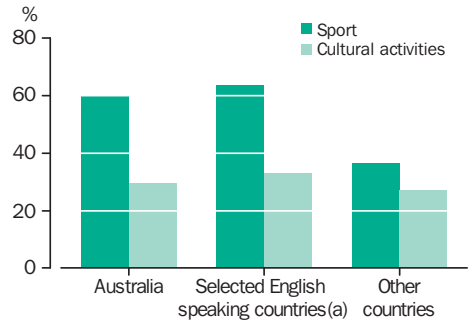
	Skateboarding or rollerblading	*Bike riding*	*Watching TV or videos*	*Playing electronic or computer games*	*Art and craft activities*
	%	%	%	%	%
Couple families	29.6	63.7	97.0	69.1	44.0
Both parents employed	29.7	65.5	97.8	72.1	45.5
One parent employed	30.0	62.6	96.1	66.7	44.2
Neither parent employed	26.7	54.6	94.3	57.7	32.6
One-parent families	36.8	64.5	96.8	67.9	45.5
Parent employed	39.4	63.4	97.7	71.9	48.9
Parent not employed	34.3	65.6	95.8	63.8	41.9
All children aged 5–14 years	**30.9**	**63.8**	**96.9**	**68.9**	**44.3**

Source: Children's Participation in Cultural and Leisure Activities, Australia, 2000 (ABS cat. no. 4901.0).

Organised activities often give children an avenue other than school to meet new people, as well as an opportunity for social participation outside the family. However, if children speak a language other than English they may have to overcome language and cultural barriers which may inhibit their participation. These barriers may also prevent parents from finding out about activities, and from getting their children involved. On the other hand, cultural factors might sometimes encourage children's participation in organised activities. For example, particular activities may be organised by ethnic communities.

Almost all immigrants to Australia from the United Kingdom, Ireland, South Africa, Canada, the United States of America and New Zealand are English-speaking and share similar cultural backgrounds to many Australians. In 2000, children born in these countries had a higher rate of participation in organised sport outside of school hours (64%) than Australian born children (60%). In contrast, children born overseas in other countries were less likely to participate in organised sport (37%) than Australian-born children. Participation in cultural activities was similar for all three of these broad birthplace groups.

Participation of children aged 5–14 years in organised activities: country of birth — 2000



a) Includes the United Kingdom, Ireland, South Africa, Canada, the United States of America, and New Zealand.

Source: Children's Participation in Cultural and Leisure Activities, Australia, 2000 (ABS cat. no. 4901.0).

Regional patterns

In the 12 months to April 2000, only slight variations occurred in participation in organised activities between children living in capital cities (Statistical Divisions) and those living elsewhere in Australia. Participation in organised sport was somewhat lower for children from the six state capital cities than for those living elsewhere in Australia (57% compared with 62%). In contrast, participation in cultural activities was higher for children living in capital cities than those living elsewhere in Australia (31% compared with 27%). The leisure activity with the largest regional difference was bike riding. Children living in the six state capital cities were less likely to ride a bike than children who lived elsewhere in Australia (60% compared with 69%).

Endnotes

1 Cole, M. and Cole, S.R. 1996, *The Development of Children*, 3rd edition, W.H. Freeman and Company, New York.

2 Bauman, A., Bellew, B., Vita, P., Brown, W. and Owen, N. 2002, *Getting Australia Active: Towards Better Practice for the Promotion of Physical Activity*, National Public Health Partnership, Melbourne.

3 Foulstone, A. 2002, *Family television viewing and physical activity: is it all doom and gloom?* <http://www2.psy.uq.edu.au/~family/News2-2002%20words.html>, accessed 12 February 2003.

Household use of computers and the Internet

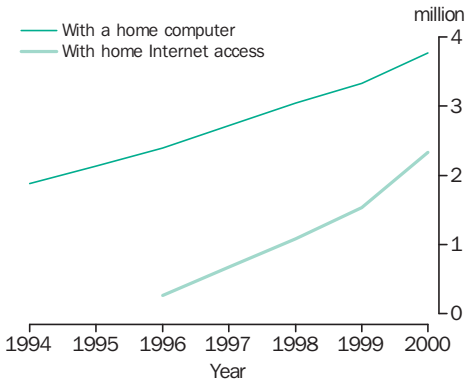
In the week prior to the 2001 Census of Population and Housing, 44% of people had used a home computer and 29% had accessed the Internet from home.

