



Aspects of Social Capital

Australia

2006 (Reissue)

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Dennis Trewin
Australian Statistician

AUSTRALIAN BUREAU OF STATISTICS

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PREFACE

Social capital has been the focus of much attention in recent years. Considerable research exists that suggests that there is a relationship between social capital and wellbeing, including links to social, economic and health-related outcomes for individuals, and to the strength and sustainability of communities. The application of social capital to policy areas is of interest to government agencies, universities, non-profit groups, and other organisations.

Early work on social capital by the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) related to its conceptualisation and measurement. Following extensive consultation, the ABS produced a broad conceptual framework for measuring social capital, *Information Paper: Measuring Social Capital, an Australian Framework and Indicators* (cat. no. 1378.0), available free on the ABS website.

This publication, *Aspects of Social Capital*, draws together the statistics available from various ABS sources that are relevant to the analysis of social capital as described in the ABS Social Capital Framework. As can be seen from Appendix 1, the statistics included here relate to a relatively small number of the various aspects of social capital that have been described in the ABS Social Capital Framework. This reflects both the relatively recent emergence of social capital as a field of interest in its own right, and the difficulty in collecting statistics relating to many aspects of social capital. Therefore this publication is not able to provide a statistical overview of social capital but does illustrate the range of relevant indicators currently available from ABS sources.

The General Social Survey conducted by the ABS in 2006 included a significant number of social capital related data items not previously collected by the ABS. Output from that survey, expected to be available early in 2007, will expand the range of data that have been included in this publication, which were obtained from a number of collections including the Voluntary Work surveys (1995 and 2000), Time Use Survey (1997) and the 2002 General Social Survey.

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INTRODUCTION

BACKGROUND

This publication presents indicators and descriptive analysis concerned with the measurement of social capital in Australia, using data drawn from a range of ABS surveys. Social capital is conceived as being a resource available to individuals and communities founded on networks of mutual support, reciprocity and trust. It has been an area of considerable emerging interest because of its links to individual and community wellbeing. Many researchers have suggested the benefits of social capital for individual outcomes in areas such as health, education, employment and family wellbeing and also in fostering community strength and resilience (Endnote 1). Developing a sound evidence base through data collection and analysis activities is important to ensuring that any policies and programs designed to foster social capital in Australia, or in particular communities within Australia, help to improve people's lives.

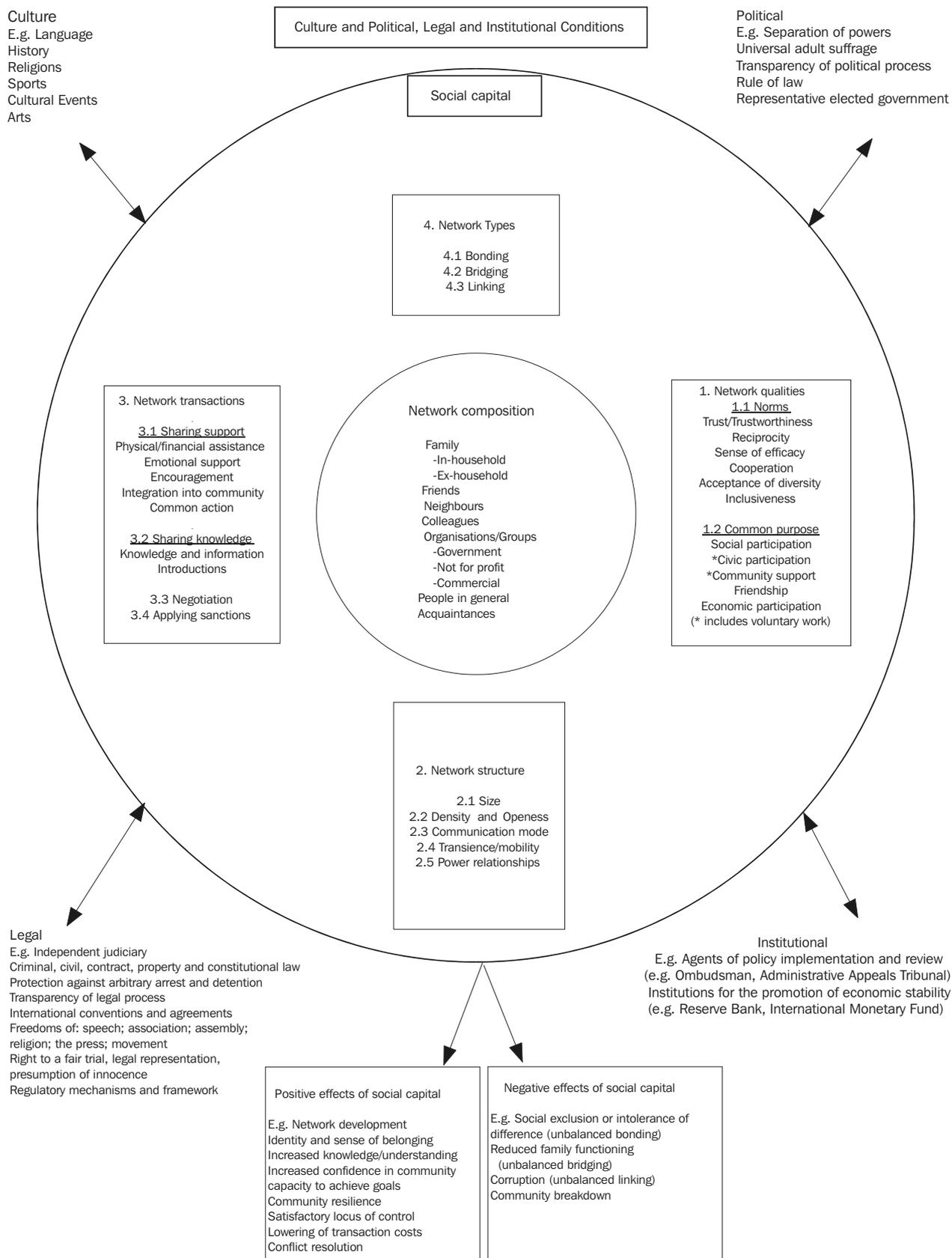
The compilation of this report is part of the ongoing development of social capital related data by the ABS. For this report the statistics have been drawn together from multiple ABS data sources, many of which were not designed with the express purpose of measuring aspects of social capital, but have nevertheless contained relevant indicators. As a result the report only provides insights into some aspects of social capital, that is, those for which ABS data are available. The 2006 General Social Survey has been developed as a key vehicle for expanding the range of social capital data items collected by the ABS, and first results from that survey are expected to become available early in 2007.

CONCEPTS AND MEASURES

The Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) defines social capital as 'networks, together with shared norms, values and understandings which facilitate cooperation within or among groups'. Social capital is widely recognised as being a multidimensional concept and not one that can be readily summarised by a single indicator. Based on extensive research and supported by consultations with interested parties from many government and non-government organisations around Australia, the ABS has developed a conceptual framework to support the measurement of social capital through a wide set of elements and indicators. Described in *Information Paper: Measuring Social Capital, an Australian Framework and Indicators* (cat. no. 1378.0), the ABS framework provides the conceptual foundation for the choice of topics and indicators presented in this report.

The framework is founded on the notion that people have social networks and relationships with other people in society, including family members, friends, neighbours, colleagues, acquaintances, and with organisations. The ABS Social Capital Framework provides a way of describing these networks and relationships through four broad dimensions each containing more detailed elements. The four dimensions, network qualities, network structure, network transactions and network types, together with some of their major components can be seen in Figure 1.

FIGURE 1 SOCIAL CAPITAL, CULTURAL AND POLITICAL, LEGAL AND INSTITUTIONAL CONDITIONS



Source: Measuring Social Capital, an Australian Framework and Indicators, 2004 (cat. no. 1378.0)

CONCEPTS AND
MEASURES *continued*

Many of the indicators of social capital presented in this report are based on people's participation or non-participation in groups, activities or events which may generally be considered to be beneficial to the development of trust, cooperation and stronger community networks. However, it is important to note that the indicators do not in themselves inform about the quality of the interactions or whether the participation has actually been beneficial or not. Examples of the indicators referred to include participation rates in sport or physical activities, attendance at cultural venues and events and participation in voluntary work to name a few. It is not always the case that participation in such activities and events has positive outcomes (or is of benefit) to the individuals or communities concerned. Instances of negative outcomes may arise where the participation in an event or activity leads to conflict with others, as may happen with supporters of opposing teams at and around a sporting event.

PUBLICATION CONTENT

The data and analysis in this publication is structured into a set of thirteen topics, reflecting the main aspects of social capital for which data are available from ABS sources. Appendix 1 provides an overview of which elements of the ABS Social Capital Framework are addressed by the topics of this publication and which are not.

Topics 1-3 describe important aspects of Australia's social environment which provide the context for enabling all sorts of social interaction. Largely based on data from the 2001 Census of Population and Housing these topics cover the geographical distribution of people; the nature of living arrangements in terms of household and family composition; and cultural diversity in terms of ethnicity, countries of birth, languages spoken and religious affiliation. These are not the only aspects of the social environment that may be important in shaping people's social networks.

Other aspects of difference include levels of education and training, income and wealth, health status, and experiences of life stressors, such as domestic violence, imprisonment and family break-up, or community level misfortunes. One useful source of information that provides more detailed views of the social environments in urban, rural and regional Australia is the 2001 census publication titled *Australia in Profile: a Regional Analysis* (cat. no. 2032.0).

Topics 4-13 include specific measures of social capital described in the ABS Social Capital Framework. These topics cover residential mobility; feelings of safety; access to and provision of support; giving; cooperation, in terms of household conservation of water and energy; participation in social activities and attendance at cultural venues; sports participation and physical recreation; voluntary work and caring; economic participation; and the frequency, intensity and mode of contact within networks. Each topic brings together closely related indicators. Sometimes the indicators illustrate more than one of the elements of the social capital framework for the networks being described. In most cases, the indicators have been disaggregated to reveal differences among population sub-groups of social concern. Where possible, time series are presented to reveal trends over time. Among variables commonly used to identify population sub-groups are age and sex, state or territory of residence, remoteness area of residence, labour force status, birthplace (usually whether in Australia or not), family type, disability status, income quintile, and the relative socioeconomic status of the person's area of residence classified by the 2001 census based index of socio-economic disadvantage. Further information about the concepts which underpin the classifications of people into these different

PUBLICATION CONTENT

continued

sub-groups is provided in the glossary. Appendix 2 is provided as a means of quickly seeing differences in the indicators across the states and territories of Australia.

In analysing the geographical area and population sub-group differences, caution should be taken where the differences are relatively small as there are usually many factors that may help to account for the observed differences. Take for instance, the indicator presented in topic nine, showing differences in the proportions of people attending a group of culture/leisure venues in the previous 12 months. The Australian Capital Territory (ACT) recorded a relatively high rate of attendance in 2002 (95%) while in Tasmania the rate was relatively low (84%). This may be accounted for by many factors and not simply differences in the propensity of people to participate in social activities as implied by the indicator. Thus, since attendance at cultural venues tend to be somewhat age-related (younger people tend to have higher attendance rates than older people) it may be that the ACT/Tasmania difference reflects the fact that the age structure of the ACT's population is somewhat younger than that of Tasmania. It may also partly reflect the fact that most people in the ACT live within an urban environment where access to and availability of culture/leisure venues may be greater than for the many people in Tasmania who live in rural and regional areas. Whilst sometimes highlighting such possible explanatory factors throughout parts of the report, it is beyond the scope of this study to analyse all the possible factors that may account for differences in the many measures of aspects of social capital that have been presented.

Generally, comparisons have not been made in this publication between Indigenous and non-Indigenous populations in relation to different aspects of social capital. The publication *National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Social Survey, Australia, 2002* (cat. no. 4714.0) and a related set of tables (cat. no. 4714.0.55.001) are recommended to interested readers. They contain information on a range of social relationship, social participation and expectation of support items in common with the General Social Survey, as well as a number of further items specific to Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples touching on identification with homeland or language group, use of languages, involvement in cultural activities and experiences with the crime and justice system. These products include some tables comparing characteristics of Indigenous and non-Indigenous people, standardised where appropriate, and with comments on the significance of differences.

DATA SOURCES

The ABS collections used most extensively in preparing this publication include the 2001 Census of Population and Housing, the 2002 General Social Survey, the Voluntary Work Surveys (1995 and 2000) and the Time Use Survey (1997). However data from various other ABS collections have also been used. Details of these ABS sources are listed with relevant tables and charts in the body of the publication.

There is a growing number of non-ABS collections which provide measures of aspects of social capital in Australia, although only rarely for Australia as a whole. Most state and territory governments have social or sustainability plans with target indicators of community strength including social capital measures, and most states have at some time included social capital modules in their health surveys. The Department for Victorian Communities (DVC) has drawn together a small set of measures for use as indicators of community strength (available since 2001 from the annual Department of Human Services health survey, and now available at a local government area level). DVC

DATA SOURCES *continued*

has an ongoing research agenda to bring together indicators on the three related themes of: community strength; risk and protective factors associated with family wellbeing and prosperity; and the way governance in local institutions mediates family and community dynamics. The 'social capital' theme page available from the ABS web site <www.abs.gov.au> provides links to non-ABS sources of data and analysis of social capital in Australia.

As noted earlier, the 2006 General Social Survey has been developed as a key vehicle for expanding the range of social capital data items collected by the ABS, and first results from that survey are expected to become available early in 2007.

SELECTED FINDINGS

The following list draws together some of the indicators presented in the various parts of this report to provide a quick overview of some of the key findings.

Geographic distribution

In 2004:

- 66% of the population lived in Major Cities of Australia
- Young adults (aged 20-34 years) were under-represented in regional areas

Living arrangements

In 2001:

- The proportion of lone person households was 25%, up from 21% in 1991
- 83% of persons were living in family households

Cultural diversity

In 2001:

- 23% of the population were born overseas
- 16% of the population usually spoke a language other than English at home
- 75% of the population had a religious affiliation

Residential mobility

- 19% of the population lived at a different address in 2001 compared with 2000
- 45% of the population lived at a different address in 2001 compared with 1996
- young people were more mobile than older people

Trust: Feelings of safety

In 2002:

- 8% of people in Australia felt unsafe or very unsafe at home alone after dark
- 3% of people in Australia felt unsafe or very unsafe at home alone during the day
- Women were far more likely to feel unsafe or very unsafe (14%) than men (3%), but the differences narrowed with increasing age

Reciprocity: Access to and provision of support

In 2002:

- 94% of people felt that they could ask for support in a time of crisis
- 93% felt able to ask for small favours
- 31% of people had either themselves provided some form of support to relatives (other than children) living elsewhere, or their partner had done so

Reciprocity: Giving

- The proportion of the population who had made a donation in the previous 12 months rose from 70% in 1997 to 74% in 2000
- 36% of businesses had made a donation in the previous 12 months in 2001

Cooperation: conservation practices

- In 2005, 205,000 Australian households were connected to Green Power (Endnote 2)
- In 2004, 47% of the population undertook water conservation practices, the same proportion as in 1998
- 95% of Australian households recycled waste in 2003, an increase from 88% in 1996
- 83% of households reused waste in 2003, more than double the proportion (36%) in 1996

Social participation: social activities and attendance at cultural venues

- In 2002, 92% of the population aged 18 years and over had participated in social activities within the previous three months
- The proportion of the population aged 18 years and over who attended culture and leisure venues within the previous year was 88% in 2002

Sport and physical recreation

- In 2002, 64% of the population had participated in sport and physical recreation in the previous 12 months
- In 2004, 10% of Australia's population aged 15 years or over had participated, often as a volunteer, in sports/recreation organisations in roles other than as a player in the previous 12 months

Community support: Voluntary work and caring

- Volunteers increased from 24% of the population in 1995 to 34% in 2002
- Volunteers were more common in rural and regional Australia
- 13% of the population were carers for a person with a disability in both 1998 and 2003

Economic participation

In 2005:

- 65% of the population aged 15 years and over were participants in the labour force, compared with 61% in 1985.
- 57% of women aged 15 and over were employed in 2005, compared to 46% in 1985
- 46% of employed women were employed part-time in 2005
- In 2005, 22% of persons who had started their job in the previous 12 months had contacted friends or relatives as one of their approaches to finding work

Network structure: Frequency, intensity and mode of contact

- In 2002, 95% of people had contact with family and friends in the previous week
- On average, in 1997 people spent 20% of their waking time alone, an increase from 17% in 1992
- The proportion of waking time spent alone was progressively higher in older age groups. A major influence on time spent alone was whether people lived alone or with others.

Endnotes

1. A small set of references discussing a range of outcome areas are:

Berkman, LF and Glass, T (2000), Social Integration, Social networks, Social Support in *Social Epidemiology*, eds Berkman, L and Karachi, I, Oxford University Press, New York, pp. 137-173.

Carcarch, C. and Huntley, C. (2002) 'Community Participation and Regional Crime' *Trends and Issues in Crime and Crime and Criminal Justice*, no. 222 Australian Institute of Criminology, Canberra.

Bush, R. and Baum, F. (2001) Chapter 13: Health Inequalities, communities and social capital, in *The Social Origins of Health and Well-being*, eds. Eckersley, R., Dixon, J and Douglas, B., Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.

Kawachi, I., Kennedy, B.P., Lochner, K and Prowther-Stith, D. (1997), 'Social capital, income equality and mortality'. *American Journal of Public Health*, 87 (9): 1491-1499.

OECD (2001) *The Wellbeing of Nations: The Role of Human and Social Capital, Education and Skills*, OECD Centre for Educational Research and Innovation, Paris, France.

Putnam, R.D. (2000) *Bowling Alone: The Collapse and Revival of American Community*. Simon and Schuster, New York.

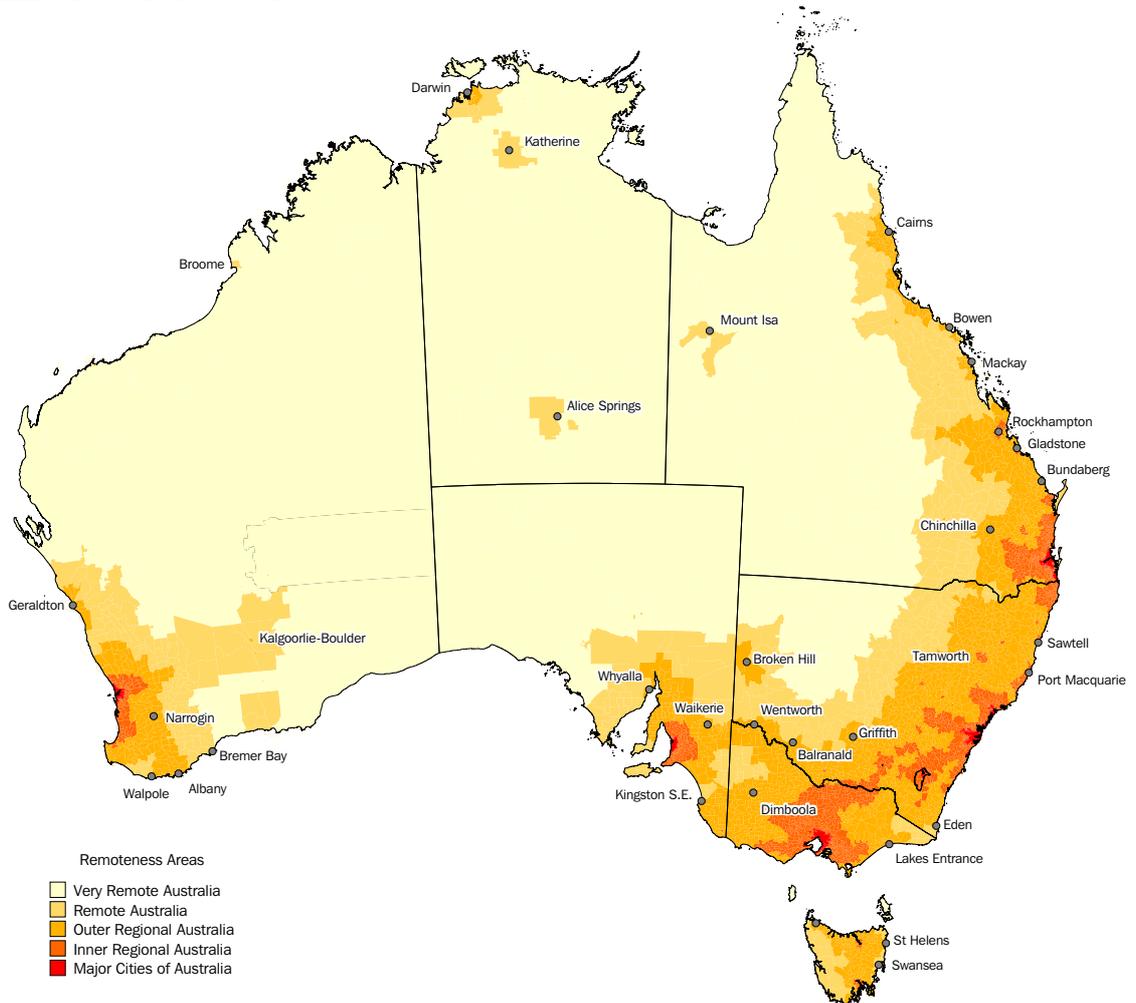
2. Total for Australia excludes Tasmania and the Northern Territory as data were not available for these states and territories.

INTRODUCTION

Where people live, whether near to each other in densely populated urban areas, or on farms or small communities situated in remote areas, may influence the way in which they form networks and interact with others. Although people living in regional and remote areas may have strong networks despite their relative geographic isolation, these links may differ from those that exist in other areas of Australia. Proximity to others also offers opportunities for different types of social and civic participation.

This topic describes the geographic distribution of Australia's population by a classification of areas known as 'remoteness areas of Australia' and by state and territory. The following map provides a view of the areas described by the remoteness area classification.

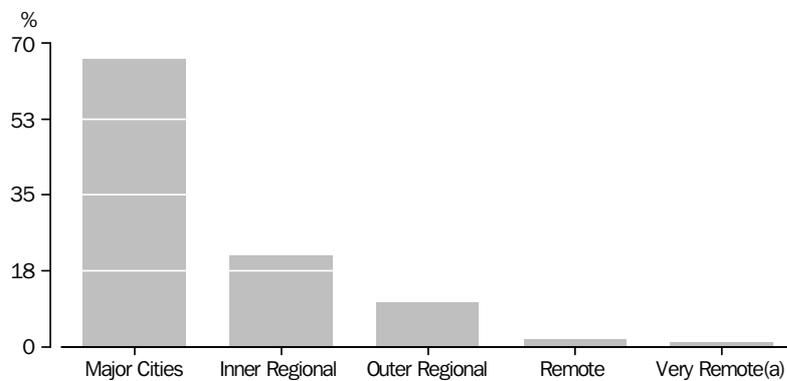
1.1 REMOTENESS AREAS OF AUSTRALIA



GEOGRAPHIC DISTRIBUTION

In June 2004 the population of Australia was 20.1 million. Two-thirds (66%) of the population lived in areas classified as major cities. These are cities of at least 250,000 persons and their immediate surrounds, which are characterised as areas in which people have a high level of access to a wide range of services. A further 31%, almost all of the rest, lived in inner and outer regional Australia, typically coastal and inland towns or localities with moderate road access to towns of at least 5,000 people. The greater part of the country is classified as being remote or very remote Australia; areas in which accessibility by road to service centres is relatively low and where the nearest towns are relatively small. These areas are inhabited by 3% of the population (1.6% in remote areas and 0.9% in the very remote areas).

1.2 DISTRIBUTION OF THE POPULATION, Remoteness Areas—2004



(a) Includes Migratory.

Source: *Estimated Resident Population, 2004*. Data available on request.

STATES AND TERRITORIES

Settlement patterns vary across the states and territories. This is most readily seen by the extent to which people are concentrated in major city areas. In the states of New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia and Western Australia, 70% or more of their populations in 2004 lived in major city areas. Centred on Canberra, almost the entire population of the Australian Capital Territory was classified as being a major city of Australia. In Queensland, in contrast, barely half (53%) of the population lived in the major cities. No areas in Tasmania or the Northern Territory were classified as being major city areas since the largest cities, Hobart and Darwin, had populations of less than 250,000 people. Tasmania is nevertheless well settled with cities and towns of moderate size, especially in the triangle bordered by the east and north coastlines, so many Tasmanians have good access to a wide range of services and opportunities for social participation. Almost two-thirds (64%) of Tasmania's population was classified as living in the moderately high accessibility region known as Inner Regional Australia. The Northern Territory's population had the highest proportion of people classified as living in remote or very remote areas (45% of its population in 2004).

1.3 DISTRIBUTION OF THE POPULATION, Remoteness Areas and States/Territories—June 2004

	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
PROPORTION (%)									
Major Cities	71.5	73.4	52.7	71.8	70.6	—	—	99.8	66.3
Inner Regional Areas	20.6	21.4	26.1	12.7	13.0	63.9	—	0.2	21.0
Outer Regional	7.2	5.1	17.4	11.6	9.4	33.8	54.8	—	10.2
Remote	0.6	0.1	2.4	3.0	4.5	1.8	20.6	—	1.6
Very Remote	0.1	—	1.4	0.9	2.6	0.5	24.6	—	0.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
ALL PERSONS ('000)									
All persons	6 720.8	4 963.0	3 888.1	1 532.7	1 978.1	482.2	199.8	324.1	20 091.5
PER CENT OF AUSTRALIAN TOTAL (%)									
Total	33.5	24.7	19.4	7.6	9.8	2.4	1.0	1.6	100.0

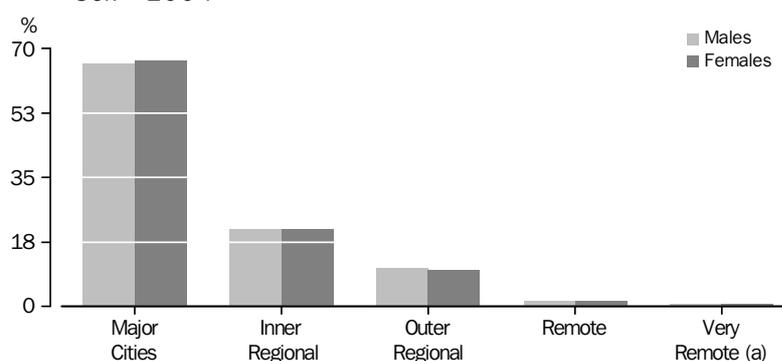
— nil or rounded to zero (including null cells)

Source: Estimated Resident Population, 2004.

AGE AND SEX

Differences in the age and sex composition of populations can set up different dynamics for social interaction. There is little difference in the distribution of males and females across geographic remoteness areas. In 2004, females were slightly more likely than males to live in the major city areas, and males were slightly more likely to live in the more remote areas.

1.4 DISTRIBUTION OF THE POPULATION, by Remoteness Areas and Sex—2004



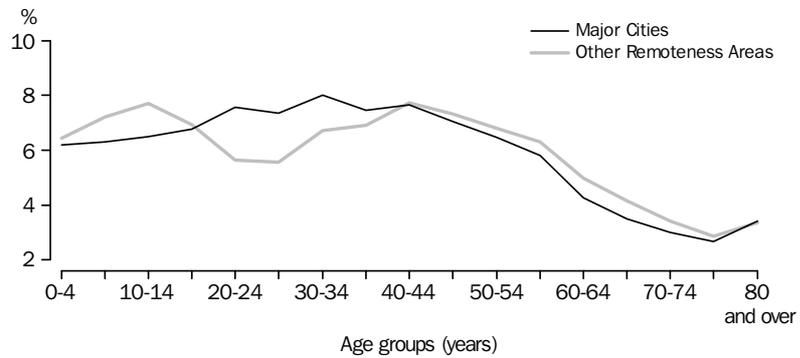
(a) Includes Migratory. The proportion of the population living in Very Remote Australia was 1% for both Males and Females.

Source: Estimated Resident Population, 2004. Data available on request.

People in some age groups are more highly represented in some areas than others. Again looking broadly across the country, in 2004 there was a higher proportion of young adults (i.e. those aged 20-34 years) in the major cities than in other areas of Australia. Conversely, there were proportionally more children and more older adults than young adults in the other areas of the country. These differences partly reflect the tendency for young adults from rural and regional areas to move to large cities to pursue education and employment opportunities.

AGE AND SEX *continued*

1.5 DISTRIBUTION OF THE POPULATION, By Age and Remoteness Areas—2004

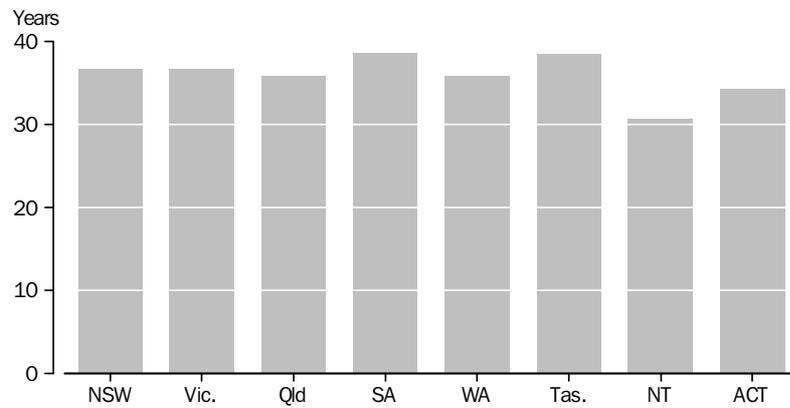


(a) 'Other Remoteness Areas' combines Inner Regional Australia, Outer Regional Australia and Very Remote Australia and Migratory.

Source: *Estimated Resident Population, 2004*. Data available on request.

The median age of the population also varies across the states and territories. In 2004 the Northern Territory had the lowest median age (31 years), followed by the Australian Capital Territory (34 years). South Australian and Tasmania had the highest median ages (39 and 38 years, respectively).

1.6 MEDIAN AGE OF POPULATION, States and Territories—2004



Source: *Population by Age and Sex, Australian States and Territories, 2005 (cat. no. 3201.0)*.

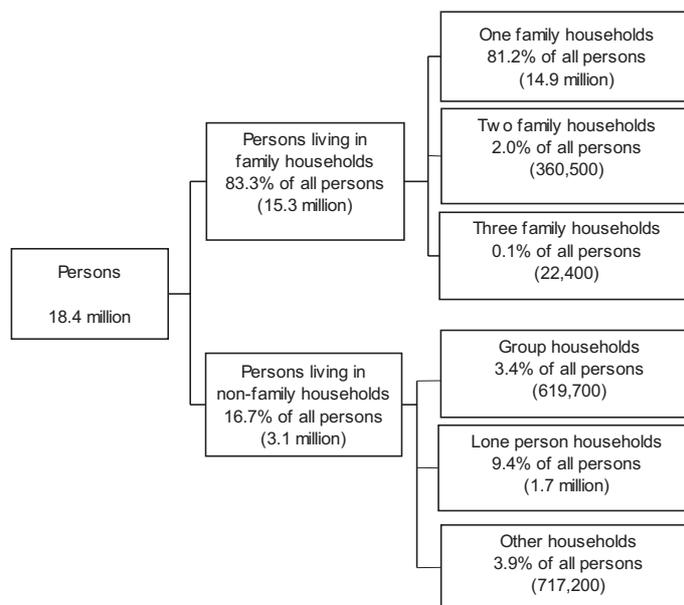
INTRODUCTION

Who one lives with, be it family members, friends, or just alone, provides the immediate social environment for social interaction and different motivations and opportunities for making wider community connections. The type and size of a household is likely to have an effect on the nature of people's networks. Members of larger households provide other household members with immediate contacts, and possibly with links to a wider range of people (Endnote 1). People who live alone naturally spend a greater part of their time alone but may also have more contact with people in the wider community (see Topic 13: Network structure: Frequency, intensity and mode of contact). This topic describes the living arrangements of Australians by remoteness areas and age. It relates to the Network Structure Dimension of the ABS Social Capital Framework (see *Information Paper: Measuring Social Capital, an Australian Framework and Indicators*, (cat. no. 1378.0), and Appendix 1).

LIVING ARRANGEMENTS

According to the 2001 Census of Population and Housing most Australians (83%) lived in family households, usually in single family households (81%). Two and three family households were not common, with only 2% living in such households. Around 3% lived in group households, and 9% lived alone.

2.1 HOUSEHOLD TYPES, 2001

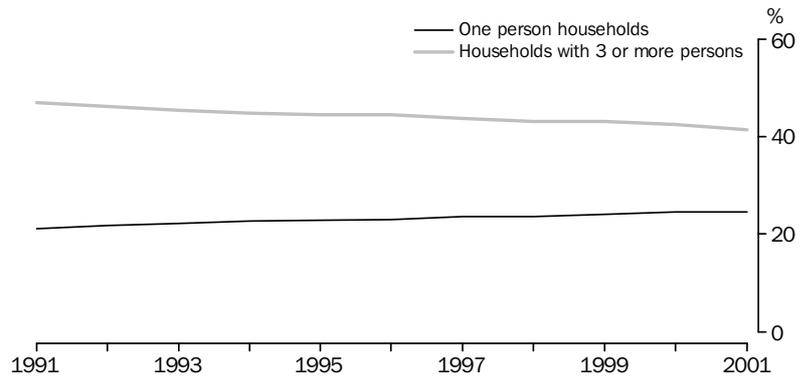


Source: Census of Population and Housing, 2001.

HOUSEHOLD SIZE

In 2001, households consisting of two people were the most common (33%), followed by one-person households (24%), and three and four-person households (16% each). There has been an ongoing decline in household size over recent decades. Through the decade from 1991 to 2001 the proportion of households with three or more people decreased from 47% to 43%, with a corresponding increase in single person households from 21% to 25%. As a consequence average household size decreased, falling from 2.6 to 2.5 persons in 1994 and 2004 respectively.

2.2 HOUSEHOLD SIZES(a), changes over time

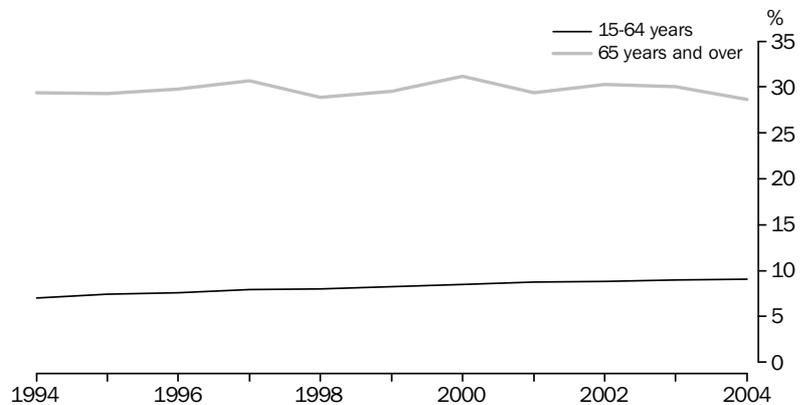


(a) Percentage of all households.

Source: Australian Demographic Statistics, 2005 (cat. no. 3101.0).

It is not just the ageing of the population that is contributing to this effect. A relatively high proportion of older people live alone (29% of those aged 65 and over in 2004), but the proportion of people living alone in this group in 2004 was the same as a decade earlier. During this period, however, there has been a steady increase in living alone in the much larger group of younger people. Of those aged 15-64 years the proportion who lived alone increased from 7% 1994 to 9% in 2004. As a result, the proportion of all people who lived alone who were aged 15-64 years increased from 57% to 62%.

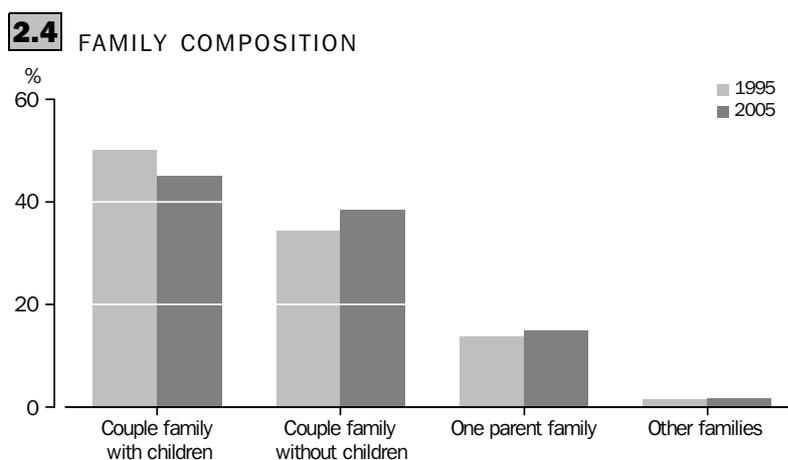
2.3 PROPORTION IN AGE GROUP LIVING ALONE



Source: Labour Force Surveys, ABS Australian Social Trends (cat. no. 4102.0), 2005.

HOUSEHOLD SIZE
continued

In 2005 the most common family types among all families living in separate private dwellings in Australia were those involving couples with children of any age followed by couples without children (45% and 38% of all families respectively). There were 842,100 one parent families, again involving children of any age, which represented 15% of all families. Between 1995 and 2005 the proportion of families that were couple families with children decreased, while the proportions for couple families without children and for one parent families both increased. The relative increase in couple families without children is largely due to the ageing of the population creating 'empty-nesters' but also reflects trends towards childlessness.



Source: Labour Force Surveys, 1995 and 2005. Data available on request.

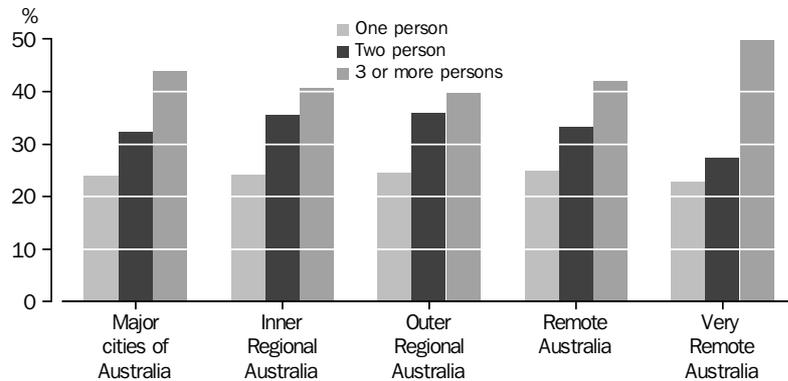
REMOTENESS AREAS

The distribution of households according to size is similar across all remoteness areas except for very remote Australia. Very remote areas aside, in 2001 there was a slightly greater representation of two-person households in the inner and outer regional areas of Australia than in the major cities and the remote areas, while the proportion of households with three or more members was slightly lower. In the very remote areas the proportion of households with three or more persons was substantially higher than in the other areas. Around one in four households in all of the remoteness areas were single person households.

REMOTENESS AREAS

continued

2.5 HOUSEHOLD SIZE, Remoteness Areas—2001

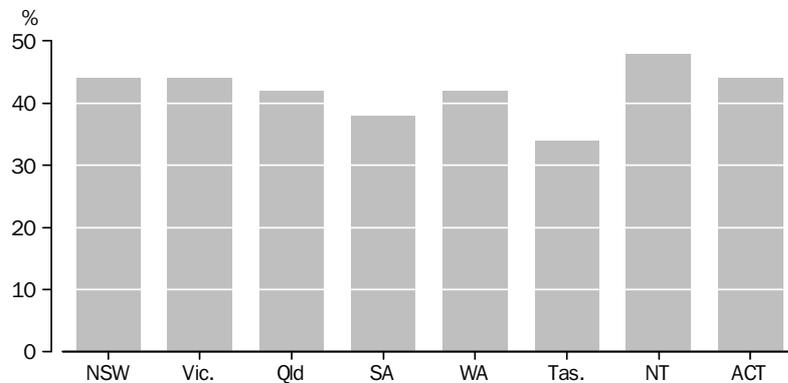


Source: Census of Population and Housing, place of enumeration counts.
Data available on request.

STATES AND TERRITORIES

Household size varies across the states and territories. In 2001 the Northern Territory had the largest proportion of households with three or more members (48%). Tasmania on the other hand, had the smallest proportion of households with three or more members (34%), followed by South Australia (38%).

2.6 PROPORTION OF HOUSEHOLDS WITH THREE OR MORE PERSONS, States and Territories—2001



Source: Census of Population and Housing, place of enumeration counts, 7 August 2001.
Data available on request.

ENDNOTE

1. Stone, W. and Hughes, J. (2002) *Social Capital: Empirical Meaning and Measurement Validity*, Australian Institute of Family Studies, Melbourne, pp.4-5.

INTRODUCTION

The cultural mix of Australia's population is an important aspect of community life in Australia and is a vital dimension to understanding social interactions and attachments in particular communities. Having people from diverse cultural backgrounds contributes to the richness of communities, but is also capable of generating tensions. The values of acceptance of diversity and inclusiveness, qualities which assist in overcoming tensions, are elements relating to Network Characteristics in the ABS Social Capital Framework, see *Information Paper: Measuring Social Capital, an Australian Framework and Indicators* (cat. no. 1378.0) and Appendix 1). This topic focuses on several population characteristics namely birthplace, language and religion, to describe the extent of cultural diversity in Australia and how this differs across broad areas (Endnote 1).

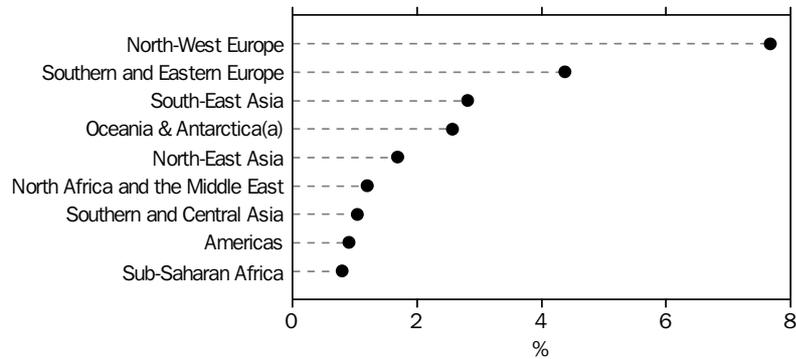
BIRTHPLACE

Australia has many migrants from many different countries. The 2001 Census of Population and Housing informs that 23% of the population had been born overseas and that these people had come from over 200 countries from all parts of the globe (Endnote 2). In addition, a quarter of those born in Australia (25%) had at least one parent born overseas (Endnote 3). Almost half (42%) of the entire population, therefore, had a direct or recent familial connection with an overseas country. This diversity in country of origin due to recent immigration adds to the diversity brought about from earlier periods of immigration and co-residence with the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander population. According to official population estimates for June 2001, there were 458,500 Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people in Australia (representing 2.4% of the total population) (Endnote 4).

Among the countries of origin of migrants, European countries have been the major source. In 2001, 8% of Australia's total population were people born in countries within North West Europe and 4% were from Southern and Eastern European countries. However, many other countries of origin were represented. Based on regional groupings of countries, around 3% of the population were born in South-East Asia, 3% in Oceania and Antarctica, 2% in North-East Asia, and 1% in North-Africa and the Middle East.

BIRTHPLACE *continued*

3.1 PROPORTION OF THE POPULATION WITH OVERSEAS BIRTHPLACES—2001



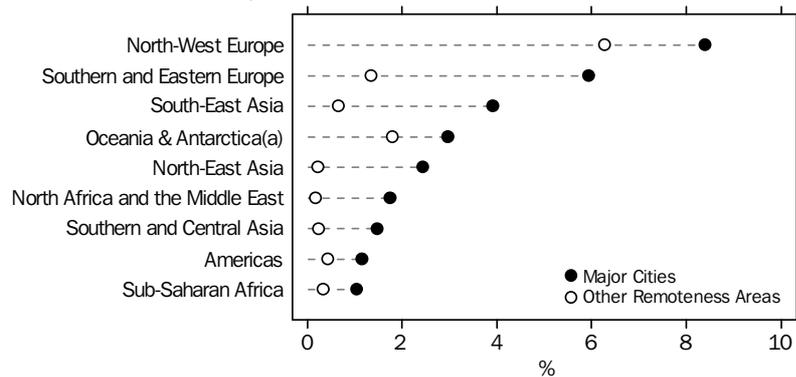
(a) Excludes Australia.

Source: Census of Population and Housing, 2001. Data available on request.

REMOTENESS AREAS AND STATES AND TERRITORIES

The birthplace composition of people living in different areas is highly variable reflecting different migration histories and settlement patterns of particular birthplace groups. However, people living in cities are generally more likely to encounter people born in foreign countries since migrants have tended to settle in Australia's big cities in preference to other locations. In 2001, people born overseas represented 29% of the population living in the 'major cities' compared to just 11% in the balance of Australia. The tendency of migrants to settle in the major city areas is apparent for overseas born people irrespective of the region of the world from which they came.

3.2 PROPORTION OF THE POPULATION WITH OVERSEAS BIRTHPLACES, Remoteness areas—2001



(a) Excludes Australia.

Source: Census of Population and Housing, 2001. Data available on request.

The states and territories have fairly similar population profiles when considering the dominance of Australian-born people and the high representation of people from North-West European countries (mainly involving people from the United Kingdom). However, in 2001, of all the states and territories, Western Australia had the lowest percentage of Australian-born people (72%) while Tasmania had the highest (90%). North West European countries were the most common birthplace group for people born outside Australia in all states, except Victoria, and were most highly represented in

RE MOTENESS AREAS AND STATES AND TERRITORIES
continued

Western Australia (14%), South Australia (11%) and Queensland (7%). Victoria, with its large Italian and Greek born populations (Endnote 2), had the largest proportion of people from countries in the Southern and Eastern European region (7%). The Oceania and Antarctica region, mainly represented by people from New Zealand (Endnote 2), was a prominent source of immigrants to Queensland. For more detail about the regional distribution of overseas born people and the local areas with very high concentrations of people from other countries, see *Census of Population and Housing, Australia in Profile: A Regional Analysis, 2001* (cat. no. 2032.0).

3.3 BIRTHPLACE COMPOSITION, States and Territories—2001

	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust. (a)
BIRTHPLACE (%)									
Australia(a)	75.2	75.3	81.9	78.8	71.6	89.5	84.4	77.4	76.7
North West Europe	6.3	6.6	7.2	11.0	13.8	6.4	6.0	8.1	7.7
Southern & Eastern Europe	4.4	7.1	1.7	4.9	3.5	1.1	1.6	4.0	4.4
South-East Asia	3.3	3.3	1.5	1.9	3.5	0.6	3.0	2.9	2.8
Oceania & Anatarctica(b)	2.6	1.6	4.6	0.9	2.7	1.0	2.5	1.9	2.6
North-East Asia	2.9	1.5	1.0	0.6	0.8	0.3	0.5	1.5	1.7
North Africa & the Middle East	2.1	1.4	0.2	0.5	0.5	0.1	0.2	0.5	1.2
Southern and Central Asia	1.3	1.5	0.4	0.5	1.1	0.2	0.5	1.4	1.1
Americas	1.2	0.8	0.7	0.5	0.8	0.5	1.0	1.5	0.9
Sub-Saharan Africa	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.4	1.6	0.3	0.5	0.7	0.8
Total(c)	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
ALL PERSONS ('000)									
Total	5 919.0	4 351.8	3 400.4	1 395.1	1 735.4	431.2	187.2	294.9	17 717.4

(a) Includes Other Territories.
(b) Excluding Australia.

(c) Total excludes not stated and inadequately described, at sea, not elsewhere classified.

Source: Census of Population and Housing, 2001.

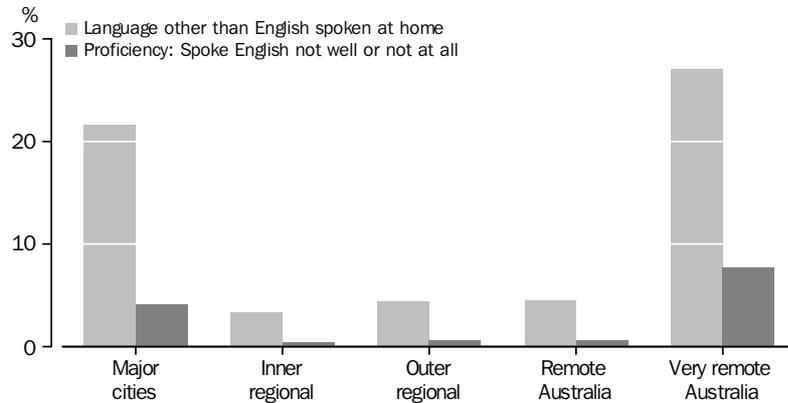
LANGUAGE

The variety of languages spoken by Australians also form an important part of the nation's cultural diversity. Largely reflecting the contribution of migration from non-English-speaking countries, but also including Indigenous people who speak languages other than English, 16% of Australia's population (2.8 million people) spoke a language other than English at home in 2001 (Endnote 5). Among these people there were 531,800 who did not speak English well or at all. People who mainly spoke a language other than English at home and who had low levels of English proficiency represented 3% of Australia's total population.

Consistent with the tendency for migrants to settle in bigger cities, big city dwellers are more likely to speak a foreign language at home than people in most others areas. In 2001, 22% of the population of 'major cities' spoke a language other than English at home compared to less than 5% in the inner regional, outer regional and remote areas of Australia. However, very remote Australia, which has a high representation of Indigenous people, had the largest proportion of people who spoke a language other than English at home (27%). The proportions of people who both spoke a language other than English at home and had low levels of fluency in English varied from 4% in major cities, to less than 1% in regional and remote areas and 8% in very remote areas.

LANGUAGE *continued*

3.4 LANGUAGE SPOKEN AND PROFICIENCY IN ENGLISH, Remoteness areas—2001



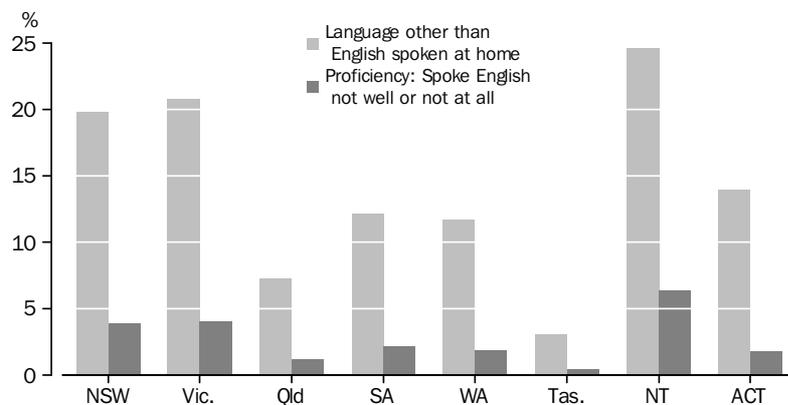
Source: Census and Population and Housing, 2001. Data available on request.

Among the states and territories, the Northern Territory had the highest percentage (25%) of people who spoke a language other than English at home. Once again this is largely accounted for by the high representation of Indigenous people living there. In 2001 61% of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people in the Northern Territory spoke an Indigenous language at home.

After the Northern Territory, Victoria and New South Wales had the highest proportions of people who spoke a language other than English at home, (21% and 20% respectively) while Queensland and Tasmania had the lowest (7% and 3% respectively).

As might be expected the states and territories with higher proportions of people who spoke languages other than English at home had higher proportions of people with lower proficiency in English.

3.5 LANGUAGE SPOKEN AND AND PROFICIENCY IN ENGLISH, States and Territories—2001



Source: Census of Population and Housing, 2001. Data available on request.

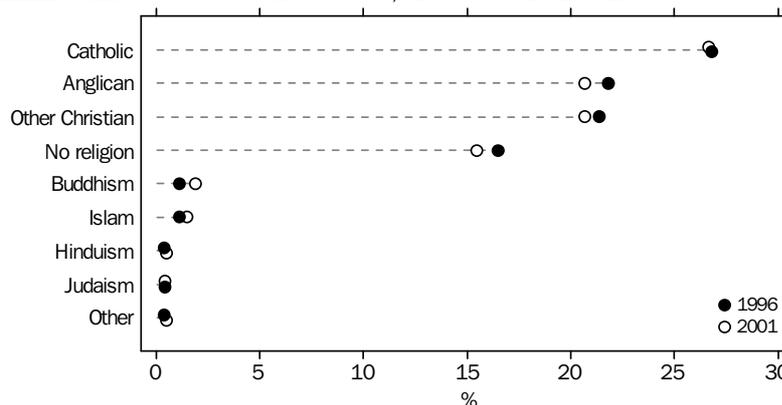
RELIGION

Religion is another aspect of cultural diversity, which helps to provide a focus for bringing people together within groups. Australia is a secular society with separation of Church and State, and it is pluralist, accepting people from many different religious groups and those without any religious affiliation. A large majority of Australians (75%) identified with a religion in the 2001 Census, while 15% reported that they had no religion. Around 10% were not prepared to state an affiliation. Notwithstanding the high levels of identification with particular religions, in 2002 only 23% of the population had participated in church or religious activities in the previous three months (Endnote 6).

Christian-based faiths are the most common in Australia: 68% of all persons stated a Christian denomination in response to be being asked their religion in the 2001 Census while other religions were reported by 5% of the population. Another 2% reported a religious belief without any further detail.

Of the other religions, Buddhism and Islam were the next most common (each contributed around 2%). Hinduism, Judaism and Other Religions each accounted for 1% or less.

3.6 RELIGIOUS AFFILIATIONS, 1996 AND 2001



Source: Census of Population and Housing, 1996 and 2001. Data available on request.

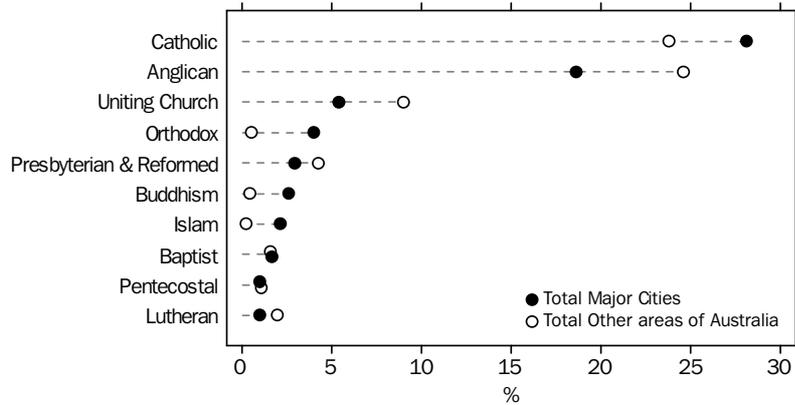
Among Christian affiliations Catholic (reported by 27% of all persons in Australia) was the most common, followed by Anglican (21%), and the Uniting Church (7%). Orthodox and the Presbyterian and Reformed group accounted for 3% each, and Baptist for 2%. Lutheran, Pentecostal, Jehovah's Witnesses, Salvation Army, Churches of Christ, Seventh Day Adventist, Other Protestant, Oriental Christian and other Christian groups each accounted for 1% or less.

REMOTENESS AREAS AND STATES AND TERRITORIES

While Christian faiths were predominant in all parts of Australia, people with a Christian religion were slightly less common in the major cities (67%) than in the remaining rural and regional parts of the country (71%). As might be expected particular religious affiliations feature more prominently in some areas than others; for instance, people with Baptist or Pentecostal affiliations were equally represented in major city and other regions while those with a Uniting Church or Lutheran affiliation were more highly represented in rural and regional Australia than in the major cities.

REMOTENESS AREAS AND STATES AND TERRITORIES
continued

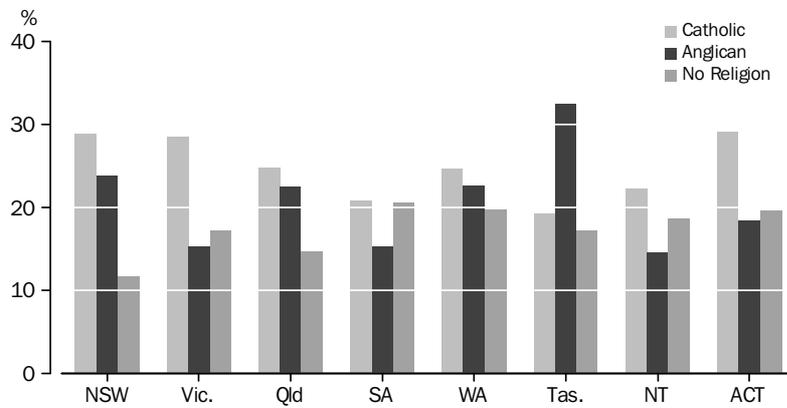
3.7 RELIGIOUS AFFILIATIONS, Remoteness Areas—2001



Source: Census of Population and Housing, 2001. Data available on request.

Catholic was the most common religious affiliation in all states and territories except Tasmania, where Anglican was more prominent. Having no religion or being an Anglican alternated as the second and third most common religious preference across the states and territories.

3.8 THE THREE MOST COMMON RELIGIOUS RESPONSES, States and Territories—2001



Source: Census of Population and Housing, 2001. Data available on request.

ENDNOTES

1. The birthplace and language data exclude 'not stated' and 'inadequately described' responses. Because the religious affiliation question is not compulsory, and there is a high level of non-response, not stated responses have been included in the calculations; to omit them would exaggerate the proportions who gave each religious preference.
2. Australian Bureau of Statistics, Census of Population and Housing, 2001. Data available on request.
3. Australian Bureau of Statistics, *Australia in Profile: A Regional Analysis, 2001*, cat. no. 2032.0, ABS: Canberra.
4. Australian Bureau of Statistics, *National Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Social Survey, 2002*, cat no. 4714.0, ABS: Canberra.
5. Languages spoken at home other than English include sign language, unless otherwise specified.
6. Australian Bureau of Statistics, *General Social Survey, Summary Results, 2002*, cat. no. 4159.0, ABS; Canberra.

TOPIC **4**

RESIDENTIAL MOBILITY

INTRODUCTION

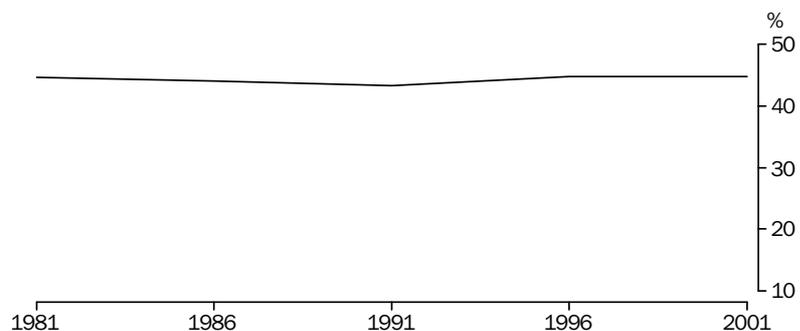
Changing homes affects community connections. Contact with former friends and acquaintances may be disrupted and broken and new associations are typically formed with others in the new neighbourhood. The length of time spent living in a community is considered to influence the number of ties with others in that community and the strength of those ties (Endnote 1). Levels of social and civic participation are also likely to be higher among long-term residents of a community (Endnote 2). This topic relates to the transience/mobility dimension of the ABS Social Capital Framework (see *Information Paper: Measuring Social Capital, an Australian Framework and Indicators*, (cat. no. 1378.0) and Appendix 1).

MOVING HOUSE

Residential mobility is common in Australia. In 2001, 19% of the population had lived at a different address one year earlier and 45% (of those aged 5 years and over) had lived at a different address five years earlier (Endnote 3).

Five year mobility rates have now been available from the censuses over several decades. The rates show that the level of residential mobility remained much the same over the twenty years from 1981 to 2001 (i.e. mostly around 44%).

4.1 FIVE YEAR MOBILITY RATE (a)(b) 1981-2001



(a) Persons whose current address differs from their address 5 years before.
(b) Population excludes children under 5 years, not stated and overseas visitors and those who did not state their address five years earlier.

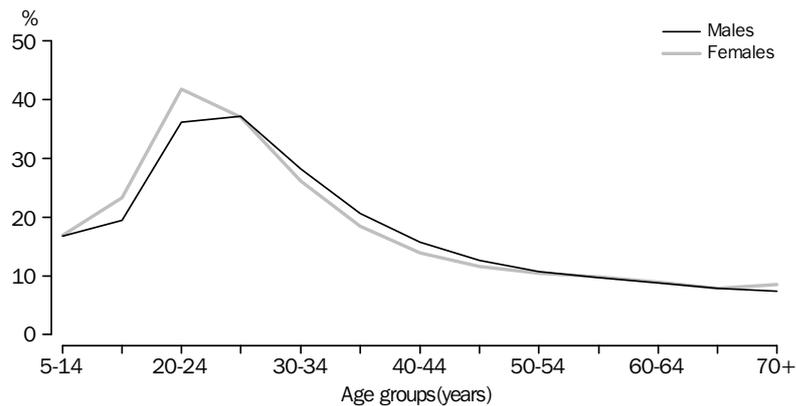
Source: *Censuses of Population and Housing*. Data available on request.

Moving house does not necessarily mean that all local community connections are disrupted as some people only move short distances. However, most moves are made to places beyond a person's immediate neighbourhood area. In 2001, 64% of all those who had moved in the preceding year had moved from a different Statistical Local Area (see Glossary).

AGE AND SEX

The propensity to move is strongly related to life transitions with the patterns being similar for both males and females. In 2001, the one-year mobility rate was highest for people aged in their twenties: for females the rate peaked at 42% for those aged 20-24 years, while for males it was highest for those aged 25-29 years (at 37%). For both sexes rates declined similarly with increasing age. For those aged 65-69 years the rate was about 8%, but very late in life the rate increased slightly, particularly for women.

4.2 DIFFERENT ADDRESS IN 2001 THAN IN 2000, by age and sex



Source: Census of Population and Housing, 2001. Data available on request.

The high mobility rate among young adults reflects the study, work and family transitions that occur at this stage of the life course. With increasing age the likelihood of staying in the one place increases. The slight upturn very late in life may be associated with people moving closer to care givers such as other family members or into homes providing aged care, a pattern that might especially be expected for the higher proportions of people in these age groups who live alone.

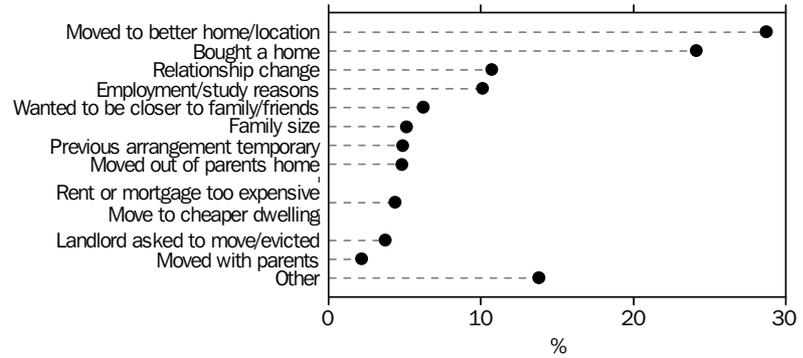
REASONS FOR MOVING

The 1999 ABS Housing Survey provides a variety of reasons for moving house. The most common reasons for moving were: to move to a better home or location (29%), bought a home (24%), relationship change (11%), or for employment/study reasons (10%). Many of the reasons given relate to life course stages, helping to explain the high level of mobility among young adults.

REASONS FOR MOVING

continued

4.3 MAIN REASON MOVED OUT OF PREVIOUS DWELLING (a)—1999



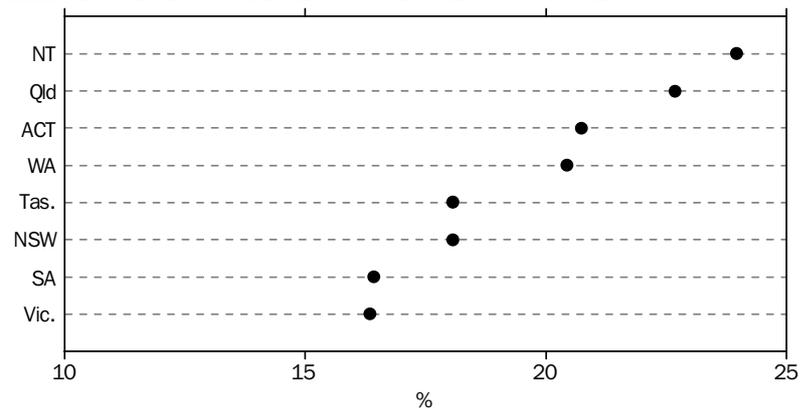
(a) All persons aged 15 years and over who had lived in current dwelling for less than nine years.

Source: Australian Housing Survey, 1999. Data available on request.

STATES AND TERRITORIES

Of the people enumerated in each state or territory in 2001, those in the Northern Territory were the most likely to have changed their address from the place they lived one year earlier (24%) closely followed by those in Queensland (23%). Residents of South Australia and Victoria had the lowest levels of mobility (16%). There are likely to be many factors that account for these different rates, including economic and lifestyle preferences. However, differences in population composition are likely to also have had some role to play. The high mobility rate for people in the Northern Territory was, for instance, partly due to the large number of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people living there (25% of the Territory's total population were Indigenous people in 2001) and the fact that Indigenous people generally have higher mobility rates than non-Indigenous people (26% compared to 19% in 2001 at the national level).

4.4 DIFFERENT ADDRESS IN 2001 THAN IN 2000



Source: Census of Population and Housing 2001. Data available on request.

ENDNOTES

1. Onyx, J. and Bullen, P. (1997), *Measuring Social Capital in Five Communities in NSW: An Analysis*, Working Paper No. 41, Centre for Australian Community Organisations and Management, University of Technology, Sydney.
2. Salvaris, M. and I. Wolcott (2002) *Community Participation and Planning in Surf Coast: Survey, February 2001*, Melbourne: Institute for Social Research, Swinburne University of Technology.
3. Both the one and five year mobility rates are limited to those persons for whom information about their usual place of residence (either one or five years ago) had been provided on the census form. The rates excluded people who were overseas visitors at the time of the census and those who were not born one or five years before the census. For more recent information about mobility, by remoteness areas, local government areas and other statistical areas see *Regional Population Growth, Australia, 2004-2005* (cat. no. 3218.0).

INTRODUCTION

Having trust in others to behave according to accepted social values and norms is a fundamental aspect of a well-functioning community and data which seek to measure levels of trust in others are recognised as being important to monitoring levels of social capital. One indirect measure of trust available from ABS surveys is people's feelings of safety while at home alone. Feeling unsafe might relate to fear of threat from other people, or to the possibility of not having someone else around to provide help in the case of a health-related mishap, such as a fall. In either case it might be expected that having close links with others in one's vicinity or having established habits of contacting others, for help if needed, could increase feelings of safety.

Trust and feelings of safety are listed under Norms in the Network Qualities dimension of the ABS Social Capital Framework, see *Information Paper: Measuring Social Capital, an Australian Framework and Indicators* (cat. no. 1378.0) (See Appendix 1). Feelings of safety may also relate to a person's sense of being in control, or sense of efficacy, which is also included in the Norms element of the Framework.

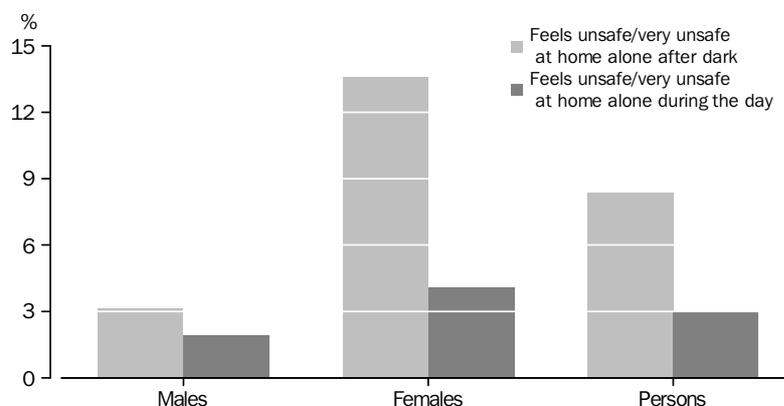
This topic examines trust mostly in terms of the proportion of people who feel unsafe (including 'very unsafe') alone at home after dark. Some data about feeling unsafe at home during the day are also provided. The data used here from the 2002 General Social Survey reveal substantial differences in feelings of safety among population subgroups.

FEELING UNSAFE AT HOME ALONE

In 2002, 8.4% of all Australians aged 18 years and over (or 1.5 million people) did not feel safe at home alone after dark. Women were far more likely to have felt unsafe or very unsafe (14%) than men (3%). Feeling unsafe at home alone during the day was less common than when at home alone at night. Three per cent of the population felt unsafe at home alone during the day. As with feelings of safety at home alone after dark, women were more likely to feel unsafe or very unsafe at home alone during the day (4%), than men (2%).

FEELING UNSAFE AT HOME ALONE *continued*

5.1 FEELS UNSAFE AT HOME ALONE, during the day and after dark—2002

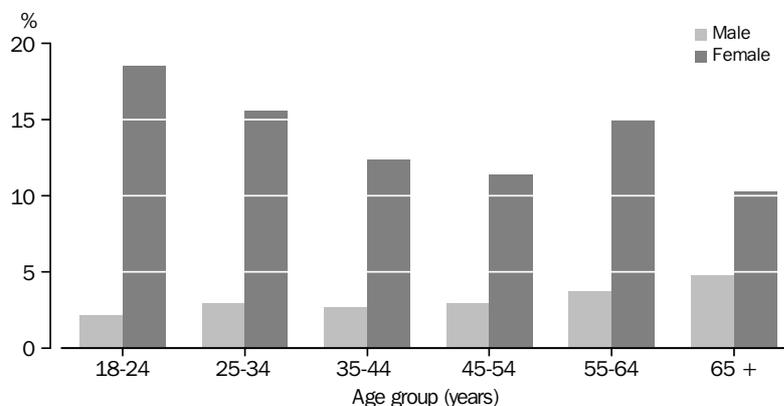


Source: General Social Survey, 2002. Data available on request.

SEX AND AGE

The proportions of women feeling unsafe are substantially higher than for men in all age groups but the differences generally narrow with increasing age. Based on results from the 2002 General Social Survey, the proportion of women who felt unsafe at home alone after dark was 19% for those in the 18-24 year age-group, and 10% for those aged 65 years and over, whereas for men it increased from 2% to 5% .

5.2 FEELS UNSAFE AT HOME ALONE AFTER DARK—2002



Source: General Social Survey, 2002. Data available on request.