Increasingly, computers and the Internet are becoming a part of every day life for many Australians. Personal computers, many of which are connected to the Internet, are found in homes, workplaces, educational institutions and community facilities across the country. People of all ages use computers and the Internet for activities such as recreation, work, study, communication and making financial transactions.

The increasing prevalence of computers and the Internet means that people who are not able to use or access these may have restricted access to information and services, skills development, and special offers and savings. This may adversely affect educational outcomes, employment prospects and other aspects of wellbeing. However, there are also concerns associated with computer and Internet use, including the risk of security and privacy breaches, issues associated with Internet content and practices,[1] and health-related issues.

Although people use computers and the Internet in many places, this article focuses on the use of these technologies at home. Between 1994 and 2000, the number of households with home computers doubled, and between 1996 and 2000, the number of households with home Internet access increased almost ninefold. In 2000, over half of all households (3.8 million) had a home computer and one-third (2.3 million) had home Internet access. (For information on earlier trends, see *Australian Social Trends 1999*, Information technology in the home, pp. 189–193.)

Households with home computers and Internet access(a)



(a) Figures for 1995 and 1997 are averages which have been calulated using data from 1994 and 1996, and 1996 and 1998 respectively.

Source: Australian Social Trends, 1999 (ABS cat. no. 4102.0); *Household Use of Information Technology, Australia, 2000* (ABS cat. no. 8146.0).

Using computers and the Internet

Data about people who used a computer or the Internet at home in the previous week, and about their characteristics and distribution across Australia, come from the August 2001 Census of Population and Housing. Information on adults' home computer and Internet activities comes from *Household Use of Information Technology, Australia, 2000* (ABS cat. no. 8146.0).

Home computer and Internet users

In 2001, the proportion of people who had used a computer or the Internet at home in the previous week varied across the population. For example, men were slightly more likely than women to have used either a computer (45% compared with 42%) or the Internet (31% compared with 27%).

Children aged up to 17 years were the most likely to have used a computer at home (52% compared with 44% for all age groups), while people aged 18–34 years were the most likely to have accessed the Internet at home (38% compared with 29% for people of all ages). The lower proportions of older Australians (those aged 65 years and over) who had used a computer (10%) or the Internet (6%) at home may be partially explained by their lower exposure to such technology and fewer opportunities to gain computing skills over their lifetime. Despite this, some of the highest growth in computer and Internet use was among older people.

Home use of computers and the Internet increased with income, with people in households in the lowest gross household income quintile being the least likely to have used a computer (27%) or the Internet (16%) at home in the previous week. People in households in the highest income quintile were the most likely to have used either, being more than twice as likely to have used a computer (64%) and three times as likely to have used the Internet (48%) at home. These levels of use were well above the average for all people.

In keeping with the high level of home computer and Internet use by children, people living in couple households with dependent children were more likely than other households to have used a computer (56%) and the Internet (36%). However, the proportions of people living in lone-parent households who had used a computer (42%) or the Internet (24%) at home were slightly below the national average. People living on their own were the least likely to have used either of the technologies in the previous week (25% and 17% respectively), partly reflecting the number of older people who live alone.

Educational attainment is also related to computer and Internet useage. In 2001, 71% of people aged 15 years and over with a bachelor degree or higher had used a computer at home in the previous week, with 55% having used the Internet.

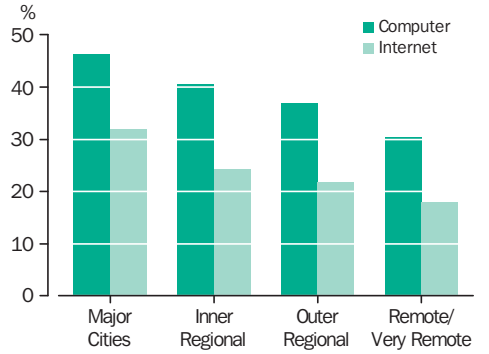
People who used a computer or the Internet at home(a) — 2001