EFFECT OF CRIME RATES AND VIOLENCE

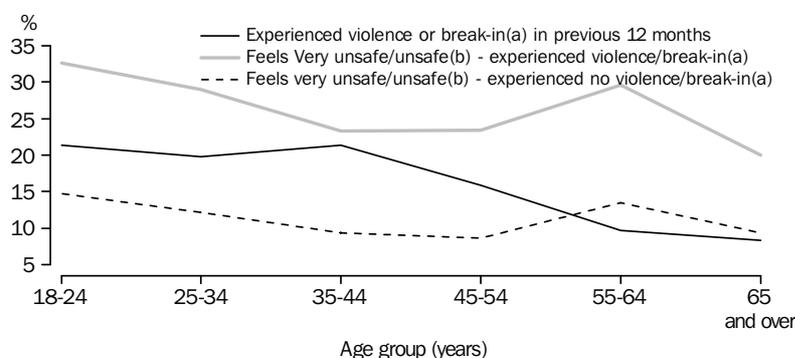
Differences in feelings of safety or lack of safety among people may be due to many factors. Those who have good relationships with neighbours may feel safer at home at night or during the day than those who do not. It is also likely that people's sense of their own strength and capacity to be in control would be a contributor to their feelings of safety. This factor may be important in helping to account for the differences between men and women and younger men compared to older men. Health may also affect people's feelings of safety. People who are healthy may feel safer than those in poor health since those with health conditions may be more vulnerable to a fall or collapse and less able to protect themselves. However, feelings of safety at home are also likely to be related to people's perceptions of crime levels in their neighbourhood area, or to their previous experience of household or personal crime. Since many experiences of

**EFFECT OF CRIME RATES
AND VIOLENCE** *continued*

violence occur within the home (for adults often from their partners), feelings of safety when home alone may sometimes relate to the threat of violence from partners or former partners.

There is, as might be expected, a strong association between the recent experience of crime and feelings of safety. In 2002, among women who had experienced violence (including threats of violence) or a break-in or an attempted break-in the previous 12 months, 26% felt unsafe. In contrast, among women who had not experienced such crimes in the previous twelve months the proportion who felt unsafe was 11%. For men the proportions were 7% and 2% respectively. So those who had experienced crime were more than three times more likely to feel unsafe than those who had not.

5.3 CRIME VICTIMISATION RATES AND FEELINGS OF SAFETY AMONG WOMEN—2002



(a) Actual or threatened violence, actual or attempted break-in.
 (b) Feels very unsafe/unsafe alone at home after dark.
 Source: General Social Survey, 2002. Data available on request.

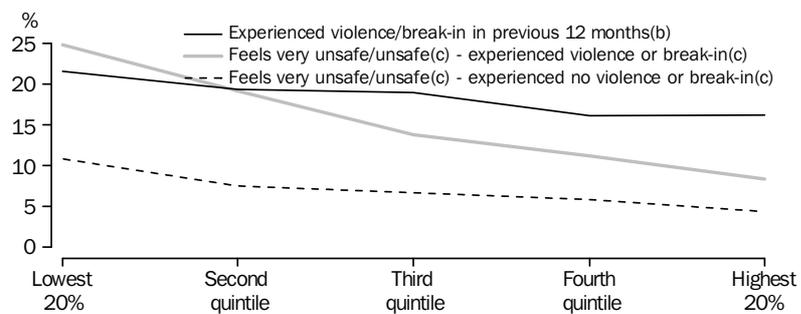
According to the 2002 GSS, the crime victimisation rates experienced by young women (those aged 18-24 years) were higher than for senior women (those aged 65 years and over). At the same time the younger women were also more likely to feel unsafe than the senior women and this was so regardless of whether they had recently experienced a crime themselves. The strength of the relationship between crime victimisation rates and feelings of safety among women was not consistent across all age groups: the rates fluctuated in opposite directions for some age groups. Interestingly, however, there was a fairly consistent age-related pattern in feelings of safety among women whether they had experienced a crime in the previous 12 months or not.

An association between feeling unsafe and crime victimisation rates is suggested when data is examined according to the socio-economic status of the areas in which people lived. According to the 2002 GSS, crime victimisation rates were generally lower for people who lived in the better-off areas when ranked by the index of socio-economic disadvantage. Among those in the most disadvantaged areas (the lowest quintile) the proportion of persons that experienced violence or threats of violence, or a break-in or an attempted break-in in the previous 12 months was 22% whereas, among those in the least disadvantaged areas (the highest quintile), the rate was 16%. Corresponding with this decline in crime rates as the disadvantage of an area lessened, the likelihood of feeling unsafe also declined. Once again, as expected, those who had experienced a crime were more likely to feel unsafe than those who had not, irrespective of the area in

EFFECT OF CRIME RATES AND VIOLENCE continued

which they lived. However, the decline in the proportion of people feeling unsafe as the disadvantage of the area lessened (and crime rates lessened) was more marked for those who had been a crime victim.

5.4 CRIME VICTIMISATION RATES AND FEELINGS OF SAFETY, Socio-economic status of area(a)—2002



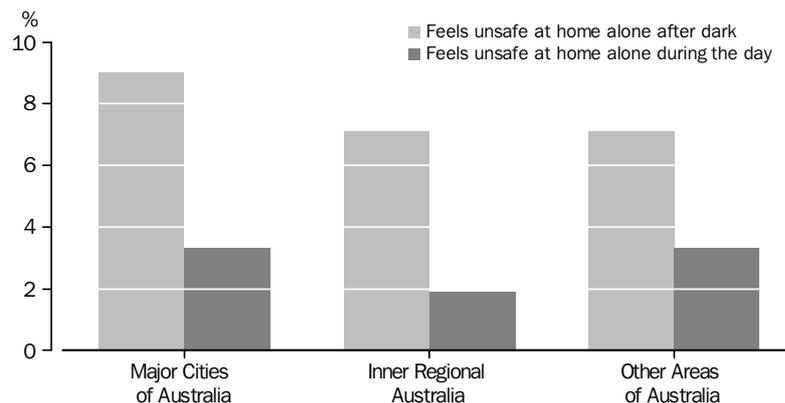
(a) Person's area of residence ranked according to the 2001 Census based Index of Socio-Economic Disadvantage. Greater disadvantage is at the lower end of the scale.
 (b) Actual or threatened violence, actual or attempted break-in.
 (c) Feels very unsafe/unsafe alone at home after dark.

Source: General Social Survey, 2002. Data available on request.

REMOTENESS AREAS and STATES and TERRITORIES

Feelings of safety do not vary greatly according to the remoteness areas in which people live. In 2002, people living in the major cities of Australia were slightly more likely to feel unsafe alone at home after dark (9%) than those living elsewhere in Australia (7%). In regard to feelings of safety at home alone during the day the differences were even less pronounced, with the proportions feeling unsafe ranging between 2% and 3%.

5.5 FEELS UNSAFE AT HOME ALONE, by Remoteness Areas—2002

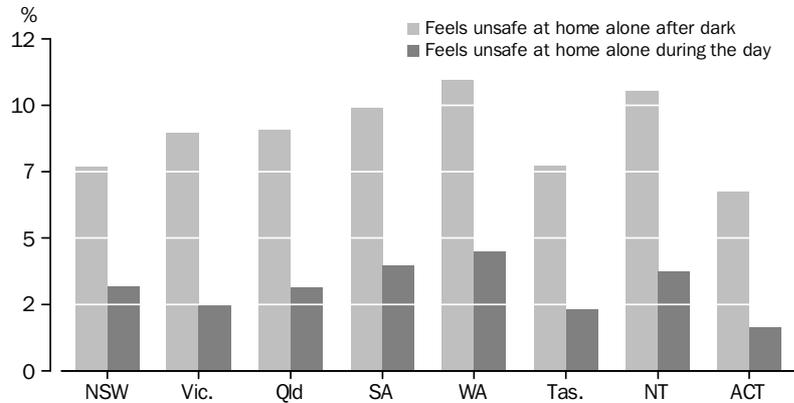


Source: General Social Survey, 2002. Data available on request.

The proportion of the population who feel unsafe varies across the states and territories. In 2002, Western Australia had the highest proportion of people who felt unsafe at home alone after dark (11%), and during the day (4%). The Australian Capital Territory had the lowest proportion of people who felt unsafe, with 6% who felt unsafe at home alone after dark and 2% who felt unsafe at home alone during the day.

REMOTENESS AREAS and STATES and TERRITORIES continued

5.6 FEELS UNSAFE AT HOME ALONE, by States and Territories—2002



Source: General Social Survey, 2002. Data available on request.

OTHER PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS

The proportion of the population who feel unsafe alone at home after dark also differs according to a range of personal characteristics other than age and sex. In 2002, people were much more likely to feel unsafe if they were in the lowest quintile for equivalised gross household income (13%), than those in the highest income quintile (5%). People in one parent families with dependent children (17%) and people born overseas (10%) were also more likely to have felt unsafe than people in couple families with dependent children and people born in Australia (both 8%).

Proportions of people feeling unsafe were higher among people who had a disability or long-term health condition (11%) than those who did not (7%). Similarly, people with poor self-assessed health status were much more likely to feel unsafe (17%), than those with excellent self-assessed health status (6%).

OTHER PERSONAL
CHARACTERISTICS
continued

5.7 FEELS UNSAFE AT HOME ALONE AFTER DARK, by selected characteristics—2002

	Male(a)	Female	Persons
	%	%	%
Equivalent gross household income			
In highest income quintile	*2.1	8.7	5.0
In lowest income quintile	6.5	17.2	12.6
Family composition(a)			
Couple with dependent children	3.0	14.1	8.4
One parent family with dependent children	*6.7	19.2	16.7
Birthplace			
Born in Australia	2.6	12.5	7.7
Born overseas	4.4	16.6	10.2
Labour force status			
Full-time employed	2.2	11.1	5.1
Part-time employed	3.0	11.8	9.4
Unemployed	*3.6	18.6	10.5
Disability status			
No disability or long-term health condition	1.7	11.3	6.6
With disability or long-term health condition	5.3	17.0	11.1
With profound or severe disability	*10.8	18.7	15.4
Self-assessed health status			
Excellent self-assessed health status	1.8	10.3	6.3
Poor self-assessed health status	9.5	25.8	17.4

* estimate is subject to sampling variability too high for most practical purposes

(a) Households may also contain non-dependent children but do not contain any other persons. Selected person may be a child 18 years or over.

Source: General Social Survey, 2002.

TOPIC 6

RECIPROCITY: ACCESS TO AND PROVISION OF SUPPORT

INTRODUCTION

Reciprocity refers to a potentially mutual action of giving and taking within any relationship between people, groups or communities. In the ABS Social Capital Framework, (see *Information Paper: Measuring Social Capital, an Australian Framework and Indicators*, cat. no. 1378.0, and Appendix 1), the norm of reciprocity has been identified as a network quality which contributes to social capital by enhancing the healthy functioning of networks. Many people take up voluntary work or give money to charitable, research and other organisations to give something back to their communities for support that they feel they have received or would receive if they needed it (see Topics 7 and 11). Support may also be provided directly to others, in the form of gifts or loans, helping with different kinds of activities, or emotional support. Where reciprocity is the norm, people are more likely to be able to ask others for small favours, and expect people's support in a crisis, in the knowledge that they would be prepared to do the same in return. This topic examines reciprocity in terms of perceived access to and the actual provision of support.

ACCESS TO SUPPORT

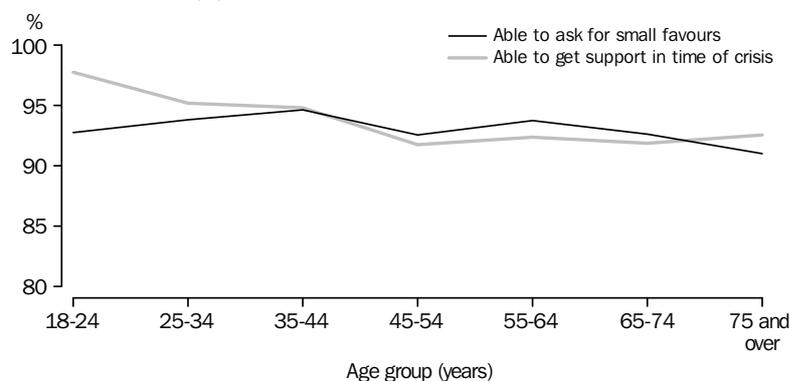
Two available measures of access to support are the ability of individuals to ask for small favours and the ability to ask for support in a time of crisis from others outside their own household. Data from the 2002 General Social Survey indicate that making minor demands of others for assistance is a difficulty for a fairly small proportion of people. Most Australians aged 18 years and over, felt able to ask for small favours, such as asking someone to look after pets, collect mail, mind a child, or help out during illness (93% in 2002). A similar proportion felt that they would be able to ask for support in crisis situations (94%). In 2002 people were much more likely to rely on informal support networks, such as family members or friends, than they were on formal support networks, such as community, charity or religious organisations, or health, legal or financial professionals, in a time of crisis. Crises can be of different types, thus requiring different types of support.

AGE AND SEX

There is very little difference in the ability to ask for small favours according to age and sex. In 2002, elderly people were least likely to feel that they could ask for small favours (91% of people aged 75 years or over), but the differences from those in younger age groups were slight. Men were less likely to feel that they had support available in a time of crisis than women (7% with no support in 2002, compared to 5% of women). Most people in each age group felt that they could ask for support in a time of crisis.

AGE AND SEX *continued*

6.1 PROPORTION OF THE POPULATION WHO FELT ABLE TO ACCESS SUPPORT (a)—2002



(a) From persons living outside the household.

Source: General Social Survey, Summary of Results, Australia, 2002 (cat. no. 4159.0).

Both men and women felt that they would be more likely to seek support from informal networks such as families, friends or neighbours, than formal networks in a time of crisis, although women were more likely to consider formal networks than men. The most common expected source of support for both men and women was family, followed by friends and neighbours. Women were a little more likely than men to think of family members as the source of available support (84% as compared to 81%). Possibly reflecting their higher rate of employment, men were more likely than women to see work colleagues as an available source of support (23% compared to 20%).

Family members, then friends, were the two most common expected sources of support for all age groups. People in the 18-34 year age range were much more likely than those in other age groups to turn to friends and work colleagues. Neighbours were more important as a source of support for the older age groups.

Middle-aged people (those in the 35-64 year age range) were more likely than those in others to look to community, charity and religious organisations (16%), health, legal and financial professionals (15%), and local councils (8%).

AGE AND SEX *continued*

6.2 EXPECTED SOURCES OF SUPPORT IN TIME OF CRISIS, by age and sex—2002

Source of support in time of crisis (a)(b)	SEX		AGE GROUP (years)				All persons
	Male	Female	18-34	35-64	65 and over		
PROPORTION (%)							
Family member	81.3	83.5	85.4	80.6	82.1	82.4	
Friend	66.5	65.8	75.9	66.6	43.5	66.1	
Neighbour	33.4	34.7	25.9	37.9	38.9	34.1	
Work colleague	23.3	19.8	29.0	22.8	1.3	21.5	
Community charity or religious organisation	12.3	15.6	11.6	15.7	12.9	13.9	
Health legal or financial professional	12.0	14.6	11.9	15.5	9.2	13.3	
Local council or other government services	7.0	8.4	6.9	8.4	7.3	7.7	
No support	6.7	5.3	3.8	6.9	7.8	6.0	
Total who could ask for support in time of crisis (c)	93.3	94.7	96.2	93.1	92.2	94.0	
TOTAL ('000)							
All persons	7 177	7 327	4 812	7 462	2 230	14 503	

- (a) Support from a family member, friend, neighbour or work colleague is classified as informal support, while support from a community, charity or religious organisation; health, legal or financial professional; or local council or other government services is classified as formal support.
- (b) Categories are not mutually exclusive.
- (c) Includes other, not specified.
- Source: General Social Survey, 2002.

REMOTENESS AREAS AND STATES AND TERRITORIES

In 2002, people in the major cities of Australia (93%) were slightly less likely to feel they could ask for small favours, than those who lived in inner regional or other areas of Australia (both 95%). The proportion of the population who felt able to access support in a time of crisis was also fairly constant across remoteness areas. Around 94% of the overall population in the major cities, inner regional and other areas of Australia felt able to access support in times of crisis in 2002.

While a similar proportion of people felt that they could have access to support in a time of crisis in major cities, inner regional and other areas, the importance of potential sources of support varied across the remoteness areas in 2002. People living in inner regional Australia and other areas were more likely than people in major cities to feel that they would use some type of formal support, especially community, charity or religious organisations.

RE MOTENESS AREAS AND STATES AND TERRITORIES
continued

6.3 EXPECTED SOURCES OF SUPPORT IN TIME OF CRISIS, Remoteness areas—2002

Sources of support (a)(b)	Major Cities of Australia	Inner Regional Australia	Other Areas of Australia	All Persons
PROPORTION (%)				
Family member	83.0	82.2	79.5	82.4
Friend	66.2	65.4	66.8	66.1
Neighbour	33.2	37.0	34.1	34.1
Work colleague	21.4	20.9	23.5	21.6
Community, charity or religious organisation	12.9	16.1	16.4	13.9
Health, legal or financial professional	12.8	15.2	13.5	13.3
Local council or other government services	7.2	9.1	8.5	7.7
No support	6.0	5.7	6.4	6.0
Total who could ask for support in time of crisis(c)	94.0	94.3	93.6	94.0
TOTAL ('000)				
All persons	9 930	2 819	1 754	14 503

(a) Support from a family member, friend, neighbour or work colleague is classified as informal support, while support from a community, charity or religious organisation; health, legal or financial professional; or local council or other government services is classified as formal support.

(b) Categories are not mutually exclusive.

(c) Includes other, not specified.

Source: General Social Survey, 2002.

Among the states and territories, people living in Victoria and New South Wales were least likely to feel either able to ask for small favours (92%), or that they could get support in a time of crisis (93%). South Australia, Western Australia, Tasmania and the Australian Capital Territory had the highest proportions of people who felt able to ask others for small favours (95% in each state or territory). The Australian Capital Territory had the highest proportion of people who could ask for support in a time of crisis (97% felt able to do so), followed by Tasmania (96%). (See Appendix 2 for further state/territory comparisons).

OTHER CHARACTERISTICS

In 2002 the proportion of the population aged 18 years and over who felt able to ask for small favours or to obtain support in a time of crisis was lower for people in the lowest quintile of equivalised gross household income, the unemployed, people born overseas and not proficient in English, people with a disability who were limited in self care, mobility or communication (core activity limitations) and people with self-assessed poor health. The proportion who felt able to ask for small favours was also lower for people in one parent families.

OTHER CHARACTERISTICS
continued

6.4 ABILITY TO ASK FOR SMALL FAVOURS OR SUPPORT IN A TIME OF CRISIS, Personal and other characteristics—2002

	<i>Felt able to ask for small favours</i>	<i>Felt able to ask for support in time of crisis</i>	<i>All persons</i>
	%	%	'000
Family composition(a)			
Couple with dependent children	94.5	95.0	4 644
One-parent family with dependent children	92.0	94.5	630
Birthplace			
Born in Australia	94.7	95.2	10 501
Born overseas	89.6	90.9	4 002
Born overseas and not proficient in spoken English	81.4	85.9	480
Equivalentised gross household income			
Highest quintile household income	95.9	96.5	3 057
Lowest quintile household income	89.6	90.0	2 639
Labour-force status			
Full-time employed	95.4	95.4	6 593
Part-time employed	94.1	95.8	2 697
Unemployed	87.8	91.1	568
Not in the labour force	90.6	91.4	4 646
Health and disability(b)			
Has no disability or long-term health condition	94.4	95.3	8 109
Has core activity limitation	88.8	89.2	1 185
Excellent self-assessed health status	95.1	95.4	3 713
Poor self-assessed health status	87.2	88.6	667
All persons	93.3	94.0	14 503

(a) In single family households. Households may also contain non-dependent children but not any other persons. Selected person may be a child 18 years or over.

(b) Aged under 65 years.

Source: General Social Survey, 2002.

PROVIDING AND RECEIVING SUPPORT

In addition to the measures of perceived support discussed in the previous section, the actual provision of support is also a useful measure of reciprocity. The following analysis looks at several such indicators: support to relatives living outside the household, helping others and caring for children.

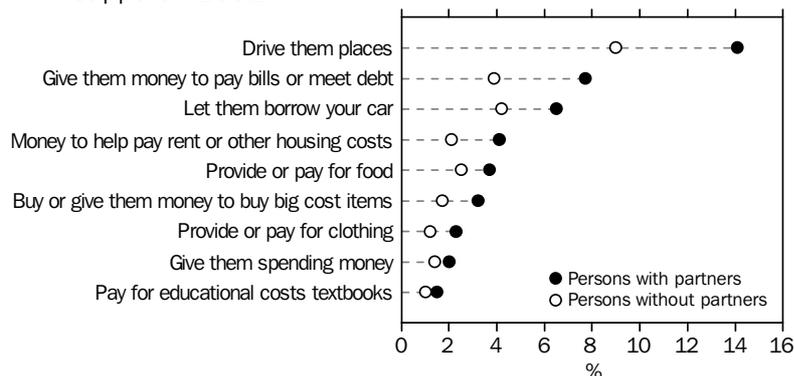
SUPPORT TO RELATIVES LIVING ELSEWHERE

In 2002, 27% of all persons aged 18 years and over reported that they themselves or their partners provided support to relatives other than their own children (aged 0-24 years) living outside the household. Among those who had a partner, the proportion who reported giving support to other relatives was 31%, whereas among those without a partner the proportion was 20%.

SUPPORT TO RELATIVES
LIVING ELSEWHERE
continued

Of all the types of support asked about, in 2002 the most common form of assistance to other relatives was with transport, such as driving them to places or letting them borrow a car. The most common form of financial support was to give money to pay bills or meet some other debts.

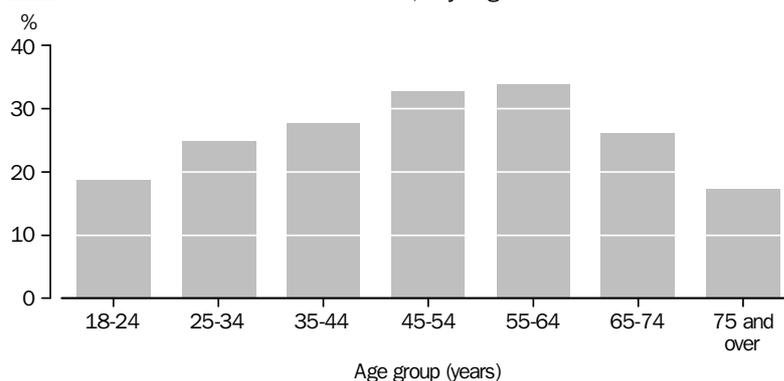
6.5 PROPORTION OF PERSONS PROVIDING SUPPORT FOR RELATIVES (a) LIVING OUTSIDE THE HOUSEHOLD, by type of support—2002



(a) Other than own or partner's children aged 0-24 years.
Source: General Social Survey, 2002. Data available on request.

Support provided by persons and/or their partners to other relatives outside the household varies considerably with age. The highest levels of support were provided by people in the 55-64 year age group (34%), and the lowest by those aged 75 years and over (17%).

6.6 POPULATION WHO PROVIDED SUPPORT TO RELATIVES (a) LIVING OUTSIDE THE HOUSEHOLD, by age—2002



(a) Other than own or partner's children aged 0-24 years.
Source: General Social Survey, Summary Results, Australia, 2002 (cat. no. 4159.0).

PERSONAL AND OTHER CHARACTERISTICS

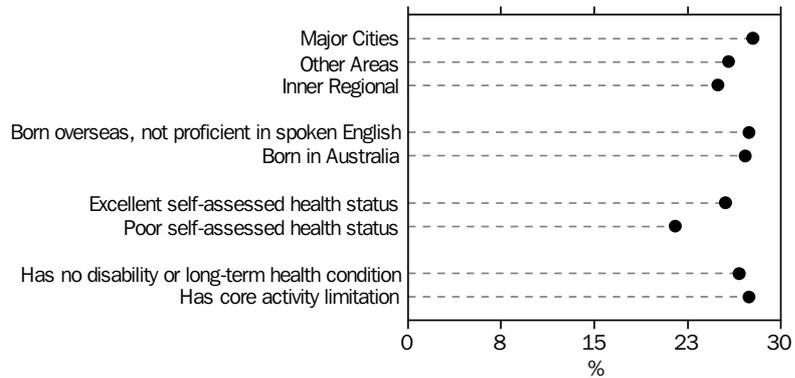
In 2002, the birthplace, English proficiency and disability status of people had little to do with the likelihood of providing support to other relatives living outside the household. However, support provided to other relatives outside the household was higher for those in self-assessed excellent health (26%) than those in poor health (22%), and

SUPPORT TO RELATIVES
LIVING ELSEWHERE
continued

PERSONAL AND OTHER CHARACTERISTICS *continued*

people living in major cities were also more likely to provide support to other relatives(28%) than people in the inner regional (25%) or other areas of Australia (26%).

6.7 PROPORTION OF PERSONS PROVIDING SUPPORT TO OTHER RELATIVES (a) LIVING OUTSIDE THE HOUSEHOLD, Selected characteristics—2002

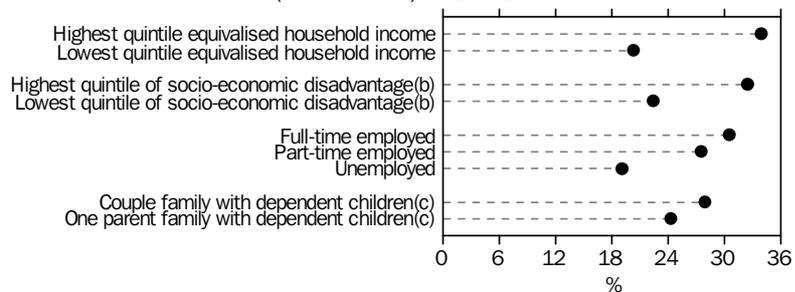


(a) Other than own or partner's children aged 0-24 years.

Source: General Social Survey, 2002. Data available on request.

Socio-economic factors influence the likelihood that a person or their partner will provide support to other relatives living elsewhere. For example, in 2002 only 20% of people in the lowest income quintile reported that they provided such support, compared to 34% of those in the highest quintile. Similarly, people living in the lowest quintile of socio-economic disadvantage (ie. the area of greatest disadvantage) were less likely to have provided support to other relatives (22%) than those in the highest quintile (32%). In addition those employed in full-time and part-time jobs (31% and 28% respectively) were more likely to provide support to other relatives than unemployed persons (18%).

6.8 PROPORTION OF PERSONS PROVIDING SUPPORT TO OTHER RELATIVES (a) LIVING OUTSIDE THE HOUSEHOLD, Selected characteristics (continued)—2002



(a) Other than own or partner's children aged 0-24 years.

(b) Person's area of residence ranked according to the 2001 Census-based Index of Relative Socio-economic Disadvantage. Greater disadvantage is at the low end of the scale.

(c) Households may also contain non-dependent children but do not contain any other persons. Selected person may be a child 18 years and over.

Source: General Social Survey, 2002. Data available on request.

TIME SPENT HELPING OTHERS

Helping others is often a spontaneous response to situations as they arise. It could be doing the dishes after dinner at a friend's place, helping a family member in another household concrete a path, bringing in a neighbour's washing when it rains, driving a friend to the railway station, doing some shopping for a grandparent or taking a neighbour's children to school, among a wide range of other helpful things. In 1997, the ABS Time Use Survey showed that persons aged 15 years and over spent an average of 61 minutes a week, just over an hour, helping others. Clearly, as this time is averaged over all persons, not everyone is involved on a regular basis, and some people would be spending much higher amounts of time in providing help.

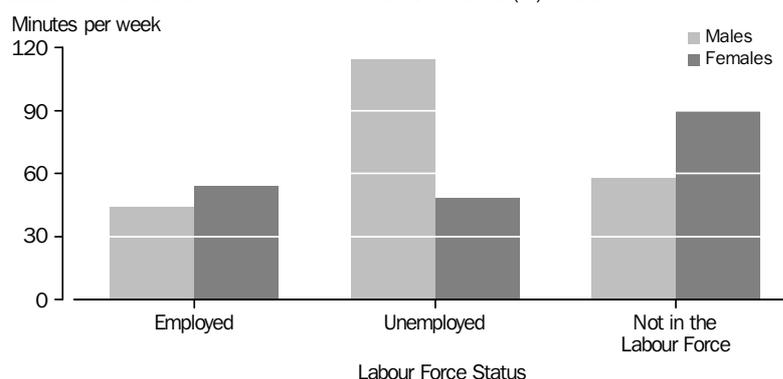
SEX AND AGE

Men spent 52 minutes a week helping others in 1997, compared with 70 minutes spent by women. Young adults, in the 15-34 year age group, averaged 46 and 51 minutes a week for men and women. Men aged 35-64 years and 65 years and over spent 55 and 59 minutes a week, while women in these age groups spent 80 and 85 minutes a week respectively.

LABOUR FORCE STATUS

Different groups of people have differing pressures on their lives, affecting the amount of time and other resources they have available to help others. In 1997, people who were employed spent on average 48 minutes a week assisting others. Employed men gave less time to this activity than employed women, perhaps partly reflecting the higher proportion of women working part-time. Unemployed men contributed almost two hours a week. Unemployed women, at 48 minutes a week, did not spend as much time as employed women (54 minutes a week) or women not in the labour force (an hour and a half per week) on helping others.

6.9 TIME SPENT ON HELPING OTHERS (a)—1997



(a) By persons aged 15 years and over.
 Source: Time Use Survey, 1997. Data available on request.

SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS OF AREA

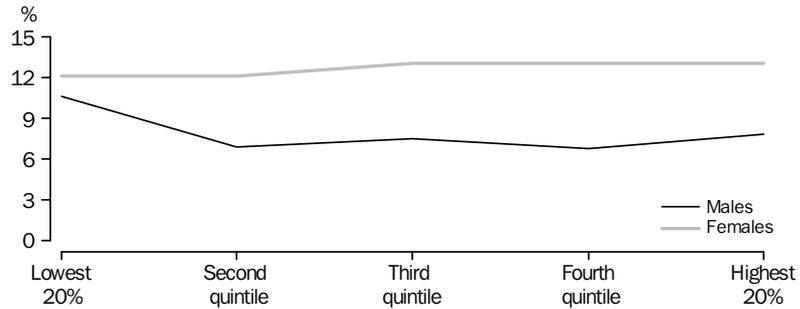
In 1997, the relative disadvantage of the areas in which people lived had little effect on the propensity of people to provide help to other people, with the exception of men in the most disadvantaged areas. The rate of helping others on an average day was much the same for women irrespective of the areas in which they lived (12% rising to 13%). In

TIME SPENT HELPING
OTHERS *continued*

SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS OF AREA *continued*

the 20% of areas with the lowest socio-economic status, 11% of men participated in helping others on an average day, while the rate for men in other areas was between 7% and 8%.

6.10 PROPORTION OF PEOPLE (a) WHO HELPED OTHERS, ON AN AVERAGE DAY (b), by Socio-economic status of area (c)—1997



(a) Aged 15 years and over.
 (b) Averaged over the seven days of the week.
 (c) Person's areas of residence ranked according to the 1996 Census based Index of Relative Socio-economic Disadvantage. Greater disadvantage is at the low end of the scale.

Source: Time Use Survey, 1997. Data available on request.

CARING FOR CHILDREN
FROM OTHER
HOUSEHOLDS

One of the forms of assistance to others that is very important at certain stages of family life is help with child care. Organised community or commercial child care meets some of the need, but this is also an area where relatives, friends and neighbours can make a contribution.

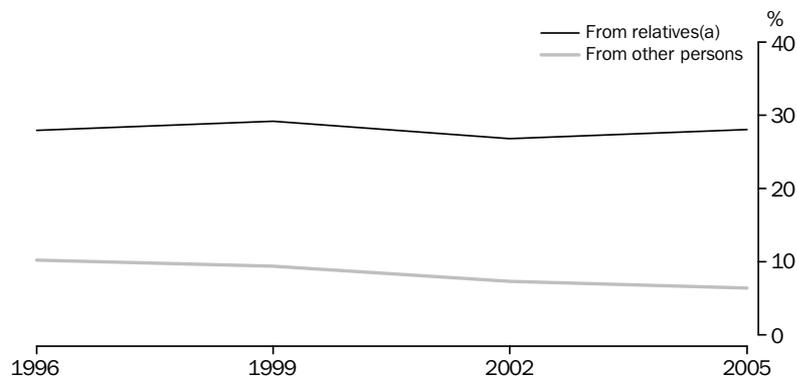
Data from the 2005 ABS Child Care Survey shows that, in the week prior to the survey, 1.1 million children aged under 13 years, 33% of all children in this age group, had received care, other than co-resident parental care, which was not delivered through organisational child care. Relatives provided care to 84% of children receiving informal care: grandparents were looking after 60% of these children, brothers and sisters 5%, and 22% were cared for by other relatives, such as a non-resident parent, uncles, aunts, cousins and in-laws. Other persons cared for 19% of children receiving informal care.

Care from relatives seldom involved payment – grandparents were paid for 3% of the children they cared for, and other relatives for 5% of the children to whom they provided care. The other people who provided care may have been privately employed for the purpose, or friends or neighbours providing support. That friends and neighbours were helping out is strongly suggested by the fact that there was no cost for 71% of children cared for by other persons, and that the weekly hours of care were relatively short (under 10 hours for 71% and under 5 hours for 49%). As well as regular arrangements, these could include occasional episodes of care, where parents call upon a friend or neighbour for help to cover an appointment or meet a situation that has arisen.

In 2005, the proportion of children aged 0-11 years who were cared for by relatives and other people was the same as in 1996, 28%. The proportion of children cared for by relatives had remained fairly stable over the ten years, within a range of two percentage points. Care provided by other persons has, however, become less common, declining from 10% to 6% of children between 1996 and 2005.

CARING FOR CHILDREN
 FROM OTHER
 HOUSEHOLDS *continued*

6.11 PROPORTION OF CHILDREN AGED 0-11 YEARS RECEIVING INFORMAL CARE—2005



(a) Other than from co-resident parents.

Source: *Child Care, Australia, 2005* (cat. no. 4402.0).

TOPIC 7

RECIPROCITY: GIVING

INTRODUCTION

One way people show their concern for others is through giving. Personal giving may involve spending time doing voluntary work (see Topic 11) or the donation of goods or money to others. However, giving may also be undertaken by businesses, through monetary donations, supporting community projects or by sponsoring people or events. This topic provides an overview of giving behaviour which relates to the Norms: Reciprocity and Common Purpose: Community Support elements of the ABS Social Capital Framework, see *Information Paper: Measuring Social Capital, an Australian Framework and Indicators* (cat. no. 1378.0) (See Appendix 1). It examines the proportion of both individuals and businesses that give to others within their local or broader community.

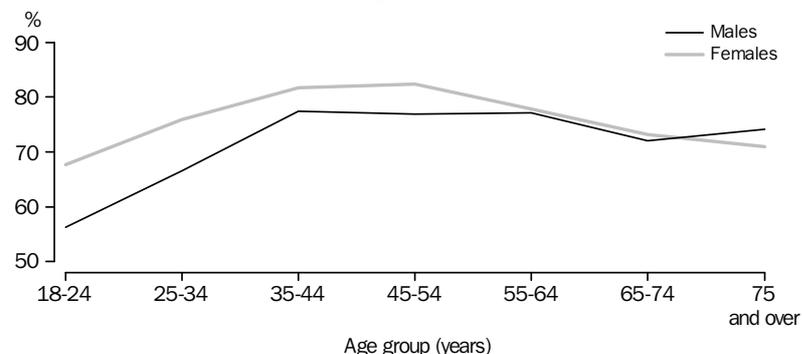
PERSONAL GIVING

People give money to support the work of organisations that provide community services, lobby for social or environmental causes, or carry out research into diseases or other issues of concern to the community. In 2000, the ABS Voluntary Work Survey showed that nearly three-quarters (74%) of Australians aged 18 years and over made a monetary donation, a slight increase from 1997, when 70% reported giving donations (Endnote 1).

SEX AND AGE

Women are more likely than men to donate money to others. In 2000, 77% of women, and 72% of men made donations and in 1997 the proportions were 73% and 66% for women and men respectively. At least two-thirds of adults in each age group made a donation in 2000. People in the 35-64 year age range had the highest rates of giving. This broad age range is associated with the peak earning years, so these people will tend to be in a better financial position to contribute to others. People in these age groups are also more likely to do voluntary work (see Topic 9).

7.1 DONOR RATES (a), By age and sex—2000



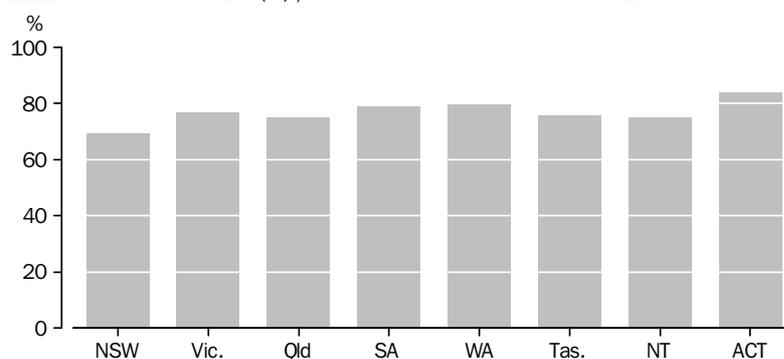
(a) Per cent in each age group who had made a monetary donation in the previous 12 months.

Source: ABS Voluntary Work, Australia, 2000 (cat. no. 4441.0).

STATES AND TERRITORIES

In 2000, people from the Australian Capital Territory (84%) and Western Australia (80%) had the highest rates of personal giving. The rate of giving in South Australia (79%) was nearly as high as the rate in Western Australia while New South Wales recorded the lowest rate (69%).

7.2 DONOR RATES (a), States and Territories—2000



(a) Per cent of persons aged 18 years and over who had made a monetary donation in the previous 12 months.

Source: Voluntary Work Survey, 2000. Data available on request.

VOLUNTEERING STATUS

People who had undertaken voluntary work in the previous 12 months were more likely to have made a donation than those who had not volunteered, (84% compared with 70%). This greater tendency for volunteers to donate money occurred for both men and women irrespective of their ages.

7.3 DONOR RATES (a), By volunteer status, age and sex—2000

	18-34 years	35-64 years	65 and over	All persons
	%	%	%	%
Volunteers				
Males	74.7	85.7	86.7	82.6
Females	80.1	88.1	86.0	85.5
Persons	77.5	86.9	86.3	84.2
Non-volunteers				
Males	58.2	72.6	67.8	66.6
Females	69.7	76.6	67.8	72.6
Persons	63.8	74.5	67.8	69.6
Total				
Males	62.4	77.1	72.8	71.5
Females	72.7	81.0	72.2	76.9
Persons	67.6	79.1	72.5	74.2

(a) Per cent of each group who had made a monetary donation in the previous 12 months.

Source: Voluntary Work Australia, 2000 (cat. no. 4441.0).

BUSINESS GIVING

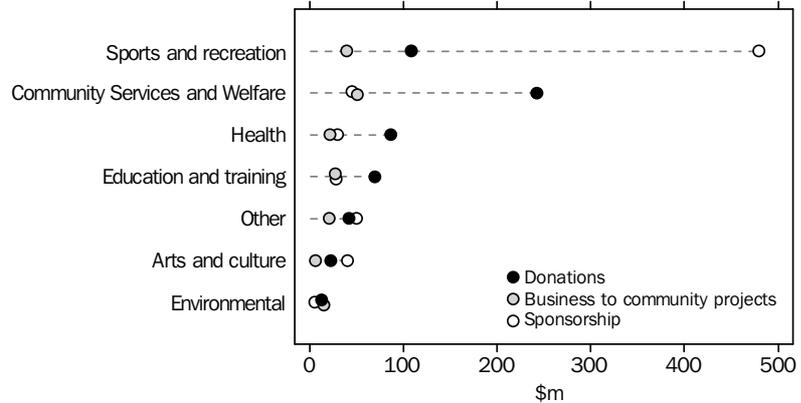
Businesses give to the community through donations, by supporting community projects or through sponsorships. The 2000-01 Business Generosity Survey shows that, in all, over \$1.4 billion was contributed to the community in 2000-01: \$679 million in sponsorships, \$586 million in the form of donations, and \$182 million for community

BUSINESS GIVING
continued

projects. Of the \$1.4 billion, 64% was given as cash (or cash equivalents), 16% as goods and 20% as services (Endnote 2).

A wide range of activities were supported by businesses, but the two major forms of giving were sponsorship of sport and recreation activities followed by direct donations to community services and welfare activities. Sport and recreation activities and community service and welfare activities were also the ones which attracted the greatest amount of support overall.

7.4 TYPES OF BUSINESS GIVING, By type of activity supported—2000-01



Source: *Generosity of Australian Businesses, 2000-01*, (cat. no. 8157.0).

Large and medium businesses were more likely to be contributors to giving activities of all types than small businesses. Large business gave more in sponsorship (\$427 million) than other types of giving (\$311 million), and contributed more to sponsorships/ community projects than medium and small businesses combined. Small businesses donated more in the way of direct donations in 2000-01, giving \$251 million to their communities.

BUSINESS GIVING
continued

7.5 BUSINESS GIVING, Type of giving and business size—2000-01

Size of business(b)	BUSINESSES THAT GAVE DONATIONS		BUSINESSES THAT SUPPORTED COMMUNITY PROJECTS		BUSINESSES THAT PROVIDED SPONSORSHIPS		TOTAL BUSINESSES THAT PROVIDED SUPPORT(a)
	% of all businesses	value \$mill	% of all businesses	value \$mill	% of all businesses	value \$mill	value \$mill
	Large	61.1	197.7	14.3	113.4	37.2	426.9
Medium	49.7	137.2	8.3	33.0	26.2	125.2	295.4
Small	34.8	250.7	3.9	35.9	10.5	126.5	413.2
Total	36.0	586.0	4.1	182.0	11.4	679.0	1 446.6

- (a) Through donations, support for community projects or sponsorship.
 (b) Business size is classified into three categories. A management unit with less than 20 employees is deemed to be a small business; a management unit with 20 or more, but less than 200 employees is deemed to be a medium business; and a management unit with 200 or more employees is deemed to be a large business.

Source: Business Generosity Survey, 2000-01. ABS 2000-01: Generosity of Australian Businesses (cat. no. 8157.0).

ENDNOTES

1. Australian Bureau of Statistics, *Population Survey Monitor, 1997*, cat. no. 4103.0, ABS: Canberra.
2. Australian Bureau of Statistics, *Generosity of Australian Businesses, 2000-01*, cat. no. 8157.0, ABS: Canberra.

INTRODUCTION

Cooperation is a shared or complementary action aimed at achieving a common goal. It contributes to building trust and understanding between people, which may result in a greater propensity for further cooperation. In the absence of trust and networks ensuring compliance, individuals tend not to cooperate because others cannot be relied on to act in a similar way (Endnote 1). There are, of course, many matters about which social cooperation is important to individual and community wellbeing. The *ABS Social Capital Framework Information Paper; Measuring Social Capital, an Australian Framework and Indicators* (cat.no.1378.0) identifies several possible indicators of cooperation, including cooperation related to the conservation of water resources and electricity, as being of interest (See Appendix 1). Since these are topics for which some data are available, they are explored here in further detail.

Conserving basic resources such as water or energy may not be in any one person's immediate interest, but has long-term benefits to the wider community and the individual in managing costs and in sustainability. Due to drought conditions experienced in many parts of Australia over the last decade, cooperation in the conservation of water resources has been a particular issue of concern. Another major environmental issue is the management of waste. The extent to which actions are taken to help recycle materials in the home is another useful measure of community cooperation.

Generally supported by people's concerns with environmental issues, state and territory governments regulate and provide incentives for energy and water efficient home building. Local governments regulate waste management, and in times of drought, the use of water. The development of such regulations and incentives, in themselves, reflect community cooperation but the willingness of people to respond to and comply with these regulations and incentives is also important. This topic focuses on people's attitudes towards consumption and conservation of water and energy and waste recycling /re-use practices in Australian households.

WATER USE

Australian households use water for many purposes, both within and outside the house. Water is used for cooking and drinking, for washing and cleaning, and outdoors for the garden and other uses such as filling swimming pools. In 2000-01, the average household water use per capita was 115 kilolitres(kL). This was higher than the usage levels recorded in both 1993-94 and 1996-97 when the consumption levels were 95 kL and 102 kL per capita respectively (Endnote 2).

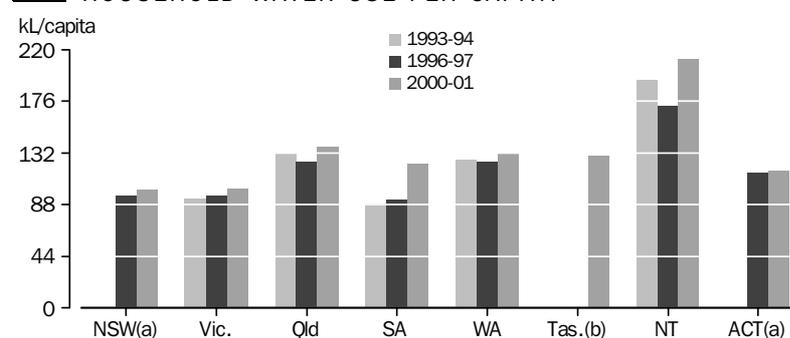
About 9% of the total water used in Australia in 2000-01 was consumed by the household sector. Agriculture was the largest consumer (67%), followed by households (9%), water supply, sewerage and drainage services (7%), electricity and gas supply (7%), manufacturing (4%), mining (2%) and other industries (3%). Most industries as well as households are developing an interest in reuse water, which is waste water that may

WATER USE *continued*

have been treated to some extent, and then used again without first being discharged into the environment (Endnote 2). Reuse water made up 4% of total water supplied by water providers in 2000-01, compared to 1% in 1996-97. Agriculture is the largest user of reuse water in Australia (Endnotes 2 and 3).

In 2000-01 the Northern Territory had the highest average household water use per capita (212kL), followed by Queensland (137kL) and Western Australia (132kL). New South Wales had the lowest average water use per capita (101kL). Climate plays a significant role in household water availability, and use, explaining some of the differences between states and territories.

8.1 HOUSEHOLD WATER USE PER CAPITA



(a) Data for 1993-94 for NSW and ACT not available for publication.
 (b) Data for 1993-94, 1996-97 have not been provided due to deficiencies in data quality for these years.

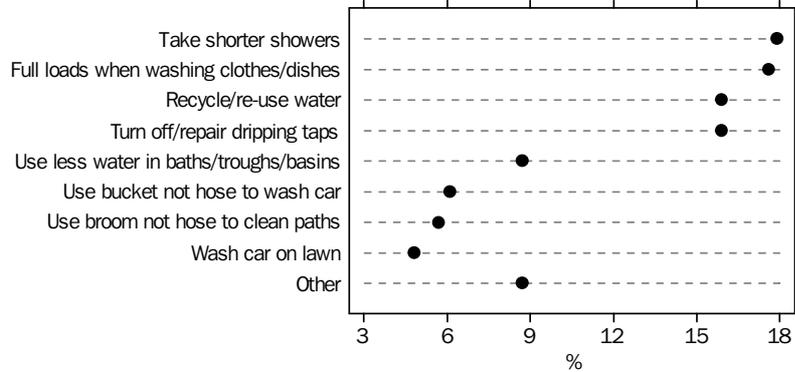
Source: *Water Account, Australia, 2000-01* (cat. no. 4610.0).

HOUSEHOLD WATER CONSERVATION

The impact of drought and water restrictions in many regions of Australia has resulted in an increase in awareness of the need for conservation. Data collected from households in the 2004 ABS Survey of Environmental Issues provides some insights into people's views and practices. Among strategies used by householders to help save water are the use of conservation devices such as dual flush toilets and reduced-flow shower heads (74% and 44% of households in 2004 respectively) and the adoption of water conservation practices, such as taking shorter showers, or using a bucket of water instead of the hose to wash the car (18% and 6% of householders in 2004 respectively). Among other types of conservation practices those more commonly used in 2004 included using full loads when washing clothes and washing dishes (18%), recycling or reusing water (16%) and turning off/repairing dripping taps (also 16%).

HOUSEHOLD WATER
CONSERVATION
continued

8.2 PROPORTION OF HOUSEHOLDS THAT USED WATER CONSERVATION PRACTICES, type of practice(a)—2004

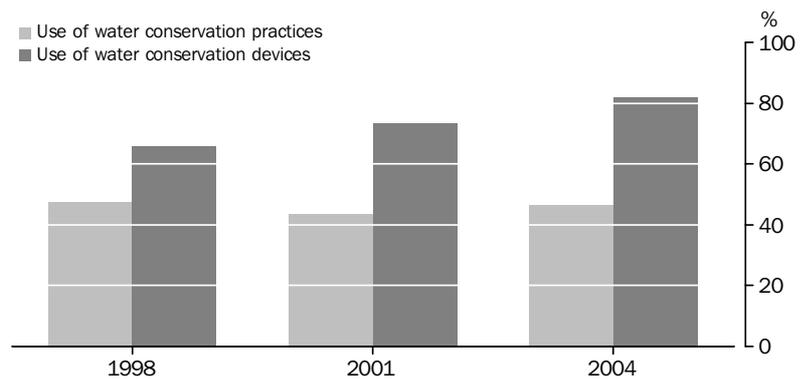


(a) Conservation practices used in and around the home.

Source: *Environmental Issues: People's Views and Practices, 2004* (cat. no. 4602.0).

Between 1998 and 2004 the overall use of water conservation devices increased substantially (from 66% to 82% of households) but the use of water conservation practices in and around the home remained the same (at about 47% in both 1998 and 2004). The major contributor to the increase in use of water conservation devices was the increased use of dual flush toilets (up from 39% in 1994 to 74% in 2004). The use of reduced-flow shower heads also increased (up from 22% in 1994 to 44% in 2004). In some areas of Australia the installation of water efficient devices is compulsory in new dwellings (Endnote 4; Endnote 5).

8.3 PROPORTION OF HOUSEHOLDS THAT USED WATER CONSERVATION PRACTICES AND DEVICES (a)—2004



(a) Use of water conservation practices and devices inside and around the home.

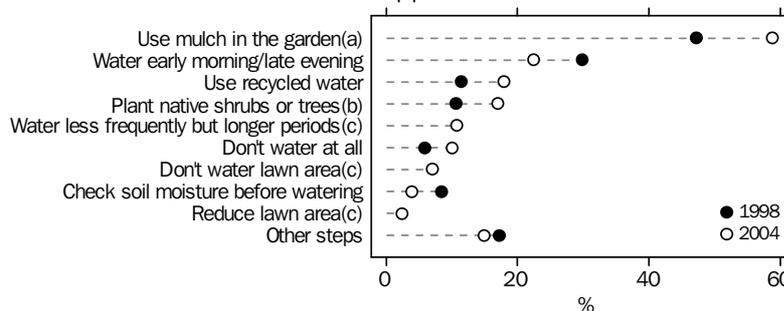
Source: *Environmental Issues: People's Views and Practices, 2004* (cat. no. 4602.0).

New designs and materials for tanks are encouraging people living in capital cities and towns to install water tanks to supplement their mains water supplies. In 2004, 9% of households in capital cities had rainwater tanks. Their use is also encouraged in some areas by state regulations and incentives.

IN THE GARDEN

In 2004, a high proportion of households with gardens (91%) took water conservation measures in the garden, notably using mulch to conserve water (59%), watering in the early morning or later evening (23%) and using recycled water (18%). Watering gardens by hand increased from 66% of households in 2001 to 71% in 2004. While hand watering and patterns of watering by time of day may reflect restrictions operating in different areas, the proportion using these methods indicates that households are increasingly complying. Mulching and using recycled water consciously as water conservation methods requires awareness of the need for sustainable practices and active cooperation.

8.4 PROPORTION OF HOUSEHOLDS WITH GARDENS, water conservation measures applied—2004



(a) Includes only those households which used mulch specifically to conserve water in the garden.
 (b) Includes only those households which planted native shrubs specifically to conserve water in the garden.
 (c) No data available for 1998.

Source: *Environmental Issues: People's Views and Practices, 2004* (cat. no. 4602.0).

STATES AND TERRITORIES

The use of water conservation devices among households increased in all states and territories between 1998 and 2004, much in line with the national trend. However, the proportion of households making use of water conservation practices in and around the home (excluding garden-related conservation practices) either declined or remained much the same in most states and territories. The notable exception was Victoria, where the use of water conservation practices among households increased by 9 percentage points, up from 47% to 56% between 1998 and 2004. As a result, Victorian households were the most likely of all state or territory population groups to make use of water conservation practices in 2004.

In 2004, the proportions of households that used water conservation devices and water conservation practices were almost the same in capital city and balance of state regions.

8.5 PROPORTION OF HOUSEHOLDS THAT USED WATER CONSERVATION PRACTICES AND DEVICES—2004

	WATER CONSERVATION DEVICES(a)			WATER CONSERVATION PRACTICES(a)			ALL HOUSEHOLDS	
	1998	2004	Percentage point change	1998	2004	Percentage point change	1998	2004
	%	%	%	%	%	%	'000	'000
New South Wales	57.0	77.8	20.8	49.1	44.3	-4.8	2 354	2 575
Victoria	72.4	84.1	11.7	46.5	55.7	9.2	1 723	1 911
Queensland	65.7	83.2	17.5	47.5	40.8	-6.7	1 281	1 498
South Australia	72.1	86.2	14.1	41.5	42.2	0.7	594	633
Western Australia	74.8	87.4	12.6	49.0	46.1	-2.9	689	782
Tasmania	61.6	74.1	12.5	43.4	44.0	0.6	187	197
Northern Territory(b)	70.3	81.8	11.5	49.9	33.1	-16.8	56	55
Australian Capital Territory	62.0	80.3	18.3	47.8	51.0	3.2	116	124
Capital city	67.4	82.1	14.7	45.9	46.9	1.0	4 293	4 773
Balance of State	63.1	81.8	18.7	49.6	46.2	-3.4	2 707	3 002
Australia	65.7	82.0	16.3	47.3	46.5	-0.8	7 000	7 775

- (a) Water conservation devices and practices used in and around the home.
- (b) Data refers mainly to urban areas.

Source: Environmental Issues: People's Views and Practices, 2004 (cat. no. 4602.0).

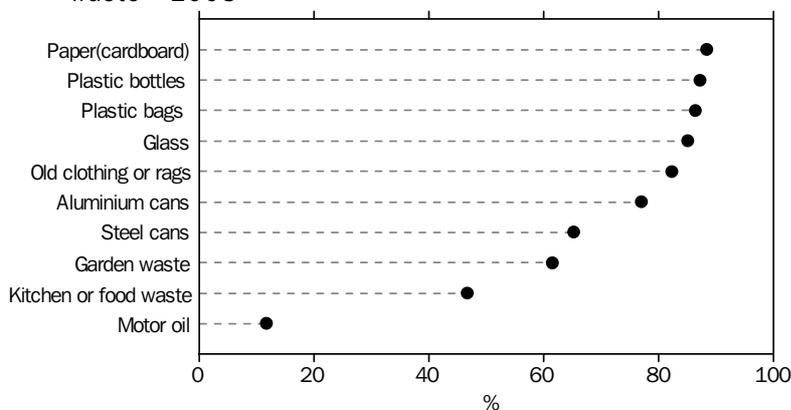
WASTE RE-USE AND RECYCLING

Consumption of many products by households produces waste that may either be re-used by the households themselves (e.g. re-using glass jars or plastic bags) or disposed of either for recycling or as final waste to be dumped or otherwise discarded. Recycling refers to the processing of products or materials into similar products or using them as secondary materials in producing new products. In Australia waste management strategies are represented in the waste minimisation hierarchy: reduce, re-use and recycle (Endnote 6).

In 2003, the ABS Survey of Environmental Issues found that the items that were most commonly recycled or re-used in Australian households were paper and cardboard, closely followed by plastic bottles and plastic bags (88% and 87% of households). Motor oil was the least commonly recycled or re-used item (12%) although this may reflect a smaller proportion of households directly needing to dispose of this item. The proportions of households making use of recycling and re-use strategies is used here as another indicator of cooperation related to conservation practices. While the ready availability of methods of recycling make it easier for households, willing compliance may be seen as an indicator of cooperation.

WASTE RE-USE AND
RECYCLING *continued*

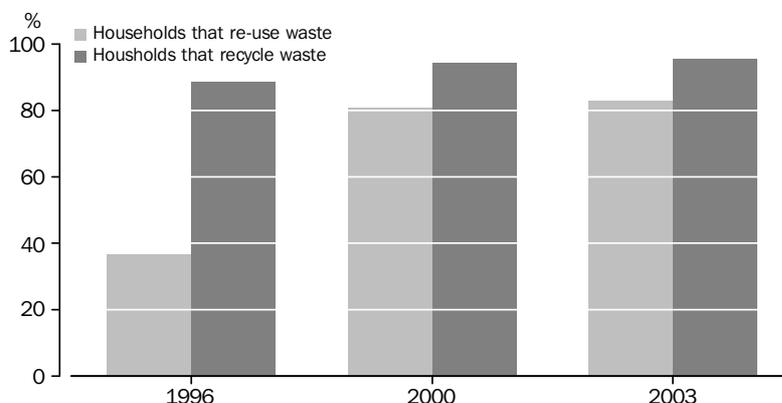
8.6 HOUSEHOLDS WHO RECYCLED/RE-USED WASTE, by type of waste—2003



Source: *Environmental Issues: People's Views and Practices, 2003 (cat. no. 4602.0)*.

Since the introduction of kerbside recycling in the early 1990's there has been an increase in the proportion of households that re-use and recycle waste. Between 1996 and 2003, the proportion of households that re-used waste more than doubled, increasing from 36% to 83%, and the proportion that recycled waste increased from 88% to 95%.

8.7 RECYCLING/RE-USE OF WASTE IN HOUSEHOLDS



Source: *Environmental Issues: People's Views and Practices (cat. no. 4602.0)*.

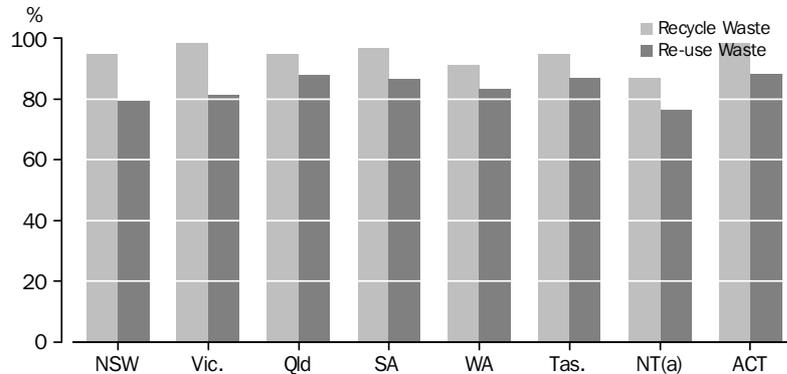
STATES AND TERRITORIES

The proportions of households that recycle and re-use waste has reached relatively high levels in all states and territories. For recycling, households in Victoria recorded the highest participation rate in 2003 (99%), closely followed by those in the Australian Capital Territory and South Australia (98% and 97% respectively). In regard to the re-use of waste materials, households in the Australian Capital Territory and Queensland had the highest participation rates (both 88%), closely followed by South Australia and Tasmania (both 87%). Both the recycling and re-use of waste materials were less common in the Northern Territory (87% and 76% of households respectively).

STATES AND TERRITORIES

continued

8.8 PROPORTION OF HOUSEHOLDS THAT RE-USE/RECYCLE WASTE, States and Territories—2003



(a) Data refers to urban areas only.

Source: *Environmental Issues: People's Views and Practices, 2003* (cat. no. 4602.0).

REASONS FOR NOT RECYCLING/RE-USING WASTE

Of the 7.2 million households in 2003 who reported that they recycled and/or re-used only some or none of the waste specified in Figure 8.6, the most common reason given in 2003 was that they did not have enough waste (74%). Other reasons given included: a lack of services, not having a storage area, inadequate services, uncertainty of whether services were available, or a lack of interest. Those who said that they were not willing to recycle or reuse their waste, or that they were not interested, represented 13% of these 7.2 million households.

HOUSEHOLD ENERGY CONSUMPTION

The largest contributor to greenhouse emissions by Australian households is home energy use, followed by transport and waste. Household energy consumption accounts for nearly 12% of the final energy consumed in Australia (Endnote 7).

There are a number of ways in which households can manage and reduce their energy consumption. For example, the impact of energy consumption on greenhouse emissions can be reduced by the use of alternative energy sources.

Solar energy was used by 5% of Australian households in 2005, based on data collected in the ABS Survey of Environmental Issues; this was the same proportion as in 2002. While in most states use of solar energy was low (6% or less of households), in the Northern Territory and Western Australia, 44% and 17% respectively of households used solar energy to heat water. The use of off-peak electricity in hot water systems has also increased from 30% in 2002 to 34% in 2005.

In 2005, 29% of households were aware of Green Power schemes, that is, the opportunity to purchase electricity at a higher cost than normal with the understanding that an amount of power equivalent to their energy consumption is supplied from an approved Green Power source. A very small proportion of households were actually connected to Green Power, but the numbers have been growing, from 132,000 in the first quarter of 2005 to 205,000 in the final quarter (Endnote 8). Among the households not connected to Green Power schemes, 24% were willing to pay more for Green Power electricity, a decrease from 26% in 2002.

HOUSEHOLD ENERGY
CONSUMPTION
continued

Insulation, energy saving lights and window protection are other measures of reducing energy consumption. The use of insulation increased from 52% in 1994 to 60% in 2005. In 2005, 57% of Australian dwellings had at least one room illuminated by standard fluorescent lighting, slightly down from 59% in 2002, and 33% of households were using other energy efficient lights, such as the newer fluorescent lamps designed to fit into a conventional light socket. Nationally there was an increase of other energy saving lights from 23% in 2002, to 33% in 2005.

Almost half (48%) of Australian dwellings used at least one measure to regulate heat through windows, thus reducing the power needed for heating and cooling. Outside awnings and/or shutters were the principal form of protection. The proportion of households using outside awnings, barely changed between 1999 and 2005 from 30% to 31%.

The data collected by the ABS suggest that energy consumption in households is driven more by the preference for comfort and convenience than by a desire to reduce energy (Endnote 7). The number and range of appliances used by households has been increasing. The most significant increase has been in the use of air conditioners in households from 33% in 1994 to 60% in 2005. However, there have been increases in the proportion of households using practices which help to reduce energy use. When replacing white goods, energy ratings as well as cost have an influence on households' decisions. For example in 2005, 44% of households that had purchased a washing machine in the previous 12 months considered the energy star rating, an increase from 39% in 2002.

One of the simplest ways of reducing energy use in the home is controlling the temperature of water used. When washing clothes, for example, most households (69% in 2005) used cold water, a slight rise from 68% in 2002. This continues a similar rate of increase over the previous 10 years.

HOUSEHOLD ENERGY
CONSUMPTION
continued

8.9 INDICATORS OF ENERGY CONSUMPTION, Proportion of households in States and Territories—2002 and 2005

	NSW	Vic.	Qld	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.
USE OF SOLAR ENERGY IN DWELLINGS (%)									
2002	2.8	0.9	6.2	3.1	16.1	0.9	52.5	4.1	4.7
2005	3.3	1.8	6.6	3.8	16.8	1.6	44.3	2.7	5.2
USE OF OFF-PEAK ELECTRICITY IN HEATING WATER (%)									
2002	45.9	20.2	37.3	29.3	0.5	8.5	0.7	25.1	30.4
2005	46.5	20.2	50.3	35.9	1.9	19.0	4.0	21.6	34.1
DWELLINGS WITH INSULATION (%)									
2002	50.5	72.1	36.2	75.7	64.5	68.2	42.3	80.4	57.5
2005	54.4	72.3	43.2	78.2	65.6	74.6	49.2	78.5	60.5
USE OF STANDARD FLUORESCENT LIGHTS (%)									
2002	55.2	54.1	75.2	51.7	58.9	42.3	86.1	47.9	58.6
2005	52.5	49.9	74.5	54.5	56.6	47.6	84.3	46.1	56.7
USE OF OTHER ENERGY SAVING LIGHTS (%)									
2002	23.2	23.8	22.8	24.1	25.3	15.9	19.8	26.2	23.4
2005	37.2	30.7	29.3	38.2	32.0	29.7	28.8	34.9	33.3
AIR CONDITIONERS IN HOUSEHOLDS (%)									
2002	43.5	52.9	38.5	79.6	59.0	10.3	89.3	28.9	48.6
2005	54.1	60.5	58.2	85.0	69.6	19.8	91.9	48.1	59.9
COLD WATER USED IN WASHING MACHINES (%)									
2002	71.9	58.8	77.1	62.2	63.1	66.3	76.8	65.6	67.8
2005	73.6	59.2	78.6	63.0	65.0	70.9	76.4	63.8	69.1
WARM WATER USED IN WASHING MACHINES (%)									
2002	19.1	27.9	16.0	24.5	27.2	24.9	15.5	24.4	22.1
2005	15.7	24.4	14.6	23.1	24.5	21.2	13.7	23.2	19.4
TOTAL HOUSEHOLDS ('000)									
2002	2 472	1 837	1 430	613	754	190	55	123	7 474
2005	2 590	1 916	1 532	643	789	196	55	125	7 847

Source: Environmental Issues: People's View and Practices, 2005 (cat. no. 4602.0).

ENDNOTES

1. Australian Bureau of Statistics, *Information Paper: Measuring Social Capital, an Australian Framework and Indicators*, 2004, cat. no. 1378.0, ABS: Canberra.
2. Australian Bureau of Statistics, *Water Account Australia*, 2000-01, cat. no. 4610.0, ABS: Canberra.
3. The increase in the proportion of reuse water use may reflect better reporting of volumes between editions of the Water Account.
4. NSW, Victoria and the ACT are the areas where the installation of water efficient devices is compulsory. Other states such as Western Australia and South Australia provide incentives to save water in the form of rebates for the installation of water conservation devices in particular rainwater tanks, dual flush toilets and reduced flow shower heads.
5. Australian Bureau of Statistics, *Australian Social Trends*, 2005, cat. no. 4102.0, ABS: Canberra.
6. Australian Bureau of Statistics, *Environmental Issues: People's Views and Practices*, 2003, cat. no. 4602.0, ABS: Canberra.
7. Australian Bureau of Statistics, *Environmental Issues: People's Views and Practices*, 2005, cat. no. 4602.0, ABS: Canberra.
8. National Green Power Accreditation Program report sourced from www.greenpower.gov.au/downloads/reportsaudits/2005QIReportfinal.pdf on 4/05/06

SOCIAL PARTICIPATION: SOCIAL ACTIVITIES AND ATTENDANCE AT CULTURAL VENUES

INTRODUCTION

Social participation, according to the ABS Social Capital Framework, refers to involvement in activities done for enjoyment, both formal activities, through organised groups, and informal ones, such as times spent with friends and family. Taking part with others in mutually enjoyed activities is a way of forming and maintaining relationships. It thus contributes to social connectedness and a sense of belonging, and can promote trust, cooperation and tolerance.

Social participation includes attendance, even if attending alone, at any of a variety of cultural venues or events provided by governments, businesses and interest groups in order to bring people together. Public meeting spaces for activities, events or ongoing cultural or scientific displays provide important contexts for people to meet and share in the life of the wider community.

This topic examines levels of participation in social activities in the previous three months and levels of attendance at culture venues and events in the previous year. In both cases the overall participation or attendance rates relating to a range of selected activities are provided, along with separate rates for each activity. Reference is made to characteristics of individuals and the areas in which they live as influences on social participation and venue attendance rates. As presented here, social participation includes both participation in sport and attendance at sports events. However, more detailed reference to participation in sport related activities, including involvement in voluntary work associated with sport, is also presented in Topic 10. The information for this topic is mainly drawn from the 2002 General Social Survey (GSS).

Social Participation is one of the types of Common Purpose in the Network Qualities dimension of the ABS Social Capital Framework (see *Information Paper: Measuring Social Capital, an Australian Framework and Indicators* (cat. no. 1378.0), and Appendix 1).

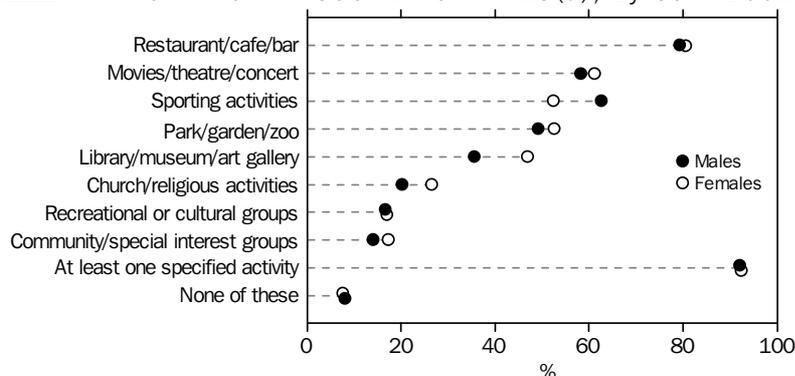
PARTICIPATION IN SOCIAL ACTIVITIES AND ATTENDANCE AT SELECTED CULTURAL VENUES

In 2002, 92% of Australians aged 18 years and over had participated in the previous three months in at least one of the many types of social activity specified in figure 9.1, such as going to a restaurant or cinema, or taking part in group activities. Many would have participated in more than one type of activity on multiple occasions. Also, 88% of all persons aged 18 years and over had attended one of the cultural venues listed in figure 9.2, such as libraries, museums or zoos, on at least one occasion within the previous year. Although the survey questions did not ask whether the respondent participated in activities with other people, it would be expected that many people who had participated in the listed activities, or who had attended the various venues, would have done so in the company of family or friends or, if not, were likely to have had opportunities to interact with others involved in the activities.

SEX AND AGE

In 2002 both men and women had the same overall participation rate in the social activities listed in figure 9.1 (92% had participated in at least one of the activities at some time in the previous 3 months) and they also had very similar participation rates for many of the separate activities. The most common activity for both men and women (79% and 81% respectively) was going to a restaurant, cafe or bar (which includes going to pubs and clubs). However, there were some noticeable differences for some activities. Women (47%) showed more interest than men (36%) in visiting libraries, museums or art galleries, and were more likely to participate in church and religious activities (27% compared with 20% of men). Men, on the other hand, were more likely than women to have taken part in sporting activities or attended sporting events (63% compared to 52%).

9.1 PARTICIPATION IN SOCIAL ACTIVITIES (a), By Sex—2002



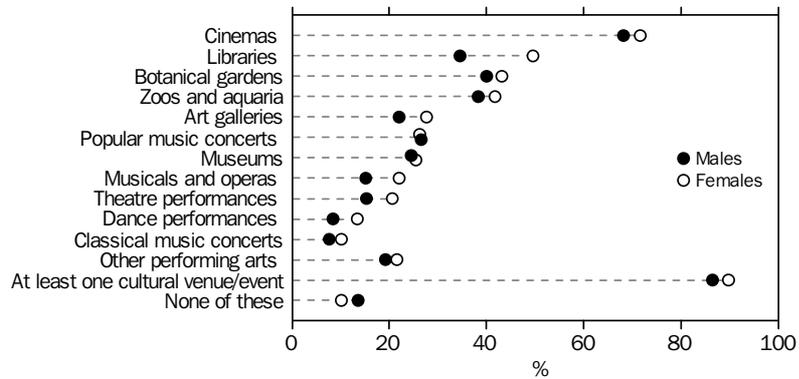
(a) In previous 3 months.

Source: General Social Survey, 2002. Data available on request.