	Used a computer %(b)	*Used the Internet* %(b)	*Total* '000(c)
Age group			
0–17 years	52.2	28.0	4 713
18–34 years	51.0	38.3	4 489
35–64 years	44.5	31.3	7 196
65 years and over	10.3	6.0	2 371
Sex			
Male	45.3	31.0	9 267
Female	42.1	27.1	9 503
Gross household income quintile(d)			
Lowest	26.6	16.4	3 812
Second	30.9	18.1	3 663
Third	42.1	25.9	3 907
Fourth	53.1	35.4	3 689
Highest	63.5	47.5	3 699
Selected household types			
Couple only	35.3	25.7	3 364
Couple with children(e)	56.4	36.3	7 789
Lone-parent(e)	41.5	24.1	1 519
Lone-person	24.5	16.9	1 712
Total people	**43.7**	**29.0**	**18 769**

(a) In the week prior to the 2001 Census.
(b) People for whom there was no response were excluded prior to the calculation of percentages.
(c) Includes people for whom there was no response.
(d) Because income was collected in ranges, quintiles are of uneven size.
(e) Households with at least one dependent child.

Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

Home computer and Internet users in selected Remoteness Areas — 2001



Source: ABS 2001 Census of Population and Housing.

Computer and Internet use across Australia

Computers and the Internet have the potential to be a great advantage to people living in remote Australia, increasing their access to services and resources far from home. In recognition of this, the Networking the Nation program was developed to provide Internet access to people in rural and regional areas of Australia.[1] However, computer and Internet use remains lower in remote areas than in the Major Cities. In 2001, the more remote they were, the less likely people were to have used either technology. In the Major Cities, 46% of people had used a computer and 32% had accessed the Internet. In comparison, in remote areas, much smaller proportions had done so at home (30% and 18% respectively).[2] However, research into Internet users in early 2002 showed that those who used the Internet in rural Australia did so more often and for longer than those who lived in cities.[3]

The proportion of people who had used a computer or accessed the Internet at home in the previous week varied little between states and territories. However, the proportions of people in the Australian Capital Territory who had used a computer (59%) or accessed the Internet (41%) at home were notably higher than elsewhere, while people in the Northern Territory were the least likely to have done so (34% and 22% respectively).

Home computer activities

Home computers are used for a variety of purposes. In 2000, 53% of adults had used their computer for work-related purposes, making this the most common reason for their use. However, reasons for computer use varied with age. Young adults, many of whom

Home computer activities of adults(a) — 2000

	Age group (years)						
	18–24	*25–34*	*35–44*	*45–54*	*55–64*	*65 and over*	*Total*
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Work-related purposes	33	57	61	60	51	23	53
Personal/family correspondence	30	45	42	47	57	55	43
Learning or study activities	63	44	35	32	27	32	40
Keeping personal/family records	22	35	38	38	46	44	36
Playing games	55	35	32	28	26	34	35

(a) Percentages are of all adults who used a computer at home.

Source: Household Use of Information Technology, Australia, 2000 (ABS cat. no. 8146.0).

are studying, were the most likely to have used their computer for learning or study activities (63%). Young adults (aged 18–24 years) were also the most likely to have played computer games (55%). Approximately 60% of people aged 25–54 years who had used a home computer in 2000 had done so for work-related purposes. This is consistent with the comparatively high labour force participation rate among people in this age group.

Personal or family correspondence was the most common computer activity among people aged 55–64 years (57%) and those aged 65 years and over (55%). People in these age groups were also the most likely to have used their home computer to keep personal or family records.

Home Internet activities

The most popular home Internet activity in 2000 was using email or chat sites. Over two-thirds of all home Internet users had used email or accessed a chat site, including more than three-quarters of those aged 65 years and over. Email may be especially useful in facilitating communication for the elderly, those with impaired mobility and those living alone or in remote areas.

General browsing was the second most common home Internet activity of adults in 2000. Young adults were the most likely of all ages to have used the Internet for this purpose, with 64% of Internet users aged 18–24 years having done so.

Many adults also use the Internet as a research tool. Over one-third (36%) had searched the Internet for work-related information — most of these were aged 25–54 years. Just over half (51%) of young adults had sought study-related information.

While one-quarter of all home Internet users had researched information on goods and services in 2000, Internet shopping (i.e. purchasing or ordering goods and

Home Internet activities of adults(a) — 2000

	Age group (years)						
	18–24	*25–34*	*35–44*	*45–54*	*55–64*	*65 and over*	*Total*
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Using email or chat sites	73	67	67	64	67	77	68
General browsing	64	63	54	50	54	48	57
Finding information for work	16	41	42	45	34	17	36
Finding information for study	51	23	23	21	12	*16	26
Finding information on goods/services	23	30	27	25	29	*13	26
Playing games	20	9	5	3	*5	*3	8

(a) Percentages are of all adults who accessed the Internet at home.

Source: Household Use of Information Technology, Australia, 2000 (ABS cat. no. 8146.0).

services online) was relatively uncommon, despite the potentially greater choice, and time and money savings.[4] In 2000, 15% of all adult Internet users (regardless of whether they used the Internet at home) had purchased or ordered goods or services over the Internet, up from 12% in 1999. The most common Internet purchases were books or magazines (33% of Internet shoppers had purchased these) and music (21% of Internet shoppers). Among Internet users who did not shop online, 43% indicated they had no need or had not bothered, while another 29% had concerns about the security of their personal and financial information.

Using the Internet to make financial transactions and to access services can save time (e.g. no need to travel or wait in queues) and money (e.g. travel costs and lower bank fees).[4] In 2000, 9% of all Australian adults had paid bills or transferred funds over the Internet, compared with 3% in 1999. The same number had accessed government services, including electronically lodging bill payments and tax returns, obtaining information and accessing services relating to taxation and employment or unemployment.

Internet access can also assist employees to work from home. Of the 430,000 employees working from home in 2000, 35% accessed their employer's computer system using the Internet (for more information see *Australian Social Trends 2002,* Working from home, pp. 141–145).

Households without home access to computers and the Internet (IT)

Despite the growing uptake of home computers and the Internet, in 2000 there were 3.3 million households (46%) without a home computer and 4.8 million (66%) without home Internet access. More than half of these indicated they had no need for, or no interest in, having a computer or Internet access. However, 24% of those without a home computer and 19% of those without home Internet access said they found the costs too high.

Reasons why households did not have IT access at home — 2000

	No home computer	*No home Internet access*
Main reason	%	%
No need/interest	59	51
Costs too high	24	19
Don't know how to use a computer	7	. .
Have access elsewhere	5	6

Source: Household Use of Information Technology, Australia, 2000 (ABS cat. no. 8146.0).

Endnotes

1 The National Office for the Information Economy <http://www.noie.gov.au>, accessed 28 August 2002.

2 For more information on the ABS Remoteness classification, see *Australian Social Trends 2003*, Population characteristics and remoteness, pp. 7–11.

3 Reid, A. 2002, *Town and Country & the Digital Divide,* Neilsen//NetRatings.

4 Centre for International Economics 2001, *Save@Home: Valuing the benefits of home Internet access,* prepared for the National Office for the Information Economy, Canberra.

International comparisons

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 notes in the source publications.

Population composition(a)

Country	Reference year	Total population '000	Reference year	0–14 years %	15–59 years %	60 years and over %	Total population '000
Australia	**2003**	**19 731**	**2000**	**21**	**63**	**16**	**r19 153**
Canada	2003	31 510	2000	19	64	17	r30 769
China (excludes SARs and Taiwan Province)	2003	1 304 196	2000	25	65	10	r1 275 215
France	2003	60 144	2000	19	61	21	r59 296
Greece	2003	10 976	2000	15	62	23	r10 903
Hong Kong (SAR of China)	2003	7 049	2000	r17	69	14	r6 807
Indonesia	2003	219 883	2000	31	62	8	r211 559
Italy	2003	57 423	2000	14	62	24	r57 536
Japan	2003	127 654	2000	15	62	23	r127 034
Korea (Republic of)	2003	47 700	2000	21	68	11	r46 835
Malaysia	2003	24 425	2000	34	r60	7	r23 001
New Zealand	2003	3 875	2000	23	r61	16	r3 784
Papua New Guinea	2003	5 711	2000	r42	r54	4	r5 334
Singapore	2003	4 253	2000	22	68	11	r4 016
Sweden	2003	8 876	2000	18	59	22	r8 856
United Kingdom	2003	59 251	2000	19	60	21	r58 689
United States of America	2003	294 043	2000	22	62	16	r285 003
Viet Nam	2003	81 377	2000	33	59	8	78 137

(a) Medium variant projection.