Among the culture and leisure venues for which data were collected, going to the cinema was the most popular for both men and women, with 68% of men and 72% of women in 2002 having attended on at least one occasion in the previous 12 months. Consistent with the findings for the more common types of social participation by women described above, women were generally more likely than men to go to the types of cultural venues listed in figure 9.2. For instance, the differences in attendance at theatre performances, dance performances and at musicals and operas indicate that women were more likely than men to attend performing arts events. Women were also more likely (50%) to visit libraries than men (35%). A similar proportion of men and women had attended popular music concerts (27% and 26%) and museums (25% each).

SEX AND AGE *continued*

9.2 ATTENDANCE AT CULTURAL VENUES AND EVENTS (a), By Sex—2002

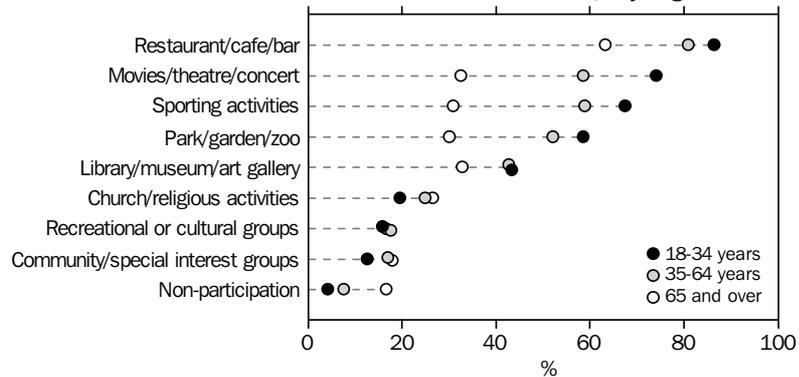


(a) In previous 12 months.

Source: Attendance at Selected Cultural Venues and Events, Australia, 2002 (cat. no. 4114.0).

Participation in social activities and in activities that involved going out to culture and leisure venues was generally higher for young adults than older people and for most activities participation generally declined with increasing age. The great majority of people aged 18-34 years (96%) had participated in at least one social activity in the previous three months, compared with 83% for those aged 65 years and over, and 96% of those aged 18-34 years had been out to a culture or leisure venue in the previous 12 months compared to 71% of those aged 65 years and over.

9.3 PARTICIPATION IN SOCIAL ACTIVITIES (a), By Age—2002

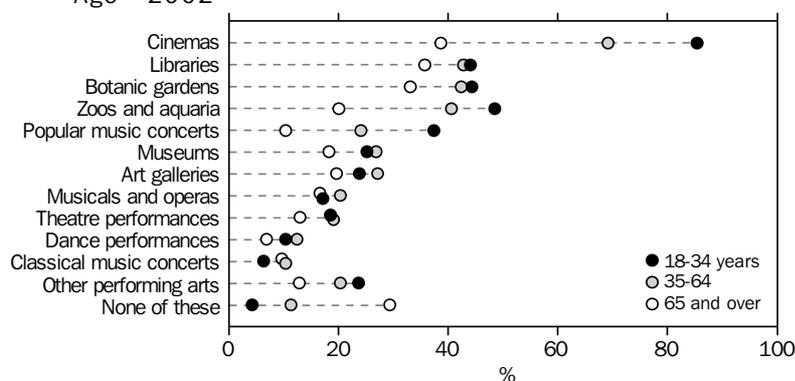


(a) In previous 3 months.

Source: General Social Survey, 2002. Data available on request.

SEX AND AGE *continued*

9.4 ATTENDANCE AT CULTURAL VENUES AND EVENTS (a), By Age—2002



(a) In previous 12 months.

Source: *Attendance at Selected Cultural Venues and Events, Australia, 2002 (cat. no. 4114.0)*.

This decrease in involvement by age was most notable for the category of activities 'going to the movies, a theatre or concert', which decreased from 74% for those in the 18-34 year age group to 59% for those aged 35-64 years and 33% for those aged 65 years and over. Much the same age pattern is seen for people when asked about their attendance at cinemas in the previous 12 months. The proportion of people playing sport or attending a sporting event, visiting libraries, museums or galleries, and going to gardens, zoos or parks all diminished substantially with age. Going to restaurants, cafes and bars also decreased in popularity with age, from 86% of young people aged 18-34 years to 63% for those aged 65 years and over.

Showing the opposite age-related pattern was participation in community groups and participation in religious activities. While the participation rates in both these sets of activities were relatively low compared to the other types of social activities for which data were collected, the rates generally increased with age.

REMOTENESS AREAS AND STATES AND TERRITORIES

In 2002, the proportion of the population who had participated in social activities in the previous three months, or who had attended selected cultural venues or events in the previous year, was slightly higher in Australia's major cities (93% and 90% respectively) than in other areas of Australia. For instance, in the remote/very remote areas the equivalent rates were 88% and 79% respectively. Among the states and territories the Australian Capital Territory had the highest rates of participation (98% participated in social activities and 95% had attended cultural venues) partly reflecting the younger age structure and the urban nature of the Territory. New South Wales and Tasmania had the lowest rates of participation in social activities (both 91%) while Tasmania had the lowest level of attendance at cultural venues (84%).

REMOTENESS AREAS AND STATES AND TERRITORIES
continued

9.5 SOCIAL PARTICIPATION RATES—2002

	<i>Participated in specified type of social activity in the previous 3 months</i>	<i>Attended a specified type of cultural venue or event in the previous 12 months</i>
	%	%
.....		
REMOTENESS AREAS		
Major Cities	93.3	89.6
Inner Regional	90.8	87.5
Outer Regional	88.3	81.3
Remote/Very Remote	87.7	78.9
.....		
STATES/TERRITORIES		
New South Wales	90.8	86.2
Victoria	91.7	89.5
Queensland	93.9	89.3
South Australia	92.2	85.6
Western Australia	94.1	91.1
Tasmania	91.1	84.3
Northern Territory	94.9	90.8
Australian Capital Territory	97.6	95.1

Source: General Social Survey, 2002.

OTHER CHARACTERISTICS

In 2002, poor self-assessed health, severe or profound disability and ranking in the lowest equivalised gross household income quintile were all characteristics associated with lower levels of participation in specified social activities and lower levels of attendance at specified cultural venues and events too. There was little difference between people in one parent families with dependent children and people in couple families with dependent children.

While people born overseas, when taken as a single group, had slightly lower participation rates in the specified activities than Australian-born people, there was a divide between those born in main-English-speaking countries and those born in other countries. The former had higher participation rates than the Australian-born, whereas the latter had lower participation rates.

9.6 SOCIAL PARTICIPATION, By selected characteristics—2002

	PARTICIPATED IN A SPECIFIED TYPE OF SOCIAL ACTIVITY IN THE PREVIOUS 3 MONTHS(a)			ATTENDED AT LEAST ONE CULTURAL VENUE OR EVENT IN THE PREVIOUS 12 MONTHS(b)			ALL PERSONS		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
	%	%	%	%	%	%	'000	'000	'000
Equivalentised gross household income									
Highest quintile	97.9	99.4	98.5	94.9	99.4	96.9	1 696	1 361	3 057
Lowest quintile	80.9	81.9	81.5	68.1	78.3	73.9	1 134	1 505	2 639
Family type									
Couple family with dependent children	94.6	94.9	94.8	91.5	94.8	93.1	2 491	2 420	4 911
One parent family with dependent children	95.4	91.5	92.3	91.3	91.5	91.4	145	602	747
Country of birth									
Born in Australia	92.3	93.1	92.7	87.1	91.3	89.3	5 098	5 403	10 501
Born overseas	91.2	90.3	90.8	85.0	85.8	85.4	2 078	1 924	4 002
Main English-speaking country	95.4	94.8	95.1	88.9	93.2	91.0	807	748	1 555
Other than main-English speaking country	88.5	87.4	88.0	82.5	81.1	81.8	1 272	1 176	2 447
Labour force status									
Full-time employed	95.3	96.4	95.7	91.5	95.1	92.7	4 415	2 178	6 593
Part-time employed	94.2	97.2	96.3	90.7	96.4	94.8	752	1 944	2 697
Unemployed	88.5	94.1	91.1	84.7	95.1	89.5	309	259	568
Self-assessed health status									
Excellent self-assessed health status	96.0	96.6	96.3	93.7	95.4	94.6	1 748	1 965	3 713
Poor self-assessed health status	73.3	73.6	73.4	60.6	62.2	61.4	344	323	667
Disability status									
Has severe/profound disability	76.8	78.3	77.7	67.1	66.8	67.0	298	413	711
Other disability/long-term health condition	89.5	90.6	90.0	81.3	87.0	84.0	2 589	2 458	5 047
No disability/long-term health condition	94.6	94.6	94.6	91.0	93.6	92.3	4 289	4 456	8 745

(a) See the activities listed in figure 9.1.

(b) See the activities listed in figure 9.2.

Source: General Social Survey, 2002.

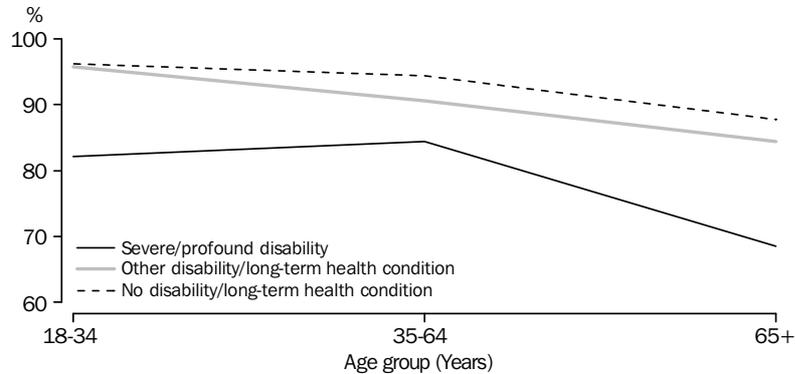
DISABILITY STATUS

Since older people are more likely to have a disability than younger people it might be expected that overall lower levels of social participation among people with a disability may largely reflect their older age profile. However, in 2002, participation in social activities was substantially lower for people of all age groups with a severe/profound disability than those without a disability. The difference was particularly marked for the 65 year and over age group.

DISABILITY STATUS

continued

9.7 PARTICIPATION IN SOCIAL ACTIVITIES (a), By age and level of disability—2002

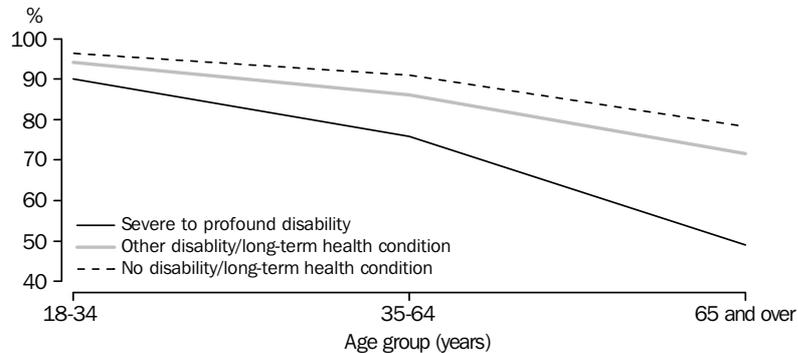


(a) In previous 3 months.

Source: General Social Survey, 2002. Data available on request.

Among people with a severe or profound disability, 90% of those aged 18-34 years and 76% of those aged 35-64 years had attended at least one of the selected cultural venues or events within the previous 12 months. These rates were lower than those for people who had lower levels of disability and those with no disability. For those in the 65 year and over age group, around half (49%) of those with a severe or profound disability had attended compared to 78% for those without a disability.

9.8 ATTENDANCE AT ANY SELECTED CULTURAL VENUES OR EVENTS (a), By age and level of disability—2002



(a) In previous 12 months.

Source: General Social Survey, 2002. Data available on request.

RELIGIOUS PARTICIPATION

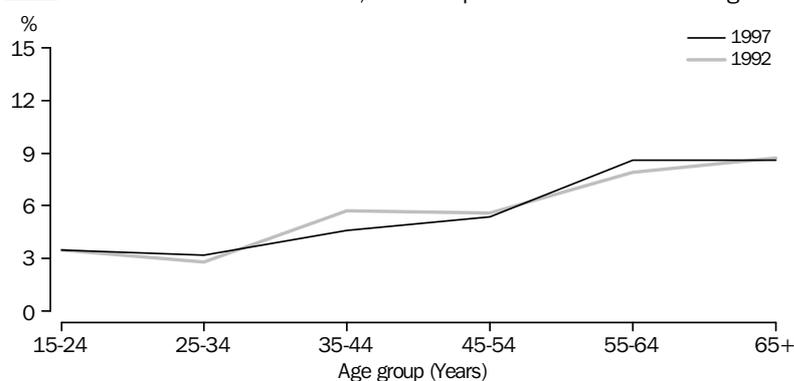
Participation in religious services (including church, mosque, temple, synagogue and other such places) or other religious activities, while providing a whole framework for living for many people, is also regarded as a social activity because of its role in bringing people together. Although 75% of people acknowledged a religious affiliation in the 2001 Census (see Topic 3, Cultural Diversity), a lower proportion actively participated in religious activities; in 2002, 23% of Australians aged 18 years and over had participated in church or similar religious activities at least once in the previous three months, involving 20% of men and 26% of women. Data from the 1997 Time Use Survey show that men aged 15 years and over spent an average of 31 minutes a week on religious activities

RELIGIOUS PARTICIPATION
continued

(including both congregational and private worship) and women spent 37 minutes a week. Active participants therefore spend much more time in activities related to their religion.

Age is associated with the likelihood of being involved in religious activities. In 2002, close to 20% of people in both the 18-24 year and 25-34 year age groups had participated in religious activities in the previous three months, rising progressively with age to 27% for those aged 65 years and over. Very similar patterns of religious participation by age (shown as participation rates on an average day) were recorded by the national Time Use Surveys undertaken five and ten years earlier.

9.9 RELIGIOUS ACTIVITIES, Participation rate on average day(a)

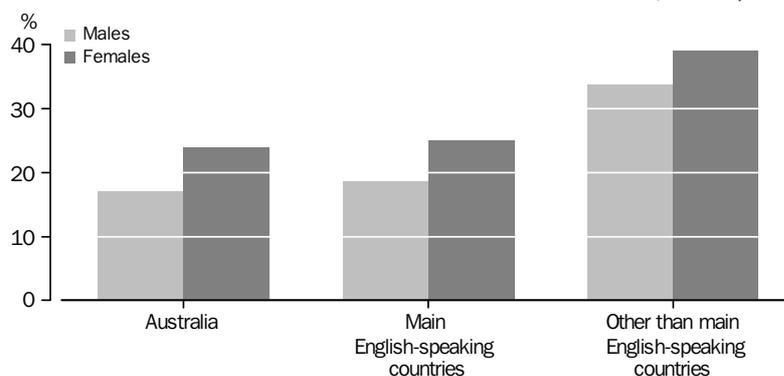


(a) An average day is a composite of the seven days of the week.

Source: Time Use Surveys, 1997 and 1992. Data available on request.

People who were born in Australia had a relatively low participation rate (21%) compared to those born in another country (31%). The main contributors to the higher participation rate among the overseas born were those people who had come from other than the main English-speaking countries (36%). As among Australian-born men and women, men from other countries were less likely than women from other countries to engage in religious activities, whether from the main English-speaking countries or not.

9.10 PARTICIPATION IN RELIGIOUS ACTIVITIES(a), Birthplace



(a) In previous 3 months.

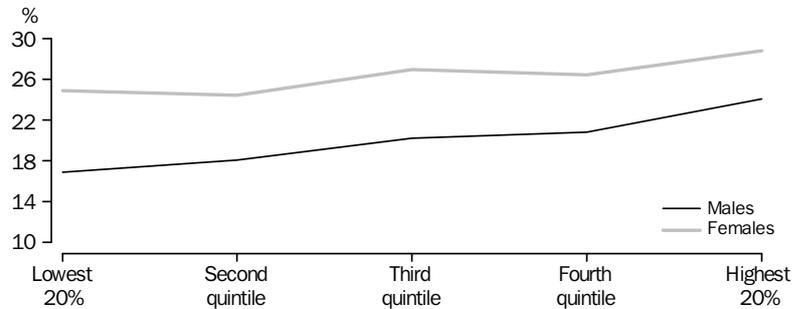
Source: General Social Survey, 2002. Data available on request.

RELIGIOUS PARTICIPATION
continued

In 2002, higher proportions of people in the major cities of Australia (25%) participated in religious activities than those living in inner regional Australia (19%) or in the more remote areas (21%). Higher participation in religious activities in the major cities may in part be due to the greater representation of overseas born people in the major cities (see Topic 3).

Religious participation also seems to be associated in some small part with the socio-economic status of the areas in which people live. In 2002, the participation rates increased progressively from 21% for those living in the lowest 20% of areas when ranked by the census area-based index of disadvantage (that is the most disadvantaged areas) up to 26% for those living in the highest 20% of areas when ranked by the index of disadvantage.

9.11 PARTICIPATION IN RELIGIOUS ACTIVITIES (a), Proportion of population (b) by Socio-economic status of area (c)—2002



(a) In previous 3 months.
 (b) Aged 18 years and over.
 (c) Person's area of residence is ranked according to the 2001 Census based Index of Relative Socio-economic disadvantage. Greater disadvantage is at the lower end of the scale.

Source: General Social Survey, 2002. Data available on request.

INTRODUCTION

Playing sport and taking part in other forms of physical recreation is often a social activity in which energies are focused on a common goal. Sport, physical recreation or exercise organised through a club or association provides participants with an opportunity of making or maintaining friendships, and developing extended networks. In addition to the physical benefits associated with physical recreation, it can also be a good way of keeping up with family or friends. Even doing physical exercise or recreation activities alone in public places may create opportunities for meeting like-minded people. Attending sporting events also provides opportunities for being with others or making new contacts.

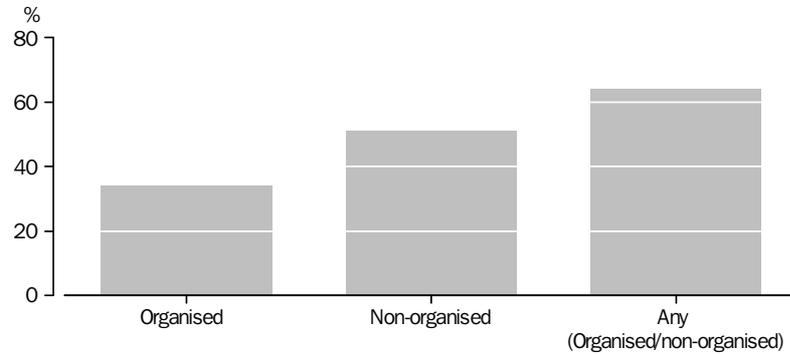
This topic examines participation in sport and sport related roles as well as attendance at sporting events, as elements of the Network Qualities dimension of the ABS Social Capital Framework. Playing sport and attending sporting events relate most specifically to the Common Purpose: Social Participation element of the Network Qualities dimension, while participation in sports-related roles (often undertaken on a voluntary basis) relate to the Common Purpose: Community Support element of the dimension. (See *Information Paper: Measuring Social Capital, an Australian Framework and Indicators*, cat. no. 1378.0 and Appendix 1).

PARTICIPATION IN SPORT AND PHYSICAL ACTIVITY

In 2002, close to two-thirds of Australians aged 18 years and over (64% or 9.3 million people) had participated, as a player or in a supporting role, in a sport or recreational physical activity in the previous 12 months. Most of these people had taken part in non-organised forms of sport or physical recreation (51% of all adults), but more than half (34% of all adults) had participated in activities that were organised by a club, association or other organisation.

PARTICIPATION IN SPORT AND PHYSICAL ACTIVITY
continued

10.1 PARTICIPATION IN SPORT AND PHYSICAL RECREATION (a), Proportion of population (b) by whether organised activity or not—2002



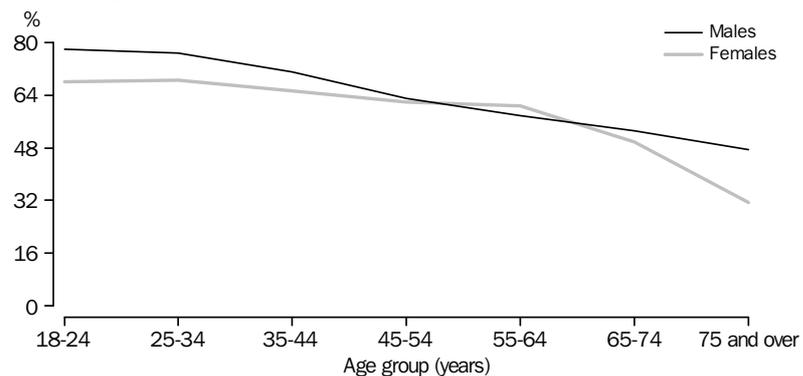
(a) As a player or in a supporting role.
(b) Aged 18 years and over.
Source: General Social Survey, 2002. Data available on request.

SEX AND AGE

Men (67%) were more likely to have participated in some form of sport or physical recreation than women (61%) in 2002. A smaller difference existed for organised sport, where 37% of men and 35% of women participated.

Overall, the participation rate in sport or recreational physical activities declined with age. Among men, those aged 18-24 years had the highest participation rate at 78%, while for women the highest rate was for those aged 25-34 years (69%). This compares with 47% among men aged 75 years and over and 32% of women in this age group.

10.2 PARTICIPATION IN SPORT AND PHYSICAL RECREATION (a), by age and sex—2002



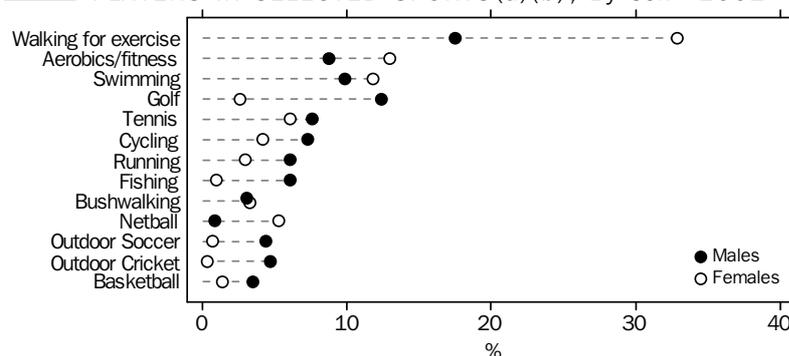
(a) As a player or in a supporting role.
Source: General Social Survey, 2002. Data available on request.

MAIN SPORTS AND PHYSICAL ACTIVITIES

For both men and women, walking was the most common form of exercise, although a higher proportion of women participated (33%, compared with 18% of men). Women were more likely than men to swim, take part in aerobics or fitness, and play netball, while a higher proportion of men than women engaged in golf, tennis, cycling, soccer, cricket and basketball.

MAIN SPORTS AND PHYSICAL ACTIVITIES
continued

10.3 PLAYERS IN SELECTED SPORTS (a)(b), By sex—2002

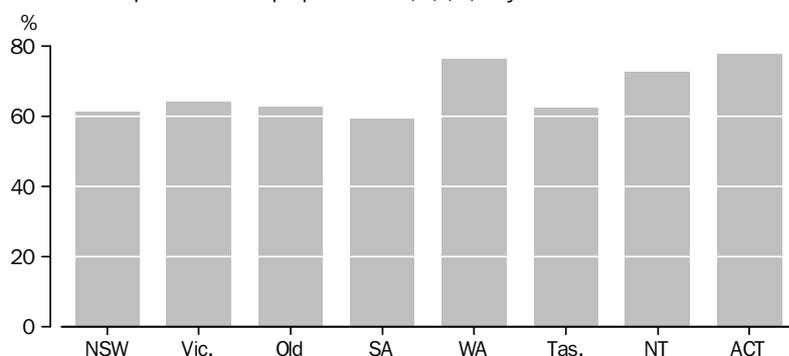


(a) Aged 18 years and over.
(b) Includes both organised and non-organised sports.
Source: *Participation in Sport and Physical Activities, 2002*, (cat. no. 4177.0).

STATES AND TERRITORIES AND REMOTENESS AREAS

In 2002 people in the Australian Capital Territory had the highest rate of participation in sport or recreational physical activities (78%), followed by those in Western Australia (76%) and the Northern Territory (73%). Sports participation was less common in South Australia, where 59% of the population participated in sport or recreational physical activities, the lowest rate in Australia.

10.4 PARTICIPATION IN SPORT AND PHYSICAL RECREATION, Proportion of population(a)(b) by States and Territories—2002

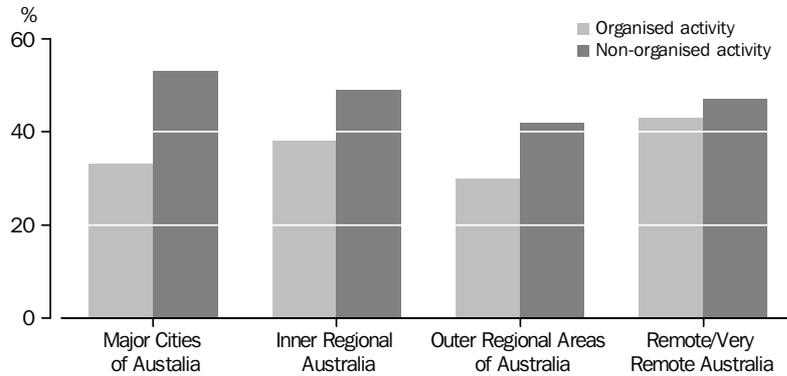


(a) Aged 18 years and over.
(b) Includes both organised and non-organised sports.
Source: *General Social Survey: Summary Results, 2002*, (cat. no. 4159.0).

In 2002 two-thirds of the population of major cities and inner regional areas of Australia (both 65%) participated in sport or recreational physical activities. A higher proportion, 68%, of people living in the remote/very remote areas took part in sport and physical recreation, and they also had the highest participation in organised sport (43%). As shown by a recent study set in the Northern Wheatbelt of Western Australia, in the more remote areas sports events bring people in from distant homes and provide a formalised opportunity for socialising (Endnote 1). The social relationships in these cases are often seen as the most important reason for participating in sport. These events generate local spirit (bonding social capital) or 'sporting tribalism' in relation to other towns; but they are also seen to play a bridging role within the community, transcending class, ethnic, religious or other barriers (Endnote 1).

STATES AND TERRITORIES
AND REMOTENESS AREAS
continued

10.5 PARTICIPATION IN SPORT AND PHYSICAL RECREATION,
Proportion of population(a) by Remoteness Areas—2002



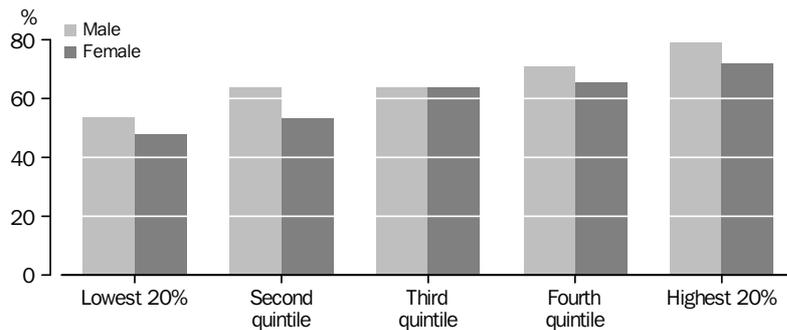
(a) Aged 18 years and over.
Source: General Social Survey, 2002. Data available on request.

SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS
AND OTHER
CHARACTERISTICS

In addition to the influences of demographic characteristics and where people live, factors such as socio-economic status and health are also related to participation in sport and physical recreation.

Sports participation generally relates inversely to the level of socio-economic disadvantage of the areas in which people live, with the lowest participation being in areas of greatest disadvantage. Many factors may contribute to this, including preference, the cost of some sports, access difficulties or insufficient local recreational facilities.

10.6 PARTICIPATION IN SPORT AND PHYSICAL RECREATION,
Proportion of population(a) by Socio-economic status of area(b)—2002

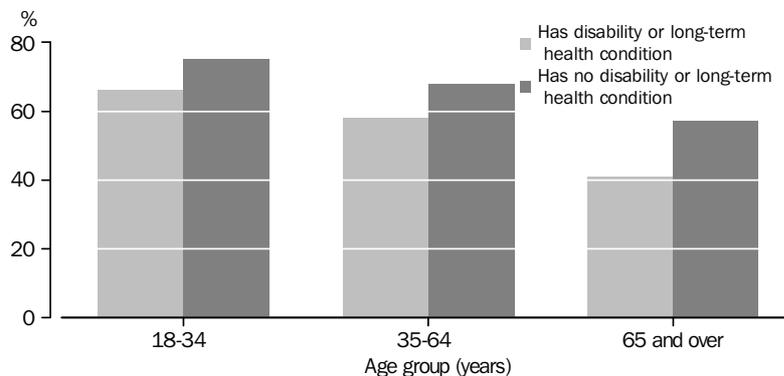


(a) Aged 18 years and over.
(b) Person's area of residence ranked according to the 2001 Census based Index of Relative Socio-economic Disadvantage. Greater disadvantage is at the lower end of the scale.
Source: General Social Survey, 2002. Data available on request.

Having a disability affects participation in sport. In 2002 people who had a disability or long-term health condition were less likely (55%) to have participated in sport or recreational physical activities in the previous twelve months than those who did not have a disability or long-term health condition (70%). This difference existed irrespective of age, but was greatest for people aged 65 and over.

SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS
AND OTHER
CHARACTERISTICS
continued

10.7 PARTICIPATION IN SPORT AND PHYSICAL RECREATION (a), By Disability Status and Age Group—2002



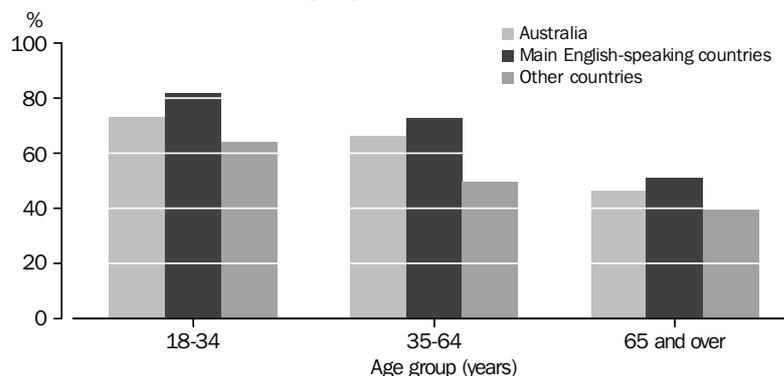
(a) As a player or in a supporting role.

Source: General Social Survey, 2002. Data available on request.

PARTICIPATION BY
COUNTRY OF BIRTH

The Australian-born did not have the highest participation rate in sport and recreational activities (66%). Those who migrated to Australia from the main English-speaking countries had a higher rate of involvement (71%), but those who were born in other countries were less likely to participate (51%). The involvement in organised activities by those born in countries other than the main English-speaking ones (19%) was lower than the 37% of people born in Australia, and 35% of those from main English-speaking countries. The different age profiles of the Australian-born and overseas-born populations does not explain the differences in the participation rates in sport and physical recreation. The participation rates were lower for people from overseas countries other than the main English-speaking countries, in all age groups and particularly in the 35-64 year group.

10.8 PARTICIPATION IN SPORT AND PHYSICAL RECREATION (a), By Birthplace and Age group—2002



(a) As a player or in a supportive role.

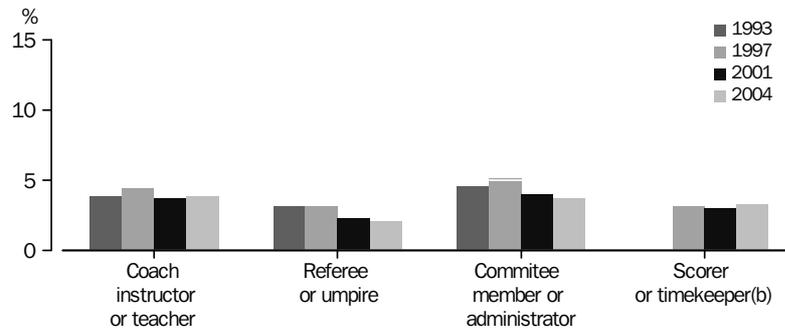
Source: General Social Survey, 2002. Data available on request.

ROLES IN SPORT PARTICIPATION

Organised sports provide both players and non-players with opportunities to help out with organisational matters. Apart from the elite levels, most organised sport in Australia depends heavily on volunteers, creating opportunities for others in the community to participate. There are many support roles that may be taken – coaches, instructors, referees/umpires, scorers, timekeepers, medical support, as well as organisers and committee members.

In 2004, 10% of Australia's population aged 15 years or over had participated, often as a volunteer, in sports/recreation organisations in roles other than as a player at some time over the previous 12 months. The three most common types of roles taken were as a coach-instructor, a committee member and a scorer-timekeeper. Levels of participation in these support roles have been similar over the last decade. Men were more likely than women to participate in each of these roles, except scorer/timekeeper.

10.9 NON-PLAYING INVOLVEMENT (a) IN SPORT AND PHYSICAL ACTIVITY



(a) Persons aged 15 years and over involved in non-playing role in organised sports. These persons may be players as well.
 (b) Data not separately available for these roles in 1993.

Source: *Involvement in Organised Sport and Physical Activity, 2004*, (cat. no. 6285.0).

ATTENDANCE AT SPORTING EVENTS

Sports events often foster a strong sense of belonging to a community, particularly where people follow their local teams. However, team allegiances may also lead to tension (even violent conflict) among the supporters of opposing sides and potentially, through their extended networks lead to diminished trust and cooperation.

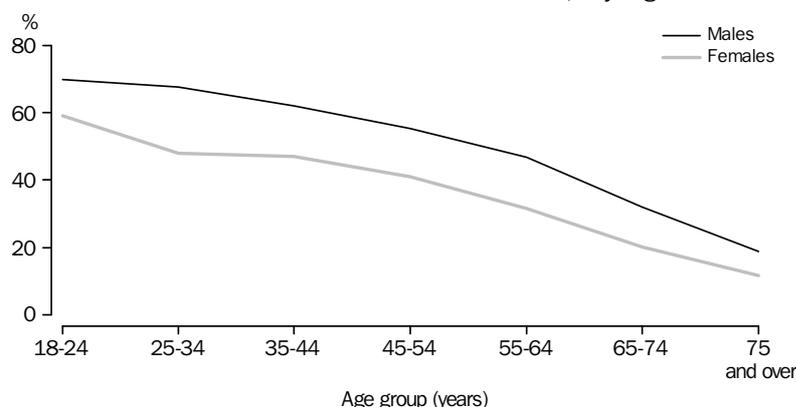
In 2002, almost half of the adult population (48%) had attended a sporting event in the previous 12 months. However, as might be expected there were differences in attendance patterns among population sub-groups, including men and women, people of different ages and people of different socio-economic status groups.

SEX AND AGE

Men are more likely to attend sporting events than women (56% and 41%, respectively, in 2002), and for both attendance declines with age. Of those in the 18-24 year age group, 65% attended sporting events, in comparison to 15% of those 75 years and over.