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)	Crude death rate(b)	Total fertility rate
		%	rate	rate	rate
Australia	**2000–2005**	**1.0**	**r12**	**r7**	**r1.7**
Canada	2000–2005	0.8	r10	8	r1.5
China (excludes SARs and Taiwan Province)	2000–2005	0.7	15	7	1.8
France	2000–2005	r0.5	r13	r9	r1.9
Greece	2000–2005	r0.1	9	r11	r1.3
Hong Kong (SAR of China)	2000–2005	r1.1	r9	6	r1.0
Indonesia	2000–2005	r1.3	r21	7	r2.4
Italy	2000–2005	–0.1	9	11	1.2
Japan	2000–2005	0.1	r9	r8	1.3
Korea (Republic of)	2000–2005	r0.6	r12	r6	r1.4
Malaysia	2000–2005	r1.9	r23	5	2.9
New Zealand	2000–2005	r0.8	14	8	2.0
Papua New Guinea	2000–2005	2.2	r32	9	r4.1
Singapore	2000–2005	1.7	r10	5	r1.4
Sweden	2000–2005	r0.1	10	11	r1.6
United Kingdom	2000–2005	r0.3	11	r10	1.6
United States of America	2000–2005	r1.0	r15	r8	r2.1
Viet Nam	2000–2005	r1.4	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)

	Population			Median age			0–14 years			65 years and over		
	2005	2020	2050	2005	2020	2050	2005	2020	2050	2005	2020	2050
Country	million	million	million	years	years	years	%	%	%	%	%	%
Australia(b)	**20.1**	**r22.5**	**r25.6**	**r36.5**	**r40.1**	**r43.7**	**r19.4**	**r16.9**	**r16.3**	**r12.8**	**r17.3**	**r23.9**
Canada	32.0	r35.2	r39.1	r38.9	r43.0	r45.8	r17.3	r14.7	r15.4	r13.2	r18.7	r25.7
China (excludes SARs and Taiwan Province)	r1 322.3	r1 429.5	r1 395.2	32.4	37.4	43.8	21.8	r18.8	r16.1	7.5	r11.7	r22.9
France	r60.7	r63.6	r64.2	r38.9	r42.2	r45.1	r18.4	r17.2	r15.9	r16.3	r20.3	r26.4
Greece	r11.0	r10.8	r9.8	r40.8	r46.3	r51.3	r14.3	r12.7	r13.6	r19.0	r22.3	r33.2
Hong Kong (SAR of China)	r7.2	r8.2	r9.4	r38.6	r44.5	r48.5	r14.6	r12.9	r14.5	11.4	r16.4	r29.6
Indonesia	225.3	r261.1	r293.8	r26.2	r31.3	r39.9	r28.7	r23.8	r18.0	r5.5	r7.1	r16.9
Italy	r57.3	r54.3	r44.9	42.2	r48.5	r52.4	r13.9	r11.7	r13.0	19.6	r23.7	r34.4
Japan	r127.9	r125.6	r109.7	42.8	r48.2	r53.2	r14.0	r12.4	r13.0	r19.7	r28.1	r36.5
Korea (Republic of)	r48.2	r50.0	r46.4	r34.4	r42.1	r50.2	r19.4	r14.5	r13.8	r8.8	r14.0	r30.5
Malaysia	r25.3	r31.6	r39.6	r24.8	r29.2	r38.3	r32.3	r25.5	r18.4	r4.6	r7.4	r15.7
New Zealand	3.9	r4.3	r4.5	36.0	r39.2	r43.7	r21.8	r18.6	r16.3	r12.1	16.3	r22.9
Papua New Guinea	r6.0	r7.8	r11.1	r19.7	r23.9	r32.8	r40.3	r31.7	r22.3	r2.5	r3.3	r8.8
Singapore	4.4	r4.8	r4.5	r37.5	r45.5	r52.0	r19.6	r12.2	r12.6	8.4	r17.4	r30.5
Sweden	r8.9	r9.0	r8.7	r41.0	r44.3	r46.3	r17.0	r16.0	r15.2	r17.7	r22.7	r27.0
United Kingdom	r59.6	r62.3	r66.2	r38.8	r41.4	r43.8	r17.9	r15.9	r16.1	r15.9	r18.6	r23.3
United States of America	r300.0	r344.3	r408.7	r35.9	r37.0	r39.7	r21.2	r20.0	r17.9	12.3	r15.9	r20.0
Viet Nam	r83.6	r100.1	r117.7	r24.9	30.9	r40.4	r29.4	r24.3	r17.8	5.4	r6.6	r18.0