SEX AND AGE *continued*

10.10 ATTENDANCE AT SPORTING EVENTS, By age and sex—2002

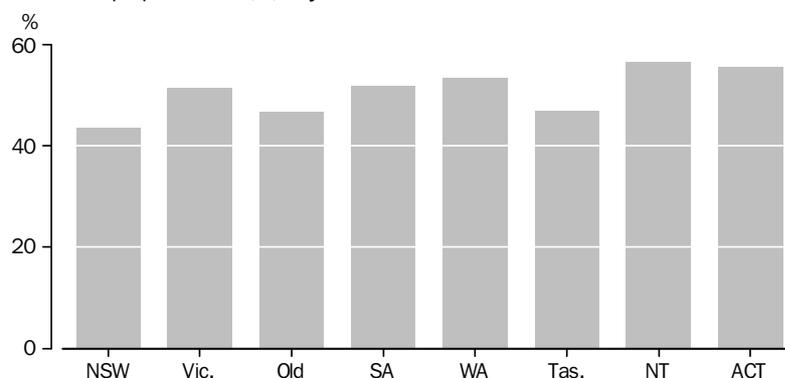


Source: General Social Survey, Summary of Results, Australia, 2002 (cat. no. 4159.0).

STATES AND TERRITORIES AND REMOTENESS AREAS

In 2002 people in the Northern Territory had the highest rate of attendance at sporting events (57%), followed by those in the Australian Capital Territory (56%) and Western Australia (54%). Of the remaining states, people in New South Wales had the lowest rate of attendance (44%).

10.11 ATTENDANCE AT SPORTING EVENTS, Proportion of population(a) by States and Territories—2002



(a) Aged 18 years and over.

Source: General Social Survey, 2002. Data available on request.

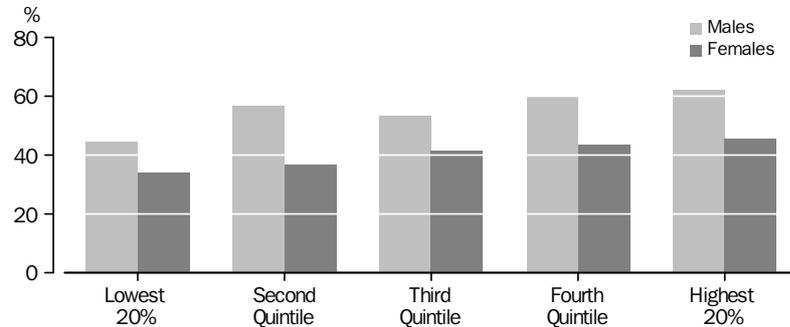
As with sports participation, and for similar reasons, attendance at sporting events was higher in remote and very remote areas (56%). Close to half of the adult population of major cities (48%), inner regional (50%) and outer regional (47%) areas of Australia had attended a sporting event in the previous 12 months.

SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS OF AREA AND OTHER CHARACTERISTICS

As with sports participation, attendance at sports events generally relates inversely to the level of socio-economic disadvantage of the area inhabited. People living in the highest quintile areas, or areas of least socio-economic disadvantage, were more likely to have attended sporting events in 2002 than those living in the areas of greatest disadvantage.

SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS
OF AREA AND OTHER
CHARACTERISTICS
continued

10.12 ATTENDANCE AT SPORTING EVENTS, Proportion of population(a)—By Sex and Socio-economic status of area(b)—2002



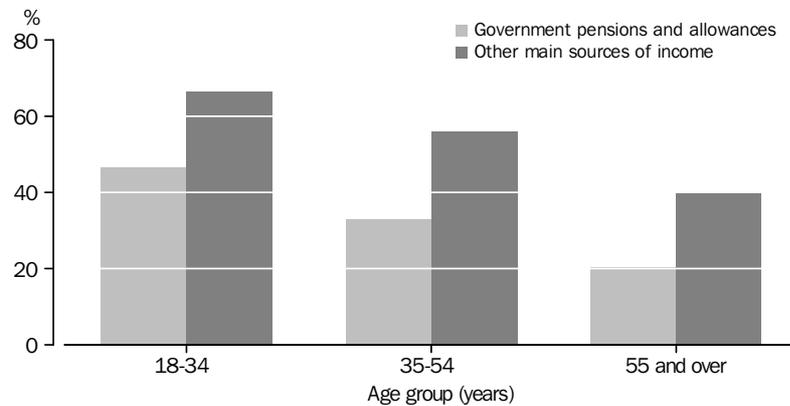
(a) Aged 18 years and over.

(b) Person's area of residence ranked according to the 2001 Census based Index of Relative Socio-economic Disadvantage. Greater disadvantage is at the low end of scale.

Source: General Social Survey, 2002. Data available on request.

Having lower income may be a barrier to attendance at sporting events. In 2002 a considerably lower proportion of people who received government pensions and allowances as their main source of household income went to sporting events, compared with those who were mainly dependent on other sources of household income. This pattern was the same across age groups.

10.13 ATTENDANCE AT SPORTING EVENTS, By Age and Main source of household income—2002

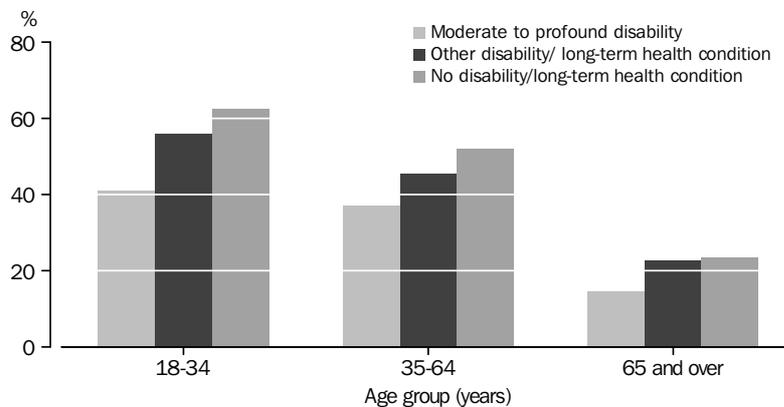


Source: General Social Survey, 2002. Data available on request.

As with sports participation, attendance at sporting events is lower for people with a disability than other members of the population. Less than 40% of those aged 18 years and over with a disability or long-term health condition had attended sporting events in the 12 months prior to 2002, compared to 54% of those without a disability or long-term health condition. The lower level of attendance at sporting events associated with having a disability or long-term health condition existed for all age groups.

SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS
OF AREA AND OTHER
CHARACTERISTICS
continued

10.14 ATTENDANCE AT SPORTING EVENTS, By disability and age—2002



Source: General Social Survey, 2002. Data available on request.

Endnote

1. Tonts, M (2005), *Competitive sport and social capital in rural Australia*, Journal of Rural Studies, 21 (2005) pp.137–151.

COMMUNITY SUPPORT: VOLUNTARY WORK AND CARING

INTRODUCTION

The ABS Social Capital Framework, (see *Information Paper: Measuring Social Capital, an Australian Framework and Indicators* (cat. no. 1378.0)), includes 'Community Support' as one of the 'Network Qualities – Common Purpose' framework elements (See Appendix 1). Community support describes the intent that brings people together in organisations or less formal ongoing relationships. Voluntary work is one form of community support.

Volunteers provide unpaid work in the form of time, service or skills through organisations or clubs that provide support to individuals or to the community more generally. Voluntary work ranges from direct personal care services to fundraising for medical research to being on a school board to organising meetings or events in clubs that promote sport, cultural activities, or any of a diverse range of special interests.

Caring is also included under Community Support. Caring is seen as an ongoing relationship between two individuals characterised by the provision and receipt of care: in some circumstances there is a mutual exchange of support.

Informal caring and volunteering can often be seen to flow from the norm of reciprocity, another Framework element, 'giving back to the community' for support that people feel they have received or would receive if they needed it (for a more detailed discussion of reciprocity, see Topics 6 and 7). In 2000, the most common reason reported for volunteering was to help others, or the community (47% of volunteers). This topic examines voluntary work and informal caring, and factors associated with rates of each in the Australian community. (For more detailed information about sports volunteering, see Topic 10.)

VOLUNTARY WORK

The services provided by volunteers are of both economic and social value. The ABS has estimated that the value of the work contributed by volunteers working in non-profit institutions in 1999-2000 was \$8.9 billion (Endnote 1). Volunteers help to meet community needs and often provide opportunities for social engagement, thereby helping to build networks, shared values and social cohesion.

In 2002, around one-third (34%) of Australians aged 18 years and over had undertaken voluntary work in the previous 12 months, based on results from the ABS General Social Survey. This was a considerable increase from the first Voluntary Work Survey in 1995, where the comparable participation rate was 24%.

SEX AND AGE

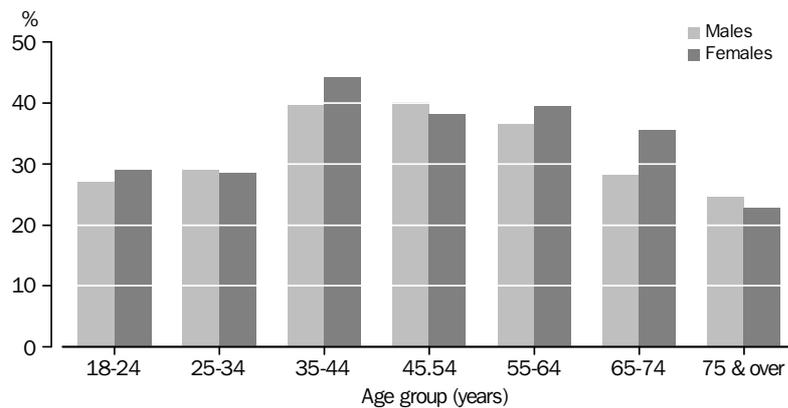
In 2002, the volunteering rate was very similar for men and women (34% of males, and 35% of females). Greater variation was evident with age. Among young people, those in the 18-24 and 25-34 year age groups, the volunteer rate was close to 30%. Sport/recreation/hobby groups were the main types of involvement for these younger

SEX AND AGE *continued*

people. Participation in voluntary work was highest for people aged 35-44 years (42%), an age when many people take on voluntary activities associated with bringing up children. The volunteer rate slowly declined for older age groups, but, except for those aged 75 years and over, remained higher than for those in the 18-34 year age groups.

The age pattern of volunteering was similar for both men and women. However, among men volunteering rates were highest for those in both the 35-44 and 45-54 year age groups, while for women it was highest for those aged 35-44 years.

11.1 VOLUNTARY WORK PARTICIPATION, By Age and Sex—2002

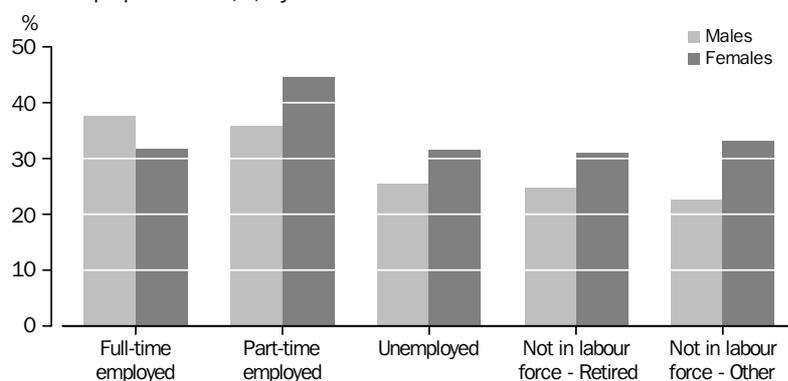


Source: General Social Survey: Summary Results, Australia, 2002 (cat. no. 4159.0).

LABOUR FORCE STATUS
AND EDUCATIONAL
ATTAINMENT

Employed people were more likely to do voluntary work. Men in full-time employment were more commonly volunteers (38%) than those in other labour force status categories. Among women, it was the part-time employed who were most likely to volunteer (45%).

11.2 VOLUNTARY WORK PARTICIPATION, Proportion of population(a) by Labour Force Status—2002



(a) Aged 18 years and over.

Source: General Social Survey, 2002. Data available on request.

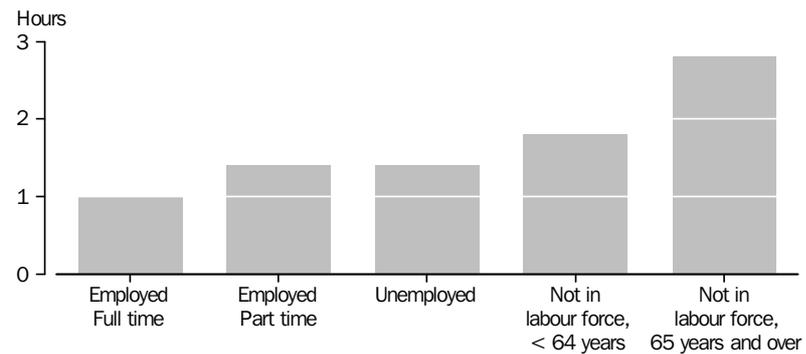
**LABOUR FORCE STATUS
AND EDUCATIONAL
ATTAINMENT** *continued*

People with higher levels of education had higher rates of volunteering: 49% of those with a degree or higher qualification volunteered, compared to 35% of those with other post-school qualifications, 33% of those whose highest qualification was 'completed year 12' and 28% of those who did not complete Year 12. Current students also had a high volunteer rate, 40%, particularly part-time students (45%). In keeping with the findings about educational qualifications, people in professional occupations (51%) showed the greatest propensity to volunteer, followed by managers and administrators (43%) and associate professionals (40%).

The proportion of people doing voluntary work is not the only useful measure of involvement. The amount of time volunteers contribute to their voluntary work provides another indicator of community support. In 2000, full-time employed people who volunteered gave a median weekly time of one hour to voluntary work, based on results from the ABS Voluntary Work Survey. The median weekly hours volunteered by part-time employed and unemployed people was 1.4 hours a week, and by those not in the labour force 2.1 hours a week. Total annual hours of voluntary work for full-time employed people were slightly lower, 261 million hours, than the 265 million hours provided by people not in the labour force. The lower absolute numbers of people who were part-time employed and unemployed yielded 154 million and 24 million annual hours respectively from volunteers from these groups.

Compared with 1995, median weekly volunteer hours in 2000 had decreased for full-time employed volunteers from 1.3 hours to one hour. Part-time employed and unemployed volunteers contributed similar median weekly hours in both years, and those not in the labour force had increased the time they gave from 1.7 to 2.1 hours (Endnote 2).

11.3 MEDIAN WEEKLY HOURS OF VOLUNTARY WORK(a), Labour Force Status—2000



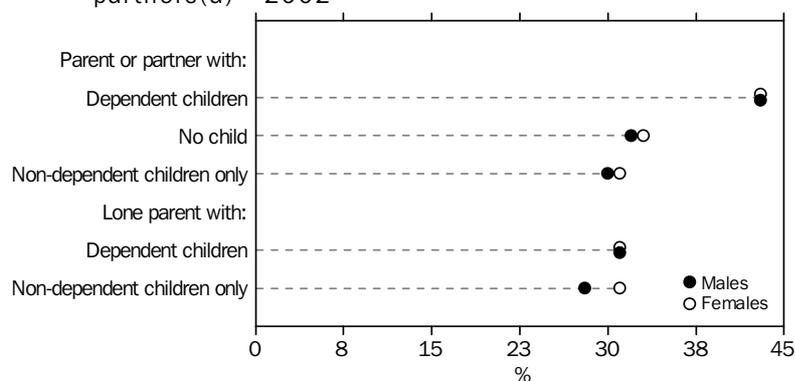
(a) By volunteers aged 18 years and over.

Source: Voluntary Work Survey 2000. Data available on request.

PARENTS OF DEPENDENT CHILDREN IN COUPLE FAMILIES

Mothers and fathers of dependent children in couple families had high volunteer rates (both 43%), compared to partners in other types of couple families, or with lone parents. They contribute to the higher volunteering rates for the 35-54 year age groups. Partnered mothers with dependent children were the most likely to be working part time (see Topic 12), and so contributed to the higher volunteering rate for part-time employed women. The types of organisations these parents are most involved in are consistent with the most common types of volunteer involvement for the 35-44 age group – sport/recreation for men (48%), and education/training/youth development for women (50%).

11.4 VOLUNTARY WORK PARTICIPATION, Parents and partners(a)—2002

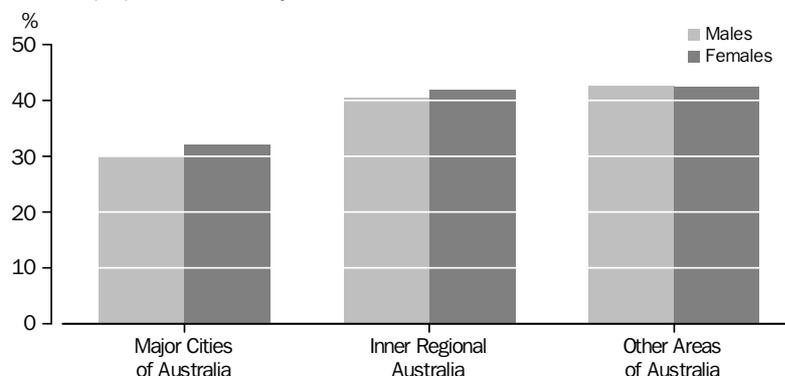


(a) Aged 18 years and over.
Source: General Social Survey, 2002. Data available on request.

REMOTENESS AREAS AND STATES AND TERRITORIES

People in major cities had a considerably lower rate of participation in voluntary work (31%) compared with those in inner regional areas (41%) and other areas of Australia (43%). There was little difference in the volunteer rates between men and women in each area.

11.5 VOLUNTARY WORK PARTICIPATION, Proportion of population(a) by remoteness areas and sex—2002



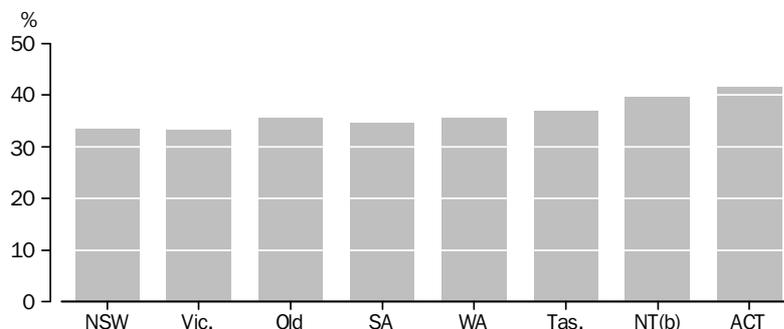
(a) Aged 18 years and over.
Source: General Social Survey: Summary Results, Australia, 2002 (cat. no. 4159.0).

REMOTENESS AREAS AND STATES AND TERRITORIES
continued

In all remoteness areas people volunteered most commonly in sport, recreation and hobby clubs, followed by welfare/community organisations. In all areas men were more likely to volunteer for sports, recreation and hobby clubs than women, and women more likely than men to volunteer for welfare/community organisations. However, where 13% of men in major cities of Australia gave their time, service or skills to sport, recreation and hobby groups, the proportion was 20% in inner regional Australia, and 21% in the more remote areas. Likewise, where 11% of women volunteered for welfare/community groups in the major cities area, 16% were involved in inner regional Australia, and 17% in the areas further out. While lower, women's voluntary work in the recreation groups and men's in the welfare/community groups increased outside the Major cities areas. Other types of organisations where women's involvement noticeably increased with remoteness were religious, from 8% in major cities to 12% in areas beyond inner regional Australia, and education/training/youth development, from 9% to 12%. For men, there was a notable difference in emergency services: 1% volunteering in major cities of Australia, 5% in inner regional Australia, and 7% in the other areas.

In the states and territories, rates of participation in voluntary work ranged from 33% in Victoria and New South Wales to 41% in the Australian Capital Territory. Many factors combine to contribute to these differences, such as the age structure, employment status, level of education and proportion of population living outside the major cities.

11.6 VOLUNTEER RATES(a), States and Territories—2002



(a) Voluntary work participants expressed as a per cent of persons aged 18 years and over in each state/territory.
(b) Refers mainly to urban areas.

Source: General Social Survey, Summary of Results, 2002, Australia (cat. no. 4159.0).

RELIGIOUS PARTICIPATION

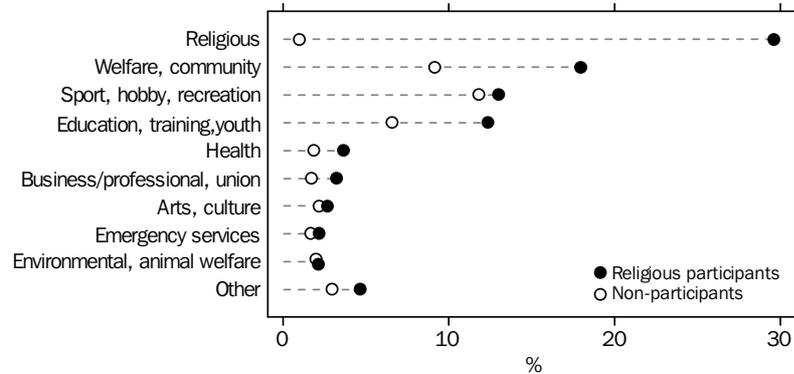
Volunteering is strongly associated with religious participation. In 2002, 23% of the Australian population had participated in church or religious activities in the previous 3 months. Of this group, 52% had undertaken voluntary work for an organisation in the previous 12 months, compared to 29% of those who had not participated in church or religious activities. Participants in religious activities constituted 35% of volunteers.

Many religious groups have established their own non-profit organisations providing community services and advocating various social values and perspectives. However, while heavily involved in welfare or religious organisations, it is not only in these that religious participants volunteer – they are more likely than, or as likely as, non-participants to volunteer across the range of other organisation types.

RELIGIOUS PARTICIPATION

continued

11.7 VOLUNTEER RATES (a): SELECTED TYPES OF ORGANISATION, Participation in religious activities in previous 3 months—2002

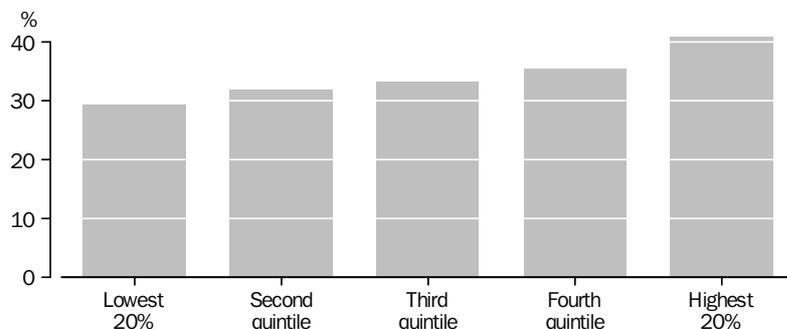


(a) Voluntary participants expressed as a per cent of persons aged 18 years and over.
Source: General Social Survey, 2002. Data available on request.

SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS OF AREA

In 2002, people were less likely to participate in voluntary work if they lived in a more disadvantaged area, although more than one in four in these areas volunteered. Those living in the lowest quintile areas, the areas with the greatest level of disadvantage, were least likely to have engaged in voluntary work (29%, compared with 41% of those in the highest quintile areas).

11.8 PARTICIPATION IN VOLUNTARY WORK (a), Socio-economic status of area (b)—2002



(a) Per cent of persons aged 18 years and over in each quintile group.
(b) Person's area of residence ranked according to the 2001 Census based Index of Relative Socio-economic Disadvantage. Greater disadvantage is at the lower end of the scale.
Source: General Social Survey, 2002. Data available on request.

CARING

Volunteering involves providing services to others, through organisations, so that the services may be to individuals not personally known to the volunteer. People also respond directly to relatives, friends and neighbours through unpaid caring and helping. Caring here refers to a response people make to those who need help or supervision on an ongoing basis because of disability or old age. Helping refers to assistance provided to people other than those living in the same household as the help provider, out of friendship, neighbourliness or a sense of reciprocity. The combined value of unpaid volunteering, caring and helping in 1997 was estimated to be \$24 billion (Endnote 3).

CARING *continued*

(See Topic 6: Reciprocity, Access to and provision of support, for a discussion of helping).

Being a carer for a person with a disability is a role many people take on at some stage of their lives. Becoming an unpaid carer for protracted periods of time is usually a response to a situation that arises, often unexpectedly. For example, a child may be born with a disability, or develop a disabling illness, requiring an extra level of care from parents. An adult may have a disabling accident or stroke at any age, or be affected by the degenerative diseases of old age, and require care from his/her partner or children. Many people provide care to their parents in older age. Care is more common within the family, but friends and neighbours also provide care to those needing help because of disability.

In 2003, 2.3 million out of the 3.8 million people of all ages with a disability (excluding those people who were living in cared accommodation) were in need of assistance with at least one of the basic or common activities of daily living, based on results from the 2003 ABS Survey of Disability, Ageing and Carers. Most of these received assistance, 85% receiving it from family and/or friends and 57% from organised service providers; but there were 5% reporting assistance needs who did not receive any care. Among the more than a million people with a disability that constituted a profound or severe core-activity limitation, 95% received assistance from family and/or friends and 61% from formal providers; 2% received no assistance at all (Endnote 4).

In response, in 2003, 2.5 million people in Australia, 13% of the population, were providing unpaid care to people with a disability. Among these were 475,000 primary carers, 2% of people aged 15 years and over, taking on the main caring role overall for someone with a profound or severe disability. This more intensive kind of care is concentrated within families - 42% were caring for their partners, 26% for their parents and 23% for their children. The remaining 9%, 44,600 people, were caring for other relatives or friends. Most carers were providing assistance and supervision to someone within their own home. However, 22% were caring for a person living somewhere else.

Primary carers sometimes find that the demands of their caring role has an effect on their relationships, sometimes positive and sometimes negative. In 2003, for a substantial proportion of carers (37%), caring provided an opportunity to develop a closer relationship with the person they were caring for. There were 19% of primary carers, though, who found that the caring role placed a strain on their relationship with the recipient. Their relationship with the care recipient was perceived by 46% of primary carers as unaffected.

An intensive caring role has possible effects on the carer's other relationships as well. Where a primary carer reported having a partner who was not the care recipient, 46% considered that their relationship had not been affected, 13% felt that caring had brought them closer together but 21% felt that it had strained their relationship. The remaining 20% thought that although their relationship had been neither strengthened nor strained, it had been affected by the loss of time to spend together. Similarly, of primary carers who had other family in the household, almost half found that their relationships with other family members were unaffected and 9% felt that they had been brought closer together, but 15% reported strained relationships and 25% that their relationships had been affected by less time together or in other ways.

CARING *continued*

11.9 MAIN EFFECT OF CARING ROLE ON RELATIONSHIPS OF PRIMARY CARER—2003

	Main care recipient	Partner, if not main care recipient	Other family in household
EFFECT OF CARING ROLE (%)			
Brought closer together	36.6	13.2	9.3
Relationship strained	18.9	20.7	14.5
Loss of time together/affected in other way(a)	. .	20.3	24.9
Relationship unaffected	44.6	45.8	49.3
Total reporting effect	100.0	100.0	100.0

	PERSONS ('000)		
Number reporting effect	443.1	175.2	267.3
No relevant relationship	. .	265.5	173.0
Total primary carers(b)	474.6	474.6	474.6

. . not applicable

- (a) "Affected in other way" not collected in respect of main care recipient or partners; for other family in household, this response contributed one percentage point to the combined category.
- (b) Includes non-response. Primary carers were asked to complete an additional self-enumeration form about their attitude to and experience of the caring role. Due to the sensitive nature of some of the questions, completion of the form was not compulsory. Data from this source has a proportion of 'Not stated' responses.

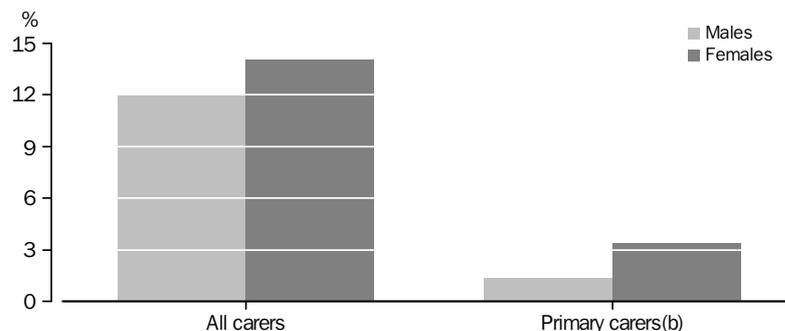
Source: *Disability, Ageing and Carers, Australia: Caring in the Community, Tables 1-16, 2003 (cat. no. 4430.0.55.003)*

Outside the home, while 59% of responding primary carers in 2003 found their friendships unaffected, 4% felt their network of friends was increased, 12% that it had changed, but 25% felt they were losing touch with their friends.

SEX AND AGE

In 2003 14% of females and 12% of males were carers. However, women were more than twice as likely to be a primary carer as men (3.4% of all women were primary carers, compared to 1.4% of men).

11.10 CARER RATE(a), By Sex—2003



- (a) Carers as a per cent of persons of all ages not living in cared accommodation.
- (b) Primary carers only include persons aged 15 years and over for whom a personal interview was conducted. Persons aged 15 to 17 years were only interviewed if parents granted permission.

Source: *Disability, Ageing and Carers, Australia, 2003 (cat. no. 4430.0)*.

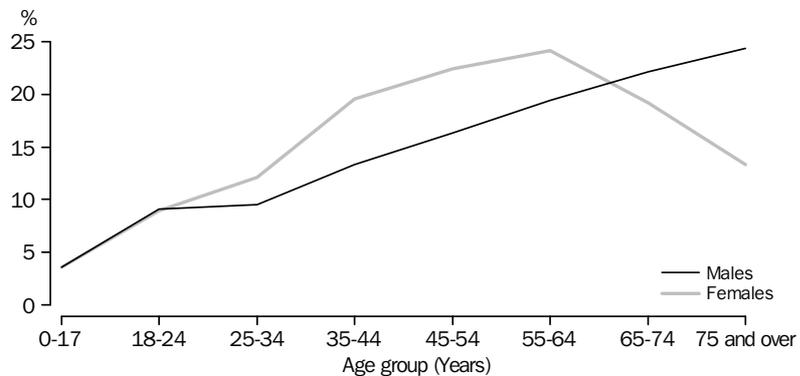
SEX AND AGE *continued*

People in the 35-64 year age groups were more likely to be carers because of their multiple roles and relationships. They might be caring for a child, partner, parent, or other relative, friend or neighbour.

For children and youth, the likelihood of caring was the same for both sexes. Among men, the caring rate increased steadily with age from 25-34 years onwards, including in the later years of life. As young and mature adults, women were more likely than men to care for others. There remains some gender division on types of assistance. For example, for recipients aged 60 and over (except for partner care) personal care and assistance with cognition/emotion tasks, housework, meal preparation and transport are more likely to be provided by women while men were more prominent in house and grounds maintenance (Endnote 4).

From the age of 65 onwards the rate of caring among women decreased sharply, while men were increasingly likely to be carers, most commonly for their partners. With increasing age, a progressively higher proportion of women in private dwellings living alone without partners, because of lower life expectancy among men. In 2003, in the 75 years and over age group, there were 1.5 women to every man. Partner care is the most common care relationship in later life, and where the only care recipient is the partner, the death of the partner brings the caring role to an end.

11.11 CARER RATE(a), Age and Sex—2003



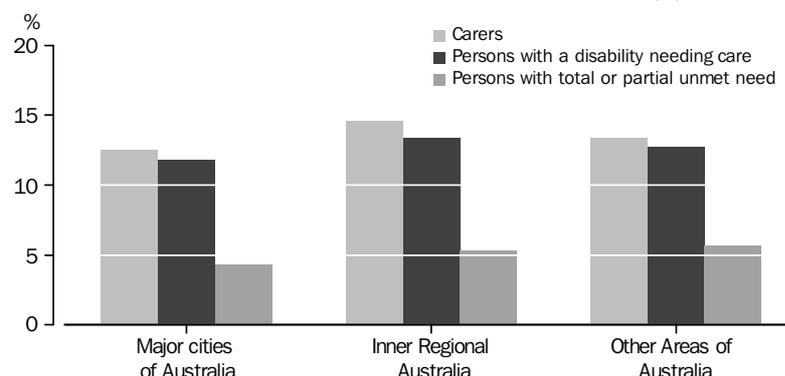
(a) Carers expressed as a per cent of persons of all ages not living in cared accommodation.
 Source: *Disability, Ageing and Carers, Summary of Findings, Australia, 2003 (cat. no. 4430.0)*.

REMOTENESS AREAS AND STATES AND TERRITORIES

People living in inner regional Australia were more likely to be carers (15%) than the inhabitants of major cities of Australia and the more remote areas (both 13%). Across all areas, the proportion of people who were carers was closely related to the proportion of people with a disability who needed care. Nonetheless, there also remained around a 5% level of reported unmet need across all areas. More than 85% of this was partial unmet need, that is, people received some assistance, but not with all the tasks for which they needed help.

RE MOTENESS AREAS AND STATES AND TERRITORIES
continued

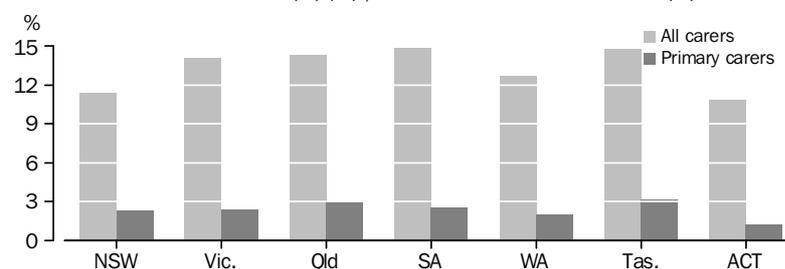
11.12 CARERS AND THE NEED FOR ASSISTANCE(a)—2003



(a) As proportions of persons of all ages in area, excluding persons living in cared accommodation. Source: Survey of Disability, Ageing and Carers, 2003. Data available on request.

As caring is a response to need, and disability increases with ageing, some of the variations in the carer rate between states and territories relates to the proportion of older people in their populations. The higher carer rates in South Australia and Tasmania and the lower rate in the Australian Capital Territory are influenced by their respective age structures.

11.13 CARER RATES(a)(b), States and Territories(c)—2003



(a) Carers as a proportion of persons of all ages in each state or territory, excluding persons living in cared accommodation. (b) Primary carers only include persons 15 years and over for whom a personal interview was conducted. Persons aged 15 to 17 years were only interviewed with permission of parents. (c) Data not available for the Northern Territory.

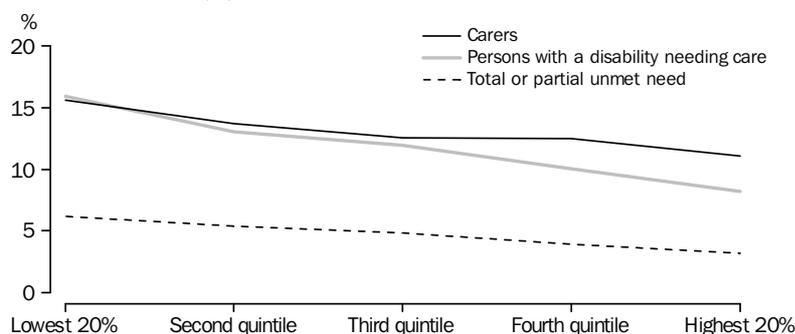
Source: Disability, Ageing and Carers, Summary of Findings, Australia, (cat.no 4430.0).

SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS OF AREA

The carer rates in areas of different socio-economic status appear to contrast with the pattern of volunteering across these areas. In 2003, people were progressively less likely to be carers as the socio-economic status of the area in which they lived increased. This reflected the progressively lower proportions of people with a disability needing care in the less disadvantaged areas. Comparison of the proportion of carers and persons needing care across areas shows that there was a higher ratio of carers available for persons needing care in areas with lower levels of disadvantage. This is further reflected in the lower proportions of people with a disability who reported unmet need for assistance in areas with higher socio-economic status.

SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS
OF AREA *continued*

11.14 CARERS AND NEED FOR CARE(a), By Socio-economic status of area(b)—2003



(a) As a per cent of all persons in quintile range, excluding persons living in cared accomodation.

(b) Person's area of residence ranked according to the 2001 Census based Index of Relative Socio-economic Disadvantage. Greater disadvantage is at the lower end of the scale.

Source: Survey of Disability, Ageing and Carers, 2003. Data available on request.

ENDNOTES

1. Australian Bureau of Statistics, *Australian National Accounts: Non-Profit Institutions Satellite Account, 1999-2000*, 2002, cat. no. 5256.0, ABS: Canberra. Around five out of six volunteer involvements, i.e. work through a particular organisation, are with non-profit institutions serving households. The rest are mainly with government organisations such as schools or national or state parks, galleries, museums, botanical gardens etc. The method of imputing the value of wages to volunteers is discussed in the above publication.
2. Australian Bureau of Statistics, *Voluntary Work, Australia, 2000*, cat. no. 4441.0, ABS: Canberra.
3. Australian Bureau of Statistics, *Unpaid Work and the Australian Economy*, 1997, cat. no. 5240.0, ABS: Canberra.
4. Australian Bureau of Statistics, *Disability, Ageing and Carers: Summary of Findings, Australia*, 2003, cat. no. 4430.0, ABS: Canberra.

INTRODUCTION

Coming together for the purpose of work and doing business is a common way in which links are created between people: whether as traders and customers in shops or other businesses; joining a producer or consumer cooperative; by looking for work or getting a job in a business or other type of organisation; or by joining professional associations, trade unions or other work-related organisations. Workplace relationships may also facilitate the development of friendships, acquaintances and contact with broader sources of information through encounters with a wide range of people as colleagues, clients and other work associates (Endnote 1). Putnam (2000) notes the importance of the workplace in providing opportunities to work collaboratively and cooperatively in teams, to build a sense of community among co-workers, as a source of friendship, and a place to build and share norms and mutual help (Endnote 2).

Social networks are drawn upon in looking for work. Stone, Gray and Hughes (2003) have suggested that family and friends may be relied on as sources of job search information by people who have limited involvement in or access to paid work, whereas professional contacts are more likely to be utilised by individuals already in paid work. On the other hand, while employment may increase the number of connections that a person has, unemployment, in particular long-term unemployment, can lead to a decline of the social networks an individual has, and may lead in some cases to social exclusion (Endnote 3)(See Topics 6, 9 and 13).

This topic relates to the Network Qualities: Common Purpose - Economic Participation element of the Social Capital framework, see *Information Paper: Measuring Social Capital, an Australian Framework and Indicators, 2004* (cat. no. 1378.0) and Appendix 1). It examines contacting friends or relatives as a method of job seeking, and participation in the paid work force and its impacts on various types of relationships. This topic also considers membership in work-related associations.

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

In February 2006, 65% of the adult civilian population in Australia were participating in the labour force, either working or looking for work. During the period from June 1985 to June 2005, the total number of people in the labour force in Australia increased by 45% to 10.5 million people, with an increase in the participation rate from 61% to 65%. The increase is largely associated with the increasing proportion of women entering the labour force over this period (rising from 46% to 57% of women aged 15 years and over), more than compensating for the small decline in men's labour force participation over the same period, falling from 76% to 72%.

UNEMPLOYMENT

Job seeking involves utilising and making connections with various networks within the community. Family and friends may have work to offer, know about jobs that may be available or have wider contacts that they can ask about available jobs. In 2005, 22% of persons who had started their job in the previous 12 months had contacted friends or relatives as one of their approaches to finding work (Endnote 4).

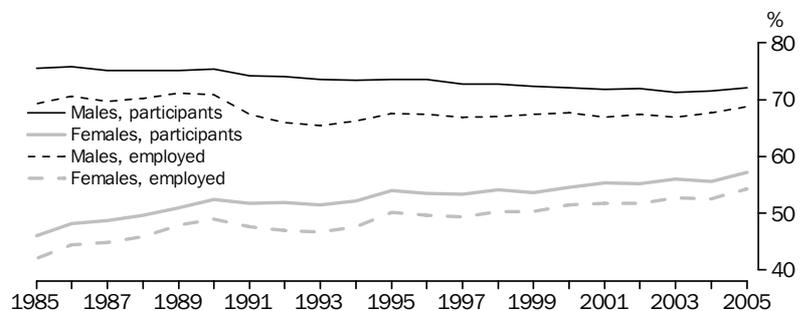
However, the most commonly reported step taken to find work by unemployed people in 2005 was 'wrote, phoned or applied in person to an employer for work' (87%). By registering with Centrelink, the Job Search Network and other agencies, jobseekers are able to connect with employers. During 2005, around 54% of unemployed people stated that they had 'registered with Centrelink as a jobseeker' while at the same time 49% stated they had 'registered with a Job Network employment agency' (Endnote 4). These agencies also provide opportunities for job seekers to form other networks through training programs and other related programs.

EMPLOYMENT

From 1985 to 1990, the employment to population ratio for men fluctuated between 69% and 71%, part of a longer term decrease from around 75% in the late 1970s. This was followed by a rapid drop in the ratio to 65% over the three years to 1993, then a slow but reasonably steady recovery to 69% again in 2005. The employment to population ratio relates the net increase in employed persons to changes in the population. These past 20 years have seen the movement of the last of the baby boomer generation into employment, and some through to retirement; it has also seen an increase in the life expectancy of men, swelling the proportion of age retirees in the civilian population.

For women the story was different. Against a background of a relatively low level of employment, the employment to population ratio has been steadily rising, from 42% in 1985 to 54% in 2005. The employment to population ratio was affected for women by the economic downturn from 1991 to 1994, but less severely than for men. The increase in women's employment over the last 20 years reflects, in part, their increasing educational attainment, a change in normative expectations in the broader society about women's longer-term participation in employment, and a decline in the size of families.

12.1 LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES (a) AND EMPLOYMENT TO POPULATION RATIOS (b), By sex—1985-2005(c)



(a) Persons who were unemployed or employed expressed as a per cent of persons aged 15 years and over.
 (b) Employed persons expressed as a per cent of persons aged 15 years and over.
 (c) As at June each year.

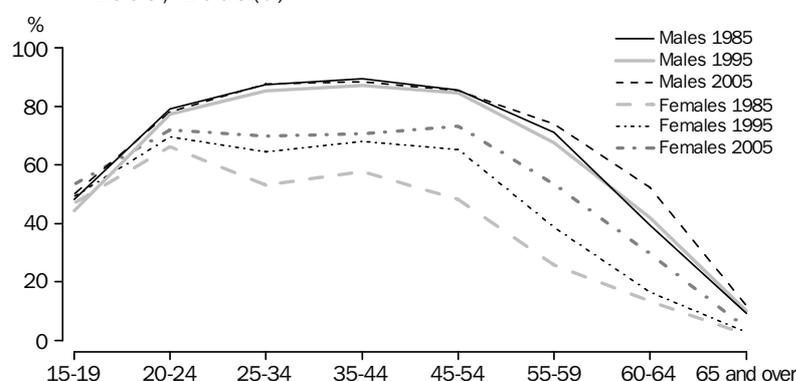
Source: Labour Force, Australia, Detailed-Electronic Delivery, May 2006, (cat. no. 6291.0.55.001)

EMPLOYMENT *continued*

In 2005, the level of employment for 15-19 year old males, 50%, was relatively low as many were still at school. The proportion of 20-24 year-olds employed was much higher, at 78%. The employment to population ratio for the 25-34 years to the 45-54 years age groups was higher still, between 89% and 85%, but was lower for the 55-59 year age group (74%), and dropped substantially for the older age groups. This pattern has been very consistent since 1985, although there was a somewhat higher employment to population ratio for 60-64 year-old men in 2005.

Involvement in employment for women shows a different pattern across age groups, peaking in the 20-24 year age group and again at a later age, with a lower rate in the intervening years reflecting the child-bearing and early rearing years. The pattern has changed more over time than for men, with employment ratios for all age groups between 25-34 years and 60-64 years being substantially higher in 2005 than in 1985. These changes are consistent with a greater commitment to paid work by women, a lower birth rate, and an increasingly older age at first birth. Between 1995 and 2004, the total fertility rate remained steady at close to 1.8 births per woman; over this period, births to mothers aged under 20 years decreased from 5% to 4% of all births while births to mothers aged 35 years and over rose from 14% to 20% of all births. The median age of mothers at first birth increased from 26.9 years in 1995 to 28.0 years in 2003. An increasing proportion of mothers giving birth at age 35 years or older were giving birth for the first time, 26% in 2003 compared with 21% in 1995 (Endnote 5).

12.2 EMPLOYMENT TO POPULATION RATIOS, By Age and Sex—1985, 1995, 2005(a)



(a) As at June each year.

Source: Labour Force, Australia, Detailed - Electronic Delivery, Apr 2006, (cat. no. 6291.0.55.001)

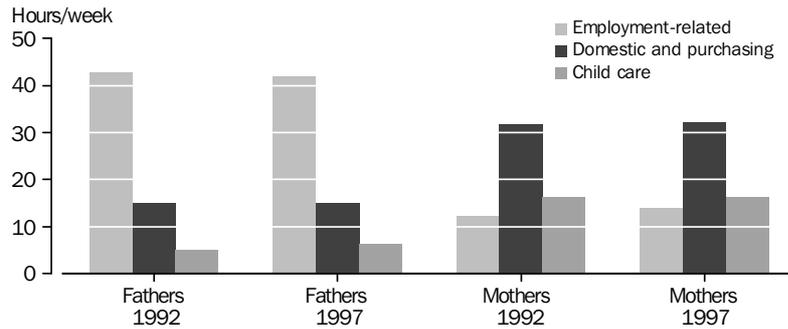
This ongoing increase in women's participation in paid work is part of a broader pattern of underlying change affecting men as well as women. Changes in the traditional roles of full-time employment for the male partner and child care and household responsibilities for the female partner have implications for relationships within households and also for wider social relationships.

Within households, some of the issues for relationships are the roles of partners in managing the household work and also time spent with children. Data from the ABS Time Use Surveys show that, between 1992 and 1997, among all parents with children aged 0-14 years, fathers decreased and mothers increased the average amount of time they spent on paid work and associated travel by an hour and an hour and three quarters

EMPLOYMENT *continued*

respectively; fathers increased and mothers did not change the time they spent on child care; and time spent on household work barely changed. Employed mothers spent much less time than mothers who were not employed on child care, but the difference was mainly in physical care, rather than in more interactive relationships (Endnote 6).

12.3 TIME SPENT ON EMPLOYMENT (a) AND UNPAID HOUSEHOLD WORK ACTIVITIES (b), By fathers and mothers (c)—1992 and 1997



(a) Employment-related activities including travel to and from work.
 (b) As their main, not secondary, activity at any time of the day.
 (c) Of children aged 0-14 years.

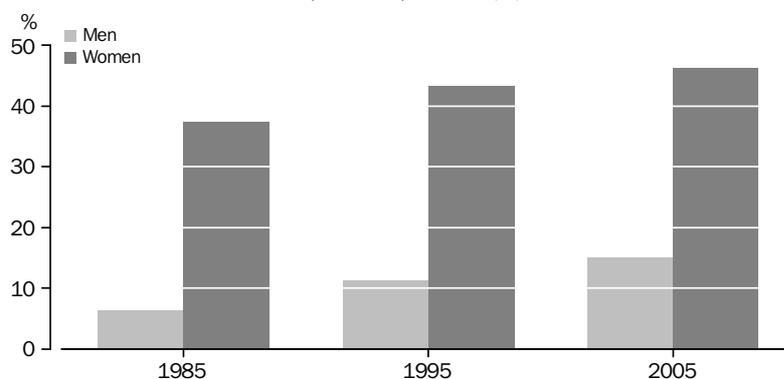
Source: Time Use Surveys, 1992 and 1997. Data available on request.

Increased levels of female paid employment are likely to impact on wider social relationships through the development of different types of networks in workplaces and work-related interest groups. A higher proportion of women working outside the home may also lessen neighbourhood community life, with the potential for greater isolation for others, such as new residents, frail aged people and new mothers.

Part-time work is one way people balance paid work and home and community commitments. For example, women in the 35-44 year age group who were employed part-time had a relatively high participation rate in voluntary work in 2002, commonly in or through education/youth development organisations and community/welfare organisations (Endnote 7) (See Topic 11). Employment in part-time work has been increasing over the past 20 years, both by women and men.

EMPLOYMENT *continued*

12.4 PART-TIME EMPLOYED AS PROPORTION OF ALL EMPLOYED PERSONS—1985, 1995, 2005(a)

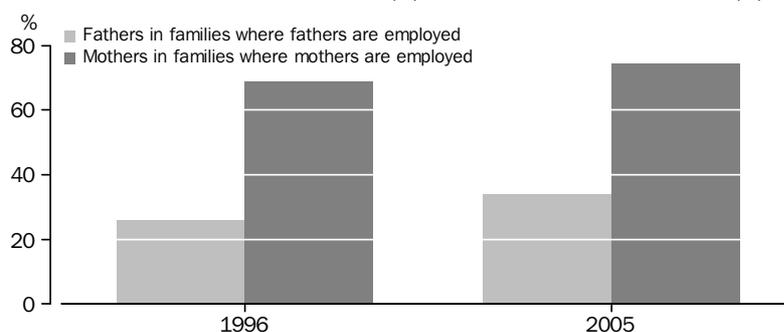


(a) As at June each year.

Source: *Labour Force, Australia, Detailed - Electronic Delivery, Apr 2006, (cat. no. 6291.0.55.001)*

The greater presence of women in the workplace has been associated with changing relationships in the workplace, including expectations about how to manage the balance between employment and other responsibilities. Conditions in the workplace are adapting to support a range of caring needs, for men as well as women, both on an emergency and more regular basis. Examples of adaptations are the emergence of carer leave and parental leave and the increase in part-time work arrangements. Use of work arrangements to care for children has increased for both fathers and mothers over the last ten years.

12.5 WORK ARRANGEMENTS (a) USED FOR CHILD CARE (b)



(a) Working arrangements include flexible working hours, permanent part-time work, shiftwork, work at home, job sharing and other arrangements.

(b) By families with children aged 0-11 years.

Source: *Child Care, 2005 (cat. no. 4402.0).*

WORK-RELATED ASSOCIATIONS

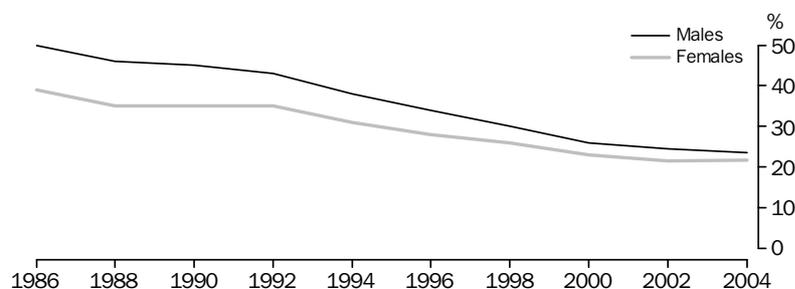
Active membership of work-related associations is one way that people in employment extend social networks and participate in establishing their conditions of work. More passive membership, however, also provides financial and moral support to organisations, assisting them to continue to carry out their roles. Few data are available for other work-related organisations such as business and professional associations, but there has been a history of collecting data on trade union membership. Trade union membership experienced growth during much of the 20th century, peaking at 61% in 1962 (Endnote 8). Membership has fallen substantially from 46% in 1986 to 31% in 1996,

WORK-RELATED ASSOCIATIONS
continued

with a continuing decline to 25% in 2000, stabilising over recent years to 22% in 2005. It remains to be seen whether the decline in trade union membership is part of a general decline in civic activity, or whether civic activity in this arena is evolving into new forms that are less centrally organised, more focused on local conditions in individual workplaces and reflecting changing relationships between employees and their employers.

A trade union member is an employee with membership in a trade union in conjunction with his/her main job. Public sector employees are more likely to be trade union members (47%) than private sector employees (17%), but both sectors have shown a decrease over this same period from 71% and 34% in 1986 respectively. Membership rates remained higher in 2005 among full-time employees (25%) than part-time employees (17%).

12.6 TRADE UNION MEMBERSHIP RATES (a)



(a) Trade union membership relating to main job as a proportion of employees within a population group. People who did not know their trade union membership status are included in total employees.

Source: *Employee Earnings, Benefits and Trade Union Membership, Australia, Aug 2000-2005*, (cat. no. 6310.0); *Trade Union Statistics, Australia, Jun 1996* (cat. no. 6323.0).

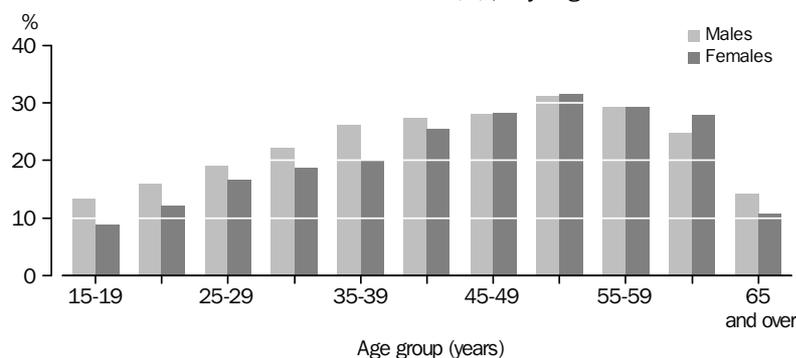
AGE AND SEX

The proportion of employed men who were members of a trade union remained around 24% in the period 2002 to 2005, while during the same period union membership for employed women decreased slightly from 22% in 2002 to 21% in 2005. This contrasts with membership rates of 50% and 39% in 1986.

In 2005, men were more likely to be trade union members than women in all age groups from 15 to 44 years. From 45 to 64 years, however, the differences diminished in some age groups and in others were higher for women than for men.

AGE AND SEX *continued*

12.7 TRADE UNION MEMBERSHIP (a), By Age and Sex—2005



(a) Trade union membership relating to main job as a proportion of employees within a population group. People who did not know their trade union membership status are included in totals.
 Source: *Employee Earnings, Benefits and Trade Union Membership, 2005* (cat. no. 6310.0).

In 2002, around 2% of employed people volunteered for roles in business or professional associations or unions. Most of these were employees, and the involvement was therefore likely to be in a trade union or professional association. Men (2%) were more likely than women (1%) to be participating in this way (Endnote 7).

ENDNOTES

1. Australian Bureau of Statistics, *Information Paper: Measuring Social Capital, an Australian Framework and Indicators, 2004*, cat. no.1378.0, ABS: Canberra.
2. Putnam cited in Australian Bureau of Statistics, *Information Paper: Measuring Social Capital, an Australian Framework and Indicators, 2004*, cat. no.1378.0, ABS: Canberra p.63.
3. Stone, W, Gray, M, Hughes, J, (2003), *Social Capital at Work: how family, friends and civic ties relate to labour market outcomes*, Research Paper 31, Australian Institute of Family Studies, Melbourne, pp.8, 23.
4. Australian Bureau of Statistics, *Job Search Experience, 2005*, cat. no. 6222.0, ABS: Canberra
5. Australia Bureau of Statistics, *Australian Social Trends, 2006*, cat. no. 4102.0, ABS: Canberra
6. Bittman, M., L. Craig, and Folbre, N. (2004), 'Packaging care: What happens when parents utilise non-parental child care', in Bittman M. and Folbre N. (ed), *Family Time: The Social Organisation of Care*, London and New York: Routledge
7. Australian Bureau of Statistics, *General Social Survey, 2002*, cat. no. 4159.0, ABS: Canberra.
8. Australian Bureau of Statistics, *Year Book, 2003*, cat. no.1301.0, ABS: Canberra. Estimates of union membership prior to 1985 are indicative, and should not be compared to later estimates.

INTRODUCTION

The level and type of contact an individual has with other people is influenced by their need for interaction, the method of communication used for contact and by how close to them relatives and friends are living. It is widely suggested that contact with others is important in providing individuals with identity, social roles and social support mechanisms. While not all individuals seek social support, and relationships are not always positive, where there are well-functioning networks the positive effects of social connections are well known, which may include increased happiness, health and longevity (Endnote 1). Various studies have been conducted showing that, at a population level, isolated people or those disconnected from others are at an increased risk of dying prematurely (Endnote 2).

This topic focuses on interactions within informal networks - family, friends, and the people individuals encounter in daily life, such as neighbours, work colleagues and acquaintances. It relates to the Network Frequency/Intensity and Communication Mode elements in the Network Structure domain of the ABS Social Capital Framework, see *Information Paper: Measuring Social Capital, an Australian Framework and Indicators* (cat. no. 1378.0) (See Appendix 1). Two complementary indicators of interaction are presented. The first focuses on the proportions of people who have had recent contact with family and friends, the second on the duration of time spent socialising with family, friends and other acquaintances, or conversely, the time spent alone. The respective indicators come from different ABS social surveys conducted in different years. One advantage of the duration of time spent with others indicators is that they are available from successive ABS time use surveys, conducted in 1992 and 1997 which, while now both somewhat dated, help to show changing patterns of social interaction.

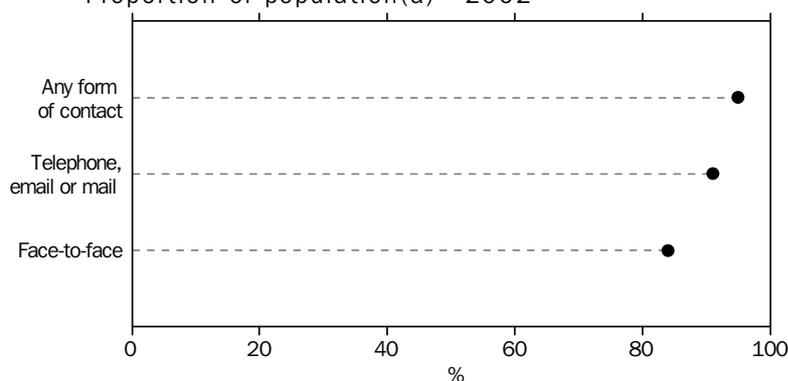
RECENT CONTACT WITH FAMILY AND FRIENDS

One relatively straightforward indicator of a person's social integration is whether or not they have had recent contact with family and friends. It might be expected that people who have not had recent contact, particularly if living alone, would have lower levels of social attachment and be more likely to experience loneliness and disadvantage in other aspects of their lives.

In 2002 the majority of Australians, 95% of the population aged 18 years and over, had some form of contact in the previous week with family or friends that were not living with them, based on data collected in the ABS General Social Survey. Having such recent contact on a face-to-face basis (84%) was not so common as by the use of the telephone, e-mail or mail (91%).

RECENT CONTACT WITH
FAMILY AND FRIENDS
continued

13.1 CONTACT WITH FAMILY AND FRIENDS IN PREVIOUS WEEK,
Proportion of population (a)—2002



(a) Aged 18 years and over.

Source: General Social Survey, 2002. Data available on request.

SEX AND AGE

In 2002, the proportions of men (95%) and women (96%) who had had contact with family and friends in the previous week were much the same. Having had recent face-to-face contact was a little more common for women (the proportions were 85% and 83% for women and men respectively) and women were also a little more likely to have had recent telephone, mail or other forms of contact with family and friends (92% of women had had such contact in the previous week compared with 89% of men).

Differences by age were also small although the proportions who had had recent contact with family and friends were slightly higher for those in the 25-34 year age group, and those in the 55-64 year age group than for those in other age groups.

SEX AND AGE *continued*

13.2 PROPORTION WHO HAD CONTACT WITH FAMILY AND FRIENDS IN PREVIOUS WEEK(a)—2002

	18-24 years	25-34 years	35-44 years	45-54 years	55-64 years	65-74 years	75 years and over	Total
FACE-TO-FACE CONTACT (%)								
Males	86.3	84.2	82.9	78.0	83.7	80.9	82.1	82.6
Females	83.4	86.8	84.0	82.7	86.9	88.1	83.9	85.0
Total	84.8	85.5	83.5	80.3	85.3	84.6	83.2	83.8
OTHER FORMS OF CONTACT (%)								
Males	90.2	89.9	89.2	87.7	89.3	85.8	83.2	88.6
Females	92.9	93.6	92.4	90.9	93.7	92.8	90.1	92.5
Total	91.5	91.8	90.8	89.3	91.5	89.5	87.1	90.5
ANY FORM OF CONTACT (%)								
Males	95.6	96.1	95.0	94.0	95.8	92.8	92.7	94.9
Females	94.7	97.1	95.4	95.8	96.8	96.2	95.4	96.0
Total	95.1	96.6	95.2	94.9	96.3	94.6	94.3	95.4
ALL PERSONS (%)								
Males	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Females	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
ALL PERSONS ('000)								
Males	969	1 455	1 460	1 323	951	619	401	7 177
Females	936	1 452	1 473	1 322	933	663	547	7 327
Total	1 905	2 907	2 933	2 645	1 884	1 282	948	14 503

(a) Living elsewhere.

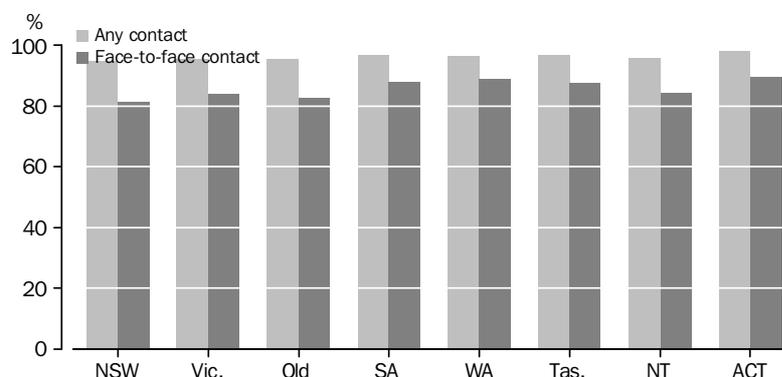
Source: General Social Survey, 2002.

STATES/TERRITORIES and
REMOTENESS AREAS

In 2002, 95% of people aged 18 years and over in New South Wales, Victoria and Queensland had had some form of contact with family and friends within the previous week and this proportion increased in the other states and territories up to 98% for those in the Australian Capital Territory. People in the Australian Capital Territory, along with those in Western Australia, were also the most likely to have had recent face-to-face contact with family or friends (both 89%). People living in New South Wales, on other hand, were the least likely to have had recent face-to-face contact (81%).

STATES/TERRITORIES and
REMOTENESS AREAS
continued

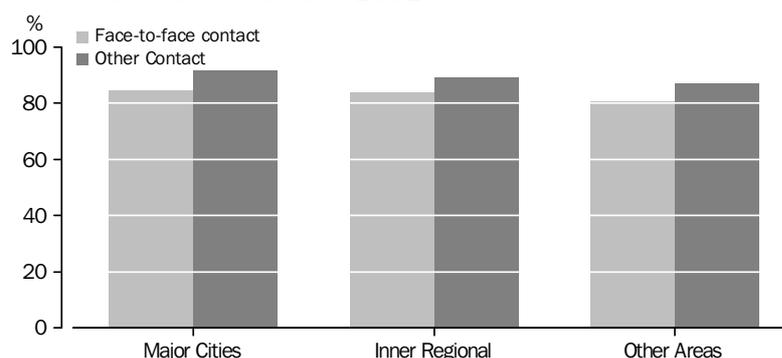
13.3 CONTACT WITH FAMILY AND FRIENDS IN PREVIOUS WEEK(a), States and Territories—2002



(a) Persons aged 18 years and over.
Source: General Social Survey, 2002. Data available on request.

The differences in proportions of people having contact with family and friends across remoteness areas were small even when considering direct face-to face contact. For those living in the more closely populated major city regions, 84% had had recent face-to-face contact with family and friends and the proportions for those living in inner regional Australia and the other more remote areas were 84% and 81% respectively. Living in a remote area does not appear to be a major inhibitor for spending time with friends or relatives. However, depending on community size it may be that the number of acquaintances one might have will be fewer than for those living in less remote areas.

13.4 CONTACT WITH FAMILY OR FRIENDS(a) IN PREVIOUS WEEK(b), Remoteness areas—2002



(a) Living elsewhere.
(b) Persons aged 18 years and over.
Source: General Social Survey, 2002. Data available on request.

SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS
AND OTHER PERSONAL
CIRCUMSTANCES

Interacting with family or friends at least once a week is something that most people do whatever their life circumstances. However, small but noticeable differences in the proportions of people who have had recent contact among selected population sub-groups generally support the view that those in more disadvantaged groups are less likely to have such interactions than those in less disadvantaged groups.

**SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS
AND OTHER PERSONAL
CIRCUMSTANCES**
continued

For example, in 2002 unemployed people and those in the lowest income households (that is, households with an equivalised gross household income in the lowest quintile of the distribution) had a somewhat lower likelihood of having had contact in the previous week (92% and 93% respectively) than the norm. Similarly those in the areas that were in the lowest quintile of disadvantage were slightly less likely to have had contact in the previous week (94%) than those in the highest quintile of disadvantage (96%). People with poor self-assessed health (90%) and those with core activity limitations, that is, ongoing difficulty with communication, mobility and/or self-care activities (91%), were also among population sub-groups that were less likely to have had recent contact with family or friends. Lone parents with dependent children were just as likely as partnered parents to have had recent contact with family or friends.

Contact with family and friends in the previous week was similar for people born in Australia (96%) to those born in the main English-speaking countries (95%) and those born in other countries (94%). Among recent immigrants from a country other than a main English speaking country (that is, those who had arrived in Australia within the previous five years), 93% had contact with family and friends outside their own household in the previous week.

13.5 CONTACT IN PREVIOUS WEEK WITH FAMILY OR FRIENDS LIVING ELSEWHERE, By selected characteristics—2002

	%		%
Labour force status		Socio-economic status of area(b)	
Employed full-time	96.4	Highest quintile	96.4
Employed part-time	96.0	Lowest quintile	93.9
Unemployed	92.1	Parents of dependent children(c)	
Disability, under 65 years		Partner in couple	95.8
No disability/long-term health condition	96.3	Lone parent	96.3
No specific limitation or restriction(a)	96.1	Country of birth	
Has core activity limitation	91.2	Australia	95.9
Equivalised gross household income		Main English-speaking country	94.6
Highest quintile	97.0	Other country	94.1
Lowest quintile	92.9	Other country	
Self-assessed health status		Proficient in spoken English	94.2
Excellent	96.6	Not proficient in spoken English	93.7
Poor	90.1	Arrived within previous 5 years	92.7

(a) Includes core activity limitation and restriction in schooling or employment.

(b) Person's area of residence ranked according to the 2001 Census-based Index of Relative Socio-economic Disadvantage. Greater disadvantage is at the lower end of the scale.

(c) Households may also contain non-dependent children but do not contain any other persons. Selected person may be a child 18 years or over.

Source: General Social Survey, 2002.

**TIME WITH OTHERS AND
TIME ALONE**

Measures associated with the amount of time people spend with relatives, friends and other people provide another view of levels of social interaction. In 1997, Australians aged 15 years and over spent an average of 80% of their waking time interacting with other people, or at least being in a situation where other people were close by (for instance, elsewhere in the home, or with strangers on a bus or in a shop). For 20% of their waking time they were completely alone.

TIME WITH OTHERS AND
TIME ALONE *continued*

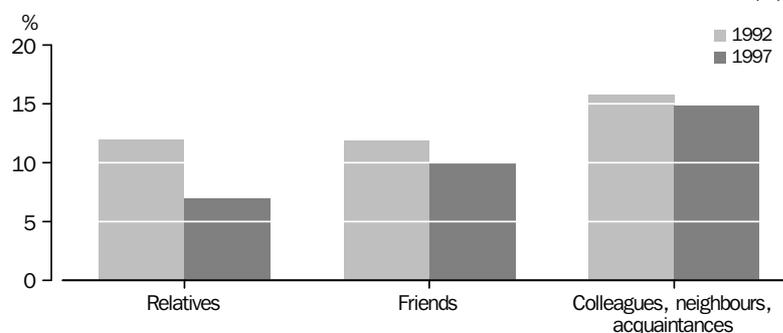
Between 1992 and 1997, the ABS Time Use Surveys show the average proportion of waking time per week spent alone increased from 17% to 20%. This increase was partly due to the increasing tendency for people to live alone (see Topic 9). However, spending more time alone was more common whether one lived alone or not. For those living alone, the proportion of waking time per week spent alone increased from 62% to 65% between 1992 and 1997. Over the same period, the proportion of waking time spent alone for those who lived with others increased from 12% to 14%.

LESS TIME WITH
RELATIVES AND FRIENDS

Most people live together with one or more other family members. For people aged 15 years and over in family households in 1997, the average share of their waking time spent with co-resident family members was 61%. This measure included the time spent with family members in and around the home, including time doing unrelated activities not in direct contact with each other, as well as time spent together away from the home. This had not changed from the share of time spent with co-resident family members in 1992.

In contrast, spending time with relatives and friends who live elsewhere are both types of social interaction which declined when measured as duration of time spent together. In 1997, the average share of waking time spent with relatives living in other households (that is, for all persons including those not currently living with other family members) was 7%, down from 12% in 1992. The average share of waking time spent with (non-co-resident) friends was 10%, also down from 12%. The decrease in contact time was greater for relatives than for friends.

13.6 PROPORTION OF TIME AWAKE SPENT WITH OTHERS (a) (b)



(a) Not living in the same household.
(b) Time spent with others may include people in different relationships simultaneously and therefore proportions cannot be added.

Source: Time Use Survey, 1992 and 1997. Data available on request.

While time spent with both family and friends who lived in other households decreased between 1992 and 1997, people continued to spend much the same time with people they would tend to meet in the street, shops, neighbourhood or workplaces, namely work colleagues, neighbours and acquaintances. The proportion of waking time spent with colleagues, neighbours and acquaintances was 16% in 1992 and 15% in 1997.

LESS TIME WITH
RELATIVES AND FRIENDS
continued

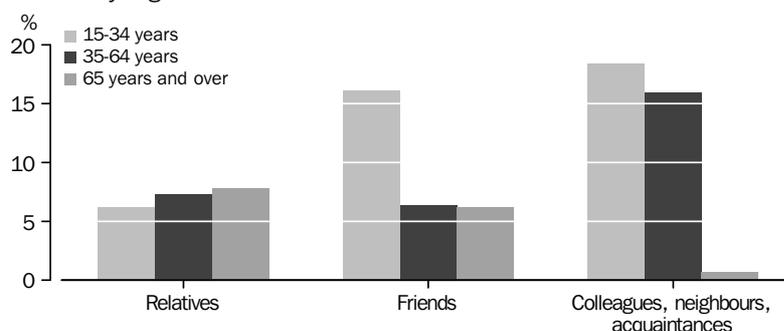
The changing patterns of social interaction may have been influenced by changes in time dedicated to various work and leisure activities. However, the increased use of communication technologies such as mobile phones, emails and web-based chat rooms may also have helped extend interaction as people substitute these more convenient and wider-reaching forms of contact for time spent together.

SEX AND AGE

The amount of time people spend in social interaction with relatives, friends and others varies by both sex and age. In 1997, the share of waking time spent with non-co-resident relatives was 8% for women and 6% for men. In contrast, women spent less time with friends, 9% of waking time for women compared to 11% for men. Men also spent substantially more time with other people such as work colleagues, neighbours and other such acquaintances, 19% and 11% for men and women respectively. The relatively large difference in time spent with 'colleagues, neighbours and acquaintances' between men and women largely reflected the greater tendency for men to work in full-time jobs.

In regard to age, the time spent with relatives living in other households was similar for younger and older people, around an average of 7% of waking time in 1997, when classified into broad age groups. However, young people spent much more time with friends than older people do. For those aged 15-34 years, 16% of time was spent with friends living elsewhere whereas for those aged 35 to 64 years and those aged 65 years and over the proportion was 6% in each case. As might be expected adults in the main working ages, those aged 15 to 64 years, were more likely to spend time with 'colleagues, neighbours and acquaintances', than those aged 65 years and over.