(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)	Life expectancy at birth(b) Males	Life expectancy at birth(b) Females	Reference year	Healthy life expectancy at birth(c) Males	Healthy life expectancy at birth(c) Females
		rate	years	years		years	years
Australia	**2000–2005**	**r6**	**r76.4**	**r82.0**	**2001**	70.1	73.2
Canada	2000–2005	5	r76.7	r81.9	2001	68.2	71.6
China (excludes SARs and Taiwan Province)	2000–2005	37	r68.9	r73.3	2001	62.0	64.3
France	2000–2005	5	r75.2	r82.8	2001	69.0	73.5
Greece	2000–2005	6	r75.7	r80.9	2001	69.0	71.9
Hong Kong (SAR of China)	2000–2005	4	r77.3	r82.8	..	n.a.	n.a.
Indonesia	2000–2005	r42	r64.8	r68.8	2001	56.1	57.2
Italy	2000–2005	5	r75.5	r81.9	2001	69.2	72.9
Japan	2000–2005	3	r77.9	r85.1	2001	71.4	75.8
Korea (Republic of)	2000–2005	r5	r71.8	r79.3	2002	64.5	70.3
Malaysia	2000–2005	10	r70.8	r75.7	2001	57.6	63.2
New Zealand	2000–2005	6	r75.8	r80.7	2001	69.1	71.5
Papua New Guinea	2000–2005	62	r56.8	r58.7	2001	47.9	51.8
Singapore	2000–2005	r3	75.9	80.3	2001	67.9	69.5
Sweden	2000–2005	3	r77.6	r82.6	2001	70.5	73.2
United Kingdom	2000–2005	5	r75.7	r80.7	2001	68.4	70.9
United States of America	2000–2005	7	r74.3	r79.9	2001	66.4	68.8
Viet Nam	2000–2005	34	66.9	71.6	2001	55.9	61.4

(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 2002: Reducing risks, promoting healthy life* <http://www.who.int/whr/2002/whr2002_annex4.pdf>, accessed 7 April 2003.

Health services and expenditure

Country	Reference year	Health expenditure as % of GDP	Health expenditure per capita at PPP(a)	Reference year	Doctors per 1,000 population	Reference year	Acute hospital beds per 1,000 population
		%	$US '000		no.		no.
Australia	**2000**	**8.3**	**2.2**	**1998**	**2.5**	**1999**	**3.8**
Canada	2000	r9.1	r2.5	2000	2.1	1999	3.3
China (excludes SARs and Taiwan Province)	..	n.a.	n.a.	..	n.a.	..	n.a.
France	2000	9.5	2.3	2000	3.3	2000	4.2
Greece	2000	8.3	1.4	1999	4.4	1999	4.0
Hong Kong (SAR of China)	..	n.a.	n.a.	..	n.a.	..	n.a.
Indonesia	..	n.a.	n.a.	..	n.a.	..	n.a.
Italy	2000	8.1	2.0	2000	6.0	1999	4.5
Japan	2000	7.8	2.0	2000	1.9	..	n.a.
Korea (Republic of)	2000	5.9	0.9	2000	1.3	2000	5.2
Malaysia	..	n.a.	n.a.	..	n.a.	..	n.a.
New Zealand	2000	8.0	1.6	2000	2.2	1991	7.0
Papua New Guinea	..	n.a.	n.a.	..	n.a.	..	n.a.
Singapore	..	n.a.	n.a.	..	n.a.	..	n.a.
Sweden	1998	7.9	1.7	1999	2.9	2000	2.4
United Kingdom	2000	7.3	1.8	2000	1.8	2000	3.3
United States of America	2000	13.0	4.6	1999	2.8	2000	3.0
Viet Nam	..	n.a.	n.a.	..	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: 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
		%	%	%	%	%
Australia	**2001**	**41**	**30**	**10**	**19**	**100**
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) 2002, *Education at a Glance: OECD Indicators, 2002*, OECD, Paris.