13.7 PROPORTION OF TIME AWAKE SPENT WITH OTHERS (a) (b),
By age—1997



(a) Not living in the same household.
(b) Time spent with others may include people in different relationships simultaneously. Therefore, proportions are not additive.

Source: *Time Use Survey, 1997. Data available on request.*

On the whole, the 1997 Time Use Survey showed that older people were alone for more of their waking time than those in younger age groups. People in the 65 year and over age group spent 33% of their time alone, compared to 20% for those aged 35-64 years and 15% for people in the 15-34 year age group. These general age-related differences are in large part associated with the sub-groups of people in each age group living alone and the increased levels of social isolation that occurs with increasing age. Younger people (aged 15-34 years) living alone spent 50% of their waking time alone in 1997. For those aged 35-64 years, 60% of waking time was solitary and, for seniors (those aged 65

SEX AND AGE *continued*

years and over) living alone, the share of waking time spent alone was 79%. Given that older people who lived with others spent 11% of time alone (this being much the same time as for people in younger age groups) the change to living alone that may be experienced as a result of separating from one's partner or due to a partner's death would be a change sharply experienced.

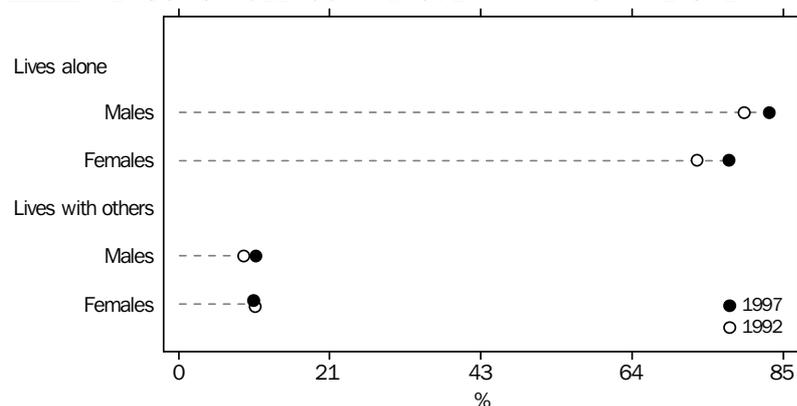
13.8 PROPORTION OF WAKING TIME SPENT ALONE

Age group	1992			1997		
	Lives alone %	Lives with others %	Total %	Lives alone %	Lives with others %	Total %
15-34 years	39.1	11.0	12.1	49.7	12.8	14.9
35-64 years	56.0	14.3	17.2	59.7	15.1	19.9
65 years and over	74.7	10.0	29.3	79.0	10.7	32.7
All persons	61.5	12.4	16.8	65.0	13.7	19.7

Source: Time Use Surveys 1992 and 1997.

The proportion of time older people living alone spent alone increased between 1992 and 1997. A similar increase occurred for both men and women aged 65 and over living alone but there was little change for men and none for women in this age group who lived with others.

13.9 PERSONS AGED 65 AND OVER: WAKING TIME SPENT ALONE



Source: Time Use Surveys 1997 and 2002. Data available on request.

ENDNOTES

1. Stone, W. (2003) Ageing, Social Capital and Social Support: Submission by the Australian Institute of Family Studies to the House of Representatives Committee on Ageing, AIFS: Melbourne.
2. Berkman, L.F., & Glass, T. (2000) 'Social Integration, Social Networks, Social Support, and Health' In Lisa. T. Berkman and Ichiro Kawachi (eds) *Social Epidemiology*, Oxford University Press: New York. pp 137 - 173.

The following table provides a list of elements from the *Information Paper: Measuring Social Capital, an Australian Framework and Indicators (cat. no. 1378.0)* and indicates those for which data are presented in this publication.



A1.1 SOCIAL CAPITAL: AN AUSTRALIAN FRAMEWORK (a)

Framework elements and indicators

Addressed in this publication in Topic:

1. NETWORK QUALITIES

1.1 Norms

1.1.1.1 Trust and trustworthiness	
1.1.1.1.1 Generalised trust	
1.1.1.1.2 Informal trust	
1.1.1.1.3 Institutional trust	
1.1.1.1.4 Generalised trustworthiness	
1.1.1.1.5 Feelings of safety using public transport	
1.1.1.1.6 Feelings of safety walking in the street alone after dark	
1.1.1.1.7 Feelings of safety alone at home after dark	5. Trust: Feelings of safety
1.1.2 Reciprocity	
1.1.2.1 Perception of reciprocity in the community	6. Reciprocity: Access to and provision of support
1.1.2.2 Donating time or money	7. Reciprocity: Giving
1.1.2.3 Attitude towards contributing to the community	
1.1.3 Sense of efficacy	
1.1.3.1 Perceptions of community efficacy	
1.1.3.2 Sense of personal efficacy in the community	
1.1.3.3 Personal/ community efficacy	
1.1.3.4 Efficacy in local decision making	
1.1.3.5 Perception of Efficacy	
1.1.4 Cooperation	
1.1.4.1 Co-operation in conservation of water resources and electricity	8. Cooperation: Conservation practices
1.1.4.2 Support for community events	
1.1.4.3 Attitude toward community decision-making capacity	
1.1.4.4 Attitude to social and civic co-operation	
1.1.5 Acceptance of diversity and inclusiveness	
1.1.5.1 Acceptance of different lifestyles	
1.1.5.2 Support for cultural diversity	
1.1.5.3 Group diversity	3. Cultural diversity
1.1.5.4 Expressions of negative behaviours toward cultural diversity	
1.1.5.5 Perception of change in negative attitudes toward cultural diversity	
1.1.5.6 Attitude toward the practice of linguistic diversity	
1.2 Common purpose	
1.2.1 Social participation	
1.2.1.1 Participation in social activities	9. Social Participation: Social activities and attendance at cultural venues
1.2.1.2 Barriers to social participation	9. Social Participation: Social activities and attendance at cultural venues
1.2.1.3 Membership of clubs, organisations or associations for social participation	
1.2.1.4 Active involvement in clubs, organisations or associations	9. Social Participation: Social activities and attendance at cultural venues
1.2.1.5 Number of clubs, organisations or associations active in	
1.2.1.6 Religious affiliation	3. Cultural Diversity
1.2.1.7 Religious attendance	9. Social Participation: Social activities and attendance at cultural venues
1.2.1.8 Duration of religious attendance	

(a) Australian Bureau of Statistics, Information Paper: Measuring Social Capital, an Australian Framework and Indicators, 2004 (cat. no. 1378.0), ABS: Canberra.

A1.1 SOCIAL CAPITAL: AN AUSTRALIAN FRAMEWORK(a) *continued*

Framework elements and indicators

Addressed in this publication in Topic:

1. NETWORK QUALITIES *cont.*

1.2 Common purpose *cont.*

1.2.2 Civic participation

- 1.2.2.1 Level of civic participation
- 1.2.2.2 Time spent on community participation activities
- 1.2.2.3 Membership in clubs, organisations or associations for civic participation
- 1.2.2.4 Active involvement in clubs, organisations or associations
- 1.2.2.5 Number of groups active in
- 1.2.2.6 Involvement in a committee
- 1.2.2.7 Barriers to civic participation
- 1.2.2.8 Level of involvement with groups, clubs and organisations
- 1.2.2.9 Knowledge of current affairs and news.
- 1.2.2.10 Trade union membership
- 1.2.2.11 Voting
- 1.2.2.12 Representativeness of government
- 1.2.2.13 Membership of political parties
- 1.2.2.14 Naturalisation of citizens

- 11. Community support: Voluntary work and caring
- 10. Social participation: Sport and Physical Recreation

- 12. Economic participation

1.2.3 Community support

- 1.2.3.1 Providing help outside the household
- 1.2.3.2 Providing help in the household
- 1.2.3.3 Participation in voluntary work
- 1.2.3.4 Frequency of voluntary work
- 1.2.3.5 Annual hours spent on voluntary work
- 1.2.3.6 Personal donations to any organisation or charity
- 1.2.3.7 Business donations to any organisation or charity
- 1.2.3.8 Membership in clubs, organisations or associations

- 11. Community support: Voluntary work and caring
- 7. Reciprocity: Giving
- 7. Reciprocity: Giving

1.2.4 Friendship

- 1.2.4.1 Number of close relatives (i.e. relatives as close friends)
- 1.2.4.2 Number of close friends
- 1.2.4.3 Number of other friendships
- 1.2.4.4 Satisfaction with friendships

1.2.5 Economic participation

- 1.2.5.1 Labour force participation rate
- 1.2.5.2 Previous work colleagues in current social networks
- 1.2.5.3 Trust in work colleagues
- 1.2.5.4 Friends and relatives as sources of finance and business information
- 1.2.5.5 Use of local shops and other local businesses
- 1.2.5.6 Membership and participation in unions, professional or technical associations
- 1.2.5.7 Membership of co-operatives
- 1.2.5.8 Membership of bartering organisations

- 12. Common purpose: Economic participation
- 12. Common purpose: Economic participation
- 12. Common purpose: Economic participation

(a) Australian Bureau of Statistics, Information Paper: Measuring Social Capital, an Australian Framework and Indicators, 2004 (cat. no. 1378.0), ABS: Canberra.

A1.1 SOCIAL CAPITAL: AN AUSTRALIAN FRAMEWORK(a) *continued*

Framework elements and indicators

Addressed in this publication in Topic:

2 NETWORK STRUCTURE

2.1 Network size

- 2.1.1 Source of support in a crisis
- 2.1.2 Close relatives or friends who live nearby
- 2.1.3 Acquaintance with neighbours
- 2.1.4 Links to institutions

6. Reciprocity: Access to and provision of support

2.2 Network frequency, intensity and communication mode

- 2.2.1 Frequency of face-to-face contact with relatives
- 2.2.2 Frequency of face-to-face contact with friends
- 2.2.3 Frequency of telephone contact with relatives
- 2.2.4 Frequency of telephone contact with friends
- 2.2.5 Frequency of email/Internet contact with relatives
- 2.2.6 Frequency of email/Internet contact with friends
- 2.2.7 Frequency of other forms of communication with relatives
- 2.2.8 Frequency of other forms of communication with friends
- 2.2.9 Communication through Internet chat rooms

13. Network structure: Frequency, intensity and mode of contact

13. Network structure: Frequency, intensity and mode of contact

13. Network structure: Frequency, intensity and mode of contact

13. Network structure: Frequency, intensity and mode of contact

2.3 Density and Openess

- 2.3.1 Nature of informal networks - family and friends
- 2.3.2 Nature of informal networks - friends
- 2.3.3 Density of formal networks

2.4 Transience/mobility

- 2.4.1 Length of residence in current locality
- 2.4.2 Geographic mobility
- 2.4.3 Changes in intensity of involvement with organisations
- 2.4.4 Change in intensity of involvement with organisation in which most active
- 2.4.5 Duration of involvement with organisation in which most active
- 2.4.6 Experiences in social, civic and community support activities as a child/youth
- 2.4.7 Child/youth background - parent's voluntary work
- 2.4.8 Child/youth background - type of area of residence
- 2.4.9 Geographic mobility as a child/youth

4. Residential Mobility

4. Residential Mobility

2.5 Power relationships

- 2.5.1 Contact with organisations
- 2.5.2 Perception of access to public services and facilities
- 2.5.3 Personal sense of efficacy
- 2.5.4 Mentoring

3. NETWORK TRANSACTIONS

3.1 Sharing support

- 3.1.1 Physical/financial assistance, Emotional support and Encouragement
 - 3.1.1.1 Provision of support
 - 3.1.1.2 Receipt of support
 - 3.1.1.3 Provision of help to work colleague
 - 3.1.1.4 Expectation of help from a work colleague
 - 3.1.1.5 Capacity to seek support (also Reciprocity)

11. Community support: Voluntary work and caring

6. Reciprocity: Access to and provision of support

(a) Australian Bureau of Statistics, Information Paper: Measuring Social Capital, an Australian Framework and Indicators, 2004 (cat. no. 1378.0), ABS: Canberra.

A1.1 SOCIAL CAPITAL: AN AUSTRALIAN FRAMEWORK(a) *continued*

Framework elements and indicators

Addressed in this publication in Topic:

3. NETWORK TRANSACTIONS *cont.*

3.1 Sharing support *cont.*

3.1.2 Integration into the community

3.1.2.1 Provision and use of community facilities

3.1.2.2 Attendance at community events

10. Social participation: Sport and Physical Recreation

3.1.2.3 Sense of belonging to an ethnic or cultural group, State or Territory and Australia

3.1.2.4 Perception of friendliness of community

3.1.2.5 Extent of acquaintance and friendship networks in local area

3.1.3 Common action

3.1.3.1 Taking action with others to solve local problems

3.1.3.2 Participation in the development of a new service in local area

3.1.3.3 Group participation for social or political reform

3.2 Sharing knowledge, information and introductions

3.2.1 Use of Internet to contact government

3.2.2 Friends and relatives as sources of job search information

12. Economic participation

3.2.3 Job search methods

12. Economic participation

3.2.4 Source of information to make life decision

3.3 Negotiation

3.3.1 Resolving conflict through discussion

3.3.2 Confidence in mechanisms for dealing with conflict

3.3.3 Willingness to seek mediation

3.3.4 Dealing with local problems

3.4 Applying sanctions

3.4.1 Perception of willingness to intervene in antisocial behaviour

3.4.2 Willingness to allow behaviour against norms

4. NETWORK TYPES

4.1 Bonding

4.1.1 Group homogeneity

4.1.2 Density of formal networks

4.2 Bridging

4.2.1 Group diversity

4.2.2 Density of formal networks

4.2.3 Openness of local community

4.2.4 Low bridging

4.3 Linking

4.3.1 Links to institutions

4.4 Isolation

4.4.1 Lack of activity in groups

4.4.2 Feelings of social isolation

13: Network structure: Frequency, intensity and mode of contact

(a) Australian Bureau of Statistics, Information Paper: Measuring Social Capital, an Australian Framework and Indicators, 2004 (cat. no. 1378.0), ABS: Canberra.

A2.1 STATE/TERRITORY SUMMARY

	Year	NSW	Vic.	Qld.	SA	WA	Tas.	NT	ACT	Aust.	
1. Median age	Years	2004	36.6	36.5	35.7	38.5	35.8	38.4	30.6	34.1	36.4
2. Population living in major cities of Australia	%	2004	71.5	73.4	52.7	70.6	71.8	99.8	66.3
3. Lone person households	%	2001	23.9	24.4	23.8	28.0	24.7	27.7	21.3	23.8	24.5
4. Born overseas	%	2001	24.8	24.6	18.0	21.2	28.5	10.5	15.6	22.6	23.1
5. Usually speaks a language other than English at home	%	2001	19.8	20.7	7.2	12.0	11.6	3.0	24.6	13.9	16.0
6. Has a religious affiliation	%	2001	79.4	72.8	75.2	69.0	69.7	72.3	67.2	70.6	74.7
7. Lived at a different address as one year previously	%	2001	18.1	16.3	22.7	16.4	20.4	18.1	24.0	20.7	18.7
8. Lived at a different address as five years previously	%	2001	44.5	41.7	51.1	40.0	48.7	40.9	51.3	47.8	45.1
9. Felt unsafe at home alone after dark	%	2002	7.4	8.6	8.7	9.5	10.5	7.4	10.1	6.5	8.4
10. Felt unsafe at home alone during the day	%	2002	3.0	2.4	3.0	3.8	4.3	2.2	3.6	1.6	3.0
11. Could ask for support in time of crisis from persons living outside the household	%	2002	93.2	93.4	94.8	95.3	95.0	96.0	94.1	96.5	94.0
12. Could ask for small favours from persons living outside the household	%	2002	92.4	92.2	94.3	95.1	95.3	95.3	94.3	95.4	93.3
13. Person and/or partner provide support to other relatives living outside the household	%	2002	27.8	24.6	27.8	28.9	26.5	25.9	22.3	29.8	26.9
14. Made a donation in previous 12 months	%	2000	69.0	76.5	74.9	78.7	79.6	75.6	74.8	83.5	74.2
15. Households connected to Green Power	'000	2005	33.6	78.7	64.6	20.2	1.1	na	na	6.4	204.7
16. Took water conservation practices	%	2004	44.3	55.7	40.8	42.2	46.1	44.0	33.1	51.0	46.5
17. Recycled waste	%	2003	94.5	98.7	94.5	96.8	91.1	95.4	86.8	98.4	95.4
18. Reused waste	%	2003	79.5	81.2	87.9	86.6	83.3	86.8	76.4	88.2	82.8
19. Participated in social activities in the previous three months	%	2002	90.8	91.7	93.9	92.2	94.1	91.1	94.9	97.6	92.2
20. Attended culture/leisure venues within the previous year	%	2002	86.2	89.5	89.3	85.6	91.1	84.3	90.8	95.1	88.2
21. Participated in sport and physical recreation in last 12 months	%	2002	61.3	64.3	62.7	59.4	76.2	62.2	72.5	77.6	64.0
22. Had undertaken voluntary work in the last 12 months	%	2002	33.4	33.3	35.7	34.7	35.6	37.0	39.5	41.4	34.4
23. Cared for a person with a disability	%	2003	11.4	14.1	14.3	14.8	12.7	14.8	na	10.8	13.0
24. Primary carer for person with a disability	%	2003	2.3	2.4	3.0	2.5	2.0	3.1	na	1.2	2.4
25. Had contact with family and friends living outside the household in the previous week	%	2001	94.8	95.4	95.4	96.6	96.4	96.5	95.6	98.0	95.4

.. not applicable

na not available

A2.2 SOURCES FOR A2.1

<i>Data source</i>	<i>Indicators using this source</i>
Estimated Resident Population, 2004	2
<i>Australian Social trends</i> , 2005 (ABS cat. no. 4102.0)	1 & 3
Census of Population and Housing, 2001	4&8
<i>General Social Survey, Summary Results, Australia, 2002</i> (ABS cat.no.4159.0)	9-13, 19, 21, 22-23, 25
<i>Environmental Issues: People's Views and Practices, 2004</i> (ABS cat.no.4602.0)	16
<i>Environmental Issues: People's Views and Practices, 2003</i> (ABS cat.no.4602.0)	17-18
<i>Disability, Ageing and Carers, Australia: Summary of Findings, 2003</i> (ABS cat.no.4430.0)	23-24
<i>Attendance at selected cultural venues and events, Australia, 2002</i> (ABS cat.no.4114.0)	20
Voluntary Work Survey, 2000	14
National Green Power Accreditation Program, 2005	15

GLOSSARY

Actively looking for work Includes writing, telephoning or applying in person to an employer for work, answering an advertisement for a job; checking factory notice boards or the touch screens at the Centrelink offices; being registered with Centrelink as a jobseeker; checking or registering with any other employment agency; advertising or tendering for work; and contacting friends or relatives.

Attendance at cultural venues and events For any group, the attendance rate is calculated by expressing the number of people who attended a venue or event at least once during the year as a percentage of the population aged 18 years and over in the same group.

Refers to the twelve months prior to interview. Specified activities for which data were collected include

- Cinemas
- Botanical gardens
- Zoos and aquaria
- Libraries
- Art galleries
- Popular music concerts
- Museums
- Musicals and operas
- Other performing arts
- Theatre performances
- Dance performances
- Classical music concerts

For definitions of these categories see *Attendance at Selected Cultural Venues and Events, Australia, 2002* (cat. no. 4114.0)

Business to community projects Cooperative arrangements between businesses and non-related community organisations or individuals. Such arrangements involve the voluntary transfer of money, goods or services in exchange for strategic business benefits such as improved staff expertise, wider networking, enhanced community reputation and/or other quantifiable benefits.

Capital City/Balance of State 'Capital City' refers to the Capital City Statistical Division in each State and Territory. The remainder of the State or Territory is the Balance.

For further information regarding Capital City/Balance of State please refer to the *Australian Standard Geographic Classification* (ASGC), (cat. no. 1216.0).

Carer A carer is a person in the household specified as the primary provider of assistance to a person with a disability; or a person who identifies him/herself as the provider of assistance to a person living in another household because of long-term illness or disability.

Child When considered in terms of family relationship and family composition coding a child is defined as a person of any age who is natural, adopted, step or foster son or daughter of a couple or lone parent, usually resident in the same household, and who does not have a child or partner of his/her own usually resident in the same household. Data from the Child Care Survey refers to children aged less than 13 years, unless otherwise specified.

Civilian population aged 15 years and over	All usual residents of Australia aged 15 years and over except members of the permanent defence forces, certain diplomatic personnel of overseas governments customarily excluded from census and estimated population counts, overseas residents in Australia, and members of non-Australian defence forces (and their dependents) stationed in Australia.
Contact with family or friends living outside the household	Refers to face to face contact, or other types of contact such as telephone, mail and e-mail, which a person has had with family or friends who do not live with them. See <i>General Social Survey, Summary Results, Australia, 2002</i> (cat. no. 4159.0)
Couple	Two people in a registered or de facto marriage, who usually live in the same household.
Dependent child(ren)/ Dependants	All persons aged under 15 years; and people aged 15-24 years who are full-time students, have a parent in the household and do not have a partner or child of their own in the household.
Difficulty with transport	Refers to the level of difficulty experienced with getting to places as required. Responses range from 'Can easily get to the places needed', to 'Never go out/house-bound'. See <i>General Social Survey: Data Reference Package</i> (cat. no. 4159.0.55.001)
Disability or long-term health condition	<p>A disability or long-term health condition exists if a limitation, restriction, impairment, disease or disorder, had lasted, or was likely to last for at least six months, and which restricted everyday activities.</p> <p>It is classified by whether or not a person has a specific limitation or restriction. Specific limitation or restriction is further classified by whether the limitation or restriction is a limitation in core activities or a schooling/employment restriction only.</p> <p>There are four levels of core activity limitation (profound, severe, moderate, and mild) which are based on whether a person needs help, has difficulty, or uses aids or equipment with any of the core activities (self care, mobility or communication). A person's overall level of core activity limitation is determined by their highest level of limitation in these activities.</p> <p>The four levels are:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ profound - always needs help/supervision with core activities ■ severe - does not always need help with core activities ■ moderate - has difficulty with core activities ■ mild - uses aids to assist with core activities <p>Persons are classified as having only a schooling/employment restriction if they have no core activity limitation and are aged 18 to 20 years and have difficulties with education, or as less than 65 years and have difficulties with employment.</p> <p>See <i>General Social Survey, Summary Results, Australia, 2002</i> (cat. no. 4159.0)</p>
Donations (Business)	Unconditional voluntary transfers of money, goods or services to non-related community organisations or individuals. The underlying motivation behind donations is to show support, not receive a benefit.
Donations (Personal)	A voluntary transfer of funds made in the proceeding 12 months by a person, on an individual not a business basis. The donor should not have received any benefit in return. Excludes purchases of goods and raffle tickets but includes door-knocks and sponsoring walkathons etc.
Donor rate	For any group, the donor rate is the number of people in that group who made monetary donations in the previous 12 months expressed as a percentage of the total population in the same group. For more information see <i>Voluntary Work, Australia, 2000</i> (cat. no. 4441.0)
Employed	All persons aged 15 years and over who usually worked one hour or more a week, and during the reference week:

Employed <i>continued</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ worked 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 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.
Employment population ratio	For any group, the number of employed persons expressed as a percentage of the civilian population of the same group. Employment measures are limited to persons aged 15 years and over.
Equivalent gross household income	Gross household income adjusted using an equivalence scale. For a lone person household it is equal to gross household income. For a household comprising more than one person, it is an indicator of the gross household income that would need to be received by a lone person household to enjoy the same level of economic well being as the household in question. For more information see <i>General Social Survey, Summary Results, Australia, 2002</i> (cat. no. 4159.0).
Family	Two or more persons, one of whom is aged 15 years or more, who are related by blood, marriage (registered or de facto), adoption, step or fostering; and who are usually resident in the same household. The basis of family is formed by identifying the presence of a couple relationship, one parent-child relationship or other blood relationship. Some households will, therefore, contain more than one family.
Feelings of safety at home alone	How safe a person feels when alone at home, both during the day and after dark. Feelings are reported on a five point scale, from very safe to very unsafe. If they indicated that they were never home alone this response was recorded.
Full-time workers	Employed persons who usually worked 35 hours or more a week (in all jobs) and those who, although usually working less than 35 hours a week, worked 35 hours or more during the reference period.
Green Power	Green Power generally refers to the electricity generated from renewable energy resources like solar, wind, biomass, wave and tidal power, hydro-electricity, and geothermal. Green Power schemes enable electricity consumers to pay a premium for electricity generated from renewable sources. The scheme has been operating in Australia for the past six years in New South Wales, Queensland, Western Australia, South Australia and the Australian Capital Territory. Accreditation for Green Power is provided by the National Green Power Accreditation Program (NGPAP). For more information see <i>Environmental Issues: People's Views and Practices, 2005</i> (cat. no. 4602.0).
Highest year of school completed	The highest level of primary or secondary education which a person has completed irrespective of the type of institution or location where that education was undertaken.
Household	A group of two or more related or unrelated persons who usually reside in the same private dwelling, or a person living alone in a private dwelling. Households include group households of unrelated persons, same-sex couple households, single-parent households as well as one-person households. A household usually resides in private dwelling (including caravans etc. in caravan parks). Persons usually resident in non-private dwellings, such as hotels, motels, boarding houses, jails and hospitals, are not included in household estimates.
Labour force	For any group, persons who were employed or unemployed, as defined.
Labour force participation rate	The labour force participation rate for any group within the population is the labour force component of that group, expressed as a percentage of the population in that group.
Labour force status	A classification of the civilian population aged 15 years and over into employed, unemployed and not in the labour force, as defined. The definitions conform closely to the international standard definitions adopted by the International Conferences of Labour Statisticians.

Lives with others / Not living alone	'Not living alone' is an aggregation of two categories from the standard household composition classification: 'Unrelated individual in family household' and 'Group household member'.
Lone parent	A person who has no spouse or partner usually resident in the household but who has a parent-child relationship with at least one child usually resident in the household.
Main English-speaking countries	Refers to the main countries from which Australia receives, or has received, significant numbers of overseas settlers who are likely to speak English. These countries comprise the United Kingdom, the Republic of Ireland, New Zealand, Canada, the United States of America and South Africa. Countries are classified to the <i>Standard Australian Classification of Countries</i> , (cat. no. 1269.0).
Non- school qualifications	Non-school qualifications are awarded for educational attainments other than those of pre-primary, primary or secondary education. They include 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 obtained concurrently with school qualifications.
Not in the labour force	Persons who were not in the categories employed or unemployed as defined.
Occupation	An occupation is a collection of jobs that are sufficiently similar in their main tasks to be grouped together for the purposes of classification. Occupation is classified according to the ASCO <i>Australian Standard Classification of Occupations, Second Edition</i> , (cat. no. 1220.0). The occupation assigned to an employed person relates to the person's main job.
Paid work	Refers to the means through which most people obtain the economic resources needed for day to day living, for themselves and their dependants, and to meet their longer term financial needs.
Participation in social activities	Refers to the three months prior to interview. Specified activities for which data were collected include: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Restaurant/cafe/bar ■ Movies/theatre/concert ■ Sporting activities ■ Park/garden/zoo ■ Library/museum/art gallery ■ Church/religious activities ■ Community/special interest groups
Participation in sport and physical recreational activity	Participants comprise those people who physically undertook a sport or physical recreational activity in the previous 12 months, as well as people involved in 'non-playing roles', such as coaches, officials, umpires and administrators. See <i>General Social Survey, Summary Results, Australia, 2002</i> (cat. no. 4159.0).
Part-time workers	Employed persons who usually worked less than 35 hours a week (in all jobs) and either did so during the reference week, or were not at work in the reference week.
Remoteness Areas	<p>Within a state or territory, each Remoteness Area represents an aggregation of non-contiguous geographical areas which share common characteristics of remoteness, determined in the context of Australia as a whole.</p> <p>The delimitation criteria for Remoteness areas are based on the Accessibility/ Remoteness Index of Australia (ARIA) developed by then Commonwealth Department of Health and Aged Care and the National Key Centre for Social Applications of GIS. ARIA measures the remoteness of a point based on the physical road distance to the nearest Urban Centre in each of the five size classes. Therefore, not all Remoteness areas are represented in each state or territory.</p> <p>There are six Remoteness Areas in this structure:</p>

Remoteness Areas *continued*

- Major Cities of Australia: Collection Districts (CDs) with an average ARIA index value of 0 to 0.2.
- Inner Regional Australia: CDs with an average ARIA index value greater than 0.2 and less than or equal to 2.4.
- Outer Regional Australia: CDs with an average ARIA index value greater than 2.4 and less than or equal to 5.92.
- Remote Australia: CDs with an average ARIA index value greater than 5.92 and less than or equal to 10.53.
- Very Remote Australia: CDs with an average ARIA index value greater than 10.53.
- Migratory: composed of off-shore, shipping and migratory CDs.

The major cities category comprises Sydney, Melbourne, Brisbane, Adelaide, Perth, Canberra, Newcastle, Gold Coast-Tweed. Cities and large towns such as Darwin, Hobart, Wollongong, Albury-Wodonga, Cairns, Geelong, Launceston, Ballarat, Bendigo, Rockhampton, and Mackay are included in the inner regional areas.

For further information regarding ABS Remoteness Areas please refer to Chapter 8 in the *Australian Standard Geographic Classification (ASGC)*, (cat. no. 1216.0)

Re-use of waste

Re-use involves using an item more than once, either for its original purpose or for a different purpose. For example: the re-use of containers such as bottles or jars for storage, re-use of old clothes for rags, and re-use of plastic bags for shopping or as garbage bags. See *Environmental Issues: People's Views and Practices, 2003* (cat. no. 4602.0).

Socio-economic status of area

The ABS has developed the Socio-economic Indexes for Areas (SEIFA) from the 2001 Census of Population and Housing using a statistical technique that summarises information from a variety of social and economic variables, calculating weights that will give the best summary for these variables, to produce a single measure, or index, which can be used to rank areas on a broad socio-economic scale. In total, four SEIFA indexes have been produced: the Index of Relative Socio-economic Disadvantage, the Index of Relative Socio-economic Advantage/Disadvantage; the Index of Economic Resources; and the Index of Education and Occupation. Each index is calculated for each area (i.e. census collection districts) with reference to Australia as a whole.

The SEIFA index used in this publication is the Index of Relative Socio-economic Disadvantage. Two types of variables were included in this index: those considered to be core variables representing socio-economic status, and those measuring aspects of disadvantage. Core variables are education, income and occupation, such as the proportion of people aged 15 years and over with a degree or higher qualification, and the proportion of men and women employed as professionals. Aspects of disadvantage relate to (but are not limited to) wealth, living conditions and access to services, such as the number of bedrooms in a dwelling, whether a dwelling is owned or rented, and access to the Internet.

The indexes reflect the socio-economic wellbeing of an area, rather than of individuals. Because all people within a CD are not identical, the index score for a CD does not directly apply to individuals within that CD, but rather it reflects the way that people group together in CDs. Thus it is possible for a relatively disadvantaged person to be resident in a CD with a low score on some or all of the indexes. The CDs have been ordered into 5 groups (quintiles). The lowest quintile represents areas with the greatest socio-economic disadvantage. It is important to understand that a high score on the index reflects a lack of disadvantage rather than high advantage, a subtly different concept.

For more information see *Information Paper: Census of Population and Housing, 2001- Socio-economic Indexes for Areas, Australia* (cat. no. 2039.0) or *Technical Paper: Census of Population and Housing- Socio-economic Indexes for Areas (SEIFA), Australia, 2001* (cat. no. 2039.0.55.001)

Small favours	Assistance which a person may seek from other people, living outside the household, in their day to day lives. Examples of small favours include looking after pets or watering the garden, collecting mail or checking the house, minding a child for a brief period, helping with moving or lifting objects, and borrowing equipment.
Sponsorship	Voluntary transfers of money, goods or services to non-related community organisations or individuals in exchange for advertising or promotional benefits. For more information see <i>Generosity of Australian Businesses</i> (cat. no. 8157.0)
Statistical Local Area (SLA)	The Statistical Local Area (SLA) is an Australian Standard Geographical Classification (ASGC) defined area which consists of one or more Collection Districts (CDs). SLAs are Local Government Areas (LGAs), or parts thereof. Where there is no incorporated body of local government, SLAs are defined to cover the unincorporated areas. SLAs cover, in aggregate, the whole of Australia, without gaps or overlaps. In cities these areas comprise, at a minimum, a small group of suburbs. For more information and a list of the Statistical Local Areas in each State/Territory, refer to <i>Statistical Geography Volume 1: Australian Standard Geographical Classification 2001 (ASGC)</i> (cat. no. 1216.0. Maps are available from ABS Information Consultancy).
Support for other relatives living outside the household	Any of the following types of support provided to relatives other than a person or partners' own child aged 2-24 years living elsewhere, other relatives may include elderly parents, children aged 25 years and over, grandchildren who live outside the household: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ give money to pay rent and/or other housing costs ■ give money to pay bills or meet debt ■ provide or pay for food ■ provide or pay for clothing ■ let them borrow the car ■ drive them places ■ pay for educational costs or textbooks ■ provide pocket money or an allowance ■ buy or give them money to buy big cost items such as a car, computer, sound system, etc. <p>See <i>General Social Survey, Summary Results, Australia, 2002</i> (cat. no. 4159.0)</p>
Support in time of crisis	Refers to whether there is someone outside the person's household that could be asked for support in a time of crisis. Support could be in the form of emotional, physical or financial help. Potential sources of support could be family members, friends, neighbours, work colleagues and various community, government and professional organisations. See <i>General Social Survey, Summary Results, Australia, 2002</i> (cat. no. 4159.0)
Trade Union	A Trade Union is defined as an organisation consisting predominantly of employees, of which the principal activities include the negotiation of rates of pay and conditions of employment for its members. See <i>Employment Earnings, Benefits and Trade Union Membership</i> (cat. no. 6310.0).
Trade Union Member	Employees with membership in a trade union in conjunction with their main job. See <i>Employment Earnings, Benefits and Trade Union Membership</i> (cat. no. 6310.0)
Unemployed	Persons aged 15 years and over who were not employed during the reference week, and: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ 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 reference week and could have started in the reference week if the job had been available then.
Unemployment rate	For any group, the number of unemployed persons expresses as a percentage of the labour force in the same group.

Victim of actual or attempted break-in	A person who had experienced a break-in at any place they had lived in the last 12 months. Break-ins to homes, garages or sheds are included. However break-ins to cars or gardens are excluded.
Victim of physical or threatened violence	A person who in the last 12 months had physical violence used against them or threatened in person to be used against them. It includes violence or threats made by persons known to the person.
Volunteer	A person who willingly gave unpaid help, in the form of time, service or skills, through an organisation or group. See <i>Voluntary Work, Australia, 2000</i> (cat. no. 4441.0).
Voluntary work	The provision of unpaid help in the form of time, service or skills, through any of the following types of organisations or groups: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ sport/recreation/hobby ■ welfare/community ■ health ■ emergency services ■ education/training/youth development ■ religious ■ environmental/animal welfare ■ business/professional/union ■ law/justice/political ■ arts/culture ■ foreign/international (excluding work done overseas) <p>See <i>General Social Survey, Summary Results, Australia, 2002</i> (cat. no. 4159.0).</p>
Waking time	The average time spent by a specified group on all activities other than sleeping.
Water used by households	Refers to any water used for human consumption (such as drinking and cooking), as well as water used by households used for cleaning or outdoors, such as water for gardens and swimming pools. See <i>Water Account, 2000-01</i> , (cat. no. 4610.0).

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