Educational participation(a) and expenditure

		Enrolment rates by age group (years)						
	Reference year(b)	15–19	20–29	30–39	40 and over	Reference year(b)	Total public expenditure as a proportion of GDP(c)	Total public and private expenditure as a proportion of GDP(d)
Country		%	%	%			%	%
Australia	**2000**	**81.8**	**28.2**	**14.9**	**7.1**	**1999**	**4.5**	**5.8**
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) 2002, *Education at a Glance: OECD Indicators, 2002,* OECD, Paris.

Student performance on Combined reading, Mathematical and Scientific literacy scales

		Combined reading literacy		Mathematical literacy		Scientific literacy	
	Reference year	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Country		Mean score	Mean score	Mean score	Mean score	Mean score	Mean score
Australia	**2000**	**513**	**546**	**539**	**527**	**526**	**529**
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

		Below upper secondary education		Upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education		Tertiary non-University education		University education		All levels of education	
	Reference year	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Country		%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Australia	**2001**	**8.1**	**7.0**	**4.5**	**5.2**	**4.5**	**3.9**	**2.5**	**2.6**	**5.2**	**5.1**
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.

Source: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) 2002, *Education at a Glance:* OECD Indicators, 2002, OECD, Paris.

Labour force

Country	Reference year	Economically active population(a)	Reference year	Participation rate of persons aged 15 to 64 years: Total	Males	Females(a)
		'000		%	%	%
Australia	**2001**	**9 796.3**	**1999**	**72.9**	**82.1**	**63.9**
Canada	2001	16 246.2	2000	76.3	82.1	70.5
China (excludes SARs and Taiwan Province)	1990	647 244.7	1995	85.4	90.1	80.4
France	2001	26 384.7	2000	68.0	74.4	61.7
Greece	2001	4 362.2	1998	62.5	77.1	48.5
Hong Kong (SAR of China)	2001	3 423.7	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	2001	67 520.0	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	2001	1 925.8	1999	75.2	83.2	67.4
Papua New Guinea	..	n.a.	1995	79.1	88.7	68.7
Singapore	2001	2 119.7	1998	69.0	82.7	56.3
Sweden	2001	4 415.0	1999	78.5	80.9	76.0
United Kingdom	2001	29 638.3	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.

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 %
Australia	**2001**	**9 123.9**	**2001**	**666.7**	**6.8**
Canada	2001	15 076.8	2001	1 169.5	7.2
China (excludes SARs and Taiwan Province)(b)	2000	711 500.0	2000	5 950.0	3.1
France	2001	23 759.0	2001	2 285.0	8.8
Greece	2001	3 917.5	2001	444.7	10.2
Hong Kong (SAR of China)	2001	3 249.1	2001	174.4	5.1
Indonesia	2000	89 824.0	2000	5 872.0	n.a.
Italy	2001	21 634.0	2001	2 267.0	9.5
Japan	2001	64 120.0	2001	3 400.0	5.0
Korea (Republic of)	2000	21 061.0	2000	889.0	4.1
Malaysia	2001	9 450.8	2001	374.0	3.9
New Zealand	2001	1 823.4	2001	102.3	5.3
Papua New Guinea	..	n.a.	..	n.a.	n.a.
Singapore	2001	2 046.7	2001	72.9	3.4
Sweden	2001	4 239.0	2001	175.0	4.0
United Kingdom	2001	28 225.4	2001	1 412.9	4.8
United States of America	2001	135 073.0	2001	6 742.0	4.8
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.

Source: International Labour Office, *Year Book of Labour Statistics* 2002.

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